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**UNIVERSITY OF SILESIA
FACULTY OF PHILOLOGY**

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PhD THESIS

**A COMPARATIVE CORPUS ANALYSIS
OF ENGLISH AND POLISH
EQUESTRIAN SPECIALIZED VOCABULARY
CONCERNING DRESSAGE AND HORSE TRAINING**

**SUPERVISOR:
DR HAB. ADAM WOJTASZEK**

SOSNOWIEC 2014

**UNIWERSYTET ŚLĄSKI
WYDZIAŁ FILOLOGICZNY**

**ELEONORA PAWŁOWICZ
6500**

PRACA DOKTORSKA

**PORÓWNAWCZA ANALIZA KORPUSOWA
ANGIELSKIEGO I POLSKIEGO
SPECJALISTYCZNEGO SŁOWNICTWA JEŹDZIECKIEGO
Z ZAKRESU UJEŹDŻENIA I TRENINGU KONI**

**PROMOTOR:
DR HAB. ADAM WOJTASZEK**

SOSNOWIEC 2014

Sport no longer has to be perceived solely as a leisure pursuit or a way of life: it is a significant socio-cultural phenomenon, whose connections with the worlds of politics and economics are plain to see (Lewandowski, 2013: 38).

[The] horse industry is a highly-diverse, national, serious and economically significant industry that deserves the attention of the general public, the media and federal, state and local officials (American Horse Council, n.d.).

Unlike some disciplines, dressage is all about the training . . . Dressage is a systematic way of training both horse and rider to work and move in harmony (Prine-Carr, 2011).

To Him who gave us language and horses

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Introduction

Specialized languages have a history of stirring emotions in linguistics. As stated by Opitz already in 1982,

[if] there is one thing we have learned since we began toying around with the concept of LSP a dozen years ago, it is that LSP possesses an obvious reality in the conduct of everyday linguistic affairs, but that it is a mysteriously evanescent chimera when dragged into the cruel bright light of linguistic science (Opitz, 1982: 185).

I perceive this straightforward declaration as an encouragement for linguists to further examine the fascinating theme of specialized languages, especially those that remain considerably in the dark from the linguistic point of view. I decided to attempt to drag into the light the equestrian specialized language, devoting this dissertation to examining the English and Polish specialized vocabulary of horse training and the closely related Olympic discipline of dressage. This ensures that the linguistic investigation of the underresearched equestrian subject field starts with its fundamental, most universal and most widespread part instead of a niche subfield. Such scope (topic and languages) seems to have no predecessors: the only articles concerning the equestrian specialized vocabulary found in the course of writing this dissertation are BÜthner-Zawadzka (2000) and Stanecka-Tyralska (1969) – selective and inexhaustive works, the latter one additionally being obsolete and containing subject matter mistakes. Still, they deserve credit for raising the topic and inspiring to continue it.

Since it is difficult to make precise assumptions, the general aim of this research is the formal and semantic analysis of terms, first in isolation (as term sets) and then in use (in the corpora). The former stage is expected to reveal the linguistic image of the subject field conveyed by its specialized vocabulary, while the latter shall show if and how the terms are actually used by the subject field community. Thus, the traditional terminological approach of describing isolated vocabulary shall be supplemented with commonly applied modern linguistic methodologies. The research is also expected to verify the authority and relevance of officially published equestrian vocabulary sources, thus constituting an introduction for a future lexicographic project: an English-Polish equestrian dictionary which would replace Baranowski (1989), a pioneering yet obsolete compilation, especially in view of the increasing popularity of horse riding in Poland and worldwide.

The dissertation consists of a theoretical part (chapters 1-4) and a research part (chapters 5-6). Chapter 1 outlines the historical development of specialized language research, while

chapter 2 lists and discusses the contemporary functions of specialized languages. Chapter 3 revolves around the concept of specialized language itself, assessing the numerous terms which linguistics has used to denote it, presenting its status in relation to language in general, defining two related concepts of knowledge and specialists and finally discussing specialized language typologies. Chapter 4 concerns the contemporary specialized language research undertaken by several related disciplines: linguistics, Terminology, teaching, lexicography, translation/interpreting and language planning. Chapter 5 is a direct introduction to this work's research since it discusses the development and contemporary situation of the equestrian subject field. Chapter 6 is the research proper: after outlining the aims, the subject field scope is delineated and the term sets formed; the latter are then characterized and, after forming the corpus, researched in the subject field writing with use of software; the results are analyzed and then summarized, with implications for future projects.

Owing to the abovementioned abundance of terms used with reference to the subject of this work (see section 3.1), the nomenclature applied herein needs to be clarified. I shall use the term *specialized language*, introducing other terms only in order to discuss them and the theories in whose frameworks they appear. Regarding the word 'terminology', which is still burdened with ambiguous usage (see section 4.2), I speak of *Terminology* as a discipline, while *specialized vocabulary* is used instead of *terminology* to denote a set of terms, also in order to maintain analogy with *specialized language*, *specialized linguistics* and *specialized text*. Accordingly, the adjective *terminological* is used in contexts related to Terminology (e.g. 'terminological activity').

1. As old as mankind – a historical overview of specialized languages and their research

First of all, we have to distinguish between the history of formation and use of specialized languages and the history of their scientific inspection (F. Grucza, 2008a; S. Grucza, 2008b; Pytel, 2004). Neither of them has been systematically presented yet and we know very little about the beginnings of specialized language formation as the existing works only discuss modern periods of that history (S. Grucza, 2008b; Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003). Let us summarize the existing knowledge on these matters in order to introduce and comprehend the current situation in specialized language research.

1.1. A history without record – from antiquity to baroque

Specialized languages of ancient Greek, Roman or Hebrew culture remain uncharted territories, let alone those of ancient China and India. Nevertheless, those developed civilizations certainly formed such languages in connection with various areas of practical work (medicine, construction, craft etc.) and then in connection with cognitive work (e.g. ancient Greek philosophy). An important landmark is Plato's dialog *Cratylus* (Geeraerts, 2010; Haßler, 2006; Ullmann, 1972), which may be viewed as the first basic text on specialized vocabulary (Rey, 1995) because it focuses on the phenomenon of naming and the language – world relations. As Pytel (2004) notes, Egyptian constructors of pyramids, Greek constructors of acoustically perfect amphitheatres, Chinese manufacturers of porcelain or Japanese swordsmiths must have been aware of their specialized languages to some extent. The author presents a selection of terms used by sword makers in Japan since antiquity and developed in isolation, as the country had virtually no contact with other cultures until 1854. The traditional methods of sword making and terms being in use to date prove that specialized languages are not a product of modern times, but are as old as the extralinguistic phenomena they describe.

We also know little about the condition of specialized languages in the Middle Ages and Renaissance, except that “the Stoics, Saint Augustine, Saint Anselm, Indian thinkers, Arabic philosophers, grammarians and lexicographers” (Rey, 1995: 11) pondered the language – world – thought relations. In Germany, the roots of specialized languages are said to date back to 14th-century craft protocols and regulations translated from Latin into German. As Grabias (2010) notes, only in the 16th century did the Polish poet Sebastian

Klonowic remark in his poem *Flis*¹ that every professional group had its language, oftentimes secret; he confirmed the existence of the languages of rafters, huntsmen and criminals. Unfortunately, no linguistic material was preserved that would allow us to reconstruct any specialized language of those times. History has only recorded that the turbulent life in the 16th- and 17th-century Poland favored the existence of itinerant groups (i.a. craftsmen, merchants, beggars, artists and criminals); their activities were frequently doubtful or simply illegal, so one may trust Klonowic that they needed separate, secret languages to communicate. Moreover, numerous scientific publications (concerning i.a. botany, fish farming, geometry and medicine) in the Polish language appeared in the 16th century, slowly reducing the domination of Latin within the specialized discourse in Poland; this tendency continued in Baroque (for the list of those works see Gajda, 1990b: 34-35). The 16th century also saw the emergence of the term ‘nomenclature’ (from the Latin *nomen calare*) in English and French to denote a list of names or a glossary (Rey, 1995).

In an attempt to fill the gap in historical description, S. Grucza (2008b) provides an overview of specialized language study development, preceded by a remark that the research in specialized language history will have to distinguish between:

- formation (emergence) of specialized languages and their study;
- unconscious and conscious study of specialized languages;
- pre-scientific and scientific study of specialized languages;
- formation (emergence) of specialized languages in the narrow (specialized vocabulary), broader (grammar) and broadest (texts) scope;
- specialized language study in the narrow, broader and broadest scope;
- formation (emergence) of practical and cognitive specialized languages (both types in the narrow, broader and broadest scope);
- practical study of specialized languages (e.g. to organize or specify them) and scientific study of them as such, for cognitive reasons;
- study of specialized languages regarding communicative and cognitive functions;
- study of specialized languages by subject field specialists and by linguists;
- study of specialized languages as achievements of particular linguistic communities (i.e. national specialized languages) and in the universal dimension;
- institutionalization of specialized languages’ standardization and academic study.

¹ Rafting. [All titles of works in languages other than English are provided in their original wording with the English translation in footnotes. All quotations are provided in English, while their original wording (if not English) is given in footnotes. The translations are mine unless specified otherwise.]

From this detailed lists one can conclude that the history of specialized language study is a threefold process: of considering specialized languages in a gradually broader scope (vocabulary – grammar – texts), of including their subsequent functions in the study (practical/communicative – cognitive) and of increasing separation of specialized linguistics from the ‘classical’ study of specialized vocabulary (see also Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003). As a linguist, S. Grucza (2008b) focuses on the linguistic study, dividing its development into several periods according to the dominant scopes. His division is adopted herein and reflected in the headlines of sections 1.2-1.4.

1.2. From non-linguistic to linguistic study of terms

Conscious study of specialized languages was triggered in Europe in the 17th and 18th centuries due to intensive development of sciences such as chemistry or physics. The growing number of disciplines due to the division of labor was the main reason of language specialization growth (Dickel, 2008a; Grabias, 2010; Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003). Thus, the need arose to organize and control emerging terms, as the latter were then considered specialized languages. The 17th- and 18th-century scientists demonstrated a growing awareness of specialized vocabulary: in 1697, the philosopher Gottfried Wilhelm Leibniz suggested that terms be included in dictionaries beside general-language words (Mrowiec, 2003). This opinion was shared by the very compilers of lexicographic works, the most significant ones being Denis Diderot and Jean le Rond d’Alembert (*Encyclopédie, ou Dictionnaire Raisonné des Sciences, des Arts et des Métiers*², 1751-1772), Ephraim Chambers (*Cyclopaedia, or a Universal Dictionary of Arts and Sciences*, 1728) and Samuel Johnson (*Dictionary of the English Language*, 1755) (Rey, 1995).

The beginnings of practical terminological activity in modern Europe are connected with subject field specialists, especially with four academics of significance: Carl Linnaeus (1707-1778), Antoine-Laurent Lavoisier (1743-1794), Mikhail Lomonosov (1711-1765) and Johann Beckmann (1739-1811) (Cabré, 1999; S. Grucza, 2008b). Linnaeus, a Swedish biologist, “followed a long tradition of classification of plants” (Rey, 1995: 13) and introduced the system of binomial nomenclature, first in botany and then also in zoology, thus utilizing the ancient Aristotelian method of classifying *per generis proximum et differentiam specificam*, i.e. by general category and distinctive features of the defined item (Hanks, 2008). Linnaeus’ “*Systema Naturae* 10th edition, volume 1 (1758), has accordingly been accepted by

² Encyclopaedia or a systematic dictionary of the sciences, arts and crafts.

international agreement as the official starting point for zoological nomenclature. Scientific names published before then have no validity unless adopted by Linnaeus or by later authors” (The Linnean Society of London, n.d.). Lavoisier, currently regarded as the father of modern chemistry, proposed a revolutionary method of naming chemical compounds in a national language – in his case French. The reform had begun in 1780 owing to the efforts of Guyton de Morveau (Rey, 1995) and its results were outlined in *Méthode de Nomenclature Chimique*³ (1787), while the publication of *Traité Élémentaire de Chimie*⁴ (1789) convinced the chemistry community of the new theory (Bohning et al., 1999). Its innovation lay in basing the terms on the knowledge of processes and functions, not only on tabulated characteristics (Rey, 1995). Lomonosov, a chemist, physicist and poet among other things, initiated the works on ordering the specialized vocabulary of inorganic chemistry in Russian (Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.; S. Grucza, 2008b). Beckmann was one of the first German scientists to see the need for normalization of national specialized vocabularies and he led the charge for technical terms in *Entwurf einer Allgemeinen Technologie*⁵ (1806). Using Linnaeus’s principles he presented there his own classification of crafts based on production techniques (S. Grucza, 2008b). Thus, the first period of specialized language study was indeed scientific, but not linguistic: the said scientists treated terms as instruments of classification within particular disciplines and did not investigate their linguistic nature.

The 18th-century Poland also witnessed development of scientific vocabulary, which may be deemed complete around the 1750s (Gajda, 1990b). Germs of specialized vocabularies in mathematics as well as natural and applied sciences existed at that time owing to the Polish-language works written earlier (see section 1.1). Then, the Enlightenment saw the creation of specialized vocabulary systems: researchers undertook the transfer of Western scientific achievements to Poland and expressing them in Polish. This was performed with the significant aid of translations and scientific literature for the general public (one must mention the important role of the Commission of National Education – KEN and the Society for Textbooks – TKE). The increasing advantage of Polish over Latin in the written language of science – 60% vs. 30% (Gajda, 1990b: 35) – was contributing to the development of Polish specialized languages; a similar situation was developing in Germany (Mrowiec, 2003).

S. Grucza (2008b) notes that first general claims proving awareness of specialized language functions come from the 1850s, clearly omitting the important paper by Śniadecki

³ Method of chemical nomenclature.

⁴ Elementary treatise of chemistry.

⁵ A proposal of general technology.

(1839), first read out as early as in 1813. Its author discusses national language (Polish) in mathematics, providing recommendations necessary to improve language and knowledge of the society. Only forty years later did the brothers Jacob and Wilhelm Grimm point out the necessity to study German specialized vocabulary, as evidenced by Jacob Grimm's introduction to the first German dictionary *Deutsches Wörterbuch* (1854-1960) (S. Grucza, 2008b; Mrowiec, 2003; Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003). He stated there that dictionaries should also include the language of shepherds, huntsmen, fishermen etc. Though he probably still meant terms and not specialized languages in their entirety (he referred to 'significant words'), the curiosity in specialized linguistic items as such is noteworthy. The contemporary Polish linguist to express similar interest was Jan Baudouin de Courtenay (1845-1929), who reckoned that when classifying languages one has to include languages of various social classes, craftsmen and secret groups such as thieves (Courtenay, 1888); sadly, neither he nor his successors followed those words (S. Grucza, 2008b). Thus, despite the awareness of specialized languages and the need to study them as such, the 19th-century linguists still regarded them as collections of terms.

The beginnings of systematic investigation of specialized vocabularies in Europe date back to as late as the 1920s and 1930s. It was intensified by activities of Eugen Wüster (1889-1977), an Austrian engineer researching technical specialized vocabulary, especially in the field of electrotechnology. However, his efforts were focused on standardization and, due to his authority, exerted a huge influence on terminological research, enclosing it in practical frames and hindering its incorporation into linguistics (S. Grucza, 2008b; Temmerman, 2000) (for a thorough description of the discipline of Terminology see section 4.2). The study of specialized vocabulary was also promoted by so-called linguistics of economy (German: *Wirtschaftslinguistik*), taught at numerous trade schools in Germany, the Netherlands and Switzerland to satisfy practical needs. The movement (especially the researchers from the Prague High School of Trade) then postulated to single out specialized languages of economy (Dickel, 2008a). In Poland, terminological research also began in the 1920s, but was resumed only in the 1950s and 1960s due to World War II. The most important works included *Terminologia Techniczna*⁶ (1961) by Marian Mazur and three works by Witold Nowicki: *O Ścisłość Pojęć i Kulturę Słowa w Technice*⁷ (1978), *Metoda Pracy nad Terminologią Wybranej Dziedziny Wiedzy*⁸ (1979a) and *Podstawy Terminologii*⁹ (1986). All these works are

⁶ Technical specialized vocabulary.

⁷ Advocating precision of concepts and culture of language in technology.

⁸ The method of working on the specialized vocabulary of a given field of knowledge.

the evidence of Wüster's impact: they discuss practical methods of handling and standardizing terms to ensure precise communication within subject fields. The first Polish researcher analyzing specialized vocabulary from the linguistic point of view is Stanisław Gajda (S. Grucza, 2008b), the author of books *Podstawy Badań Stylistycznych nad Językiem Naukowym*¹⁰ (1982) and *Wprowadzenie do Teorii Terminu*¹¹ (1990a), whose titles already signal an approach different than that of Nowicki. Other prominent Polish authors studying terms linguistically include Franciszek Grucza, Jerzy Lukszyn and Wanda Zmarzer; the latter two co-wrote *Teoretyczne Podstawy Terminologii*¹² (2001), the most comprehensive Polish book devoted to this discipline so far, as well as published numerous articles on this topic (see References).

1.3. From terminological to syntactic specialized linguistics

At the beginning of the 1960s the purely lexical approach to specialized languages started to broaden its scope (S. Grucza, 2008b). The first to 'discover' specialized languages in their entirety was applied linguistics – language teaching and translatology; theoretical linguistics followed. In Poland, systematic research emerged with the establishment of the Institute of Applied Linguistics (ILS) at the University of Warsaw (UW) by F. Grucza in 1972. Results were published in the periodical *Przegląd Glottodydaktyczny*¹³, issued from 1978 to 2009, when its function was taken over by a new periodical *Lingwistyka Stosowana. Applied Linguistics. Angewandte Linguistik*. In 2000, Lukszyn founded the Chair of Specialized Languages (KJS) at UW, while in 2010 the Chair was incorporated into the new Institute of Culture Studies and Anthropocentric Linguistics (IKLA) (Instytut Kulturologii i Lingwistyki Antropocentrycznej, n.d.) (the anthropocentric theory is discussed in subsection 3.2.3).

In West Germany (FRG), as S. Grucza (2008b) notes, the authors' interest in specialized languages was expressed in titles of their works, such as *Die Industrielandschaft – ein neues Forschungsgebiet der Sprachwissenschaft*¹⁴ (1963) or *Zur Sprache der Arbeit im industriellen Großbetrieb*¹⁵ (1967), both written by Dieter Möhn. It stemmed from the dynamic development of FRG's economy, which achieved its climax at the turn of the 1950s and 1960s, resulting in increased employment and emergence of large professional groups

⁹ The basics of Terminology.

¹⁰ The basics of stylistic studies of scientific language.

¹¹ Introduction to the theory of term.

¹² Theoretical basics of Terminology.

¹³ Language teaching review.

¹⁴ The industrial landscape - a new field of study for linguistics.

¹⁵ On the language of work in a large industrial enterprise.

with their modes of specialized communication. Though initially the scope of research was still narrowed to terms, specialized languages (German: Fachsprachen) finally began to be viewed as separate linguistic phenomena, as proved by a new distinction between them and general language (Gemeinsprache). From the 1970s, the research further strengthened its position, owing to authors such as Möhn, Lubomir Drozd or Wilfried Seibicke. A new discipline of linguistics was founded and named Fachsprachenforschung (English: specialized language studies) and began to gain institutional support: in 1978, the prestigious conference organized by the German Language Institute (IDS) in Mannheim was entitled “Fachsprachen und Gemeinsprache”¹⁶. At that time linguists also stressed that their object of study was only specialized language, while specialized knowledge was to be investigated by subject field specialists, with whom linguists should nevertheless cooperate.

Regarding East Germany (GDR), S. Grucza (2008b) notices that, like in Poland, specialized language research was initiated by language teaching and translatology. The leading institution was the University of Leipzig and the ‘founding father’ was Lothar Hoffmann. He also began with the teaching aspects (as proved by the title of his 1968 work: *Probleme der Fundierung eines Modernen Fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterrichts*¹⁷), but then developed linguistic approach to specialized languages and presented it in his 1976 work *Kommunikationsmittel Fachsprache. Eine Einführung*¹⁸. The latter was an innovative book as its author became one of the first to underline that the distinctive feature of specialized languages is their communicative function. He also postulated research in a broader scope (beyond terms), defining specialized languages as “a sum of all linguistic means”¹⁹ used to communicate within a given discipline; this remains probably the most influential definition of specialized languages in the German linguistic world (S. Grucza, 2008b), like his language division methodology which regards specialized languages as varieties within general language. The theory continued the Fachsprachen – Gemeinsprache opposition introduced above, was explored by other German linguists of the time and remains influential to this day (see section 3.2). Again, the conference organized by the German Language Institute (IDS) in Mannheim played a role, summarizing the condition of the discussion in a 1990 book entitled *Deutsche Gegenwartssprache. Tendenzen und Perspektiven*²⁰, edited by Gerhard Stickel.

¹⁶ Specialized languages and general language.

¹⁷ Problems of founding the teaching of foreign specialized languages.

¹⁸ Specialized language as the means of communication. An introduction.

¹⁹ Gesamtheit aller sprachlichen Mittel.

²⁰ The contemporary German language. Tendencies and perspectives.

It must be stressed that in the 1970s, in consequence of the ‘variety approach’, specialized language research was based on describing structural features (especially syntax), in line with Ferdinand de Saussure’s approach. Neither the pragmatic concepts initiated by John Austin and John Searle nor the generative theory of Noam Chomsky received attention. This structural model dominated in Germany until the 1980s, when strenuous attempts were made to found a coherent theory of specialized language research (S. Grucza, 2008b). Thus, the perspective was broadened: pragmatic aspects of specialized languages received attention, including the communicative function formerly stressed by Hoffmann. The research became fragmented: authors produced detailed empirical analyses of selected aspects of specialized languages, trying to find the ‘ultimate’ aim of study. As a result, common theoretical background has not been produced and this field of linguistics suffers from lack of coherence. Another consequence is separation of objectives claimed by specialized linguistics and Terminology: it was in the 1980s that the latter drifted further apart and focused with an increasing intensity on standardization of terms (see section 4.2).

The Anglo-Saxon countries resemble Poland and East Germany in that applied linguistics (language teaching and translatology) triggered the interest in specialized languages. Research there dates back to the 1960s, when Michael Halliday, Angus McIntosh and Peter Strevens published a book entitled *The Linguistic Science and Language Teaching* (1964). In the period of 1960-1990 the studies developed gradually (over 200 articles on ESP, especially EST – English for Science and Technology), while the 1990s saw an explosion of interest (over 170 articles in six periodicals and two volumes alone in the period of 1997-2001) (S. Grucza, 2008b). Still, the practical orientation also contributed to the theory: ESP research was supported by companies and educational institutions, which facilitated its development and allowed it to enrich the field of teaching (Swales, 1992). Moreover, the Anglo-American tradition influenced the standardization of specialized languages in their entirety (specialized vocabulary, syntax and discourse patterns), due to large-scale research projects which resulted in the creation of several international specialized languages for the purposes of safety in transport and police work (S. Grucza, 2008b; Al-Humaidi, n.d.):

- SEASPEAK: international marine English, developed in 1977 as Standard Marine Navigational Vocabulary (SMNV) and finally adopted in 2001 as Standard Marine Communication Phrases (SMCP) by the Maritime Safety Committee (MSC) of the International Maritime Organization (IMO) (Resolution A.918(22), 2001);

- AIRSPEAK: international aviation English, first presented in 1988 and adopted by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) (Johnson, 2000; Manual on the implementation of ICAO language proficiency requirements, 2004);
- POLICESPEAK – international police English, developed to improve communication in the Channel Tunnel and adopted in 1994 (Johnson, 2000);
- RAILSPEAK – international railway English developed in 1994.

Further details on research in specialized language teaching are included in section 4.3, as well as section 3.2, for the Anglo-American tradition developed its own views on the classification of specialized languages and their relation to general language.

The differences between the two traditions may be summarized as follows (S. Grucza, 2008b: 60):

- 1) Europe mostly investigates ‘national’ specialized languages, while the Anglo-American studies focus on English;
- 2) Europe pursues both theoretical and empirical research, while the Anglo-American studies concentrate on the latter, mostly on specialized language teaching;
- 3) the Anglo-American studies experience a more dynamic development due to the increasing role of English in global communication creating demand for teaching.

One must also remember that Anglo-American authors refer to the European research described above as ‘continental European studies’, while among their own studies they rank the UK, the USA, Canada, South America, Australia, Asia and the Middle East, and use the label *language for special/specific purposes – LSP*. Thus, the scope of this label does not equal that of ‘specialized language research’ as we understand it in Europe. As S. Grucza (2008b) and Temmerman (2000) point out, many authors cause confusion by using the acronyms denoting only the area of teaching while writing about specialized language research in general (see e.g. Massalina, 2010; Pytel, 2004; Zmarzer, 2008a). For this reason, in non-teaching contexts Temmerman (2000) recommends the terms *special language* and *specialized language*, the latter of which is used herein.

1.4. From syntactic to integrated specialized linguistics

The period of interest in subject field texts began at the end of the 1980s and has continued to this day (S. Grucza, 2008b); again, German linguists were the first to investigate the subject. The approach is distinguished by focus on specialized texts, i.e. going far beyond lexis and syntax, and it seals the separation of Terminology from specialized linguistics. Specialized

texts actually came to be viewed as the main subject of specialized linguistics, so researchers studied their structure and genres, in an attempt to state what distinguishes them from other texts and from one another as well as what their specialization stems from (see also Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003). The latter question resulted in separating phrasal factors of specialization, referred to as linguistic identifiers of specialized texts (Górnicz, 2008; Kornacka, 2003; Lukszyn, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c; Pytel, 2003; Waszczuk, 2003) (see also subsection 4.1.3). This led to distinguishing information specialization beside the phrasal specialization; both have a gradual character, but in the 1990s information specialization was claimed to manifest itself only in functional context. Thus, not being immanent to texts, it was deemed primary in relation to phrasal specialization (S. Grucza, 2008b). However, this approach failed to answer the aforementioned questions because it could not define text specialization sufficiently. S. Grucza ascribes it to the fact that it is first and foremost specialists in particular fields who should investigate information specialization. Specialized text linguistics did contribute to the intensification of research in specialized linguistics, but it also had three unfavorable effects (*ibid*):

- it was overwhelmed by general text linguistics and did not consider the specificity of specialized texts;
- it forgot about the actual specialized languages due to excessive focus on texts;
- it did not notice the fact that specialized languages can fulfill important cognitive functions beside the communicative ones.

The next stage, referred to by S. Grucza (2008b) as communicative-cognitive specialized linguistics, largely overlaps with the text research period: it began in the second half of the 1990s and has also continued to this day. It stemmed from addressing the questions about specialized language functions provoked by specialized text research and soon evolved into two currents: communicative and process (cognitive). The first focused on specialized communication, exploring various factors and components of specialized interaction. The second investigated the processes of creation and understanding of specialized texts, postulating the inclusion of knowledge systems, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics and cognitive psychology in specialized linguistics' area of interest (S. Grucza, 2008b). Both currents especially flourished in Germany and both of them shifted main attention from specialized texts to specialized language users, which, according to S. Grucza, remains their greatest achievement.

The above overview demonstrates that the history of specialized languages is as old as that of mankind, but the history of their conscious research remains relatively short. Starting

with practical activities serving the development of sciences in the 18th century, through the emerging awareness of specialized languages as separate linguistic phenomena in the 1850s, to specialized linguistics gradually broadening its scope from the 1950s until today – this evolution ultimately created a relatively independent discipline (specialized linguistics) and set apart another one (Terminology), but one also notices the gradual departure from specialized knowledge, which actually lies at the root of specialized languages. The cognitive current in linguistics brought back the interest in that knowledge, yet it also increased the diversity of approaches within specialized linguistics, causing its certain disintegration. Concentrating on specialized language users may not be enough to achieve coherence: S. Grucza (2008b) strongly suggests exploring the long-neglected cognitive function of those languages – their ability to assist us in creating and consolidating knowledge in our brains. This should be one of the main contemporary premises of specialized language study.

2. Communication, cognition, progress – functions of specialized languages

As has been mentioned, conscious work on specialized languages initially had a strictly practical justification: the 18th-century development of sciences and the 19th-century industrial revolution resulted in a rapid growth of specialized languages' number and linguistic means. Users of those languages felt that unless attempts were made to order those languages, they would become uncontrollable and blur communication at work, hindering cooperation and development. This practical approach continued in the 20th century, strengthened by activities and authority of Eugen Wüster (see also section 1.2 and 4.2). As a result, until the 1970s linguists viewed specialized languages as sets of terms; such opinion is still alive both among scientists and non-scientists. Nonetheless, the role of specialized languages is much more diversified than providing labels for the professional environment, and numerous linguists have attempted to draw attention to that fact, establishing premises for the contemporary research (e.g. F. Grucza, 2008a, 2008b; S. Grucza, 2008b).

The functions of specialized languages to be discussed below include:

- 1) communicative function;
- 2) cognitive function;
- 3) cumulative function;
- 4) group-forming function;
- 5) instrumental function;
- 6) civilization development indication function.

2.1. Communicative function

Communicative function opens the list because it is considered primary especially in the popular awareness, where specialized languages are seen as mere communication tools (Lukszyn (2002) refers to them as professional tools) relevant only for people connected with particular subject fields. Giving privilege to this function since the 18th century (see section 1.2) stems from equaling specialized languages with sets of terms and results in a purely communicative attitude being adopted especially by researchers working with specialized vocabularies (e.g. Johnson, 2000; Mazur, 1961; Nowicki 1978, 1979a, 1979b, 1986), but also those studying specialized languages in the broadest scope (e.g. Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003), as well as the Anglo-American studies focused on teaching specialized languages (see S. Grucza, 2008b; Swales, 1992). Certainly, though, this function is important: Perrin-Taillat

(2010) firmly states that the purpose of humans is communication, while language is just a means to achieve it – a tool fulfilling the communicative function. The latter has been investigated especially by Scandinavian and German authors preoccupied with specialized lexicography, in which obtaining knowledge about specialized communication in a given subject field is vital for creating relevant dictionaries (Bergenholtz and Kaufmann, 1997; Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006; Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995; Nielsen, 1990, 2002). Thus, Nielsen (2002) distinguishes three groups of specialized language users:

- a) laypeople: no (or basic) knowledge of the field and average general knowledge;
- b) semi-experts: experts from related subject fields and people exposed to specialized vocabulary (e.g. translators/interpreters, certain journalists);
- c) experts: no problems with reception in their subject field.

The classification by Bowker and Pearson (2003) is slightly different: for them, being exposed to specialized vocabulary is not sufficient to become a semi-expert. Translators/interpreters and writers are given the status of non-experts who need to deepen their knowledge to perform their jobs responsibly; in order to acquire even a partial level of expertise one needs subject field training. Thus, the following groups are listed:

- a) non-experts: people who have to use a specialized language which is unfamiliar to them (e.g. technical writers, translators/interpreters);
- b) semi-experts: subject field students and experts from related subject fields;
- c) experts: persons trained in a given subject field.

Accordingly, one can speak of three levels of specialized communication (Bowker and Pearson, 2003; Trimble, 1992):

- expert – expert: highly specialized discourse (e.g. research articles);
- expert – semi-expert: highly specialized discourse, but with additional explanations (e.g. textbooks);
- expert – non-expert/layperson: discourse with fewer terms and simplified explanations (e.g. special interest columns in newspapers).

Both classifications take extralinguistic knowledge into account and imply an important mutual feature of those user groups: their members do not necessarily have full linguistic competence within a given subject field (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995). Anesa (2009) speaks of *communicative asymmetry*, which she demonstrates in the communication process of a US criminal jury. S. Grucza (2008a) uses the term *abilities* (Polish: *umiejętności*) in the meaning of knowledge + competence; though he does so in relation to translators/interpreters of specialized texts, the idea may also be employed for describing specialized communication

participants. Therefore, we obtain two variables for that purpose: subject field knowledge and linguistic competence. They are used by an individual in his/her actions, work and perception of the world and thus form his/her *specialized culture*. Communication accordingly possesses culture-creating properties: culture is a product of communication (see also Dickel, 2008c). To yield such a complex phenomenon, communication itself takes place on numerous planes in a given subject field community:

- information plane: specialized knowledge type and scope (e.g. its public availability status);
- cognitive plane: specialized knowledge structure (e.g. chronological, systematic);
- media plane: types of media used (e.g. speech, writing, images);
- situation plane: communication patterns (e.g. lecture, secret meetings);
- textual plane: types and styles of texts expressing specialized knowledge;
- discourse plane: types of discourse used (e.g. lecture, discussion, instruction);
- social plane: types of social relations formed (e.g. hierarchies).

However, S. Grucza continues that comprehensive description of these phenomena rarely takes place: the most extensively researched plane is the textual one, while the natural discursive (i.e. spoken) specialized communication is sparsely described. Key reasons revolve around difficulties in obtaining research material, which include (see also S. Grucza, 2008c):

- legal aspect (recording the speakers);
- technical aspect (equipment and transcription into the written form);
- confidentiality aspect (persons from outside a given subject field have limited or no access to many acts of specialized communication).

The conclusion seems to be that though the communicative function of specialized languages has such an established reputation, it still requires much research to match that ascribed status.

2.2. Cognitive function

Cognitive function means that language supports gaining and processing knowledge about the world not only because it allows us to communicate information (as does the communicative function), but primarily because it structures the knowledge itself. Linguistic forms map onto conceptual structures, which in turn “serve to categorize experience and give access to knowledge concerning entities which fall into the categories” (Cruse, 2004: 127). This is known as need of nomination, i.e. human desire to name new objects and phenomena that emerge around them (Piekot, 2008). Though the above descriptions use contemporary terms,

this effect of language had already been noticed by the 17th- and 18th-century philosophers, the most famous ones being Johann Gottfried Herder and Wilhelm von Humboldt, and received more interest owing to philosophy of language, with such figures as Charles Peirce, Bertrand Russell or Ludwig Wittgenstein (S. Grucza, 2008b; Piekot, 2008; Rasiński, 2009). However, it has immensely benefited from cognitive linguistics – a current that emerged in the 1970s and has been growing since the 1980s (Croft and Cruse, 2004: 1). Though nowadays “a vast amount of research has been generated under the name of cognitive linguistics” (ibid), this does not seem to apply to specialized languages, whose cognitive role has been marginalized by the communicative function.

Meanwhile, the cognitive potential of specialized languages has been known for as long as their communicative function: already Śniadecki (1839) in his 1813 lecture advocated clarity and availability of specialized language (of mathematics in that particular case) because they would facilitate the society’s access to knowledge. Still, the Polish scientist remains an isolated case of his times and the following decades, when the cognitive function was generally put aside (see section 1.2) and thus needs to be pursued today. This is performed i.a. by specialized language research circles at the University of Warsaw (see section 1.3), which maintain that the cognitive function is the primary feature distinguishing specialized languages from general language: the former shape concepts regarding real and abstract objects of human world to increase our creative potential (Zmarzer, 2008a). Specialized languages pertain to selected fields of knowledge, so they fulfill those cognitive functions which general language does not (S. Grucza (2008b). Thus, they are independent in the functional aspect (unlike in the formal aspect – see section 3.2 for a discussion on specialized language status) and, as Zmarzer adds, fully deserve the status of metalanguages.

From the above remarks it stems that the entity undertaking cognition is not limited to an individual. Indeed, Gajda (2010: 184) distinguishes between the following cognitive entities regarding science in general:

- a) society as a whole (societal needs are a causative factor of scientific development);
- b) scientific community as a whole (it has its own cognition-related ideals, i.e. views on the purposes of scientific activity, methods and ethos);
- c) scientific microcommunity, e.g. of a given discipline or current (it is characterized by paradigm – a model of research conduct expressing the principles shared);
- d) an individual researcher (his/her personality is biologically, psychologically and socially determined, with its own mind type, cognitive style, scientific competence, intuition and imagination).

This division can be successfully adopted for the purposes of specialized languages, yielding the following cognitive entities:

- a) society as a whole (specialized languages are prerequisites for general development – see section 2.3);
- b) specialized language community as a whole (their mutual feature is cognition taking place also on specialized planes, contrary to those general discourse participants who do not use specialized languages);
- c) specialized language microcommunity, e.g. of a given discipline or current (its cognition is determined by the mutual planes listed in section 2.1);
- d) an individual specialized language user – a specialist or a semi-specialist (see section 2.1) (his/her personality is biologically, psychologically and socially determined, with its own mind type, cognitive style, specialized competence, intuition and imagination).

The variety and scope of the enumerated specialized language cognitive entities show that cognition (and communication) is not a domain of encyclopedias and textbooks for the insiders. It constitutes a foundation of knowledge and communication for the whole societies, as well as underlies the remaining specialized language functions.

2.3. Cumulative function

Cumulative function of specialized languages means that they also accumulate and store gained knowledge, preserving it for transfer to future generations. It is an indispensable form of recording civilization achievements because knowledge is created to constitute the basis for the future formation of new knowledge (Gajda, 2010; Lukszyn, 2002; Massalina, 2010) (for the latter reason, Lukszyn (2002, 2008b) distinguishes a separate creative function). Such purpose is immediately associated with written language, which indeed seems to dominate, but it was not always the case. Gajda (2010) notes that in the earliest times of civilization development, speech did satisfy all the cognition-related needs, but such state of affairs did not favor quantitative and qualitative development of knowledge. The invention of writing allowed for separating knowledge from its creator and assessing it with a detached eye, encouraging scientific reflection. That transition liberated speech and directed it towards active creation, as demonstrated by ancient Greeks (compare e.g. Socrates). In the Middle Ages, transfer and storage of knowledge became a part of the cognition process due to the worship of the written text. Science took the form of commenting canonical texts and

scientific discussions often turned into fights for particular texts. Speech regained the lost territory in the Renaissance, when scientists questioned the text as a starting point for cognition: Francis Bacon stated that books should be the results of science and not vice versa. The revolutionary invention of printing made it possible to resign from the work of text commentators because source texts became available; the range of knowledge expanded considerably and knowledge of individuals received more attention. Thus, printing did for the written language what writing had done for speech.

However, the cumulative function should not be limited to preserving achievements, for it is also employed by language users during communication, even on the word level. Dubois (1982) proves this in an analysis of noun phrases (NPs) in biomedical journal articles: she comes to the conclusion that the articles' authors base the use of NPs on the notion of shared knowledge. When they assume that the addressee possesses the portion of knowledge denoted by a particular phrase, it is given, i.e. introduced in the text without definition, like the NP "presumed vestibular function" below:

[thus], in addition to its presumed vestibular function, the saccule likely plays a role in hearing in terrestrial animals – at least in anurans (Moffat and Capranica, 1976 in Dubois, 1982).

For such a highly specialized term left undefined the communicative and cognitive functions are secondary: an interested layperson will need to benefit from them using other sources of knowledge on the American toad (whose saccule is discussed here), while a specialist does not need to learn that NP's meaning. Such use is based on the fact that language (in this case its smaller units) accumulates extralinguistic knowledge, to which it then links the addressee.

2.4. Group-forming function

This function clearly illustrates an important property of language: its reflexivity. The term denotes the mutual dependence of language and society: language both reflects and constructs reality. For instance, a simple conversation as: "How are you?", "Fine" reflects an ordinary situation, but also constructs it as such in the speakers' minds via correspondingly ordinary words (Gee, 1999). Thus, regarding specialized languages, a given social group forms its language and simultaneously that language shapes the social group (Grabias, 2010). Bearing in mind the orientation on specialized language users (postulated e.g. by S. Grucza, 2008b), the group-forming function deserves being distinguished as a separate phenomenon. Grabias (2010: 239) lists the following components of this function:

- uniting: specialized language connects an individual with the social group to which he/she belongs;
- distinguishing: specialized language contrasts the group with other social groups, participating in the formation of its identity (see also Sztompka, 2002);
- giving prestige: a separate specialized language is an evidence of the group's high rank in the society (doubts arise in the case of groups such as criminals, but I reckon that rank here is to be understood broadly as both positive and negative importance in/influence on social life, not only as admiration or approval);
- providing tools for interpretation of reality: like every language, specialized language imposes a specific image of the world by transferring and fixing social values adopted by the group (here criminals are a good example: a brutal group forms a brutal language and the brutal language maintains brutalization of behaviors).

Certainly, such mutual dependence of specialized language and reality is visible in all the listed functions of specialized languages. The group-forming function is especially closely related to the communicative and cognitive functions, but also constitutes a component of the cumulative, instrumental and development indication functions (subject field knowledge is necessary for the group to operate and allows for establishing position in the society).

2.5. Instrumental function

One can agree with F. Grucza (2008a, 2008b) and Cabré (1999) that specialized languages, somehow contrary to their name, are increasingly important also for communities other than their primary users. It is easy to distinguish a group of specialized languages that everyone should know at least to a certain extent required in one's daily life in the contemporary civil society: the languages of politics, economy, banking, state and municipal institutions, information technology (IT), telecommunication, medicine and pharmacy. This is the essence of instrumental function: specialized languages are not only tools of professional training (Lukszyn, 2002), but also determinants both of creative participation in civilization development and of using civilization achievements of others (see also Gajda, 2010). The richer and more orderly the specialized language resources in a given society and the wider the competence of their users, the greater the two possibilities (creation and using). The need to promote specialized languages stems from the elimination of limitations in accessing many civilization achievements (e.g. education, medical consultations, right to hold positions). Now that they are widely available, the need has arisen to acquire specialized languages by persons

formerly having little perspective of accessing those achievements (the otherwise important question of affording them financially remains outside the scope of linguistics). Moreover, the age of globalization and European integration makes it desirable to know selected foreign specialized languages because some of them have become universal (e.g. IT English). Unfortunately, as F. Grucza (2008a) notes, few decision-makers are aware of significance of these contemporary demands, which is reflected in the education programs of Polish schools: most of them are filled with knowledge of the past and do not prepare children and teenagers to life in the contemporary world, let alone the future. The media are not helpful, either: in many cultures, knowledge of historical facts is valued more than command of foreign and specialized languages or performing a specialized job. In this argument, F. Grucza also ascribes specialized languages a specific role in Poland: they are to assist in the transformation of mentality necessitated by integration with the European Union. This is supposed to be carried out by replacing 'old' specialized languages with 'new' ones. Regardless of one's political views, it is obvious that specialized languages play important roles reaching far beyond internal communication of subject field specialists.

2.6. Civilization development indication function

The last function on the above list is secondary because specialized languages do not exist to show the scope of development; they do so naturally, in addition to their primary functions. Language is often said to operate like a seismograph due to its ability to sense and record even the smallest social and cultural changes (Piekot, 2008). Accordingly, multilingualism, and more precisely, specialized languages' number, richness, internal organization and degree of precision, indicates the standard of living in a given linguistic community (Gajda, 2001b; F. Grucza, 1991, 2008a, 2008b; Lukszyn, 2002). The civilization development process is characterized by a growing speed of work differentiation, mirrored by the number and structure of specialized languages. Regarding the years 1918-1978 in Poland, Bajerowa (1982) notes that specialized vocabulary development is a trait of this period of language history and maybe even its most important distinctive feature. She reckons that issues related to specialized vocabulary have two aspects: scientific and social. The former concerns synchronic and diachronic description, methodology and relation of specialized languages to general language, but it is the social aspect where Bajerowa (1982) and Jadacka (1976) notice an alarming situation. Changes in social life at that time, especially in the development of science and technology, caused a dramatic increase in specialized vocabulary, which resulted

in linguistic chaos and called for organizational activities on behalf of linguists. In addition to the aforementioned role of specialized languages in civilization development (see section 2.5 and 2.6), it is evident here that the condition of those languages reflects the state of the extralinguistic world in a relevant period. As another example, Piekot (2008) notes that political system changes which took place in Poland after 1989 resulted in the emergence of new social groups and thus new sociolects; the linguistic network became more complicated, reflecting the extralinguistic situation. Given that nowadays the diversification process of societies and disciplines is even more intensive (Gajda (1999: 15) speaks about “the 20th-century specialization ‘frenzy’”²¹), specialized languages continue to be a source of information about the modern world.

²¹ XX-wieczne “szaleństwo” specjalizacji

3. The subject of research – specialized language and its connections

The nature of specialized languages – phenomena referring to (often very specialist) subject fields – may provoke one to view them as rather isolated. This chapter aims to show that this is not the case: departing from determining the most accurate term (I deem *specialized language* the best one), it demonstrates the status of specialized languages in relation to language as such, the extralinguistic settings (users and subject fields) and finally relations among specialized languages themselves. These matters are discussed in sections 3.1, 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4, respectively.

3.1. Specialized language and related terms

Having discussed the historical and contemporary situation, I shall attempt to determine the very subject of those elaborations. The task is not easy, though, due to a number of related terms functioning in linguistics and general language. These were gathered in Table 1 and come from different sources on specialized languages; the sources serve as the basis for the discussion of these terms that follows in subsections 3.1.1-3.1.5. Throughout this work I use the term *specialized language*, which seems to be less popular outside the linguistic circles as proved by its absence in popular monolingual dictionaries of English (Collins Dictionary, n.d.; *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English – LDOCE*, 2005; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.) and Polish (*Słownik Języka Polskiego*, 1996-1997; *Uniwersalny Słownik Języka Polskiego*, 2003). However, all these dictionaries include the terms *jargon*, *sociolect*, *terminology* and/or *vocabulary*, commonly regarded as denoting specialized language in its entirety. This, however, is not quite the case, as tentatively shown by Table 1. The terms gathered there can be roughly divided into three groups:

- I: terms denoting specialized language in its entirety (i.e. not limited to specialized vocabulary) and stressing its connection with language in general, owing to the generic segments ‘language’, ‘variety’, ‘gwara’ and ‘odmiana/odmianka’;
- II: concise terms (first two of French origin), exposing limited access to specialized languages;
- III: analogous compounds exposing limited access to specialized languages;
- IV: terms denoting only a part of specialized language, i.e. specialized vocabulary.

The matter of naming the phenomenon in question remains controversial despite several attempts of introducing order (Bartmiński, 1991; Jachimowska, 2004). Thus, all terms from

Table 1 are discussed below to justify my choice of the term *specialized language* and introduce the presentation of specialized language – general language relations.

Table 1. Specialized language and related terms in English with their Polish equivalents.

English	Polish
I	
language for special/specific purposes (LSP) / special-purpose language (SPL) restricted language special/specialized language special/specialized sublanguage professional/social group/occupational language professional/social group/occupational dialect professional/social group/occupational variant/variety	język dla/do celów specjal(istycznych) kod ograniczony język specjalny/specjalistyczny podjęzyk/subjęzyk specjalny/specjalistyczny język fachowy/środowiskowy/zawodowy gwara fachowa/środowiskowa/zawodowa odmiana/odmianka fachowa/środowiskowa/zawodowa
II	
argot jargon slang	argot żargon slang
III	
professiolect sociolect technolect	profesjolekt socjolekt technolekt
IV	
nomenclature professional vocabulary special/specialized vocabulary terminology	nomenklatura słownictwo fachowe/zawodowe słownictwo specjalne/specjalistyczne terminologia

3.1.1. Term group I

Language for special/specific purposes (LSP) / special-purpose language (SPL) are terms used in practical contexts: the discipline of Terminology (e.g. Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005) and the Anglo-American tradition in language teaching, as has been stated in section 1.3 (see also section 4.3). However, as S. Grucza (2008b) and Temmerman (2000) point out, many authors use them in a confusing manner, i.e. to denote theory-oriented specialized language research (e.g. Massalina, 2010; Pytel, 2004; Zmarzer, 2008a). They are also favored in texts concerning specialized lexicography research and Scandinavian specialized language research, as demonstrated by publications associated with the Aarhus School of Business and Copenhagen School of Business (Bergenholtz and Kaufmann, 1997;

Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006; Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995; Gläser, 1982; Nielsen, 1990, 2002; Opitz, 1982; Perrin-Taillat, 2010; Weber, 1982). The relationship of business schools with specialized language teaching goes without saying, and dictionaries can be viewed as practical tools connected with teaching and acquiring knowledge; hence, such usage of these terms does not seem to be problematic. It is allowed by Hartmann and James (2002: 81), who define LSP as follows: “[in] language teaching and LSP [lexicography], the variety of the language (‘special language’) used by experts in a particular subject field”. A similar definition is provided by Bowker and Pearson (2003: 25):

LSP is the language that is used to discuss specialized fields of knowledge. It is actually more accurate to talk about LSP in the plural . . . since different LSPs are used to describe different areas of specialized knowledge.

The corresponding Polish terms *język dla/do celów specjal(istycznych)* are loan-translations which have not become widespread in linguistics yet. However, they are used more in accordance with the original context, i.e. mainly in the offers of language schools. For instance, Szkoła Języków Obcych LEXIS in Warsaw, Poland offers the following course: English for Special Purposes (Angielski do celów specjalistycznych), which is said to concentrate only on selected disciplines, such as English in IT, engineering, law, medicine etc. (Szkoła Języków Obcych LEXIS, n.d.).

Restricted language is associated with restricted and elaborated codes introduced by Basil Bernstein (the Polish term *kod ograniczony* is used in relation to this theory). Both code types are determined by the probability of guessing which syntactic elements the speaker shall use to convey the intended meaning (Bernstein, 2003). Elaborated code offers a wider choice of those elements and encourages the user to express their individual experience or traits. In contrast, restricted code has a limited and predictable repository of linguistic means; it is used in ritual and formalized situations such as religious services, protocol meetings or cocktail party conversations, and results in paying more attention to non-verbal signals which show intentions not expressed lexically. Thus, the notion of restriction applies to the situation-determined choice of linguistic means, not qualitative differences among those means (contrary to the general language – specialized language dichotomy). In turn, Zgusta (1971) views restricted languages, e.g. hunters’ language or miners’ language, as variants of ordinary language (he deems the segment ‘language’ a misnomer precisely because they are variants, not languages in their own right). For him, extreme cases of restricted languages are codes

which artificially change or reduce ordinary language, e.g. in intimate conversations or in the presence of foreigners. He approves the term ‘restricted’ for two reasons:

[these] ‘languages’ are restricted to small parts of the whole society. And then, only restricted parts of the whole lexicon belong to them; for example, only things which are related to hunting have special terms in the restricted language of hunters (Zgusta, 1971: 172).

Unfortunately, this argument repeats the opinion that specialized languages are of interest only to small circles, contrary to their actual importance for the whole society (see section 2.5), as well as the old view that specialized language is composed of subject field vocabulary (see sections 1.2 and 2.1). The notion of restrictedness is also used by Mackay and Mountford (1978): to them, specialized language is a restricted repertoire selected from the whole language because that repertoire “covers every requirement within a well-defined context, task or vocation” (Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 4). It is not a language by itself, “just as a tourist phrase book is not a grammar” (ibid). However, what this definition mentions is artificially regulated communication tools like those listed in section 1.3: AIRSPEAK (given by Mackay and Mountford as an example), POLICESPEAK, RAILSPEAK or SEASPEAK. Specialized languages as understood in this work, e.g. languages of subject fields like banking or veterinary medicine, are not ‘special’ in this approach because even though they include field-specific vocabulary, their syntax is not restricted, i.e. they are all different uses of the same language. Thus, what Zgusta (1971) sees as stages of the same continuum, Mackay and Mountford consider two distinct linguistic phenomena. Being LSP teaching theoreticians, they refer to language for special purposes, but only to denote the use of general language, not to characterize separate linguistic phenomena: they place a firm emphasis on ‘purpose’ of the learner, not on the particular language he/she is learning. Therefore, they approach the original use-oriented theory of Bernstein.

Specialized language and the Polish equivalent *język specjalistyczny* (used herein) underline the holistic approach to the subject of research, i.e. the belief that specialized languages are not limited to specialized vocabulary. Hence, they appear in publications of the broader research scope, especially those concerning the anthropocentric theory of language discussed in subsection 3.2.3 (Dickel, 2008a; F. Grucza, 2008a, 2008b; S. Grucza, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c; Kornacka, 2003; Pytel, 2003, 2004; Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003; Zmarzer, 2008a). In Bowker and Pearson (2003) the term specialized language alternates with LSP; this may be attributed to the fact that the authors approach specialized language in the

broadest scope, but do so to provide instructions on creating corpora for learning. Hence, specialized language is used to refer to a linguistic phenomenon, while contexts concerning learners' needs contain LSP.

Special language and the Polish equivalent *język specjalny* seem less common than the two abovementioned terms. Temmerman (2000) refers to special language and specialized language interchangeably, though with a visible preference of the former (61 vs. seven instances), but this does not exhibit particular tendencies and can be explained by the author's approval of both terms (Temmerman, 2000: 3). She defines the term in question taking a very broad, discourse-oriented approach: "[a] special language can be defined as the collection of spoken and written discourse on a subject related to a discipline" (Temmerman, 2000: 46). It is not uncommon for the authors to refer to special language in inverted commas, when they wish to express reserve towards it and/or prefer another term. In Hartmann and James (2002: 81), special language appears as an option in the definition of LSP and as a cross-reference to LSP, which is not surprising owing to the work's lexicographic nature. Mackay and Mountford (1978) use inverted commas to demonstrate disapproval of the term, which they deem misleading, and suggest LSP and restricted repertoire instead (see above).

Special/specialized sublanguage and the Polish equivalents *podjęzyk/subjęzyk specjalny/specjalistyczny* immediately convey a certain status of specialized languages by the prefixes *pod-* and *sub-*: the dependence on general language (Kielar, 2008). Wojnicki (1991: 61) defines sublanguages as "internally coherent language subsets covering simultaneously all linguistic levels: lexical, morphological, syntactic and discursive"²². However, bearing in mind that a specialized language is functionally independent in a given discipline (see section 2.2) – Wojnicki states that a sublanguage is a communicatively autonomous set of linguistic phenomena – the term sublanguage seems to fail to convey specialized languages' internal dichotomy of formal dependence and functional independence.

Occupational/professional language and the Polish equivalents *język fachowy* and *język zawodowy* point to the context of use, i.e. one's occupation. Lukszyn (2008b: 155) views *język fachowy* as "a second-order semiotic code, a system of conventional signs which is secondary with regard to natural language"²³. This definition reveals his opinion on the very status of specialized languages, but provides no explanation as to the reason of choosing this particular term; moreover, Lukszyn refers interchangeably to professional and specialized

²² . . . wewnątrznie spójnych podzbiorów językowych, obejmujących jednocześnie wszystkie poziomy językowe: leksykalny, morfologiczny, składniowy i dyskursywny.

²³ . . . kod semiotyczny drugiego rzędu, wtórny względem języka naturalnego system konwencjonalnych znaków.

language, apparently treating the two as synonyms. Further on, he speaks of that language's functions: the function of knowledge thesaurus, knowledge generator and information transmitter in professional communication. The apparent LANGUAGE IS A MACHINE metaphor is indicative of his limiting the term to the occupational contexts, preferably technical ones. Doroszewski, who refers both to *język fachowy* and *język zawodowy*, assumes a similar approach in stating that

one cannot assess the correctness of a professional language, e.g. the medical language, in isolation from its basic function, i.e. professional communication and enabling reasoning (Doroszewski, 1999: 34)²⁴.

However, as Bajerowa (1982) remarks, specialized languages are also present in such fields as sport, art, religion or politics, which are neither science nor technology (though they may be studied scientifically) and which do not have to constitute professions (though certain people have made them their occupations). For instance, Mrowiec (2003) speaks of *język fachowy* in reference to a language directed to a wide non-specialized audience, the language used in cosmetic leaflets, concluding that it is a conglomeration of several specialized languages – those of biology, botany, chemistry, medicine and pharmacy.

Social group language and the Polish equivalent *język środowiskowy* are also understood differently by authors. For instance, Bajerowa (1982) treats the Polish term as a synonym of specialized language, which is evidenced by the very title of her paper. However, she does not include those parts of society that are central for Grabias (2010), in whose usage *język środowiskowy* denotes a language of a social group internally connected by a certain kind of bond, e.g. students and pupils, thieves or prisoners. Therefore, similarly to *język fachowy* and *język zawodowy*, this term highlights language users, but seems to concentrate on the informal bonds rather than those created by professions.

Professional/social group/occupational dialect and the Polish equivalents *gwara fachowa/środowiskowa/zawodowa* also point to the users and context, but can moreover be viewed as hybrids of the terms *język fachowy/środowiskowy/zawodowy* with the term *gwara*, which without these attributes is primarily associated with regional varieties of language (Wilkoń, 2000). Dialect is characterized by oral mode, spontaneity, informality, colloquial nature and expressiveness (Uniszewski, 1999: 49-50). Thus, these labels additionally stress the restricted nature of the phenomena in question, as well as their presumably less

²⁴ Nie można jednak oceniać poprawności języka zawodowego, np. medycznego, w oderwaniu od jego podstawowej funkcji, jaką jest fachowa komunikacja i umożliwienie rozumowania.

formal/official status, and such approach is visible in typologies of the Polish language (see subsection 3.2.2). Piekot (2008) opposes the use of ‘gwara’ because it comes from a separate linguistic discipline, i.e. dialectology.

Professional/social group/occupational variant (or *variety*) and the Polish equivalents *odmiana/odmianka fachowa/środowiskowa/zawodowa* (or *wariant fachowy/środowiskowy/zawodowy*) originate from and convey the variant approach to specialized languages (see subsection 3.2.2). As such they cannot be used to denote specialized language unless one agrees with that approach to language division.

3.1.2. Term group II

Jargon and its Polish equivalent *żargon* probably come from French and have an imitative origin (Bussmann, 2006; Collins Dictionary, n.d.; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.). They pose difficulties due to their polysemous nature as proved by the following general-language dictionaries’ definitions:

words and expressions used in a particular profession or by a particular group of people, which are difficult for other people to understand – often used to show disapproval: *Keep it simple and avoid the use of jargon.* (LDOCE, 2005)

1. specialized language concerned with a particular subject, culture, or profession; 2. language characterized by pretentious syntax, vocabulary, or meaning; 3. gibberish; 4. another word for pidgin (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

1: a: confused unintelligible language; b: a strange, outlandish, or barbarous language or dialect; c: a hybrid language or dialect simplified in vocabulary and grammar and used for communication between peoples of different speech; 2: the technical terminology or characteristic idiom of a special activity or group; 3: obscure and often pretentious language marked by circumlocutions and long words (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.)

a social group language characterized by specific vocabulary and being at variance with the general cultural and linguistic norms²⁵ (*Słownik Języka Polskiego*, 1996-1997).

Apparently, an advantage of the term *jargon* is its broad scope, i.e. the inclusion of grammar/syntax characteristics in addition to specialized vocabulary. However, its pejorative connotations of difficulties with understanding give specialized languages the status of

²⁵ język środowiskowy odznaczający się specyficznym słownictwem, niezgodny z ogólnymi normami kulturalnojęzykowymi

phenomena important and accessible only to the interested persons (Bussmann, 2006), with which the advocates of the role of specialized languages cannot agree (see section 2.5). An example of conscious and correct reference to a jargon ('occupational jargon', to be precise) is, in my opinion, the work of Uniszewski (1999). He describes the language of Polish investigators and operation workers and is explicit about its low linguistic quality (especially the brutal and vulgar nature), which in his view reflects poor morality, education and/or qualifications of said workers.

Argot also comes from French (Collins Dictionary, n.d.; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.; Piekot, 2008) and is defined as follows:

slang or jargon peculiar to a particular group, [esp.] (formerly) a group of thieves (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

an often more or less secret vocabulary and idiom peculiar to a particular group (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.)

a language variety used by a professional or social group²⁶ (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.).

The first two definitions highlight the secret nature of argots and pejorative connotations of difficulties with understanding. However, these are absent in the third definition, as well as the definition by Stanisław Kania, who popularized this term: for him, argot is a national language variety used by a professional or social group that differs from general language in the scope of lexis (Piekot, 2008: 31). Therefore, characteristics of argot are similar to those of jargon (broad scope, negative connotations and polysemy), making it an undesirable term for denoting specialized languages in general.

Slang is a word of unknown origin, defined as follows:

vocabulary, idiom, etc, that is not appropriate to the standard form of a language or to formal contexts, may be restricted as to social status or distribution, and is characteristically more metaphorical and transitory than standard language (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

1: language peculiar to a particular group; 2: an informal nonstandard vocabulary composed typically of coinages, arbitrarily changed words, and extravagant, forced, or facetious figures of speech (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.)

²⁶ odmiana języka używana przez jakąś grupę zawodową lub środowiskową

a colloquial language variety used by a professional or social group²⁷ (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.).

Thus, slang shares certain characteristics with jargon and argot (broad scope, negative connotations and polysemy), but it is additionally characterized by deviation from the norm. The latter is confirmed in a historical survey of English slang dictionaries performed by Coleman (1998): language recorded in them was characterized by ribaldry, obscenity and breaking rules, while its users were the lowest social classes (beggars, criminals etc.). Therefore, slang is a semantically limited term that does not seem appropriate for reference to all specialized languages.

3.1.3. Term group III

Professiolect, *sociolect* and *technolect*, as well as their Polish equivalents *profesjolekt*, *socjolekt* and *technolekt*, are morphologically analogous terms with an advantage of conciseness. This, together with the replacement of the word 'language' by *-lect*, gives an impression of restricted access to languages grouped under such name. Unfortunately, the application of these terms seems to be limited as well: *professiolect* narrows the context down to occupation, while *technolect* – to technical subject fields (see F. Grucza, 2008b). Obviously, they can be used with a broad meaning ascribed (so do e.g. Kielar, 2008 and F. Grucza, 1991), but might still cause a certain confusion in text reception due to the morpheme *techno-*. *Sociolect*, in turn, has a broad scope, as confirmed by its definitions:

a language variety characteristic for a certain social group²⁸ (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.)

(*linguistics*) a language variety that is associated with a specific social group (Collins Dictionary, n.d.).

Accordingly, in linguistics this term is increasingly often used in such general sense, i.e. to denote a socially conditioned variety of language, and is assumed as an umbrella term for *język środowiskowy*, professional language, *technolect* etc. (Grabias, 2010; Wilkoń, 2000).

²⁷ potoczna odmiana języka używana przez jakąś grupę zawodową lub środowiskową

²⁸ odmiana języka charakterystyczna dla jakiejś grupy społecznej

3.1.4. Term group IV

All the terms listed there refer to one aspect of specialized languages: their vocabulary. The adjectival attributes have features analogous to those used in terms from group I (e.g. the description of ‘fachowy’ in *język fachowy* provided above also applies to ‘fachowy’ in *słownictwo fachowe*). Terminology, however, deserves a separate discussion: it is treated in detail in section 4.2 (for *nomenclature* see also section 1.1).

3.1.5. Conclusion

Based on the above characterizations I have designed a tentative delimitation (Fig. 1) of specialized language status in comparison to phenomena denoted by the related terms. According to that schema, specialized languages are a type of sociolect, while profesiolects and techniolects are a specialized language type determined by the subject field’s function in the user’s life (occupation in opposition to auxiliary activity such as hobby). Subject field vocabulary is a central, but not the only, constituent of specialized language. Argot, jargon, slang and dialect (gwara) have been excluded due to their disadvantages discussed above. I also excluded sublanguages (due to the abovementioned failure to denote functional independence of specialized languages), but they would be placed on the level of sociolects. LSP/SPL was omitted because its designates depend on user’s needs; there exist numerous courses of specialized languages and one can also conceive of an educational need with regard to sociolects like the language of criminals (e.g. in the case of a rehabilitation worker), but it is hard to imagine the same for the language of students (which is acquired spontaneously during a specific period and then becomes unnecessary). To sum up, the schema envisages specialized languages as parts of general language, in line with the variant approach (subsection 3.2.2), but does not exclude their functional independence postulated by the autonomy approach (subsection 3.2.3). As it attempts to mark the scope of particular parts of general language, it also refers to the approach putting forward the existence of one language whose means are used with varying frequency/range (subsection 3.2.4).

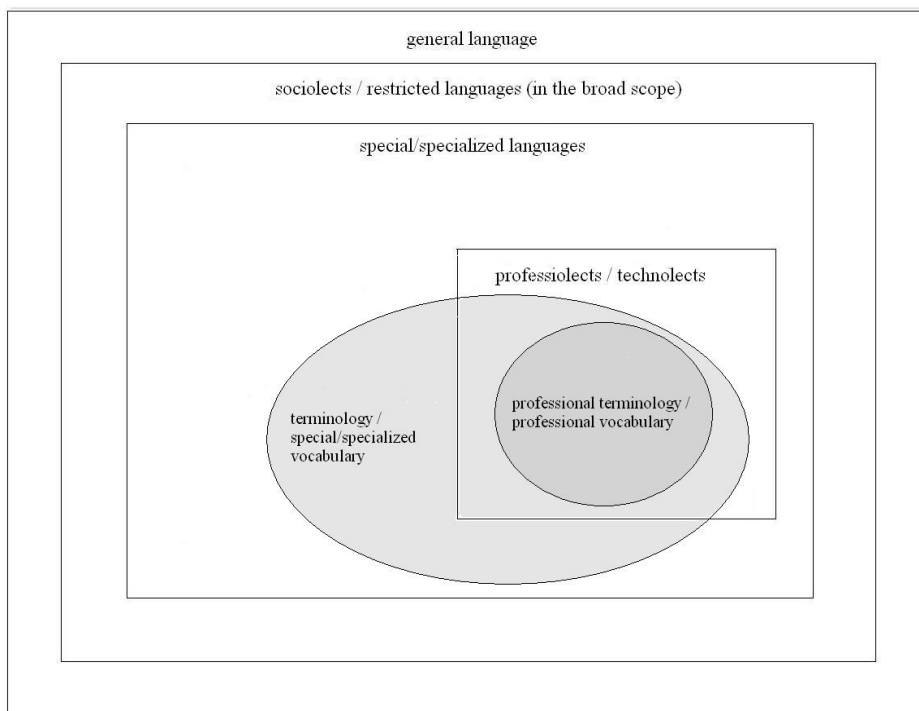
Finally, one should comment on numerous labels used to denote the linguistic status of specialized languages. Davies simply speaks of “different areas of language, known in various contexts as styles, registers, genres, specific purposes, varieties, or rhetorics” (Davies, 2007: 30), but each label has its devoted advocates. For instance, Klemensiewicz (1956) differentiates between variety and style, disapproving of the use of ‘style’ instead of ‘language’ (e.g. ‘official language’, not ‘official style’): he defines language as a system of grammatical and lexical means and style as a way of utilizing those means. This is an exact

opposition to Dejna (1980), who strongly prefers ‘style’ to the confusing overuse of ‘language’ (see subsection 3.2.4). Piekot (2008) also fears confusion because such use of the term ‘language’ omits the systemic nature of language and emphasizes communicativeness, thus introducing the colloquial understanding of the word ‘language’ into a scientific discipline – linguistics. Wilkoń (2000), however, reckons that ‘language’ is a much better fit than ‘style’ and he does not see any confusion connected with using ‘language’ for something that one actually considers a variety. He also views style as a set of linguistic means whose selection gives an utterance expressive marking. Bartmiński (1991) attempts to solve the dispute by introducing clear differentiation between style and variety: for him, style is an obligatory category in each language because even the languages of primitive cultures have at least two styles – artistic and colloquial. Moreover, styles are mutually untranslatable: one cannot express a given content in a different style without a significant change in meaning. Variety, in turn, encompasses two divisions:

- a) general – regional (dialects) – social (professional);
- b) spoken – written.

Variety is an optional category: a given language does not have to develop e.g. a written form or the specialized language of architecture. Moreover, varieties are mutually translatable: what has been expressed in a dialect can also be expressed in general language. In line with this distinction, specialized languages would need to be viewed as styles on one hand (mutual untranslatability) and varieties on the other (optional existence). Thus, I shall continue to speak of specialized languages, agreeing with Wilkoń on the small probability of confusion. Style and genre shall be treated herein as of specialized language features and reserved for a particular area of their study – stylistics and text analysis, presented in subsection 4.1.3.

Fig. 1. Tentative location of specialized language among the related terms.



3.2. The ‘language’: variety or autonomy – the linguistic status

The above discussion of terms used to refer to the phenomenon of specialized languages has shown us that choosing an accurate label is actually assuming a particular linguistic status for those languages. This section shall elaborate on the issue of their relation to language in general. One encounters two major opinions here: specialized languages are viewed either as a linguistic variety or as an autonomous phenomenon. Before presenting these, however, one should try to define the reference point – the non-specialized language.

3.2.1. The reference point – general language

The tentative diagram presented in Fig. 1 matches the most common opinion on the specialized language status: they are considered varieties of a superior phenomenon. Assuming its existence underlies most language divisions, but it “is rarely made explicit even in specialized dictionaries” (Hartmann and James, 2002: 128). Let us therefore discuss the following names used to refer to this phenomenon:

- general language;
- national language/official language/ethnic language;
- standard language;

- common language;
- language for general/generic purposes (LGP).

General language (Polish: *język ogólny*) is defined as “a national language variety known to the whole of society”²⁹ (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.). It is a complete language, encompassing phonetics, phonemics, grammar and lexicon, and it enables relatively independent communication among all the members of a particular community (S. Grucza, 2008b). Lukszyn (2002) remarks that it emerges as a result of historical and cultural development of a given nation and has three attributes: stylistic diversity, prescriptivism and being official. The latter two are actually characteristics of the notions of standard language and official language, respectively (see below), but the first feature is of greatest interest in this work as it indicates the author’s view on the status of specialized languages as stylistic variants. The role of the historical factor is demonstrated by Gajda (2001b) with reference to Polish, in which general language gradually evolved from the traditional notion of literary language. After World War I the latter was the dominant variety in relation to folk dialects and soon received a superior status of the national cultural treasure. This position was maintained by the usage of the intelligentsia, but the situation soon changed as many people of that social class fell in World War II. After 1945, for the first time in the history of Poland, a nationwide linguistic community emerged that encompassed all social classes, including peasants. Literary language still enjoyed high status, but its numerous new users represented a lower linguistic level: they were folk dialects users whose life changed due to a rapid social advance. That process triggered internal changes of language and resulted in first discussions on typology of variants in Polish (see subsection 3.2.2) – in the 1950s. Moreover, literary language began to be replaced by the notion of general language – more democratic and influenced by the invasion of informality (i.e. everyday language variants). Since around the 1980s, literary language has functioned as one of the variants within general language. The latter is also mentioned in the language teaching context (Bowker and Pearson, 2003; Hartmann and James, 2002; Wilkins, 2005) and in specialized language studies (Cabr , 2003; Temmerman, 2000); in those publications, it is used in the meaning of non-technical/non-LSP discourse, although it is not defined precisely. In this work, general language has thus far been mentioned only to name the reference phenomenon for specialized language. I will continue to do so because this term is free from the language planning, normative, official, political and social connotations which occur in connection with the remaining terms discussed below.

²⁹ odmiana języka narodowego znana ogółowi społeczeństwa

National language (Polish: *język narodowy*) is usually understood as the principal language used in a particular country or area and shaping national identity (Davis, 2007). According to some authors, it can additionally acquire the status of an *official language* (Polish: *język urzędowy*) by way of a governmental decision (e.g. Comrie, 2005; Trask, 2007). For others, it is a vernacular whose position has been raised, so the notion of national language already includes the official status (Laycock and Mühlhäusler, 2005). As I agree with the former opinion, national language is viewed herein as suggested by Hartmann and James (2002: 98): “language used *de facto* for everyday purposes in a country or territory, e.g. English in Ireland”, sometimes in contradiction to a designated official language, for instance

in former British or American colonies such as India or the Philippines where English is still used as a medium of education and is recognized as an official language alongside the national language (Dudley-Evans, 2006: 616).

Moreover, several countries, such as the USA, have no official language, but a few national languages (compare the significant Hispanic minority in the USA), while others have more than one official language (e.g. Switzerland). For this reason, Wilkoń (2000: 14) approves of the term *ethnic language* (Polish: *język etniczny*), which he considers more appropriate in relation to such diverse nations.

Standard language (Polish: *język standardowy*) is associated with regulatory activities, as evidenced by the following definitions:

[the] relatively uniform variety of a [language] used for interregional communication. Standard language forms are the result of long-term effects of linguistic and other [norms] promoted by cultural institutions, such as [academies], and publications such as textbooks, grammars and [dictionaries], which tend to favor literary/written rather than colloquial/dialectal [usage] (Hartmann and James, 2002: 130).

the dialect selected and codified for official purposes, including education (Davies, 2007: 167).

Bridging the norms allows one to achieve linguistic highlighting, resulting in a different language variety, as is the case with literary or poetic language (Carter, 2005; Malmkjær, 2006). In France, the notion of standard language is even promoted and governed by an official academy (Fromkin et al., 2003; Pawłowicz, 2010). Such external regulations inevitably involve a certain idealization of language and its use; as Davies (2007: 154) observes, “standard language is itself an idealization, the goal of education both for L1 and

L2, taken for granted by SLA researchers, the prototype for sociolinguistics”. In reality, language is a unique human possession and a truly democratic force: it changes and becomes diversified despite institutional efforts, which actually frequently weaken its powers of expression (Finch, 2003: 1-3; Opitz, 1982). Thus, Fromkin et al. (2003) speak instead of a standard dialect: they reckon that the phenomenon in question is just an idealized dominant dialect of a given language. For instance, Standard American English (SAE) is the standard dialect in the USA, while divergences from it receive separate labels such as ‘Chicago dialect’ or ‘African American English’; in Great Britain, this role is fulfilled by Standard English. Consequently, as already indicated by the definition by Hartmann and James, standard language is often viewed as superior to dialects and considered by its speakers as the “most appropriate in formal and educational contexts” (Trask, 2007: 272). Therefore, its notion involves the delicate issue of social opportunities that it offers and discrimination against dialect speakers, as well as the question regarding the extent to which dialects should be taught at schools (Milroy and Milroy, 2005). However, these important social topics fall outside the scope of the present work and shall not be pursued herein.

Common language is ambiguous from the outset: owing to the attributive ‘common’, it may be understood in four ways, with four different Polish equivalents required:

- the part of a language shared by all speakers of that language (język wspólny);
- the totality of language’s manifestations (Opitz, 1982: 186) (cały język?);
- the ordinary, unsophisticated language (prosty język/zwykły język);
- the part of the language which is frequently used (język popularny).

Alternatively, one could consider referring to ‘język powszechny’ as an equivalent in Polish because it shares the polysemy presented above, but such label would be equally unhelpful. Opitz (1982) actually warns against ascribing the function of a term to common language, since a vague phenomenon devoid of definition cannot be used for defining another problematic phenomenon (i.e. specialized language).

Language for general/generic purposes (LGP) is mostly used in those language teaching contexts and specialized language studies which employ the notion of LSP (see section 3.1), for the sake of coherence and analogy. Bowker and Pearson (2003: 1) define LGP as “the kind of everyday language that you find in newspapers, for example”, while Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 16) state that it “may be seen as synonymous with standard language”. The definitions being very vague and non-informative, putting LGP and LSP together highlights another problem with these terms: the difficulty in defining which

purposes are general and which are specific, especially from the point of view of individual speakers. Therefore, LGP will not be used in this work.

General language – specialized language relationship has been viewed in different ways. Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995: 16-19) provide a brief survey of possibilities (using the acronyms LGP and LSP for the two phenomena):

- 1) the systemic approach: all LSPs are parts of general language. A given language is based on a general system which all LSPs utilize to varying extents;
- 2) the lexical approach: LGP is a subset of LSP because the latter can use all general-language words, but additionally contains specialized vocabulary not present in LGP;
- 3) the communicative approach: LGP and LSP are distinct phenomena used in different situations (everyday communication vs. specialized communication). Using LGP in an LSP communicative situation would impoverish the message;
- 4) ‘the atomizing approach’ (name – E.P.): every language variety, e.g. a medical novel or a medical handbook, is a different LSP because each usage is situation-specific;
- 5) ‘the gradualist approach’ (name – E.P.): different degrees of expertise require different language varieties, as in a technical text for specialists, a technical textbook, a popular-science article and a newspaper advice column.

However, if approaches 4 and 5 equal denying the existence of LGP as a variety, they become counter-intuitive because the assumption of its existence is the basis for foreign language teaching and the similarity of certain usage situations, such as radio and TV news, which share selected grammatical constructions and vocabulary. Thus, Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995) put forward their own model of LGP – LSP relationship:

- 6) the intersection (INT) approach: LSP and LGP have a mutual part as LSP contains common words and structures.

Upon a closer look at the presented summary, approaches 4 and 5 pertain more to the diversification of specialized languages, as well as that of their users and extralinguistic knowledge (all discussed in sections 3.3 and 3.4) rather than to the relation with general language. The remaining items fall into two major groups:

- a) specialized languages are varieties of general language: 1, 2 (subsection 3.2.2);
- b) specialized languages are autonomous phenomena: 3, 6 (subsection 3.2.3).

A similar division emerged from a survey of the postwar specialized language research conducted by Dickel (2008a), who arrived at two main approaches:

Table 2. Two main approaches to general language – specialized language relation (Dickel, 2008a).

Confrontation: specialized language opposed to general language (corresponds to b) above – E.P.)	Abolishing the confrontation (corresponds to a) above – E.P.)
Abolishing differences between specialized languages	Specialized languages as a diversified group
<p>Main research trends:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lexicology and specialized vocabulary (long regarded as the only distinctive feature of specialized languages – see chapter 1 and section 4.2) - functional stylistics (see subsection 4.1.3) - the integrational trend (specialized language is distinguished both by specific vocabulary and stylistic features) 	<p>Main research trends:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - theory of sublanguages (see section 3.1) - the communicative-functional trend (takes into account also the extralinguistic factors: situation, users etc.)

According to these results, confronting specialized language with general language results in considering specialized languages as one group, while allowing general language as a superior phenomenon moves the comparison into that group. Though it is not possible to view specialized languages in both ways, these two approaches complement each other in terms of research trends, each of which broadens the perspective of specialized language research.

3.2.2. Specialized language as a variety of general language

Let us depart from the very word ‘language’: various sources estimate that the number of languages in the world amounts to 5,000 – 6,000 (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995; Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; McWhorter, 2003). This number depends on recognizing or denying dialects as separate languages, but, as Bergenholtz and Tarp (1995) remark, it does not include, for instance, technical English or students’ English, although these certainly differ from other varieties, e.g. legal English or children’s books’ English (all these seem to be easily lumped together under the label of a given national language). Accordingly, numerous ways of dividing language internally exist. Traditionally, three basic variants are distinguished in language, which is referred to as the variant approach (S. Grucza, 2008b; Wilkoń, 2000):

- a) general language;
- b) dialects;
- c) specialized languages.

This is reflected in the division by Zgusta (1971), where the third type is stylistic variants, among them specialized languages:

- a) standard national language;

- b) dialects;
- c) stylistic variants:
 - social dialects;
 - functional languages (e.g. scientific language, poetic language);
 - restricted languages (e.g. hunters' language; see section 3.1); here belong i.a.:
 - jargons: languages of the inferior society classes, e.g. criminals;
 - slangs: spoken restricted languages, e.g. the slang of the hunters.

As indicated in subsection 3.2.1, the discussion on typology of language varieties began in Poland in the 1950s. Wilkoń (2000) provides a summary and evaluation of the formed typologies; internal language division is not the main subject of this work, so the overview of those typologies shall focus on the status that they ascribe to specialized languages:

- 1) Zenon Klemensiewicz, the author of the first typology (1956), views professional languages as parts of the colloquial variety of general language, itself an important variety within the national language. In names such as 'the language of science' or 'the language of hunting' the segment 'language' is generic (an abbreviation of 'the Polish language'), while the attributes 'of science' or 'of hunting' indicate *differentia specifica*. The scientific language, however, is deemed a variety of literary language.
- 2) Stanisław Urbańczyk in his typology (1979) divides general language into communicative and artistic; the former one is subdivided into the colloquial and specialized (professional) variety – the author is reluctant to label them 'languages'.
- 3) Antoni Furdal designed a typology with crossing criteria yielding various languages (1973). The most important one is the spoken colloquial literary language, while professional language includes spoken and written scientific language plus urban and rural professional language.
- 4) Teresa Skubalanka introduced the notion of style in her typology (1976) and consequently distinguished three main styles: non-nationwide spoken, nationwide spoken and nationwide written. The second includes four colloquial styles: social, professional, family and biological, while the third – artistic, scientific and official.
- 5) Walery Pisarek in his typology (1978) divided national language into two branches (he also avoids the term 'language'): a general cultural variety and a group including territorial, professional and social group varieties. The former is divided into spoken and written variety, and each of these includes various undefined functional styles.
- 6) Danuta Buttler proposed a typology (1982) dividing general language into two types: spoken and written. The spoken type includes two subtypes: official and mainstream;

in the latter we find information-living style (Polish: styl informacyjno-bytowy), which is realized as professional jargons. Scientific style is found both in the spoken and written type.

- 7) Stanisław Gajda based his typology (1982) on the general – non-general dichotomy; the only general language is colloquial literary language, while all other languages are restricted to some extent. However, some of them are written (like scientific and official language), while others are spoken (e.g. jargons).

Having discussed those typologies, Wilkoń (2000) concludes with presenting his own, based on the traditional opposition: general language – folk dialects (level I – the top). Only the former also has a written form, while the latter – only spoken (level II). Level III includes functional varieties, among them scientific and official ones. Professolects can only be found on level IV, together with regional varieties, sociolects, biolects and psycholects. The bottom (level V) is a novelty: written and spoken idiolects, i.e. linguistic systems of individuals containing their unique features (speech habits) (Crystal, 2003). Placed at the bottom of the typology, it may be viewed as a basis for language as a whole, in accordance with the anthropocentric theory (see subsection 3.2.3).

A recurrent feature of the presented typologies is treatment of specialized languages as varieties associated with the spoken form, informal/inferior status and/or non-sublime aspects of life (i.e. work), in contrast to e.g. artistic varieties. Those typologies also share the approach to scientific language, which is frequently ascribed written form and listed separately, presumably to indicate that it should be viewed as a variety possessing a higher status than specialized languages.

3.2.3. Specialized language as an autonomous phenomenon

This view assumes that specialized languages are relatively independent, only related/supplementary to general language, and is shared by such researchers as Cabré (1999), F. Grucza (2008a) and S. Grucza (2008a, 2008b). The latter two criticize the traditional variant approach to internal language division and advocate the anthropocentric theory of language. The theory presupposes that linguistics should depart from the notion of idiolect, whose location as the foundation of language in the diagram designed by Wilkoń (2000) (see subsection 3.2.2) accordingly ceases to be surprising. Davies is very clear about the matter:

[no] individual has a language as their first language; what we all have as our first language is an idiolect, our own identifying idiolect which distinguishes us from everyone else, even from our own siblings (Davies, 2007: 154).

Idiolect is also regarded a starting point for linguistics within the frames of the integrational linguistics theory because “sets of idiolects yield linguistic varieties such as dialects, sociolects, or individual languages such as English or German” (Bussmann, 2006: 575). Internal language division is then based on the notion of *polylect* (Polish: *polilekt*), understood in two ways:

- 1) a logical cross section of idiolects of people belonging to any community, i.e. the mutual part of idiolects which is known by all the members (phonetics, phonemics and grammar are traditionally viewed this way). This is real language and as such should be given priority in research;
- 2) a logical sum of idiolects of people belonging to any community, i.e. all parts of that set of idiolects (lexicon is traditionally viewed this way). This entails constructs/ideal models of language and should have a secondary position in linguistics.

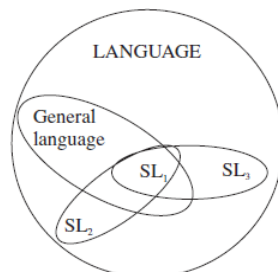
Accordingly, specialized languages should be divided into two categories:

- a) real specialized languages: specialized idiolects of particular subject field specialists. Based on them one can establish specialized polylects understood as cross sections (the mutual part). The more narrow/specific the subject field, the larger the overlap of idiolects, i.e. the scope of such polylect;
- b) construed specialized languages: ideal models being a sum of all idiolects of a given subject field’s members. They are not mutual languages of those groups of specialists, only their mutual creations. General labels like ‘medical language’ or ‘chemical language’ designate precisely those constructs. Attempts of describing them result i.a. in creation of specialized dictionaries, databases etc.

Real specialized languages are inherent properties of particular humans, and more precisely, of those humans’ brains. They exist solely in connection with the brains, so one needs to begin the linguistic study from the bottom, i.e. from real language users, and then proceed to generalizations and constructs. Real specialized languages cannot be authoritatively distinguished and classified as happens in the variant approach. The diagram designed by S. Grucza (2008b: 147) is in line with point 6 in subsection 3.2.1; the mutual part of general and specialized language shown there contains phonetics, morphology, grammar and general lexis (see also Bowker and Pearson, 2003). Specialized language intersects with

general language, “with which it not only shares features but also maintains constant exchange of units and conventions” Cabré (1999: 65-66), as shown in the following diagram:

Fig. 2. Specialized language (SL) as a subset of general language (Cabré, 1999: 66).



This status is based on the view of language as substance and can be compared to the status of an autonomous area in geography. However, according to F. Grucza and S. Grucza, in the functional aspect specialized languages are fully independent: they serve communication aims which cannot be satisfied by general idiolect or by another specialized language without changing the informative value of the message. Virtually any subject can be discussed at two levels: general (e.g. a chat about the weather) and specialized to a varying degree (e.g. a discussion of meteorologists about the weather) (Bowker and Pearson, 2003). Such functional approach, in turn, agrees with point 3 in subsection 3.2.1.

3.2.4. One language – objecting the division

The two possibilities presented above, i.e. treating specialized languages as varieties of general language (subsection 3.2.2) or considering them autonomous (subsection 3.2.3), actually presuppose the fact that specialized languages are separate phenomena which can be delineated and described. In both propositions they are viewed as collections of subject field vocabulary and/or syntactic properties, and the only difference lies in the status ascribed to them in relation to general language (subordination vs. autonomy). “Perhaps the easiest way to describe LSP is to put it in opposition to LGP” (Bowker and Pearson, 2003: 25), but is it the most accurate way? What happens if we question that assumed separatedness? This is the essence of the third view on the position of specialized languages: all linguistic means form one system and are chosen for use with varying frequency depending on the existing situation and user’s needs. “What we have is the same language employed for similar and different uses” (Mackay and Mountford (1978: 5). Initially, a common situation experienced by most language users seems to contradict such approach: who has not encountered a subject field

text which he/she perceived as difficult and hence specialized? Dejna (1980) locates such instances of language use on the level of *parole* and reserves the term ‘language’ for *langue* – a separate system which ‘language or medicine’ or ‘language of students’ do not possess. He firmly claims that specialized vocabulary is only an individual, stylistic diversification within one language, e.g. Polish or English. Thus, one should not use any of the names discussed in subsection 3.1.1 herein because these introduce a wrong impression of separatedness of the phenomena in question.

Moreover, recognizing a ‘difficult’ text is only a negative identification (the user knows that he/she is not familiar with a given discourse, but cannot define it precisely), as pointed out by Opitz (1982) in his brilliant article. The author’s volubility is employed in support of his key argument: describing specialized language using common language/standard language (the terms Opitz uses to denote general language) as a reference point is futile effort because the latter “is but another grand inconnu and far from the big help in defining LSP we so confidently thought it to be” (Opitz, 1982: 186). General language “is seen as an anchor to hold [specialized language] firmly to the linguistic ground” (Opitz, 1982: 188), but the fuzziness of boundaries between them can be demonstrated on the basis of figurative speech. The latter is believed to constitute a characteristic of general, unrestricted language, yet Opitz proves that the long-lasting argument against its presence in the specialized language (see section 4.2) is invalid. Analyzing the history of two metaphorical expressions ‘to take the helm’ and ‘to field questions’, which shows their transfer from general to specialized and then back to general context, he demonstrates lack of clear delimitation. The latter transfer is known as *determinologization*, i.e. flow of specialized vocabulary into general discourse (Bowker and Pearson, 2003), and has happened for instance to numerous medical terms (e.g. AIDS, anorexia, BSE, diabetes) and IT terms (i.a. byte, e-mail, modem). Bergh and Ohlander (2012) even speak of a porous boundary, exemplifying it by football language, which they actually argue to have become a public language, or “a special language with a public face” (ibid: 40), owing to its (and the game’s) enormous popularity worldwide. General or specialized status of words (like that of ‘helm’ and ‘field’) depends on their purpose, but, bearing in mind that all instances of language use have a purpose (decided by the speaker), common/standard language would be “a changing body of specialized elements which it absorbs and distributes in turn” (Opitz, 1982: 191). True, we do distinguish and have difficulty with unfamiliar, highly specialized vocabulary, but those problems actually stem from the small frequency of their use: such ‘difficult’ discourse is beyond what Opitz calls ‘the middle road’ (frequent, casual language, found e.g. in newspapers). Speech acts sharing

intentions of many speakers become common/standard language, while others remain marginal to a varying degree, forming particular specialized languages. In other words,

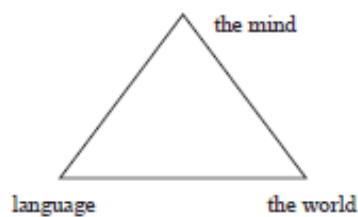
there is no fundamental difference in nature between common linguistic signs and terms, . . . since each time we learn a new common word we also need encyclopedic information. . . . In this sense, specialized language differs only by the profundity of knowledge from common language (Hummel, 2009: 114).

In such situation, Opitz recommends that specialized language research depart from texts and be function-oriented, replacing the old concept of language as substance (i.e. specialized lexis and syntactic features). As a result of such analyses, specialized languages may prove to be mere speech strategies, in which case defining them would be no easier, but we could instead attempt to explain how they operate.

3.3. The ‘specialized’: extralinguistic determinants – knowledge and specialists

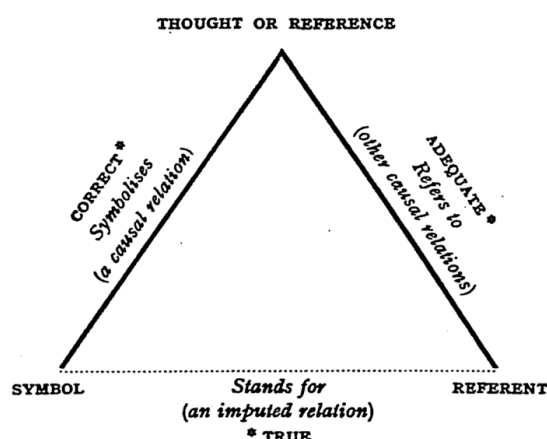
In the case of specialized languages, the relation of language with extralinguistic knowledge comes to the fore. Paths of denotation have been investigated for centuries, as demonstrated by the famous semantic/semiotic triangle. The idea has roots in works as early as those of Parmenides (ca. 540–470 BC) (Bussmann, 2006), but its modern form was introduced in 1908 by Heinrich Gomperz:

Fig. 3. The semantic triangle of Gomperz (Temmerman, 2000: 59).



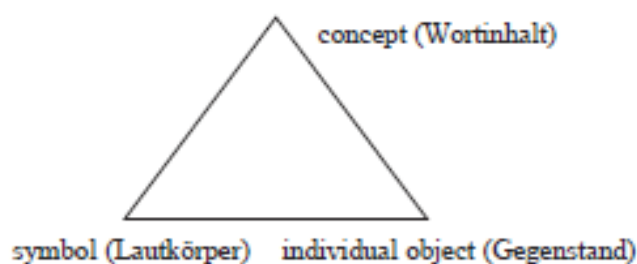
The most famous version, though, was developed by Ogden and Richards (1923):

Fig. 4. The semantic triangle of Ogden and Richards (1923: 14).



As Temmerman (2000) shows, the idea has been referred to by many authors, including Eugen Wüster, a founding father of traditional Terminology (see section 4.2):

Fig. 5. The semantic triangle of Eugen Wüster (Temmerman, 2000: 59).



Regardless of the version, the semantic triangle presupposes a three-side relation in meaning. The symbol (a unit of language) is linked to a concept (image, thought) in the human mind, which in turn directs one to the referent (an object from the extralinguistic world), on whose basis the concept was created in the mind. However, the triangles differ in the approach to the symbol – referent relation: for Ogden and Richards it is indirect because linguistic symbolization must take place through concepts in the mind.

The language – knowledge link is very important for specialized vocabulary analysis, which is the task of the present work; subject field knowledge constitutes a half of an individual’s specialized culture, the other half being linguistic competence (see section 2.1). However, subject field knowledge and specialized language cannot be discussed in isolation from those who create, possess and use these two phenomena, and who have been referred to as experts or specialists. A word sometimes used as a synonym of the latter two is *professional(ist)* (Polish: *profesjonalista, zawodowiec*), but it shall not be pursued here

because its meaning is restricted to persons for whom the activity in a given subject field constitutes an occupation and/or whose skills are on a high level (which omits a large group composed of hobbyists and interested laypeople).

Knowledge is defined as follows:

1. the whole of information obtained owing to research, learning etc.; also: the body of information concerning a given subject field; 2. being acquainted with something (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.)³⁰

1 the facts, feelings or experiences known by a person or group of people; 2 the state of knowing; 3 awareness, consciousness, or familiarity gained by experience or learning; 4 erudition or informed learning; 5 specific information about a subject (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

2 a (1): the fact or condition of knowing something with familiarity gained through experience or association . . .

b (1): the fact or condition of being aware of something (2): the range of one's information or understanding <answered to the best of my *knowledge*>

c: the circumstance or condition of apprehending truth or fact through reasoning: cognition

d: the fact or condition of having information or of being learned <a person of unusual *knowledge*>

. . .

4 a: the sum of what is known: the body of truth, information, and principles acquired by humankind

b *archaic*: a branch of learning (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.).

The cited definitions can be grouped under two general meanings:

a) the body of information gathered by mankind;

b) the body of information gathered by an individual,

as well as – from a different point of view – under two other:

c) the body of information gathered by mankind regarding all matters;

d) the body of information gathered by mankind regarding a particular subject field.

The bond between a) and b) is analogous to that holding between idiolect and polylect (see subsection 3.2.3), hence S. Grucza (2008b) coins two neologisms:

e) polyknowledge (Polish: poli wiedza specjalistyczna): the sum or cross section of knowledge possessed by a group of specialists, possibly up to all the (living and/or deceased) specialists in a given field, e.g. in chemistry;

³⁰ 1. ogół wiadomości zdobytych dzięki badaniom, uczeniu się itp.; też: zasób informacji z jakiejś dziedziny;
2. znajomość czegoś

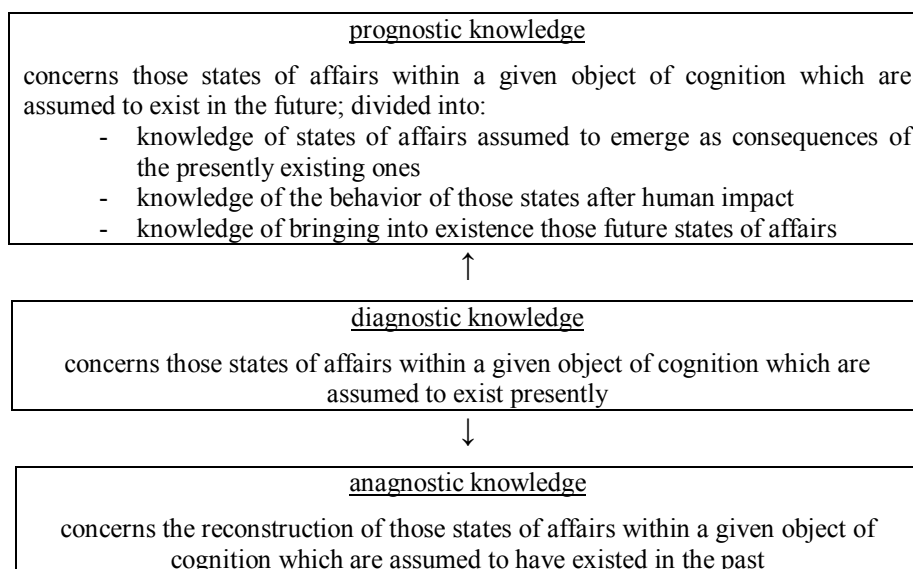
f) idioknowledge (Polish: *idiowiedza specjalistyczna*): knowledge possessed by an individual specialist and existing solely in connection with his/her brain.

Items a-f classify knowledge on the basis of its scope (regarding content and users); other divisions have utilized i.a. the following factors (S. Grucza, 2008b; Woźnicka, 2008):

- access: e.g. open, codified, hidden;
- cognitive status: e.g. true, false, scientific, rational;
- mode of creation: e.g. empirical, revealed;
- period: e.g. ancient, contemporary.

Unfortunately, none of these classifications is sufficient, so S. Grucza (2008b) suggests his own, presented in the following diagram:

Fig. 6. Division of knowledge suggested by S. Grucza (2008b).



Diagnostic knowledge (supplemented by anagnostic knowledge) therefore plays a role of theoretical knowledge, while prognostic knowledge is practical: it aims at changing the state of affairs. This view of knowledge progress in time along with the research is extended by Gross, who distinguishes six knowledge states/types: knowledge, ignorance, non-knowledge, negative knowledge, extended knowledge and nescience (Janich et al., 2010 after Gross, 2007). An important consequence for a linguist is that those states are actually communicated by specialized language users, as proved by Janich et al. (2010) for German.

The words *expert* (Polish: *ekspert*) and *specialist* (Polish: *specjalista*) are both used to denote a person knowledgeable in a given subject field. *Expert* is defined as follows:

1. a specialist appointed to make a ruling on disputable matters; 2. a person considered as an authority in a given subject field.³¹ (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.)

a person who has extensive skill or knowledge in a particular field (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

1 *obsolete*: experienced; 2 having, involving, or displaying special skill or knowledge derived from training or experience (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.).

Specialist has the following definitions:

a person distinguished by thorough knowledge of a given subject field³² (Słownik Języka Polskiego, n.d.)

a person who specializes in or devotes himself to a particular area of activity, field of research, etc (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

a medical practitioner whose practice is limited to a particular class of patients (as children) or of diseases (as skin diseases) or of technique (as surgery) (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.).

Although the definitions are similar, *expert* evokes a connotation of profession and formality (compare ‘expert witness’ and ‘experts report’); the definition in Słownik Języka Polskiego (n.d.) even states that an expert is a particular type of specialist (possibly a more advanced one). Although Bowker and Pearson (2003: 27) remark that “a specialized field does not necessarily have to be one that is highly ‘technical’, nor do the experts have to be ‘professionals’”, *specialist* more clearly points to the person’s restricted area of interest without assessing the level of knowledge or skills. In addition, it more readily includes non-professionals and their motivation (compare: “devotes himself to a particular area”) and displays morphological affinity to *specialized language* – a term of choice in this work. Thus, specialized language users shall be referred to herein as specialists, with the exception of discussing the views of those authors who prefer to speak of experts (see section 2.1).

3.4. Language and knowledge – classification of specialized languages

Given that specialized languages are multifunctional tools (see chapter 2) used in particular subject fields, the category of specialized language should itself be possible to divide

³¹ 1. specjalista powoływany do wydania orzeczenia lub opinii w sprawach spornych; 2. osoba uznawana za autorytet w jakiejś dziedzinie

³² człowiek odznaczający się gruntowną znajomością jakiejś dziedziny

internally. As is the case with taxonomies, criteria are problematic and classified items have fuzzy boundaries. Moreover, specialized language typologies have an important limitation: as the number of communicative groups in any society is open, they are based on the most important and well-described items. For these reasons, numerous researchers are against creating classifications. The other approach, however, acknowledges the legitimacy of the latter if they are based both on theory and research, and thus several attempts have been made to divide specialized languages (Piekot, 2008).

3.4.1. Classification based on disciplines

The first and probably the most easily conceivable type of division is based on disciplines (Cabr , 1999). One may be tempted to say that there are possibly as many specialized languages as there are disciplines (Gajda, 1982), in which case one could expect a high number due to the rapidly increasing 20th-century specialization (see section 2.6). However, no agreement has been reached regarding the classification of the disciplines themselves, so there has been no ordered basis for distinction of specialized languages, either, as precisely reflected by the title of an article by Jan Lewandowski (2008): “Paratypologie i quasi-klasyfikacje polskich j zyk w profesjonalnych”³³. All the so-called historical classifications of sciences (such as *artes liberales* or divisions from the Middle Ages) have long become obsolete and shall not be discussed here. However, a significant system was developed in the 19th century by Melvil Dewey to organize library contents and has been known as the Dewey Decimal Classification (DDC) or the Dewey Decimal System (Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.; Lewandowski, 2008). Its principle of operation is presented in Table 3, which I have designed on the basis of the entry for DDC in Encyclopedia Britannica. This classification forms the basis for the whole Polish publishing market, as evidenced by the content of two publications issued by the National Library of Poland: *Przewodnik Bibliograficzny*³⁴ and *Bibliografia Zawarto ci Czasopism*³⁵ (Biblioteka Narodowa, n.d.; Lewandowski, 2008). Lewandowski (2008) also compares the classification of sciences developed by Stanis aw Kami ski in 1992 and the list of sciences issued by the State Committee for Scientific Research (KBN) in Poland. Both of them depart from a similar division of sciences: Kami ski distinguishes between theoretical and practical, while KBN – between basic and applied disciplines. Both lists name 83 theoretical/basic and 70 practical/applied disciplines, which gives a total of 153

³³ Paratypologies and quasi-classifications of the Polish professional languages.

³⁴ The bibliographical guide.

³⁵ Bibliography of the content of periodicals.

disciplines. This might also be a tentative number of Polish specialized languages because generally understood disciplines such as biology or chemistry do not develop specialized languages: it is particular subdisciplines that do this. In KBN's list biology has seven subdisciplines, i.a. biology of plants, biology of animals and molecular biology, whose languages differ significantly due to their subject matters. On the other hand, subdisciplines of a given 'mother' discipline can be expected to be related and share a part of linguistic means. Thus, if typologies of disciplines are to constitute a basis for specialized language classification, a proper level of detail is required. The only way to establish it is via linguistic research, so it is not difficult to imagine that specialized linguistics could in turn contribute to a more accurate classification of disciplines. Unfortunately, classifications of specialized languages based on lists of disciplines omit specialized languages of non-scientific areas such as hobbies (Piekot, 2008). This is not the case of the next division, where these are central.

Table 3. Principle of operation of the Dewey Decimal Classification.

Ten main groups		Principal subseries divided by ten		Further subseries with digits		Further subseries with decimal numbers	
Assigned numbers	Discipline						
000–099	general works						
100–199	philosophy and psychology						
200–299	religion						
300–399	social sciences						
400–499	language						
500–599	natural sciences and mathematics						
600–699	technology						
700–799	the arts						
800–899	literature and rhetoric						
900–999	history, biography and geography	940s	history of Europe	942	history of England	942.06	history of the Stuart period
						942.063	history of the English Commonwealth

3.4.2. Classification based on function

Apart from the discipline, specialized languages can be grouped according to their function. A common classification distinguishes three specialized language types (Buttler, 1973; Grabias, 1974, 1994; Ożdżyński, 1979):

- nominative: they supplement the vocabulary of general language and are aimed at precise communication (e.g. languages of sciences);

- expressive: they maintain relationships and/or express a humorous or ironic attitude to the world (e.g. the language of students);
- masking/secret: they make the message incomprehensible to non-users (e.g. the language of prisoners).

Such division is not clear-cut either; the language of anglers, for instance, may be both nominative (e.g. terms denoting equipment or fish) and expressive (phrases like ‘a Sunday angler’), while the language of prisoners is both masking and expressive (see subsection 3.4.3). Moreover, the criterion of secrecy has ceased to be significant and is limited to few social groups, usually the criminals (Piekot, 2008; Wilkoń, 2000).

Function is also exposed in the Anglo-American specialized language research, which is oriented at language teaching; the notion of purpose is embedded in the very name of the phenomenon – LSP (see section 1.3). Although it may be claimed that no language has a purpose because it is humans who aim at communicating with one another via language (Perrin-Taillat (2010) – see section 2.1), the goal of language use may constitute a classificatory criterion. For the needs of teaching, several ESPs have been distinguished:

Table 4. Main ESPs in the field of specialized language teaching (S. Grucza, 2008b; Johns, 1991).

EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EBE	English for Business and Economics
EBP	English for Business Purposes
EBT	English for Business and Technology
ELP	English for Legal Purposes
EMFE	English for Management, Finance and Economics
EMP	English for Medical Purposes/English for Military Purposes
EOP	English for Occupational Purposes
ESS	English for Social Studies
EST	English for Science and Technology

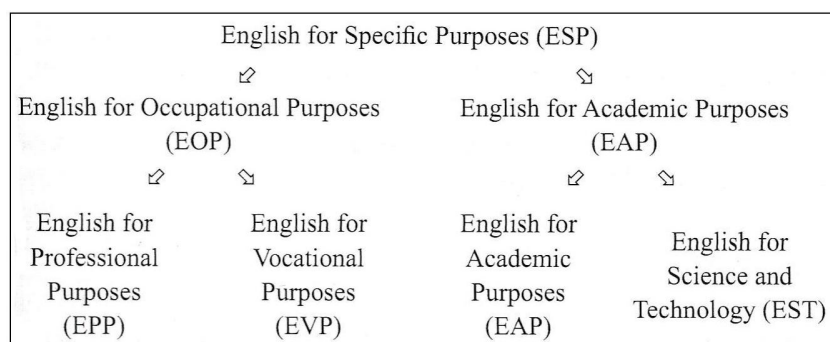
Authors have attempted to order the diversified set of ESPs. Trimble (1992) suggested the following tentative division:

Fig. 7. An internal division of ESP proposed by Trimble (1992).

<i>English for Academic Purposes</i>		<i>English for Occupational Purposes</i>
<i>General English</i>	<i>EST fields</i>	<i>EST occupations</i>
	Engineering	Engineering technicians
	Forestry	Laboratory technicians
	Computer sciences	Mechanics
	Electronics	Electricians
	Mining	Plumbers
	Medicine	Computer operators
	Dietetics	Etc.
	Nursing	
	Etc.	

A more complex division was prepared by Johns (1991):

Fig. 8. An internal division of ESP developed by Johns (1991) (after S. Gruzca, 2008b).



Both classifications feature two main ESP groups: EAP and EOP, thus advocating a division into specialized languages used in science and practical applications, respectively. This resembles the language of science – sociolect opposition, frequently found in the internal language classifications presented in subsection 3.2.2. However, contrary to those authors, researchers in specialized language teaching do not ascribe language of science a higher status: academic and occupational purposes are equally important.

3.4.3. Classification based on user groups

Specialized languages can also be classified based on their user groups, which emphasizes the link existing between specialized linguistics and sociology. Wilkoń (2000) lists five tentative conditions for a group’s language to be classified as sociolect (his term of preference) (see also Sztompka, 2002):

- an environment whose members are connected by strong intragroup (professional, cultural and social) bonds;

- relative stability of the group;
- a strong feeling of being different than other groups;
- continuity of tradition;
- contacts among the group's members not limited to professional situations.

Wilkoń does admit that not all social groups fulfill these conditions, hence the limited number of sociolects. Those which do, however, form a language that shapes a certain model of life which goes beyond the relationships at work; a good example is the social group of Silesian miners. Such linguistic realities, Wilkoń remarks, should be the object of special attention on behalf of sociolinguists. He then suggests the following classification of sociolects:

- 1) sociolects of significant social groups forming large populations on selected territories (e.g. the language of Silesian miners): they may feature regional dialectal traits, colloquial language, specific means of expression etc.;
- 2) sociolects of institutionalized and organized groups (e.g. army, paramilitary organizations, scouts, church): such communities are divided both hierarchically (ranks) and horizontally (types of services), which favors further internal divisions. For instance, the sociolect of army is subdivided into:
 - the language of rules (official: strongly codified and precise);
 - soldiers' speech (unofficial: used in less formal situations and strongly integrating the soldiers).

Moreover, these sociolects are consciously kept in clear opposition to the language of civilian/lay people (compare i.a. vocabulary, fixed formulas, specific intonation and organization of utterances). However, the language of church has remained more open to lay people, while the language of army is deliberately separated from civilians;

- 3) sociolects of voluntarily associated groups/clubs/societies (e.g. anglers, mountain climbers, footballers): they become increasingly widespread due to the popularization of sports and similar activities. They have a professional-expressive nature; the latter feature results from the casual character of the subject field (a hobby instead of work);
- 4) sociolects of criminal circles: they can be called counterlanguages because their users not only wish to make messages secret, but also to negate general standards of communication among ordinary people. Thus, these sociolects are negatively expressive to a large extent (e.g. derogatory terms for policemen);

- 5) sociolects of the youth (e.g. pupils, students, punks): they are formed in opposition to the official language of school and the language of adults.

Professiolects are distinguished by Wilkoń as a separate category because they can appear in groups listed in 1-3 above. It depends on whether a given activity constitutes an occupation (compare e.g. professional sportspeople) and whether it creates bonds between group members also after their work time (if so, then these may be seen as sociolects from item 1 above). Wilkoń suggests that professiolects be determined on the basis of the governmental list of professions, which fact resembles the abovementioned attempt to determine specialized languages on the basis of a list of sciences. For instance, do a recreational football player and a professional footballer use two different specialized languages? According to Wilkoń's criteria the answer would have to be affirmative, and not without a reason, as their languages differ in the part related to the status of being employed (e.g. contracts, big tournaments, advertisements). On the other hand, the recreational player may still know that part of football language from specialized press or TV programs. Wilkoń does admit that social groups are often hard to delineate clearly, but his classification of sociolects is well thought out and valuable in that it is based on social factors, which determine the life of every language user. At first it seems that such classification does not allow specialized languages of science, but the matter becomes easier when one considers their user groups. A scientist is a profession and scientists do form significant social groups on selected territories (e.g. Polish cognitive linguists, German nuclear physicists). Thus, specialized languages of sciences could be fitted in item 1 above, which makes user-based classifications more comprehensive than those based on disciplines.

An additional classification criterion was introduced by Satkiewicz (1994), who distinguished three types of social groups based on their attitude to the official linguistic and cultural norm:

- 1) protest groups: they exist on the fringes of society due to their conscious opposition to the norm; the goal of communication is identifying oneself with the group instead of providing information about the world, so these languages have their own norm and are repressive (e.g. criminals, skins, punks, rock music fans);
- 2) traditional groups: they coexist in and are accepted by the society because they acknowledge the norm, enriching it with specialized and/or expressive vocabulary (see subsection 3.4.2); the goal of communication is providing information and/or expression, so these languages generally lack opposition and compulsion (e.g. various professions, students);

- 3) provincial groups: they exist in small towns and are unaware of the norm (unlike groups 1 and 2); thus, their languages resemble dialects and are both lexically and grammatically distinct.

An interesting classification was prepared by Piekot (2008), who drew on typologies discussed in this subsection, but adopted a perspective of the group's attitude to reality. This criterion is motivated by the utmost significance ascribed by the author to the linguistic image of the world (Polish: językowy obraz świata – JOŚ). As a result, three types of sociolects (Piekot's term of preference) can be distinguished:

- 1) traditional: formed in the groups which accept the social situation, i.e. occupational groups and hobbyists. These verbalize only a small part of the world that is related to their activity, so JOŚ is not very rich. The differences in relation to general language are predominantly quantitative (lexis naming those elements of extralinguistic reality which are absent in general language);
- 2) ludic: formed in groups oriented at pleasant spending of time together, so the bonds are stronger than those in 1), but also less institutionalized; the most important bonding factors are sex and age. Thus, the external world is also verbalized, which results in quantitative and qualitative changes in lexis (new, expressive words for elements already named in general language, e.g. *nauczyciel – psor* [teacher – beak]). The communication has an unofficial and humorous character;
- 3) protest: formed in groups existing on the fringes of society, which have a negative attitude towards the world and rebel against it consciously. In such microsocieties the communication is aimed at identification with the group and subordination. The changes are quantitative and qualitative (ritualistic, negatively marked lexis).

The author remarks that this division is not clear-cut, either: the sociolect of pupils, for instance, has both the ludic and protest nature. He views it as supplementary to the typology proposed by Grabias (1974, 1994) (see subsection 3.4.2) and therefore introduces one more criterion of division – understandability of sociolects by average language users. It allows him to obtain two main groups:

- a) sociolects with a broad communication scope (understandable): formed by open, loosely bonded social groups and based on colloquial and general language;
- b) sociolects with a narrow communication scope (not understandable):
 - professolects: not understandable due to specific lexis resulting from specialization of professional life;

- jargons: not understandable due to conscious activities aiming at making them secret.

A mixed classification, though taking into account the users, was designed by the German linguist Lothar Hoffmann (Dickel, 2008c; S. Grucza, 2008b). First of all, he distinguished two kinds of specialized language classification:

- horizontal: according to disciplines; it will never be complete because new disciplines emerge continuously owing to human activity;
- vertical: according to the level of abstraction; specialized languages should aim to be increasingly abstract in order to become better cognition and communication tools.

Accordingly, Hoffmann developed his vertical classification of specialized languages, which is summarized in Table 5.

Table 5. A vertical classification of specialized languages by Hoffmann (Dickel, 2008c; S. Grucza, 2008b).

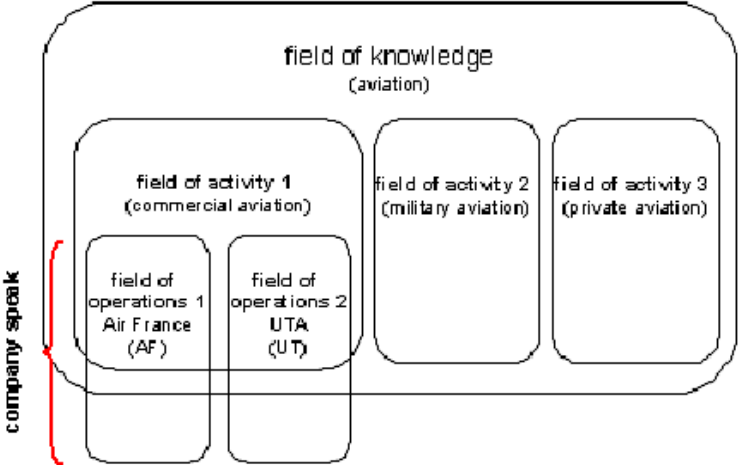
Specialized language groups	Classification criteria			
	Level of abstraction	Linguistic form	Environment	Communication participants
Group 1	Highest	symbols for elements and relations	basic theoretical sciences	- scientists
Group 2	Very high	symbols for elements, natural language for relations	experimental sciences	- scientists (technicians) - scientific-technical auxiliary workers
Group 3	High	natural language with a large share of specialized vocabulary and precisely determined grammar	applied sciences and technology	- scientists (technicians) - scientific-technical managers of material production
Group 4	Low	natural language with a large share of specialized vocabulary and relatively undetermined grammar	material production	- scientific-technical managers of material production - foremen - qualified (office) workers
Group 5	Very low	natural language with a small share of specialized vocabulary and undetermined grammar	consumption	- material production representatives - trade representatives - consumers

A given specialized language does not have to possess all five levels of abstraction, though: there are sciences without the sphere of material production, as well as spheres of material production without scientific research. A problematic issue, however, is the precise establishing of the levels of abstraction (Dickel, 2008c; S. Grucza, 2008b). On the other hand, the value of this classification lies in the fact that it takes into account social circumstances of language use, i.e. environment and communication participants (users). Differentiating the

latter corresponds to the expert – semi-expert – layperson division, emphasizing that it is not only qualified specialists who participate in specialized discourse (see section 2.1).

A classification that neatly combines the three criteria – disciplines, functions and user groups – was designed by de Vecchi (2012), who discusses linguistic misunderstandings in merged companies as exemplified by French air carriers. He draws a conclusion that the root of those problems is *field of operation* – the lowest level in his knowledge diagram:

Fig. 9. Field of knowledge as proposed by de Vecchi (2012: 76).



Fields of operation explain the distance between a theoretically delineated subject field and the actual use of a specialized language: these are simply two levels of the same part of reality, with fields of activity (subfields) in between. A given user group “specializes language for its own needs in actual practice” (de Vecchi, 2012: 75). Fields of operation also provide space for related subject fields whose vocabulary appears in every specialized language: this is signified by the parts of the fields of operation reaching outside the field of knowledge. The whole classification proves that the extralinguistic reality is a legitimate source of solutions for specialized language researchers.

4. Taming the chimera – dimensions in the contemporary specialized language research

The activity concerning, or attention given to, specialized languages has several aspects. Wojnicki (1991) lists the following spheres of that activity:

- a) linguistic studies of specialized languages (i.e. specialized linguistics);
- b) Terminology (understood as regulatory actions);
- c) teaching for professional purposes (i.e. LSP);
- d) creating databases of specialized languages, especially dictionaries;
- e) training translators and interpreters of non-literary texts;
- f) language planning in the scope of specialized languages.

Although the aim of a linguistic work like the present one is a), interdisciplinarity hangs in the air. Spheres b-f are discussed in sections 4.2-4.6 because being aware of them allows a linguist to more consciously situate their research in the rich field of specialized languages.

4.1. Specialized language and linguistics

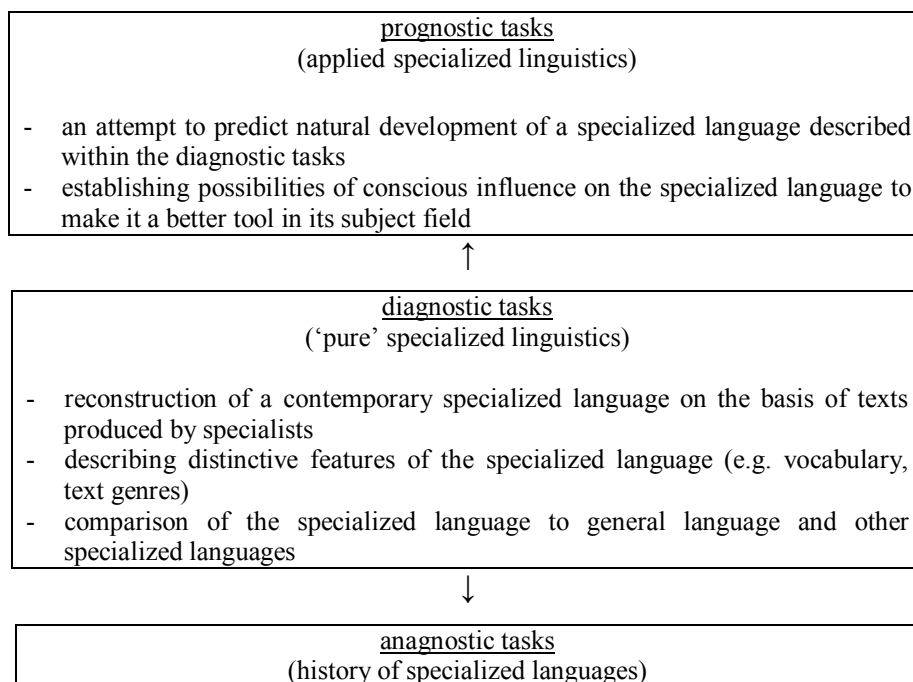
Every specialized language is embedded in a particular environment: specific extralinguistic knowledge, communicative situations and processing (regulation, recording etc.). Thus, as was said above, linguistic research needs to be defined and its goals specified in relation to other research possibilities. This is necessary to determine what linguistics actually wants to achieve in this area because, as one should remember, the original research of specialized languages was not linguistic, but practical and normative (see sections 1.1-1.3). Nonetheless, the sphere of the present work is linguistics, so before proceeding to other spheres, let us examine how its relevant branch, specialized linguistics, perceives specialized languages.

4.1.1. The system – objectives and scope of specialized linguistics

Specialized linguistics as a discipline emerged owing to language teaching and translatology on the one hand and text linguistics on the other (see sections 1.3-1.4). A side effect of that dependence is departure from studying the very nature of specialized languages in connection with extralinguistic knowledge to which they are linked in favor of teaching and formal analysis of texts (genres, linguistic identifiers etc.). Certainly, significant progress has been made in comparison to the previous equating of those languages with specialized vocabulary (see section 1.2). However, specialized linguistics still seems to be torn between two areas: on the one hand, it is often limited to practical applications (regulatory activities of

Terminology), while on the other it is treated as part of text linguistics. Actually, both areas should be seen as parts of specialized linguistics (prognostic and diagnostic, respectively) as presented in the following diagram, which is intentionally analogous to S. Grucza's division of knowledge provided in section 3.3:

Fig. 10. The tasks of specialized linguistics suggested by S. Grucza (2008b).



As mentioned in section 1.1, a thorough and systematic anagnostic analysis of specialized languages has not been provided yet. Although the historical perspective is not a goal in itself for specialized linguistics, it constitutes an important basis (S. Grucza, 2008b). Prognostic works concerning natural development of specialized languages are also uncommon in the reality of guided and imposed changes; this is proved by Kageura (2002) – a description of term formation patterns and terminological growth in the Japanese language of documentation, which is reviewed by Juan C. Sager as pioneering. Biel (2010: 5) suggests four trajectories in specialized language research:

- 1) external variation: how does a specialized language differ from general language and other specialized languages?
- 2) internal variation: how do genres within a given specialized language differ?
- 3) temporal variation: how do the current and the historic specialized language differ?
- 4) cross-linguistic variation: how does a specialized language differ across languages?

An interesting example of following this new line is Lewandowski (2013) – an English-Polish contrastive study of football language, in which the author distinguishes six varieties. The

subsequent analysis of football reports and commentaries introduces the temporal aspect owing to new media development. The external variation is present in arguing for the important social position of football language in relation to other specialized languages, especially those of sport. Thus, the study can be viewed as an instance of a modern, multi-faceted specialized language analysis with a pragmatic and sociolinguistic approach.

Indeed, sociolinguistics helps one adopt a wider point of view on language. Piekot (2008) (see also Lewandowski, 2010) suggests a universal model of specialized language study, which largely overlaps with the diagnostic tasks as presented above. The model is composed of the following stages:

- 1) description of the group using the specialized language (hypotheses supplemented by the existing research on this language and related languages and groups):
 - a) the group's activities and their purpose;
 - b) internal bonds joining the group's members;
 - c) place of the group in the society and in relation to other groups;
 - d) attitude of the group towards the society and other groups;
 - e) attitude of the society towards the group;
 - f) the group's hierarchy of values;
 - g) communicative situations within the group.
- 2) gathering research material (taking notes, survey, recording and/or written sources) and preparing a corpus of words and phrases (which may result in a dictionary).
- 3) establishing the group's linguistic image of the world (see subsection 3.4.3) and thus the system of norms and values (all these are recorded in the language).
- 4) linguistic analysis:
 - a) vocabulary: sociolectal neologisms (Grabias, 1994), i.e. words which are new in relation to general language;
 - b) phraseology;
 - c) establishing sources of vocabulary and phraseology (borrowings, general language and/or other specialized languages).
- 5) conclusions: final description of the group on the basis of linguistic findings.

Such orientation on language users, typical for sociolinguistics, is important if specialized linguistics is to go beyond the frames of terminological activities and text analysis which omit the whole context of language use. Not surprisingly, the most accurate research so far concerns languages of isolated groups such as criminals or prisoners, but languages of newly formed groups (e.g. IT specialists) are still waiting for investigation, while those of

occupational groups – for updating (Jachimowska, 2004). Without a comprehensive analysis the maps of social communication in particular national languages will remain incomplete (Piekot, 2008). The following subsections provide an overview of specialized communication aspects researched to date.

4.1.2. The core – specialized vocabulary

Lewis (1999: vi) firmly states that “language consists of grammaticalized lexis, not lexicalized grammar”. As frequently mentioned above, specialized vocabulary has always been in the center of activities related to specialized language, but those activities have usually had a regulatory and prescriptive nature (see sections 1.2, 4.2 and 4.6). This subsection presents descriptive linguistic analyses of specialized vocabulary, which appeared after the regulatory and prescriptive ones, and constitutes an introduction to the analysis of equestrian specialized vocabulary in chapter 6.

Specialized vocabulary is a set of terms, so one should first consider the basic question: what is a term? “In spite of extensive research in the field of [Terminology] and in the field of sublanguages, there is no usable definition of term” (Pearson, 1998: 8), but the literature of these fields has nevertheless tried to produce it, yielding several dozen definitions (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001). Let us first examine how general dictionaries define *term*:

1. a name, expression, or word used for some particular thing, esp. in a specialized field of knowledge; 2. any word or expression (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

a word or expression with a particular meaning, especially one that is used for a specific subject or type of language (*LDOCE*, 2005)

a word or expression that has a precise meaning in some uses or is peculiar to a science, art, profession, or subject <legal *terms*> (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.)

a word or expression with a special meaning in a certain subject field³⁶ (*Słownik Języka Polskiego*, n.d.)

a word or phrase with a special scientific, technical or professional meaning fixed by convention³⁷ (*Słownik Języka Polskiego*, 1978; *Uniwersalny Słownik Języka Polskiego*, 2003).

³⁶ wyraz lub wyrażenie o specjalnym znaczeniu w jakiejś dziedzinie

³⁷ wyraz lub połączenie wyrazowe o specjalnym, konwencjonalnie ustalonym znaczeniu naukowym, technicznym, zawodowym

The term as defined above bears the following features (see also Jurkowski, 1991):

- a) it is a word (which, as discussed below, is actually not so obvious);
- b) it can consist of more than one linguistic unit;
- c) it has a particular, restricted use, mainly in subject fields;
- d) it has a special, fixed meaning.

Term features as proposed by Terminology (e.g. arbitrariness, univocity – see the list in section 4.2) are usually not mentioned in the above definitions because they are secondary characteristics, irrelevant in defining (Jurkowski, 1991).

By contrast, scientific definitions of *term* are more detailed:

a linguistic sign belonging to the lexicon of a particular technolect and denoting a concept in the system of semantic relations which characterize that lexicon³⁸ (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001: 23)

a one- or multi-word equivalent of a concept from a particular field of science or technology, having a distinct meaning and used by specialists in professional texts³⁹ (Jadacka, 1976: 28)

[a] word, phrase or alphanumeric symbol used by the practitioners of a specialised technical subject to designate a [concept] (Hartmann and James, 2002: 138).

One notices that these definitions add one more feature of the term:

- e) it designates a subject field concept.

This feature has been frequently stressed and used as an argument to distinguish terms from words. The distinction was initiated by Wüster (for his activity see section 4.2), who viewed terms as a separate class of labels set apart from *parole* (Pearson, 1998: 11), and it has been pursued by researchers engaged in Terminology (see e.g. Kageura, 2002), in line with their separating terminography from lexicography (see section 4.4). Accordingly, terms are said to differ from words, and the following areas of difference are listed (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001):

- semantics: terms are monosemous and lack expressive content (see section 4.2);
- derivation: term roots frequently use affixes of Latin and Greek origin, but do not accept certain other affixes (e.g. diminutives or augmentatives);
- categories: terms are rather monotonous (usually nouns and adjectives).

³⁸ znak językowy należący do leksykonu określonego technolektu i oznaczający pojęcie w systemie relacji semantycznych właściwych dla tego leksykonu

³⁹ jedno- lub wielowyrazowy odpowiednik pojęcia z określonej dziedziny nauki lub techniki, mający znaczenie wyraźne i używany przez specjalistów w tekstach fachowych

In fact, the word – term relation can be viewed in three ways (Lukszyn, 1991):

- 1) terms are normal words which bear features of general vocabulary;
- 2) terms are artificial creations of human intellectual activity, opposed to natural language, which is deemed inappropriate as an instrument of cognition;
- 3) terms are units with a specific semiotic nature which belong to the lexical system of natural language.

Lukszyn considers approaches 1) and 2) scientifically hazardous: negating differences may lead to disregarding any terminological and regulatory activities, while strict separation is based on a fictional assumption of absolute precision of terms and defines the object of research before the research actually starts. He supports approach 3) as permitting the necessary linguistic research. A similar three-way perception of terms is summarized in Cabré (1996):

- 1) for linguistics, the term is a linguistic sign within the speaker's lexicon, i.e. a regular word; knowing it depends on the speaker's competence;
- 2) for subject field disciplines, the term is a unit of communication which allows for specialized knowledge transfer;
- 3) for philosophy, the term is a two-sided cognitive unit: of knowledge and representation.

Contrary to Lukszyn, Cabré (1996, 1999) reckons that these approaches simply focus on different aspects of the same polyhedral unit. According to her,

[terms], like words in the general language lexicon, are distinctive and meaningful signs which occur in special language discourse. Like words, they have a systematic side (formal, semantic, and functional) since they are units of an established code; they also have a pragmatic side, because they are units used in specialized communication to refer to the objects of the real world. Terms do not seem to be very different from words when we consider them from the formal or semantic point of view; they differ from words when we consider them as pragmatic and communicative units (Cabré, 1999: 80-81).

Therefore, within her theory of specialized vocabulary research (see section 4.2) she postulates 'referential language units', which are units of lexicon – neither words nor terms. In a particular communicative situation, only some of the unit's features are selected, so the unit has a potential of becoming either a term or a word in each use (Cabré, 2000). For instance, the unit *saddle* is a term in the equestrian or geological context and a word in the casual context, e.g. 'he was saddled with the running of the club' (*Wielki Słownik Angielsko-*

Polski, 2002). Pearson supports this view, stating that “it is futile to propose differences between words and terms without reference to the circumstances in which they are used” (Pearson, 1998: 8). Consequently, she advocates linguistic research of terms in corpora of specialized texts as the only way of getting closer to the nature of these units.

The process when the unit becomes a term is called terminologization (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001). Like every process, it is gradual, as expressed by two phenomena occurring on the general word – term axis (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; Woźnicka, 2008):

- quasi-term: a general word whose specialized definition is derived from its linguistic meaning and then transforms with the progress of extralinguistic knowledge until the meaning stabilizes and the word becomes a term (compare the numerous definitions of *existence* in philosophy or *intelligence* in psychology);
- hypoterm: a general word in specialized vocabulary, used to maintain the stylistic norm of a specialized text (e.g. adjectives: *new*, *old*, *straight*; nouns: *author*, *manager*; verbs: *develop*, *exist*, *transform*). Therein, its syntactic properties are limited: for instance, verbs do not take the imperative form and nouns do not become diminutives.

Apart from that ‘degree of being a term’, one can group terms depending on classes of denoted concepts (Cabré, 1999):

- a) objects and entities (usually denoted by nouns);
- b) processes, operations, actions (verbs, verb nominalizations);
- c) properties, states, qualities (adjectives);
- d) relationships (adjectives, prepositions, verbs).

Despite numerous exceptions to this tendency, the number and proportion of conceptual classes in a subject field’s conceptual system reflects the linguistic image of the world held by that field’s members (see subsection 3.4.3). This is shown by a simplified classification found in Gajda (1990b), Lukszyn and Zmarzer (2001) and Woźnicka (2008):

- theoretical term (term proper): it denotes an abstract concept (e.g. *specific heat*);
- empirical term (nomen): it denotes a material object (e.g. *bolt*, *thread*).

The proportion of term types varies in specialized vocabularies of various subject fields. Using symbols (q – quasi-term, h – hypoterm, t – term proper, n – nomen), one can present it as follows, with the dominant type to the left (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; Woźnicka, 2008):

- tnhq – sciences (mathematics, physics);
- nthq – classifying sciences (anatomy, botany, medicine, pharmacy, zoology);
- qt nh – arts (linguistics, philosophy, psychology);

- htnq – fine arts, law, politics, sport.

The proportion depends on the subject field's character: the more theoretical the discipline, the more terms proper it uses; classifying sciences have a more empirical approach, hence the dominance of nomens; the difficulty of describing human mind accounts for the prevalence of quasi-terms in arts; finally, disciplines like law or politics put emphasis on cohesion and style, so they extensively employ hypoterms. It is worth noting that apart from the semantic status denoted by those four term types, terms are also differentiated by history (they emerged in various phases of the subject field's development) as well as trends, schools and researchers within the subject field (Gajda, 1990b).

In contrast to the traditional approach presented above, pragmatic methodology has developed a different theory of specialized vocabulary diversification. Stemming from specialized language teaching, it distinguishes three layers (Cabr , 1999; Pearson, 1998):

- 1) subject-specific vocabulary: highly specialized, used in one particular field;
- 2) non subject-specific vocabulary: specialized, but used in more than one field;
- 3) general vocabulary: appears in specialized texts for cohesion.

A similar idea is determining the level of specialized vocabulary's professionalism as suggested by Grabias (1994) and Piekot (2008), but it distinguishes two layers:

- 1) professional vocabulary: concerns the specialized sphere of life, satisfies the need of naming (i.e. names phenomena unnamed thus far) and tends to be concise;
- 2) non-professional vocabulary: concerns the common sphere of life, expresses the phenomena already named in a new way and tends to be periphrastic.

Gajda (1990b) speaks of four vocabulary layers:

- 1) strictly specialized vocabulary;
- 2) specialized vocabulary acquired during general education, contact with mass media and using everyday equipment;
- 3) general vocabulary containing some specialized vocabulary;
- 4) general vocabulary.

Layers 1), 2) and 4) roughly correspond to Pearson's division, whereas adding layer 3) is connected with the process of determinologization, i.e. migration of terms to general language. It has been intensified by technological progress, owing to which an increasingly greater part of society has had contact with technology and thus with specialized vocabulary. Gajda (1990b) speaks of general language intellectualization and estimates that ca. 25% of general vocabulary is renewed every ten years. Certainly, the disadvantage of the pragmatic approach to terms lies in fuzzy boundaries of the enumerated vocabulary groups, as discussed

by Pearson (1998: 16-21). Nonetheless, it has drawn attention to the fact that specialized language goes far beyond the level of strictly specialized terms.

Apart from the level of specialization as discussed above, terms can be classified using a stylistic criterion as demonstrated by Źydek-Bednarczuk (1987), who distinguishes the following term groups in the specialized language of Polish automotive industry:

- 1) terms officially established by standards (e.g. *wal rozrządu* [camshaft], *Fiat 126p*);
- 2) semi-official and informal terms used by specialists to communicate:
 - a) naming terms (concise substitutes of official terms, e.g. *motylek* [butterfly] instead of *nakrętka skrzydełkowa* [wing nut]) and expressive terms (speaker attitude carriers, e.g. *dentysta* [dentist] – a driver unskillful in changing gears);
 - b) stabilized terms and terms used occasionally (the latter resemble hypoterms and are used when a speaker has not learned the term proper yet);
 - c) native and foreign (borrowed) words.

Such two-layer stratification is also observed by Uniszewski (1999) in the language of Polish investigators and operation workers, in which a stabilized set of official terms is supplemented by new, unofficial ones. The latter are colloquial (e.g. *fabryka/warsztat* [factory/workshop] for *police station*; *zimny chirurg* [cold surgeon] for *forensic pathologist*) and frequently even vulgar. The author gives the following reasons for such situation:

- precautionary measures against being understood by unauthorized persons;
- manifesting identity, perhaps in a more expressive way;
- manifesting emotional and intellectual attitude toward citizens and officers of other services. The attitude is probably caused by a specific sense of humor, irony, bitterness, frustrations, skepticism and the sense of mission.

Such stylistic diversification of terms is related to their morphological characteristics, which in turn depend on term formation methods. The latter are worth investigating because more than 90% of neologisms in a given language are terms (Gajda, 2010). These are formed as follows (Cabr , 1999; Hartmann and James, 2002; Źydek-Bednarczuk, 1987):

- 1) formal methods – morphological and syntactic derivation:
 - a) affixation: adding affixes to the base (e.g. *intramolecular*, *transmitter*);
 - b) compounding: combining two or more bases (e.g. *afterburner*, *countercyclical*):
 - combining native bases (e.g. *greengrocer*, *roadsweeper*);
 - combining neoclassical bases (e.g. *electrolyte*, *lysosome*);
 - combining native and neoclassical bases (e.g. *bioscience*, *megacity*);
 - c) truncation: reducing the unit to its part(s):

- initialisms (e.g. *positron emission tomography – PET*);
 - acronyms (e.g. *binary digit – bit*);
 - abbreviations (e.g. *volume – vol*);
 - clippings (e.g. *typographical error – typo*);
- d) functional change:
- conversion (zero derivation): changing the word's category without changing the form (e.g. *record* as a verb into *record* as a noun);
 - lexicalization: converting the lexeme's inflected form into a new word with a different category (e.g. *harden – hardening, weld – welding*);
- e) phrase forming: combining words governed by general-language syntactic rules (e.g. *cardiopulmonary resuscitation, optical character recognition*). This makes term phrases difficult to distinguish from the general-language ones;
- 2) semantic methods:
- a) extending the base form meaning (e.g. *pin*: a straight piece of wire with a sharp point – *pin*: a peg on a printer platen engaging holes at the edges of paper);
 - b) narrowing the base form meaning (e.g. *printer*: somebody/something that prints – *printer*: the part of a computer system that produces printed matter);
 - c) changing the base form meaning (e.g. *washer*: somebody/appliance that washes – *washer*: a flat disk relieving friction, preventing leaks or distributing weight);
- 3) borrowing (see also Górnicz, 2003):
- a) neoclassical borrowings: loan words from Greek or Latin (often considered natural and hence unnoticed);
 - b) true borrowings: loan words from another contemporary language;
 - c) loan words from dialects or other subject fields of the same language (usually not counted as borrowings).

When a term is actually being formed, the selection of the formation method is based on three rules (Gajda, 1990b, 2010): relevance, purpose and systemic nature. Relevant means are those that prove useful regardless of their age or origin, which makes room for borrowings, non-linguistic codes (e.g. H_2O) or old affixes (e.g. *szczeliwo* [sealant]). Purpose determines the use of optimum means ensuring the greatest possible precision, such as phrases, acronyms, symbols or metaphors (e.g. *black hole*). Systemic nature prefers terms indicating the concept's location in the concept system (e.g. *homogenous nuclear reactor* vs. *non-homogenous nuclear reactor*). This need for location results in an interesting feature of specialized vocabulary: specific naming rules in a given semantic field, which can

subsequently be used to create new terms. This phenomenon is common especially in classifying sciences, so let us use three of them to demonstrate it: pharmacy, botany and entomology. In pharmacy, recently developed medicines belonging to one class are named using the same suffix (Górnicz, 2003):

- angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors: *benazepril, captopril, enalapril* etc.;
- angiotensin II receptor blockers: *eprosartan, losartan, valsartan* etc.;
- calcium channel blockers: *felodipine, nifedipine, nisoldipine* etc.

In botany, plant names emphasize features which can be divided into three groups (Tokarski, 2010):

- a) environment: location (e.g. *borówka* – growing in the forest [bór]) and blooming time (e.g. *wiosnowka* – blooming in spring [wiosna]);
- b) physical traits: color, shape, shape of leaves; properties of seeds, fruits, stalk and roots (e.g. *dzwonek* [bellflower], *dmuchawiec* [blow-ball]);
- c) functional properties (e.g. *wymiotnica* – used to induce vomiting [wymioty]).

Regarding entomology, Boldea (2005) compared English and Romanian names of crop pests and found out that Romanian terms often give more information about the pest (e.g. they contain the attacked part of plant or pest color). Moreover, equivalent terms sometimes actually emphasize different features (e.g. a different plant attacked).

As demonstrated above, the term is not just a ‘difficult specialized word’; but a polyhedral unit (Cabré, 1999) with the formal, semantic and pragmatic side. Accordingly, specialized vocabulary research is diversified, but can be divided into two main dimensions: semasiological and onomasiological. These are discussed in the two following subsections.

4.1.2.1. Semasiological term research

In this case, a given specialized vocabulary set is the point of departure. Its linguistic (word-formation and/or semantic) analysis permits general conclusions about the linguistic nature of that vocabulary (characteristic features distinguishing it from general language and/or from terms of other specialized languages) and/or its extralinguistic context (concept system, social group etc.). The analysis may be a possibly exhaustive monograph (Jadacka, 1976; Pędzich, 2012; Piekot, 2008; Żydek-Bednarczuk, 1987) or may describe selected features, usually in the form of a research paper (Aguado de Cea, 2007; Bodenreider et al., 2004; Jachimowska, 2004; Marina, 2005; Poláčková, 2001). The referenced works are all discussed below in order to demonstrate results that the semasiological investigation of terms can produce.

Jadacka (1976) conducts a comparative formal analysis of terms in two Polish specialized languages: of electrotechnology and construction industry, divided into parts of speech (nouns, adjectives, verbs) and for nouns also into semantic fields (names of tools, activities and features). She identifies the most common suffixes (tools: *-nik*, activities: *-anie*, features: *-ość*, adjectives: *-owy*, *-ny*, verbs: *-ować*) and finds out that vocabulary sets feature many compound terms (ca. 10%) and non-affixation terms (ca. 22%) because the latter tend to be very precise (e.g. *ciśnieniomierz* [pressure meter]). Electrotechnology proves richer as regards affixes, but the two subject fields have similar sets of morphological means. The dominating categories are: tools, quantitative features and subfields, while female and emotive terms are absent.

Żydek-Bednarczuk (1987) conducts a formal analysis of terms in the specialized language of Polish automotive industry. She investigates both the term system and the concept system, discussing term formation methods in the following semantic fields: tools, activities, places and persons; she also researches one- and multi-word terms. Such linguistic analysis allows her to compare two layers of that specialized vocabulary: official (set forth in documents) and semi-official (used by subject field specialists in communication). The semi-official vocabulary turns out to be significantly different as it features polysemy, homonymy and phraseology, contains expressive terms, is not systemic in nature and heavily depends on the extralinguistic situation. Thus, linguistic analysis reveals the nature of informal interactions in a subject field, touching upon sociolinguistic issues, which are more prominent in the two studies discussed below: Pędzich (2009) and Piekot (2008).

Pędzich (2009) conducts a research of terms in the sociolect of Polish paragliders. Departing from formal analysis, she finds out that the dominant groups are terms borrowed from other sociolects and general language as well as terms based on other terms in the same field, while borrowings from other languages are uncommon. Regarding the grammatical structure, the dominant category is nouns, followed by verbs (adjectives and phrases are rare). The subsequent semantic analysis reveals that the vocabulary is characterized by significant synonymy, whereas polysemy is less common; the dominant semantic fields are flying (42%) and equipment. The primary function of this sociolect is expressive function and the linguistic image of the world that it conveys is positive (very few words express negative emotions). The analysis by Pędzich is an example of sociolinguistic approach to terms, also advocated by Piekot (2008), who examines the Polish sociolect of non-professional bodybuilders, utilizing his model of specialized language description (see subsection 4.1.1). In this sociolect, word formation takes place via affixation, clipping, diminutives, augmentatives, compounding and

borrowings; semantic means used are: nicknames, metaphors, personifications, reference to universal values, hyperboles, vulgarization, allusion and ellipsis. The vocabulary comes from colloquial Polish, slangs (of children and teenagers), sports languages and deviant groups' sociolects (precisely that of drug addicts – when doping is discussed). The linguistic image of the world is definitely anthropocentric (dominant semantic fields: bodybuilder, appearance, muscles and activities) and training-related (exercises, equipment, doping and places); each semantic field features many synonyms. The author also describes the sociolect's axiology, discovering, not without surprise, that it is based on esthetic (appearance), vital (strength, activity and pain) and cognitive values (training reasonably). These can be either positive or negative; only doping is subject to ambivalent judgment, passing from the positive to negative sphere when the effects of its overuse become visible (e.g. acne). Thus, departing from the formal analysis, both authors arrive at a description of the system of concepts and values conveyed by language.

Aguado de Cea (2007) discusses IT term phrases, starting from their linguistic features. He finds out that they are characterized by some degree of idiomaticity (e.g. *to kill/abort the process*, not to **assassinate the process*), they sometimes bear connotations (e.g. *hacker*), and term variation (synonymy) is present. Having proceeded to cognitive features, he discovers significant monosemy (one term – one concept), hyponymy and metaphors. The socio-communicative aspect of IT term phrases is distinguished by geographical preferences (e.g. out of two Spanish terms denoting computer, *computador* is used in South America, while *ordenador* is preferred in Spain). He concludes with the translation perspective, mentioning an enormous number of English borrowings, general adjectives functioning in these phrases as metaphors (e.g. *legacy* in *legacy software*), numerous neologisms created for fun and for the needs of debate (e.g. *spam*) and many semantically overloaded, overused words (e.g. *platform*, *support*). The matter of metaphors in specialized vocabulary is also discussed by Marina (2005) with regard to English and Lithuanian; she finds out that English technical terms based on names of animals, body parts, household articles and plants are mostly translated into Lithuanian without metaphor. Thus, the transfer of metaphor helps to determine differences in linguistic images of the subject field.

Bodenreider et al. (2004) bring to the fore epistemological features in biomedical specialized vocabulary. They show that some names represent invariant features (classes, universals) of biomedical reality and thus are a matter for ontology. Other names, however, convey also how this reality is perceived, measured, and understood by health professionals, i.e. they belong to the domain of epistemology. There are four main types of such terms:

- 1) terms containing classification criteria (e.g. *febrile seizure* and *afebrile seizure*; *skull fracture without intracranial injury*);
- 2) terms reflecting detectability, modality, uncertainty and vagueness (e.g. *possible tubo-ovarian abscess*; *colostomy, not otherwise specified*);
- 3) terms created to obtain a complete partition of a domain (e.g. *cystic fibrosis with other manifestations*);
- 4) terms reflecting mere fiat boundaries (e.g. the concept of normality varies across cultures – compare *normal height*).

Therefore, biomedical vocabulary is a perfect example of specialized languages' cognitive function (see section 2.2). The latter can also be observed in the process of adapting borrowings, as shown by Jachimowska (2004) in her analysis of adaptation of English borrowings in the Polish language of economics. She distinguishes four term types, corresponding to adaptation phases: not adapted (e.g. *due diligence*, *free float*), partially morphologically adapted (e.g. *cash flow* pl *cash flowy*, *leasing* – *leasingować*, *sponsoring* – *sponsorować*), fully adapted (e.g. *bukmacher*, *biznesmen*) and adapted with narrowing of meaning (e.g. *plugować* [turn on]: only one meaning of *plug* is chosen). Thus, as the concept becomes familiar and embedded in the target concept structure, this fact is reflected in the word form via adaptation. A similar function is fulfilled by synonymy, unjustly viewed as redundant by traditional Terminology (see section 4.2); Poláčková (2001) investigates medical vocabulary in English, Russian and Slovak, and discovers two main types of synonyms: equivalent (e.g. *tuberculosis protein* – *tuberculoprotein*) and interpretative (e.g. *myopia* – *shortsightedness*). She remarks that the past tendency in Russian to avoid foreign classical terms has put that language in an unfavorable position, which proves the cognitive role of synonymy in specialized languages.

4.1.2.2. Onomasiological term research

In this approach, research departs from the concept system, so reference to the extralinguistic reality of a given subject field is required. Segments of that reality selected for the research are investigated in the aspect of linguistic means that encode it, which allows one to describe semantic fields and sense relations. It is also possible to assess the degree of symmetry of the linguistic system with the concept system (which involves the issue of lexical gaps) and/or compare the subject field's concept systems in two or more languages (which forms the base of establishing translation equivalence). However, this direction of term research seems to remain less popular in linguistics than the semasiological one, which may result from

applying general language study methods to specialized languages, while in the latter case attention must be paid to the specific extralinguistic context (see section 3.3).

The possibilities offered by onomasiological research are explored by Bugajski (1977) in a monograph analyzing the Polish language of printing. He departs from semantic fields (persons, tools, materials, activities, techniques, publication types, layout, fonts) and provides terms for subsequent concepts. This allows him to state that the term system is fairly coherent and fixed, and is based on sense relations of hyponymy (which at the same time reveals lexical gaps) and synonymy (many groups of synonyms). From such analysis he derives several term-related observations, i.a. that there are shortened spoken forms used by subject field specialists, terms from other crafts and technologies, many foreign terms and few neologisms; moreover, narrowing of meaning takes place when a general language term is adopted and there are term phrases formed from existing terms. A similar structure of analysis is employed by Dziagacz (n.d.), whose article describes the Polish language of journalists (from press, radio and TV). First, she delineates fundamental semantic fields (persons, workplaces, genres, elements of news, activities) and then establishes features of the term set: the language of journalists proves to be rich in foreign words (34% of Anglicisms, many of which are variants of Polish words, e.g. *edytorial* – *wstępniak*), metaphorical extensions, expressive words and synonyms. Massalina (2010) acts similarly with regard to naval English, basing her research on over 200 articles from naval magazines. She departs from specialized language stratification proposed by Hoffmann (see Table 5 in subsection 3.4.3), obtaining the following language layers: theoretical naval science, experimental naval science, applied naval science and techniques, naval material production and reconstruction, naval information system. She also suggests five frames (semantic fields) of analysis: US Navy Administrative Organization, The Royal Navy, navy, naval activity and space. Dividing the subject field that way, she manages to distinguish eight key concepts (i.a. the structure of the Navy, persons, and places).

A well-known instance of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural concept system asymmetry is law (see section 4.5), which Biel (2007) demonstrates in an analysis of names of partnerships/companies in English and Polish. First, she presents in the form of tree diagrams the subject field's concept system (i.e. legal classification of those entities) in Polish, British English and American English, and defines the partnerships/companies. Only then does she ponder translation possibilities given in dictionaries, finding out that concept systems in the three national law systems differ so much that those terms are untranslatable to a certain extent. Many equivalents provided in said dictionaries actually prove incorrect in view of the

extralinguistic reality; thus, the onomasiological approach to terms helps reveal practical difficulties. This is also the outcome of a research by Fogarasi (2010), who focuses on specialized vocabulary used to describe wounds in Hungarian forensic medicine reports and conducts a contrastive analysis of wound-related vocabulary contained in available Hungarian textbooks and their English versions. She bases her description on semantic fields: six features of wounds (surroundings, dimensions, margins, edge, sides/walls, base) and wound types. The conclusion is similar to that of Biel (2007): the vocabulary is asymmetrical and, from the point of view of application, insufficiently unified, which results in difficulties for coroners while they investigate wounds. Ryszczuk (2007) also mentions difficulties related to the extralinguistic context: he admits that the subject field undergoes constant changes, which are reflected in variations within sense relations (hyponymy and synonymy). His article provides an example of analyzing a language of a classifying science (to which onomasiological direction is especially suited), additionally in combination with an exotic national language: he investigates bird names in Japanese. The denotata (birds) are divided into families, for which the author discusses the most popular morphemes and methods used to form names of species. Therefore, regardless of the subject field status (common, like law and medicine, or narrow) and of the language(s) involved, onomasiological analysis allows for presentation of dynamic relations holding between the linguistic and extralinguistic side of specialized vocabulary.

4.1.3. The housing – text

Since the beginning of specialized linguistics, terms have been considered the most important component of specialized languages, to the extent that specialized vocabulary has frequently been equaled with specialized language (see section 1.2). Such approach has often resulted in studying terms in isolation and disregarding their linguistic properties, which has in turn led to treating such linguistic phenomena as synonymy or expressive content as undesirable (see section 4.2). Contemporary specialized linguistics emphasizes that terms cannot be studied without studying their context of use, which entails the necessity to examine subject field texts; in fact, specialized text has become a research topic in its own right. Wojnicki (1991) reckons that the claim about purely lexical characteristics of specialized sublanguages is impossible to defend today. This is justified by the fact that, as stated by Halliday (2004) (see section 4.5), specialized language impacts the reader/hearer in its totality. Although the subject of this work is still terms (albeit in association with their context), the present section presents research dimensions within specialized text linguistics (see also section 1.4) to make

the picture of specialized language research outlined in the introductory subsection 4.1.1 possibly comprehensive.

Specialized text linguistics emerged in the 1980s and soon became widespread. At first it studied texts and text genres in terms of macrostructure, then added a contrastive dimension and finally was extended by pragmatics, owing to which the following research dimensions appeared (Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003):

- a) theory and methodology of specialized communication study (interculturality);
- b) contrastive and/or historic study of text genres in various languages and cultures;
- c) semiotic aspects of specialized texts (their multimedia nature);
- d) oral specialized communication.

These dimensions are possible because specialized language “is not a structurally monolithic subset, but rather permits the following variations depending on usage and the communicative situation” (Cabré, 1999: 65):

- geographic, historic and social dialects;
- degree of abstraction (related to specialized vocabulary layers – see subsection 4.1.2);
- personal style (idiolect – see subsection 3.2.3);
- variations in text type.

These variations are a point of departure for text typology; however, genres/types of specialized texts should be distinguished with the reservation that

texts are manifestations of communicative acts and conceptual reflections of complex states of affairs in the natural and social world around us, and in the last resort do not allow for an absolute, unchallengeable typology. What we can offer, however, is a tentative and relative classification which is motivated by certain pragmatic aims, such as teaching, practical journalism, translation practice, contrastive linguistics and the like (Gläser, 1982: 80).

Thus, texts are best classified according to the pragmatic criteria; Weber (1982) suggests the following:

- dominant functional stratum (e.g. regulatory);
- configuration of secondary functional strata;
- communication medium (written, spoken);
- communicative network type (monologue, dialogue or polylogue) (see also Lukszyn, 2008b).

As shown by these criteria, a given text may exhibit various functional strata and its parts may fulfill different functions than the dominant function (Weber, 1982). Accordingly, Gläser (1982) suggests her own tentative pragmatic division of specialized texts into:

- 1) academic scientific and technological style;
- 2) popular-scientific style;
- 3) didactic style;
- 4) directive style;
- 5) practical style of everyday communication (it uses terms, but the content is not necessarily job-specific, as in business correspondence or press reports).

Pragmatic text typology is practical in nature, hence it is no surprise that it influences the classification of document types (i.e. written texts only) made by UNESCO, where sample categories include (Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 11):

- 1) documents presenting new knowledge and its practical application (e.g. university theses, papers in proceedings);
- 2) documents integrating and reviewing the existing knowledge (e.g. articles in scientific and technical journals);
- 3) documents concerning engineering and industrial applications (e.g. specifications for works, test reports);
- 4) educational documents (e.g. textbooks, diplomas).

The attitude towards the conveyed knowledge is in fact the value ascribed to terms in the texts, which allows the latter to be divided into three types (Zmarzer, 2008b):

- 1) cumulative (specialized dictionaries);
- 2) explicative (scientific dissertations and university textbooks);
- 3) exemplifying (texts popularizing knowledge, including school textbooks).

This corresponds to a similar division based on text function with regard to terms (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001):

- 1) term-consolidating texts (standardized specialized dictionaries);
- 2) term-generating texts (theoretical texts);
- 3) term-using texts (technical and educational texts etc.).

The same authors also developed a specialized text typology containing dichotomy-based criteria (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; Zmarzer, 2008b):

- specialized vocabulary inclusion range: exhaustive (e.g. a monographic textbook) vs. selective (e.g. a subfield lexicon);
- specialized vocabulary type: scientific vs. technical;

- specialized vocabulary structure: relevant vs. anachronistic (not to be confused with publication date – an old text may still be relevant today);
- use of cognitive structure: primary (truly theoretical, implying new concepts) vs. secondary (representing the existing concepts);
- form: codified (K) vs. loose (L) texts;
- attitude to norm: standard (S) vs. non-standard (N) texts;
- meaning: theoretical (T) vs. practical (P) texts;
- purpose: hermetic (H) vs. universal (U) texts.

Using symbols, one can subsequently mark different text types, as has been done with regard to term content in subsection 4.1.2: for instance, an agreement is KSPU, while a textbook – LSTU. The limitations of similar typologies are obvious (as for the criterion of specialized vocabulary type), but, importantly, they bring to the fore text features, which in turn are organized into several levels (Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna, 2003 after Göpferich, 1995):

- 1) the content level – subdivided into:
 - a) socioculturally undetermined information (e.g. mathematical formulas);
 - b) socioculturally determined information;
- 2) the linguistic level – subdivided into:
 - a) genre-specific conventions: they form the skeleton of a given text genre;
 - b) genre-unspecific conventions: they fill the text genre skeleton;
- 3) the typographic level – subdivided into:
 - a) intercultural graphic means (e.g. color font, bold);
 - b) socioculturally determined graphic means (e.g. ISO typographic conventions).

Specialized text linguistics concentrates on 2) and 3), drawing conclusions about a text from examining its linguistic features. There are three main properties of a specialized text: coherence, divisibility and cohesion, which deserve presentation in greater detail; the discussion that follows is based on Lukszyn (2008a, 2008b, 2008c) and Pytel (2003).

Coherence is of two types: semantic coherence and formal-grammar coherence. Semantic coherence is ensured by semantic dominants ordered with use of chains of discourse connectors and is organized into semantic frames, i.e. textual structures in which particular terms reveal their discourse potential. The order in those frames can take the form either of semantic subordination (where the initial concept is defined by subordinated concepts) or semantic coordination (where several concepts of equal status delineate the range for the initial concept); thus, semantic coherence allows one to reconstruct the text's semantic network to which all the concepts within the text belong. This type of coherence is revealed

by information flow (the basic semantic component of a sentence is transposed to the next sentence in one of three ways listed below), by the resultant synsemanticity of sentences (each sentence is contextually dependent on the preceding sentence) and finally by semantic connectors (belonging to the stylistic group – see below), i.e. words of sense relations (synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms and hypernyms). Regarding formal-grammar coherence, it is ensured by a wide range of connectors:

a) technical (non-alternative):

- grammatical: conjunctions, particles, articles;
- lexical: repetitions, pronouns, anaphora and cataphora;

b) stylistic (alternative):

- syntactic: word order, ellipsis, parenthetical sentences; sentences denoting the beginning, internal divisions and ending of the text;
- prosodic: intonation.

Divisibility means that the text can be decomposed into constituent units (modules), whose borders are also determined by connectors. These modules (e.g. paragraphs, parts of an argument) are semantically independent, but subordinated to the common topic and their role is to order the whole text and make its structure reproducible. They are very well visible in texts like official documents.

Cohesion results both from coherence and divisibility; a cohesive specialized text is indivisible in the semantic plane, has a distinguishable beginning and ending and demonstrates a clear structure. Thus, cohesion joins the semantic and formal side of the text.

As has been indicated above, information flow can take place via one of three transposition types (Lukszyn, 2008b; Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; Zmarzer, 2008a):

a) radial: the content of a sentence is referred to in several subsequent sentences for clarification; such information flow has a dynamic intonation and permits stylistic devices related to rhythm, syntax etc. Compare this fragment from one of the paragraphs above:

Coherence is of two types: semantic coherence and formal-grammar coherence. Semantic coherence is ensured . . . Regarding formal-grammar coherence, it is . . . ;

b) chain: the content of a sentence is transferred to the next sentence to be elaborated upon; this information flow is slow and monotonous in terms of intonation, but orderly, as in this fragment taken from the paragraph above:

Divisibility means that the text can be decomposed into constituent units (modules) . . . These modules . . . are semantically independent, but . . . ;

- c) telescopic: the whole content of a sentence is transferred to the next sentence, where it forms a basis for the next utterance; such information flow has an emphatic intonation, as demonstrated by a fragment taken from section 2.2 herein:

Specialized languages pertain to selected fields of knowledge, so they fulfill those cognitive functions which general language does not Therefore, they are independent in the functional aspect . . .

Analyzing the information flow allows the researcher to distinguish several types of subject field style and way of thinking. Thus, scientific specialized languages generally exhibit telescopic structure, artistic texts – radial structure and practical texts – chain structure, while texts concerning religion utilize mixed structure (for the three types can intermingle).

Apart from the suprasegmental features discussed above, specialized texts can be studied using linguistic identifiers, in which case conclusions are drawn from the frequency of occurrence of certain words (Górnicz, 2008; Kornacka, 2003; Lukszyn, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c; Pytel, 2003; Waszczuk, 2003). The basic parameter is the number of terms in a text, which can be low (1:>3, i.e. one term per more than three general-language words), medium (1:3 or 1:2) or high (1:1) (Lukszyn and Zmarzer, 2001; Zmarzer 2008b). However, terms are not the only words which one can study in a specialized text – other possible parameters include morphology (e.g. declension/conjugation, part of speech), syntax, phonetics or etymology. The parameters can be combined: for instance, one may check how many nouns in a given text are terms (see Kornacka (2003) for an extensive list of possibilities). Massalina (2010) researches discourse markers in articles from naval magazines, distinguishing fifteen functional groups such as markers of similarity, difference, manner, purpose or cause/reason, and determines textual frequency of six parts of speech to which the markers belong (two dominants are prepositions – 8% and articles – 6.6%). Real de Moraes (2007) investigates adverbs in the English and Portuguese languages of cooking and contract law, proving that this part of speech does take part in specialized domains' collocations and knowledge of their patterns has practical (translation-related) applications.

Research possibilities going beyond linguistic identifiers can be very specific, including the style of definitions in specialized texts (Darian, 1982), the use of hedging and citation

(Dudley-Evans, 2000) or compliments (Alcaraz Ariza, 2009) in specialized texts, or general language in specialized texts (e.g. Clemmons (2009) examines polysemy in the first thousand words of the General Service List used in secondary chemistry textbooks to show that the creators of vocabulary lists for learners do not take this problem into account sufficiently, thus making the learning process more difficult). However, Lukszyn (2008a) warns the reader that specialized text analysis is usually conducted simultaneously on several planes, which makes the object of research attractive, but also trivializes the issues studied. He suggests that the investigation concern individual parameters so that one can provide an in-depth and comprehensive description of a given specialized language. Let us therefore discuss suprasegmental characteristics of selected umbrella categories of specialized languages, whose range of impact within the society can be considered significant.

4.1.3.1. *Legal language and law-related languages*

Legal language is unique for several reasons. First, it directs the society's life, so its content concerns everyone, but its own addressees (society members) perceive it as complicated, unhelpful and distant – a phenomenon labeled by Halliday (2004) as alienation. Second, it is an extreme example of cultural diversification within a specialized language not only in the contrastive aspect, but also within one national language, due to differing content of relevant extralinguistic knowledge (see section 4.5). Third, owing to the numerous legal and law-related subdisciplines, one can actually speak of legal languages on the one hand, and of legal and law-related languages on the other (Zieliński, 1999). The degree of linguistic intricacy combined with the range of social impact has led to the birth of a new subdiscipline: legal linguistics, as postulated by Goddard (2010) (see section 4.3). This work cannot afford to describe legal language in detail as its analyses can fill books (e.g. Mattila, 2006; Šarčević, 2000), but it is still possible to enumerate common distinctive features (adapted from Mattila, 2006; see also Malinowska, 1999, Wojtak, 2010 and Zieliński, 1999):

- 1) precision (excluding intentional ambiguity, e.g. in negotiations), achieved via:
 - a) dominance of written form: law needs recording to enable further reference; even forms initially oral, such as courtroom speeches, are later written down;
 - b) tautology and avoidance of replacing nouns with pronouns if that would cause ambiguity;
 - c) definitions, appearing both within the text and as a definition section of up to several pages;

- d) enumerations: they may be either exhaustive or explanatory, so their nature is often clarified in particular cases;
- 2) information overload: it stems from the fact that legal language must be detailed (to be precise), free from excessive abstraction (to facilitate decoding) and concise (to help control the “flood of legal rules” (Mattila, 2006: 72));
- 3) universality and aloofness, achieved via:
 - a) abstraction and hypothetical character: legal language predominantly regulates mental creations (rights and duties) and serves to judge future possible cases;
 - b) impersonality and objectivization: frequency of the passive, personification of authorities (e.g. *the court finds . . .*) and naming persons after their roles (e.g. *applicant, defendant*);
 - c) neutrality: official and formal style avoiding connotations and emotions (hence the virtual absence of exclamation and question marks);
 - d) scarcity of metaphors, except in certain old phrases or advocates’ speeches;
- 4) systemic character: every element of legal order must harmonize with the existing ones, hence the enormous role of reference to other documents as well as efforts to use terms consistently;
- 5) structure and formalism of legal texts:
 - a) the legal text “moves from the abstract to the concrete, from the substantive to the procedural” (Mattila, 2006: 81), so principal items and general rules precede secondary items and exceptions;
 - b) formalism includes phrases like *we declare, order and sign* (whose repeating character stems from the magical origins of the law), as well as opening/closing phrases of various texts and expressions marking their internal division (e.g. *on those grounds*);
- 6) frequency of initialisms and acronyms;
- 7) sentence complexity and length (owing to i.a. redundant phrases like *at slow speed* instead of *slowly*) and diversity of language elements (general language words, legal terms and terms from other fields).
- 8) archaism and the resultant solemnity, aiming to ensure respect for the rules.

The enumerated features are derivatives of legal language functions: achieving justice, transmitting legal messages, strengthening the authority of the law, strengthening lawyers’ team spirit and preserving cultural and linguistic heritage (Mattila, 2006). These secondary

functions are ensured by two primary ones: regulatory (prescriptive) and informative (descriptive), which divide legal texts into three types (Šarčević, 2000):

- primarily prescriptive (normative): state how one shall act (permission), refrain from acting (prohibition), may act (permission) or is authorized to act (authorization);
- primarily descriptive but also prescriptive (e.g. appeals, petitions);
- purely descriptive (e.g. textbooks, legal opinions).

As the remaining functions (conveying information, forming the group bonds etc.) are fulfilled by other specialized languages (see chapter 2), it is the normative component, together with the wide range of addressees and cultural diversification, that largely accounts for the unique character of legal and related languages as specialized.

4.1.3.2. *The language of science*

This language is a perfect example of opportunities offered by specialized text linguistics. Owing to the diversification of disciplines, it is difficult to draw common conclusions about specialized vocabulary, but one may do that regarding textual characteristics because these distinguish the language of science as one umbrella category among specialized languages. These characteristics are as follows (Cabré, 1999; Gajda, 1982, 1990b, 2010):

- 1) frequent representation by the texts of an implicit dialogue between the author and the receiver, which justifies the use of:
 - a) arguments, citations, examples etc. as means of indirect persuasion;
 - b) metalinguistic elements (definitions, parentheses, synonyms, etc.), depending on the degree of specialization and the receiver's assumed knowledge;
- 2) intentional selectivity of grammar: on average, nouns constitute 40% of the text (for their role see Dubois (1982) – summarized in section 2.3), adjectives – 20% and verbs – 10%. 90% is the share of the indicative, 80% – the imperfective, 85% – the present tense and 60% – third person singular. Authors often use first person plural, impersonal formulae (e.g. *according to the author, we believe that*), the passive and participles to express modesty and avoid direct statement of opinions, while emotive elements (e.g. exclamations) are absent;
- 3) complex (60% of compound subordinate clauses) and long syntactic structures;
- 4) abundance of connectors (see above) which ensure coherence and express the author's attitude towards the content, such as degree of certainty (e.g. *concluding, it seems, as has been demonstrated*);

- 5) specific text structure: apart from division into main sections (e.g. introduction, results, discussion) and smaller segments (chapters, paragraphs), the main text is surrounded by auxiliary texts (references, indexes, annexes) and includes reference devices (footnotes, cross-references, citations etc.);
- 6) making use of the elegance and appropriateness of language, format and layout;
- 7) other systems of representation in the text: formalized languages (e.g. in logic, chemistry or mathematics) and iconic codes (photographs, diagrams, maps, tables, drawings etc.).

The language of science is also characterized by a specific way of reasoning (Doroszewski, 1999): concept names (i.e. terms) are basic elements of theorems (laws), and sets of theorems form descriptions – larger units encompassing fragments of knowledge of a given discipline. Theorems, the fundamental units of scientific knowledge, may be of two kinds: defining (they distinguish objects and phenomena by describing their features) and relational (they describe relations between phenomena). As one may guess, describing phenomena and relations involves greater complexity than that of objects. This way of reasoning is reflected in every scientific text regardless of how detailed a description is.

The discussed features are aimed at ensuring abstraction, objectivity, universality and precision, as well as intellectual and logical nature of the language of science. Nevertheless, text saturation with those features depends on numerous factors, the most significant ones being national language and culture. Thus, one can distinguish two main intellectual-communicative styles (Gajda, 1999, 2001a):

- 1) Saxon (Anglo-American): it maintains a simple, linear order of content, clarity and dialogue with the reader in mind and an essayistic nature;
- 2) Teutonic (German): it has a complicated structure with many digressions, does not adjust itself to the reader's potential needs and abounds in connectors and terms.

Another key factor is the form; the language of science resembles legal language in that the written form dominates, with such text genres as article, study or monograph. However, the importance of spoken texts (e.g. conversation, debate, lecture, conference) is doubtless as well; the latter may additionally be official or unofficial (e.g. conversation vs. debate) (Gajda, 1982, 1990b, 2010). Still, many spoken texts later acquire a written form (e.g. proceedings from a conference).

4.1.4. The tools – corpus linguistics

Since this work has frequently underlined the insufficient use of corpora in specialized vocabulary research and the analysis herein shall utilize a corpus (see chapter 6), a short discussion is due of corpus linguistics, a research method which has offered new possibilities to linguistics owing to the use of computers. It emerged already in the 1950s, but its development accelerated in the 1980s in response to Noam Chomsky's idea of relying on an ideal language user's intuition (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005; McEnery and Wilson, 2001). It promotes analysis of real language gathered in corpora – computer collections of selected authentic written and/or spoken texts representing various types and styles (Baker et al., 2006; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005). The most famous are huge corpora containing millions of words such as PELCRA at the University of Łódź, the British National Corpus or the American National Corpus (see Xiao, 2008 for a more extensive list) compiled by big teams conducting scientific research or preparing language learning and translation tools (dictionaries, glossaries, grammars etc.). However, corpora are also prepared by individual linguists for their particular projects, and these are processed with use of concordance programs such as WordSmith Tools, AntConc or, previously, MicroConcord. The most important options offered by such software include interactive search, frequency lists, lemmatization, concordance and collocation search; these allow for examining a number of linguistic phenomena, i.a. semantic issues (synonymy, polysemy), multiword expressions, lexical bundles and syntactic patterns (see Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005 for discussion). There are two possible directions of corpus analysis itself:

- 1) corpus-based analysis: it starts with a hypothesis, which can then be confirmed or rejected based on research results;
- 2) corpus-driven analysis: the hypothesis is formed while examining research results.

Interestingly, they are not mutually exclusive in a single research project: in fact, the original hypothesis is frequently supplemented with unexpected discoveries made during the research (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005, 2006).

Corpora, in turn, can be grouped under the following types (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005):

- a) general and specialized;
- b) consisting of whole texts and of text samples;
- c) reference (closed in time) and monitor (updated);
- d) of spoken and written language;

- e) monolingual and multilingual, the latter subdivided into parallel (texts with their translations into one or more languages) and comparable (the same text types in two or more languages);
- f) containing only text and text with tagging;
- g) synchronic and diachronic.

Let us now focus on the distinction made in item a), which is the most relevant for this work, in order to demonstrate the utilization of corpora in specialized linguistics.

The structure and content of a specialized corpus is closely related to the purpose it is going to serve (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005). The size is said to usually reach one million words, but corpora of 500,000 words or less are also common. A specialized corpus does not have to be as big as a general one owing to the issue of copyrights, more limited text availability and increased text type repetition. However, it is crucial to select texts by various authors and limit oneself to the subject field whose language one wants to examine; the latter task may prove harder than expected owing to the interdisciplinary nature of many subject fields. One must also remember to consciously choose text type(s) to include in the corpus as specialized languages frequently include a multitude of genres (e.g. legal language has formed notarial deeds, contracts, legal textbooks and many other). Separate corpora composed of particular text types can then be used to examine various aspects of a given specialized language, as proved by Lewandowski (2013), who adopts the register approach in analyzing football language (see subsection 4.1.1). Having focused on three most popular varieties of the latter, he utilizes three comparable corpora of ca. 100,000, 60,000 and 70,000 words. Further, it is recommended to include whole texts (samples may leave out definitions and important discourse features) created by native speakers (unless translations are to be analyzed) and pay attention to the reliability of sources and authors (especially in the case of online texts). Finally, dates of publication depend on research objectives, which may involve describing the current state of knowledge in a given subject field or tracking specialized language evolution.

The analysis of a specialized corpus may focus on specialized language itself (with use of i.a. frequency lists, keyword lists and word clusters) or on general language features (e.g. speech acts or deixis) present in specialized language. Especially in the former case, which is relevant for this work, one should take into account the language in use, i.e.: language changes, variants of the same term, using terms incorrectly or with new, narrowed or widened meanings and finally the increasing interdisciplinarity. The aims of the analysis range from theoretical linguistic description and tracking specialized language/subject field evolution

(e.g. by identifying neologisms) through term extraction, compilation of glossaries and dictionaries or specialized translation, up to specialized language acquisition (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2005).

With all the appreciation due to corpus analysis, it should not be treated as the only method of discovering the truth about language. As Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (2005, 2006) concludes, the researcher's introspection and his/her (as well as the language user's) intuition ought to be incorporated as well into the research process.

4.2. Specialized language and Terminology

The word 'terminology' comes from the Medieval Latin *terminus* (term) and dates back to the 19th century (Collins Dictionary, n.d.; Merriam-Webster Dictionary, n.d.). As mentioned in the Introduction, it is a polysemous word, not used with an unequivocal meaning even by researchers in this discipline (Schmitz, 2006). Thus, it can denote:

1) a set of words within language:

the body of specialized words relating to a particular subject (Collins Dictionary, n.d.)

set of designations belonging to one special language (ISO 1087-1:2000)

sets of terms with their specialized meanings (concepts) used in particular SPLs of specific domains (Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005: 8)

a structured set of concepts and their designations (graphical symbols, terms, phraseological units, etc.) in a specific subject field (Pointer Final Report, n.d.)

an ordered set of concepts of a particular specialization together with concept signs ascribed to them⁴⁰ (Felber and Budin, 1994: 27);

2) a discipline whose subject matter is specialized language:

[a] subject field that investigates the structure, formation, development, usage and management of the [terminologies] in various subject fields, and that prepares the methodological foundation for many applications (Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005: 3)

an interdisciplinary subject linked with other areas such as linguistics, translation, computer science, and information and cognitive science (Aguado de Cea, 2007: 187)

⁴⁰ uporządkowany zbiór pojęć określonej specjalności wraz z przypisanymi im znakami pojęć

an interdisciplinary subject constituted of fundamentals from linguistics, cognitive science and social sciences” (Cabré, 2000: 1);

3) the practical handling of terms: a set of methodologies and procedures of creating the resource referred to in 1):

the principles governing the design, compilation, use and evaluation of [terminological dictionaries] (Hartmann and James, 2002: 140).

the set of practices and methods used for the collection, description and presentation of terms (Sager, 1990: 3).

Meaning 3) shall not be pursued here as denoting practical activities relevant for terminography (see section 4.4). However, the set – study (1 – 2) opposition is clearly noticeable; Temmerman (2000) differentiates spelling (1 – terminology, 2 – Terminology) to eliminate confusion, but it must be stressed that meaning 1) is contradictory to the function of the suffix *-logy*, which denotes study (e.g. biology, geology). Accordingly, one should oppose the (widespread) use of ‘terminology’ in meaning 1) (F. Grucza, 1991). Thus, as outlined in the Introduction, I shall refer to specialized vocabulary and Terminology, respectively.

“Terminology is not a completely new field of study[: it] has developed and is still developing from the simple human need to name and identify” (Sageder, 2010: 123). Thus, its history largely overlaps with the history of studying specialized languages because the latter had for centuries been equaled with specialized vocabulary (see sections 1.1-1.3). Only in the 20th century did specialized linguistics and Terminology separate as the latter was dissatisfied with linguistic description and wished to pursue its regulatory goals. The period of ca. 1930 to 1960 is regarded as the first stage of modern Terminology development (Cabré, 2000, 2003; F. Grucza, 1991; S. Grucza, 2008b; Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005; Sageder, 2010). At that time normative and methodological principles were formed, resulting in the emergence of the General Theory of Terminology – GTT. Its founding father was Eugen Wüster (1898-1977), an Austrian electrotechnology engineer and promoter of Esperanto. He included his observations in two works considered GTT landmarks: *Internationale Sprachnormung in der Technik, Besonders in der Elektrotechnik*⁴¹ (his doctoral thesis defended in 1931) and *The Machine Tool. An Interlingual Dictionary of Basic Concepts*

⁴¹ The international linguistic normalization in technology, with special reference to electrotechnology.

(published in 1968). Wüster himself acknowledged the input of other scholars in Terminology development (Cabré, 2000):

- Ferdinand de Saussure: the first to stress the systematicity of languages;
- Alfred Scholmann: the first to consider the systematic structure of specialized vocabulary in his glossaries;
- Ernest Drezen: the first to underline the relevance of standardization; he also promoted the creation of the International Standardization Association – ISA (an antecedent of the International Organization for Standardization – ISO);
- John Edwin Holmstrom: a UNESCO member who encouraged development of multilingual terminologies and establishing of Infoterm.

Nevertheless, Wüster's well-planned activities and devoting the whole life to Terminology earned him the status of the discipline's biggest authority which seems to continue to date. He determined three objectives (Cabré, 2003):

- 1) to eliminate ambiguity from languages of technology by means of standardization so that they become effective communication tools;
- 2) to convince all users of those languages of the benefits of standardization;
- 3) to establish the discipline of Terminology and give it the status of a science.

In order to achieve these objectives, he outlined three tasks:

- 1) developing uniform international principles of describing and recording specialized vocabulary;
- 2) developing general principles of Terminology;
- 3) establishing an international center for coordinating Terminology activities.

It is difficult to assess the achievement of Wüster's objectives: linguistics has shown that polysemy and metaphor (i.e. the undesirable ambiguities) do exist also in specialized languages and play an important role in cognition; one cannot check whether all users are convinced of the benefits; and finally, the heated debate about Terminology status has continued to this day. However, his tasks may be regarded as completed. The principles of managing specialized vocabulary and of Terminology were ultimately gathered in *Einführung in die Allgemeine Terminologielehre und Terminologische Lexikographie*⁴² (hence the adoption of the name GTT, which was actually first used in foreign references to this book), published posthumously by Helmut Felber in 1979. The institutional background for Terminology has also been formed and presently consists of the following (Galinsky, 2003;

⁴² Introduction to the general theory of Terminology and terminological lexicography.

Humbley, 1997; Infoterm, n.d.; International Organization for Standardization, n.d.; Tryuk, 1991):

a) organizations and institutions:

- Infoterm: International Information Centre for Terminology (planned by Wüster): founded in 1971 by UNESCO, it has been an independent international association since 1998, also in charge of the ISO/TC 37 office;
- ISO/TC 37 “Terminology and other language and content resources”: a Technical Committee of ISO, preparing international standards regarding Terminology, lexicography and language resource management;

b) studies centers, e.g. the Laval University in Quebec, Canada; Centre de Terminologie et de Néologie (CTN), France; University of Manchester Institute of Science and Technology – UMIST;

c) journals, e.g. *Terminology* (publisher: John Benjamins).

The second stage of modern Terminology development took place in the second half of the 20th century, when many new objects had to be named due to technological progress and databanks first appeared. The third stage (1975-1985) was “the boom” of Terminology (Sageder, 2010: 125), marked by an abundance of language planning projects (see section 4.6). It actually continues to date owing to popularization of computers and new methods of data processing. Currently, three approaches exist within Terminology (Cabré, 1999):

a) the central and northern European approach, whose best known representative is Infoterm. It includes so called ‘schools of Terminology’ (the Vienna, the Prague and the Soviet school), and its sphere of influence is also North Africa, Latin America, China, Japan, Portugal and Spain;

b) the approach of multilingual translation departments in federal and international institutions, e.g. the UN, the EU and the Canadian government (due to Canada’s bilingualism);

c) the approach of government agencies in countries pursuing language standardization. It is inspired primarily by the language planning policy of Quebec (see section 4.6).

Regarding the status of Terminology, it has been viewed in two ways: either a practical activity drawing on more consolidated disciplines or a science. Wüster originally viewed it as a branch of applied linguistics, but his structural approach to language was too restrictive to account for semantic nuances of specialized vocabulary (Cabré, 2003), so he finally deemed it autonomous. A solution to this dichotomy in viewing Terminology may be conscious

separation of the discipline and the practice as drawn up by Sageder (2010) and advocated by F. Grucza (1991) (see Table 6).

Table 6. Two opposite views on Terminology (Sageder, 2010).

	Terminology as a separate scientific discipline	Terminology as a practice and art
Use	Developing a theoretical framework allowing for the description of specialized vocabulary dynamics (growth and formation)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - communication in specialized fields - communication via intermediaries - compiling dictionaries of specialized fields
Users	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - linguists - sociolinguists - cognitive scientists 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - subject field specialists - intermediaries (semispecialists, interpreters, translators/interpreters) - linguists (terminologists, terminographers, language planners)
Output	consolidated theory of Terminology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - dictionaries (incl. standardized ones) for specialized fields

Cabré (1996) has a different view on the matter. She distinguishes three different views on Terminology as a field of study:

- 1) an autonomous, original and self-sufficient discipline (view of GTT defenders);
- 2) a part of another discipline – linguistics, philosophy or particular subject fields, depending on the point of view;
- 3) an autonomous interdisciplinary subject.

Cabré supports the third view, stating that Terminology is original and autonomous in that it selects necessary elements from source disciplines and reshapes them to create its own foundations. Its coinciding mostly with linguistics cannot account for lack of autonomy because Terminology has a different theoretical basis and practical applications. Such synthetic view certainly helps to shift the efforts from demarcating and defending one’s status to the research proper. Still, when confronted with key criteria for a separate discipline, Terminology reveals certain weaknesses of its theoretical assumptions (Temmerman, 2000):

- 1) specific subject matter: specialized vocabulary;
- 2) study objective: identification, collection and description of terms in order to improve communication “largely according to the needs and requirements of domain communication” (Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005: 3);
- 3) theoretical framework behind the methodology: general principles formed by Wüster and developed within the three current approaches mentioned above.

First of all, the subject matter is defined too broadly, without accounting for the aspects and purposes of research; in addition, other disciplines, e.g. text linguistics, can also study

specialized vocabulary, though for different reasons. Moreover, the “allegedly different schools of Terminology seem to coincide in most respects” (Temmerman, 2000: 19) due to being founded on common principles (for a detailed account of the schools see Temmerman, 2000 and Tryuk, 1991). The framework and the objective have in fact been “subordinated to the demands of standardization” (Temmerman, 2000: 2). All this resulted in the following main principles of GTT (Cabré, 2003):

a) regarding language:

- priority of the concept;
- univocity and precision of concepts (i.e. absence of polysemy and synonymy);
- interest only in lexicon, ignoring other language levels;
- synchronic study of terms;
- priority of and concern with written language;

b) regarding specialized language evolution:

- conscious control of evolution (planning, unifying, standardizing);
- priority of international designation forms;

c) regarding methodology:

- onomasiological approach and thus a preference for systematic ordering.

A more general view of the nature of GTT emerges from the list of Temmerman (2000), who distinguishes the following five principles as main (discussed below in greater detail):

- onomasiology;
- clear boundaries of concepts;
- univocity;
- synchronic study;
- three types of definitions: intensional, extensional and part-whole.

Onomasiology is deemed the only proper direction for a terminological study: one begins with the concept, locating it in a concept system by means of a definition, and only then does one assign a term to it (Nowicki, 1979a, 1979b). Felber (1984: 103) even speaks of “conceptuology”, which is supposed to be a discipline similar to semantics, but focusing on concepts. Galinsky (2003: 112) adds that “[t]erminological data proper are largely primary information on the knowledge items called concepts”. Specialized vocabulary is not viewed as living language which undergoes natural changes, but as an artificial creation of specialists (Czerni, 1977). Moreover, the Vienna school of Terminology refers to the concept as part of the extralinguistic world, not the content aspect of the linguistic sign, which means paying even less attention to the linguistic side of terms. This approach omits the fundamental

principle of linguistics which states that language, naming process included, participates in concept creation in the human mind. Concepts cannot be communicated and maybe even conceived without language (Temmerman, 2000). However rigorous the latter statement may seem, language potential is certainly not only labeling (F. Grucza, 1991; Temmerman, 1997).

Concepts are assumed by GTT to be clear-cut, so that one can define them using their distinctive features, or necessary and sufficient characteristics, i.e. the intension (hence the three definition types described below). Then, comparison of characteristics allows one to locate the concepts in the concept system of a given subject field. Unfortunately, many concepts have fuzzy boundaries, which is admitted already by Nowicki (1979b), otherwise a traditional and practice-oriented terminologist (see also Nowicki, 1978, 1979a and 1986). In the former work, he distinguishes three types of concept boundaries: overlapping, disjunctive (leaving gaps between the concepts) and puzzle-like (leaving no gaps). Thus, concepts ought to be viewed as categories with flexible characteristics, especially concepts created as a result of human activity. Temmerman (2000) exemplifies this by listing the following disciplines: biotechnology, molecular biology, molecular genetics and genetic engineering. Although genes had existed before we named them, these scientific branches are abstract products of human research and it does not take a geneticist to see that the four listed concepts have unclear boundaries and overlapping content. Already Ludwig Wittgenstein put forward a family resemblance theory, in which related concepts refuse traditional description using necessary and sufficient characteristics and should rather be treated as members of a family (Cruse, 2004: 128; Wittgenstein, 2009). Imposing clear-cut divisions on language and human mind seems unfeasible.

Univocity is preferred to polysemy and synonymy, which supposedly blur specialized communication. One concept – one term is an ideal situation, viewed as the condition of making subject field communication clear and efficient, which allows for civilizational progress (Felber, 1984; Felber and Budin, 1994). Unfortunately, this principle is contradictory to the aforementioned Terminology objective: improving communication by identification, collection and description of terms. This objective becomes dominated by standardization and thus fails to present the actual stage of affairs in specialized language (Temmerman, 2000). GTT seems to skip the fact that polysemy is inherent to language, including apparently concrete words; let us consider *apple* as an example:

“*apple* will . . . appeal to different domains of our cognitive system depending on how we consider it. If we consider eating it our tasting and smelling modalities will be the most active . . . The

visual system will be primarily active if we are painting or drawing it. This illustrates the fact that *polysemy is inherent to even the more concrete words: apple* has different meanings depending on context. Now if we are reading *Snow White* or *William Tell*, our emotional system will come into play . . . If we consider *apple* in a religious context, it will elicit feelings of guilt towards . . . the acquisition of knowledge (if we read the Bible)” (Perrin-Taillat, 2010: 7; italics original).

Thus, the different contextual senses of *apple* are: food, literary and cultural object and a specialized term (in horticulture). “[If we consider how our knowledge is supported by our brain structure, we come to the view that meaning is inherently ambiguous]” (ibid). This does not mean that all regulatory activities are wrong, but their degree should be reconsidered. It becomes obvious in the case of figurative language, treated by GTT as unwelcome for the same reasons (one word designates more than one concept). Cognitive linguistics has argued that “[metaphorical models link the language system to the world of experience and to the functioning of the mind]” (Temmerman, 2000: 44). Take the dynamically developing discipline of ICT, where the majority of new terms are “metaphorical extensions of the words used in general language” (Aguado de Cea, 2007: 189): for instance, personal features are ascribed to hardware (compare *smart terminals*), while general adjectives form new lexical collocations and function there as metaphors (e.g. *legacy* – a *legacy program* is obsolete, but evokes positive associations and respect due to its past significance). Even UNESCO Guidelines for Terminology Policies list “trans-disciplinary borrowing (metaphors)” (2005: 10) as one of term formation methods. Figurative language plays important cognitive roles in specialized languages, even if the allegedly precise and neutral languages of science are concerned (see e.g. Zawisławska, 2011).

Synchronic study has dominated in GTT because specialized language history is considered a marginal issue: what matters for progress is comprehending and ordering the present situation in order to obtain the terms to be used in specialized communication. However, Kageura (1999, 2000) highlights that we need to anchor conceptual categories to a domain’s structure and investigate the domain’s development and terminological growth, not only individual terms (see also Göke, 2009). Dury (2005) stresses that when a new scientific concept is established, a variety of names emerge for it and coexist as synonyms for a certain time. It is a well-known diachronic phenomenon, as demonstrated by the term *ecosystem* – coined in 1935, it initially had the following synonyms: *microcosm*, *superorganism*, *quasi-organism*, *biotic community* and *Holocene*. Several of these currently bear new meanings, which proves the importance of studying specialized vocabulary development: only then can we discover relations with terms from other subject fields and see

the progress of human knowledge. Kast-Aigner, who conducts a diachronic corpus research of terms concerning the European Union's development cooperation policy, concludes that

[the] investigation of corpora from different time periods facilitates the identification of terminological and conceptual changes and helps to account for the historical background as well as potential ideological forces at work in order to explain linguistic phenomena (Kast-Aigner, 2009: 150).

The three types of definitions promoted in GTT comply with ISO stipulations and are as follows (Felber, 1984; ISO 704.2:1995; Svensen, 1993; Temmerman, 2000; Tryuk, 1991) (examples – E.P.):

- intensional definition: the concept is defined based on intension, i.e. the set of its necessary and sufficient characteristics (e.g. *dog* – mammal, fur, four legs, barks...). This method dates back to Aristotle and is preferred by ISO;
- extensional definition: the concept is defined by listing all its members (e.g. *vehicle* – bike, car, plane, ship, tank...). This method is not advised if the members form a numerous or open group;
- part-whole definition: a superordinate concept is defined by listing all parts which form it (e.g. *biology* – zoology, botany, microbiology...).

Such definitions aim at locating the concept in a concept system, supporting the onomasiological direction. For concepts that cannot be defined that way, definition is replaced with explanation (which does not provide information on the concept's location in the system). Unfortunately, many concepts refuse the three definition types owing to fuzzy boundaries, which such methods of defining seem to overlook – or wish to control.

Space should also be devoted here to the symptomatic treatment of terms which emerged as a result of observing the discussed principles. Thus, an ideal term should bear the following features (Czerni, 1977; Jadacka, 1976; Jurkowski, 1991; Lukszyn, 2002; Mazur, 1961; Nowicki, 1978, 1979b; Pawluk, 2009; Pytel, 2004; Rybicka-Nowacka, 1991; Żydek-Bednarczuk, 1987):

- a) accuracy/suitability: the term should fit its role, i.e. should unambiguously highlight the characteristics of the concept;
- b) arbitrariness: the term is not formed naturally, but as a result of purposeful activity of a professional group;
- c) conciseness: the term (especially if multi-word) is composed from the smallest possible number of parts and morphologically simple;

- d) contextual independence: the term's meaning is the same regardless of context;
- e) efficiency: the term should be easy to learn, use and derive new terms;
- f) existence of definition: this is caused by the onomasiological order of work, i.e. establishing a concept > defining the concept > assigning a term;
- g) homogeneity: a compound term should be formed from homogenous (i.e. either native or foreign) stems – hybrids are not recommended;
- h) linguistic correctness: the term should be created with the assistance of linguists;
- i) precision: the term has no synonyms;
- j) stability: the term should not be changed without an important reason;
- k) stylistic and emotional neutrality: the term has no expressive function;
- l) systematicity: the term is precisely located in a term system and terms located on the same level should have the same superordinate term;
- m) uniformity: terms designating related concepts should also be related – they should possibly be based on the same stem;
- n) universality: the term should possibly be used in the same meaning in all disciplines;
- o) univocity: the term is not polysemous (unless in distant disciplines, e.g. *morphology* in linguistics, geology and medicine);

The little probability of complying with those features stems from the preceding discussion of GTT principles. Due to constant struggle of chaos and order in language, a term may be more polysemous than any general-language word: take the linguistic terms *style*, *word* and *sentence*, which still lack clear-cut definitions (Gajda, 1990b). Even the advocates of standardization admit that adhering to all of the features is difficult, so one should choose the most important ones in each case (Czerni, 1977). Moreover, the list is largely based on the outdated Polish standards PN-65/N-02004 and PN-64/N-02005, as well as their follower, PN-73/N-02004, issued in 1973. The three standards are in fact adaptations of ISO's TC 37 rules.

As Cabré remarks, after years of inactivity within Terminology we have witnessed “a rush of critiques of established principles and suggestions proposing new alternatives to the traditional theory” (2003: 163). She enumerates seven reasons for lack of change and development for several decades:

- 1) young age of the discipline;
- 2) lack of a serious debate on the discipline's ideas;
- 3) reducing the discussion to a single direction (language control);
- 4) no serious confrontation of opinions (one center – Infoterm);
- 5) no interest of other disciplines (linguistics, psychology, discourse studies etc.);

- 6) absence of strong theoreticians (in favor of professionals of other activities: teaching, translation/interpreting, information retrieval etc.);
- 7) treating critique as sabotage (probably in order to defend and consolidate the newly formed discipline).

After the debate finally began, the criticism has come from three main directions (ibid):

- cognitive sciences: they question rigid general/specialized knowledge separation and stress the role of creating knowledge via discourse;
- language sciences: they question rigid general/specialized language separation and postulate incorporating social factors and functions of specialized languages;
- communication sciences: they postulate treating specialized communication as a subtype rather than a different type of communication.

The criticism has been received in three ways (ibid):

- a) negative: today a minor line, it rejects and ignores the opponent;
- b) constructive: it has two streams – revisiting the old theory to improve it or refining it to silence the critics;
- c) probabilistic: it wishes to produce a new, more comprehensive theory.

On the wave of transformation, Wüster's followers arrived at what Cabré (2003) calls the Extended General Theory, still characterized by eclecticism, independence of concepts, onomasiology and the wish to standardize. Therefore, “the path towards a truly humanistic [Terminology]” (Rey, 1996: 106) lies in rejecting the purisms and learning from surrounding disciplines. This seems to have been known by Bajerowa (1982), who set the following objectives for Terminology:

- revising theory and methodology, especially the notion of term (see subsection 4.1.1);
- synchronic description, especially word formation, lexicology (e.g. semantic fields) and foreign elements;
- diachronic description, especially internal word-formation evolution of terms;
- relationship of specialized vocabulary with general language, especially terminologization and determinologization (see subsection 4.1.1).

More recently, suggestions of changes to Terminology, sociocognitive and non-prescriptive in nature, continue to appear. For instance, Temmerman (2000) suggests that traditionally understood concepts be replaced with ‘units of understanding.’ Some of these could be explained using the three abovementioned methods of defining, but many others are flexible and fuzzy, showing features of categories. Such units could be described using templates

instead of traditional definitions. A template would be composed of four information modules: core definition, historical information, intracategorical information and intercategory information; the importance of particular modules would depend on a particular unit. In turn, Humbley (1997) draws attention to the environment of terms and offers the following advice:

- start paying attention to social conditions of producing and using terms;
- adopt textual orientation, i.e. study terms in specialized corpora, not in isolation: this proposal is known as corpus-based Terminology (see Kast-Aigner, 2009);
- focus on specialized language phraseology to help translators/interpreters and other users introduce terms into discourse.

A new interesting suggestion is the proscriptive approach, originating from the theory of lexicography and put forward by Gouws (2009), as well as Andersen and Nielsen (2009). The idea is that all the existing variants (e.g. spelling, pronunciation) of a term are provided and one of them is recommended to the user. Satisfying both the need to describe language and to offer the user the advice he/she seeks, such procedure is coherent with the abovementioned Terminology objective: collection and description of terms and improving communication.

Having presented the dominant attitudes, Cabré (2003) develops her own Terminology theory, in which:

- 1) Terminology is simultaneously a set of needs, a set of practices to satisfy the needs and a unified field of knowledge;
- 2) terminological unit is a multidimensional unit of knowledge, language and communication;
- 3) description of a terminological unit must have the cognitive component (concept), the linguistic component (term) and the communicative component (situation);
- 4) terminological units are studied in specialized discourse;
- 5) specialized discourse study results in describing a specialized communication framework;
- 6) specialized communication framework has two features: lexical (use of units) and textual (precise content of the text).

Importantly, in this theory terminological units are referred to as ‘units of special meaning’ (or ‘referential language units’ earlier in Cabré, 2000). Thus, any lexical unit has a potential of being a terminological unit, which brings specialized language back closer to the phenomenon of language in its entirety.

4.3. Specialized language and teaching

“Language is essentially pragmatic in character – situational, contextualised, and purposive, not intended to [be], but to [do]” (Lewis, 1999 [1993]: 59). Therefore, although not the main subject of this work, specialized language teaching must be credited for its significant contribution to the development of specialized language research in general. The need to learn stemmed from practical applications and subsequently actually triggered the research in Poland, Germany and the Anglo-Saxon countries. In the latter location it has especially strongly influenced the approach and methodology to this day (see section 1.3): specialized languages are viewed from the perspective of users’ needs, which is what modern Terminology frequently calls for (see section 4.2) and what specialized lexicography is focused on (see section 4.4). The most easily noticeable effect of the said influence is the popularity of the LSP label as one of the alternative names for specialized language (see section 3.1). This name certainly earned specialized languages considerable interest within and beyond linguistics, but specialized language teaching itself has experienced a significant development, as exemplified by the situation of English:

[from] the early 1960’s, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of EFL teaching today. Its development is reflected in the increasing number of universities offering an MA in ESP . . . and in the number of ESP courses offered to overseas students in English speaking countries. There is now a well-established international journal dedicated to ESP discussion, “English for Specific Purposes” . . . , and the ESP SIG groups of the IATEFL and TESOL are always active at their national conferences (Anthony, 1997: 9).

Specialized language teaching is special itself owing to two important features (Mackay and Mountford, 1978):

- 1) close association with adult learners: while children are unconscious of language learning goals and adolescents, though more aware of the benefits, are usually satisfied with passed exams, adults “are generally highly conscious of the use to which they intend to put” specialized language (Mackay and Mountford, 1978: 3);
- 2) important, but auxiliary role of language: we teach foreign languages to children with their future in mind, i.e. with no immediate communicative need on their behalf. The actual purpose is ‘deferred’, often until university, and usually limited to passing exams. In turn, specialized language is a means to achieve other goals, learned for precise and imminent purposes of employment.

Thus, specialized language learning is characterized by user consciousness/willingness on the one hand and practical requirements directed to the teacher on the other. It is also important not to reduce specialized language teaching to specialized vocabulary, just as specialized linguistics can no longer be limited to it. Even the basic specialized discourse notions of multi-word terms (see Dubois, 1982), definition (see Darian, 1982) or classification (see Mackay and Mountford, 1978) have different syntactic and stylistic features depending on the purpose and intended audience assumed by the speaker/writer. A great advocate of the discourse approach to specialized language teaching was Louis Trimble (see e.g. Trimble, 1992; Trimble and Trimble, 1982), who already in the 1980s promoted EST courses actually focusing on rhetorical techniques and functions of specialized language as well as their relationship with grammatical features. Specialized discourse should certainly be taught in the broad scope, preparing learners for active participation and text production. Here emerges one more feature of specialized language learning: the authenticity of materials (Al-Humaidi, n.d.; Mackay and Mountford, 1978). Still, their usage should be cautious and conscious as they frequently require twofold adaptation (Trimble, 1992):

- of extralinguistic knowledge level to that of the learners as subject field participants;
- of the linguistic level, i.e. structures and lexis, to that of the learners as non-native speakers.

It stems from the above that specialized language teaching is not limited to the linguistic matter, but it also includes extralinguistic issues: context of use and subject field knowledge. Envisaging legal linguistics as an academic and professional discipline, Goddard (2010: 4) identified both legal and linguistic (i.e. subject field and language-related) needs of the discipline's target audience:

- for lawyers and legal translators: comparative law, legal systems and specialisms, comparative legal cultures, legal English, legal linguistic skills, legal writing and drafting, concepts and specialized vocabulary, legal informatics;
- for translators: legal methods;
- translation skills.

Regarding English, its assumed worldwide hegemony is paradoxical: in 1957, UNESCO estimated that nearly two thirds of scientific literature appeared in English, but over two thirds of professionals could not read English (Mackay and Mountford, 1978). Later, UNESCO announced that at least 50% of scientific literature was published in languages which 50% of scientists did not understand (Gajda, 1982). More recent data state that ca. 7% of people use English in the contemporary world, but 80% of texts in sciences and 45% of

texts in arts are published in English (Czerni, 1977; Gajda, 1999, 2001a), which yields an average of 62.5% of English scientific texts – we seem to remain on the level of two thirds throughout the years. In such situation, the idea of an international language – for general communication (Bendyk and Krzemińska, 2012), for science (Gajda, 1982, 1999; Krzemińska, 2012) or even for Europe (F. Grucza, 2008b) – comes as no surprise. However, all the cited authors conclude that it would indeed be very difficult to achieve. Learning foreign languages, and within them – specialized languages, has thus far remained indispensable.

A special type of LSP teaching is specialized translation/interpreting teaching, which combines two of the activities related to specialized language listed in subsection 4.1.1: teaching and translation/interpreting. Thus, it shares their problems and requirements: a specific group of learners and their attitude; the problem of authenticity of materials; the necessity of study in a broad scope (i.e. beyond terms); and the necessity to acquire knowledge of a subject field, specialized language universals and specialized text features (see sections 4.3 and 4.5).

4.4. Specialized language and lexicography

Specialized lexicography is another valuable aspect of specialized language research because it has very tangible practical implications. Knowles (1998: 331) puts it as follows:

Lexicologists . . . generally know little about the realities of dictionary-making. This is a pity because from nearly every lexicological research project there is potentially a useful lexicographical spinoff in the form of a specialised dictionary.

This also concerns specialized lexicography, whose history confirms the importance of practical linguistic activities. Quite unsurprisingly, the discipline developed from the tradition of listing ‘hard words’ while reading, which actually lies at the roots of the whole lexicography. It started in ancient Greece and Rome (Miodunka, 1989), continued in medieval Europe and enjoyed particular popularity in the 17th century, beginning with Robert Cawdrey’s *A Table Alphabetical* (1604): the first monolingual English dictionary, of about 2500 entries (Jackson, 2002). Those ‘hard word’ dictionaries were limited to borrowings not yet widespread or difficult for the uneducated. Cawdrey’s work was followed by John Bullokar’s *An English Expositor* (1616) and Henry Cockeram’s *The English Dictionarie* (1623). Thomas Blount’s *Glossographia* (1656) was broader in scope as it introduced

scientific terms and etymology (the word was given also in its original language). In the 18th and 19th centuries the interest in specialized vocabulary increased due to scientific and technological development, which triggered terminological activity of scientists themselves (see section 1.2). A lexicographic series worth mentioning is Schlomann-Oldenbourg *Illustrierte Technische Wörterbücher*⁴³, published in six languages from 1906 to 1912 (Czerni, 1977). Its innovativeness lay in dividing the whole material into subfields issued in separate volumes, with systematic vocabulary ordering; the latter method was later adopted by ISO's TC 37 (see section 4.2) as a recommendation. Then, lexicographic activities were hindered, though not completely stopped, by World War I, and continued in the interwar period. In Poland they were supervised by the state and aimed at gathering and unifying the vocabulary after the Partitions (Bajerowa, 1982; Czerni, 1977). The language of the newly formed country was deemed to require consolidation and removal of German and Russian influences to a possible extent. Thus, in 1923, the Polish Scientific Vocabulary Committee was established at the Academy of Technical Sciences⁴⁴; other committees were appointed to work with maritime, electrotechnical and mining vocabulary. Many specialized dictionaries were published at that time, the most significant one being *Słownik Techniczny*⁴⁵, a two-volume dictionary with German and Polish prepared by Karol Stadtmüller Senior and Karol Stadtmüller Junior. After World War II, specialized lexicography began to thrive again, this time under the auspices of the Polish Committee for Standardization (PKN). Dictionaries prepared by its several committees were issued by the Polish National Technical Publishing House (PWT), which later transformed into the Scientific and Technical Publishing House (WNT)⁴⁶. Emphasis was put on bilingual dictionaries for reading and translation (see below), but PKN has also cooperated with ISO' TC37 and the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) on normative publications. A detailed account of the history of Polish specialized lexicography can be found in Czerni (1977). On the international scene, the period of 1945-1974 saw the publication of ca. 7000 lexicographic works, nearly half of them being specialized dictionaries, in socialist countries, and a similar number in capitalist countries (ibid). In the former, however, dictionaries for reading and translation have enjoyed great popularity, due to the necessity to keep up with technological and scientific progress. In the Anglo-Saxon countries the interest in these dictionaries is considerably smaller, owing to the

⁴³ Illustrated technical dictionaries

⁴⁴ Komisja Polskiego Słownictwa Technicznego przy Akademii Nauk Technicznych

⁴⁵ The technical dictionary

⁴⁶ PWT - Państwowe Wydawnictwa Techniczne; WNT - Wydawnictwa Naukowo-Techniczne

aforementioned dominance of English in scientific literature (see section 4.3). Multilingual dictionaries, such as those issued by Elsevier, are popular instead.

Specialized dictionaries, themselves only one of the subtypes of lexicographic works, can be further divided according to several criteria (Czerni, 1977):

1) approach to regulation:

- a) normative: they order and standardize the vocabulary. The sole representative of this type is terminological norm;
- b) recording-critical: they document the state of vocabulary for practical purposes, but the material is selected depending on users' needs (e.g. omitting obsolete terms or some synonyms);
- c) recording: they fully document the state of vocabulary; these are costly, difficult to prepare and allegedly impractical, and hence not prepared;

2) practical purpose:

- a) scientific: they order and update specialized vocabulary of a given subject field and constitute a basis for all other specialized dictionaries of that field. They are usually prepared under the auspices of scientific institutions and contain definitions, necessary formulas, illustrations and alphabetical indexes of terms;
- b) for reading and translation: they are the most common type, usually bilingual and broad in scope (e.g. medical) so as not to force the user to utilize several dictionaries for all the subfields of a given subject field;
- c) popularizing: usually derived from larger dictionaries, they are monolingual and narrow in scope and concern the most interesting aspects of a given field;
- d) for teaching: they resemble popularizing dictionaries, but are usually multimodal (colors, illustrations) and systematic, with careful referencing;

3) number of languages:

- a) monolingual: they contain definitions arranged in the alphabetical order;
- b) bilingual: they contain an alphabetical list of terms with their equivalents;
- c) multilingual:
 - with definitions in the source language and equivalents;
 - without definitions: as in b);

4) thematic scope:

- a) broad (e.g. agricultural, medical): they may thoroughly present polysemy and synonymy and synthetically explain meanings;

b) business (e.g. chemistry, metallurgy) and narrow (e.g. plastics, rolling): they should focus on newest terms, essential phraseology, abbreviations etc., remaining concise and thus easy to reprint after updating;

5) parallel dictionaries: a publishing concept where a subject field dictionary is issued separately in several languages, which allows for showing subtle differences in the conceptual structure and meaning of terms in different languages. Unfortunately, preparation and updating is difficult and costly.

Just as lexicography is often considered an applied branch of lexicology, authors have spoken of terminography as an applied aspect of Terminology (Cabr , 1996; Crystal, 2003) and the two disciplines have frequently undergone comparison. I have summarized this situation in Table 7, which is based on the sources referred to in the discussion of that follows.

Table 7. Comparison of lexicography and terminography.

	Lexicography	Terminography
Approach	descriptive	prescriptive
Working method	semasiological	onomasiological
Ordering	alphabetical	systematic
Side of the linguistic sign	oriented at language	concept-oriented
Users	oriented at non-specialists	specialist-oriented
User needs	decoding	encoding
Approach to regulation	synonymy and polysemy	precision and univocity

However, such juxtaposition is doubly erroneous from the point of view of specialized linguistics:

- it employs features of general and not specialized lexicography;
- it employs features of traditional Terminology (see section 4.2).

Linguists and lexicographers ascribe this to terminologists, who are said to underline differences in order to help their own discipline be recognized (Bergenholtz and Kaufmann, 1997; Bergenholtz and Nielsen, 2006). A careful comparison reveals more similarities:

a) processing a specialized language involves both descriptiveness and prescriptiveness, whose proportion varies in lexicographic practice of particular countries. A new idea is the proscriptive approach (see section 4.2), acknowledging and reconciling the two tendencies. It can be said, though, that lexicography gives form to standardization undertaken by Terminology;

- b) onomasiological working method and systematic ordering have long been used in lexicography: many dictionaries in the Middle Ages were based on it. Moreover, electronic dictionaries can optionally display the conceptual structure;
- c) concept-term relations are essential for specialized vocabulary, so “serious terminological work [is] an absolute prerequisite for high-quality specialized dictionaries” (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995: 11);
- d) considering all user groups and user needs, from layperson to specialist, is a basic lexicographic principle responsible for the existence of numerous dictionary types. Terminology actually also encounters various user situations, including non-specialists (e.g. doctor-patient or lawyer-client interactions) (Pointer Final Report, n.d.). In fact, “terminography has much to learn from the long lexicographic tradition in terms of preparing user-friendly quality products” (Bergenholtz and Tarp, 1995: 11);
- e) specialized lexicography and Terminology both wish to clarify specialized language by controlling synonymy and polysemy. The proscriptive approach may again prove an integrating solution here.

If one adds to this list the fact that specialized lexicography and terminography operate on the same material (specialized language) and that lexicography has been turning from its usual considering isolated lexical items to systematic structure (Knowles, 1988), as well as the new proposals for Terminology to become less prescriptive (see section 4.2), one may agree that the differences between the two disciplines are rather of degree than of kind. Moreover,

[in] the last ten years or so specialized language and general language studies have begun to show an approximation in perspective as lexicographers and lexical semanticists now tend to take a more concept-based approach towards dictionary structure, and terminographers have begun to pay more attention to conceptual description or to the definition of terminological units (Faber et al., 2007: 39).

Similarly, discussing the old problem whether a given term can be found in a general or in a specialized dictionary, Varantola comes to the conclusion that in the electronic era

it is no longer so important to follow very rigid lexicographical or terminological principles in deciding what to include in, or exclude from, a lexical database or term bank. Lexicographers can accept both stringent field-specific definitions together with more general, context-based definitions for special-field concepts, and terminologists can accept that there are ‘undefinable’ special-field concepts, slightly outside the focus of, but nevertheless central to, communication in

the field. The underlying philosophy would be to accept that there are a number of ways of dividing up the continuum of words and terms (Varantola, 1992: 127).

If terminography and general lexicography can be reconciled this way, there seem to be no more obstacles for regarding terminography and specialized lexicography as synonyms or at least sister disciplines, as do Hartmann and James (2002). “[It] is . . . becoming accepted to refer to ‘terminography’ as denoting ‘terminological lexicography’” (Knowles, 1988: 331) and to consider it “a very special type of lexicography” (ibid).

4.5. Specialized language and translation/interpreting

Translation/interpreting of specialized texts is, not surprisingly and quite rightly, viewed as more difficult than translation/interpreting of general texts because the translator/interpreter “has to work with texts that require a much deeper conceptual and contextual knowledge” (García Izquierdo and Borja Albi, 2008: 39). Thus, it is harder to achieve two main translation goals beside equivalence: high readability and meeting stylistic requirements of the target language (Giehl, 2006). To improve readability, translation studies (TS) investigate the influencing factors: distribution of terms in specialized texts and the syntax of those texts. Contrary to popular view, the latter is decisive about the reader’s subjective feeling of text difficulty:

Of course, technical terms are an essential part of scientific language; it would be impossible to create a discourse of organized knowledge without them. But they are not the whole story. The distinctive quality of scientific language lies in the lexicogrammar (the “wording”) as a whole, and any response it engenders in the reader is a response to the total patterns of the discourse (Halliday, 2004: 201).

Terms are burdened with the whole responsibility for difficulty because people are generally less conscious of grammar and grammatical developments are more gradual (Halliday, 2004). Nevertheless, specialized vocabulary significantly affects readability, too. Giehl (2006: 116) formulates the following equations:

LSP – text = subject-specific terminology + remaining text (RT)

RT = basic terms + non-basic terms.

As subject-specific terminology constitutes 20-25% of a specialized text, Giehl examined RT in English and German medical texts, and managed to explain why the latter are regarded as

less readable (less comprehensible): their RT contains more non-basic terms, which are more difficult to understand. The need for a sufficient scope of specialized dictionaries/termbases which would permit inclusion of non-central terms (see below) is evident here. A translator/interpreter's skills should subsequently enable him/her to pay attention to specialized vocabulary structure in a given text and adjust that structure in the target text to the intended audience.

Another difficulty in specialized translation/interpreting is dependence of specialized knowledge on culture. Bergenholtz (2006) divides knowledge into culture-dependent and culture-independent, and lists politics, economics and law as examples of the first type, but, significantly, gives none for the other. It is indeed hard to conceive of an area of life where culture would have no influence whatsoever. In view of this, from the two kinds of linguistic equivalence (Piotrowski, 2001; Zgusta, 1971), i.e.

- cognitive: linguistic units are alike concerning the relevant criteria (part of speech, denotation, etc.); and
- translational: the target unit can be substituted for the source unit in a target text (oftentimes this does not require belonging to the same part of speech),

the latter must often be employed by specialized language translators/interpreters. An example of how difficult it may be to obtain equivalence in specialized languages is the discipline of law, where discrepancies occur between the law of the USA and the UK, as well as within the UK (England and Wales versus Scotland). In turn, law systems of such countries as Spain and Denmark vary due to different origin (Roman versus German) (Bergenholtz, 2006; Dickel, 2008b; Mattila, 2006; Šarčević, 1991, 2000). The complexity of the linguistic situation is best proved by Mattila (2006), who separately analyzes four major legal languages (Latin, German, French and English) in terms of their history, characteristics and influence. Therefore, a translator/interpreter of legal texts needs to acquire knowledge of law mechanisms and usage of authentic auxiliary materials (legal acts, textbooks etc.) (Kielar, 1991); obviously, this requirement extends to other subject fields. Still, the scope of specialized knowledge of a translator/interpreter will usually remain smaller than that of a subject field specialist because the former is not a subject of activities within that field (Dickel, 2008b; Marchwiński, 2008b). However, cultural differences are of a linguistic nature as well, so the translator/interpreter has to possess sufficient knowledge of a given specialized language's universals, and those may occur on several levels (Bergenholtz, 2006; Dickel, 2008b; Marchwiński, 2008b) such as morphology, word-formation, lexis, syntax, semantics and pragmatics (see subsections 4.1.2 and 4.1.3). The translator/interpreter should also have

knowledge of specialized text's linguistic parameters (cohesion, division into parts etc.), form (layout, tables, diagrams and illustrations/accent and intonation) and social factors (target group, time and mode of publication etc.) (Dickel, 2008c; Kielar, 2008; Marchwiński, 2008a, 2008b). These knowledge types allow the translator/interpreter to adequately convey a text in the target language, achieving the same symmetry of term distribution and text parameters, which will result in the text exerting the same effect on its audience as did the source text (Marchwiński, 2008a).

Translation studies are close to one of the basic disciplines of specialized language research – Terminology (see section 4.2), which they resemble in three aspects:

- 1) they are a young activity, having been fully established only in the 1970s/1980s;
- 2) they are still considered by many either as a field of study (rather than a scientific discipline) or a part of another discipline, most commonly of (synchronic) contrastive linguistics since they are a special kind of language comparison;
- 3) they are equally interdisciplinary, drawing on psychology, sociology, history, and cultural studies apart from linguistics (Ramon Garcia, 2002).

However, the two differ in their theoretical assumptions, which result in methodological discrepancies (Sager, 2005a, 2005c):

- a) Terminology is a static process of description of terms, which are studied in purposeful isolation; translation/interpreting dynamically manipulates textual substance in the source language to create it in the target language;
- b) Terminology works analytically and consciously, which results in term sets; translators/interpreters mostly work intuitively, except when consciously searching for a meaning, e.g. in a dictionary;
- c) Terminology permanently matches concepts to terms, while translation/interpreting performs temporary matching of textual units;
- d) Terminology prefers using a given language's resources to create new terms and tends to disapprove of loans and direct borrowings, for these may cause semantic and grammatical changes to target language structure; translation/interpreting employs several methods to obtain equivalence (e.g. Newmark (1988) lists five more).

In essence, translation/interpreting deals largely with *parole* (language in use), while Terminology – with *langue* (language as an abstract system) (Sager, 2005c). Thus, Terminology wishes to provide translation/interpreting with working tools: specialized vocabulary sets (dictionaries, electronic termbases etc.) and systems of nomenclature. The latter aim at regulating specialized vocabulary's productivity processes, so that the meaning of

affixes and combinations becomes predictable, facilitating translation/interpreting (Sager, 2005a). Then, if a translator/interpreter needs to create a new term during his/her work, he/she may follow the target language's tendencies by choosing an appropriate word and thus participate in specialized vocabulary formation (Górnicz, 2003).

Translation/interpreting is also strongly and obviously connected with another specialized language research discipline – lexicography (see section 4.4). For a translator/interpreter of specialized texts, three aspects are especially important: active specialized dictionaries, a sufficiently wide scope of specialized dictionaries and corpora.

First, there exists a disproportion between active dictionaries (supporting encoding skills, i.e. text production) and passive dictionaries (supporting decoding skills, i.e. text reception) (Hartmann and James, 2002; Svensen, 1993). Most specialized dictionaries are passive (Varantola, 1992), as if their authors have forgotten about the need to put specialized vocabulary into discourse after comprehending it. According to Zmarzer (1991), translation specialized dictionaries should be dealt with by general translational lexicography. Unfortunately, such approach is a voluntary waiver of supervision over specialized vocabulary use and of the right to complain about imprecision and incoherence of that use.

Second, the scope of a dictionary/termbase should accommodate the vocabulary not central to its discipline and/or coming from related disciplines (Borowska, 2004). General dictionaries give too vague definitions of this vocabulary (if at all), while specialized ones are too restricted in scope to include it. This results in the translator/interpreter's dilemma: where to search for a given lexical unit (Varantola, 1992). The border between words, central terms and non-central terms is fuzzy, and subject field and style labels are insufficient assistance.

Third, one cannot forget about the deficiency of specialized corpora for practical (translating/interpreting and teaching) purposes (García Izquierdo and Borja Albi, 2008; S. Grucza, 2008c). The most difficult part of the translation/interpreting process is adapting the target text to textual conventions of the target language. Thus, the translator/interpreter is advised to consult texts concerning a given field written in the target language, from where he/she can draw terms, phrases and textual characteristics (Kielar, 1991). Corpora could save the translator/interpreter time and uncertainty.

4.6. Specialized language and language planning

The last aspect of specialized language research on our list is also the newest one because

[the] need to establish relations and to communicate with others that has led to modern economic growth and the appearance of international bodies has given rise to language issues that were unheard of in other times (Cabr , 1999: 214).

Indeed, language planning as an institutionalized activity started only in the 1960s, originally in order to support minor languages used in communities speaking major languages. The first language to receive that kind of support was French in Quebec; as a result, the trend towards Anglicization was reversed and French achieved an important position in Canada: it is both official and widely used in everyday communication, and is additionally protected by strong legislation regarding the rights of French-speaking citizens. The aim of such activities was (and has remained) to foster word-formation in a given language so as to make it more independent of other languages and thus more stable (Cabr , 1999, 2000). Within such approach, standardization is only a part of the whole picture, but it represents that picture in social consciousness. The notion of language planning may raise anxiety also because planning expresses the wish to control the phenomenon which evolves naturally and escapes ties. The abovementioned linguistic policy regarding French or top-down implemented spelling reforms in Germany are common knowledge. Descriptive and normative work on language are usually opposed to each other, especially as regards specialized languages, which are discussed herein. However, “[a] great deal of confusion and . . . misunderstandings result from considering these two approaches as mutually incompatible and as competing views of the world” (Varantola, 1992: 124). In fact, they supplement each other: normative work must be preceded by descriptive activities utilizing authentic linguistic materials. With such a solid base, regulation may have a beneficial effect, stabilizing and ordering the specialized language as well as showing the subject field’s development (ibid). To achieve those goals, contemporary language planning must be an eclectic activity which does not refrain from combining approaches and methodologies:

[language] planning today entails much more than simply coining words and terms and thinking up spelling reforms. It involves an ecological approach to language as a crucial element in human societies, and it includes multiple socio-linguistic factors. Language planning covers a mixture of methods and approaches, including terminology and lexicography, terminology management, translation and translation management, and increasingly, corpus-based approaches (term

extraction, corpus analysis for spotting neologisms coined in discourse communities, etc.)
(Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005: 5-6).

Normative activity regarding specialized vocabulary is one of the components of language planning and simultaneously one of the objectives pursued by Terminology (see section 4.2). It works in two directions (Sager, 2005b):

- a) prospective: acknowledging the need for naming new concepts, standardization establishes rules for creating terms (see systems of nomenclature in section 4.5);
- b) retrospective: standardization responds to communicative situation which have taken place and caused difficulties.

In practice, the retrospective direction prevails: regulatory activities are usually one step behind language and technological development (Sager, 2005b; Pawluk, 2009) because the said difficulties are of two main kinds (Sager, 2005b):

- a new concept (idea or object) often emerges in more than one place, which leads to parallel designations;
- a new concept (idea or object) develops gradually, which leads to provisional designations before the final name can be fixed.

Since the “vigour of standardization . . . is not compatible with the creativity of general language”, language planning is an activity based on consensus (Sager, 2005b: 258).

Apart from Terminology, language planning is closely related to specialized lexicography (see section 4.4). The two are brought together by results of their work: specialized dictionaries, glossaries and termbases. The latter are in fact both results and tools of the language planning process, and considerable effort is put into achieving and maintaining their appropriate quality. This is especially visible in documents and projects concerning recommendations for international harmonization (Antia, 2000; Guidelines for Terminology Policies, 2005; Pointer Final Report, n.d.; Rirdance and Vasiljevs, 2006). Such “government-sponsored language planning projects” are aimed at rationalizing “the diversification of languages” in the contemporary times of highlighting cultural identity (Cabr , 1999: 3). The ultimate goal of these activities is facilitating the international exchange of thoughts and knowledge (Gajda, 2010; Stoberski, 1982): as languages develop in close connection with civilization, which today has an international character, international elements in particular languages are natural, impossible to eliminate and harmless to identity – provided that their presence is reasonably controlled (Stoberski, 1982).

Specialized communication is inseparably linked with knowledge, but not everything from the contemporary flood of information is knowledge: “[t]o become knowledge, information needs an interpreter” (Perrin-Taillat, 2010: 1). Perrin-Taillat reckons that focusing attention on relations between language units could allow us to move from an information society to a knowledge society. Since language planning is not “an aim in itself, but merely a device used to optimize the communication of information” (Sager, 2005b: 258), it can certainly assist in this process.

5. Setting the scene – the equestrian subject field

As has frequently been stressed above, specialized languages need to be researched with reference to their extralinguistic setting. This chapter aims to outline that setting for the equestrian specialized language: section 5.1 briefly presents the history of its subject field, which is actually the history of the man – horse relationship, while section 5.2 characterizes its users – the equestrian social group.

5.1. From horseflesh to horse sport – development of the equestrian subject field

The ancestor of the contemporary horse species appeared between 50 and 60 million years ago in North America (Edwards, 1996; Kidd, 1995), but the mutual history of man and horse only began ca. 5,000 – 6,000 years ago in Eurasia, which is the probable time and place of horse domestication by Indo-European tribes. Though people had hunted horses before and tried to keep them for meat, as evidenced by 15,000-year-old cave drawings in Lascaux and Santander, the domestication was a breakthrough which triggered formation and development of civilization: that revolution spread westwards, to Europe, and then eastwards to Caucasus, Arabia and China (Edwards, 1996; Gürtler and Sternthal, 2013). Taming the horse commenced its schooling, driving and riding, and these went hand in hand with technical inventions and laying down first rules of horsemanship. Egyptians and nomadic peoples of Mesopotamia excelled in driving owing to chariots and the climax of this war method was the Battle of Kadesh (1275 BC) between Egyptians under Ramses II and Hittites – the biggest ancient chariot battle (Edwards, 1996; Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.). Hittites were also the first to write down the rules of horse care: a manuscript by Kikkuli from the 15th c. BC includes an impressive detailed plan of daily feeding, washing, bathing, massages and training (Blendinger, 2002; Edwards, 1996; Gürtler and Sternthal, 2013). The next eastern military power was Persians, who mastered riding in addition to driving and that helped them to defend their borders against raids of Scythians and Parthians, two nomadic tribes famous for mounted archers (Edwards, 1996). However, the most famous ancient horse riding works were written by Xenophon (430 – ca. 354 BC), a Greek cavalry officer and historian. His *De Re Equestri*⁴⁷ concerns horse ownership and riding, while *Hipparchikos*⁴⁸ describes the functioning of cavalry (Edwards, 1996; Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.; Gürtler and Sternthal,

⁴⁷ On horsemanship

⁴⁸ The cavalry commander

2013). His writing is still relevant as regards violence-free, harmonious relation between man and horse as well as rules of training (Radtke, 2010). This is not surprising, though, because the horses of ancient Greece, like those among the abovementioned Eastern peoples, played important social roles: chariot races were a national sport and horses were viewed as sacred animals of several gods. Ancient Romans even kept specialized horse types: the hunter horse, the war horse, the racing horse, the working horse, the driving horse and the hack horse. The horse was also a key element of entertainment: chariot races and circus (Edwards, 1996).

When the Roman Empire fell and the Western world experienced Muslim and Tatar invasions, it turned out that also in the Middle East did the horse constitute the foundation of civilization. Whereas Tatars simply ruled their empire from horseback, in the new religion of Islam the horses were additionally considered a blessing, while breeding and care of them – a good deed. Heavy chivalry horses of medieval Europe mixed with oriental horses of Arabs and Tatars, especially the Arabian Horse, which are the ancestors of every contemporary horse breed (ibid). The resultant new horse type, in combination with the onset of the Renaissance, gave birth to a new period in the man – horse history: classical equitation. Schooling horses ceased to be exclusively linked with war: it was considered an activity that became educated noblemen. Various jumps (airs above the ground) and gaits which started to be perfected at that time did come from the battlefield, but were gradually refined to the state that one can currently admire in centuries-old institutions such as the Spanish Riding School in Vienna or the French National Riding School in Saumur (see Gürtler and Sternthal, 2013 and Podhajsky, 2008 for fascinating accounts of schooling in the former place). This development continued in subsequent epochs and could not have taken place without many distinguished classical horse riding masters such as Antoine de Pluvinel (1555-1620); William Cavendish First Duke of Newcastle-upon-Tyne (1592-1676); François Robichon de la Guérinière (1688-1751), the Equerry of Louis XIV and the author of a still relevant horse training book *École de cavalerie*; François Baucher (1796-1873); Louis Seeger (1798-1865); Gustav Steinbrecht (1808-1885) and James Fillis (1834-1913), probably the most famous and controversial person on this list, the author of another topical book, *Principes de Dressage et d'Équitation*⁴⁹ (Edwards, 1996; Radtke, 2010). Most of these men developed the art of riding also by resigning from brutal schooling methods of the first Renaissance masters such as the Italians Federico Grisone and Cesare Fiaschi, founders of the Neapolitan riding school, which had an enormous influence on equitation (Edwards, 1996).

⁴⁹ Principles of dressage and equitation

In a nutshell, the above is the history of one of two major riding styles: the classical (English) style. The other one is the Western (American) style, and this differentiation shall be an important criterion in my equestrian vocabulary research (see chapter 6). The Western style actually owes its existence to the fact that the horse died out in the American continent ca. 8000 years ago (Edwards, 1996; Kidd, 1995) and thus its relation with man did not proceed as described above. It only returned to America with Christopher Columbus, who left 30 horses on Haiti, and then with conquistadors (Hernán Cortés, for instance, claimed that he owed the victory to God and horses). Thus, the cruel colonization episodes also brought the horse back to its homeland. Horses arriving with their owners gave rise to the impressive variety of breeds in both Americas as well as a new lifestyle. Breeding cattle (first for skins and from the 19th century also for meat) on spacious prairies required tough, fast and intelligent horses as well as durable and functional equipment and outfit, which produced the famous image of American shepherd – the cowboy (called *gaucho*, *llanero* and *vaquero* in South American countries) (Edwards, 1996). Importantly, these people's riding style aimed at similar results as did classical equitation (i.e. obedience and response to precise aids of the rider), but achieved it in a different way and developed its own competition and training forms beside the English style, which is also practiced today in the Americas.

The history of riding in America shows that the horse had long been (and still is in poor regions of the world) indispensable at work: it had been used in agriculture, industry and transport. However, the industrial revolution gradually reduced its role in these areas and in war in developed countries, opening new possibilities of the horse – man relationship. The horse racing industry, for instance, dates back to the 18th- and 19th-century England, where the Thoroughbred Horse was formed and soon spread throughout the world. Racing was then joined by contemporary horse sport disciplines: show jumping, dressage, eventing, driving (19th century), endurance riding and vaulting (20th century). All of these in their organized forms evolved from military trials and exercises aiming at improving and testing the skills and endurance of human and animal soldiers, but actually date back to antiquity. The same concerns many other popular horse-related activities, such as polo and other Eastern games or par force hunting (ibid). Thus, the contemporary horse reminds us of civilization development. The specialized equestrian language is by no means a recent invention of sport and recreational riding, but a part of culture inextricably linked to its extralinguistic history.

5.2. Straight from the horse's mouth – the contemporary equestrian social group

The equestrian discourse itself dates back to antiquity, which is when the first works on horse riding and care were written (see section 5.1). Still, this is a synchronic research work, so the present section concentrates on the modern equestrian community in order to set the scene for vocabulary analysis in chapter 6. Thus, one needs to depart from sport and recreational riding – the last stage of the evolution presented in section 5.1. Although the vocabulary analyzed in chapter 6 concerns riding, history has shown that the man – horse relationship is much richer. Encyclopedia Britannica (n.d.) defines horsemanship as “the art of riding, handling, and training horses”. One may expect that people committed to handling horses, i.e. their breeding and keeping, shall also use and be exposed to riding and training vocabulary. Thus, let us characterize the equestrian community as a whole based on the model of description proposed by Sztompka (2002).

Sztompka provides the following categories of communities:

- 1) statistical category: people joined by an objective bond (e.g. age, sex, height);
- 2) sociological category: people joined by a socially important objective bond which distinguishes them (e.g. Germans, physical workers);
- 3) social category: people joined by a socially important factor which distinguishes them (e.g. students, women) and forms a collective identity, i.e. a subjective bond, making them use the “us – they” thinking and stereotypes; the bond is acknowledged by the members themselves and not only by an external researcher;
- 4) social group: a community in which the collective identity is followed by social interactions and relations, i.e. a behavioral bond (e.g. churches, societies);
- 5) social organization (organized group): a community in which the social interactions and relations are normatively regulated (e.g. a university, a political party, a family).

The equestrian community certainly is a social group because its members engage in horse-related activities together (riding, courses, competitions, horse care etc.) and these constitute their behavioral bond. It cannot be viewed as a social organization because not all horse-related activities are normatively regulated (compare an informal conversation between dressage judges or two friends going on a trail ride). However, within the equestrian social group one may distinguish several types of organized subgroups:

- a) an equestrian organization (Fédération Equestre Internationale/the International Equestrian Federation – FEI and its national member organizations, e.g. Polish

Equestrian Federation – PZJ): an authority administering equestrian sport and recreation via developing and implementing rules and regulations (Fédération Equestre Internationale, 2011-2014);

- b) a stud and a stallion depot: two kinds of entities conducting horse breeding;
- c) a livery stable/livery yard (UK), a boarding stable (USA): a private business where horse owners pay a regular fee for a box and other services for their animal;
- d) a horse riding center/club/stable: a recreational and/or professional (sport) riding stable providing services related to schooling riders and horses against payment;
- e) an equine clinic/hospital: a private business providing veterinary services;
- f) an equestrian journal or internet page (e.g. an equestrian forum): a media entity with a specialized scope of activity;
- g) an equestrian shop: a private business trading goods related to horse riding and keeping.

All items on this non-exhaustive list actually denote groups of people, albeit connected with a given physical location formed and developed by them (the PLACE FOR PEOPLE metonymy pattern). These subgroups are based on certain regulations owing to the financial and occupational nature of the interactions (administrators vs. community; clients vs. service providers and their employees); equestrian forums also belong here although the participation is usually free of charge, since the user is bound by their rules and regulations. Another characteristic of these subgroups is their intended long (indefinite) term of duration, as well as the fact that they themselves house both informal (meetings of equestrian social group members) and regulated interactions (daily provision of services, but also fixed-term events such as courses and competitions). Moreover, a person may participate in numerous formal and informal interactions: for instance, one may be a horse breeder, a FEI-certified show jumping judge, a riding instructor, an author of articles for a journal and a forum user. Interactions in the equestrian social group are thus multilayered, or intermingled, forming a real melting pot for the equestrian language.

The equestrian social group may subsequently be described on a more general level owing to the six classification criteria for social groups suggested by Sztompka (2002):

- 1) Number: this is best demonstrated by statistical data. Polish horse industry employs 120,000 people (Szewczyk, 2010); according to the Polish Equestrian Association (PZJ), ca. 600,000 people ride horses in ca. 400 sport clubs and over 2,000 recreational clubs (Blikowska, 2002). In France, horse riding is represented by country's third biggest sport federation, with 650,437 licensed riders and 45,430

direct workplaces (Because There Are Men and Horses, 2011). In the USA, according to a 2005 study ordered by the American Horse Council Foundation, 4.6 million people are connected with horses (this includes two millions of horse owners, 702,000 employees, 119,000 service providers and two millions of family members and volunteers), which means that one per 63 American citizens is connected with horses (American Horse Council, n.d.). Though these numbers do not exceed 2% of population in the respective countries, a social group with millions of members may be considered big.

- 2) Durability: this divides groups into short-term and continuous ones. The man – horse relationship as such dates back to prehistoric times, while the contemporary form of the equestrian social group – to the 19th century (see section 5.1). Thus, one can certainly speak of a continuous community, also in respect of participation because the membership is related to a profession or hobby, both of which usually continue for years.
- 3) Method of recruitment: membership can be either assigned by birth (e.g. family) or force (e.g. prison) or acquired voluntarily, in which case membership is exclusive or inclusive. The equestrian social group is voluntary and displays both degrees of accessibility:
 - a) exclusive/elite: concerns professions because they require knowledge, skills and talent, confirmed by passing exams and/or acquiring licenses (e.g. a trainer, a competitor rider);
 - b) inclusive: concerns recreational riding because this is available to everyone willing to participate and constitutes the cheapest variant of group membership.
- 4) Participation intensity: this divides groups into single- and multifunctional ones, as well as defines the degree of engagement, discipline and control. The equestrian social group is multifunctional (one person may participate in several interactions), so the three remaining features also vary, depending on the regulation of a given interaction; their intensity is highest for professions.
- 5) Benefits: this divides groups into instrumental (profit-oriented), autotelic (where membership is a value in itself) and task (purpose-oriented) ones. The equestrian social group includes subgroups of all three kinds: professions are chiefly instrumental and task subgroups are formed to organize competitions or courses, but in the contemporary recreational and sport horse riding the autotelic motivation

dominates, which shows the group's evolution from its predominantly instrumental character when the horse was necessary at work and in war.

- 6) Organization degree: this depends on the presence of normatively regulated interactions. The equestrian social group includes these, but they take place in its organized subgroups and are additionally mixed with informal interactions, hence the organization degree of this group is by no means uniform.

The complex character of the equestrian social group demonstrated by these classification criteria makes one aware that the extralinguistic context of the equestrian language shall have to be taken into account from the beginning: it is going to influence in detail the choice of the research material, i.e. vocabulary and texts for the corpus. This procedure is therefore presented in sections 6.1-6.3 of chapter 6.

6. The equestrian vocabulary research

As was frequently mentioned above, extralinguistic factors are indispensable in specialized language research. The aim of this chapter is to demonstrate that they actually come in much earlier than at the stage of researching terms in the prepared corpus. Thus, the first section (6.1) outlines the major research aims and the instruments used to achieve them, as well as a methodology plan presenting the role of further sections and designed with a view to conducting a possibly universal research of a subject field thus far hardly discussed in the literature (see Introduction).

6.1. Aims and plan of the research

The research aims to investigate the contemporary English and Polish specialized equestrian vocabulary, first in isolation and then in use. To my knowledge, such scope has no predecessors, so it is difficult to hold specific expectations. Therefore, the work combines the two research directions mentioned in subsection 4.1.4: corpus-based and corpus-driven analysis. The general aim that can be established at the beginning is the analysis of terms available in reliable sources as regards their form and content: such a formal and semantic analysis shall yield the linguistic image of the subject field in its specialized vocabulary. This is followed by researching the same terms in a comparable English-Polish corpus in order to examine if and how they are actually used by the subject field community. Thus, the work is hoped to enrich the important traditional terminological approach which focuses on isolated vocabulary (see subsection 4.1.2 and section 4.2) with contemporary postulates of employing modern linguistic methodologies made available by technological development (see subsection 4.1.4). Corpus research shall allow for verifying the authority and relevance of officially published equestrian vocabulary sources, thus setting the ground for a future lexicographic project: an English-Polish equestrian dictionary. In view of the only existing dictionary with this language pair being nearly 60 years old (see section 6.2), as well as the increasing popularity of horse riding as a sport and hobby in Poland and worldwide, such a practical continuation of the present research in order to support the linguistic community in question seems justified and needed.

The plan of the research outlined above is as follows:

- 1) establishing the exact scope of the subject field, bearing in mind fuzzy boundaries and growing interdisciplinarity (section 6.2);

- 2) choosing English and Polish term sources (two for each language to ensure sufficient reliability) compliant with the established subject field scope (6.2);
- 3) formation of term sets by selecting terms from the chosen sources (6.2);
- 4) formal and semantic characterization of the term sets in order to discover the linguistic image in the specialized vocabulary of the subject field (6.3);
- 5) compiling and structuring the English-Polish comparable corpus (6.4);
- 6) researching English and then Polish terms in the relevant subcorpora with use of concordance software and recording the results (6.5);
- 7) analyzing the results from the point of view of frequency (6.6), form (6.7) and concepts (6.8-6.9);
- 8) summarizing the results and formulating implications for possible future linguistic studies and lexicographic projects (6.10).

6.2. Subject field scope and selection of terms

Though the stage described herein concerns all specialized languages, it requires particular attention in the case of underresearched ones, which do not enjoy extensive research, big international conferences or comprehensive dictionaries. When a given study is supposed to draw more attention to such language, the most beneficial research scope should be determined, and this can only be done with reference to the extralinguistic context. Therefore, let us begin by examining equestrian subfields. In line with the scope of this dissertation, only horse riding is concerned, which means that other aspects of the man – horse relationship, such as breeding and care (feeding, veterinary science etc.), are excluded from the research.

The International Equestrian Federation – FEI (see section 5.2) supervises seven disciplines of equestrian sport: jumping, dressage, eventing, driving, endurance, vaulting and reining (the last one being the only FEI-supported Western riding discipline). The first three disciplines are Olympic sports. However, many other equestrian sports and games are practiced worldwide with a varying degree of formal supervision:

- 1) Western riding disciplines – supervised by organizations (Adamczyk and Jarmuła, 2001a, 2001b; Jarmuła and Adamczyk, 1999a, 1999b):
 - a) judged: reining (see above), super horse, trail, Western horsemanship, Western pleasure, Western riding;
 - b) rodeo: bareback bronc riding, bull riding, calf roping, cutting, saddle bronc riding, steer wrestling, team penning, working cow horse;

c) speed: barrel racing, pole bending, stake race.

2) Horse racing – supervised by organizations (Edwards, 1996):

- flat horse racing;
- steeplechase (races with obstacles);
- harness racing (horses pulling two-wheel carts).

3) Games – a varying degree of supervision by organizations (Edwards, 1996):

- hunting;
- polo and polocrosse;
- traditional games: buskashi/kokpar (Afghanistan), gymkhana (brought to England from India), tent-pegging (India) and many other.

All these disciplines and games have their own specialized vocabulary, but are not representative for the whole equestrian subject field. They constitute specific, centuries-old directions of the man – horse relationship development and demonstrate skills that man and horse can achieve together. However, the same can be stated in relation to six of the seven FEI disciplines mentioned above; the only one with a truly universal range in the equestrian world is dressage because it is in fact a formalized display of training results concerning a given horse (as summarized by the motto of this dissertation excerpted from Prine-Carr, 2011). This dependence is best visible in the Polish terms *ujeżdżanie*: the process of training a horse (Słownik języka polskiego, n.d.) and *ujeżdżenie*: 1. the level of a horse's skills; 2. dressage – the sport (Radtke, 2010). The two terms can be viewed as imperfective and perfective, respectively: dressage is a finite, time-limited demonstration of results of a continuous training process. In the official documents, FEI defines and describes dressage in a similar manner:

ARTICLE 401 OBJECT AND GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF DRESSAGE

1. The object of Dressage is the development of the Horse into a happy Athlete through harmonious education. As a result, it makes the Horse calm, supple, loose and flexible, but also confident, attentive and keen, thus achieving perfect understanding with the Athlete.

These qualities are demonstrated by:

- The freedom and regularity of the paces.
- The harmony, lightness and ease of the movements.
- The lightness of the forehand and the engagement of the hindquarters, originating from a lively impulsion.
- The acceptance of the bit, with submissiveness/throughness (*Durchlässigkeit*) without any tension or resistance.

2. The Horse thus gives the impression of doing, of its own accord, what is required. Confident and attentive, submitting generously to the control of the Athlete, remaining absolutely straight in any movement on a straight line and bending accordingly when moving on curved lines.
3. The walk is regular, free and unconstrained. The trot is free, supple, regular and active. The canter is united, light and balanced. The hindquarters are never inactive or sluggish. The Horse responds to the slightest indication of the Athlete and thereby gives life and spirit to all the rest of its body.
4. By virtue of a lively impulsion and the suppleness of the joints, free from the paralysing effects of resistance, the Horse obeys willingly and without hesitation and responds to the various aids calmly and with precision, displaying a natural and harmonious balance both physically and mentally (FEI Dressage Rules, 2013: 10).

Regardless of the discipline, training needs to comply with the above principles for the horse and rider to perform well. Article 401 summarizes simultaneously the background and the result of good riding. Thus, general horse training and dressage vocabulary is assumed to have the widest impact in the equestrian discourse and is chosen as a suitable subject for this research, whose aim is i.a. drawing attention to the equestrian language as a whole.

According to the abovementioned choice, term sources for this research (see Sources of terms in Subject field references) were publications concerning general horse training and dressage. Two sources were provided for either language to ensure sufficient reliability and were arranged in a certain hierarchy justified by their quality and/or importance. Consequently, all the primary source terms complying with the term selection rules mentioned below were included. The secondary sources supplied only terms absent from the primary source: repetitions of primary source terms were not included. Regarding English, the following sources were selected:

- 1) Primary source: Diggle (2005) – the only English-language encyclopedia of dressage so far. It provides synonyms, spelling variants and extensive definitions.
- 2) Secondary source: USDF Glossary of Judging Terms (2011) – the latest update of an official concise glossary issued by the United States Dressage Federation.

Such selection of term sources ensures that the terms are factual units established in the equestrian world. Gathering Polish terms is, unfortunately, much more problematic in this respect because they are not so well codified. Polish official equestrian institutions such as the Polish Equestrian Federation – PZJ (see section 5.2) do not maintain glossaries. The only existing Polish equestrian dictionary is Baranowski (1989), characterized by several disadvantages. First, it is an old book: it was originally published in London in 1955, while

1989 is the issue date in Poland well after the author's death in 1965. Second, it demonstrates insufficient quality and internal organization from the lexicographic point of view:

- subject matter mistakes, e.g. *lewada* [levade] and *pezada* [pesade] are listed as synonyms (Baranowski, 1989: 100), while they actually denote two different, albeit related, airs (i.e. jumps) above the ground (Diggle, 2005);
- spelling mistakes, e.g. *łopata do wewnątrz* instead of *łopatką do wewnątrz* [shoulder in] (Baranowski, 1989: 98);
- repetitions of several terms in more than one thematic section (the dictionary is onomasiological);
- inconsistent use of number: some terms are given in singular, other – in plural, without any justification following;
- inconsistent use of brackets and punctuation: in some terms they separate optional parts, in other – explanations (possibly attempts at definitions) and yet in other – synonyms. Deciding on the function of brackets and punctuation and on the final form for a given term is virtually impossible for a layperson and problematic or at best irritating even for specialists. This is visible in the following examples (Baranowski, 1989: 88): *zmienić nogę (w galopie) co skok jeden takt* [literal translation: change the leg (in canter) every stride one beat] and *zatrzymanie (w miejscu na wodzach) (w zebraniu)* [literal translation: a halt (in place and with rein contact) (in collection)].

Still, Baranowski's work deserves respect and inclusion in the research as the first and only Polish equestrian dictionary so far. However, it could not be ascribed a status parallel to that of Diggle (2005), so it became a secondary source with a hypothesis that many of its terms would prove obsolete in the course of corpus research. Thus, Baranowski is expected to give this essentially synchronic research a diachronic dimension by displaying a certain evolution in the use of general horse training and dressage vocabulary. Therefore, the final list of Polish term sources is as follows:

- 1) Primary source: Radtke (2010) – a handbook of dressage training with a term index.
- 2) Secondary source: Baranowski (1989), section "Horse and Rider".

Though handbook 1) is a translation from German, term consistency visible throughout the index, a well-qualified author and a renowned publishing house (known for high-quality equestrian books) ensure sufficient reliability. It should be mentioned here that the Polish equestrian book market is dominated by translations of foreign works (compare Akademia Jeździecka, n.d. and Wydawnictwo Galaktyka, n.d.). Their high subject matter quality

contributes to preservation of theoretical knowledge written down in modern language (as opposed to works by Polish World War II chivalry officers: valuable and topical, but hardly available nowadays), as well as encourages Polish trainers and riders to share their writing as do especially their English-speaking colleagues (see section 6.4).

After delineating the subject field scope and indentifying relevant term sources, the last stage consists in deciding which terms from the sources shall be used in the research. In order to comply with the established broad scope – general horse training and dressage – the following terms appearing in the sources were not taken into account:

- a) proper names of persons associated with horse training and dressage (past and contemporary trainers and riders);
- b) terms relating exclusively to dressage as a competitive sport (names of organizations, rules of competitions etc.);
- c) terms relating exclusively to other horse riding disciplines;
- d) terms relating exclusively to other aspects of the man – horse relationship such as breeding and care (feeding, veterinary science etc.).

Excluding a) and b) provides lack of limitation by the formalized, institutionalized and history-dependent form of horse training, while leaving out c) and d) ensures accurate examination of the previously established scope.

6.3. Introductory characterization of selected terms

The procedure described in section 6.2 yielded two sets of general horse training and dressage vocabulary (see the Lists after References). All terms were listed in singular except the cases where plural was necessary, as in pluralia tantum (e.g. *haunches*, *quarters*) or for semantic reasons (e.g. *holding of reins* – it is an abstract notion concerning both reins understood as one aid, not particular situations like holding the right rein too tight during a specific exercise). The terms subsequently underwent formal (Tables 8 and 9) and semantic (Tables 10 and 11) characterization in order to enable formulating preliminary expectations and assumptions before the corpus research.

The first formal characteristic of both sets is the domination of nouns and noun phrases (together: 75.96% for English and 83.27% for Polish). However, the second position is occupied by adjectives and adjective phrases (together: 16.69%) in English and by verbs and verb phrases (together: 10.98%) in Polish. Therefore, the English set seems to pay more attention to features, while the Polish one – to activities. However, Polish verb terms come

only from Baranowski (1989); terms from Radtke (2010) are exclusively nouns and noun phrases, which may point to the influence of translation on the grammatical form.

The second formal characteristic is the share of foreign terms (underlined in the term lists at the end of this work), which includes terms fulfilling at least one of the following criteria, in that order: 1) they are loans, i.e. they contain formal elements absent from the English language (e.g. *de Gogue*, *durchlässigkeit*) and have not undergone naturalization (hence terms as *longeing* or *tuszować* [a Polish verb term from French ‘toucher’] are not counted herein as foreign); 2) their language of origin is explicitly mentioned in the term source definition. Given the historical background of dressage, many English terms used currently come from other languages (mainly French), but they have become so well-established that their foreign origin seems to be barely perceived nowadays (e.g. *baroque*, *fatigue*, *levade*). Applying the two criteria allowed for exclusion of such terms from the foreign term count. In short, foreign terms are nearly absent from the Polish set, but quite numerous in the English one. However, all of them come from Diggle (2005), so one may ascribe this to a more profound, encyclopedic nature of that work, whose author aimed at providing possibly exhaustive information on dressage, including its cultural and historical background. By contrast, the USDF glossary is limited to officially used terms; the institutional character (being a document) usually also presupposes the use of one, official language in order not to introduce confusion. In turn, the very small share on foreign terms in Polish may be attributed on the one hand to the fact of translation, while on the other – to the fact that Baranowski (1989) is a quadrilingual dictionary. Thus, foreign terms did not need to be included in the Polish part in order to be shown to the reader: they are provided as equivalents in the parts concerning the three remaining languages (English, French and German).

The third formal characteristic is the greater length of terms in Polish as regards both the number of words per term and the share of terms longer than one word. This might be caused by the concise nature of English as well as by the drawbacks of terms from Baranowski (1989) described in section 6.2: as was mentioned there, many of those terms are longish phrases whose fixed nature is doubtful and which are frequently difficult to separate from their explanations.

Table 8. Characterization of the English term set.

Term source	Diggle	USDF	Overall
Number of included terms	561	92	653
Grammatical structure of the final term set			
Nouns (N)	216	38	254 (38.90%)
Noun phrases (NP)	224	18	242 (37.06%)
Adjectives (A)	66	23	89 (13.63%)
Adjective phrases (AP)	16	4	20 (3.06%)
Prepositional phrases (PP)	18	5	23 (3.52%)
Verbs (V)	11	2	13 (2.00%)
Verb phrases (VP)	8	0	8 (1.22%)
Adverbs (ADV)	1	2	3 (0.46%)
Numerical phrases (NUP)	1	0	1 (0.15%)
Language structure of the final term set			
Foreign terms	50 (French – 38, German – 6, Italian – 4, Portuguese – 2)	0	50 (7.66%)
Word structure of the final term set			
Words in total	1095		
Words per term – average	1.68		
1-word terms	354 (54.21%)		
2-word terms	202 (30.93%)		
3-word terms	62 (9.50%)		
4-word terms	26 (3.98%)		
5-word terms	7 (1.07%)		
6-word terms	2 (0.31%)		

Table 9. Characterization of the Polish term set.

Term source	Radtke	Baranowski	Overall
Number of included terms	264	501	765
Grammatical structure of the final term set			
Nouns (N)	114	82	196 (25.62%)
Noun phrases (NP)	148	293	441 (57.65%)
Verbs (V)	0	30	30 (3.92%)
Verb phrases (VP)	0	54	54 (7.06%)
Adjectives (A)	0	16	16 (2.09%)
Adjective phrases (AP)	0	10	10 (1.31%)
Prepositional phrases (PP)	1	16	17 (2.22%)
Numerical phrases (NUP)	1	0	1 (0.13%)
Language structure of the final term set			
Foreign terms	0	1 (French)	1 (0.13%)
Word structure of the final term set			
Words in total	1589		
Words per term – average	2.08		
1-word terms	238 (31.11%)		
2-word terms	324 (42.35%)		
3-word terms	131 (17.12%)		
4-word terms	58 (7.58%)		
5-word terms	7 (0.91%)		
6-word terms	6 (0.78%)		
7-word terms	1 (0.13%)		

The semantic characterization was supposed to trace possible meaning regularities in term sets. The first attempt aimed at classifying the terms into the following semantic fields: AIDS, EQUIPMENT, EXERCISE, HORSE ACTION, HORSE BODY PART, HORSE

FEATURE, HORSE GAIT, HORSE TYPE, RIDER ACTION, RIDER FEATURE, RIDER TYPE and (ABSTRACT) TRAINING NOTION. However, it proved impossible to divide terms unequivocally in this manner because many terms fell into several categories. Compare the following examples:

- *accepting the bit* – the fact that “the horse responds willingly to the action and signals of the bit” (Diggle, 2005: 14). The term thus fits into AIDS, EQUIPMENT, HORSE ACTION, HORSE FEATURE and TRAINING NOTION.
- *change of lead* – “[in] canter a change from leading the gait with one foreleg to leading with the other” (Diggle, 2005: 50). This term fits into EXERCISE, HORSE ACTION, HORSE GAIT, HORSE BODY PART and RIDER ACTION.

Reducing the number of semantic fields to, for example, HORSE, RIDER, TRAINING NOTION and EQUIPMENT does not solve the problem, either. Such intermingling of semantic fields may be astonishing at first, but after examining the extralinguistic context it becomes understandable. One should remember that:

- the rider and the horse are physically and psychologically close during training: they move and communicate together, triggering each other’s actions;
- many horse features (e.g. elasticity, collection) are also abstract training notions denoting objectives which the rider wishes to achieve in every horse they train;
- many exercises (e.g. change of leg, shoulder in) are named after the main horse body part which performs them;
- several aids – the rider’s means of communication with the horse – are themselves equipment (e.g. reins, whip, spurs);
- all exercises take place in a specific gait.

Thus, it only proved possible to sort the terms according to the most frequent concepts. By pointing to the most important elements of general horse training, this method displays its linguistic image because it allows for grouping terms related to the same concept; *jazda* [the ride], for instance, is a base for a number of terms: *jazda*, *jeździć*, *jeździec*, *ujeżdżać*, *ujeżdżalnia*, *ujeżdżeniowy* etc. Tables 10 and 11 show the results of such term grouping, listing concepts with at least ten instances. Obviously, two-word and longer terms may feature more than one frequent concept (e.g. *change of leg* – *change* + *leg*), in which case both concepts from such a term are included in the count.

Table 10. The most frequent concepts in the English term set.

Concept	Inflection in the term set	Meaning clarification	Number
REIN	rein (N,V), reining (N)	-	34
HAND	hand (N)	-	18
AID	aid (N)	means of communication with a horse	15
BIT	bit (N)	bridle mouthpiece	12
CHANGE	change (N,V)	-	12
SIDE	side (N), sided (A)	-	12
LEG	leg (N)	-	11
OVER	over (P), over- (prefix)	-	11

Table 11. The most frequent concepts in the Polish term set.

Concept	Meaning	Inflection in the term set	Number
WODZA (N)	rein	wodza (N)	76
JAZDA (N)	ride	dojezdek, jazda, jezdność, jeździec, jeździectwo, podjezdek, ujeżdżacz, ujeżdżalnia, wjeżdżanie, wyjeżdżanie (N); jechać, jeździć, podjeżdżać, ujeżdżać (V); jeździecki, ujeżdżeniowy, ujeżdżony (A)	75
GALOP (N)	canter	galop (N); galopować (V)	42
NOGA (N)	leg	noga (N)	33
KOŃ (N)	horse	koń, koniarz, koniuszy (N)	32
STAWIAC (V)	position	postawa, postawienie, przestawienie, staw, stawianie, ustawienie (N); podstawić, stawać, ustawić (V); podstawowy, przeciwstawny (A)	32
ŁYDKA (N)	calf	łydka (N)	28
STĘP (N)	walk	stęp, ustępowanie (N)	26
SZKOLIĆ (V)	school	szkolenie, szkoła (N); szkolny (A)	24
KŁUS (N)	trot	kłus (N); kłusować (V)	23
ZMIANA (N)	change	zmiana (N); zmieniać (V)	23
SIAD (N)	seat	dosiad, dosiadanie, pósiad, siad, zsiadanie (N); wsiadać, zsiadać (V); wysiadywany (A)	22
PYSK (N)	horse's mouth	pysk (N)	20
RĘKA (N)	hand	ręka (N); oburącz (ADV)	19
ZAD (N)	croup	zad (N); zadni (A)	19
TRZYMAC (V)	hold	podtrzymujący, powstrzymujący, wstrzymujący, wytrzymujący (A); trzymanie, zatrzymanie (N); zatrzymać (V)	18
WNĘTRZE (N)	inside	wewnętrzny, zewnętrzny (A); wewnątrz, zewnątrz (ADV)	18
PRZÓD (N)	front	naprzód (ADV); przedni (A); przód (N)	15
RUCH (N)	movement	odruch, ruch (N); ruchliwy (A); ruszać (V)	14
ZBIERAĆ (V)	collect	zbierający, zebrany (A); zebrać (V); zebranie (N)	13
GŁOWA (N)	head	głowa, ogłowie (N); główny (A)	12
POMOC (N)	aid	pomoc, pomocnik (N)	12
SKOK (N)	jump	podskok, skakanie, skoczek, skok (N); skokowy (A)	12
GRZBIET (N)	back	grzbiet (N)	11
ZGINAĆ (V)	bend	zgięcie (N)	11
CIĄGNAĆ (V)	pull	ciąg, podciągnięcie, półciąg (N); ciągnąć (V); wyciągnięty (A)	10
PROWADZIC (V)	lead	prowadzący (A); prowadzenie (N); prowadzić (V)	10
TEMPERAMENT (N)	temperament	temperament (N)	10

One notices that prominent positions in both sets are occupied by aids – the rider's means of communication with the horse which include seat, legs, hands, voice, whip and

spurs (Diggle, 2005). *Rein* (1st position in both sets) is not an aid proper, but it transmits signals given by the rider's hand and is therefore necessary for the hand aid to function. Reins are attached to a bit placed in the horse's mouth, hence the presence of *bit* on the English list. The advantage of manual action (*rein, hand, bit*) over leg action (*leg*) in the English set complies with the fact that humans tend to perform most activities using hands; in addition, proper use of reins is a complex issue, so this channel of communication with the horse remains central in the equestrian discourse. The image is completed by *change* and *side*, which underline the nature of horse training: dynamism and diversification of exercises in order to focus the horse's attention and improve its fitness. The Polish set is more varied, which can be attributed to inflection and a greater number of terms in comparison to English, but the aids remain significant (*wodza, tydka, siad, pomoc*). However, attention is also paid to the horse's gaits (*step, klus, galop*), which scarcely appear in the English set. The same concerns *jazda, koń* and *szkolić* – the background concepts of the subject field in question (whereas the English set seems to build the image with use of its parts, without referring to the superior concepts). The dynamism is conveyed by *noga* (leg of a horse only, because it is the horse that actually walks and because the rider's leg is referred to as *tydka*) and *zmiana*; however, this energy needs to be controlled by the rider, hence the prominence of *stawiać, trzymać, zbierać* and *zginać*, which denote various methods of guiding the animal. Therefore, the image of horse training which emerges from both sets of terms has three main features: communication, dynamism and control. This structure may be attributed to the horse – a powerful, living being which the training contrasts with the human desire to dominate. Horse riding is the only Olympic sport distinguished by the participation of animals and this unique character is conveyed by the relevant vocabulary.

6.4. The corpus and research assumptions

The formal and semantic introductory characterization presented in section 6.3 revealed the most significant features of the examined equestrian specialized vocabulary: domination of nouns and the linguistic image based on communication, dynamism and control. These discoveries, stemming from static, isolated terms, now need to be verified via corpus research.

This research shall utilize an English-Polish comparable corpus composed of original (not translated) texts written by trainers for the general public of the horse riding community interested in improving their skills in riding and schooling horses. The full list of included texts (predominantly articles, but also book excerpts) is given in Subject field references,

whereas a quantitative characterization of the corpus is shown in Tables 12 and 13. For the sake of brevity and clarity, the four subcorpora shall be hereinafter referred to using the abbreviations presented in these tables, i.e. ECS, EWS, POS and PTS.

Table 12. Structure and size of the English corpus.

	Classical riding subcorpus (ECS)	Western riding subcorpus (EWS)	Total
Texts	126	129	255
Words	174,276	164,249	338,525
Mean text length (words)	1,383.14	1,273.24	1,327.55
Shortest text (words)	272	477	272
Longest text (words)	9,505	3,642	9,505

Table 13. Structure and size of the Polish corpus.

	Polish original subcorpus (POS)	Polish translation subcorpus (PTS)	Total
Texts	30	13	43
Words	40,805	58,791	99,596
Mean text length (words)	1,360.17	4522.38	2,316.19
Shortest text (words)	398	485	398
Longest text (words)	5,891	27,332	27,332

The structure of the corpus is another feature of this research determined by the extralinguistic context. Regarding the English subcorpus, classical (English) riding and Western riding are two most widespread riding styles in the world, as already introduced in section 5.1. In line with de Vecchi's subject field division (see section 3.4.3), they can be viewed as two fields of operation for the horse training field of activity. A research of horse training vocabulary needs to take that fact into account; therefore, the use of English terms in writing generated by the two equestrian environments shall be compared. The texts were classified into the two groups on the basis of the author's affiliation, i.e. the riding style that they predominantly practice in their work. Even if a trainer practices both styles (as is sometimes the case), one of them remains the original/preferred/dominant one. This is exemplified by Lynn Palm, a Western riding trainer from the USA who is also a skilled classical horsewoman aiming at popularizing classical principles among the Americans in order to show the universal objectives of horse riding (Lynn Palm, n.d.): her articles were included into the EWS. It is presumed that a set of terms appearing in both English subcorpora shall convey the core, mutual part of schooling horses regardless of style (compare Article 401 of FEI Dressage Rules in section 6.2). Many distinguished horse trainers share the opinion expressed by Arthur Kottas-Heldenberg, the former Chief Rider of the Spanish Riding School in Vienna, that good riding has no style and is guided by a universal goal (Radtke, 2010: 6). This research is hoped to demonstrate that extralinguistic

knowledge, the instance of which is the abovementioned opinion, is conveyed in specialized language not only directly, but also implicitly, i.e. by selection of linguistic means which produces a certain linguistic image.

The structure of the Polish corpus is different, again owing to specific extralinguistic factors. Sadly, the availability of original Polish texts on horse training does not yet equal that of the English ones, especially as regards online resources, though the number of institutions and horse trainers that share writing is increasing. A good example is Hipologia.pl, a website of Stowarzyszenie Hipologiczne Pro Hipico Bono – SHPHB, managed by trainer Wojciech Mickunas (Hipologia.pl, n.d.). However, other published articles are often translations of foreign works, as is the case with Fundacja Horse Sport, a foundation aiming at popularizing and improving horse riding in Poland (Fundacja Horse Sport, n.d.). The offer of Polish equestrian bookshops is also dominated by translated works (see section 6.2). Moreover, the status of the classical and Western riding style in Poland is not comparable: the latter style is still making its way in the classical tradition, which is legitimized by Polish history and culture. Therefore, the Polish corpus requires a structure reflecting those factors: it consists of original Polish texts and Polish translations of foreign writing, which will allow for inspecting the possible influence of translation on term use.

6.5. Corpus research of the terms

The research was performed using the WordSmith 5.0 software. The following term forms were searched for in the corpora:

- a) declension variants: English – number, Polish – number, case, gender;
- b) inflection variants;
- c) part of speech variants (e.g. *overtracking*, *to overtrack*; *fall in*, *falling in*);
- d) hyphen/space/one word variants (e.g. *counter-canter*, *counter canter*, *countercanter*);
- e) variants with and without the definite article (e.g. *falling over outside shoulder*, *falling over the outside shoulder*);
- f) British and American spelling, if these differed for an English term.

The remainder of this section contains tables presenting research results: terms which failed to appear in the subcorpora (Tables 14-17); terms whose frequency fell below the established threshold of analysis (Tables 18-21); the most frequent terms (Tables 22 and 23); and finally tables with a more detailed characterization of terms which exceeded the established threshold of analysis (Tables 24-27). In the latter tables, the terms are given in the

first column in an alphabetical order so as to bring several terms connected with one concept together (e.g. *rein*, *side rein*, *on a long rein*). For this purpose, multi-word terms are provided in an encyclopedic fashion (e.g. *on a long rein* is provided as *rein*, *on a long*). Each term is accompanied by its total subcorpus frequency and normed frequency rate (hereinafter: NFR) per 15,000 words. The latter stems from the fact that “specific lexical units are far less pervasive than lexico-grammatical categories” and from the resulting wish to avoid “very small hardly analyzable figures” (Lewandowski, 2013: 163). The second column lists the actual term forms found in the subcorpus; the forms do not account for number, case, gender, verb inflection (tense and aspect) or American English spelling, which are not considered form changes. The third column provides the most significant collocates, whose lists exclude words obvious for the subject field such as *horse* and *rider*, as well as function words unless the latter form characteristic collocations/clusters (see e.g. *trot* in Table 24), in order to focus on collocates which distinguish particular terms. Words listed among the L5-R5 collocates include in their count the L1 and R1 collocates. Any reference shifts for a given term in relation to its meaning in the term source are also briefly described (the whole matter is dealt with in more detail in section 6.8). Finally, the number of example sentences/phrases from the subcorpus depends on term frequency: from 100 up – three, 20 to 99 – two, 19 to frequency threshold – one, unless the term shows interesting formal changes and/or collocates that should be properly demonstrated. The examples are quoted as found in the subcorpus, including possible spelling mistakes; the only adjustments are shortening, marked by three spaced dots (. . .), and capital letter changes, marked by square brackets.

Key to Tables 14-29:

- black font – terms from the primary source for English or Polish, respectively
- SMALL CAPS – terms from the secondary source for English or Polish, respectively
- **bold** – terms whose form in the corpus is different than the one in the term list as regards spelling and/or part of speech (see section 6.7 for discussion of this phenomenon)
- *italics* – terms whose range of referents in the corpus has changed in relation to the meaning of that term in the term source (see section 6.8 for discussion of this phenomenon)
- underlining – foreign terms
- * – changeable word in a subcorpus collocation (e.g. straighten * horse – straighten the/your horse)
- L1/R1 – significant collocates of a given word directly to the left/right
- L1-R5 – significant collocates of a given word spanning from the 5th word on the left to the 5th word on the right (WordSmith standard assumption)

Table 14. English terms absent from the ECS.

Part of speech	Absent terms	Number/Part of speech total
N	abduction, action, adduction, <u>allures</u> , AMPLITUDE, <u>appui/appuy</u> , <u>arrest/arret</u> , <u>balancé</u> , ballotade, bandage, bradoon/bridoon, bridling, brushing, Chambon, <u>chambrière</u> , CLARITY, courbette, croupade, DEFINITION, dishing, DISSOCIATION, dress, <u>dresseur</u> , <u>durchlässigkeit</u> , <u>écuyer</u> , <u>embouchure</u> , equestrian, <u>equestrienne</u> , <u>galop</u> , <u>giravolta</u> , glove, habit, hackamore, headshaker, horsemastership, <u>insterburger</u> , interfering, lacing, levade, leverage [of bit], <u>manège</u> , <u>mézair</u> , mouthing, nearside, numnah, offside, pace [=amble], pace [=step], parade, pesade, plaiting, port, <u>ramener</u> , <u>rassembler</u> , <u>redopp/redoppe/redoppo/radoppio</u> , ROUNDNESS [of gaits], rowel, saddlery, <u>schaukel</u> , SCOPE, seesaw, shankmover, shoeing, stud, ticklishness, TRAJECTORY, <u>traverse</u> [=full pass], <u>traverse</u> [=side-stepping], triangulation, <u>tride</u> , <u>uberstreichen</u> , vice, <u>volte</u> [a two-track movement], winging	74/254 (29.13%)
NP	acting hand, active elevation, artificial gait, bit guard, body armouring, boring on the bit, bradoon rein, bridle hand, broken neck, BROKEN NECKLINE, brushing boot, change in the air, change of leg, chair seat, CLOSED HALT, constant angle, counter-change of hand, counter-position, cross canter, crotch seat, croup to the wall, curb rein, daisy cutting, deep work, <u>de Gogue</u> , <u>demi-pirouette</u> , <u>demi-volte</u> , <u>descente d'encolure</u> , <u>descente de jambes</u> , <u>descente de main</u> , <u>descente de main et de jambes</u> , DIAGONAL ADVANCED PLACEMENT – DAP, DIAGONAL DISSOCIATION, direct elevation, direct flexion, direct rein, direct rein of opposition, <u>doux passage</u> , dressage whip, dry mouth, false canter, false extension, feeling the hair, first position, fork seat, full bridle, gait variant, good hand, <u>grand passage</u> , grinding teeth, half-parade, half-volte, high air, hovering trot, lateral aid, <u>l'effet d'ensemble</u> , leading leg, leaning on the wall, left diagonal, low air, made mouth, <u>mise en main</u> , mouth open, natural aid, neck-rein, nose-diving, one-time change, open rein, PASSAGE-LIKE TROT, passageway trot, <u>petit galop</u> , POPPED SHOULDER, positive diagonal advance placement – PDAP, preparatory aid, progressive transition, quarters leading, quarters not engaged, quarters trailing, relative elevation, <u>remonte des dents</u> , reversed pirouette, reversed volte, right diagonal, rocking and rolling, ROCKING CANTER, ROCKING HORSE CANTER, running rein, 'running through the bit', saddle cloth, saddle cover, seat saver, setting the jaw, side-saddle, Spanish trot, Spanish walk, stretching the frame, sustaining hand, SWINGING HEAD, tail carriage, tendon boot, <u>terre-à-terre</u> , tongue fault, tongue strap, turn on the centre, <u>un pas un saut</u> , uneven lateral development, uneven steps, unsteady contact, unsteady halt, warning aid, wrong bend, yielding hand	112/242 (46.28%)
A	bilateral, broke, carted, CONSTRAINED, DEFINED, disunited, earthbound, <u>écouté</u> , extravagant, HASTY, inactive, insubordinate, ipsilateral, level, OUTER, OVERTURNED, <u>passagé</u> , proppy, RAPID, rounding, sour, unilateral, united, unlevel, wandering	25/89 (28.09%)
AP	croup-high, deep and round, four-time, going short, low and round, three-time, two-time	7/20 (35.00%)
PP	<u>a la brida</u> , <u>a la gineta</u> , on his toes	3/23 (13.04%)
V	<u>dresser</u> , OVERSTEP, ride in, stumble, work in	5/13 (38.46%)
NUP	three in one	1/1 (100.00%)
Total		227/653 (34.76%)

Table 15. English terms absent from the EWS.

Part of speech	Absent terms	Number/Part of speech total
N	abduction, adduction, <u>allures</u> , amble, AMPLITUDE, <u>appui/appuy</u> , <u>arrest/arret</u> , backing, <u>balancé</u> , ballotade, bandage, bradoon/bridoon, brushing, capriole, <u>chambrière</u> , CLARITY, courbette, croupade, DEFINITION, dishing, DISSOCIATION, diving, <u>dresseur</u> , <u>durchlässigkeit</u> , <u>écuyer</u> , <u>embouchure</u> , equestrian, <u>equestrienne</u> , figure, forging, <u>galop</u> , <u>giravolta</u> , going [=footing], habit, horsemastership, <u>insterburger</u> , interfering, lacing, <u>losgelassenheit</u> , <u>manège</u> , <u>mézair</u> , mouthing, napping, nearside, nodding, numnah, outline, overtracking, pace [=amble], pace [=gait], pace [=step], pacing, parade, <u>passade</u> , <u>pesade</u> , pillar, PIVOTING, plaiting, port, <u>ramener</u> , <u>rassembler</u> , <u>redopp/redoppe/redoppo/radoppio</u> , renvers, rowel, ROUNDNESS [of gaits], ROUNDNESS [of topline], saddlery, <u>schaukel</u> , school [=arena], <u>schwung</u> , SCOPE, shankmover, shoeing, SNATCHING [of hind legs], SNATCHING [of the bit], stud, suspension, ticklishness, TILTING, TRAJECTORY, tracers, <u>traverse</u> [=full pass], <u>traverse</u> [=side-stepping], triangulation, <u>tride</u> , <u>uberstreichen</u> , vice, <u>volte</u> [=a one-track circle], <u>volte</u> [=a two-track movement], winging, zigzag	91/254 (35.83%)
NP	acting hand, active elevation, air above the ground, artificial gait, auxiliary rein, bit guard, body armouring, BPM, bradoon rein, bridle hand, bridle lameness, broken neck, BROKEN NECKLINE, brushing boot, canter on a long rein, CENTER OF MASS, chair seat, change in the air, change of hand, change of leg, CLOSED HALT, constant angle, counter-change of hand, counter-position, crotch seat, croup to the wall, curb rein, daisy cutting, deep work, <u>de Gogue</u> , <u>demi-pirouette</u> , <u>demi-volte</u> , <u>descente d'encolure</u> , <u>descente de jambes</u> , <u>descente de main</u> , <u>descente de main et de jambes</u> , DIAGONAL ADVANCED PLACEMENT – DAP, DIAGONAL DISSOCIATION, direct elevation, direct flexion, direct rein of opposition, direct transition, <u>doux passage</u> , dry mouth, FALLING ON INSIDE SHOULDER, falling over the outside shoulder, false bend, false canter, false extension, feeling the hair, first position, flexion in-hand, fork seat, free walk, free walk on a long rein, full bridle, full halt, full pass, gait variant, good hand, good mouth, <u>grand passage</u> , half-parade, half-pirouette, half-volte, haunches out, <u>haute école</u> , head to the wall, high air, high school, hoof print, hovering trot, indirect rein of opposition, kicking out to the aid, lateral aid, lateral balance, leading leg, leaning on the wall, <u>l'effet d'ensemble</u> , left diagonal, lengthened stride, long-reining, loose seat, low air, made mouth, <u>mise en main</u> , MPM, nose-diving, one-time change, <u>pas de deux</u> , PASSAGE-LIKE TROT, passagey trot, passive hand, <u>petit galop</u> , POPPED SHOULDER, positive diagonal advance placement – PDAP, preparatory aid, progressive transition, quarters in, quarters leading, quarters out, quarters trailing, rein effect, relative elevation, <u>remonte des dents</u> , restraining aid, reversed pirouette, reversed volte, right diagonal, rocking and rolling, ROCKING CANTER, ROCKING HORSE CANTER, running rein, saddle cloth, saddle cover, school figure, school movement, seat saver, setting the jaw, short side, shortened neck, shoulder-out, side-saddle, simple change, Spanish trot, Spanish walk, stirrup leather, stretching the frame, strike off, stroking the horse's neck, supraspinous ligament, sustaining hand, tail carriage, tempi change, tendon boot, <u>terre-à-terre</u> , three-quarter line, tongue fault, tongue strap, turn on the centre, <u>un pas un saut</u> , uneven lateral development, uneven steps, unsteady contact, unsteady halt, unsteady head, warning aid, work in-hand, wrong bend, wrong lead, yielding hand	151/242 (62.40%)
A	bilateral, broke, carted, clean, CLEAR, concave, convex, cramped, DEFINED, disunited, earthbound, <u>écouté</u> , equestrian, extravagant, HASTY, HURRIED, hurrying, inactive, inattentive, INNER, insubordinate, ipsilateral, overcollected, OVERFLEXED, OVERTURNED, <u>passagé</u> , perched, proppy, running, spinning, STUCK, UNEVEN, unilateral, united, wandering	35/89 (39.33%)
AP	croup-high, dead to the leg, deep and round, four-time, going short, hard-mouthed, in-hand, LATE BEHIND, leaning out, long and low, low and round, PUSHING OUT, three-time, two-time, WIDE BEHIND	15/20 (75.00%)
PP	<u>a la brida</u> , <u>a la gineta</u> , above the bit, behind the bit, behind the movement, in front of the vertical, on his toes, on the left rein, on the right rein, OVER THE BACK, OVER THE TOPLINE	11/23 (47.83%)
V	dress, <u>dresser</u> , fall into, OVERSTEP, OVERSTRIDE, ride in, work in	7/13 (53.85%)
VP	change the rein, go large	2/8 (25.00%)
NUP	three in one	1/1 (100.00%)
Total		313/653 (47.93%)

Table 16. Polish terms absent from the POS.

Part of speech	Absent terms	Number/Part of speech total
N	balotada, banda, BERAJTER, czambon, ćwierćwolta, "DEMI-ARRÊT", DOJEZDEK, DRÓŻKA, EKWIJER, EKWITACJA, FORMA, GANASZOWANIE, "GWIAZDY", jezdność, KANTER, KAWALKATOR, KONDYCJA, "KONTRWODZA", KONTRZMIANA, KORA, krupada, kurbeta, LANSADA, "LUZY", MEZER, nadpęcie, narożnik, NAWRÓT, PARAPET, pezada, PIANA, pilar, pilność, pochwała, PODSKOK, PÓLCIĄG, REDOP, REFLEKS, "SAKADA", TROCINY, UCZENNICZA, WĄŻ, "WIBRACJA", wydech, ZAPRAWA	45/196 (23.00%)
NP	AKCJA PCHAJĄCA ZADU, AMAZONKA CYRKOWA, BARANI SKOK, CAŁKOWITY WYKROK W STĘPIE, CIĄG PO PRZEKĄTNEJ, ĆWICZENIE NA DŁUGICH WODZACH, ĆWICZENIE W PILARACH, ĆWICZENIE W RĘKU, ĆWICZENIE W ŚLUPKACH, DOBRY STAN, dodanie w galopie, dodanie w kłusie, DOSIAD FOTELOWY, dosiad niepoprawny, DOSIAD NORMALNY, dosiad skrotny, DOSIAD SPORTOWY, DOSIAD SZKOLNY, dosiad ujeżdżeniowy, DOSIAD WIDŁOWY, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDEK OBUSTRONNE I JEDNOCZESNE, działanie łydką przesuującą, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI JEDNOSTRONNE, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI PODTRZYMUJĄCE, działanie ręki lekkie, działanie ręki za mocne, EKWITACJA KLASYCZNA, FIGURA OSIEM, GALOP ĆWICZEBNY, galop do tyłu, GALOP NA KRZYŻ, galop na trzech nogach, GALOP NIEPRAWIDŁOWY, GALOP NORMALNY, GALOP "OSTRY", GALOP "RÓWNY", GALOP SZKOLNY, GALOP "TRIAL", GALOP UŻYTKOWY, galop w trawersie, GALOP Z FAŁSZYWEJ NOGI, GŁOWA DO ŚCIANY, GRA NÓG, GRA WODZY, GRZBIET BIERNY, GRZBIET CZYNNY, grzbiet długi, GRZBIET NAPRĘŻONY, GRZBIET ROZPRĘŻONY, JAZDA POŁOWA, JAZDA SPACEROWA, JAZDA SZKOLENIOWA, JAZDA WYŻSZA SZKOŁA, JEŹDZIEC CYRKOWY, JEŹDZIEC DZENTELMEN, JEŹDZIEC KAWALKATOR, JEŹDZIEC SZKOLNY, JEŹDZIEC WYTRAWNY, JEŹDZIEC ZAWODOWY, JEŹDZIEC ZNAKOMITY, KAPITAN EKIPY, KLASA JEŹDZCA, KLASYCZNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, kłaskanie językiem, kłus hiszpański, KLUS PODRÓŻNY, KLUS SZEROKI, KLUS SZKOLNY, KLUS UŻYTKOWY, kolejność kroków, KONIUSZY NADWORNY, KONIUSZY PRZYBOCZNY, KONIUSZY WIELKI, KOŃ WYŻSZEJ SZKOŁY JAZDY, KORA W KRUCHACH, krok z fazą zawieszenia, KURBETA KLASYCZNA, ŁOPATĄ DO WEWNĄTRZ, łopatką do przodu, ŁYDKA BIERNY, ŁYDKA CZYNNY, MIŁOŚNIK KONI, MLASKANIE JĘZYKIEM, MŁODSZY KAWALKATOR, MOMENT PRZECHYŁOWY, MOMENT WYKROCZNY, nachrapnik angielski, nachrapnik hanowerski, NAPÓR PRZESADNY, NAPROSTOWANIE KRĘGOSŁUPA, naturalne skrzywienie, NEOKLASYCZNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOGA PODPOROWA, NOGA WYKROCZNA, NORMALNA ZMIANA NOGI W GALOPIE, NORMALNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOWOCZESNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, obciążanie przedniej nogi, ODDANIE WODZY NA KONTAKCIE Z PYSKIEM, ogłowie wędzidłowe, OŚ GŁÓWNA KONIA, OŚ PODŁUŻNA KONIA, pas do lonżowania, PCHNIĘCIE OSTROGI, pchnięcie zadniej nogi, piaff do tyłu, piaff w miejscu, pierścień wędzidła, PIRUET ODWRÓCONY, piruet w galopie, piruet w stępie, PIRUET ZWYKŁY, PODCIĄGANIE JĘZYKA, PODNIESIENIE GŁOWY, PODNIESIENIE SZYI, POMOCE PRZECIWLEGŁE, POMOCE RÓWNOLEGŁE, POMOCNIK INSTRUKTORA KONNEJ JAZDY, POSTAWA DOWOLNA, POSTAWA NA WODZACH, POSTAWA NA WODZACH ODDANYCH, POSTAWA SWOBODNA, POSTAWA W WODZACH, postawienie absolutne, postawienie relatywne, PÓŁOBROT W TYŁ, PÓŁZWROT W TYŁ, PÓŁZWROT ZADEM W TYŁ, praca nad zgięciem, przejmowanie ciężaru, punkt przejścia, PYSK CZUŁY, PYSK MIĘKKI, PYSK NIECZUŁY, PYSK NIESPOKOJNY, PYSK NIEWRAŻLIWY, PYSK PRZYJEMNY, PYSK RUCHLIWY, PYSK SUROWY, PYSK ŚWIEŻY, PYSK WRAŻLIWY, PYSK ZBYT RUCHLIWY, PYSK ZBYT WRAŻLIWY, PYSK ZEPSUTY, ręka niespokojna, RĘKA STATECZNA, RYTM MIAROWY, SKOCZEK SZKOLNY, skok szkolny, SKRZYWIENIE OSI GŁÓWNEJ, skrzywienie w potylicy, SPORT HIPICZNY, SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, sprężynowanie zadem, STAN ZAPRAWY, STAROFRANCUSKI SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, STARSZY KAWALKATOR, STARSZY KAWALKATOR SZEFEK, STĘP NA DWÓCH ŚLADACH, STĘP NA KONTAKCIE, STĘP NA WODZACH, STĘP NA WODZACH ODDANYCH, STĘP NA WODZACH RZUCONYCH, STĘP ROBOCZY, STĘP SZKOLNY, STĘP W WODZACH, STOSOWANIE WODZY, stroma łopatką, STYCZNOŚĆ WSTĘPNA, STYL JEŹDZCA, swoboda w ganaszach, system dźwigni, SZEFEK EKIPY, SZEFEK EKWITACJI, SZEFEK SZKOLENIA, SZKOŁA PODSTAWOWA, SZKOŁA POŁOWA, SZTUKA JEŹDZCA,	263/441 (59.64%)

	<p>sztynna łopatką, ŚCIEŻKA DLA JEŹDZCA, TAKT JEŹDZIECKI, TALENT JEŹDZIECKI, TEMPERAMENT DZIELNY, TEMPERAMENT ENERGIJNY, TEMPERAMENT FLEGMATYCZNY, TEMPERAMENT GORĄCY, TEMPERAMENT LENIWIY, TEMPERAMENT ŁAGODNY, TEMPERAMENT PŁOCHLIWY, TEMPERAMENT SPOKOJNY, TEMPERAMENT TRUDNY, tułów odchylony, UDERZENIE BATA, UJEŹDŻALNIA OTWARTA, ukątownie łopatkę, ukątownie zadniej nogi, USTAWIENIE KONIA NA KRZYWEJ, USTAWIENIE KONIA W ZGIĘCIU, ustawienie kozicy na szczycie, ustawienie w trawersie, USTĘPOWANIE CIĄGIEM, USTĘPOWANIE ŁOPATKĄ DO WEWNĄTRZ, USTĘPOWANIE ŁYDCE, USTĘPOWANIE NÓG, WODZA BIERNNA, WODZA CZYNNNA, WODZA IZOLOWANA, WODZA KIERUNKOWA, WODZA NIECZYNNA, WODZA ODDANA, WODZA ODDZIELNA, WODZA OPARTA O SZYJĘ, WODZA PRZECIWSTRAWNNA BEZPOŚREDNNA, WODZA "PRZECIWSTRAWNNA POŚREDNNA" UŻYTA PRZED KLĘBEM, WODZA "PRZECIWSTRAWNNA POŚREDNNA" UŻYTA ZA KLĘBEM, "WODZE BEZ ŁYDEK, ŁYDKI BEZ WODZY", WODZE SPOKOJNE, WODZE STATECZNE, WODZE W JEDNEJ RĘCE, WODZE W OBU RĘKACH, WOJSKOWY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, wołta na kwadracie, wołta w galopie, wołta w trawersie, WPŁYW CIĘŻARU JEŹDZCA, WPŁYW JEŹDZCA, wyjeżdżanie narożnika, WYKROK W KLUSIE, wypadanie w galopie, WYSOKA LEWADA, WYSOKA SZKOŁA JAZDY, wyższa szkoła, WZBRANIAJĄCE DZIAŁANIE WODZY, WZOROWA REAKCJA, zaburzenie taktu, ZAD DO MURU, załamanie w biodrze, zapał do ruchu naprzód, ZATRZYMANIE SWOBODNE, ZATRZYMANIE W MIEJSCU NA WODZACH W ZEBRANIU, ZATRZYMANIE W MIEJSCU SWOBODNE, ZATRZYMANIE W ZEBRANIU, ZESPÓŁ NÓG, ZESPÓŁ NÓG BOCZNYCH, ZESPÓŁ NÓG PRZEKĄTNYCH, ZGIĘCIE BOCZNE GŁOWY, ZGIĘCIE BOCZNE SZYI, ZGIĘCIE ZEWNĘTRZNE, ZŁY STAN, ZMIANA KIERUNKU ODWROTNA, ZMIANA KIERUNKU PRZEZ ŚRODEK UJEŹDŻALNI, ZMIANA KÓŁ, ZMIANA NA DŁUGIEJ ŚCIANIE, ZMIANA NA KRÓTKIEJ ŚCIANIE, ZMIANA NOGI NORMALNA, ZMIANA NOGI W GALOPIE CO TEMPO, ZMIANA NOGI W POWIETRZU, ZMIANA PO PRZEKĄTNEJ, ZMIANA PRZEZ UJEŹDŻALNIĘ, ZMIANA RĘKI ODWROTNA, ZWIJANIE JĘZYKA, ZWROT NA OSI, zwykła zmiana nogi w galopie</p>	
A	NIEPOŚLUSZNY, NIEUJEŹDŻONY, "OBRAMOWANY", PRZEGANASZOWANY, SPRĘŻONY, UPARTY, WYCZERPANY	7/16 (43.75%)
AP	BARDZO CZUŁY NA ŁYDKI, ŁATWY DO PROWADZENIA, ŁATWY W PROWADZENIU, MIĘKKI W PYSKU, NIECZUŁY NA ŁYDKI, NIE ODCHODZĄCY OD KONI, NIE ODCHODZĄCY OD PRZEDMIOTÓW, SCHOWANY ZA WODZE	8/10 (80.00%)
PP	BEZ ŁĄCZNOŚCI, BEZ STYCZNOŚCI, NAD WODZAMI, NA ŁĄCZNOŚĆ, NA WODZACH ZEBRANYCH, O DOBRYCH MANIERACH, "pod górę", PO WOLCIE NA WPROST, PRZED ŁYDKAMI, PRZED WODZAMI, W ŁYDKACH, W RĘKU, W TYŁ ZWROT, W WODZACH ZEBRANYCH, ZA ŁYDKAMI	15/17 (88.24%)
V	BIĆ, BUDZIĆ, DODAC, KAŚAC, KOPAC, OSADZIĆ, PODBIEGAC, PODJEŹDZAC, PRZESTRASZYĆ SIĘ, ROZBIEGAC SIĘ, SPŁOSZYĆ SIĘ, TRAWERSOWAC, "TUSZOWAC", UDERZYĆ, ZSIADAC	15/30 (50.00%)
VP	BRAĆ NA KIEŁ, CHWYTAĆ CZANKI, CHWYTAĆ ZĘBAMI, DODAC TEMPO, DROBIĆ W STEPIE, JEŹDZIĆ "PO DAMSKU", JEŹDZIĆ NA OKLEP, JEŹDZIĆ PO MĘSKU, JEŹDZIĆ W DAMSKIM SIODLU, KLUSOWAC NA LEWEJ PRZEKĄTNEJ, KLUSOWAC NA PRAWIEJ PRZEKĄTNEJ, LEŻEC NA WODZACH, NERWOWO RUSZAC OGONEM, ODDAC ŁYDKI, OSADZIĆ NA ZADZIE, PROWADZIĆ NA MUNSZTUKU, PROWADZIĆ NA SAMYM MUNSZTUKU, PRZEJŚĆ W GALOP, PRZERWAC DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI, RUSZYĆ Z MIEJSCA, STAWAC DĘBA, WYDŁUZYĆ WODZE, WYRYWAC WODZE, WYRYWAC WODZE Z RĘKI, WYRZUCAC JĘZYK, ZAGALOPOWAC Z LEWEJ NOGI, ZGRZYTAĆ ZĘBAMI, ZMIENIĆ RĘKĘ, ZRÓWNOWAZYĆ ZAD, ZWOLNIĆ TEMPO	30/54 (55.55%)
NUP	trzy czwarte piruetu	1/1 (100.00%)
Total		384/765 (50.20%)

Table 17. Polish terms absent from the PTS.

Part of speech	Absent terms	Number/Part of speech total
N	AMAZONKA, czambon, "DEMI-ARRÊT", DOJEZDEK, DRÓŻKA, EKWIJER, EKWITACJA, "GWIAZDY", KANTER, KARNOŚĆ, KAWALKATOR, "KONTRWODZA", KONTRZMIANA, KORA, LANSADA, "LUZY", MANEŻ, MEZER, MUR, PARAPET, PIANA, PODJEZDEK, PODSKOK, POŁOŻENIE, PÓLCIĄG, REDOP, REFLEKS, ROTMISTRZ, ROZMACH, "SAKADA", SIAD, TROCINY, UCZENNICA, UJEŹDŹACZ, WĄŻ, "WIBRACJA", ZAPRAWA	37/196 (18.88%)
NP	AMAZONKA CYRKOWA, ASYMETRIA OSI GŁÓWNEJ, BARANI SKOK, CAŁKOWITY WYKROK W STĘPIE, ĆWICZENIE NA DŁUGICH WODZACH, ĆWICZENIE W SŁUPKACH, DOBRY STAN, DOSIAD FOTELOWY, dosiad niepoprawny, DOSIAD NORMALNY, DOSIAD SPORTOWY, DOSIAD SZKOLNY, DOSIAD SZTYWNY, DOSIAD WIDLÓWY, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDEK OBUSTRONNE I JEDNOCZESNE, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI JEDNOSTRONNE, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI PODTRZYMUJĄCE, działanie ręki lekkie, EKWITACJA KLASYCZNA, FAŁSZOWANIE W GALOPIE, FIGURA OSIEM, GALOP ĆWICZEBNY, galop do tyłu, GALOP NA KRZYŻ, galop na trzech nogach, GALOP NIEPRAWIDŁOWY, GALOP "OSTRY", GALOP "RÓWNY", GALOP SZKOLNY, GALOP "TRIAL", GALOP UŻYTKOWY, GALOP Z FAŁSZYWEJ NOGI, GALOP Z WŁAŚCIWEJ NOGI, GŁOWA DO ŚCIANY, GRA NÓG, GRA WODZY, GRZBIET BIERNY, GRZBIET CZYNNY, grzbiet falujący, GRZBIET NAPRĘŻONY, GRZBIET ROZPRĘŻONY, INSTRUKTOR KONNEJ JAZDY, JAZDA PODSTAWOWA, JAZDA POŁOWA, JAZDA SPACEROWA, JAZDA SZKOLENIOWA, JAZDA TERENOWA, JAZDA WYŻSZĄ SZKOŁĄ, JEŹDZIEC CYRKOWY, JEŹDZIEC DŻENTELMEN, JEŹDZIEC KAWALKATOR, JEŹDZIEC POCZĄTKUJĄCY, JEŹDZIEC SZKOLNY, JEŹDZIEC WYSZKOLONY, JEŹDZIEC WYTRAWNY, JEŹDZIEC ZAAWANSOWANY, JEŹDZIEC ZAWODOWY, JEŹDZIEC ZNAKOMITY, KAPITAN EKIPY, KLASA JEŹDŹCA, KLASYCZNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, KLUS NORMALNY, KLUS PODRÓŻNY, KLUS SZEROKI, KLUS SZKOLNY, KLUS UŻYTKOWY, KLUS W MIEJSCU, KOŃ WYSZEJ SZKOŁY JAZDY, KONIUSZY NADWORNY, KONIUSZY PRZYBOCZNY, KONIUSZY WIELKI, KORA W KRUCHACH, KURBETA KLASYCZNA, LEKKOŚĆ W RĘKU, ŁOPATĄ DO WEWNĄTRZ, LUŹNIENIE SZCZĘKI, ŁYDKA BIERNA, ŁYDKA CZYNNA, MIŁOŚNIK KONI, MLASKANIE JĘZYKIEM, MŁODSZY KAWALKATOR, MOMENT PRZECHYŁOWY, MOMENT WYKROCZNY, nachrapnik angielski, nachrapnik hanowerski, NAPÓR PRZESADNY, NAPROSTOWANIE KRĘGOSŁUPA, NEOKLASYCZNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOGA PODPOROWA, NORMALNA ZMIANA NOGI W GALOPIE, NORMALNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOWOCZESNY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, ODDANIE WODZY NA KONTAKCIE Z PYSKIEM, ogłowie wędzidłowe, OŚ GŁÓWNA KONIA, pas do łonżowania, PCHNIĘCIE OSTROGI, PIRUET ODWRÓCONY, piruet w stępie, PIRUET ZWYKŁY, PODCIĄGANIE JĘZYKA, PÓŁOBRÓT W TYŁ, PÓLZWROT W TYŁ, PÓLZWROT ZADEM W TYŁ, POMOCE PRZECIWLEGŁE, POMOCE RÓWNOLEGŁE, POMOCNIK INSTRUKTORA KONNEJ JAZDY, POSTAWA DOWOLNA, POSTAWA NA WODZACH, POSTAWA NA WODZACH ODDANYCH, POSTAWA SWOBODNA, POSTAWA W WODZACH, PYSK CZUŁY, PYSK NIECZUŁY, PYSK NIESPOKOJNY, PYSK NIEWRAŻLIWY, PYSK PRZYJEMNY, PYSK RUCHLIWY, PYSK SUROWY, PYSK ŚWIEŻY, PYSK WILGOTNY, PYSK WRAŻLIWY, PYSK ZBYT RUCHLIWY, PYSK ZBYT WRAŻLIWY, PYSK ZEPSUTY, RĘKA STATECZNA, RYTM MIAROWY, ŚCIEŻKA DLA JEŹDŹCA, SKOCZEK SZKOLNY, SKRZYWIENIE OSI GŁÓWNEJ, SPORT HIPICZNY, SPORT JEŹDZIECKI, SPORT KONNY, STAN ZAPRAWY, STANIE W MIEJSCU, STAROFRANCUSKI SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, STARSZY KAWALKATOR, STARSZY KAWALKATOR SZEFA, STĘP NA WODZACH, STĘP NA WODZACH RZUCONYCH, STĘP PO DWÓCH ŚLADACH, STĘP SZKOLNY, STĘP W WODZACH, STOSOWANIE WODZY, STRONA WKŁĘŚLA, STRONA WYPUKŁA, STYCZNOŚĆ WSTĘPNA, STYL JEŹDŹCA, swoboda w ganaszach, SZEFA EKIPY, SZEFA EKWITACJI, SZEFA SZKOLENIA, SZKOŁA PODSTAWOWA, SZKOŁA POŁOWA, SZTUKA JEŹDŹCA, sztywna łopatka, TAKT JEŹDZIECKI, TALENT JEŹDZIECKI, TECHNIKA JEŹDZIECKA, TEMPERAMENT DZIELNY, TEMPERAMENT ENERGICZNY, TEMPERAMENT FLEGMATYCZNY, TEMPERAMENT GORĄCY, TEMPERAMENT ŁAGODNY, TEMPERAMENT LENIWIWY, TEMPERAMENT PŁOCHLIWY, TEMPERAMENT SPOKOJNY, TEMPERAMENT TRUDNY, UJEŹDŹALNIA KRYTA, UJEŹDŹALNIA OTWARTA, ukątownie łopatki, USTAWIENIE KONIA NA KRZYWEJ, USTAWIENIE KONIA NA WPROST, USTAWIENIE KONIA W ZGIĘCIU,	231/441 (52.38%)

	USTĘPOWANIE CIĄGIEM, USTĘPOWANIE ŁOPATKĄ DO WEWNĄTRZ, USTĘPOWANIE ŁYDCE, USTĘPOWANIE NÓG, USTĘPOWANIE ZADEM DO WEWNĄTRZ, UZDOLNIENIE JEŹDZIECKIE, WODZA "PRZECIWSZTAWNA POŚREDNIA" UŻYTA PRZED KLĘBEM, WODZA "PRZECIWSZTAWNA POŚREDNIA" UŻYTA ZA KLĘBEM, WODZA BIERNA, WODZA CZYNNNA, WODZA IZOLOWANA, WODZA KIERUNKOWA, WODZA NIECZYNNNA, WODZA ODDZIELNA, WODZA OPARTA O SZYJĘ, WODZA POWSTRZYMUJĄCA, WODZA PRZECIWSZTAWNA BEZPOŚREDNIA, "WODZE BEZ ŁYDEK, ŁYDKI BEZ WODZY", WODZE SPOKOJNE, WODZE STATECZNE, WODZE W JEDNEJ RĘCE, WOJSKOWY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, wolta w trawersie, WPLYW CIĘŻARU JEŹDZCA, WRAŻLIWOŚĆ NA POMOCE, WYKROK W KLUSIE, wypadanie w galopie, wyraz oka, WYSOKA SZKOŁA JAZDY, WYTRZYMUJĄCE DZIAŁANIE WODZY, WYŻSZA SZKOŁA JAZDY, WZBRANIAJĄCE DZIAŁANIE WODZY, WZOROWA REAKCJA, ZAD DO MURU, ZAD DO ŚCIANY, zadem na zewnątrz, ZATRZYMANIE SWOBODNE, ZATRZYMANIE W MIEJSCU NA WODZACH W ZEBRANIU, ZATRZYMANIE W MIEJSCU SWOBODNE, ZATRZYMANIE W ZEBRANIU, ZESPÓŁ NÓG, ZESPÓŁ NÓG BOCZNYCH, ZESPÓŁ NÓG PRZEKĄTNYCH, ZGIĘCIE BOCZNE GŁOWY, ZGIĘCIE BOCZNE SZYI, ZGIĘCIE WEWNĘTRZNE, ZGIĘCIE ZEWNĘTRZNE, ZŁY STAN, ZMIANA KIERUNKU ODWROTNA, ZMIANA KIERUNKU PRZEZ ŚRODEK UJEŹDŻALNI, ZMIANA KIERUNKU W KOLE, ZMIANA NA KRÓTKIEJ ŚCIANIE, ZMIANA NOGI NORMALNA, ZMIANA NOGI W POWIETRZU, ZMIANA RĘKI ODWROTNA, ZWIJANIE JĘZYKA, ZWROT NA OSI	
A	NIEPOSŁUSZNY, "OBRAJOWANY", OPORNY, PRZEGANASZOWANY, SPRĘŻONY, UPARTY, WYCZERPANY	7/16 (43.75%)
AP	BARDZO CZUŁY NA ŁYDKI, ŁATWY DO PROWADZENIA, NIECZUŁY NA ŁYDKI, NIE ODCHODZĄCY OD KONI, NIE ODCHODZĄCY OD PRZEDMIOTÓW, TRUDNY DO PROWADZENIA	6/10 (60.00%)
PP	BEZ STYCZNOŚCI, NA ŁĄCZNOŚCI, NA ŁĄCZNOŚĆ, NA WODZACH ZEBRANYCH, NAD WODZAMI, O DOBRYCH MANIERACH, PO WOLCIE NA WPROST, PRZED WODZAMI, W ŁYDKACH, W TYŁ ZWROT, W WODZACH ZEBRANYCH, ZA ŁYDKAMI	12/17 (70.59%)
V	BUDZIĆ, GRYŹĆ, KAŚAĆ, OSADZIĆ, PODBIEGAĆ, PODJEŹDZAĆ, PRZESTRASZYĆ SIĘ, ROZBIEGAĆ SIĘ, TRAWERSOWAĆ, "TUSZOWAĆ", WIERZGAĆ	11/30 (36.67%)
VP	BRAĆ NA KIEŁ, CHWYCIĆ WODZE, CHWYTAĆ CZANKI, CHWYTAĆ ZĘBAMI, DODAĆ TEMPO, DOTYKAĆ PALCATEM, DROBIĆ W STĘPIE, JEŹDZIĆ "PO DAMSKU", JEŹDZIĆ PO MĘSKU, JEŹDZIĆ W DAMSKIM SIODLU, KLUSOWAĆ NA LEWEJ NODZE, KLUSOWAĆ NA LEWEJ PRZEKĄTNEJ, KLUSOWAĆ NA PRAWIEJ NODZE, KLUSOWAĆ NA PRAWIEJ PRZEKĄTNEJ, LEŻEĆ NA WODZACH, NERWOWO RUSZAĆ OGONEM, ODDAĆ ŁYDKI, OSADZIĆ NA ZADZIE, PROWADZIĆ NA MUNSZTUKU, PROWADZIĆ NA SAMYM MUNSZTUKU, PROWADZIĆ OBURĄCZ, PRZEKŁADAĆ JĘZYK NA KIEŁZNO, PRZERWAĆ DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI, ROZDZIELIĆ WODZE, WYRÓWNAĆ WODZE, WYRYWAĆ WODZE Z RĘKI, WYRYWAĆ WODZE, WYRZUCAĆ JĘZYK, ZGRZYTAĆ ZĘBAMI, ZMIENIĆ CHÓD, ZMIENIĆ NOGĘ, ZMIENIĆ RĘKĘ, ZRÓWNOWAŻYĆ ZAD	33/54 (61.11%)
Total		337/765 (44.05%)

Table 18. English terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 12 instances) in the ECS.

Part of speech	Terms below the NFR	Number/Part of speech total
N	age, amble, backing , BASICS, biomechanics , BOBBING , cadence , capriole, carriage, <u>cavaletto</u> , CORRECTNESS , depart, disobedience , distraction , diving, dragging , equilibrium, equitation, fatigue , footing, forging, going [=footing], jogging , leverage [of rider], locomotion, martingale, MOBILITY , napping, nodding , noseband, outline, OVERBENDING , overtracking , pace [=speed], pacing , passade, pillar, pivot, <i>PIVOTING</i> , quarters, rearing , ROUNDNESS [of topline], schwung, shying , size, snaffle, SNATCHING [of the bit], SNATCHING [of hind legs], stubbornness , tack, temperament , throughness, TILTING , timidity , zigzag	55/254 (21.65%)
NP	accepting the bit , air above the ground, artificial aid, auxiliary rein, base of support , BPM, bridle lameness , canter on a long rein , CENTER OF MASS, change of hand , change of rhythm , chewing the bit , curb bit, diagonal aid, direct transition, double bridle, draw rein, dressage arena , dressage saddle, FALLING ON INSIDE SHOULDER , falling over the outside shoulder , flexion in-hand , free forward movement , FREE WALK, <i>free walk on a long rein</i> , full halt, full pass, good mouth , gymnastic training, haunches out, <u>haute école</u> , head carriage, head to the wall , high school, holding back , holding of reins , hollow side, hoof print , independent seat , indirect rein, indirect rein of opposition , kicking out to the aid , lateral balance, lateral flexion, leaning on the bit , left lead, lengthened stride, LENGTHENING OF STRIDE , long-reining , loose seat , moment of suspension , MPM, natural gait, <i>nuchal apparatus</i> , opening rein, opposite rein, outside track, <u>pas de deux</u> , passive hand , PYRAMID OF TRAINING , quarters in, quarters out , rein-back, rein effect , release of the rein , restraining aid, right lead, school figure, school horse, school movement , shortened neck , shoulder-out, simple change, square halt , stirrup leather, stretching the topline , strike off, <i>stroking the horse's neck</i> , supporting rein , supraspinous ligament, tail swishing , taking hand , tempi change, three-quarter line , tracking up , turn on the haunches, unsteady head, way of going, work in-hand , wrong lead	90/241 (37.34%)
A	abrupt , baroque, BLOCKED , clean, CLEAR , concave, CONSTRICTED , convex, cramped , 'downhill', flapping , flat, floating, fresh , HURRIED , hurrying , inattentive, INNER , LATE , MARCHING , novice , overbent, overcollected, perched , perpendicular, <i>resistant</i> , running , RUSHED , slack , spinning , spooking , STUCK , trailing, UNEVEN	34/89 (38.20%)
AP	dead to the leg , hard-mouthed , hollow-backed , in-hand , LATE BEHIND , leaning in , leaning out , long and low, one-sided, PUSHING OUT , STRUNG OUT , two-track , WIDE BEHIND	13/20 (65.00%)
ADV	INWARDS , OUTWARDS	2/3 (66.66%)
PP	above the bit, AGAINST THE BIT , behind the bit, behind the leg , behind the movement, behind the vertical, between leg and hand, in front of the vertical, on a long rein , on the aids, on the left rein, out of balance, OVER THE BACK , OVER THE TOPLINE	14/23 (60.87%)
V	dress, fall , fall apart, fall in , fall into , OVERSTRIDE	6/13 (46.15%)
VP	break gait , change the rein , cut corners, go large, move away from the leg , move off the leg	6/8 (75.00%)
Total		220/653 (33.69%)

Table 19. English terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 11 instances) in the EWS.

Part of speech	Terms below the NFR	Number/Part of speech total
N	accuracy , action, blocking , BOBBING , <i>bridling</i> , <i>cavaletto</i> , Chambon, conformation, crookedness , depart , disobedience , dragging , dress , educating , equilibrium, equitation, evasion , EXPRESSION , extension , fatigue, footing, glove, hackamore, hacking , halt , headshaker , lameness, lengthening , levade, leverage [of bit], leverage [of rider], lift , locomotion, LOOSENESS , MOBILITY , noseband, OBEDIENCE , offside , OVERBENDING , pace [=speed], passage, PHASE , piaffe, pirouette, pivot , PURITY , quarters, rearing , REGULARITY , schoolmaster , seesaw , serpentine , shying , size, <i>stiffness</i> , stubbornness , submission , temperament, tempo, throughness, thrust , timidity , topline	63/254 (24.80%)
NP	accepting the bit , artificial aid , base of support, boring on the bit , centre line, centre of gravity, change of rhythm , chewing the bit , counter-canter , cross canter , curb bit , diagonal aid, direct rein , double bridle, draw rein , dressage arena, dressage saddle, dressage whip, driving aid, figure of eight , grinding teeth , gymnastic training, half-pass , half-halt , haunches in , head carriage, holding back , HOLLOW BACK , hollow side, independent seat, inside hand, lateral movement, leaning on the bit , length of stride , LENGTHENING OF STRIDE , moment of suspension, mouth open , natural aid, natural gait , nuchal apparatus , open rein , opening rein, opposite rein, outside track, PYRAMID OF TRAINING , quarters not engaged , rein-back , rein contact, right lead , ‘running through the bit’ , school horse, shoulder-fore , shoulder-in , side rein, sitting trot , square halt , stretching the topline , supporting rein, swinging back , swinging head , tail swishing , taking hand , tracking up , TRAINING SCALE , turn on the forehand , turn on the haunches , use of voice , way of going, weight aid	69/241 (28.63%)
A	abrupt , baroque, BLOCKED , classical, CONNECTED , CONSTRAINED , CONSTRUCTED , ‘downhill’ , flapping , flat , floating, fresh , gripping , irregular , LATE , <i>lazy</i> , level , longitudinal , MARCHING , medium, novice, obedient, OUTER , overbent , perpendicular, RAPID , regular , resistant, rounding, RUSHED , sour , trailing, unbalanced, unlevel, uphill , working	36/89 (40.45%)
AP	hollow-backed , leaning in , one-sided, STRUNG OUT , two-track	5/20 (25.00%)
ADV	inwards , outwards	2/3 (66.66%)
PP	AGAINST THE BIT , between leg and hand , behind the leg , behind the vertical , in front of the leg , on a long rein , on the aids, on the bit, OUT BEHIND , out of balance	10/23 (43.48%)
V	fall , fall apart , stumble	3/13 (23.08%)
VP	break gait , cut corners , give and re-take the reins	3/8 (37.50%)
Total		191/653 (29.25%)

Table 20. Polish terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 3 instances) in the POS.

Part of speech	Terms below the NFR	Number/Part of speech total
N	AMATOR, anatomia, efektowność , GLASKANIE, kapriola, KARNOŚĆ , kawecan, kielzno, krąg, lewada, MANEŻ, MUR , NAWIERZCHNIA, PARA , parskanie, PIASEK, PODJEZDEK, pomocnik, przemoc, ROTMISTRZ, ROZMACH, SERPENTYNA, smakołyk, STÓJ, ŚRODEK, temperament, UJEŹDZACZ, wypinacz	28/196 (14.29%)
NP	ASYMETRIA OSI GŁÓWNEJ, ciąg w galopie, DOSIAD MIĘKKI, DOSIAD POPRAWNY, DOSIAD SZTYWNY, działanie łydką aktywizującą , FAŁSZOWANIE W GALOPIE, galop pośredni, galop roboczy, GALOP SKRÓCONY, galop w miejscu , GALOP WYCIĄGNIĘTY, GALOP Z WEWNĘTRZNEJ NOGI, GALOP Z WŁAŚCIWEJ NOGI, grzbiet falujący , GRZBIET SZTYWNY, GRZBIET WKŁĘŚLY, JAZDA PODSTAWOWA, jazda po łuku , JAZDA TERENOWA, jeździec rekreacyjny , JEŹDZIECTWO SPORTOWE, JEŹDZIEC WYSZKOLONY, JEŹDZIEC ZAAWANSOWANY, klus anglezowany, klus pośredni, klus roboczy, klus skrócony , KLUS W MIEJSCU, KLUS WYSIADYWANY, kolejność stawiania nóg , koń rekreacyjny, kulawizna wędzidłowa , LEKKOŚĆ W RĘKU, LUŹNIENIE SZCZĘKI, łydka aktywizująca, łydka przesuwająca, obciążenie zadu , obniżenie biodra , podnoszenie przedniej nogi , pomoc aktywizująca, POMOC DODATKOWA, POMOCE JEDNOSTRONNE, pomoc wstrzymująca, PRACA NA DWÓCH ŚLADACH, praca w rękę, przejęcie ciężaru przez zad , PYSK TWARDY, PYSK WILGOTNY, rzucenie wodzy, SKOK W GALOPIE, skracanie skoków galopu , SPORT JEŹDZIECKI, SPORT KONNY, stęp hiszpański , STĘP NA DŁUGICH WODZACH, STĘP PO DWÓCH ŚLADACH, stęp pośredni, STĘP SWOBODNY, STRONA WKŁĘŚLA, STRONA WYPUKŁA, STRONA ZEWNĘTRZNA, swoboda w łopatkach , tulów pochylony , ustawienie wysokie , USTĘPOWANIE ZADEM DO WEWNĄTRZ, UZDOLNIENIE JEŹDZIECKIE, wada budowy , wewnętrzna strona oka , więzadło karkowe, wodza długa , WODZA POWSTRZYMUJĄCA, WODZA RZUCONA, WODZA ZWISAJĄCA, WRAŻLIWOŚĆ NA POMOCE, wypadanie łopatką , wypadanie zadem , wyraz oka, wyraz pyska, wyszkolenie podstawowe , ZAD DO ŚCIANY, zadem do wewnątrz , ZGIĘCIE GŁOWY, ZGIĘCIE SZYI W POTYLICY, ZMIANA KIERUNKU W KOLE, ZNAWCA KONI	86/441 (19.50%)
A	OPORNY, SUROWY, ŚWIEŻY	3/16 (18.75%)
AP	“ZAMKNIĘTY” W RĘKU I W ŁYDKACH	1/10 (10.00%)
V	GRYŻĆ, PONIEŚĆ, WIERZGAĆ	3/30 (10.00%)
VP	CHWYCIĆ WODZE, DOTYKAĆ PALCATEM, KLUSOWAĆ NA LEWEJ NODZE, KLUSOWAĆ NA PRAWĘJ NODZE, NIE PRZYJMUJE WODZY, PROWADZIĆ OBURĄCZ, PRZEKŁADAĆ JĘZYK NA KIELZNO, ROZDZIELIĆ WODZE, RZUCAĆ ŁBEM, SZARPAĆ WODZE, WYRÓWNAĆ WODZE, ZEBRAĆ WODZE, ZMIENIĆ KIERUNEK, ZMIENIĆ NOGĘ [change the diagonal in trot]	14/54 (25.93%)
Total		135/765 (17.65%)

Table 21. Polish terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 4 instances) in the PTS.

Part of speech	Terms below the NFR	Number/Part of speech total
N	AKCJA, AMATOR, balotada, BERAJTER , ćwierćwolta, FORMA, GANASZOWANIE, GŁASKANIE, jezdność, język, KONDYCJA, KONIARZ, KOŃCZYNA, krąg, lonżowanie , munsztuk, nadpęcie, NAWIERZCHNIA, nieposłuszeństwo, ODRUCH, PIASEK, pilar, smakotyłk, tułów, wydech, wypinacz, ząb, żucie	28/196 (14.29%)
NP	AKCJA PCHAJĄCA ZADU, charakter konia , czarna wodza, dodanie w galopie, dodanie w kłusie, DOSIAD POPRAWNY, dosiad ujeżdzeniowy, działanie łydką aktywizującą, działanie łydką przesuwającą, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI PRZESUWAJĄCE , GALOP NORMALNY, GALOP SKRÓCONY, galop w miejscu, galop w trawersie, GALOP Z WEWNĘTRZNEJ NOGI, GRZBIET SZTYWNY, GRZBIET WKŁĘŚLY , jeździec rekreacyjny, JEŹDZIECTWO SPORTOWE, kłaskanie językiem , kłus skrócony, KŁUS WYSIADYWANY, koń rekreacyjny, krok z fazą zawieszenia, MISTRZ W SIODLE, NOGA WYKROCZNA, OŚ PODŁUŻNA KONIA, pchnięcie zadniej nogi , piaff do tyłu, pierścień wędzidła, PODNIESIENIE GŁOWY, PODNIESIENIE SZYI, POMOC DODATKOWA, POMOCE JEDNOSTRONNE, postawienie absolutne, PRACA NA DWÓCH ŚLADACH , praca nad zgięciem, PRZYJĘCIE WĘDZIDŁA , punkt przejścia, PYSK MIĘKKI, PYSK TWARDY, ręka niespokojna, rzucenie wodzy, skracanie skoków galopu, skrócenie wykroku, skrzywienie w potylicy , SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, STĘP NA KONTAKCIE, STĘP NA DWÓCH ŚLADACH, STĘP ROBOCZY, STĘP SWOBODNY , stroma łopatka, system dźwigni, ukątowanie zadniej nogi , ustawienie kozicy na szczycie, ustawienie w trawersie, wewnętrzna strona oka , więzadło karkowe, WODZA LUŻNA, WODZA ODDANA, WODZA RZUCONA, WODZA ZWISAJĄCA, WODZE W OBU RĘKACH, WPLYW JEŹDŹCA , wyraz pyska, WYSOKA LEWADA, załamanie w biodrze, zapal do ruchu naprzód , ZGIĘCIE GŁOWY, ZGIĘCIE SZYI W POTYLICY, ZMIANA KÓŁ, ZMIANA NA DŁUGIEJ ŚCIANIE, ZMIANA PO PRZEKĄTNEJ, ZMIANA PRZEZ UJEŹDŻALNIĘ, ZNAWCA KONI	75/441 (17.01%)
A	NIEUJEŹDŻONY, SUROWY, UJEŹDŻONY, ZMĘCZONY	4/16 (25.00%)
AP	ŁATWY W PROWADZENIU, MIĘKKI W PYSKU, “ZAMKNIĘTY” W RĘKU I W ŁYDKACH	3/10 (30.00%)
PP	BEZ ŁĄCZNOŚCI, W RĘKU	2/17 (11.76%)
V	BIĆ, DODACĆ, KOPAĆ, PONIEŚĆ, SPŁOSZYĆ SIĘ, UDERZYĆ	6/30 (20.00%)
VP	JEŹDZIĆ NA OKLEP, NIE PRZYJMUJE WODZY, PRZEJŚĆ W GALOP, RUSZYĆ Z MIEJSCA, RZUCAĆ ŁBEM, STAWAĆ DĘBA, SZARPAĆ WODZE, WSIADAĆ NA KOŃ, WYDŁUŻYĆ WODZE, ZAGALOPOWAĆ Z LEWEJ NOGI, ZEBRAĆ WODZE, ZMIENIĆ KIERUNEK, ZWOLNIĆ TEMPO	13/54 (24.07%)
NUP	trzy czwarte piruetu	1/1 (100.00%)
Total		132/765 (17.25%)

Table 22. The most frequent terms (≥ 10.00 per 15,000 words) in the English subcorpora.

No.	ECS		EWS	
	Term	Per 15,000 words	Term	Per 15,000 words
1	training (N)	50.18	training (N)	54.98
2	balance (N)	41.40	rein (N)	44.48
3	forward (ADV)	37.78	circle (N)	41.55
4	trot (N)	33.57	forward (ADV)	31.69
5	hand (N)	31.85	exercise [a training task] (N)	26.58
6	rein (N)	31.50	turn (N)	26.12
7	walk (N)	30.55	hand (N)	25.84
8	exercise [a training task] (N)	29.95	balance (N)	22.65
9	dressage (N)	29.78	bit (N)	16.99
10	outside (A)	28.75	walk (N)	16.07
11	circle (N)	26.42	dressage (N)	15.98
12	canter (N)	26.25	rhythm (N)	15.89
13	<i>movement</i> (N)	24.53	RELEASE (N)	15.25
14	flexion (N)	23.67	responsiveness (N)	15.25
15	transition (N)	22.72	STEP (N)	14.42
16	rhythm (N)	20.74	outside (A)	13.97
17	bending (N)	20.05	hindquarters (N)	13.88
18	STEP (N)	19.28	seat (N)	13.61
19	seat (N)	18.59	<i>movement</i> (N)	13.52
20	inside (A)	18.42	inside (A)	13.15
21	energy (N)	16.87	stride (N)	12.69
22	half-halt (N)	15.92	trot (N)	12.05
23	stride (N)	14.98	speed (N)	11.32
24	<i>contact</i> (N)	14.72	arena (N)	11.05
25	inside leg (NP)	14.03		
26	bend (N)	13.86		
27	gait (N)	13.77		
28	suppleness (N)	13.51		
29	collection (N)	13.34		
30	strength (N)	12.74		
31	tempo (N)	12.57		
32	shoulder-in (NP)	12.48		
33	turn (N)	11.96		
34	straightness (N)	10.24		
35	stretching (N)	10.07		

Table 23. The most frequent terms (≥ 10.00 per 15,000 words) in the Polish subcorpora.

No.	POS		PTS	
	Term	Per 15,000 words	Term	Per 15,000 words
1	JEŹDZIEC (N) [rider]	123.51	JEŹDZIEC (N) [rider]	164.31
2	RUCH (N) [movement]	68.74	RUCH (N) [movement]	57.92
3	równowaga (N) [balance]	40.80	NOGA (N) [leg]	53.83
4	RĘKA (N) [hand aid]	38.97	GALOP (N) [canter]	47.46
5	POMOC (N) [aid]	36.76	POMOC (N) [aid]	46.18
6	łydka (N) [leg aid]	35.66	stęp (N) [walk]	38.02
7	CHÓD (N) [gait]	35.29	KŁUS (N) [trot]	36.74
8	wodza (N) [rein]	35.29	rozluźnienie (N) [relaxation]	36.74
9	szyja (N) [neck]	33.08	ząd (N) [haunches]	36.49
10	ząd (N) [haunches]	31.25	ręka (N) [hand aid]	33.68
11	mięsień (N) [muscle]	26.47	SZKOLENIE JEŹDZIECKIE (NP) [equestrian training]	33.42
12	NOGA (N) [leg]	26.10	wodza (N) [rein]	32.91
13	RYTM (N) [rhythm]	25.36	zgięcie (N) [bend]	32.91
14	rozluźnienie (N) [relaxation]	24.63	szyja (N) [neck]	32.66
15	siła (N) [force]	24.26	JECHAĆ (V) [ride]	31.89
16	KŁUS (N) [trot]	23.16	łydka (N) [leg aid]	31.38
17	NOGA TYLNA (NP) [hind leg]	22.79	NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP) [foreleg]	29.09
18	głowa (N) [head]	20.95	zebranie (N) [collection]	28.32
19	NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP) [foreleg]	19.12	koło (N) [circle]	25.00
20	galop (N) [canter]	18.75	COFANIE (N) [backing]	24.75
21	dosiad (N) [seat]	18.38	kontakt (N) [contact]	24.49
22	JECHAĆ (V) [ride]	18.38	ciężar ciała (NP) [weight aid]	24.24
23	pysk (N) [horse's mouth]	18.01	przejście (N) [transition]	23.98
24	stęp (N) [walk]	16.17	przesunięcie (N) [shifting]	23.47
25	lekkość (N) [lightness]	15.44	RYTM (N) [rhythm]	23.47
26	kontakt (N) [contact]	15.44	piaff (N) [piaffe]	22.45
27	koło (N) [circle]	15.07	ściana (N) [arena side]	21.94
28	IMPULS (N) [impulsion]	14.70	CHÓD (N) [gait]	21.18
29	przesunięcie (N) [shifting]	14.34	ustawienie (N) [position]	19.90
30	SZKOLENIE JEŹDZIECKIE (NP) [equestrian training]	14.34	ŚLAD (N) [track]	19.39
31	zebranie (N) [collection]	14.34	IMPULS (N) [impulsion]	19.39
32	ustawienie (N) [position]	13.97	równowaga (N) [balance]	18.88
33	USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP) [position the horse]	13.60	grzbiet (N) [back]	18.63
34	grzbiet (N) [back]	13.23	NOGA TYLNA (NP) [hind leg]	18.63
35	POZYCJA (N) [position]	12.13	półparada (N) [half-halt]	18.63
36	TEMPO (N) [pace]	12.13	przepuszczalność (N) [throughness]	17.60
37	ELASTYCZNY (A) [elastic]	11.76	przestawienie (N) [moving to another place]	17.60
38	uwaga (N) [attention]	11.40	lotna zmiana nogi w galopie (NP) [flying lead change]	16.58
39	ciężar ciała (NP) [weight aid]	11.03	potylica (N) [poll]	16.58
40	SZYBKOŚĆ (N) [speed]	11.03	pysk (N) [horse's mouth]	16.58
41	TRENER (N) [trainer]	11.03	ruch do przodu (NP) [forward movement]	16.07
42	PROSTY (A) [straight]	10.66	uwaga (N) [attention]	15.31
43	staw (N) [joint]	10.29	PRZÓD (N) [forehand]	15.05
44	środek ciężkości (NP) [center of gravity]	10.29	TEMPO (N) [pace]	14.29
45			zatrzymanie (N) [halt]	14.29
46			bat (N) [whip]	14.03
47			POZYCJA (N) [position]	14.03

48			PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE NOGI (VP) [engage hind legs]	13.78
49			łydka wewnętrzna (NP) [inside leg]	13.52
50			ZMIANA NOGI (NP) [lead change]	13.52
51			USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP) [position the horse]	12.50
52			rozwój konia (NP) [horse's development]	12.25
53			staw (N) [joint]	12.25
54			<i>głowa</i> (N) [head]	11.99
55			PIRUIET (N) [pirouette]	11.74
56			dosiad (N) [seat]	11.23
57			takt (N) [beat]	11.23
58			WODZA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [outside rein]	11.00
59			ZATRZYMAĆ (V) [halt]	10.97
60			środek ciężkości (NP) [center of gravity]	10.72
61			wolta (N) [volte]	10.46
62			obszerny krok (NP) [ground-covering stride]	10.21

Table 24. Frequency and characterization of English terms in the ECS.

Term Total/per 15,000 words	Forms in the subcorpus	Significant collocates and clusters <i>Examples</i>
ACCEPTANCE (N) 37/3.18	N: acceptance/accepting – 5/2 A: accepting – 4 V: accept – 26	L5-R5: aid (15). <i>A horse who does not accept the aids is unsafe . . . because the rider has no true control over his mount whatsoever. To supple the overly anxious horse will make him quieter through acceptance of the aids.</i>
accuracy (N) 27/2.32	N: accuracy – 8 A: accurate – 16 ADV: accurately – 3	<i>Down the road, you'll be positioned to ride an accurate 10-meter half-circle onto the centerline. The development of accuracy is one step farther in the quality, but the rider who always makes it a priority easily loses the quality.</i>
active (A) 65/5.59	A: active – 53 ADV: actively – 12	L1: more (6). R1: aid (5). L5-R5: leg (6). Reference shifts: 33 instances convey the defined meaning (the horse's willingness to move), while 28 describe the rider's actions and four concern muscles. <i>Our first goal is that he responds to your leg aid so you have an active walk. Don't worry about anything else. Don't let them run at the walk. Let them slow down and really walk actively on contact.</i>
ACTIVITY (N) 22/1.89	N	<i>[T]he activity you create in the hind legs always has to be controlled in the front. If the rider is very successful in building up the activity in the trot, there is the danger that the horse will still be slightly tense when he goes to the walk.</i>
aid, driving (NP) 40/3.44	NP: driving aid – 37 NP: forward-driving aid – 3	<i>As soon as the horse responds, I immediately lighten my driving aids as a reward. Anytime the horse gets too strong in the hand from the driving aids, the rider does a downward transition.</i>
aid, leg (NP) 72/6.20	NP	L1: light (7). L5-R5: rein (5). Clusters: rein and leg aids (4). <i>Once your horse shouts his answer to your whispering leg aid, bring him back . . . to your normal working trot. When your horse's step is the desired length, rhythm and activity, release your rein and leg aids.</i>
aid, rein (NP) 65/5.59	NP	L1: seat (8), leg (7). Clusters: seat and rein aids (6), flexing rein aid, leg and rein aids (3). <i>They can remain unflexed, since they are out of reach for the rider's leg, seat and rein aids in this position. [Y]ou'll teach your horse to respond to your leg and rein aids in an increasingly sophisticated manner.</i>
aid, seat (NP) 15/1.29	NP	<i>From the full halt, I ask for an immediate forward response from my leg and seat aids to go forward.</i>
aids, timing of (NP) 21/1.81	NP: timing of * aids – 4 NP: timing of * aid – 2 N: timing – 15	<i>A routine I call "kindergarten exercises" is for horses and riders needing to learn more about rhythmic application and timing of the aids. Our timing must be flawless. If we apply our aids at the wrong moment in the footfall sequence, . . . the aid then does not make sense to the horse.</i>

aid, weight (NP) 20/1.72	NP	<i>The weight aids are not executed by shifting the seat, but by putting more weight on one seat bone or the other. The hand (with support from the weight and leg aids) is the primary stopping aid.</i>
ALIGNMENT (N) 28/2.41	N: alignment/aligning – 17/2 A: aligned – 1 V: align – 8	L5-R5: hip (8), body (6), shoulder (5). Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider's body, not the horse's. <i>[R]ein contact . . . is necessary in regulating the tempo and the alignment of the hips and shoulders. This exercise is very versatile, since the horse's body can be aligned along a continuum of angles.</i>
anticipation (N) 17/1.46	N: anticipation/anticipating – 8/1 V: anticipate – 8	<i>In order to counter the horse's anticipation and early change, the rider must hold the horse longer with the outside leg and keep the seat and upper body very quiet.</i>
arena (N) 107/9.21	N	R1: pattern (16). L5-R5: outside (10), around, long side (9), towards (7), canter, inside (6), accurate (5). Clusters: in the arena (16). <i>[M]aintaining the same spacing throughout the ride requires that each rider . . . rides very accurate arena patterns. Counter-shoulder-in and renvers share the bend towards the outside of the arena. When I teach the sequential changes, I will always finish the lesson for the day by riding counter canter around the arena, so the horse learns not to anticipate.</i>
back, bracing the (NP) 23/1.98	N: bracing – 8 A: braced – 6 V: brace – 4 VP: brace against * – 5	Reference shifts: <i>back</i> does not collocate with <i>bracing</i> . The concept of BRACING seems to have a wider range. <i>[A]ny imbalance creates stiffness and bracing which translate into unnecessary wear and tear on joints. If the horse braces against the rein pressure, the rider stops and flexes to the inside.</i>
BACK, HOLLOW (NP) 21/1.81	NP: hollow back – 2 N: hollowing – 1 A: hollow/hollowed/hollowed-out – 13/2/1 V: hollow/hollow out – 1/1	<i>As soon as the head comes up and the back hollows out, the power and balance of 'round' is gone and the hindquarters have been robbed of their drive. A hollow back, for instance, can only swing backward, not forward, which introduces stiffness. This reaction can make the horse hollow, which ultimately results in the rider having to pull back on the reins.</i>
back, swinging (NP) 33/2.84	NP: swinging back – 5 NP: swinging of * back – 3 NP: swing in/through * back – 2/1 AP: swinging in * back – 1 VP: swing * back – 1 VP: swing through * back – 5 back + V + swinging [N] – 2 back + swing [V] – 13	<i>Self-carriage comes from the connection created by active hind legs that send energy through a swinging back into the rein contact and then back to the hind legs. If he's working freely forward, he'll swing through his back, allowing you to contain him between your leg and hand. The horse should step well under with its hind legs, taking energetic steps, its back should be swinging, and it should have the appearance of moving forward willingly. When the hind legs have started thrusting and the back has started swinging again, the walk will most likely be improved as well.</i>

balance (N) 481/41.40	N: balance/balancing – 327/7 A: balanced/balancing – 98/8 V: balance – 41	L1: in (21), more (10), longitudinal (7). R1: between (8), beam (7). L5-R5: help (23), seat (19), straightness (17), supple/suppleness (16), lose, rhythm (14), improve, straight (12), trot, weight (10), longitudinal (9), relaxation (9), collection, forward, loss, mental (8). Clusters: loss of balance, straightness and balance (6), balance and flexibility, improve his balance (5). <i>[B]balance and straightness are prerequisites of Relaxation, or Suppleness, since an unbalanced, crooked horse will always be stiff.</i> <i>[B]balance and suppleness should really be included in the training scale, since they are the essential prerequisites that lead to relaxation, a good rein contact, impulsion, and collection.</i> <i>[E]very horse's rhythm keeps him in comfortable balance by being regular: neither too fast nor too slow.</i>
balance, out of (PP) 14/1.20	PP	More instances describe the horse (ten) than the rider (four), contrary to what term definition states. <i>Young horses tend to get quick when out of balance and start "running": an unbalanced gait that is heavy on the forehand.</i>
BEAT (N) 38/3.27	N	L1: four (9), two (7), three (5). R1: canter (5), rhythm, walk (4), trot (3). L5-R5: canter (13), trot (8), walk (7), clear (6). <i>A horse that is rhythmic has a clear four-beat walk, two-beat trot, and three-beat canter.</i> <i>[T]he walk has to have four distinct hoof-beats, not the two-beat rhythm of the jig or amble.</i>
BEHIND, FROM (PP) 12/1.03	PP	<i>Similarly, the horse is gathered up from behind by energizing his haunches and giving him the room through the reins to articulate freely.</i>
BEHIND, OUT (PP) 16/1.38	PP	<i>If the hind legs are dragging out behind, and the horse's back is consequently dropped, the hind legs are literally out of reach for the seat.</i>
bend (N) 161/13.86	N	L1: lateral (9), correct (5). L5-R5: change, flexion (17), leg (16), outside (15), right [=not left] (14), direction, inside (12), lateral (11), shoulder (10). Clusters: flexion and bend (7). <i>As you approach the gate and the all-important change of flexion and bend, even everything up to 50-50 for at least one stride of straightness, and then, as you pass between the cones, softly, smoothly, fluidly change to the new flexion and bend and think 51 percent on your new inside and 49 percent on your new outside.</i> <i>The end of the left turn is also the location where the horse has to change his bend to the right.</i>
bend, false (NP) 15/1.29	NP	<i>If the horse . . . goes with its nose behind the vertical, or with a false bend (from behind the poll instead of at the poll), the problem can only be cured through sensitive use and coordination of the aids.</i>

bending (N) 233/20.05	N: bending – 64 A: bending/bent – 25/37 V: bend – 107	L1: lateral (6). R1: aid (12). L5-R5: neck (26), inside (20), direction, leg (14), rein (12), flex, left (10), ability, exercise (8). Clusters: horse is bending (13), bending away from the direction (9), ability to bend, bend your horse (7). Reference shifts: 13 instances denote active work of the horse’s hind legs (absent from term definition). <i>This reshaping of the neck musculature is done in part by flexions that the Old Masters called “Abbiegen” (bending the entire neck) and “Abbrechen” (bending just the poll/throat latch area).</i> <i>[H]e fills out my outside rein as a result of his bending around my inside leg.</i> <i>[T]he outside rein does not support the bending inside rein sufficiently, which leads to a bulging of the outside shoulder.</i>
bit (N) 71/6.11	N	L5-R5: hand (10), through (7), mouth (5). Clusters: to the bit (9), contact with the bit (7), into the bit (5), come off the bit (4), reach the bit/for the bit (4). <i>I also like to perform a few strides of travers if I feel that my horse is able to maintain the longitudinal connection by marching into the contact with the bit.</i> <i>If he tries to come off the bit, however, by sticking his head up in the air, . . . you’ll apply the connecting aids again.</i>
bit, on the (PP) 81/6.97	PP: on the bit – 80 PP: onto the bit – 1	L5-R5: put/putting (26). Clusters: put your horse on the bit (7), putting him on the bit (4). <i>Using a simple system I’ll show you, you can put your horse on the bit and keep him there. And once you’ve experienced “on the bit,” you’ll never again be satisfied with less.</i>
blocking (N) 23/1.98	N: blockage/block – 10/4 V: block – 9	<i>This tension creates blockages that interrupt the energy flow.</i> <i>Some horses that have so far worked willingly, develop a resistance or ‘block’ to one exercise in particular.</i>
breed (N) 12/1.03	N	<i>It’s only fair to ask him to improve according to his specific range of capabilities, which are influenced by his breed, psyche, conformation, age, fitness and training.</i>
bridle (N) 15/1.29	N	Clusters: forward into the bridle (4). <i>A phrase that summarizes the secret of dressage is understanding how to ride the horse “forward into the bridle in balance.”</i>
bucking (N) 23/1.98	N: bucking/buck – 5/1 A: bucked/bucking/bucky – 1/1/1 V: buck – 14	<i>[A]ll this stored up energy will come out sooner or later in the form of spookiness or bucking.</i> <i>If the horse gets a little fast or bucky, I don’t “ride through it” and let them buck or bolt, because then they might get the idea that doing that is OK behavior, which it is not.</i>
canter (N) 305/26.25	N: canter/cantering – 263/9 A: cantering – 1 V: canter – 32	L1: to (20), or (17), collected, trot (11). L5-R5: trot (98), walk (54), transition (37), into (20), forward (16), lead (15), stride (14), back [ADV], beat (13), left (11), leg, pirouette (9), circle, medium (7). Clusters: walk trot and canter (11), trot and canter (10), at the canter, in the canter (9), into the canter (8), trot or canter, walk trot or canter (7), trot to canter, trot-canter transitions (6), walk trot canter (5). <i>These upward and downward transitions, such as walk-trot-walk, trot-canter-trot and walk-canter-walk, teach the horse to listen to the rider’s body aids to achieve a harmonious balance.</i> <i>Once my horse has mastered this exercise, I try going from collected canter to a pirouette canter and back to collected canter, making sure the horse remains soft and light in the bridle.</i> <i>I do not canter young, green horses for a very long time--just one 20-meter circle and then back to trot.</i>

centre line (NP) 14/1.20	NP	<i>When you are on the center line or on the quarter line, he will tend to drift towards the left with his entire body.</i>
centre of gravity (NP) 41/3.52	NP	L5-R5: hind leg, shift (5). <i>[I]t is the calf's job to bring the horse's hind legs closer to the center of gravity, and to watch that they stay there. As you collect the horse, you gradually shift that center of gravity back to the hind legs.</i>
change, flying (NP) 24/2.07	NP: flying change – 23 NP: flying lead change – 1	<i>When problems occur during the flying change, the root of their cause can almost always be attributed to a lack of proper basic gymnastic training. [G]o into collected canter and come across the diagonal with flying changes every stride.</i>
change of direction (NP) 21/1.81	NP: change of/in direction – 6/1 NP: changing (*) direction – 4 VP: change (*) direction – 10	L5-R5: bend (N) (5). <i>[I]f this circle stays balanced as well, change direction and circle in the corners going the other way. Fluid, balanced, accurate circles, corners and changes of bend and direction are a big part of the basics of dressage.</i>
change of lead (NP) 27/2.32	N: change/changing – 24/1 V: change – 2	<i>Ask for very little at a time. It's best not to perform the changes at the letter where they are required. Asking for the changes on a 20-meter circle to the left rein is also an effective way to correct this problem.</i>
circle (N) 307/26.42	N: circle/circling – 296/1 V: circle – 10	L1: [circle diameters:] 20-meter/20 meter (49), 10-meter/10 meter (26), 20m/20 m (4), 10m, 15m (2), 18-meter (2), 15-meter, 16-meter, 19-meter (1); half/half- (10), large (6). L2: 10-meter (1), 15-meter (2), 20-meter (1). R1: line (8). L5-R5: trot (23), corner, inside, out (13), left (10), shoulder, turn (9), bend, canter, transition (7), leg-yield/leg yield (7), center, exercise (5). Clusters: on a circle (27), on the circle (11), circle to the (7), around the circle, arc of the circle (5). <i>Trot a 15m circle, then leg-yield out to a 20m circle. Make sure you keep your horse working forward into a contact. The three loop serpentine is based on the same geometric principles as the 20 meter circle, with the track of three 20-meter half circles connected by two changes of flexion and bend. I'd also begin to add smaller circles because eventually, at First Level, I'd need to do 10-meter circles in the trot and 15-meter circles in the canter.</i>
classical (A) 45/3.87	A: classical – 43 ADV: classically – 2	R1: dressage (8), teaching (5), principle, seat (4). L5-R5: seat (5). <i>In discussions of this subject the participants often disagree on which movements are considered "classical". [T]he deep and overflexed training method violates several classical principles.</i>
COLLECTED (A) 83/7.14	A: collected/collecting – 76/7	R1: walk (13), canter (11), gait (7). L5-R5: walk (19), canter (17), more (8), extended, medium (7). <i>There are longer periods of tripod support in the collected walk, which gives the horse a larger base of support. Within a nice, big, self-perpetuated collected canter, my half halt doesn't prevent my horse from moving big behind.</i>

collection (N) 155/13.34	N: collection/collecting – 123/9 V: collect – 23	L5-R5: degree (24), impulsion (16), balance, extension (8). Clusters: degree of collection (13), impulsion and collection (9), [numeral]-degree collection (8). <i>There is no collection without impulsion. But there is also no true impulsion without a certain degree of collection. [T]ighter turns like squares and multiple quick changes of direction require more collection and advanced balance. A well-schooled horse will collect on even sagging reins into a piaffe or school canter.</i>
CONFIDENCE (N) 50/4.30	N: confidence – 30 A: confident – 19 ADV: confidently – 1	Reference shifts: 22 instances concern the human, not the horse. <i>In addition, a confident, submissive horse is one who has been taught to work without excessive tension. The next confidence-building skill is the ability to steer. You start this work on the ground too.</i>
conformation (N) 15/1.29	N	<i>There are horses who are naturally balanced--they have excellent conformation, are athletic in their movement and have been well started.</i>
CONNECTED (A) 100/8.61	A: connected/connecting – 38/36 V: connect – 26	R1: aid (30), to (16). Clusters: connecting aid (30), connected to the (13), connecting half halt (7). <i>The rider's pelvis is also connected to the horse's ribcage and pelvis in the sense that the rider can bend and turn the horse by turning his own pelvis. If he sticks his head straight up in the air, the connecting aids didn't go through at all. Some horses take too much weight on the hind legs, and they can't connect it to the contact of the hands anymore.</i>
connection (N) 89/7.66	N: connection – 80 N: connecting – 4 N: connectivity – 3 N: connectedness – 2	L1: correct (7), good (5). R1: between (14). <i>A good method to feel and experience the connection of your weight and the rhythm of the horse is transitioning between the light seat and the dressage seat. Keep following these exercises, and your horse will soon be working properly back to front with a nice, soft, round frame and good connection to your hand.</i>
<i>contact</i> (N) 171/14.72	N	L1: more (7), light, passive (5), elastic, even, good (4). R1: with (33). L5-R5: bit (13), hand, mouth, rein (12), keep (10), even, forward (8), firm, maintain (7). Clusters: contact on the (10), into the contact (6). Reference shifts (8): contact of legs (5), seat (2) and minds (1), all absent from term definition. <i>I'd rather see you maintain a contact that's a bit too firm than repeatedly take and then lose contact with his mouth--which punishes him with every step he takes. If your horse has attention deficit disorder, you'll have to keep a little more contact with the reins during the break. Once your horse moves clearly from your left leg and searches for more contact on the right rein, you are on your way to helping him become equal in both reins.</i>
contact, rein (NP) 55/4.73	NP	<i>A dead rein contact, as opposed to a live, communicative rein contact is heavy – even if it amounts only to a single ounce. Learning to establish and maintain a correct rein contact is one of the big difficulties . . . in learning how to ride.</i>

corner (N) 95/8.18	N	L5-R5: ride (34), circle (13), meter (9), around (6). Clusters: in the corner (15), into the corner (7), out of the corner (6), corner letter (5). <i>Going left in walk or trot, ride a 10-meter circle in the corner to set up for the shoulder-in bend on the long side. Now, you're 6 meters out of the corner and facing into the corner.</i>
correction (N) 51/4.39	N: correction/correcting – 17/5 A: correcting – 1 V: correct – 28	<i>The best correction for this error is to transition to the walk and regroup. To correct this, think of the lateral movements from the perspective of riding circles.</i>
counter-canter (NP) 24/2.07	NP: counter-canter – 5 NP: counter canter – 19	<i>Don't worry if your horse breaks to trot or only manages one stride of counter-canter – work on it. You'll be amazed how quickly he learns. I find myself using the counter canter to keep the flying changes straight.</i>
crookedness (N) 49/4.22	N: crookedness – 20 A: crooked – 29	Reference shifts: three A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Crooked changes can be caused by several different problems. The first and most obvious are haunches that swing from side to side. We have to make our own body awareness coincide with reality, so that objective straightness actually feels straight to us, while crookedness has to feel crooked.</i>
diagonal [=arena line] (N) 25/2.15	N: diagonal – 22 A: diagonal – 3	L5-R5: across, canter (6). <i>[R]ide a lively medium canter across the diagonal. Two strides before reaching the long side ask for the change. If a judge were standing at K or M, looking at the diagonal line to M as the rider goes across the diagonal, he would see a travers.</i>
diagonal [=horse leg pair] (N) 22/1.89	N: diagonal – 6 A: diagonal/diagonalized – 14/1 ADV: diagonally – 1	Clusters: diagonal hind leg (4), on the wrong diagonal (3). <i>The connection between the diagonal pairs can be broken, e.g. if the hind leg touches down before the diagonal front leg. This is traditionally called "rushing hindquarters".</i>
dressage (N) 346/29.78	N	L1: level (16). R1: horse (70), training (31), rider (24), test (21), movement (17), trainer (6). L5-R5: training (57), classical, correct (11). <i>When I train young dressage horses, I start on the ground. In this article, I will give you some of the basics to do your own ground work "The Dressage Way". Rhythm and relaxation are the most important aspects of dressage training. When you do leg yields from the centerline to the long side as you do in the First Level dressage tests, it's not always easy to make sure that your horse is crossing his legs enough.</i>
drifting (N) 15/1.29	N: drifting – 3 A: drifting – 2 V: drift – 10	<i>[H]is outside leg may have to be placed especially well back in order to prevent the haunches from drifting out. When riding straight, your horse has the tendency to drift to the left.</i>
educating (N) 27/2.32	N: educating/education – 1/15 A: educated/educational – 7/1 V: educate – 3	Reference shifts: 15 instances concern the rider, thus emphasizing his education as a prerequisite to school horses. <i>The humble rider places a huge value on education and is open to new ideas and approaches. The easiest bending exercise is the 20 meter circle, which is where the young horse's education begins.</i>

elasticity (N) 48/4.13	N: elasticity – 15 A: elastic – 32 ADV: elastically – 1	L5-R5: contact (9). Reference shifts: 20 instances concern contact, reins and hands instead of muscles (contrary to term definition). <i>Whether you have a very green horse or a very highly trained horse, you always want a soft contact that is like an elastic band.</i> <i>Elasticity can be used against the rider as a means to evade the influence of the aids.</i>
elevation (N) 39/3.36	N: elevation/elevating – 26/1 A: elevated – 4 V: elevate – 8	L5-R5: neck (7). Term definition concerns raising of the horse’s feet in movement, but this meaning is absent directly in the ECS: 15 instances concern head and neck, seven – shoulders and forehand and 17 – elevation as a general notion without explicit reference to body parts; increased feet raising can be only indirectly inferred from such context. The explicit meanings seem to concentrate on the height of the horse’s front. <i>The elevation of the neck has to match the tucking and lowering of the horse’s pelvis. Otherwise, the back will be suppressed by the excessive elevation of the neck in relation to the degree of flexion of the haunches.</i> <i>If the rider wants to elevate the neck more and connect the jawl more to the neck muscles, s/he can lift the flexing hand straight up, with an almost straight elbow.</i>
energy (N) 196/16.87	N: energy – 167 A: energetic/energizing – 10/4 ADV: energetically – 12 V: energize – 3	L1: forward (10), more (7). R1: level (14), flow (8). L5-R5: forward (20), leg (15), hind, impulsion (11), through (9), contain (7). <i>You’ll refine your aids by bending your horse as you contain his forward energy.</i> <i>Through systematic training the horse learns to adjust the tempo, stride length, and energy level independently.</i> <i>[I]t’s your leg aid and the resulting increased energy coursing through his body that allow you to create and maintain the bend.</i>
engaged (A) 48/4.13	A: engaged/engaging – 10/1 V: engage – 37	L5-R5: hind leg (9). Reference shifts: four instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s. <i>The haunches can only flex if they are engaged well enough under the body. They can only engage if the rider’s seat allows the horse’s back to rise and fall freely.</i>
engagement (N) 37/3.18	N: engagement/engaging – 30/7	L5-R5: hind leg (11). <i>Your inside leg should be able to bring the horse’s inside hind leg under and increase his engagement.</i> <i>The rider therefore has to preface each new demand by engaging the inside hind leg more underneath the body.</i>
equestrian (A) 24/2.07	A	<i>In all equestrian disciplines we want our horses to be obedient, focused and responsive to our aids at any time.</i> <i>In technical equestrian terms we say: The aid does not go through.</i>
evasion (N) 15/1.29	N: evasion – 10 V: evade – 5	<i>The false bend becomes an evasion for the horse, because he can basically hide his stiff, unflexed poll from the rider’s aids.</i>
exercise [=a training task] (N) 348/29.95	N	L1: gymnastic (6), bending (4). R1: [number:] 1, 2 (4); 3, 4 (3); 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 (1). L5-R5: movement (15), gymnastic, help (11), trot (9), bending (8). <i>I call that bouncy, upright feeling “the second trot.” This . . . is a direct gymnastic result of the transition exercises.</i> <i>Exercise 2: Squeeze the fingers of your outside hand on every other sitting moment.</i> <i>The dressage movements and exercises should never be done at the expense of rhythm.</i>

exercise [=training] (N) 18/1.55	N: exercise/exercising – 9/2 V: exercise – 7	<i>Many training problems are caused by the fact that horses are not allowed to have enough exercise on their own. [H]e needs to be warmed up stretching through to the contact in order to exercise his back, topline, and haunches.</i>
EXPRESSION (N) 13/1.12	N: expression/expressiveness – 6/2 A: expressive – 5	<i>Trotting poles are a great way to add interest and increase energy. For even more expression, raise them on to bricks at alternate ends.</i>
<i>EXTENDED</i> (A) 45/3.87	A	R1: trot (21), walk (9). L5-R5: medium (12), collected (7). Clusters: medium and extended (6). Reference shifts: four instances concern faulty position of hind legs or the work of muscles and joints, not a gait type. <i>[A]sk for an extended trot when the inside hind is on the ground so that the horse can propel himself forward. [T]he lateral distance is about five centimeters shorter in the collected walk than in the medium and extended walks.</i>
extension (N) 31/2.67	N: extension – 20 V: extend – 11	L5-R5: collection (8). Clusters: collection and extension (4). <i>[T]hink of the lateral work, collection and extension as having the ability to enhance the personality of the horse. [T]he forward-driving aids go through a soft poll and jaw, whether we are collecting or extending.</i>
fall out (V) 16/1.38	V: fall out – 12 NP: falling out – 4	<i>Everything you do with your hands he'll mirror with his shoulders. Drop one or move them apart and he'll do the same – he'll fall in or out.</i>
figure (N) 22/1.89	N	<i>Just like half-halts, flexions, or leg cues, figures serve the purpose of changing the horse's equilibrium, activating his hindquarters, and loosening his back, among other resulting postural changes. [W]hatever movement, figure, or pattern you do in dressage, the outside shoulder is where his balance needs to be.</i>
figure of eight (NP) 14/1.20	NP: figure-of-eight – 1 NP: figure eight/figure-eight – 9/4	<i>I felt him take a deep breath, and he bravely marched forward. In just a few minutes, we were trotting figure-eights around the equipment!</i>
fitness (N) 42/3.61	N: fitness – 23 A: fit – 19	Reference shifts: four A instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>It can take up to a year to develop the fitness necessary to handle an hour's worth of walk, trot, and canter. The thinking goes: "Heck, I'm out here trotting around and doing all kinds of stuff; doesn't that make him fitter?" Unfortunately, it doesn't.</i>
flexibility (N) 47/4.05	N: flexibility – 28 A: flexible – 19	Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>The rib cage, which has little lateral flexibility, just moves in the direction to which the horse is bent. Balance is being flexible to be able to swing with the horse's movement.</i>

flexion (N) 275/23.67	N: flexion/flexing – 131/13 A: flexed/flexing – 24/18 V: flex – 89	L1: longitudinal (12). R1: [flexing:] rein (10). L5-R5: bend (26), left (21), jaw (16), right (14), inside (12), neck (10). Clusters: flexion of the haunches (12), flexion and bend (7). Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>[A]s the elevation of the head and neck increases, the longitudinal flexion of the neck and poll has to increase as well.</i> <i>[R]ide a 10-meter volte in each corner to develop the proper bend and flexion in the corners.</i> <i>When a horse flexes to the left or right, he's flexing at the poll.</i>
FOOTFALL (N) 33/2.84	N	R1: sequence (9). <i>As in music, the Rhythm of the footfall sequence is inextricably linked to the Tempo.</i> <i>Only when a rider aids in the rhythm of the horse's footfalls will they make sense to the horse.</i>
forehand (N) 35/3.01	N	L5-R5: haunches, hindquarters (5). Clusters: around his forehand (5). <i>You always want a prompt response to your leg aid, but you don't just want him spinning around his forehand haphazardly.</i> <i>If the horse raises his forehand adequately and uses his hindquarters and back effectively because of your help, you'll be in equilibrium.</i>
forehand, on the (PP) 33/2.84	PP: on * forehand – 23 PP: onto * forehand – 9 PP: on to the forehand – 1	Clusters: fall onto the forehand (4). <i>If you think show hunters are "on their forehand," wait until you meet a cutting horse. I would imagine that at times a good cutting horse will have 80 percent of his weight on his forehand, yet he is poised and balanced in his work.</i>
forward (ADV) 439/37.78	ADV: forward/forwards – 339/2 A: forward – 88 N: forwardness/forward – 7/3	L1: go (75), more (23), move (21), hand (8), body (6). R1: in, into (15), from (11), motion, with (8), energy, through (7). L5-R5: hand (22), hind leg (18), canter, trot (16), push (18), aid, back [ADV], energy (14), ask (13), down, walk (11), contact, outside [A], stride (10), drive [V] (9). Clusters: forward into the (11), forward and down, desire to go forward (8), go more forward (6). Reference shifts: 56 instances (53 ADV and three A) describe the rider, not the horse. <i>Everything is connected, and your horse has the desire to go forward—not speedily, but energetically and actively.</i> <i>Get your horse forward so that when you put your leg on, you can ride into a forward canter.</i> <i>Now... is your horse warmed up? The answer is "yes" if he's forward—not only over the ground, but in his thinking.</i>
FRAME (N) 68/5.85	N: frame/framework – 61/2 V: frame – 5	Clusters: frame of mind (6), the horse's frame (4). Reference shifts: the horse's <i>frame of mind</i> (6), the rider's body – <i>framework/unmovable frame</i> (2/5), <i>frame</i> [V] (5). <i>When done properly with the horse in a rounded frame, rein-backs put the same demand on the horse as sit-ups or crunches do for us humans.</i> <i>He needs to be in a confident frame of mind, where he can place his trust in us, his herd leader.</i>
free (A) 13/1.12	A: free – 10 ADV: freely – 5 V: free/free up – 1/3	<i>[T]hey need to move through their shoulders, keeping them loose and free.</i> <i>[A] lot of dressage horses' movement would be improved by a good swift gallop to free up their back muscles</i>

FREEDOM (N) 16/1.38	N	Clusters: shoulder freedom (5), freedom of movement (4). <i>If the rider merely sits passively, his weight alone can sometimes be enough to diminish the freedom of movement of the horse's back.</i>
gait (N) 160/13.77	N: gait – 159 A: gaited – 1	L1: working (10), collected (9), three (5). L5-R5: transition (15), basic, from (8), speed, rhythm, tempo (7), down, walk (6), between (5). <i>[W]hen you do the downward transition back to the working gait, be sure that you close your legs. You need to ride him more forward, almost into a lengthening, to create rhythm in the gait. [d]own transition from a more extended gait to a more collected gait.</i>
gallop (N) 24/2.07	N: gallop/galloping – 3/8 A: galloping – 2 V: gallop – 11	<i>[A] lot of dressage horses' movement would be improved by a good swift gallop to free up their back muscles. Aetes turned around and galloped back to the other side of the ring . . . where there was a box.</i>
gripping (A) 21/1.81	A: gripping – 3 N: grip/gripping/gripper – 2/6/1 V: grip – 9	<i>This exercise . . . can be done in all three gaits at the longe line. It's a great cure for "grippers". Gripping with your heels or hanging on the reins like a drunk on a lamppost will produce predictable, but not desirable, results.</i>
hacking (N) 14/1.20	N: hacking/hack – 3/5 V: hack – 6	<i>Expect the same from your horse out hacking as you do in the school, so he is clear what you want.</i>
half-halt (N) 185/15.92	N: half-halt/half halt – 24/146 N: half-halting – 1 A: half halting – 1 V: half-halt/half halt – 5/8	L1: invisible (6), strong (4). R1: idea (7). L5-R5: transition (6), balance (5). Clusters: half goes and half-halt ideas (4). <i>Anticipation, together with those invisible half halts, can make the execution of your dressage tests easier. If the half halt is consistently too strong or uneducated, the stopping aid . . . restricts the horse's hind legs. The outside hind leg can be asked to flex and carry more by applying half halts and/or riding down transitions.</i>
half-pass (NP) 64/5.51	NP: half-pass/half pass – 4/60	<i>After you ride half pass to the left, you would not be able to circle to the right without first establishing bend to the right. I walk Brentina on a long rein for . . . 10 minutes, then pick up the reins and do a little shoulder-in and half-pass.</i>
half-pirouette (NP) 12/1.03	NP: half pirouette – 9 NP: half (a) * pirouette – 3	<i>However, the greater engagement and lowering of the horse's hindquarters brought about by the greater demands of the canter half pirouette will encourage even better throughness of the right hind leg. [T]ransition to walk and make half a walk pirouette to the right.</i>
halt (N) 71/6.11	N: halt/halting – 58/1 V: halt – 12	L5-R5: trot (22), walk (16), transition (15). Clusters: at the halt (18), from the halt (5). <i>[R]ide trot-halt and trot-walk transitions to encourage him to engage his hindquarters and lighten in front. You want to be able to halt, walk, trot, canter, and slow down from your voice alone.</i>

hand (N) 370/31.85	N	L1: outside (27), right (17), both, left (14), one (10), each (7). L5-R5: rein (30), forward (21), into (19), bit (17), contact, seat [N] (15), feel (15), back [ADV], fist (12). Clusters: the rider's hand(s) (19), legs and hands, hands and legs, close your outside hand (8), in your hands, to the hand, in the hand (7). <i>Even contact means you feel equal weight in both hands because your horse isn't hanging on either rein.</i> <i>By doing so, you're telling his right hind leg to go forward into your right hand.</i> <i>Your outside hand closes in a fist while your vibrating inside hand keeps the neck straight and asks for flexion.</i>
hand, inside (NP) 13/1.12	NP	<i>To check to see if your horse correctly connects to the outside rein, give your inside hand forward while the outside hand remains steady in order to receive the contact.</i>
harmony (N) 48/4.13	N: harmony – 39 A: harmonious – 9	L1: in (8). R1: with (6). <i>[T]he horse's brain and body are already in harmony with the rider in the corner.</i> <i>These upward and downward transitions . . . teach the horse to listen to the rider's body aids to achieve a harmonious balance.</i>
haunches (N) 108/9.30	N	L5-R5: outside (11), inside (8), back (7), forehand (6). Clusters: flexion of the haunches (12). <i>[I]ncreasing the collection (deeper flexion of the haunches) should also result in greater impulsion.</i> <i>[A] true flexion of the haunches is only possible with an increased elevation.</i> <i>In both movements, the horse's haunches are on the outside track, while the shoulders are on the inside track.</i>
haunches in (NP) 37/3.18	NP: haunches-in – 36 VP: swing the haunches in – 1	L5-R5: shoulder-in (13), half pass (10), renvers (9). Clusters: in the haunches-in (6), haunches-in renvers and *, shoulder-in and haunches-in (4). <i>Another way of alternating between carrying and thrusting is to ride sequences of shoulder-in and renvers, shoulder-in and haunches-in, counter-shoulder-in and haunches-in, or counter-shoulder-in and renvers.</i>
hindquarters (N) 90/7.75	N	L5-R5: weight (15), back [N] (12), forehand, neck (6). Clusters: on his hindquarters (7), back and hindquarters (6). <i>The horse with third-degree collection carries a minimum of 55 percent of his weight on the hindquarters.</i> <i>[F]igures serve the purpose of changing the horse's equilibrium, activating his hindquarters, and loosening his back.</i>
horsemanship (N) 16/1.38	N	L1: natural (4). <i>In natural horsemanship, the horse that is scared will never be trapped on the spot but always given room to move.</i>
impulsion (N) 101/8.69	N	L1: more (6). L5-R5: collection (16), energy (11), more (10), contact (9), straightness (8), create (7), suppleness (6), balance (5). Clusters: impulsion and collection (9). <i>Most of the time our problem is to create the impulsion we need for positive tension.</i> <i>[C]ertain blockages in the horse's body can be swept away and dissolved by increasing the impulsion.</i> <i>[T]rying to obtain impulsion and collection before relaxation and trust . . . would only lead to tension and fear.</i>

inside (A) 214/18.42	A: inside – 155 N: inside – 57 P: inside – 2	R1: rein (56), shoulder (13), seat bone (11), track (10), calf, knee (7), eye (6), hip (4). L5-R5: shoulder (29), bend (17), toward(s) (12), weight (11), aid, haunches (9), flexion (7), arena, circle (6). Clusters: to the inside (51), on the inside (27), the inside of the (12), towards the inside (5). <i>[Y]our inside rein is guiding his head in a little bit so that you can just see the corner of his inside eye.</i> <i>Place your weight on the inside stirrup and inside seat bone so your horse can stay balanced and pick up the inside lead.</i> <i>The horse is bending towards the inside of the arena, in the direction of travel.</i>
irregular (A) 12/1.03	A: irregular – 6 N: irregularity – 6	<i>His trot may get so irregular that he almost looks and feels lame.</i>
lameness (N) 12/1.03	N: lameness – 5 A: lame – 7	<i>[A]n unbalanced horse is uncomfortable to ride and much more likely to go lame.</i>
lateral (A) 99/8.52	A: lateral – 69 ADV: laterally – 30	R1: work (16), bend (15). L5-R5: longitudinally (7), neck (6). <i>Thorough schooling in the lateral work will serve to improve the horse's suspension and brilliance.</i> <i>a lateral false bend at the base of the neck which disconnects the neck from the shoulders</i>
lazy (A) 44/3.79	A: lazy – 42 N: laziness – 2	R1: horse (17). <i>[L]ike people, some horses are lazier than others, and may need more rider input to get them going.</i> <i>[E]asy-going, phlegmatic horses often choose an “inner emigration” and become incredibly dull and lazy instead.</i>
leg, in front of the (PP) 24/2.07	PP: in front of * leg – 13 PP: in front of me/the rider/you – 1/1/3 PP: in front of * seat – 2 PP: in front of * driving aids – 4	Reference shifts: the border for the horse's energy (the term is metaphoric) is expressed by four different referents (<i>leg, rider, seat and driving aids</i>). <i>If a horse kicks out, it is a sign that its rider did not keep it in front of the leg.</i> <i>[T]he horse must feel in front of the rider who does not have to kick to keep going.</i> <i>If the tempo slows down, the horse is not enough in front of the driving aids yet.</i>
leg, inside (NP) 163/14.03	NP: inside leg – 79 NP: inside * leg – 72 NP: inside * – 12	L5-R5: rein (14), girth (12), cross (11), bend (10), around (9). <i>[I]f you're going around a corner, your inside leg and outside rein can help you move farther into the corner.</i> <i>Look for your horse's inside hind leg to cross over the outside hind leg three times on each side of the square.</i> <i>[W]hen viewed from behind, the tracks you see are outside hind, inside hind and outside fore, and inside fore.</i>
leg-yielding (NP) 75/6.45	NP: leg-yielding/leg yielding – 16/8 NP: leg-yield/leg yield – 5/38 VP: leg-yield/leg yield – 2/6	Clusters: leg yield or shoulder-in (6). <i>Upon reaching the opposite side of the circle, change direction and begin again with the leg yield or shoulder-in.</i> <i>Trot a 15m circle, then leg-yield out to about 20m.</i> <i>[H]is canter depart improved if I practiced inside leg-yielding on a circle before I asked for a canter depart.</i>
lengthening (N) 66/5.68	N: lengthening – 56 V: lengthen – 10	L1: trot (22). <i>Before you even begin to ask for a trot lengthening, make sure you drive the horse's hind legs more under his body.</i> <i>It's a bonus if you have a horse that can naturally lengthen his trot.</i>
length of stride (NP) 36/3.10	NP: stride length – 36	L5-R5: tempo (23), rhythm (6), energy (5). Clusters: tempo and stride length (11), tempo stride length (6). <i>[D]ressage horses are trained to change speed within a gait not . . . by adjusting the stride length.</i> <i>The seat then dictates the rhythm, tempo, stride length, and direction of the horse's movement.</i>

lift (N) 29/2.50	N: lift off/lifting – 1/4 A: lifted – 1 V: lift/lift off/lift up – 19/3/1	L5-R5: back [N] (14). Reference shifts: only nine instances concern the horse’s legs (as in term definition); the remaining 20 describe other parts of its body, mainly the carrying function of the back. <i>The result is a snappier lift off and a higher arch of the hind leg on this side, with better hock flexion.</i> <i>Trying to achieve collection by working on the horse’s neck cuts the horse off in the front, confining him and preventing the hind legs from lifting, suspending and powerfully supporting the rider’s balance.</i>
light (A) [aid application] 98/8.43	A: light – 74 ADV: lightly – 17 N: lightness/lightening – 2/1 V: lighten – 4	R1: leg (9), aid (8), seat (6), contact (5). L5-R5: aid (23), leg (22), contact (13), rein (7), steady (5). Clusters: light leg aid (8). <i>[Y]ou’re not just using the whip as if it is something you would normally do – this is a correction, so that you can then use a lighter leg aid.</i> <i>Try it: Lightly close your legs. If he moves off immediately and eagerly, you’re in business.</i>
lightness (N) [horse’s feature] 46/3.96	N: lightness – 26 A: light – 16 V: lighten – 4	<i>Some people limit the concept of lightness to the rein pressure they feel in their hands, which leads them to mistake the absence of contact for lightness. However, the issue goes far beyond mere rein contact.</i> <i>As he carries more weight behind, he grows more uphill and light in self-carriage.</i>
longeing/lungeing (N) 76/6.54	N: lo/ungeing – 14/6 N: lo/unge – 28/7 A: lo/ungeing – 1/1 V: lo/unge – 15/4	R1: line (21). Contrary to term definition, the spelling with “u” is far less common. <i>Correct lungeing, basic ridden work and a broadly based plan of training are usually required.</i> <i>I start all horses the same way. First, I saddle them and put them on a longe line.</i>
longitudinal (A) 45/3.87	A: longitudinal – 32 ADV: longitudinally – 13	R1: flexion (12), balance (7). Clusters: longitudinal flexion (6), longitudinally and laterally (4). <i>To the extent that the elevation of the neck becomes higher, the longitudinal flexion of the neck as well as the poll has to increase in order to keep the horse on the bit.</i> <i>A horse who is longitudinally unbalanced will look for a fifth leg in the rider’s hand to hold him up.</i>
<i>loose</i> (A) 19/1.64	A	L5-R5: supple (5). Reference shifts: four instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s (contrary to term definition). <i>If a horse has what we called a “warm back”--a loose, supple and oscillating back--he can lift the rider.</i>
LOOSENESS (N) 34/2.93	N: looseness/loosening – 7/15 V: loosen – 12	<i>[S]loped terrain encourages the horse to use his back in a way that improves looseness along his dorsal muscles.</i> <i>I always start by loosening my horse in a free walk for at least 10 minutes but usually longer.</i>
<u>losgelassenheit</u> (N) 17/1.46	N	14 instances appear in texts by a German author Thomas Ritter. <i>Many English speaking riders use the term “calmness” instead of “Losgelassenheit”, which brings a shift in connotation with it. Calmness is a part of Losgelassenheit, but correctly understood, Losgelassenheit goes far beyond mere calmness.</i>
medium (A) 32/2.75	A: medium – 30 N: medium – 2	L5-R5: walk (13), extended (12), trot, canter (8), collected (7). Clusters: medium and extended (6). Reference shifts: one N instance relates to the horse’s posture, not gaits (contrary to term definition). <i>[T]he head tends to nod more in the medium and the extended walk than in the collected walk.</i> <i>Strike off in left lead canter and ride a lively medium canter across the diagonal.</i>

<i>movement</i> (N) 285/24.53	N	Term definition provides dressage meaning: “an element of a dressage test” (Diggle, 2005: 158) and leaves aside the meaning of locomotion. Still, the latter has as many as 110 instances, so it is discussed separately below. Movement as an element of a dressage test (175): L1: dressage (16). L5-R5: exercise (15). <i>When you start riding the dressage movements, keep in mind that your priority is maintaining rhythm and tempo as you do those movements.</i> <i>Each exercise and movement influences the horse’s gait and posture in specific ways.</i> Movement as locomotion (110): L5-R5: natural (8), direction (6). <i>[M]ankind destroys things that he touches in the natural world, including the natural movement of the horse.</i> <i>Eventually this exercise is converted into a half pass, where the horse is bent in the direction of the movement.</i>
movement, lateral (NP) 63/5.42	NP	<i>As the next level of difficulty in bending in motion, lateral movements are introduced to the horse as soon as he has mastered bending his spine along curved lines on a single track.</i> <i>To sum up, the lateral movements are intended to improve the quality of the horse’s gaits.</i>
nervousness (N) 22/1.89	N: nervousness – 7 A: nervous – 15	Reference shifts: two A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>They tend to back off as soon as their horse shows any sign of nervousness or discomfort.</i> <i>You have to pay attention to the horse and not rush things and make it nervous.</i>
OBEDIENCE (N) 32/2.75	N	L5-R5: aids (8), leg (6). Clusters: obedience to the * (7). <i>Without obedience to the driving aids, the seat and rein aids have nothing to work with.</i> <i>Increase the intensity of your leg aid, and your horse will show obedience to the leg by stepping away from it.</i>
obedient (A) 22/1.89	A	<i>Your horse also needs to be obedient to your rein aids.</i> <i>This will help make your horse more obedient to shoulder-in as well as to forward aids.</i>
outside (A) 334/28.75	A: outside – 282 ADV: outside – 1 N: outside – 49 P: outside – 2	R1: rein (70), leg (57), hand (27), aid, hind [=hind leg] (10), shoulder (7). L5-R5: leg (155), rein (101), inside (67), hind (63), front (25), bend (21), shoulder (20), toward(s) (16), girth (14), cross (12), forward (10). Clusters: outside hind leg (29), outside front leg (14). <i>Some horses will step backwards, so that the inside hind leg crosses behind the outside hind leg instead of in front of it, thus rendering the exercise ineffective.</i> <i>If you’re tracking to the left, the left rein becomes the outside rein in the leg yield.</i> <i>The timing of the half halt to the outside hind is the same as that used for the half halt to ask for reach from the inside hind since the outside hind leg is on the ground when the inside is in the air.</i>
OVERFLEXED (A) 15/1.29	A: overflexed – 9 N: overflexion/overflexing – 2/2 V: overflex – 2	Clusters: deep and overflexed method (6). <i>The Old Masters would argue that the deep and overflexed method is likely to create false bends through excessive lateral and/or longitudinal flexion.</i>
pace [=gait] (N) 27/2.32	N	L1: natural (7). <i>[M]ost of us have seen a young horse with outstanding natural paces.</i> <i>Collected and medium paces ask for more engagement and thrust from his haunches.</i>

passage (N) 25/2.15	N	Clusters: piaffe and passage (6), piaffe passage and * (4). <i>[I]t is also much easier to make the horse understand piaffe, and then you can bring him from piaffe to the passage. The best riders of piaffe and passage are not the strongest but those who can channel the impulsion with half halts.</i>
PHASE (N) 34/2.93	N	L1: stance (11), airborne (5), swing (4). <i>Later in the stance phase the longitudinal force becomes positive, and . . . it acts to propel the horse forward. The walk is a stepping gait, which means that . . . there is no airborne phase (or suspension).</i>
piaffe (N) 31/2.67	N: piaffe – 30 A: piaffing – 1	Clusters: piaffe and passage (6), piaffe passage and * (4). <i>Normally, the horse sequentially learns the short steps first, then the forward-moving piaffe, then the strong piaffe and then . . . we ride the horse forward into the passage.</i>
pirouette (N) 25/2.15	N	Clusters: quarter pirouette (5), canter pirouette (4). <i>When it comes time to teach the canter pirouettes, you can teach them from counter canter. Ride down the long side about six to seven feet off the actual track, and then ask for the pirouette toward the wall.</i>
poll (N) 114/9.81	N	R1: to (11). L5-R5: neck (26). Clusters: at the poll (12), neck and poll (11), in the poll (10), poll and neck (6), from poll to tail (5). <i>If the haunches swing out, the horse leans onto the inside shoulder, and the neck and poll still remain locked up. The neck should continue as a logical extension from the rib cage, and the horse should be flexed at the poll. flex and bend your horse from poll to tail according to the first 10-meter comer</i>
position [=bend of horse] (N) 93/8.00	N: position/positioning – 72/6 A: positioned – 4 V: position – 11	L1: neck (7), head (5). L5-R5: head (15), neck (12), right (6), haunches, left (5). Reference shifts: 44 instances convey the defined meaning (the bend), while the remaining 49 concern the horse's body/body part position in general, not necessarily with any bend involved. <i>Think of moving his face only one inch to the left and one inch to the right so you can just see his inside eye and/or nostril (this is also called position left and position right or flexion and counter-flexion). The rider knows that he has found the right head and neck position when the impulses of the hind legs reach the bit.</i>
position [of rider] (N) 71/6.11	N	L1: correct (7), neutral (5). L5-R5: body (6). <i>The unfortunate fact is that the crooked rider thinks he is straight. The correct position feels very uncomfortable and very wrong. That's why you need a trainer who can watch you and analyze your position.</i>
posting (N) 20/1.72	N: posting – 9 A: posting – 8 V: post – 3	Clusters: posting trot (8). <i>Then I ask for a lengthening in posting trot. While posting to the trot, I rise very high and stay in the air a fraction of a second longer than normal.</i>
posture (N) 42/3.61	N: posture – 40 A: postural – 2	L5-R5: balance, correct (5). Only 7 instances (N) concern the rider, though the definition says that <i>posture</i> is more commonly applied to him. <i>I was very impressed by the sophisticated equine “professors” who moved in a posture of big, rounded necks. [H]is posture should evolve naturally as he is able to carry himself with a “rounded” back.</i>

punishment (N) 22/1.89	N: punishment/punishing – 9/1 A: punishing – 1 V: punish – 11	Reference shifts: one instance concerns the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Anger and punishment is inappropriate in the training of a sensitive horse.</i> <i>Don't punish him if he doesn't obey immediately. Repetition will solve most problems.</i>
PURITY (N) 12/1.03	N: purity – 7 A: pure – 5	<i>[G]ood dressage training should always develop the horse's natural gaits, improve their quality, their purity, and promote the soundness and well-being of the horse.</i>
QUALITY (N) 55/4.73	N: quality – 52 A: quality – 3	L5-R5: walk (8), canter, improve, more (5). Reference shifts (35): 16 instances concern abstract training notions, ten – particular exercises, six – the horse and three – the rider. Only 20 instances concern the gait, in line with the definition. <i>In dressage competition, the quality of the walk contributes to the collective score for the gaits.</i> <i>In principle, you can use this system to improve a horse of any quality.</i>
QUICK (A) 66/5.68	A: quick – 36 ADV: quickly – 21 N: quickness/quickening – 2/1 V: quicken – 6	Clusters: quick to + V/quick to + N/NP (7). Reference shifts: term definition explains <i>quick</i> as “fast” and relating only to the tempo, but 37 instances concern the rider's and the horse's actions. <i>Then when you shorten the strides, keep the same quick tempo by moving your seat “as if” you're still lengthening.</i> <i>I . . . change the bend into a leg-yielding position for a few strides, trying to make the horse quicker to that leg.</i>
REACH (N) 39/3.36	N: reach/reaching – 10/1 V: reach – 28	L5-R5: hind leg (12), forward (5). Reference shifts: nine instances concern the rider and his aids, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>When asking for greater reach, we influence the flight pattern of a hind leg when it is . . . articulated the most.</i> <i>If the hind legs are dragging out behind, . . . the hind legs are literally out of reach for the seat.</i>
regular (A) 16/1.38	A	<i>In a regular rhythm, the footfalls are separated by equal intervals of time.</i>
REGULARITY (N) 17/1.46	N	<i>Training a dressage horse, year after year, results in the enhancement of his natural paces. The freedom and regularity of the horse's walk, trot and canter should improve.</i>
rein (N) 366/31.50	N: rein – 361 NP: shoulder-reining – 2 VP: shoulder-rein – 3	L1: outside (60), inside (47), both (8), one (7). R1: pressure (12). L5-R5: outside (80), inside (69), hand (24), pull (19), both (15), weight (12), bend, support (11), seat (10). Clusters: on the reins (22), rein and leg (7), inside leg to outside rein, pick up the reins, pull on the reins (5). <i>He (the rider) must also pull the outside rein inward periodically, in order to bring the horse's outside shoulder in.</i> <i>If the shoulder follows the rein pressure, the horse leans onto this shoulder and remains stiff and braced in the neck.</i> <i>The most common longitudinal false bend occurs . . . when the rider forces the horse's head down with the reins.</i>
rein, left (NP) 17/1.46	NP	<i>We have to be very careful and tactful in correcting the problem, gradually helping the left muscles become longer and being softer in your left rein.</i>
rein, loose (NP) 16/1.38	NP: loose rein – 13 NP: rein too loose – 1 rein + V + loose – 1 the looser the rein – 1	<i>The horse's ability to perform on soft or loose reins is a hallmark of self-carriage.</i> <i>If his neck bends to the outside and the outside rein becomes loose, the connecting aids didn't “go through”.</i>

rein, on the right (PP) 12/1.03	PP: on/onto the right rein – 11 PP: on your outside right rein – 1	<i>Riding shoulder-fore on the right rein, come onto the long side and start as if you were going to ride a 10-metre circle in the corner.</i>
rein, right (NP) 19/1.64	NP	<i>By using your opening right rein and your supporting left rein, you can transfer some of the responsibility for going sideways away from your leg and into your reins.</i>
reins, give and re-take the (VP) 16/1.38	VP: give the rein/reins – 5/1 VP: give in the rein – 1 VP: give with the rein/reins – 3/1 NP: giving away the reins – 1 NP: giving with the rein – 1 NP: taking and giving on the rein – 1 VP: take the rein – 1 VP: retake the reins – 1	Only 1 instance (<i>taking and giving on the rein</i>) includes both verbs. The term form seems very unstable. Then you can give a little with the outside rein , and you will see that gradually a larger portion of the neck begins to participate in the bend. <i>[R]einforce the bending aids by softly taking and giving on the inside rein to help keep your horse flexed to the inside along the arc of the circle.</i>
rein, side (NP) 16/1.38	NP	<i>[F]rom a physiological standpoint, auxiliary aids like side reins are not the cure-all that many riders hope.</i>
RELAX (N) 100/8.61	N: relaxing – 7 A: relaxing – 2 V: relax – 91	L5-R5: body, feel, stretch (5). Clusters: able to relax (6). Reference shifts: 28 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Chewing and relaxing of his neck are big training indicators that a horse is mentally ready to communicate. When you see and feel these things, relax your aids back to a light contact on his sides and with his mouth. Once you feel him relax, gradually allow the tempo to become more normal.</i>
RELAXATION (N) 57/4.91	N	L5-R5: rhythm (12), balance (9), suppleness (8). Clusters: rhythm and relaxation (5). <i>Rhythm and relaxation are the basis to all dressage training. Just like balance, relaxation has a mental dimension, too. If a horse is mentally tense, he will not be able to relax physically either.</i>
<i>relaxed</i> (A) 82/7.06	A	L5-R5: mentally, muscles (6), aid, body, feel (5). Reference shifts: 17 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Good training is about keeping the horse both mentally and physically relaxed. This is how you want your horse to look: very calm, with . . . the under-muscles of his neck relaxed, and a nice “rainbow” of muscles starting to emerge along his topline.</i>
RELEASE (N) 48/4.13	N: release/releasing – 16/6 V: release – 19	Reference shifts: only 11 instances convey the definition meaning of loosening the reins. The remaining ones denote the release of aids and muscle tension. <i>[Y]ou must be able to release the rein without your horse running off from tension. [T]his most basic unit consists of TWO releases and only ONE active aid.</i>

renvers (N) 25/2.15	N	L5-R5: shoulder-in (15), haunches (11), half pass (6). Clusters: shoulder-in and renvers (6), haunches in renvers (5). <i>The haunches-in, renvers, and half pass supple the belly muscles and the outside hip. Counter-shoulder-in and renvers share the bend towards the outside of the arena.</i>
resistance (N) 50/4.30	N: resistance/resisting – 31/3 V: resist – 16	Reference shifts: seven instances denote resistance related to the rider and/or equipment, not the horse's resistance. <i>The greatest source of resistances can usually be found in the conformation of the poll, jaw, and throat latch. In most cases, you will find some resistance in the poll at first.</i>
responsiveness (N) 87/7.49	N: responsiveness/response – 8/67 A: responsive – 12	R1: to (31). L5-R5: aid (23), get, leg (10), forward (7). Reference shifts: four instances of <i>response</i> denote the biological reaction of muscles or the nervous system, not the horse's conscious reaction to the aids as in term definition. <i>Particularly with a horse of high rideability, you can find the willingness to please the rider and the responsiveness to praise through voice, a pat or a quick walk break. You always want a prompt response to your leg aid, but you don't just want him spinning around his forehand haphazardly.</i>
reward (N) 39/3.36	N: reward/rewarding – 12/3 A: rewarding – 1 V: reward – 23	Reference shifts: three instances concern the rider, who is rewarded by the horse with good behavior. <i>As soon as the horse responds, I immediately lighten my driving aids as a reward. Continue to encourage and reward enthusiastic forward motion without loss of rhythm.</i>
rhythm (N) 241/20.74	N: rhythm – 205 A: rhythmic/rhythmical – 22/4 ADV: rhythmically – 10	L5-R5: tempo (22), balance (14), good, relaxation (12), regularity (10), length, maintaining, regular, same (9), body (8), even, stride (7). Clusters: rhythm and tempo (10), the same rhythm (5), rhythm and relaxation (5). <i>The seat then dictates the rhythm, tempo, stride length, and direction of the horse's movement. When you can accurately stay on that balance beam, qualities such as rhythm, straightness, bend and suppleness will almost magically appear. The rider's aids are a rhythmic structuring device for the horse's footfalls which can accentuate, enhance, or diminish different aspects of each stride, as needed.</i>
rounded (A) 16/1.38	A	<i>While high and hollow is essentially hell on a horse, high headed and well rounded not only allows a horse to look farther ahead but can also feel heavenly for both the rider and the horse.</i>
school [=arena] (N) 37/3.18	N	22 instances concern institutions (e.g. Spanish Riding School), which were included in this term and not <i>schooling</i> because those institutions are less abstract than the latter term: they are strongly associated with their specific locations and their heart is often a famous riding arena. Clusters: Spanish Riding School (14), Half School Line (8). <i>Begin by riding Whole School on the left rein. Make a left turn at B onto the Half School Line. Students at the Spanish Riding School . . . , must first ride on a longe line, sometimes for up to two years.</i>
schooling (N) 76/6.54	N: schooling/school – 39/11 A: schooled – 20 V: school – 6	R1: session (13). <i>After I have completed my schooling session, . . . I again warm my horse down. A well-schooled horse will collect on even sagging reins into a piaffe or school canter.</i>

schoolmaster (N) 12/1.03	N	<i>Riding a well-trained, balanced horse is much easier than riding a poorly trained or untrained horse, so a correct schoolmaster is a tremendous support for the beginning rider who is trying to develop an independent seat.</i>
seat (N) 216/18.59	N	L1: light (6), correct, dressage (5), balanced, good (4). R1: leg (6). L5-R5: leg (53), aid (22), rein (21), weight (14), balanced (11), hand (10), driving (9), correct, light (8), dressage (7). Clusters: seat and legs (10), seat and rein aids (6). <i>Be very aware of your seat structure and leg position.</i> <i>An interesting observation you can make is that when the rider's seat is balanced and connected in his or her own waist, the horse's back will be connected, i.e. it will rise and swing.</i> <i>When you use your driving seat to ask for the transition into the trot lengthening, don't try to 'help' your horse to lengthen by leaning back.</i>
self-carriage (NP) 58/4.99	NP: self-carriage/self carriage – 43/15	<i>The horse in self-carriage is a pleasure to watch. He moves like a dancer and feels like a sports car.</i> <i>If you go limp in your midsection, you will find that your horse starts leaning on your hand, because he is rapidly losing self carriage, especially if you collapse forward.</i>
serpentine (N) 18/1.55	N	<i>The three loop serpentine is based on the same geometric principles as the 20 meter circle.</i>
shortening (N) 24/2.07	N: shortening – 7 A: shortened – 2 V: shorten – 15	<i>The initial shortening of the canter stride--best done on a circle in training--prepares the horse for the transition to trot.</i> <i>Your hands take and give to ask your horse to shorten his steps.</i>
shoulder-fore (NP) 16/1.38	NP	<i>Riding shoulder-fore on the right rein, come onto the long side and start as if you were going to ride a 10-metre circle in the corner.</i>
shoulder-in (NP) 145/12.48	NP	L1: counter-/counter (21). L5-R5: renvers (17), haunches (16), half pass (9), travers (8), circle (7). Clusters: leg-yield or shoulder-in, shoulder-in and counter-shoulder-in, shoulder-in and renvers (6). <i>Another way of alternating between carrying and thrusting is to ride sequences of shoulder-in and renvers, shoulder-in and haunches-in, counter-shoulder-in and haunches-in, or counter-shoulder-in and renvers.</i> <i>Haunches-in and counter-shoulder-in also share the relative position of hips and shoulders.</i>
side, short (NP) 12/1.03	NP	<i>Establish a very collected left lead counter canter--almost in place--four strides in front of the short side.</i>
speed (N) 68/5.85	N: speed/speeding – 47/13 ADV: speedily – 1 V: speed up – 7	R1: up (16). L5-R5: gait (7). <i>The feeling rider never creates more speed with the leg and seat than he can control in the front.</i> <i>[W]hen a horse holds tension in his back . . . , he will tend to speed up in response to the driving aids.</i>
spur (N) 20/1.72	N: spur – 19 N: spurring – 1	<i>When I was . . . yanking, whipping, and spurring, it was all about me. It was never about the horse.</i> <i>Kicking and jabbing with the leg or spur are also unhorsemanlike and counter productive.</i>

STEP (N) 224/19.28	N: step/stepping – 147/12 A: stepping – 3 V: step – 62	Phrasal verbs: step under (22), step underneath (8), step sideways, step into (5), step forward (3), step backward(s), step out, step over, step through (2). L1: few (8), every (6), each, first, slower, two (5). L5-R5: hind (18), ask (17), more (16), shorter (13), leg, walk (12), forward (11), longer, sideways (8), three (7), length, short (6). Clusters: a few steps (7). <i>Ask for a few steps, straighten down the long side and then repeat. It is better to ask for a few steps at a time. [H]is strides will be longer and less frequent, because his hind legs will be stepping farther under his body. [U]se a half-halt idea to ask for slower, shorter steps.</i>
STIFF (A) 81/6.97	A: stiff – 80 ADV: stiffly – 1	L5-R5: side (13), back [N], hollow, left, muscles (5). Clusters: the stiffer side (5). Reference shifts: 18 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>As long as the horse is still crooked, he will carry more weight on his stiffer side. As a result, the rider is able to detect which muscles are stiff from lack of use or from habitual tension.</i>
stiffness (N) 34/2.93	N: stiffness/stiffening – 23/4 V: stiffen – 7	L5-R5: side (13), back [N], hollow, left, muscle (5). Clusters: stiffness in the (6), stiffness and bracing (3). Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>When the stiffness in the poll is removed, the horse is suddenly more in front of the rider's legs. If he stiffens against your hand or tilts his head when you ask him to flex . . ., you probably need to supple his poll.</i>
stirrup (N) 25/2.15	N	<i>Then slowly go into the light seat again. As you do so, feel how you pass on the weight from your stirrups over your knees and thighs to your seat bones, back down to your stirrups.</i>
straightening (N) 44/3.79	N: straightening – 9 A: straightened/straightening – 1/2 V: straighten – 32	Clusters: straighten(ing) (*) horse (16), straighten him [=the horse] (4). <i>[Y]ou have created a valuable tool that can improve the canter by straightening and strengthening his muscles. On the second step, begin to straighten your horse as if you were going to ride on the diagonal.</i>
straightness (N) 119/10.24	N: straightness – 57 A: straight – 62	L1: balance (8), neck (5). L5-R5: balance (27). Clusters: straightness and balance (5), balance and straightness (4). Reference shifts: 17 A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Impulsion is listed before straightness and collection in the training scale. On the other hand, impulsion can only develop if the horse is straight, balanced, and supple in his body. [Y]our horse can't be straight if you're not straight. [B]ook some lunge lessons and take up Pilates or yoga.</i>

<p>strength (N) 148/12.74</p>	<p>N: strength – 51 A: strong – 87 ADV: strongly – 2 V: strengthen – 8</p>	<p>L1: too (7), physical (6). R1: half-halt/half halt (6), enough (6). L5-R5: aid (10), leg (8), balance, build, develop, muscle (5). Clusters: strength and suppleness, strong half halt (5). Reference shifts: 55 instances concern the rider and his aids, not bodily strength (all contrary to term definition). <i>She knows that developing physical strength is something that happens gradually.</i> <i>Todd Minikus is effective, not because he is the strongest rider physically, but because he knows how to put the horse in an unbelievable balance.</i> <i>Aim for aids where 'less is more'. If aids become strong, re evaluate your communications.</i></p>
<p>stretching (N) 117/10.07</p>	<p>N: stretching/stretch – 15/11 A: stretched/stretching/stretchy – 9/12/1 V: stretch – 69</p>	<p>Phrasal verbs: stretch into (7), stretch down (5), stretch down and forward/forward and down (1/4), stretch down and out/down and outward (3/1), stretch down into (1), stretch toward (1). L5-R5: muscles (14), down (12). Reference shifts: nine instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>The challenge for the trainer lies in being able to pinpoint exactly . . . which muscles are stiff, and to stretch those stiff muscles by flexing in the opposite direction, i.e. making them the outside ones.</i> <i>Jerry Schwartz gives you a six-step plan for asking your horse to stretch down into the contact.</i> <i>Your horse should respond by stretching his nose down and forward, taking an inch or two of reins through your hands. Don't actually let go of the contact.</i></p>
<p>stride (N) 174/14.98</p>	<p>N: stride – 173 V: stride out – 1</p>	<p>L1: every (12), longer (9). L5-R5: canter (15), three, two (13), forward (10), four (9). Clusters: a few strides (19). <i>After a few strides, the rider returns to the original leg yield or lateral movement.</i> <i>Then I begin a few steps of collected canter and after a few strides, transition to working canter.</i> <i>For instance, if nine changes every second stride is called to be ridden on the diagonal from the right rein, ride them from the left.</i></p>
<p>submission (N) 25/2.15</p>	<p>N: submission/submissiveness – 12/1 A: submissive – 9 V: submit – 3</p>	<p><i>This requires that the elevation is combined with willing submission of the poll.</i> <i>[T]he horse learns . . . that when he is submissive to the aids, he is comfortable and will be allowed to move freely.</i></p>
<p>suppleness (N) 157/13.51</p>	<p>N: suppleness – 62 A: supple – 75 V: supple – 20</p>	<p>L5-R5: balance (32), more (10), back [N], relaxation, soft (8), body, elastic, impulsion, muscle, poll, seat, straight (6). Clusters: strength and suppleness (5). Reference shifts: 27 instances (five N and 22 A) concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>[B]alance and suppleness should really be included in the training scale.</i> <i>If the only "something" that he hears is a direct, quiet and softly spoken aid that comes from a supple, balanced and neutral rider, his response will surely be a generous one.</i> <i>Horses with ill-developed muscles, lacking strength and suppleness, might appear to have round necks but remain still disconnected through the topline.</i></p>

suspension (N) 27/2.32	N: suspension/suspending – 22/1 A: suspended – 4	<i>False, hovering suspension . . . indicates a deficiency in either the horse’s education or the ability of the rider. The Grand Prix passage is the pinnacle of the horse’s maximum developed suspension.</i>
SWINGING (N) 19/1.64	N: swinging – 10 V: swing – 9	L1: from (8). L5-R5: haunches, out (5). <i>The rail will help restrain his haunches from swinging to the left.</i>
tempo (N) 146/12.57	N	L1: rhythm (7), same (7). R1: stride (8). L5-R5: stride (25), rhythm (22), length (21), slow (17), same, trot (12). Clusters: tempo and stride length (11), rhythm and tempo (10), the same tempo (7). <i>[I]t may be necessary to apply half halts to rebalance the horse or regulate tempo and stride length. The steps are shortened, but the rhythm and tempo stay the same as they were when the steps were longer. Ideally, a dressage horse maintains the same tempo (stride rate) in the different types of walks.</i>
TENSE (A) 42/3.61	A: tense – 39 V: tense/tense up – 1/2	Reference shifts: seven A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>When the rider punishes the horse for “misbehaving,” the horse becomes even more tense and exasperated. A rider who is unbalanced, tense, unfocused, will instill the same qualities in his horse.</i>
<i>tension</i> (N) 60/5.16	N	L1: positive (7). R1: in (10). L5-R5: positive (12), body (10), back [N], create (8). Clusters: tension in the * (5), positive body tension (4). Reference shifts: <i>positive (body) tension</i> , though the definition describes <i>tension</i> as a negative phenomenon. <i>An FEI trainer explains the training tools that can motivate and guide the horse to create positive tension. [W]hen a horse holds tension in his back . . . , he will tend to speed up in response to the driving aids.</i>
through (A) 79/6.80	A: through – 3 ADV: through – 31 P: through – 45	L1: go (23), come (7). L5-R5: aid (16), body (15), back [N] (14), hind (9), energy (7). Reference shifts: 13 instances concern the rider’s body, though term definition only concerns the horse. <i>The tense muscle group does not let the rider’s aids “go through”.</i> <i>[T]he movement of the horse’s back must go through the rider’s body undiminished. If the rider blocks the horse’s back movement with stiff joints, the horse loses impulsion . . . and turns into a legmover. The horse can never be made to work through its back by methods based on the use of force.</i>
thrust (N) 73/6.28	N: thrust/thrusting – 36/7 A: thrusting – 15 V: thrust – 15	L5-R5: hind (24), carrying (12), power (9). Clusters: ideal point of thrust (7), carrying and thrusting (5). <i>The best riders of piaffe and passage . . . can channel the impulsion with half halts to the ideal point of thrust. [O]nly when all four legs carry the same amount of weight can the rider regulate the horse’s carrying and thrusting forces as well as their ratio to one another with the necessary precision.</i>
topline (N) 29/2.50	N: topline/top line – 24/5	<i>When I’ve created a back-to-front bridge, my horse’s topline looks round and his back looks relaxed. To retrain and strengthen his topline muscles, put this horse in the opposite shape from the one he adopts.</i>

track (N) 106/9.12	N: track/tracking – 88/4 A: tracking – 1 V: track – 13	L1: single (15), inside (10), second (5). R1: left (5). L5-R5: shoulder (12), left (10), movement, haunches (5). Reference shifts: only 12 instances concern tracking left/right as mentioned by term definition. The remaining ones denote lines determined by the horse’s direction of travel, marked by the whole body or separate legs. <i>[I]n the haunches-in the hindquarters are on the inside track, while the shoulders are on the outside. In the renvers, the opposite is the case: The haunches are on the outside, while the shoulders are on the inside track. If you’re tracking left, halt at the end of the long side with your shoulder at the corner letter--K, for example.</i>
training (N) 583/50.18	N: training/trainer – 381/85 A: trainable/trained/training – 1/37/1 V: train – 78	L1: [training:] dressage (29), cross- (15), [trained:] well-/well (13). R1: [training:] level (22), method (14), session (11). L5-R5: dressage (59), level (32), good (11), problem (10). Clusters: training the horse (13), rider and trainer (10), training level dressage (7), riding and training (6). <i>Cross-training allows your horse to achieve peak fitness without creating inflammation, muscle/ligament tears, or other injuries along the way. Maybe lesser known, though, are the other compelling reasons to cross-train. How do I know it’s the right time to start something a bit harder with my Training Level dressage horse? If rhythm faults occur in a basic gait during training, the rider should question his training methods and procedures. Rhythm is the most important quality of all.</i>
TRAINING SCALE (NP) 32/2.75	NP	<i>[T]he training scale . . . does not represent a fixed sequence that must be followed slavishly with each horse. During the last decade or so, the training scale, or training pyramid, as it is often called, has found its way to the US and has become increasingly popular.</i>
transition (N) 264/22.72	N: transition/transitioning – 244/3 A: transitional – 2 V: transition – 15	L1: downward (25), upward (9). R1: to (31), from (28), between (8). L5-R5: trot (60), walk (44), canter (37), from (31), do (23), halt (13), between, gait (12), half halt (10), down (9). Reference shifts (14): change of the rider’s seat (3), changes in exercises (7), changes in the horse’s body position (3) and dressage evolution (1), instead of the horse’s gait (as opposed to term definition). <i>If my horse doesn’t react clearly and efficiently to this initial aid, I do three things: Repeat the original aid and, if need be, promptly make a stronger aid. Second, make a downward transition. Third, transition to halt. Experienced riders will be able to maintain the balance in the trot through the transition to and from the canter. [T]he use of exercises such as transitions within and between gaits, half halts . . . is key.</i>
travers (N) 25/2.15	N: travers/traverse – 24/1	L5-R5: shoulder-in (8), shoulder (5), renvers (3). <i>Traverse is a separate term with a different meaning, but one author uses it to denote travers. The only difference between riding a circle, a shoulder-in and a travers lies in the direction of travel and the aids. The haunches-in, or traverse, is a lateral movement, in which the horse is bent in the direction of his movement.</i>

trot (N) 390/33.57	N: trot/trotting – 335/10 A: trotting – 2 V: trot – 43	L1: to (32), walk (27), working (26), extended (21), normal (8). R1: lengthening (22), or (21), to (20), canter (10). L5-R5: canter (96), walk (82), transition (60), working (35), lengthening (32), from (29), extended (26), back [ADV] (23), circle (21), ask (20), halt (23) – incl. half halt (5), forward (16), tempo (12), again (11). Clusters: in the trot (27), at the trot (20), trot and canter, walk trot and canter (11), from trot to (9), trot or canter, trot to canter, walk trot canter, walk trot or canter (7), halt and trot (6), back to trot, normal working trot, transition to trot, trot-canter transitions, trot-walk-trot (5). <i>Perfecting this will help you transition to an extended trot because the horse must remain active in the hind legs. First, ask for a lengthening of the working trot and then for more extension. My goal is for you to instantaneously call up three speeds of trot--normal, slow, and forward.</i>
trot, rising (NP) 22/1.89	NP: rising trot – 18 N: rising – 1 V: rise – 3	<i>Apply the inside rein aid rhythmically by closing the fingers of your inside hand every other sitting moment of the rising trot. Start to create a round silhouette by riding on a 20-meter circle in the working trot, rising.</i>
trot, sitting (NP) 13/1.12	NP: sitting trot/sitting the trot – 11/2	<i>Soon enough he'll be able to stay well balanced through the exercise at the rising trot. When that day comes, gradually introduce sitting trot, a few strides at a time.</i>
turn (N) 139/11.96	N: turn/turning – 80/10 A: turning – 2 V: turn – 47	L5-R5: bend, circle, outside (13), shoulder (11), left (10), inside (8), movement, right (7). Clusters: into the turn, bending and turning (6), turns and circles (5). <i>Sometimes subtle – or not so subtle – resistances can creep in, especially on the outside during corners and turns. On the hollow side, the horse will drift out of the turn over the outside shoulder. The horse also has to learn to execute the transitions . . . from bending and turning left to bending and turning right and vice versa.</i>
turn on the forehand (NP) 40/3.44	NP: turn on the forehand – 39 NP: turn on forehand – 1	L5-R5: leg (11), motion (7), yield (6), corner, left (5). Clusters: turn on the forehand in motion (7). <i>I transition to walk and ride a large, sweeping turn on the forehand from my inside left leg. Once the horse is quiet . . . and has started to relax, proceed with turns on the forehand and leg yields.</i>
unbalanced (A) 41/3.53	A: unbalanced – 37 N: unbalance – 2 V: unbalance – 2	32 instances concern the horse, seven – the rider and two – both of them. This is in line with term definition, which states that the rider is more commonly described as <i>out of balance</i> . <i>The unbalanced horse will always take a faulty rein contact: either too heavy . . . or coiled up behind the bit. As long as the horse (or the rider) is still unbalanced, he has to keep certain muscle groups in permanent tension in order not to fall down.</i>
'uphill' (A) 13/1.12	A	No inverted commas with this term in the subcorpus. <i>A horse in good balance at the trot quite easily hops into the canter in an uphill frame.</i>
use of voice (NP) 35/3.01	NP: using * voice – 1 VP: use * voice – 2 N: voice – 32	Clusters: voice command (12). <i>If you have a hard time with the downward transition, use your voice if you need to. [W]hen you give the voice command, combine it with an aid from your body.</i>

vertical (N) 30/2.58	N: vertical – 20 A: vertical – 6 ADV: vertically – 4	Reference shifts: eight instances concern the rider’s posture and 11 – the horse’s nose (both given in term definition), but further six describe physical forces, four – the line passed by a hind leg and one – the horse’s body (not in the definition). <i>I will tighten the side reins a notch or two every day until the horse’s head is on the vertical.</i> <i>If you tighten your midsection and align your shoulders, seat bones, and heels in a vertical line, you will feel that the horse is regaining balance/self carriage.</i>
volte [=a one-track circle] (N) 42/3.61	N	L1: 10m/10 m/10-meter (8). Clusters: volte to the right (7). <i>When you reach the first Quarter Line, begin an immediate 10 m volte to the right.</i> <i>Once you are able to ride the volte exercise in trot and canter, you are ready to add transitions.</i>
walk (N) 355/30.55	N: walk/walking – 282/19 V: walk – 54	L1: collected (13), medium (10), extended (9), trot (6), lateral (5). R1: trot (27), transition (7). L5-R5: trot (82), canter (54), transition (43), collected (19), halt (16), step (14), back [ADV], forward (11). Clusters: at the walk (31), in the walk (26), walk trot and canter (11), walk trot canter, walk trot or canter (7), transition to walk, transition to the walk (5). <i>Mixing trot-halt and trot-extended walk work also will help relax a hot, strong horse.</i> <i>[E]liminate having to use your body, tugs on the line, and whip. You want to be able to halt, walk, trot, canter, and slow down from your voice alone. These upward and downward transitions, such as walk-trot-walk, trot-canter-trot and walk-canter-walk, teach the horse to listen to the rider’s body aids to achieve a harmonious balance.</i>
warm up (NP) 86/7.40	NP: warm-up/warm up/warmup – 40/6/3 NP: warming up/warming-up – 16/1 V: warm up – 20	<i>Contact is the final quality you should think about in your warm-up, since “on the bit” demands that your horse go forward into your sympathetic hands.</i> <i>The warm-up phase at the beginning is something very individual. Still, it’s paramount that you begin with walk; how long then depends on the horse.</i> <i>The one thing I do differently when warming up at a show is how I handle the extended trot.</i>
whip (N) 65/5.59	N: whip/whipping – 64/1	L5-R5: use (10), tap (9), leg (8), line (6). Clusters: with the whip (16). <i>[I]f your horse is the type that bucks when you use the whip, it’s better to bump him with your legs instead.</i> <i>Use the added cues of your body movement, whip, and lead line as needed.</i>
working (A) 43/3.70	A	R1: trot (26), gait (10), canter (3). L5-R5: transition (6), back [ADV] (5). <i>Transition back into working trot with the use of your outside rein.</i> <i>I focus on creating and maintaining my horse’s flexibility, rhythm and impulsion as I warm up in working gaits.</i>
yield (V) 45/3.87	V: yield – 33 N: yielding – 11 A: yielding – 1	R1: to (12). L5-R5: pressure (9). <i>Yielding to pressure, i.e. respect for the human’s space and aids, is taught long before the horse is ever backed.</i> <i>If the horse does not yield immediately to the rein pressure, the rider can stop the horse and flex the neck and poll towards the outside until the blockage disappears.</i>

Table 25. Frequency and characterization of English terms in the EWS.

Term Total/per 15,000 words	Forms in the subcorpus	Significant collocates and clusters <i>Examples</i>
<i>ACCEPTANCE</i> (N) 30/2.74	N: acceptance/accepting – 4/1 A: accepting – 4 V: accept – 21	Reference shifts: ten instances concern items to which the horse should get used (e.g. saddle), while the definition only mentions the rider's aids. <i>The rider also should look for soft eyes which indicate acceptance, while bulging eyes signal alarm.</i> <i>We ask him to accept the contact between the bit and our hand.</i>
<i>active</i> (A) 15/1.37	A: active – 11 ADV: actively – 4	Reference shifts: three instances convey the defined meaning (the horse's willingness to move), ten describe the rider's actions and two concern the equine mind. <i>[R]ide your horse more forward so he is more active, uses his body better and stretches his topline.</i> <i>[I]f he drifts toward the outside cones, use your outside aids more actively.</i>
ACTIVITY (N) 50/4.57	N	L1: physical (5). R1: drive (26), level (9). L5-R5: create, mental, spend (5). <i>You don't add to the activity drive by chasing him or doing anything exciting.</i> <i>Managing the horse's mental and physical activity levels intelligently helps him enjoy what he's doing.</i>
age (N) 14/1.28	N	Clusters: months of age (4). <i>At present yearling sales typically occur when the animals are 16-18 months of age.</i>
aid, leg (NP) 29/2.65	NP	L5-R5: seat (12). Clusters: leg and seat aids (5). <i>[W]e use pictographs to show students which combination of rein, leg, and seat aids they should apply.</i> <i>The left leg aids control left side of the barrel, left hip, and left hind leg.</i>
aid, rein (NP) 26/2.37	NP	<i>The outside leg and rein aids are also important to support the bend.</i> <i>As the horse is more well trained and I can trust the horse more, I can relax the rein aids.</i>
aid, seat (NP) 16/1.46	NP	<i>When he's relaxed and focused, use your leg and seat aids to pick up a forward jog.</i>
aids, timing of (NP) 57/5.21	N: timing – 53 A: timed – 3 V: time – 1	L5-R5: release (8). Clusters: feel timing and balance (7), feel and timing (5). <i>Applying pressure and release with perfect timing will bring out the best in every horse. When our timing is off, the horse becomes confused and communication breaks down.</i>
ALIGNMENT (N) 25/2.28	N: alignment – 19 A: aligned – 6	L5-R5: body (7), straight (6). <i>Speaking of alignment, some riders wonder how a horse can be "straight" on a curve. Remember, we are talking about his spine being in perfect alignment from poll to tail.</i>
<i>anticipation</i> (N) 21/1.92	N: anticipation/anticipating – 3/4 A: anticipating – 1 V: anticipate – 13	Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider, while term definition only speaks of the horse. <i>If you have a horse that is jiggling in anticipation of returning home to his stall or pasture, try tying him up for an hour after you return.</i> <i>You can never anticipate all the possible changes that might occur in the horse's routine or environment.</i>

arena (N) 121/11.05	N	L5-R5: into (12), around, round pen (10). Clusters: in the arena (14), to the arena (12), in an arena (10), into the arena (8). <i>I have spent most of the last seven training articles giving instruction in the round pen or in the arena. Warm your horse up by walking, trotting, and loping around your arena's perimeter. Catch the horse, saddle up, head to the arena to practice something... with a pretty unwilling horse.</i>
balance (N) 248/22.65	N: balance/balancing – 152/4 A: balanced/balancing – 69/2 V: balance – 21	L5-R5: forward (13), keep (9), collection, relaxation (7). Clusters: feel timing and balance (7), relaxation energy and balance (5). <i>[W]ithout feel, timing, and balance you'll be stuck as a mediocre horse-back-rider. Every horse should be forward, straight, and balanced. Let's look at these concepts in closer detail. If you tip or slouch in one direction or the other, your horse will be forced to change his alignment to balance beneath you.</i>
BASICS (N) 21/1.92	N	<i>Go back to the basics and strengthen your foundation. Collection is not asked for in the basics of dressage. First, there are the “working gaits”.</i>
BEAT (N) 14/1.28	N: beat – 13 V: beat – 1	<i>The walk should be a four-beat march, the trot has a two-beat rhythm. The canter has three beats.</i>
BEHIND, FROM (PP) 11/1.00	PP	<i>To create Self-Carriage I drive the horse from behind, rounding his back and lifting him up into my hands.</i>
bend (N) 57/5.21	N	L5-R5: body (9), arc (8), rein (6), change, neck, outside, support (5). <i>If the horse is straight, the bend in his body. . . will conform to the same arc as that of the circle. The outside rein dictates how much bend is in the horse's neck.</i>
bending (N) 100/9.13	N: bending – 19 A: bending – 23 V: bend – 58	R1: aid (13). L5-R5: leg (11), neck (8), inside, straight (6). Clusters: bending and turning (7). Reference shifts: five instances denote active work of the horse's hind legs (absent from term definition). <i>Stretching and bending the horse while he is standing still will not make a horse supple. The goal for both the bending and turning aids is to control the horse's body position and his balance. His neck slightly bends and the shoulder slightly moves to the outside.</i>
biomechanics (N) 17/1.55	N: biomechanic/bio-mechanic/ biomechanics/bio-mechanics – 1/1/9/2 A: biomechanical – 2 ADV: biomechanically/bio- mechanically – 1/1	<i>Priority Layer 2: Healthy Biomechanics: Biomechanical Freedom and Harmony. Finding the sweet spot for quality of gait through conversations about Relaxation, Energy and Balance. When they are able to stretch, there is a specific bio-mechanic that puts tension in their nuchal ligament.</i>

bit (N) 186/16.99	N: bit – 178 A: bitless/bit-less – 6/1 A: bitted – 1	L1: snaffle (15). R1: pressure (10). L5-R5: tongue (12), hand (11), contact, mouth, rein (7), bridle, control, neck (6). Clusters: to the bit (20), on the bit (14), without a bit (8). <i>Through repetition, your horse learns that rein pressure against his neck will be accompanied by bit pressure from the opposite rein.</i> <i>The motivator comes from pressure that is placed on the horse’s mouth. This is the start of “giving to the bit”.</i> <i>You also teach him to lie on the bit and your hands. When a horse lies on the bit there is no Self- Carriage.</i>
bracing the back (NP) 28/2.56	A: bracey/bracy – 1/3 AP: braced against * – 1 N: bracing/brace – 5/6 V: brace – 4 VP: brace against * – 8	<i>Look and feel for signs like the head going up, a tense jaw, working the bit, bracing of the ribs, quickening of step.</i> <i>Do not release if he’s bracing and pulling against you.</i> <i>the feeling you want: a rhythmic, soft stride with no brace in the body</i>
breed (N) 17/1.55	N	<i>Breeds such as Quarter Horses and Thoroughbreds and Warmbloods are as a rule naturally Engaged due to their conformation and strength of their back.</i>
bridle (N) 70/6.39	N	L5-R5: bit, snaffle (7). Clusters: soft in the bridle (8), in the bridle (7), to the bridle (5), finished bridle horse (4), over the bridle (3). <i>Pick up on both reins and get your horse soft in the bridle.</i> <i>For best results, outfit your horse to start with a bridle that has a snaffle bit and slobber straps.</i>
bucking (N) 26/2.37	N: bucking/buck – 8/3 V: buck – 15	<i>How can you tell they’re bored? Low energy, crabby expression, resistant, tail swishing, bucking.</i> <i>I’ve been bucked off on occasion and have been in a few wrecks.</i>
cadence (N) 24/2.19	N: cadence – 21 A: cadenced – 3	Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider’s steps and breathing frequency, while term definition only speaks of the horse’s movement. <i>He will loose his cadence if you slow him down to much.</i> <i>You want the horse to pick up on the cadence of your breathing which should be in the same cadence as your steps.</i>
canter (N) 82/7.49	N: canter/cantering – 62/2 A: cantering – 2 V: canter – 16	L1: lope (6), lead (4). L5-R5: trot (19), lead (12), walk (9), ask (6). The low NFR in comparison to that in the ECS might be caused by the fact that Western riding uses a different term for this gait – <i>lope</i> (NFR: 10.96). <i>We’ll start to the right, so ask for a right-lead canter departure.</i> <i>This engagement must be alive in all three gaits, the walk, jog/trot and the lope/canter.</i>
carriage (N) 18/1.64	N	<i>As he begins to fall out of carriage you pick him up with your seat and legs and light contact with the rein.</i>
change, flying (NP) 21/1.92	NP: flying change/flying lead change – 3/18	<i>The more you lope reverse arc circles in preparation for your flying lead changes, the better.</i> <i>[I]f you can keep the spirit of play going and lots of praise and moments to rest, you’ll find you can even make things like flying changes and half passes.</i>

change of direction (NP) 18/1.64	NP: change of/in direction – 7/2 NP: changing direction – 1 VP: change direction/* direction – 6/2	<i>Eventually these turns will become “roll-backs”. A change of direction with lots of forward motion and engagement of the hindquarters. Once the horse is doing very well on the one side, change direction.</i>
change of lead (NP) 24/2.19	NP: lead change/lead-change/changing leads – 6/1/2 N: change – 2 V: change – 10 VP: change leads – 3	<i>He might delay his lead changes; change with his front legs first, rather than initiating the change with his hind legs; pop up in the air when he changes, rather than keeping a level or near-level topline; or...change in front and not behind. When you see a Western riding horse bobbing his head at the lope, you’ll likely see him pop up in the air and lurch as he struggles to change leads.</i>
circle (N) 455/41.55	N: circle/circling – 436/3 V: circle – 16	L1: small (31), large (27), lope (11), familiar, foot, full (5). R1: exercise (6), shape (5). L5-R5: lope (22), inside, right (16), around, walk (15), exercise (14), outside (13), shape (12), turn (11), bend, left (10). Clusters: on a circle (25), in a circle (23), on the circle (20), circle to the left (10), circle to the right, the outside of the circle (9), on the large circle (7), reverse arc circle, shape of the circle (6), arc of the circle, around the circle, circle at the walk, onto the circle, the inside of the circle (5). <i>If you’ve gained the confidence to keep your horse on a circle, you should be able to ride with one hand. This really smoothes out the transitions from a regular circle to a reverse arc circle and back. Another common problem when loping circles is a horse dropping its shoulder into the direction they are going.</i>
COLLECTED (A) 29/2.65	A	<i>The ultimate is when he’s got it all together enough to stay on the aids and eventually become collected. The horse that is collected is driving himself mainly with his hindquarters and not just with his legs.</i>
collection (N) 104/9.50	N: collection/collecting – 93/1 V: collect – 10	L1: true (9). L5-R5: achieve (6), softness, training (5). Clusters: balance and collection (4). <i>Without balance and collection in reining, your horse cannot sit down over his hindquarters as his hind feet slide through the dirt. He needs to . . . learn how to be on the rider’s aids so he can achieve true collection. A horse that can be collected is a fit horse.</i>
CONFIDENCE (N) 79/7.21	N: confidence – 43 A: confident – 30 ADV: confidently – 6	L5-R5: build, lack (5). Clusters: trust and confidence (5). Reference shifts: 23 instances concern the rider, while further four describe both the rider and the horse. <i>Successful horsemen have routines they develop as predictable patterns or habits they use to build trust and confidence in their horses. When you feel confident rolling back from a trot, perfect it at the lope.</i>
connection (N) 46/4.20	N: connection – 41 V: connect – 5	L1: in (7). R1: with (12), between (7). Clusters: connection with the reins (8), elastic connection between (4). <i>[W]e’re talking about an even, steady, elastic connection between the rider’s hands and the horse’s mouth. They can feel free while moving freely, while in connection with the reins and eventually even in collection.</i>

<i>contact</i> (N) 108/9.86	N	L1: light (15). R1: with (22). L5-R5: rein (16), maintain (10), line (8), leg (7). Reference shifts (6): contact of legs (5) and eyes (1), while term definition only denotes rein contact. <i>To apply the aid, establish light contact with both reins.</i> <i>Maintain a light contact, but not so much that you cannot make any corrections quickly if needed.</i> <i>Let out line as necessary while maintaining light left-line contact to keep him on the leftward circle.</i>
corner (N) 27/2.47	N	<i>You should only ride as deep into the corners as your horse can go without losing the rhythm.</i> <i>Second, don't round your corner.</i>
correction (N) 54/4.93	N: correction/correcting – 16/4 A: corrective – 1 V: correct – 33	<i>Make the correction and ask for a few steps forward. Do not drill but be consistent and clear.</i> <i>The shoulder in . . . serves to correct crookedness and weakness in the hind end.</i>
correctness (N) 18/1.64	N: correctness – 1 A: correct – 7 ADV: correctly – 10	<i>How correctly your horse lopes fast and slow circles will be contingent on how much care and attention you give to this phase of the pattern on a daily basis.</i>
diagonal [=arena line] (N) 18/1.64	N	<i>Canter on the left lead but take the horses head to the right as you canter and have the horse do a canter diagonal across the area going to the left.</i>
diagonal [=horse leg pair] (N) 15/1.37	N: diagonal – 3 A: diagonal – 11 ADV: diagonally – 1	R1: pair (8). <i>Most often the front diagonal will hit the ground first and then the diagonal rear will follow.</i>
distraction (N) 14/1.28	N: distraction – 5 A: distracted/distracting – 5/1 V: distract – 3	<i>[Y]ou will begin teaching this exercise from the ground in an area where you have few distractions.</i>
dressage (N) 175/15.98	N	L1: Cowboy [school name] (16). R1: horse (29), Naturally [school name] (13), rider (9), training (7), principle (6). L5-R5: natural (12), horsemanship, Western (9). Clusters: Cowboy Dressage horse (6), Grand Prix dressage, natural horsemanship and dressage (5). <i>I believe the principles of self-carriage between Cowboy Dressage and Dressage are the same but the application and follow through may be visually different.</i> <i>Dressage, natural horsemanship, and Dressage, Naturally are names of bodies of knowledge that can serve you. You don't have to be them, you don't have to promote them.</i> <i>Like the western horse a good dressage horse must also have self-carriage.</i>
drifting (N) 28/2.56	N: drifting/drift – 3/3 V: drift – 22	Reference shifts: two V instances denote a conscious change of direction, not the horse's faulty posture (contrary to term definition). <i>The outside rein blocks the shoulder from drifting out.</i> <i>If the horse's hips start to drift to the outside of the circle I bring them back with my outside leg.</i>

elasticity (N) 13/1.19	N: elasticity/elasticizing – 3/1 A: elastic – 9	Clusters: elastic connection between (4). Reference shifts: six instances concern rein contact, not the muscles (contrary to term definition). <i>True contact is an “elastic connection” between horse and rider through the bit.</i>
elevation (N) 15/1.37	N: elevation – 2 A: elevated – 8 V: elevate – 5	Term definition meaning (raising of the horse’s feet in movement) is represented by 1 A instance. 14 remaining instances concern the height of the horse’s front (head, neck and shoulders). Increased raising of the feet can be only indirectly inferred from such context. <i>Head down when using the halter and lead rope is also used to control the head elevation.</i>
energy (N) 106/9.68	N: energy – 99 A: energetic/energized – 4/3	L1: inner (16), more, much (5). L5-R5: balance, relaxation (9), release (6), forward, level, through (5). Clusters: amount of energy (6), level of inner energy, relaxation energy and balance (5). <i>One of the best ways to help the horse release this inner energy is through what is called “forced exercise”.</i> <i>Look at the quality of their response to relaxation, energy and balance shifts.</i> <i>[W]e spend a tremendous amount of energy walking, trotting, and loping circles.</i>
engaged (A) 49/4.47	A: engaged – 25 V: engage – 24	L5-R5: hindquarters (14). Clusters: engage his hindquarters (5). Reference shifts: seven instances concern preoccupying the horse’s mind, not only its body. <i>To be engaged the hock should reach back just to the fall of the tail.</i> <i>When the horse has a nice bend, you are teaching the horse to engage his hindquarters.</i>
engagement (N) 29/2.65	N: engagement/engaging – 27/3	Clusters: engagement of the hindquarters (3). Reference shifts: one instance concerns preoccupying the horse’s mind, not only its body. <i>So we now know that to have forward motion we must have torque created by engagement of the hind legs.</i> <i>Engagement is when the horse steps deeper under himself towards his center of gravity.</i>
exercise [=a training task] (N) 291/26.58	N	L1: circle (6), new (5), first, next, riding (4). L5-R5: practice (20), circle (14), work (10). <i>You can start right away. Practice these exercises and evaluate yourself.</i> <i>If he continues to speed up, go back to the circle exercise until you regain your balance.</i> <i>Exercise 3: Walk-to-Lope Transition</i>
exercise [=training] (N) 39/3.56	N: exercise/exercising – 27/2 A: exercising – 2 V: exercise – 8	L1: forced (5). <i>[S]ome organized exercise is strongly advised in order to develop a strong body destined for professional athletics.</i> <i>During exercise the sympathetic nervous system is dominant, whereas during eating it is the parasympathetic.</i>
EXTENDED (A) 11/1.00	A	R1: walk (5), trot (4). <i>As you begin to close the circle, ask for an upward transition to an extended walk.</i>
fall in (V) 13/1.19	V: fall in – 7 NP: falling in – 6	<i>The turning aids, the outside rein and outside leg, are not as prominent when the horse is falling in.</i>
fall out (V) 12/1.10	V: fall out – 8 NP: falling out – 4	<i>If the horse travels too far off the curve and drifts to the outside (in this example to the right) as he is turning, he is falling out.</i>

fitness (N) 18/1.64	N: fitness – 10 A: fit – 8	L5-R5: level (N) (11). Reference shifts: three N instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>It's going to depend on the horse's current level of training, his current fitness level, his health, his personality, and even his age and sex.</i>
flexibility (N) 13/1.19	N: flexibility – 7 A: flexible – 6	Reference shifts: one A instance concerns the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Transitions within a gait also help the flexibility, strength, and responsiveness of his joints and muscles.</i>
flexion (N) 49/4.47	N: flexion/flexing – 28/4 A: flexed – 6 V: flex – 11	L1: vertical (9), poll (6). <i>Over-use of reins and/or trying to put the horse's head in vertical flexion too soon only slams the door on them. Wait for the horse to flex at the poll and put slack in the rein.</i>
flexion, lateral (NP) 26/2.37	NP	L5-R5: rein (6). <i>Lateral Flexion is a neutral rein position. Now it is time for flexion with impulsion. Ask for lateral flexion left.</i>
FOOTFALL (N) 16/1.46	N	Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>If you know your footfalls and can feel where one foot is you will know where the other three are.</i>
forehand (N) 11/1.00	N	<i>Heavier forehand concussion puts greater stress on the hard and soft tissues of the forelegs.</i>
forehand, on the (PP) 11/1.00	PP: on * forehand – 11	<i>A horse that leans on the bit loses self-carriage and becomes heavier on the forehand.</i>
forward (ADV) 347/31.69	ADV: forward/forwards – 238/1 A: forward – 93 N: forward/forwardness/forwardaholic – 13/1/1	L1: move (70), go (35). R1: motion (57), momentum (5). L5-R5: move (92), drive (25), stop (14), balance (12), hind, seat, turn, walk (11), straight (10), cue (9). Clusters: drive him forward (9), have forward motion (6). Term definition mentions that the horse is sometimes described as being 'forward' – here this happens in 6 instances. Reference shifts: 28 instances (24 ADV and five A) describe the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>I tap the point of the hip until the horse moves forward. Forward Motion is not just going forward, or getting from point A to point B. To get your horse to drive himself forward from his hindquarters, you must have good communication with him. Direct the horse forward with your basic verbal go-forward command and the hand holding the line.</i>
FRAME (N) 44/4.02	N: frame – 33 V: frame – 11	Clusters: frame ride and re-frame (4). Reference shifts: the horse's <i>frame of mind</i> (3), though term definition only concerns its body. <i>It is hard for a horse to stay in frame all the time. You need to learn to frame, ride and re-frame while always sending the horse forward.</i>
free (A) 50/4.57	A: free – 36 ADV: freely – 10 V: free/free up – 1/3	<i>As soon as we sit on horses, they tighten their back muscles to hold us and now these muscles are less able to be used for locomotion. Their gaits are no longer free. His hindquarters need to step over freely to the left, and right, as if he had hobbles on his front feet.</i>

<i>FREEDOM</i> (N) 28/2.56	N	L5-R5: relaxation (6), rhythm (5). Clusters: freedom of gait/gaits (7/7). <i>Freedom of gait means the horse can reach forward with his hips and shoulders without meeting any resistance. Contact comes from the horse working with rhythm and relaxation while being allowed the freedom of his gaits.</i>
gait (N) 98/8.95	N	L5-R5: freedom (13), speed (10), change, relaxation, rhythm (5). <i>By allowing the horse freedom of gaits, we allow his natural forward movement. A 'shape' means that the horse feels the pressure as a physical suggestion of a posture or gait or speed.</i>
gallop (N) 17/1.55	N: gallop – 8 A: galloping – 4 V: gallop – 5	<i>You'll see some people flapping and slapping their horse's sides with their legs to keep the horse at a canter or gallop.</i>
hand (N) 283/25.84	N: hand – 277 A: handed – 6	L1: [hand:] right (17), left (15), one (12), two (7), other (6), both, outside (5). L5-R5: rein (48), leg (32), seat (21), down (9). Clusters: the rider's hands (14), with your hands (10), legs and hands (8), in one hand, in your hands, on your hands, with one hand (5). <i>Remember to maintain forward motion, and do not pull the horse in a circle with your hands and inside rein. Once again the horse is learning to carry himself as he backs. He is not relying on your hands to pull him back. It is a feeling that the horse transmits back to the rider's seat, legs and hands.</i>
harmony (N) 36/3.29	N: harmony/harmonizing – 26/1 A: harmonious – 8 V: harmonize – 1	<i>[T]he message was meant to be that there is a way to do be with horses that leads to beauty and harmony. Object of Dressage: The development of the horse into a happy athlete through harmonious education resulting in a horse who is calm, loose, supple and flexible but also confident, attentive and keen.</i>
haunches (N) 25/2.28	N	L5-R5: hip, leg, move [V] (5). <i>I . . . only use my legs to move the rib cage and haunches. Move your outside left leg back towards the haunches and move the hip in side the bend or arc.</i>
hindquarters (N) 152/13.88	N: hindquarters/hind quarters – 136/9 N: hindquarter/hind quarter – 6/1	L5-R5: back [N] (13), move (22), disengage (17), engage (15), weight (10), front end, shoulder (6), forehead, forward, power, push, turn (5). Clusters: over his hindquarters (8), engage his hindquarters, move his hindquarters (5). <i>Backing is beneficial because it teaches the horse to put his weight over his hindquarters. We often bend our colts and disengage their hindquarters to help supple them and control their feet. The object is to keep the back round, the hindquarters engaged and the horse in constant forward motion.</i>
horsemanship (N) 81/7.40	N: horsemanship – 77 N: Horse.Man.Ship – 4	L1: natural (22), your (7). L5-R5: dressage (9). Clusters: horsemanship and dressage (5). <i>If your experience is in horsemanship and dressage, you may have an easier time with the concepts of total-body control and pattern work. To me, natural horsemanship is about a harmonious context from which you can move forward to any discipline...</i>
impulsion (N) 54/4.93	N	<i>The more impulsion a horse has, the longer that moment of suspension will be. Collection and impulsion together deliver those stunning extended trots and other movements that thrill spectators, but it certainly doesn't happen overnight.</i>

inside (A) 144/13.15	A: inside – 107 N: inside – 35 ADV: inside – 1 P: inside – 1	L1: your (18). R1: rein (57), shoulder (19), line (6). L5-R5: rein (72), shoulder (26), circle (13), line (11), left (10), outside, slightly (8), right (7). <i>The inside rein stays open to keep the head and neck flexed.</i> <i>When a horse drops his inside shoulder he is out of balance.</i> <i>She stopped with her hindquarters to the inside instead of stopping parallel to the wall.</i>
jogging (N) 31/2.83	N: jog – 26 A: jogging – 1 V: jog – 4	R1: trot (7). L5-R5: lope, walk (8), circle (6). Clusters: walk and jog (4), jogging or trotting (3). Reference shift: all instances denote <i>jog</i> (a slow, fluent variety of trot practiced in Western riding). The meaning described in term definition (a faulty, shortened, impure trot) is absent. <i>As . . . approach the large circle again, prepare to ask your horse for an upward transition to a jog or trot. Time the communication so that your horse will be jogging or trotting as he comes back onto the large circle.</i>
lateral (A) 26/2.37	A: lateral – 18 ADV: laterally – 7 N: lateral – 1	R1: work (9). <i>Finally, in Part IV, you'll use lateral work to enhance your horse's balance.</i> <i>Once vertical flexion has become redundant, create a combination of lateral and vertical.</i>
left lead (NP) 14/1.28	NP: left lead/left-lead – 10/2 AP: left-leaded – 2	L5-R5: canter (5). <i>Canter on the left lead but take the horses head to the right as you canter.</i>
leg, inside (NP) 63/5.75	NP: inside leg/* leg – 48/10 NP: inside * – 5	L5-R5: rein (13), rib cage (10), outside (8), bending [A] (6). Clusters: inside hind leg (7). <i>Gently bump the rib cage with your inside left leg.</i> <i>Maybe the horse is crossing his outside front leg behind his inside front instead of in front of it.</i>
leg, move away from the (VP) 26/2.37	NP: moving away from leg pressure – 1 VP: move away from (*) pressure – 16 VP: move away from * – 5 VP: move away – 4	Reference shifts: the horse moves away not only from the leg (as in term definition), but also from the rider and various pressures that he exerts. <i>The horse, through his training and instinct, moves away from the pressure of the aid.</i> <i>For example, if you are on the ground trying to get a horse that is leaning into your pressure to move away from you, you have to push only the amount that you can comfortably hold until the horse gets tired of it.</i>
leg, move off the (VP) 12/1.10	VP: move off* leg – 9 V: move off – 3	<i>Also by pushing the horse to the left using the right leg the second you switch legs the horse is naturally going to want to move off the left leg.</i>
leg-yielding (NP) 14/1.28	NP: leg yielding/leg yield – 6/6 V: leg yield – 2	<i>As with the leg yielding you learned in Exercise #2 in the previous newsletter, leg yielding on a circle is a forward and lateral maneuver.</i>
light (A) [aid application] 65/5.94	A: light – 54 ADV: lightly – 11	R1: contact (15). L5-R5: pressure, rein (8). Clusters: light contact with (5). <i>As he begins to fall out of carriage you pick him up with your seat and legs and light contact with the rein.</i> <i>The leg aids follow with a light pressure to ask the horse to move forward.</i>

lightness (N) [horse's feature] 27/2.47	N: lightness – 6 A: light – 18 ADV: lightly – 1 V: lighten – 2	<i>He will have a smooth, rolling motion underneath you. He will also become light in the bridle and soft in your hands. If we will need our reins to steer, stop, regulate speed, etc., then how on earth are we going to end up in lightness?</i>
longeing/lungeing (N) 68/6.21	N: longeing/longing/lunging – 11/1/14 N: longe/lunge – 17/7 V: longe/lunge – 10/8	R1: line (10). L5-R5: circle (6). <i>On a trained horse I can do a lot from the saddle but lunging offers a break in a mature horse's weekly routine. All you need is a good fitting halter, a cotton longe line, and a lunge whip.</i>
loose (A) 27/2.47	A: loose – 19 A: loosened up – 1 V: loosen/loosen up – 3/4	L5-R5: neck (5). Reference shifts: three V instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Most horses are pretty loose in their neck vertebrae. So the idea that tying their head around loosens anything and makes them more supple doesn't make a lot of sense.</i>
martingale (N) 13/1.19	N	L1: running (9). <i>The running martingale when used as a head set device is being misused.</i>
movement (N) 148/13.52	N	The two meanings of <i>movement</i> (locomotion and an exercise) are not discussed separately here due to lack of characteristic findings (contrary to <i>movement</i> in the ECS – see Table 24). L5-R5: hip, tongue (7). <i>Backing is an illogical movement for horses. It is not a natural defense or play maneuver. It's important to recognize the subtle changes in body movements and facial expressions when he feels more or less comfortable. Do not hold the rein so tight that it interferes with the movement of the front legs.</i>
movement, free forward (NP) 55/5.02	NP: free/forward movement – 1/25 NP: freedom of movement – 6 NP: moving freely – 2 VP: move freely – 11 VP: move forward freely – 5 VP: go forward freely – 1 VP: move freely forward – 2 VP: freely move forward – 1 VP: flow freely forward – 1	<i>[T]he hands encourage forward movement as the fingers open slightly on the reins to allow the horse the freedom of movement. If he moves forward freely, release the rein to a slack position with a good-sized dip, but keeping the lowest part of the slack above the knee. Once his feet are moving freely, continue backing him until he softens at the pole [correct: poll – E.P].</i>
neck-rein (VP) 20/1.83	VP: neck rein – 1 NP: neck rein/neck reining – 10/9	<i>A good finished reining horse that is in the bridle is an excellent example of proper neck reining. Apply this rein aid by "turning the key" with the outside rein (neck/indirect) so it touches the entire neck.</i>
nervousness (N) 12/1.10	N: nervousness – 3 A: nervous – 9	Reference shifts: two A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Your rhythmic breathing keeps you from patting too fast or doing anything that transmits nervousness.</i>

outside (A) 153/13.97	A: outside – 119 N: outside – 33 P: outside – 1	R1: leg (31), rein (28), shoulder (11). L5-R5: leg (62), rein (55), shoulder (24), inside (16), left (14), right (12), aid, slightly (10), against, line, neck (8). Clusters: to the outside (33), the outside of the circle (9), outside indirect rein, outside hind leg (7). 4. Outside (left) indirect rein to block his shoulders from bulging to the outside and to prevent his head from tipping too far to the inside. <i>Use the turning aids (the outside leg and outside indirect rein) to direct the horse through the turn. [A] horse will move his hips to the outside of the circle to avoid rounding his back.</i>
poll (N) 40/3.65	N	R1: flexion (6). L5-R5: withers (6). Clusters: at the poll (11). <i>This restriction varies from mild or moderate poll flexion . . . to severe poll flexion. Wait for the horse to flex at the poll and put slack in the rein.</i>
position [=bend of horse] (N) 58/5.30	N: position/positioning – 41/4 A: positioning/positioned – 2/3 V: position – 8	L1: body (5). L5-R5: head (11). Reference shifts: 34 instances convey the defined meaning (the bend), while the remaining 24 concern the horse's body/body part position in general, not necessarily with any bend involved. <i>Are you able to draw his nose into the circle and have him maintain that position for a couple steps? Our horses proper body position in the circles is something we have to feel and continually work on.</i>
position [of rider] (N) 64/5.84	N	L1: body (16). L5-R5: stop (7), back, forward (6). <i>It is also as a means of teaching him the cues for the stop by changing my body position just before the fence to a stop or quit riding position. Eventually he associates my body position with the stop and not the fence.</i>
posting (N) 13/1.19	N: posting – 9 A: posting – 1 V: post – 3	L5-R5: rising (5). Posting gives you the opportunity to warm up and to also use your own muscles.
posture (N) 15/1.37	N: posture – 14 V: posture – 1	Ten instances concern the horse and only five – the rider, though term definition states that the latter is a more common referent. <i>If we go beyond calm and bore our horses, we will be fighting a posture of boredom rather than athleticism.</i>
punishment (N) 26/2.37	N: punishment/punishing – 12/2 A: punished – 1 V: punish – 11	<i>Enforcement is not punishment. Punishing a horse is something riders do when they've made a mistake and they feel guilty and they want to make themselves feel better about it.</i>
QUALITY (N) 25/2.28	N: quality – 23 A: quality – 2	L5-R5: movement (5). Reference shifts: ten N instances concern other concepts such as the horse's response, not only the movement. <i>Really look at all the quality of the questions you ask your horse; from catching in the pasture . . . to riding. In the second phase of his training, we start to develop the quality of his forward movement.</i>
QUICK (A) 47/4.29	A: quick – 17 ADV: quickly – 25 N: quickness/quickenings – 1/1 V: quicken – 3	Reference shifts: 35 – the rider's actions (7) and the horse's reactions (28), while term definition explains <i>quick</i> as "fast" and relating only to the tempo. <i>A round back horse in self-carriage is quicker and more maneuverable. However, his head may pop back up quickly because of the increased level of excitement.</i>

REACH (N) 24/2.19	N: reaching – 3 A: reaching – 1 V: reach – 20	Phrasal verbs: reach down/for/forward (3/5/3). Reference shifts: 13 instances concern the rider and his aids, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>As your horse is traveling around, reach down the line towards his head and tip him to you.</i> <i>Freedom of gait means the horse can reach forward with his hips and shoulders without meeting any resistance.</i>
rein (N) 487/44.48	N: rein – 481 A: reined – 6	L1: inside (50), one (37), outside (26), both (20), two (17), casual, turning (5). L5-R5: inside (66), hand (32), pull (33), back [ADV], pressure, slack (25), pick (24), feel (20), contact (12), direction, neck, stop (11), against, bit [N], connection, shoulder, side (10). Clusters: on the rein/reins (17/30), on one rein (14), on two reins (11), in the reins, on both reins, rein pressure (10), connection with the reins, slack out of the rein (8). <i>[Y]ou suddenly feel an increased pull on your inside rein, along with pressure against your inside leg.</i> <i>Pick up on both reins and get your horse soft in the bridle.</i> <i>Don't pull back on your reins to get the stop, just sit and ask him to stop off your seat cue.</i>
rein, indirect (NP) 31/2.83	NP	L5-R5: outside (12), neck (10), leg (6). Clusters: indirect rein against the neck, outside indirect rein, use of the indirect rein (4). <i>Also support the bend by using an indirect rein against the neck to position the horse. Use the turning aids, the outside leg and outside indirect rein, to direct him through the turn and then follow the circle.</i>
rein, left (NP) 25/2.28	NP	<i>Pick up your inside left rein and take up enough rein to see the eye of the horse.</i> <i>[W]e'll start by picking up on one rein, right or left, just as we would when we're asking the horse to turn.</i>
rein, loose (NP) 36/3.29	NP: loose rein/* rein – 28/1 VP: let the reins hang loose – 1 VP: loosen the reins – 1 VP: turn the reins loose – 1 PP: with your reins loose – 1 rein is loose – 3	Clusters: on a loose rein (17), with a loose rein (4). <i>Try as much as possible to walk on a loose rein.</i> <i>The reins are loose and you have the opportunity to quickly reach down with the other hand and bend your horse to control him with lateral flexion or hindquarter disengagement.</i>
rein, release of the (NP) 16/1.46	NP: release of the rein/reins – 2/1 NP: releasing the rein/reins – 1/1 VP: release the rein/reins – 10/1	<i>If he moves forward freely, release the rein to a slack position with a good-sized dip.</i> <i>When your horse tips his nose off center and flexes at the poll, release the rein immediately to reward him.</i>
rein, right (NP) 26/2.37	NP	<i>Use the inside (right) rein, now an indirect rein against the neck, to bring his shoulders back to the left.</i> <i>At the same time, the rider lays the right rein--the outside or turning rein--against the horse's neck.</i>
reins, holding of (NP) 16/1.46	NP: holding * reins – 6 VP: hold * rein/reins – 2/7 VP: take hold of the reins – 1	<i>When he's ready to work, proceed at a posting trot . . . , holding the middle of your reins with your inside hand.</i> <i>Worst of all, holding the reins with two hands automatically causes you to pull backward on them in almost any situation.</i>
RELAX (N) 60/5.48	N: relaxing – 4 A: relaxing – 4 V: relax – 52	L5-R5: body (8). Reference shifts: 16 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>The tenseness in his body will relax. His tail will relax and swing with his gait.</i> <i>The horse gets into a familiar situation, feels a familiar shape, feels a familiar rhythm and starts to relax.</i>

<i>RELAXATION</i> (N) 80/7.31	N	L5-R5: rhythm (50), energy (9), feeling (7). Clusters: rhythm and relaxation (35), relaxation energy and balance (5). Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>[A] consistent corridor of pressures . . . produces a feeling of rhythm and relaxation in the horse.</i> <i>Look at the quality of their response to relaxation, energy and balance shifts.</i>
<i>relaxed</i> (A) 82/7.49	A	L5-R5: rhythmic (24), way (11), stay (6). Clusters: rhythmic and relaxed (17). Reference shifts: 36 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>[H]old the partial disengagement in the trot or canter until your horse is calm, rhythmic and relaxed.</i> <i>Then, from the saddle, they learn to apply the aids in a rhythmic and relaxed way.</i>
<i>RELEASE</i> (N) 167/15.25	N: release/releasing – 65/9 V: release – 93	R1: when (10). L5-R5: when (21), timing (8), reward (6), before, bump, direction, immediately, motivator, nose (5). Clusters: release of pressure (11), release the pressure (10), and then release (8), ask then release (5). Reference shifts: only 36 instances convey the definition meaning of loosening the reins. The remaining ones denote the release of leg pressure, aids in general and muscle tension. <i>[Y]ou must apply pressure and then release the pressure and then re-apply the pressure and then release again.</i> <i>With a bump you ask, then release, ask, then release. The release is the reward.</i> <i>You must understand how to find release in the body when tension creeps in.</i>
<i>resistance</i> (N) 36/3.29	N: resistance/resisting – 22/2 V: resist – 12	Reference shifts: three instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>The degree of resistance varies from mild pulling to shoulder-aching tugging.</i> <i>These riders feel when a horse is resisting pressure and when they are yielding.</i>
<i>responsiveness</i> (N) 167/15.25	N: responsiveness/response – 4/147 A: responsive – 16	L1: [response:] correct, desired (7), particular (5), conditioned (4). R1: to (33), time (11). L5-R5: pressure (7), lighter (5). Clusters: in response to (12), the response you want (5). Reference shifts: six instances of <i>response</i> denote the biological reaction of muscles or the nervous system, not the horse's conscious reaction to the aids as in the definition. Two further instances of <i>response</i> concern the rider. <i>Transitions within a gait also help the flexibility, strength, and responsiveness of his joints and muscles.</i> <i>[W]ithout an innately superior response time, no amount of training would enable the horse to outmaneuver the bovine.</i> <i>Then you do it again until the horse's response to that pressure becomes a habit.</i>
<i>reward</i> (N) 61/5.57	N: reward/rewarding – 32/2 A: rewarding – 1 V: reward – 26	L5-R5: release (9), pressure (8). Reference shifts: one A instance concerns the rider, who is satisfied with a good ride. <i>Release of pressure is a reward. One example is to put slack in a lead rope/rein.</i> <i>Think of it as: ask, execute and reward.</i>

rhythm (N) 174/15.89	N: rhythm – 114 A: rhythmic/rhythmical – 48/3 ADV: rhythmically – 9	L5-R5: relaxation (49), relaxed (24), way (18), feel (13), breathing (12). Clusters: rhythm and relaxation (34), rhythmic and relaxed (17), in a rhythmic way (6). <i>[W]ithout enthusiasm you are not going to get any rhythm and relaxation.</i> <i>Dressage is a game of maintaining rhythm with varying degrees of strength and stride length.</i> <i>The key is that you always move in a rhythmic way that never startles the horse.</i>
ROUNDED (A) 61/5.57	A: rounded/round – 4/24 V: round – 33	R1: [round:] back (13). L5-R5: back [N] (44). Clusters: round his back (15). <i>Transitions are a great way to teach your horse to . . . round his back, and elevate his shoulders.</i> <i>A stop helps teach Self-Carriage because a good stop has a round back.</i>
schooling (N) 35/3.20	N: schooling/school – 20/2 A: schooled – 2 V: school – 11	<i>As part of my training program, I try to take a horse out on the trail after each schooling period.</i> <i>When we are ready to school our horse to the next level, we then do the same exercise but in a square pattern.</i>
seat (N) 149/13.61	N	R1: bone (15), leg (8). L5-R5: hand (21), weight (18), forward (11), aid, drive [V] (10). Clusters: seat and legs (22), legs and seat (9), seat legs and hands, weight in your seat (5). <i>When asking for a canter we want to have our weight back on the left seat bone.</i> <i>Be ready with your seat and legs to drive your horse forward if he should stall out and break to a trot.</i> <i>a simple exercise to help you improve the use of your aids: your seat, leg, and hands</i>
self-carriage (NP) 106/9.68	NP: self-carriage/self carriage – 94/12	L5-R5: back [N], dressage (6). Clusters: in self-carriage (18), for self-carriage (6). <i>A round back horse in self-carriage is quicker and more maneuverable. A horse in self-carriage is pretty to look at.</i> <i>Self Carriage from a Dressage, Naturally Perspective</i>
shortening (N) 15/1.37	N: shortening – 6 A: shortening – 3 V: shorten – 6	<i>The correct way to create a jog is by shortening the stride thus keeping the horse in sync.</i> <i>I always shorten the stride of my horse first before I transition up or down.</i>
slack (A) 41/3.74	A: slack – 1 N: slack – 40	L5-R5: rein (27). Clusters: take the slack out of (14), slack out of the rein (8), slack in the reins (5). Reference shifts: all instances concern reins and/or lines; none describes muscles (contrary to term definition). <i>Leave enough slack so your horse doesn't bump his nose when standing with his head in a natural position.</i> <i>Take the slack out of the line and make contact until the horse stops his feet and faces you.</i>
snaffle (N) 30/2.74	N	R1: bit (15). L5-R5: bridle (7). <i>The headgear doesn't matter too much, whether a snaffle, hackamore or bridle. But generally the snaffle bit would be what you would choose for a greener horse.</i>

speed (N) 124/11.32	N: speed – 102 NP: speeding up – 3 V: speed/speed up – 1/19	R1: control (6). L5-R5: control (14), direction (11), gait (10), slow (9), barrel, particular (6). <i>Besides being used for speed control, the leg aids . . . control two-thirds of the horse, from the withers to the dock. The handler creates corridors of horse-logical pressures that shape the horse's feel of direction and speed. I'm also asking Rocky to speed up his circles and then slow down again.</i>
spooking (A) 28/2.56	A: spooked/spooky – 1/9 N: spook/spooking – 3/6 V: spook – 9	<i>If you're coming too fast or he's a spooky kind of horse, he may move off and ask questions later. I rode with two reins too much and when Remmer spooked I made my collection/rhythm task more important than his feelings. Bad mistake!</i>
spur (N) 30/2.74	N: spur/spurring – 26/3 V: spur – 1	L5-R5: whip (5). <i>Spurs and whips are usually what riders resort to. You may need to bump with your inside leg (not the spur), to get the reaction.</i>
STEP (N) 158/14.42	N: step/stepping – 95/5 V: step – 58	Phrasal verbs: step under/underneath (3/4), step on/onto (4/1), step over (5), step back/backward (3/1), step forward, step off, step out (4). L1: one (13), two (6). R1: back (11), one (6). L5-R5: one (31), ask (16), time (12). Clusters: a few steps (17), one or two steps (5). <i>Just as he finishes the stop (at the fence) and the motion is about to end, ask him to back a few steps. Again this teaches the horse to step underneath himself from behind thus engaging his rear end. Once you have achieved extreme softness with one or two steps, increase the length of time of flexion with impulsion to more steps in a row before releasing.</i>
STIFF (A) 19/1.74	A: stiff – 17 V: stiffen – 2	Reference shifts: three instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Maybe he doesn't yield his right shoulder well or is stiffer in one hip than the other.</i>
stirrup (N) 31/2.83	N	L5-R5: foot (5). <i>[D]own hill, the rider should sit very deep in the saddle with his weight placed evenly in both stirrups. Stop him and run your inside line through the inside stirrup.</i>
straightening (N) 16/1.46	V: straighten	L5-R5: neck (6). <i>Use a slight left opening rein to straighten his head and neck.</i>
straightness (N) 90/8.22	N: straightness – 27 A: straight – 63	L1: [straight:] shoulder (5), move (6). L5-R5: body (9), forward (8). Clusters: forward straight and balanced (3). Reference shifts: three A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>The horse being straight while bending means the hind legs track directly into the same track as his front legs. What straightness means is that the horse's entire body from nose to tail is in alignment with an imaginary line on the ground.</i>

strength (N) 80/7.31	N: strength/strengthening – 35/3 A: strong – 31 ADV: strongly – 1 V: strengthen/strong arm – 9/1	L5-R5: muscle (7). Reference shifts: 24 instances concern the rider’s body or the intensity of their aids, not the physical capabilities of the horse’s body (contrary to term definition). <i>The drape of the rein is determined by the strength of the back and loin.</i> <i>That side of the horse’s body also becomes stronger than the other and thus loping on the dominant lead becomes easiest.</i>
stretching (N) 26/2.37	N: stretching/stretch-ability – 10/1 A: stretched/stretching – 3/1 A: stretchable/stretch-able – 1/1 V: stretch – 9	Phrasal verbs: stretch down (4), stretch out (1). Stretching and bending the horse while he is standing still will not make a horse supple. <i>[H]e begins to relax his neck and back under the rider’s weight and stretch down.</i>
stride (N) 139/12.69	N: stride/striding – 134/1 V: stride – 4	L1: every (13), short (12), next (8). Clusters: stride by stride (16), a few strides (7), stride after stride (6). <i>[T]he handler should pay attention to the horse and the horse should pay attention to the handler. All the time.</i> Stride by stride . <i>When you get a few strides reward the horse with a loose rein and relaxed manner.</i>
suppleness (N) 64/5.84	N: suppleness – 19 N: suppling/supplying – 5/1 A: suppling/supplying – 5/1 A: supple – 26 V: supple – 7	Clusters: looser and more supple (3). Reference shifts: three A (<i>supple</i>) instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). <i>Flexibility exercises will lead to greater suppleness, Mobility exercises will lead to greater straightness and Collectibility exercises will lead to greater carrying power.</i> <i>There are a lot of. . . exercises trainers can use to help any horse become looser and more supple in his joints.</i>
SWINGING (N) 19/1.74	N: swinging/swing – 2/3 A: swinging – 1 V: swing – 13	Phrasal verbs: swing out/outward/over/along/around (3/1/1/1/1). L5-R5: hip (5). Reference shifts: all instances concern swinging in other movements than those mentioned in term definition. <i>Otherwise, his shoulder will drop and his haunches will swing out, and you will lose your “arc.”</i>
tack (N) 16/1.46	N: tack – 12 A: tacked – 1 V: tack up/untack – 2/1	<i>If you are riding in Western tack, bring the reins under the pommel and through the hole under the pommel, and tie them in a knot.</i>
TENSE (A) 31/2.83	A: tense/tensed – 24/1 V: tense/tense up – 4/2	L5-R5: ear, tail (6), muscle (5). Reference shifts: one V instance describes the rider’s purposeful action to cue the horse (contrary to term definition, which only mentions negative muscle tension). <i>If he were to get more tense, I’d back off my intensity until he was comfortable, then gradually start . . . again.</i> <i>Power is a combination of Energy plus Relaxation, while energy without relaxation is just... tense energy!</i>
tension (N) 36/3.29	N: tension/tenseness – 34/2	Reference shifts: three <i>tension</i> instances describe the necessary rein tension (contrary to term definition, which only mentions negative muscle tension). <i>If their backs are free from negative tension, their legs are also free.</i> <i>You have the horse’s trust when he works without any tension in his body--no tight muscles.</i>

through (A) 23/2.10	ADV: through – 3 P: through – 20	Clusters: broke through their body, through his back and neck (3). Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider’s body, which needs that quality just like the horse’s. <i>When I am able to put all these parts together and move my horse’s body in concert with itself, that’s what I consider to be “broke through their body.”</i> <i>A horse that is on the aids . . . [i]s muscularly connected from his hocks through his back and neck to the bit because the rider’s whole circle of aids is closed.</i>
track (N) 42/3.84	N: track/tracking – 35/1 V: track – 6	L1: same (6). L5-R5: foot (14), front (13), circle (8), leg (7), hind (6). Reference shifts: only two instances denote tracking left/right as mentioned by term definition. The remaining ones denote lines determined by the horse’s direction of travel, marked by the whole body or separate legs. <i>The closer the hind foot track is the front foot track the more engaged the horse is.</i> <i>His front legs stay on the original track of the circle and his hindquarters describe a larger circle.</i>
training (N) 602/54.98	N: training/trainer/trainee – 350/157/1 A: trained – 23 V: train – 71	L1: [training:] dressage (8), foundation (7), good (6). R1: [training:] tree (39), program (14), session (11), technique (7), method, sequence (6), level (5). L5-R5: level (22), sequence (15), dressage, pressure (13), foundation (12). Clusters: training outside the box (9), up the training tree (7), the trainer’s job (5). <i>The training tree works for training older horses, too. You just start the older horse out just as though he was a baby green horse and work him up through each level.</i> <i>In this article, I continue with the series “training outside the box.” The “box” is the confined areas, such as arenas and paddocks, where many riders spend most of their training time.</i> <i>You can ride purely for pleasure or you can ride to train.</i>
transition (N) 84/7.67	N: transition/transitioning – 81/1 V: transition – 2	L1: downward (13), lope (7), upward (6). R1: to (13). L5-R5: walk (15), circle (6). <i>[A]t the nine o’clock position on the large circle, prepare for a downward transition to a slower walk.</i> <i>This time, before returning to the large circle, ask for an upward transition within the small circle.</i>
trot (N) 132/12.05	N: trot/trotting – 95/8 A: trotting – 4 V: trot – 25	L1: walk (10), jog (7). R1: lope (4). L5-R5: walk (33), canter (19), lope (18), jog (10), rising (8). Clusters: at the trot (17), to the trot (16), to a trot (10), walk and trot (6). <i>Horses were created to walk, trot, lope, gallop, stop, turn, and then go some more!</i> <i>Once you have practiced controlling falling out on the circle at the walk, do the exercise at the trot.</i> <i>Make him exercise at the trot, then the walk, back to the trot, and then back to the canter.</i>
trot, rising (NP) 18/1.64	NP: rising trot/rising motion – 1/1 N: rising – 12 V: rise – 4	L5-R5: posting (5). <i>[R]ising to the trot is a way to communicate rhythm to the horse and help him develop the relaxation that follows from moving rhythmically.</i>

turn (N) 286/26.12	N: turn/turning – 112/22 A: turning – 26 V: turn – 126	R1: [turning:] aid (14), rein (5), [turn:] around (7). L5-R5: right (25), direction (15), left (14), head, stop (13), forward (10). Clusters: bending and turning, out of the turn, turn his head (8), through the turn (7). <i>As you come out of the turn ask the horse to step out briskly with energy and forward motion.</i> <i>If a horse is turned only with the inside rein, however, it puts all of his weight onto the inside front leg.</i> <i>If you're a little to his right, he'll turn his head to his right.</i>
vertical (N) 23/2.10	N: vertical – 2 A: vertical – 14 ADV: vertically – 7	All instances concern the horse's nose (one of two referents given in term definition beside the rider's posture). <i>He needs to . . . give his face laterally as well as vertically in response to your reins.</i> <i>[T]ip your horse's head both ways to achieve first lateral and then vertical flexion.</i>
walk (N) 176/16.07	N: walk/walking – 86/17 A: walking – 1 V: walk – 72	L1: extended (5). R1: trot (10), forward (4). L5-R5: trot (33), circle (23), stop, transition (13), forward (11), start (10), canter, lope (9), jog (8). Clusters: at the walk (32), at a walk (9). <i>You can practice the circle-in-a-circle at the walk and jog as well as at the lope.</i> <i>Continue the extended walk on the large circle.</i> <i>The arc and bend stay exactly the same as when you were walking forward.</i>
warm up (NP) 52/4.75	NP: warm up/warm-up – 4/22 N: warmup – 2 NP: warming up – 2 A: warmed up/warmed-up – 6/1 V: warm up – 15	<i>The same principle applies to the rider's mounted warm-up. The warm-up is a time for the rider to get into correct form and balance as she loosens her muscles and joints.</i> <i>When I was younger I worked for a trainer that instructed me to warm my horses up for twenty minutes, train for twenty minutes, and then spend twenty minutes allowing the horse to cool down.</i>
whip (N) 45/4.11	N: whip – 44 V: whip – 1	L1: longe/lunge (2/4). L5-R5: pressure (6), spur (5). <i>When people constantly jab with their spurs or tap with a whip, that becomes a constant pressure that the horse learns to ignore.</i> <i>All you need is a good fitting halter, a cotton longe line, and a lunge whip.</i>
yield (V) 33/3.01	V: yield – 26 N: yielding – 5 A: yielding – 2	Clusters: resist then yield (3). <i>Now once I have this where he's flexible from side to side, where his first reaction to my request is to yield and not resist then yield, but yield first, then I start reaching with both reins.</i>

Table 26. Frequency and characterization of Polish terms in the POS.

Term [Equivalent] Total/per 15,000 words	Forms in the subcorpus	Significant collocates and clusters Examples
AKCJA (N) [action] 3/1.10	N	<i>Skaczymy na koniu swobodnie galopującym, o uniesionej głowie, u którego szyja amortyzuje każdy skok galopu, będący wynikiem wydatnej akcji tylnych kończyn.</i>
AMAZONKA (N) [woman rider] 4/1.47	N	<i>Słyszałem kiedyś jak na polecenie instruktora „daj mu łydkę” skonfundowana amazonka wyszeptala „przecież ja go nie znam”.</i>
BALANS (N) [balance] 4/1.47	N	<i>[U]łożenie dłoni i ręki pozwala koniowi na balans głowy i szyi.</i>
bat (N) [whip] 11/4.04	N: bat/bacik – 10/1	<i>Na swoje własne nieszczęście koń jest na tyle chętym i uległym partnerem, że w większości wypadków jest możliwe wytrenować go siłą, z pomocą bata i ostróg.</i>
biodro (N) [hip] 8/2.94	N	<i>Biodra nadają ruch obrotowy, a za tym idzie dalsze ustawienie się tułowia równoległe do łopatek konia.</i>
budowa konia (NP) [horse's conformation] 3/1.10	NP: budowa konia – 2 N: budowa – 1	<i>Tempo (do 600 m/min) zależy od budowy i stopnia wytrenowania konia.</i>
charakter konia (NP) [horse's character] 4/1.47	NP: charakter konia – 1 N: charakter – 3	<i>O sile działania pomocy decyduje charakter i wrażliwość konia.</i>
CHÓD (N) [gait] 96/35.29	N	L1: odmiana, trzy (4). Clusters: we wszystkich chodach, w tym chodzie (4). <i>Pod pojęciem regularności rozumiemy najogólniej konieczność równomiernego poruszania się konia we wszystkich chodach i ich odmianach. Wykrok konia jest w tym chodzie maksymalnej długości.</i>
chód boczny (NP) [lateral movement] 13/4.78	NP: chód/ruch boczny – 10/3	<i>Wykonywane poprawnie koło jest wstępem do chodów bocznych, pomaga w odnalezieniu koniowi równowagi oraz w wyprostowaniu.</i>
chód podstawowy (NP) [basic gait] 3/1.10	NP: chód podstawowy/podstawowy chód – 1/1 NP: podstawowy rodzaj chodu – 1	<i>[F]achowe oko dostrzeże mnóstwo innych błędów w postawie ciała, sposobie noszenia się, braku wyprostowania i symetrii obciążania kończyn, a często także w podstawowych chodach.</i>
CHÓD, ZMIENIĆ (VP) [change gait] 3/1.10	VP: zmienić chód – 1 NP: zmiana chodu – 2	<i>Zmiana chodów i ich szybkości powinna odbywać się miękko i delikatnie, a dosiad jeźdźca powinien być spokojny.</i>
ciąg (N) [half-pass] 5/1.84	N	<i>Ciąg (rys. 70) jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku ruchu.</i>

CIĄGNAĆ (V) [pull] 26/9.56	V: ciągnąć – 13 N: ciągnięcie – 10 A: ciągnący/ciągnięty – 2/1	Reference shifts: only seven instances concern the horse's action, while 19 describe what the rider does. <i>Marek Roszczynialski odpowiadał: „to nie koń ciągnie jeźdźca, tylko jeździec ciągnie konia”.</i> <i>Stale ciągnięcie za wodze spowoduje u konia reakcję oporu i napierania na wodze.</i>
cierpliwość (N) [patience] 8/2.94	N: cierpliwość – 5 A: cierpliwy – 3	<i>Marek Roszczynialski – absolwent słynnego przedwojennego Centrum Wyszkozenia Kawalerii . . . – nauczył mnie pokory wobec własnych umiejętności, wielkiej cierpliwości i stanowczości.</i>
ciężar ciała (NP) [weight aid] 30/11.03	NP: ciężar ciała/jeźdźca – 10/7 N: ciężar – 13	L1: przenosić (4), działanie, rozłożenie (3). Clusters: ciężar i łydka (4), ciężar, łydka i wodza (3). Reference shifts: seven instances of <i>ciężar ciała</i> refer to the horse, not the rider. <i>Poważnym błędem jest nadmierne używanie ręki przy niedostatecznym działaniu ciężarem i łydką.</i> <i>Pomoże mu to przenieść ciężar ciała na tył i podstawić tylne nogi pod kłodę.</i>
COFANIE (N) [backing] 25/9.19	N: cofanie – 15 A: cofający – 1 V: cofać/cofać się – 1/8	<i>Cofanie jest bazą do prawidłowego wykonywania szybkiego zatrzymania, roll-backu, czy też sliding stopu.</i> <i>[G]dy nasz koń nauczy się już cofać, wykonujemy ten ruch po KAŻDYM zatrzymaniu!</i>
czterotakt (N) [four-beat rhythm] 7/2.57	NP: cztero-takt – 1 A: czterotaktowy/4-taktowy – 5/1	<i>Bardzo szybki galop, tzw. cwał (rys. 60), jest już chodem czterotaktowym. Tempo (do 600 m/min) zależy od budowy i stopnia wytrenowania konia.</i>
ĆWICZENIE POD JEŹDŹCEM (NP) [an exercise under saddle] 7/2.57	PP: pod jeźdźcem – 7	<i>Często zdarza się, że koń, który porusza się w prawidłowym rytmie na swobodzie, pod jeźdźcem staje się nierówny, skraca kroki i sztywnieje.</i>
dodanie (N) [speeding up] 6/2.21	N: dodanie/dodawanie – 2/1 A: dodany – 3	<i>Jeśli koń się leni, to natychmiast jeździec musi to wyczuć i energicznym dodaniem wyegzekwować prawidłowe tempo i rytm.</i>
dosiad (N) [seat] 50/18.38	N	L1: niezależny, prawidłowy (4). L5-R5: pomoc (11), łydka (10). <i>Wadliwe: dosiad i pomoce z miejsca przekreślają jakikolwiek sukces w tym względzie.</i> <i>Palcat i ostrogi to dodatkowe pomoce. Dosiad, łydka i ręka działają na ogół łącznie.</i>
DOSIADAĆ (V) [mount] 3/1.10	V: dosiąść – 2 A: dosiadany – 1	<i>Może wspomniane przeze mnie problemy wydają się blahe i nieznaczące. Można przecież osiodłać i dosiąść konia bez tych wszystkich ceregieli.</i>
dwutakt (N) [two-beat rhythm] 3/1.10	A: dwutaktowy/2-taktowy – 2/1	<i>Kłus (rys. 57) jest chodem dwutaktowym, symetrycznym, w którym słychać dwa uderzenia kopyt o ziemię.</i>
ELASTYCZNY (A) [elastic] 32/11.76	A: elastyczny – 15 ADV: elastycznie – 2 N: elastyczność – 15	Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>Koń elastyczny to równocześnie taki, który chętnie przystosowuje się do wymagań jeźdźca.</i> <i>Prawidłowo wykonywane ustępowania . . . mają świetny wpływ na swobodę i elastyczność chodów.</i>
faza lotu (NP) [suspension phase] 6/2.21	NP	<i>Zmiana nogi w galopie jest jednym z trudniejszych elementów ujeżdżenia. Koń musi zmienić położenie kończyn w fazie lotu, nie zwalniając rytmu galopu i ruchu do przodu.</i>

FOULÉE (N) [foulée] 9/3.31	N	<i>Przeszkody w liniach powinny być łatwe i dostosowane do długości foulée konia.</i>
galop (N) [canter] 51/18.75	N	L5-R5: kłus (16). Clusters: w kłusie i w galopie (4), skok z galopu (3). <i>[B]ez długiej fazy zawieszenia w kłusie i w galopie jest niemożliwe wykonanie obszernego ruchu w bok.</i> <i>[W] momencie zawiśnięcia konia w powietrzu między trzecim a pierwszym taktem galopu, przekłada się pomoce.</i>
galopie, krzyżowanie w (NP) [disunited canter] 3/1.10	V: krzyżować – 3	<i>Przy wykonywaniu zmiany nogi w galopie należy uważać, by koń zmieniał zarówno przednią, jak i odpowiednią tylną nogę, a więc aby nie „krzyżował”.</i>
GALOPOWAĆ (V) [canter] 14/5.15	V: galopować – 13 A: galopujący – 1	<i>[Z]wycięzca finału Pucharu Świata, Amerykanin Rich Fellers daje koniowi swobodniej galopować.</i>
galop zebrany (NP) [collected canter] 3/1.10	NP	<i>Głowa jest trochę bardziej przed pionem aniżeli w galopie zebranych i roboczym.</i>
GALOP Z LEWEJ NOGI (NP) [left-lead canter] 4/1.47	NP: galop z lewej nogi – 2 VP: galopować z lewej nogi – 2	<i>[J]eżeli dotychczas pomoce ustawiały konia np. w prawo . . ., to teraz pomoce ustawiają konia w lewo, czyli do galopu z lewej nogi.</i>
GALOP Z PRAWY NOGI (NP) [right-lead canter] 10/3.68	NP: galop z prawej nogi – 3 VP: galopować/iść z prawej nogi – 6/1	<i>Teraz pomoce działają tak, jak podczas galopu z prawej nogi, wskutek czego koń zmienia nogę.</i>
głos (N) [voice] 4/1.47	N	<i>[G]łosu używamy równocześnie z działaniem liny i odpowiednim ustawieniem naszego ciała.</i>
głowa (N) [head] 57/20.95	N	L5-R5: wyciągnąć (8), opuścić (5), obniżyć (4). Clusters: głowa i szyja (12), szyja i głowa (9). Reference shifts: four instances concern the rider's head, not the horse's. <i>Jego szyja i głowa są wyciągnięte do przodu i w dół, swym ciężarem naciągając skórę na grzbiecie. Koń na wędzidle idzie . . . z głową opuszczoną na tyle, że nos pozostaje tuż przed pionem.</i>
grzbiet (N) [back] 36/13.23	N	L1: na (6). L5-R5: szyja (9). <i>To napięcie przenosi się wzdłuż szyi i grzbietu konia do zadu.</i> <i>[K]oń znacznie bardziej reaguje na zmiany rozłożenia naszego ciężaru na grzbiecie i jego przesuwanie, niż na próby sterowania wodzami.</i>
grzbiet pracujący (NP) [working back] 5/1.84	NP: praca grzbietu – 2 VP: pracować grzbietem – 1 grzbiet pracuje – 2	<i>Grzbiet pracuje, poruszając się w górę i w dół miękkim, falistym ruchem, a chody są rytmiczne.</i>

grzbietu, mięsień (NP) [back muscle] 8/2.94	NP	<i>Na koniec pracował z koniem, który był tak skrzywiony, że miał widocznie jeden mięsień grzbietu uniesiony i zeszywniały za bardzo, a drugi aż zapadnięty.</i>
IMPULS (N) [impulsion] 40/14.70	N: impuls/impulsion – 38/2	R1: wewnętrzna (4), łydka (4). L5-R5: szwung (4). Reference shifts: 13 instances denote the stimulus of the rider's aids, not the general training notion. <i>Co jest do tego potrzebne? Prosto ustawiony zewnętrznie koń, zgięcie wewnętrzne szyi i stały impuls wewnętrznej łydki zgrany z impulsem dłoni. Bez wyprostowania jest niemożliwe utrzymanie impulsu (szwungu) – kiedy go nie ma, każdy ruch sprawia wrażenie ociężałego i niepewnego.</i>
inochód (N) [pace gait] 4/1.47	N	<i>Koń chodzący inochodem porusza się zawsze tym chodem, niezależnie od prędkości.</i>
INSTRUKTOR KONNEJ JAZDY (NP) [riding instructor] 15/5.51	N: instruktor – 14 A: instruktorski – 1	<i>[K]iedy słyszę: „Rozpręż go, a ja przyjdę na skoki” – wiem, że to nie jest instruktor świadomy tego, co robi.</i>
JAZDA KONNA (NP) [horse riding] 14/5.15	NP	<i>Jazda konna jest jak gra na fortepianie. Używa się obu dłoni i każda z nich ma odrębne zadanie.</i>
jazda w terenie (NP) [trail ride] 9/3.31	NP: jazda w terenie – 1 PP: w teren/w terenie – 3/5	<i>[P]onoszenie w terenie, odmowa wykonania skoku, opór na wędzidle, nie zagalopowanie z prawidłowej nogi – wszystko to wynika z braku szacunku dla człowieka.</i>
JECHAĆ (V) [ride] 50/18.38	V: jechać/dojechać/pojechać – 12/1/1 V: jeździć/pojeździć – 19/2 A: jechany/przejechany – 1/1 A: jeżdżący/jeżdżony – 4/5 N: jeżdżenie – 2 N: wjechanie/wyjechanie – 1/1	<i>Potocznie mówi się, że konia trzeba mieć przed sobą, albo że jechać go od zadu do ręki – oznacza to przewagę pomocy aktywizujących nad wstrzymującymi. Choć większość tych ludzi na co dzień jeździ klasycznie, to jednak wiedzą oni, kiedy warto zastosować elementy naturalu, by osiągnąć cel.</i>
JEŹDZIEC (N) [rider] 336/123.51	N	L1: ręka (16), ciało (9), dobry (7), ciężar (6), pomoc (5), doświadczony, tułów (4). R1: powinien (17), musieć (10), móc (5). L5-R5: siodło (17), dosiad (14), trener (11). Clusters: koń i jeździec (9), jeździec i koń (7). <i>Przy prawidłowym dosiadzie nogi jeźdźca ściśle przylegają do siodła. Jeździec powinien pamiętać o zaznaczeniu i zachowaniu zgięcia przez cały czas. Brak zrozumienia „mechanicznych” problemów konia przez jeźdźców i co gorsza, trenerów, powoduje, że widzimy wokół tak wiele koni, które straciły swoją naturalną swobodę poruszania się.</i>
JEŹDZIEC POCZĄTKUJĄCY (NP) [beginning rider] 3/1.10	NP: jeździec początkujący/ początkujący jeździec – 1/1 N: początkujący – 1	<i>Początkujący jeźdźcy dla ułatwienia rozpoczęcia obrotu mają tendencję do przechylania się na wewnętrzną stronę.</i>

JEŹDZIECTWO (N) [horse riding] 24/8.82	N	L1: klasyczne, naturalne (3). R1: naturalne (2). <i>[O]dnosił się do wzorów starego klasycznego jeździectwa podając wiele ciekawych postaci i książek. [U]ważam, że powinno się w pierwszej kolejności bazować na rodzimych osiągnięciach i doświadczeniach, a gdy te zawiodą, korzystać z doświadczeń jeździectwa naturalnego.</i>
język (N) [tongue] 7/2.57	N	<i>Przeciętne wędzidło powinno mieć grubość między 18 a 21 mm, dla koni o małych pyskach i grubym języku – 16 mm.</i>
kadencja (N) [cadence] 3/1.10	N	<i>Jeśli weźmiemy dwa podobne konie, to lepszą kadencję będzie miał ten, którego przekątna para nóg będzie uderzała o podłoże idealnie w tym samym momencie.</i>
kara (N) [punishment] 5/1.84	N	<i>Nie ma takich przewinień, za które „słuszną” karą byłoby okładanie batem, klucie ostrogami, czy szarpanie za pysk.</i>
KARAĆ (V) [punish] 3/1.10	V: ukarać – 1 N: karanie/ukaranie – 1/1	<i>W treningu koni zdarza się, że trzeba konia ukarać.</i>
kląb (N) [withers] 4/1.47	N	<i>Wtedy bacznie patrzę na linię szyi, aby wychodząc z klębu płynnie biegła wyłącznie w dół, jak zjeżdżalnia.</i>
KLUS (N) [trot] 63/23.16	N	L1: z (12), w (10), do, step (4). L5-R5: galop (15), step (10). Clusters: w klusie i w galopie (4). <i>Od młodych koni, niezdolnych jeszcze do użycia siły nośnej, wymaga się jedynie wydłużenia kroków w klusie i w galopie, przy zachowaniu równowagi i tempa. Zagalopować najłatwiej jest z klusą.</i>
KLUS ĆWICZEBNY (NP) [sitting trot] 8/2.94	NP	<i>Aby zagalopować, jeździec jadąc klusą ćwiczebną nieznacznie skraca wewnętrzną wodzę, skracając lekko głowę i szyję konia tak, aby mógł widzieć połowę jego oka.</i>
KLUS NORMALNY (NP) [normal trot] 3/1.10	NP	<i>Klus normalny (z angliczowaniem) jest pewnego rodzaju odpoczynkiem dla konia i jeźdźcy, gdyż kontakt jeźdźcy z siodłem trwa tylko krótkie chwile.</i>
KLUSOWAĆ (V) [trot] 7/2.57	V: klusować – 6 A: klusujący – 1	<i>W klusie normalnym bardziej obciążona jest ta para nóg, na którą jeździec klusuje.</i>
KLUS WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended trot] 3/1.10	NP: klus wyciągnięty/wyciągnięty klus – 1/2	<i>Były też elementy humorystyczne, gdy pokazywał jaki naturalny wyciągnięty klus potrafi zaprezentować koń.</i>
klus zebrany (NP) [collected trot] 4/1.47	NP: klus zebrany/zebrany klus – 3/1	<i>Galop nie powinien trwać dłużej niż 5-7 minut. Po nim krótki klus na złapanie oddechu. Następnie 3-5 minut klusy zebranego z przejściami do stępa i zatrzymaniami.</i>
koło (N) [circle] 41/15.07	N	L1: na, po (7), mniejsze, środek (3). <i>Poruszając się po kole we wszystkich chodach powinien być odpowiednio wygięty. Wyrobienie elastyczności kłody wykonuje się najczęściej na kole.</i>

KONIARZ (N) [horseman] 3/1.10	N	<i>Drodzy koniarze – klasyczni i naturalni, westowcy i skoczkowie, dresażyści i rekreaci! Więcej tolerancji i zrozumienia dla siebie nawzajem.</i>
kontakt (N) [contact] 42/15.44	N	L1: lekki (5). L5-R5: wodza (9). Clusters: kontakt z pyskiem (7). <i>Kontakt z pyskiem na obu wodzach powinien się wyrównywać w miarę wyszkolenia konia. Co zatem zrobić jak „koń ciągnie”? Puścić wodze, a wtedy koń straci oparcie na wędzidle. Potem wodze znów nabrać (przejsć na lekki kontakt).</i>
kontrgalop (N) [counter-canter] 8/2.94	N	<i>W kontrgalopie działanie pomocy jest identyczne jak w galopie, z wyjątkiem sterującego działania wodzy.</i>
KOŃCZYNA (N) [limb] 25/9.19	N	<i>[K]ulawizny kopytowe są najczęstszymi schorzeniami kończyn u koni. Dbanie o kończyny to również wiedza o tym ile, jak często i jak wysoko skakać.</i>
koń ujeżdżeniowy (NP) [dressage horse] 6/2.21	NP	<i>Jazda w terenie dla koni ujeżdżeniowych – jak najbardziej wskazana. Należy urozmaicać pracę i unikać monotonii męczącej konia i jeźdźca.</i>
KOŃ WIERZCHOWY (NP) [riding horse] 18/6.62	NP: koń wierzchowy – 3 N: wierzchowiec – 15	<i>Jeżeli poczujemy, że wierzchowiec „wiesza się” na wędzidle, sygnał łydką przypomina mu gdzie jest miejsce jego głowy.</i>
koziółek (N) [cavaletto] 8/2.94	N	<i>Na placu stoją również koziółki (cavaletti) i co drugi dzień konie ujeżdżeniowe mają również skoki gimnastyczne.</i>
kręgosłup (N) [spine] 4/1.47	N	<i>[W]szystko po to, by unieść do góry najslabszy kawałek mostu, jakim jest kręgosłup konia, a konkretnie jego odcinek lędźwiowy.</i>
krzyż (N) [lower back] 17/6.25	N	L1: działanie (4). Clusters: łydka i krzyż (4). <i>Popędzające działanie krzyża i obie łydki (zwłaszcza zewnętrzna) utrzymują impuls.</i>
krzyża, napięcie (NP) [bracing the back] 4/1.47	NP: napięcie krzyża/napięty krzyż – 3/1	<i>W żadnym wypadku nie wolno używać „napięcia krzyża” jako stale działającej pomocy.</i>
lekkość (N) [lightness] 42/15.44	N: lekkość – 12 A: lekki – 20 ADV: lekko – 10	R1: kontakt (5). <i>Wykonuje się wiele ćwiczeń zginających szyję konia, które budują fundament do jego późniejszej elastyczności i lekkości pod jeźdźcem. Jeździec utrzymuje lekki kontakt z pyskiem konia przez wodze.</i>
linia prosta (NP) [straight line] 13/4.78	NP: linia prosta/prosta linia – 11/2	<i>Jeżeli koń porusza się po linii prostej, jest mu obojętne, z której nogi galopuje.</i>
lonża (N) [lunge line] 10/3.68	N	<i>Od młodego konia żądamy jedynie wyprostowania liniowego, którego podstawy kształtują się wstępnie już podczas pracy na lonży.</i>

lonżowanie (N) [lungeing] 9/3.31	N: lonżowanie – 4 V: lonżować – 1 A: lonżujący/lonżowany – 2/2	<i>Dla młodego konia najlepszym sposobem na rozluźnienie jest lonżowanie.</i>
łokieć (N) [elbow] 3/1.10	N	<i>Jeśli trzeba można oddać wodze z łokcia i z barku (żucie z ręki).</i>
łopatką do wewnątrz (NP) [shoulder-in] 6/2.21	NP: łopatką/łopatka do wewnątrz – 1/5	<i>„Łopatką do wewnątrz” jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu.</i>
łydka (N) [leg aid] 97/35.66	N	L1: działanie (12), lewa (5), prawa (4). L5-R5: wodza (19), dosiad (5). Clusters: łydka i wodza (7), ciężar i łydka, łydka i krzyż (4), dosiad i łydka, łydka i ręka (3). <i>Takim działaniem łydek i wodzy koń zostaje ustawiony do wewnątrz, tzn. wygięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jeźdźca.</i> <i>[J]eździec ma wrażenie, jak gdyby pod lewą łydką nie było konia.</i>
łydka ograniczająca (NP) [restricting leg aid] 4/1.47	NP: łydka ograniczająca/ograniczająca łydka – 1/1 łydka działa ograniczająco – 2	<i>Większy nacisk wewnętrznej kości kulszowej powstaje już przez samo użycie zewnętrznej ograniczającej łydki.</i>
łydka wewnętrzna (NP) [inside leg] 23/8.45	NP: łydka wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna łydka – 8/15	L5-R5: popręg (5). <i>[W]ewnętrzna kość kulszowa jest nieco wysunięta do przodu, łydka wewnętrzna na popręgu, a zewnętrzna nieco za popręgiem.</i> <i>Koń jest wygięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki i ustawiony w kierunku ruchu.</i>
łydka zewnętrzna (NP) [outside leg] 15/5.51	NP: łydka zewnętrzna/zewnętrzna łydka – 7/8	<i>Zewnętrzna łydka reguluje ruch i razem z zewnętrzną wodzą zapobiega zbyt szybkiemu ruchowi w bok.</i>
łydki, nacisk (NP) [leg pressure] 5/1.84	NP: nacisk obiema łydkami – 1 N: nacisk – 4	<i>W przypadku koni słabiej ujeżdżonych, w momencie zagalopowania łydka zewnętrzna musi również dać impuls popędzający, lecz jej nacisk powinien być zawsze znacznie słabszy niż nacisk łydki wewnętrznej.</i>
ŁYDKI PRZESUWAJĄCE, DZIAŁANIE (NP) [shifting action of leg aid] 4/1.47	NP: działanie przesuwające łydki – 1 NP: przesuwające sygnały łydki – 1 łydka działa przesuwająco – 2	<i>Kolejnym problemem pojawiającym się w ustępowaniu jest wyprzedzający zad. Często jest to spowodowane zbyt mocnym działaniem przesuującym łydki.</i>
łydki, ustępowanie od (NP) [leg-yielding] 22/8.09	NP: ustępowanie od łydki/ustępowanie * od * łydki – 4/1 N: ustępowanie – 12 V: ustępować – 3 VP: ustępować od działania łydki – 1 ustępowanie robimy od łydki – 1	<i>Prawidłowo wykonywane ustępowania są doskonałą gimnastyką dla naszego wierzchowca. Pomoże to uniknąć podobnych sytuacji – napierania, a nie odchodzenia od łydki – w przyszłości, np. przy ustępowaniu od łydki.</i>

miętkość (N) [softness] 16/5.88	N: miętkość – 1 A: miętki – 13 ADV: miętko – 2	Clusters: miękka ręka (5). <i>Pierwsze lekcje polegają na zrozumieniu czym jest miękka ręka, która sprawia, że wędzidło prawidłowo działa na dziąsła zamiast opierać się na zębach.</i>
mięsień (N) [muscle] 72/26.47	N: mięsień – 64 A: mięśniowy – 6 ADV: mięśniowo – 2	L1: napięcie (5), rozluźnić (4), grupa (3). R1: zad (5), brzuch (3). <i>Największym błędem, jaki można popełnić w treningu młodego konia, jest próbowanie osiągnięcia zebrania przed ustabilizowaniem równowagi i wzmocnieniem mięśni zadu. Zwiększenie „napięcia krzyża” to wzmocnienie napięcia mięśni brzucha i dolnych mięśni pleców.</i>
MISTRZ W SIODLE (NP) [master in the saddle] 4/1.47	NP: mistrz jeździecki/klasyczny mistrz – 1/1 N: mistrz – 2	<i>Osoby, takie jak Philippe Karl, które zadały sobie trud dokładnego studiowania zapisków dawnych mistrzów i prawdziwego zgłębiania ich filozofii, sprzeciwiają się takim nadużyciom.</i>
MOMENT ZAWIESZENIA (NP) [suspension phase] 17/6.25	NP: moment/faza zawieszenia – 3/11 N: zawieszenie – 3	<i>Faza zawieszenia powinna być bardzo wyraźna, aczkolwiek nie wtedy, kiedy przybiera postać „pasażowego” ruchu, który należy natychmiast eliminować.</i>
munsztuk (N) [curb] 3/1.10	N: munsztuk – 2 A: munsztukowy – 1	<i>[K]arygodne jest zakładanie munsztuka jako instrumentu hamującego, czy mającego uczynić konia „łżejszym na ręce”.</i>
nagradzanie (N) [rewarding] 8/2.94	V: nagradzać – 8	<i>Nagradzając najlichsze próby sprawimy, że bardzo szybko pojmie, o co nam chodzi i będzie się starał nas zadowolić.</i>
NAGRODA (N) [reward] 3/1.10	N	<i>Ważną rzeczą jest, by nagroda . . . spotykała konia tylko po prawidłowym wykonaniu ćwiczenia.</i>
NA ŁĄCZNOŚCI (PP) [connected] 4/1.47	PP: w łączności – 1 N: łączność – 3	<i>Galop roboczy . . . jest chodem, w którym koń nie wytrenowany i nie przygotowany do ruchów zebranych wykazuje właściwie zrównoważenie i pozostaje w łączności z jeźdźcem.</i>
natura (N) [character] 8/2.94	N	<i>Konie atletyczne z natury, z krótkimi dźwigniami muszą być szkolone pod kątem rozluźnienia i elastyczności, bowiem sama siła może mieć efekt usztywniający.</i>
nieposłuszeństwo (N) [disobedience] 5/1.84	N	<i>Część błędów w trenowaniu stępa polega na niezauważaniu przez jeźdźcę nieposłuszeństwa na pomoce prostujące i popędzające.</i>
NOGA (N) [leg] 71/26.10	N	L1: zadnia (9), krzyżowanie (7), prawa (6), zewnętrzna (5), cztery (4). L5-R5: galopować (7), jedna, trzy (6). <i>[G]dy poczujemy, że koń robi krzyżowanie nóg płynnie i w rytmie możemy zwiększyć szybkość. [K]oń musi iść jednym śladem, czyli stawiać zadnie nogi dokładnie w tej samej linii co przednie.</i>
NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP) [foreleg] 52/19.12	NP: noga przednia/przednia noga/przednia * noga – 4/20/5 NP: kończyna przednia/przednia kończyna – 2/3 A: przednia – 18	L1: prawa (7), ślad (5). L5-R5: tylna (19), krzyżować (8). <i>[J]eździec opada w siodło wtedy, kiedy koń stawia na ziemi przednią lewą nogę. [K]oń powinien obracać się wokół jednej przedniej nogi (przy zwrocie w prawo wokół przodniej nogi).</i>

NOGA TYLNA (NP) [hind leg] 62/22.79	NP: noga tylna/tylna noga/tylna * noga – 2/39/1 NP: kończyna tylna/tylna kończyna – 2/7 A: tylna – 11	L1: aktywność (4), lewa, odpowiednia, ślad (3). L5-R5: przednia (20). <i>Ci jeźdźcy . . . często próbują „zmiękczyć” twardą wodzę siłą, zamiast starać się stopniowo kierować tylną nogę bardziej pod ciało, wyrównując tym samym obciążenie obu tylnych nóg. W pracy nad równowagą horyzontalną, czyli rozkładem ciężaru między przednimi i tylnymi nogami, trzeba pamiętać o tym, że środek ciężkości konia leży bliżej przednich nóg.</i>
NOGA WEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [inside leg] 9/3.31	NP: noga wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna noga – 6/3	<i>Warunkiem krzyżowania jest to, aby noga wewnętrzna przekraczała ślad nogi zewnętrznej.</i>
NOGI, PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE (VP) [engage hind legs] 15/5.51	VP: podstawić tylne kończyny/tylne nogi/zadnie nogi – 1/1/2 VP: podstawić konia/nogę/zad – 1/2/2 NP: podstawianie się – 1 NP: podstawienie tylnych kończyn/zadu – 2/3	<i>[W]arto poprzedzić obrót cofnięciem go o krok lub dwa. Pomoże mu to przenieść ciężar ciała na tył i podstawić tylne nogi pod kłode.</i>
nogi w galopie, lotna zmiana (NP) [flying lead change] 6/2.21	NP: zmiana nogi w galopie – 5 NP: lotna zmiana nogi – 1	<i>Zmiana nogi w galopie jest jednym z trudniejszych elementów ujeżdżenia. Koń musi zmienić położenie kończyn w fazie lotu, nie zwalniając rytmu galopu i ruchu do przodu.</i>
NOGI, ZMIANA (NP) [lead change] 20/7.35	NP: zmiana nogi – 15 N: zmiana – 2 VP: zmieniać nogę – 3	<i>[Z] czasem koń na samo przełożenie pomocy zareaguje zmianą nogi. Opisane działanie zmusza konia do zmiany nogi, na którą ładuje.</i>
nos (N) [nose] 18/6.62	N	L5-R5: pion, przód (5). <i>Trener bardzo zwracał uwagę na to, by . . . koński nos był wypuszczony nieco przed pion.</i>
nóg, przekątna para (NP) [diagonal leg pair] 12/4.41	NP: przekątna para nóg/kończyn – 6/1 NP: przekątna kończyna/przekątna noga/noga przekątna – 2/1/1 NP: nogi rozmieszczone po przekątnej – 1	<i>Przekątna para nóg znajdująca się w powietrzu na moment zawisa, nadpęcie opada pionowo do ziemi, stawy pęcino-wy są ugięte.</i>
obszerny krok (NP) [ground-covering stride] 4/1.47	NP: obszerny krok/ruch/skok – 1/1/1 NP: obszerność chodu – 1	<i>Impuls może być także nadmierny: wówczas koń . . . zamienia większe, obszerniejsze kroki na większą liczbę mniejszych, pospiesznych kroczków.</i>
oddziaływanie na konia (NP) [influencing the horse] 6/2.21	NP: oddziaływanie na konia – 1 N: oddziaływanie – 5	<i>Prawidłowy kontakt, a więc takie oddziaływanie pomocy jeźdźcy (ciężaru, łydek i ręki), aby w efekcie uzyskać lekką i stabilną łączność z pyskiem konia, a poprzez to niezbędną lekkość przodu.</i>
ODRUCH (N) [reflex] 4/1.47	N: odruch – 3 A: odruchowy – 1	<i>[N]ajczęstszym odruchem w takiej sytuacji jest ciągnięcie za zewnętrzną wodzę na zewnątrz, co jedynie bardziej pogłębia problem.</i>

ogon (N) [tail] 8/2.94	N	<i>Aby to osiągnąć, ciało konia powinno być rozluźnione i utrzymywać raz przyjęte podłużne zgięcie w kształcie luku: od nasady ogona po potylicę.</i>
opór (N) [resistance] 20/7.35	N	<i>Ten kto ma wycucie jeździeckie[,] . . . nie dopuszcza do oporu konia, wracając w porę do lekcji poprzedniej.</i>
ostroga (N) [spur] 12/4.41	N	L5-R5: bat (4), używać, stosować (3). <i>Ostrogi i bat użyte przeciwko twardej, nieustepliwej ręce potrafią wykreować . . . fałszywa hiperaktywność.</i>
ÓSEMKA (N) [figure eight] 4/1.47	N	<i>Jeśli poruszamy się na ósemce i chcemy skakać na przemian z obydwu kierunków, to skok wykorzystujemy do zmiany nogi.</i>
pasaż (N) [passage] 6/2.21	N: pasaż – 4 A: pasażowaty – 2	L5-R5: piaff (3). <i>Warunkami efektywnej pracy z końmi jest: cierpliwość, prawidłowa jazda i czas – konia można wszystkiego nauczyć, za wyjątkiem pasażu i piaffu!</i>
pełna parada (NP) [full halt] 11/4.04	N: parada – 11	<i>Zintensyfikowanie działania pomocy stosowanych przy półparadzie to parada. Wykonanie parady powoduje zatrzymanie konia.</i>
piaff (N) [piaffe] 7/2.57	N	L5-R5: pasaż (3). <i>[P]roblemy z piaffem i pasażem nie biorą się znikąd, ani z tego, że dany koń „już taki jest”</i>
PIRUET (N) [pirouette] 7/2.57	N	<i>Piruet jest ćwiczeniem dość łatwym w stępie, ale bardzo trudnym w galopie.</i>
PLAC DO KONNEJ JAZDY (NP) [riding arena] 4/1.47	N: plac – 4	<i>Przyjemnie się patrzy na taką jazdę. Konie i jeźdźcy schodzący z placu po treningu wyglądają na zrelaksowanych i świeżych.</i>
płynność (N) [smoothness] 8/2.94	N: płynność – 3 A: płynny – 1 ADV: płynnie – 4	<i>Cechą charakterystyczną przepuszczalności jest płynność ruchu u konia, możliwa dzięki elastycznym mięśniom i ruchomym wszystkim stawom.</i>
POBUDZIĆ (V) [stimulate] 4/1.47	V: pobudzić – 1 A: pobudzający/pobudzony – 1/1 ADV: pobudzająco – 1	<i>W jednym przypadku trzeba upuścić nadmiar energii, w innym – pobudzić ją. Rozprężeniem starszego konia zajmujemy się w dalszej części moich rozważań.</i>
POKLEPAĆ (V) [pat] 3/1.10	V: poklepać/klepać – 1/1 N: klepanie – 1	<i>Może się okazać, że koń bardziej schodzi na klepanie i nasze ciepłe słowa aprobaty, niż na nasze pomoce, ale to nic.</i>
POŁOŻENIE (N) [position] 9/3.31	N	Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider's body, not the horse's. <i>Koń powinien zajmować takie położenie, jakby galopował we właściwym kierunku.</i>

POMOC (N) [aid] 100/36.76	N	L1: działanie/zadziałanie (13), użyć (12), nasza (5), podstawowa (4). R1: jeździecka/jeźdźca (11), ustawiać (4), działać (3). L5-R5: dosiad (13). <i>Dosiad, działanie pomocami oraz równowaga, to codzienny chleb w treningu. To niesamowite, jak można osiągnąć taki stopień „wyszkolenia” bez używania pomocy jeździeckich, tylko pracą w ręku, z ziemi. Ćwicząc ten ruch jeździec nabiera doświadczenia w używaniu pomocy popędzających, ograniczających i przesuwających, a także w ich wzajemnym skoordynowaniu.</i>
POMOCACH, NA (PP) [on the aids] 6/2.21	PP	<i>Koń prawidłowo ustawiony na pomocach jest rozluźniony i reaguje na działanie tydek, dosiadu i wodzy, porusza się w równowadze.</i>
POSŁUSZEŃSTWO (N) [obedience] 8/2.94	N: posłuszeństwo – 7 A: posłuszny – 1	<i>Metody te odrzucają zmuszanie konia do posłuszeństwa i opierają się na kształtowaniu jego zachowania poprzez działanie oparte na rozumieniu zasad końskiej psychologii.</i>
POSTAWA (N) [posture] 16/5.88	N	R1: ciało (6). Reference shifts: eight instances concern the human’s body, not the horse’s. <i>„[S]zukanie” wędzidla powoduje u konia przybranie właściwej postawy ciała.</i>
pośladek (N) [buttock] 3/1.10	N	<i>W klusie ćwiczebnym jeździec zachowuje pełny dosiad na rozluźnionych mięśniach pośladków, trzymając tułów pionowo.</i>
potylicca (N) [poll] 15/5.51	N	L5-R5: szyja (4), grzbiet (3). Clusters: od potylicy do ogona (3). <i>Prawdziwie rozluźniony koń ma luźne wszystkie mięśnie, od potylicy do ogona.</i>
POZYCJA (N) [position] 33/12.13	N	R1: stojąca/stój (4), ciało, głowa, jeździec, wyjściowa (3). L5-R5: ciało (6). Reference shifts: 14 instances concern the human’s body, not the horse’s. <i>Rozpoczynamy z pozycji wyjściowej (koń frontem do nas), a ruch wężujący liny stanowi dla konia sygnał do cofnięcia się. Co to znaczy mieć konia z impulsem? To znaczy, że mamy go w takich ramach (ustawieniu, pozycji ciała), w jakich chcemy.</i>
półparada (N) [half-halt] 19/6.98	N	<i>Półparady najpierw działają równoważąco, a dopiero później mogą być użyte jako środek do zwiększenia stopnia zebrania u konia.</i>
półpiruet (N) [half-pirouette] 5/1.84	N	<i>Do elementów wyższej szkoły ujeżdżenia należą między innymi: półpiruety, piruety, rytmiczna zmiana nóg w galopie, <i>passaż</i> i <i>piaff</i> [correct form: <i>passaż</i> – E.P.].</i>
PÓLSIAD (N) [jumping seat] 6/2.21	N: półsiad – 5 NP: pół siad – 1	<i>Z reguły na ujeżdżalni jeździ się pełnym siadem, natomiast w terenie półsiadem.</i>

półvolta (N) [half-volte] 5/1.84	N	Gdy ćwiczenie jest już poprawnie wykonywane, wówczas półwolte wykonuje się w takim miejscu, aby jej zakończenie wypadło jeszcze na ścianie długiej.
prostowanie (N) [straightening] 11/4.04	N: prostowanie – 6 A: prostujący – 1 V: prostować – 4	Kolejnym elementem tego ćwiczenia jest prostowanie konia, który chodzi po kole.
PROSTY (A) [straight] 29/10.66	A: prosty – 18 ADV: prosto – 7 N: prostość – 4	Clusters: zewnętrznie prosty (5). Tymczasem dziś, we współczesnych skokach, jeździ się na koniu „zewnętrznie prostym ”. [P]rosty koń to taki, który ma równo rozłożony ciężar na lewe i prawe nogi.
PROWADZENIE (N) [leading] 16/5.88	N: prowadzenie – 6 A: prowadzony – 1 V: prowadzić – 9	Doktor dużo zajmował się rozluźnieniem. Ma na to wpływ dosiad i sposób prowadzenia konia.
przejście (N) [transition] 22/8.09	N: przejście/przechodzenie – 14/1 V: przejść – 7	R1: z/ze (10), do (3). L5-R5: chód (8), stęp (5), galop, kłus (4). Na ujeżdżalni ćwiczy się rytmiczne przejście z jednego chodu w drugi oraz półparadę i paradę. Skok z galopu zaczyna się, według mnie, od zagalopowania, a kończy, kiedy jeździec świadomie po skoku kontroluje galop konia i przechodzi do kłusa bądź do stępa.
przekątna (N) [diagonal] 3/1.10	N	Ruch może być wykonywany po przekątnej , ale wtedy koń powinien być ustawiony jak najbardziej równoległe do długiej ściany ujeżdżalni.
przepuszczalność (N) [throughness] 12/4.41	N; przepuszczalność – 9 A: przepuszczalny – 3	Cechą charakterystyczną przepuszczalności jest płynność ruchu u konia, możliwa dzięki elastycznym mięśniom i ruchomym wszystkim stawom.
przestawienie (N) [moving to another place] 5/1.84	N: przestawienie – 1 V: przestawić – 4	Niektóre konie w sposób naturalny przestawiają jednocześnie kończyny (przednią i tylną) po tej samej stronie.
przesunięcie (N) [shifting] 39/14.34	N: przesunięcie/przesuwanie – 5/5 A: przesuwający/przesunięty – 3/4 V: przesunąć/przesunąć się – 17/5	L5-R5: tył (8), przód, środek ciężkości (7). Środek ciężkości jeźdźca przesuwa się nieco do tyłu. Jednocześnie obie łydki działają pobudzająco za poprzęciem. W wyniku przesunięcia środka ciężkości koń uzyskuje większą swobodę w ruchu łopatek i łatwiej można nim powodować.
PRZÓD (N) [forehand] 26/9.56	N	L5-R5: zad (11). Jeździec odczuwa to tak, jakby zad konia się opuszczał, a przód podnosił. Zewnętrzna wodza prowadzi przód konia w kierunku do przodu i w bok.
PRZYJĘCIE WĘDZIDŁA (NP) [acceptance of the bit] 9/3.31	NP: przyjęcie wędzidła – 5 VP: przyjąć wędzidło – 4	Przepuszczalność objawia się zauważalną chęcią pójścia do przodu i przyjęciem wędzidła , połączoną ze stałą gotowością do współpracy.

psychika konia (NP) [horse's psyche] 25/9.19	NP: psychika konia – 1 N: psychika – 6 A: psychiczny – 15 ADV: psychicznie – 3	Clusters: fizyczny i psychiczny (4). Reference shift: seven instances concern the rider. <i>[W]ielkie nieraz talenty są niszczone, zanim osiągną dojrzałość fizyczną i psychiczną.</i> <i>[J]eżeli chcemy konia-partnera, musimy zaangażować przede wszystkim jego umysł, emocje i psychikę, a nie jego mięśnie.</i>
pysk (N) [horse's mouth] 49/18.01	N	L1: z (17), za (4). L5-R5: kontakt (11). <i>Kontakt ręki z pyskiem przez wodze . . . zależy od rodzaju stępa, jakim zamierzamy się poruszać.</i> <i>Każdy koń ciągnięty za pysk natychmiast zaczyna się opierać, co jeździec odbiera jako ciągnięcie.</i>
renwers (N) [renvers] 3/1.10	N	<i>Trawers i renwers wykonywane są wzdłuż ściany ujeżdżalni lub poprawniej – na linii środkowej pod kątem 30° do kierunku ruchu.</i>
RĘKA (N) [hand aid] 106/38.97	N	L1: do (8), miękka, zamknąć (5), na, używać (4). L5-R5: wodza (13), łydka (6). <i>W polskiej klasyce wodza wchodzi do ręki między palcem małym i serdecznym.</i> <i>Dobrze jeżdżony koń na impuls łydki i ręki jeźdźca sam przyjmie odpowiednią postawę.</i> <i>Zamknięcie ręki polega na tym, że konia wypychamy łydkami i krzyżem do przodu, a ręka pozostaje w tym samym miejscu.</i>
RĘKA SPOKOJNA (NP) [quiet hand] 4/1.47	NP: spokojna ręka – 4	<i>Tajemnica spokojnej ręki polega na tym, że nie porusza się ona razem z tułowiem jeźdźcy, ale z głową konia.</i>
ręki, działanie (NP) [hand aid action] 16/5.88	NP: działanie ręki/ działanie ręki/działalność ręki – 4/1/1 VP: działać ręką – 2 ręka działa – 8	<i>Jazda poprzedzona jest pracą z ziemi na wędzidle, podczas której jeździec uczy konia rozumienia działania ręki.</i>
rozluźnienie (N) [relaxation] 67/24.63	N: rozluźnienie/rozluźnianie – 34/4 A: rozluźniający/rozluźniony – 1/18 V: rozluźnić/rozluźnić się – 5/5	<i>Powrót do stanu rozluźnienia i odzyskanie naturalnej swobody ruchu jest możliwe tylko przy zwiększonej masie właściwych mięśni.</i> <i>Wydłużenie i opuszczenie szyi pozwala koniowi na rozluźnienie i odnowę zmęczonych mięśni.</i>
ROZPRĘŻONY (A) [warmed up] 10/3.68	N: rozprężenie/rozprężanie – 6/2 V: rozprężyć – 2	<i>[B]łędy w konkursie powodowane są najczęściej zbyt krótkim rozprężeniem. Na ogół wystarcza 40-45 minut, aby przygotować konia.</i>
rozwój konia (NP) [horse's development] 21/7.72	NP: rozwój konia – 1 N: rozwój – 12 A: rozwinięty – 4 V: rozwijać/rozwijać się – 2/2	L5-R5: mięsień (5). <i>II etap to: stopniowy rozwój mięśni, stawów i więzadeł, coraz lepsza równowaga, pełne zaakceptowanie pomocy.</i> <i>[T]rening ten zapewnia koniowi wszechstronny atletyczny rozwój.</i>

równowaga (N) [balance] 111/40.80	N: równowaga – 98 N: równoważenie/równoważenie się/zrównoważenie – 1/2/4 A: zrównoważony – 4 ADV: równoważący – 1 V: równoważyć się – 1	L1: [równowaga:] zachować (6), brak (5), utrata, własna (4). R1: [równowaga:] pionowa (5), horyzontalna (3). Clusters: równowaga i rytm (3). <i>Brak równowagi pionowej najłatwiej zauważyć podczas pracy na kołach i w czasie . . . zakrętów. W galopie ogromną rolę w zachowaniu równowagi odgrywają głowa i szyja konia. [S]trach przed utratą równowagi powoduje usztywnienie całego ciała; czasem do pułapu, w którym zaczyna się aktywnie opierać jeźdźcowi.</i>
RUCH (N) [movement] 187/68.74	N: ruch – 181 A: ruchowy – 6	The two meanings of the term are discussed separately as for <i>movement</i> (see Tables 24 and 25). Movement as an element of a dressage test (27 N): <i>Krzyżowanie nóg . . . to podstawowe ćwiczenie w nauce ruchów bocznych. Piaff (rys. 72) to wysoko zebrany klus w miejscu . . . W ruchu tym koń nie może kołysać się, ani nawet lekko poruszać do tyłu.</i> Movement as locomotion (154 N + 6A): L1: swoboda, w (11), z (6), rytm, za (4). L5-R5: ciało (11), rytm (9). <i>Jeśli koń we wcześniejszych stadiach treningu utracił pod naszym wpływem swobodę ruchu, a także rytm i regularność kroków, to cała dalsza praca nie ma najmniejszego sensu. Jest to możliwe, jeśli ciało jeźdźcy porusza się w synchronizacji z ruchem konia. Ogólne wrażenie często mówi najwięcej: całe ciało konia wyraża bolesne skrepowanie w ruchu.</i>
ruch do przodu (NP) [forward movement] 27/9.93	NP: ruch do przodu/ruch * do przodu/ruch naprzód – 13/1/3 VP: ruszyć do przodu/ ruszyć * do przodu/ruszyć w przód – 5/1/1 VP: poruszać się do przodu – 3	<i>Wartość tego ćwiczenia polega na tym, że koń cały czas zachowuje ruch do przodu i znakomicie uczy się szybkiej reakcji na działanie zewnętrznej wodzy. Wsiadasz na konia, będziesz go prosił o ruch do przodu, zakręt i zatrzymanie. Twoimi podstawowymi pomocami będą: łydki i wodze.</i>
ruch do przodu w bok (NP) [forward and sideways movement] 3/1.10	PP: do przodu i w bok – 3	<i>W prawidłowo wykonywanym ustępowaniu koń porusza się jednocześnie do przodu i w bok, jest prosty, natomiast w potylicy bardzo delikatnie ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do tego, w którym się porusza.</i>
ruch do przodu w dół (NP) [forward and down movement] 5/1.84	PP: do przodu i w dół/w dół i do przodu – 3/2	<i>W zasadzie w każdym przypadku polegało to na rozluźnieniu przez chody boczne, a następnie zachęcanie konia do wyjścia z nosem do przodu i w dół i poruszanie się w ten sposób w elastycznym klusie.</i>
RUCHU, KIERUNEK (NP) [direction of movement] 14/5.15	NP	L1: do (7), w (6). L5-R5: ustawić (6). Clusters: w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu (3). <i>„Łopatką do wewnątrz” jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu.</i>

 ruchu naprzód, dążność do (NP) [forwardness] 6/2.21	NP: dążność do ruchu naprzód/do przodu – 5/1	<i>Swoboda ruchu u konia jest koniecznym warunkiem wykazania się dążnością do ruchu naprzód.</i>
RUSZYĆ (V) [start off] 19/6.98	V: ruszyć – 13 N: ruszenie – 6	<i>Rola instruktora w początkowym nauczaniu musi się zacząć od tego, jak prawidłowo ruszyć na koniu do przodu.</i>
RYTM (N) [rhythm] 69/25.36	N: rytm – 57 A: rytmiczny – 10 ADV: rytmicznie – 2	L5-R5: tempo (12), ruch (11). Clusters: rytm i tempo (4), tempo i rytm, równowaga i rytm (3). <i>Równowaga w ruchu jest zachowana, jeśli koń utrzymuje rytm i tempo opierając się wyłącznie na swoich czterech nogach (a nie na ręce jeźdźca). Jeźdźcy doświadczeni mogą również wykonywać tzw. paradę i półparadę wodzą. Jest to skracanie i oddawanie wodzy w rytm ruchu konia.</i>
samoniesienie (N) [self-carriage] 4/1.47	N: samoniesienie/samoniesienie się – 1/3	<i>[P]onieważ chód ten nie ma fazy zawieszenia, trudniej jest wyczuć u konia brak równowagi i samoniesienia się.</i>
SIAD (N) [seat] 10/3.68	N	<i>Teraz jeździec . . . wypycha siadem konia do przodu (tzw. działanie krzyża) i jednocześnie naciska (daje impuls) tydką wewnętrzną.</i>
siła (N) [force] 66/24.26	N: siła – 45 A: silny/siłowy – 13/6 ADV: siłowo – 2	L1: użycie (5). R1: pomoc (4). <i>Nie może być mowy o przyspieszaniu procesu szkolenia metodami „na skróty”, nie dopuszcza się używania siły i bólu. [S]ila i właściwa kooperacja antagonistycznych mięśni decyduje w dużej mierze o ekspresji ruchu.</i>
siła nośna (NP) [lift force] 3/1.10	NP	<i>Od młodych koni, niezdolnych jeszcze do użycia siły nośnej, wymaga się jedynie wydłużenia kroków.</i>
siła pchająca (NP) [push force] 6/2.21	NP: siła pchająca/popychająca – 3/3	<i>[N]apięcie obu wodzy . . . przenosi się wzdłuż szyi i grzbietu konia do zadu i pozwala na kontrolowanie jego siły pchającej.</i>
skala wyszkolenia (NP) [training scale] 18/6.62	NP: skala treningowa/ujeżdżeniowa – 4/9 N: skala – 5	L1: element (5). <i>Praca nad regularnością doskonale pozwala zauważyć wzajemną zależność wszystkich elementów skali treningowej i powiązania między nimi.</i>
skrócenie (N) [shortening] 13/4.78	N: skracanie/skrócenie – 3/4 A: skrócony – 3 V: skrócić – 3	<i>Prawidłowe wyciągnięcia i skrócenia chodu powinny zachować zarówno rytm, jak i tempo.</i>
skrócenie wyroku (NP) [shortening of stride] 4/1.47	NP: skracanie kroku – 2 VP: skrócić krok/wykrok – 1/1	<i>[Z]miany długości chodu powinny zachodzić wyłącznie poprzez skracanie i wydłużanie kroków.</i>

skrzywienie (N) [crookedness] 23/8.45	N: skrzywienie/krzywienie się/krzywość – 12/1/3 A: krzywy/skrzywiony/powykrzywiany – 5/1/1	Clusters: wyprostowanie i skrzywienie (3). <i>Skrzywienie jest powodowane przez unikanie równego obciążenia przez jedną z tylnych nóg. [K]onie skokowe i WKKW, powinny być poddane prawidłowemu treningowi, uwzględniającemu korektę skrzywienia.</i>
spięcie (N) [tension] 3/1.10	A: spięty – 3	<i>Każdy szanujący się jeździec wie, że spiętego konia nie da się nauczyć niczego.</i>
STANIE W MIEJSCU (NP) [halt] 11/4.04	NP: stanie w miejscu – 2 N: stanie – 1 V: stać/stanąć – 5/2 A: stojący – 1	<i>Trudnym, wbrew pozorom, ćwiczeniem jest stanie w miejscu. Koń powinien stać spokojnie, prosto, na czterech nogach.</i>
staw (N) [joint] 28/10.29	N	R1: kończyna, pęciny (3). <i>[K]opyto nogi tylnej powinno się wznosić lekko powyżej stawu pęciny drugiej tylnej nogi. [J]eśli koń pracuje w stanie usztywnienia, to stawy kończyn . . . mają ograniczoną ruchomość.</i>
staw skokowy (NP) [hock] 4/1.47	NP: staw skokowy/staw stępu – 1/3	<i>Stawy stępu, mocno zaangażowane, utrzymują energię i impuls (tzn. mocna praca zadu), co pozwala łopatom na większą swobodę.</i>
step (N) [walk] 44/16.17	N	<i>Aby przejść ze stępa do kłusa, działamy podobnie jak przy ruszeniu, lecz mocniej. O stępie mówi się, że jest matką wszystkich chodów.</i>
STĘP WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended walk] 5/1.84	NP: stęp wyciągnięty/wyciągnięty stęp – 4/1	<i>Stęp wyciągnięty jest ruchem, w którym długość wyroku konia zwiększa się.</i>
step zebrany (NP) [collected walk] 4/1.47	NP	<i>Stęp skrócony (zebrany) wyróżnia się tym, że ślady tylnych kopyt nie sięgają śladów przednich lub zachodzą na nie.</i>
strach (N) [fear] 10/3.68	N	<i>[S]trach przed utratą równowagi powoduje usztywnienie całego ciała.</i>
STRONA LEWA (NP) [left side] 5/1.84	NP: lewa strona – 5	<i>W momencie, gdy decydujemy się na zmianę nogi, przesuujemy łydki jak do zagalopowania z prawej nogi i jednocześnie trącamy konia batem z lewej strony, jako wspomaganie lewej łydki.</i>
STRONA PRAWA (NP) [right side] 6/2.21	NP: prawa strona – 6	<i>Jeżeli więc koń porusza się po kole w prawą stronę, to powinien galopować z prawej nogi.</i>
STRONA WEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [the inside, e.g. bent to the inside] 8/2.94	NP: strona wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna strona – 2/6	<i>Każemy jeźdźcowi patrzeć na nasadę ogona po wewnętrznej stronie konia, ale tylko poprzez obrót głowy, a nie ramion i tułowia.</i>
SZKOLENIE JEŹDZIECKIE (NP) [equestrian training] 39/14.34	N: szkolenie – 39	L1: dalszy, etap (3). <i>Etapów szkolenia, podobnie jak cech, nie da się sztywno podzielić. System szkolenia, poza perfekcyjną równowagą i techniką jeźdźca, wymaga żelaznej konsekwencji.</i>

SZTUKA JEŹDZIECKA (NP) [the art of riding] 5/1.84	NP: sztuka jeździecka – 1 N: sztuka – 4	[W]łaśnie na tym polega cała sztuka i geniusz pracującego z koniem człowieka, by nie zamykać się w jednej „szkole” odrzucając pozostałe.
SZTYWNY (A) [stiff] 20/7.35	A: sztywny – 11 ADV: sztywno – 2 N: sztywność – 5 V: sztywnieć – 2	Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>Prawo- czy leworęczność jeźdźca też ma wpływ na skrzywienie konia: staje się on „sztywny” po stronie mocniejszej ręki jeźdźca.</i> <i>Należy reagować, gdy koń wykazuje sztywność, niechęć do ruchu.</i>
SZYBKOŚĆ (N) [speed] 30/11.03	N: szybkość – 13 A: szybki – 9 ADV: szybko – 8	Reference shifts: two instances describe the rider’s actions and three – the horse’s reactions, instead of the primary meaning of “fast” (relating only to the tempo). R1: reakcja (5). L5-R5: ruch (4). <i>Zmiana chodów i ich szybkości powinna odbywać się miękko i delikatnie.</i> <i>To trzeba ćwiczyć stale, żeby nauczyć konia szybkich reakcji na pomoce jeźdźca.</i>
szyja (N) [neck] 90/33.08	N: szyja – 88 A: szyjny – 2	Clusters: głowa i szyja (18), szyja i głowa (9), szyja i grzbiet (5). <i>Dowodem na osiągnięcie rozluźnienia jest gotowość konia do wyciągnięcia głowy i szyi do przodu i w dół we wszystkich trzech chodach.</i> <i>A czym innym jest właśnie żucie, jak nie wydłużeniem szyi i grzbietu.</i>
ściana (N) [arena side] 26/9.56	N	L1: wzdłuż (5), długa, od, przy (3). R1: ujeżdżalnia (7). Clusters: do długiej ściany, do ściany ujeżdżalni (3). <i>[K]oń powinien być ustawiony równoległe do długiej ściany ujeżdżalni.</i> <i>Po zwrocie idziemy wzdłuż ściany, robimy woltę w prawo i zaczynamy ćwiczenie ponownie.</i>
ŚLAD (N) [track] 24/8.82	N	L1: przekraczać (4), linia (3). R1: przednia (8), noga (6), tylna (5). L5-R5: noga (16), kopyto (8). <i>To zgięcie widziane z przodu manifestuje się tym, że tylna noga wewnętrzna trafia pomiędzy ślady przednich kończyn.</i> <i>Jeśli popatrzymy na ślady kopyt na ziemi, to lewe przednie powinno być stawiane w tej samej linii co lewe tylne.</i>
środek ciężkości (NP) [center of gravity] 28/10.29	NP: środek/punkt ciężkości – 1/27	L1: pod (5). L5-R5: przesunąć (6). <i>[K]rzyżowanie zadnich nóg, ich głębokie wkraczanie pod środek ciężkości uaktywnia mięśnie grzbietu.</i> <i>W wyniku przesunięcia środku ciężkości koń uzyskuje większą swobodę w ruchu łopatek.</i>
takt (N) [beat] 16/5.88	N	L1: jeden, pierwszy, trzeci (2). R1: galop (3), kłus (2). <i>Między trzecim taktem galopu a pierwszym z następnego cyklu, następuje faza lotu.</i>
talent (N) [talent] 10/3.68	N	<i>Talent decyduje w rozgrywkach, konkursach szybkości, gdzie jest miejsce na improwizację.</i>

TECHNIKA JEŹDZIECKA (NP) [riding technique] 15/5.51	NP: technika jazdy/jeźdźca – 3/1 N: technika – 11	<i>Na pewno warto poświęcić trochę czasu i wysiłku, aby na maneżu, pod okiem instruktora, stale poprawiać swoją technikę jazdy, a zwłaszcza dosiad.</i>
TEMPO (N) [pace] 33/12.13	N	L1: odpowiednie (4). L5-R5: rytm (12), m/min (6), galop (3). Clusters: tempo i rytm, rytm i tempo (3). <i>Tylko na koniu, który przyjął wędzidło, jeździec jest w stanie zachować odpowiednie tempo i rytm. Galop pośredni, tempo około 350 m/min; jest lekkim, swobodnym, rytmicznym ruchem.</i>
TEMPO, ZMIENIĆ (NP) [change pace] 3/1.10	VP: zmieniać tempo – 1 NP: zmiana tempa – 2	<i>Częste zmiany kierunku i tempa ćwiczeń utrzymują konia w skupieniu i zainteresowaniu pracą.</i>
trawers (N) [traverse] 3/1.10		<i>Trawers i renwers różnią się ustawieniem zadu odpowiednio od i do ściany.</i>
TRENER (N) [trainer] 30/11.03	N	L5-R5: jeździec (11). <i>Są trenerzy i jeźdźcy, którzy nigdy nie skaczą z klusa i osiągają znakomite rezultaty. Już w 1931 roku niemieccy trenerzy pisali o klusie tzw. pokazowym.</i>
trójtakt (N) [three-beat rhythm] 3/1.10	A: trzytaktowy/3-taktowy – 2/1	<i>Galop . . . [t]o chód 3-taktowy, 6-fazowy, gdzie cykl ruchowy tworzy rodzaj skoku.</i>
TRUDNY PROWADZENIA (AP) [difficult to lead] 3/1.10	A: trudny – 3	<i>Oczywiście, zdarzają się konie trudne i niebezpieczne w czasie zajażdżki, ale są one nieliczne.</i>
tulów (N) [trunk] 19/6.98	N	Reference shifts: four instances concern the horse's body, not the rider's. <i>Tajemnica spokojnej ręki polega na tym, że nie porusza się ona razem z tulowiem jeźdźca, ale z głową konia.</i>
UCIEC (V) [run off] 20/7.35	V: uciec – 9 N: uciekanie/ucieczka – 5/4 A: uciekający – 2	Reference shifts: seven instances denote a different meaning (the horse's defence against the aids). <i>„[W]ystarczy, że przestanę uciekać, a wtedy człowiek zmniejsza presję”.</i> <i>[K]oń dosiadany przez sztywnego . . . jeźdźca zawsze będzie usiłował bronić się instynktowną ucieczką.</i>
UCZEŃ (N) [pupil] 5/1.84	N	<i>Do jego uczniów należy cała plejada doskonałych jeźdźców, takich jak: Heike Kemmer, Martina Hannover, Ulla Salzgeber, Sven Rothenberger i wielu innych.</i>
udo (N) [thigh] 4/1.47	N	<i>Uda i kolana nie służą przytrzymywaniu się siodła, lecz przylegają jedynie własnym ciężarem do niego.</i>
UJEŹDŹALNIA KRYTA (NP) [riding hall] 15/5.51	N: ujeżdżalnia – 15	L5-R5: ściana (8). Clusters: do ściany ujeżdżalni (3). <i>Podczas ćwiczeń na ujeżdżalni z reguły stosuje się pełny siad.</i>

UJEŹDŻONY (A) [broke] 7/2.57	A: ujeżdżony – 6 V: ujeżdżić – 1	Od ujeżdżonego konia oczekujemy prawie instynktownego ustawienia się w momencie sygnału od jeźdźca do rozpoczęcia jakiegokolwiek ruchu.
uspokajanie (N) [calming] 3/1.10	N: uspokojenie – 1 V: uspokoić/uspokoić się – 1/1	Wyjmijmy stopę, pogłaszczmy konia, uspokójmy i spróbujmy znowu.
USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP) [position the horse] 37/13.60	VP: ustawić konia – 6 VP: ustawić/ustawić się – 6/3 A: ustawiający/ustawiony – 2/20	L1: pomoc (4). L5-R5: kierunek (8), wewnętrzny (5), lewo, prawo (3). Clusters: ustawiony w kierunku (4). Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider's body, not the horse's. <i>To znaczy, jeżeli dotychczas pomoce ustawiały konia np. w prawo (a więc galopował po kole w lewo, gdyż jest to kontrgalop), to teraz pomoce ustawiają konia w lewo, czyli do galopu z lewej nogi.</i>
ustawienie (N) [position] 38/13.97	N	L1: odpowiednie (4), przyjmować, właściwe (3). Reference shifts: eight instances concern the rider's body, not the horse's. <i>Najłatwiej wykonać zwrot na zadzie wychodząc z półwolty, gdyż wtedy koń jest już w odpowiednim ustawieniu.</i> <i>[K]oń chętnie przyjmował ustawienie z nosem w pionie bez wstecznego działania wodzy.</i>
ustawienie głowy (NP) [head position] 16/5.88	NP: ustawienie głowy/łba – 7/1 AP: ustawiona głowa/ustawiony łeb – 2/1 VP: ustawiać głowę/łeb – 3/1 ustawi się głowa – 1	L5-R5: szyja (6). <i>Prezentował symulację komputerową, która ukazywała jak kolejne ustawienia głowy i szyi wpływają na pracę grzbietu i zadu.</i>
USTAWIENIE KONIA NA WPROST (NP) [horse in a straight position] 3/1.10	AP: ustawiony na wprost – 1 VP: ustawiać konia na wprost – 1 PP: na wprost – 1	<i>W pierwszym przypadku zatrzymujemy konia w pozycji wyjściowej tj. na wprost, głową w naszym kierunku, a następnie rozpoczynamy ruch w przeciwną stronę.</i>
usztynwienie (N) [stiffness] 26/9.56	N: usztynwienie/usztynwianie – 16/1 A: usztynwiony/usztynwiający – 4/2 V: usztynwiać/usztynwiać się – 2/1	L1: powodować/powód (5). <i>Przyspieszenie „naturalnego” . . . tempa powoduje zanik ekspresji ruchu i usztynwienie ciała.</i> <i>Powszechnie widzi się takie usztynwienie przy próbach osiągnięcia zebrania, kiedy jeździec lub trener nie rozumieją istoty tego, co chcą osiągnąć.</i>
uwaga (N) [attention] 31/11.40	N: uwaga – 28 A: uważny – 3	L1: zwracać (11), szczególna (3). Reference shifts: 20 instances concern the rider's attention, not the horse's. <i>Powinniśmy zwrócić uwagę, by pomiędzy zwrotami koń szedł po linii prostej.</i> <i>To wszystko zwiększa zebranie konia oraz jego koncentrację i uwagę.</i>
wężyk (N) [serpentine] 3/1.10	N	<i>Naukę kontrgalopu najlepiej rozpocząć wykonując w galopie wężyk płaski o trzech zakrętach.</i>

wodza (N) [rein] 96/35.29	N	L1: obie/obydwie (14), napięcie (13), działanie (6). L5-R5: kontakt (9), pysk (8), ręka (6). Clusters: łydka i wodza (7), ciągnięcie za wodze (5), na obu wodzach (3). <i>Łydki i wodze muszą współdziałać i obie wodze też muszą ze sobą współdziałać.</i> <i>Jedno z najczęściej zadawanych pytań dotyczy stopnia napięcia wodzy: jak „ciężki” ma być kontakt z pyskiem?</i>
wodza, czarna (NP) [draw rein] 5/1.84	NP	<i>Taki sam rezultat przynosi używanie czarnej wodzy – zakładanie jej koniowi jest manifestacją braku umiejętności u jeźdźca.</i>
WODZA LUŻNA (NP) [loose rein] 3/1.10	NP: luźna wodza – 3	<i>[P]róba wjechania konia na luźne wodze zaskutkuje głównie przyspieszeniem.</i>
WODZA PROWADZĄCA (NP) [leading rein] 4/1.47	NP: wodza prowadząca/prowadząca wodza – 3/1	<i>Powiedzenie, że zewnętrzna wodza jest wodzą prowadzącą będzie wtedy słuszne, jeśli dodamy: „prowadząca konia prosto”!</i>
WODZA WEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [inside rein] 18/6.62	NP: wodza wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna wodza – 9/9	L5-R5: zewnętrzna (5). <i>Działanie łydki wewnętrznej wspiera wodza wewnętrzna, która też reguluje zgięcie potylicy.</i>
WODZA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [outside rein] 23/8.45	NP: wodza zewnętrzna/zewnętrzna wodza – 7/16 N: zewnętrzna – 1	L5-R5: wewnętrzna (4). <i>[N]ajczęstszym odruchem w takiej sytuacji jest ciągnięcie za zewnętrzną wodzę na zewnątrz. Przez lata pokutowało przeświadczenie o tym, że wodza zewnętrzna jest wodzą prowadzącą.</i>
WODZE, ODDAĆ (VP) [give the reins] 10/3.68	VP: oddać wodze – 7 NP: oddawanie wodzy – 2 N: oddawanie – 1	<i>W momencie ruszenia nie należy oddawać (tzn. luzować) wodzy.</i>
WODZE, SKRÓCIĆ (VP) [shorten the reins] 4/1.47	VP: skrócić wodze – 1 NP: skrócenie wodzy – 3	<i>[R]ęka zewnętrzna nie zmienia swojego położenia (nie można ani oddać, ani skrócić tej wodzy).</i>
wodzy, trzymanie (NP) [holding of reins] 10/3.68	NP: trzymanie wodzy – 2 AP: trzymający wodze – 4 VP: trzymać wodze – 4	<i>Poruszenie palcami trzymającymi wodze (ten ruch to kilka milimetrów) będzie dla konia mile. Być może odpowie luźniejszą szyją, albo przeżuciem wędzidla.</i>
WODZY, UŻYCIE (NP) [use of reins] 4/1.47	NP: użycie wodzy – 2 VP: używać wodzy – 2	<i>[P]amiętając, że komunikujemy się z koniem przy pomocy przemieszczania ciężaru naszego ciała, różnorodnego użycia łydek i wodzy, rozszerzone pojęcie kontaktu staje się sprawą oczywistą.</i>
WODZY, WYTRZYMUJĄCE DZIAŁANIE (NP) [opposing action of the reins] 5/1.84	NP: wstrzymujące działanie wodzy/działanie wstrzymujące wodzy/działanie wstrzymujące ręki – 2/1/1 VP: zadziałać wstrzymująco wodzą – 1	The term is probably misspelled in the term source (wytrzymujące instead of wstrzymujące). <i>[W]strzymujące działanie wodzy polega na chwilowym przymknięciu ręki, które nie może się zmienić w „ciągnięcie za wodze”, tylko musi być powtarzane na przemian z odpuszczeniem.</i>

wolta (N) [volte] 6/2.21	N	<i>ustępowanie jechane przez całą szerokość placu, co jakiś czas przeplatane woltami</i>
wpływ na konia (NP) [influencing the horse] 21/7.72	NP: wpływ na konia – 1 N: wpływ – 12 A: wpływający – 1 V: wpływać – 7	<i>Każda praca z koniem to trening i zawsze jesteśmy trenerami, ponieważ wszystko, co robimy ma wpływ na konia i czegoś go uczy. Doktor dużo zajmował się rozluźnieniem. Ma na to wpływ dosiad i sposób prowadzenia konia.</i>
WSIADAĆ NA KOŃ (VP) [mount] 8/2.94	V: wsiadać – 3 N: wsiadanie – 5	<i>Jak wiele koni kręci się podczas wsiadania, a jeździec szarpiąc za wodze i podskakując stara się dogonić wierzchowca z jedną nogą uwięzioną w strzemieniu.</i>
WYCZUCIE JEŹDŹCA (NP) [rider's sense] 19/6.98	NP: wyczucie jeździeckie – 4 N: wyczucie/wyczuwanie – 5/2 A: wyczuwalny – 1 V: wyczuć – 7	<i>Czym jest wyczucie jeździeckie – jest umiejętnością oddziaływania na konia: - we właściwy sposób, - we właściwym momencie, - z właściwą intensywnością.</i>
wyginastykowanie (N) [suppleness] 8/2.94	N: wyginastykowanie/ rozginastykowanie – 3/1 A: wyginastykowany – 2 V: gimnastykować – 2	<i>Znowu kłaniają się podstawy jazdy i początki, które kształtowały i wyrabiały u konia wyginastykowanie kłody, równowagę i rytm.</i>
WYŻSZA SZKOŁA JAZDY (NP) [high school] 4/1.47	NP: wyższa szkoła jazdy/ujeżdżenia – 3/1	<i>Jeździec nie zajmujący się wyższą szkołą jazdy, nie powinien tego ćwiczyć, ponieważ mogłoby to zniechęcić konia do dalszej pracy.</i>
zad (N) [haunches] 85/31.25	N: zad – 72 A: zadni – 13	<i>L1: podstawić (7), pracować (7), mięsień (5), popychający (3). L5-R5: noga (14), przód (12). Clusters: krzyżowanie zadnich nóg, od zadu do (3). Koń, który nie pracuje zadem i zostawia go z tyłu zawsze będzie próbował postawić zadnie nogi gdzieś obok kłody, a nie pod nią. Czasem wystarczy zastanowić się czy nasz wierzchowiec nie idzie zbyt mało od zadu do przodu.</i>
zadem na zewnątrz (NP) [haunches out] 3/1.10	NP: zad na zewnątrz/zad * na zewnątrz – 1/2	<i>Zad uciekający na zewnątrz, a czasem niemalże krzyżowanie zadnich nóg, nawet na 20-metrowym kole, to wcale nie jest rzadki widok.</i>
ZAD, ZAANGAŻOWAĆ (VP) [engage the hindquarters] 7/2.57	NP: zaangażowanie zadu – 5 NP: zaangażowanie tylnych/zadnich nóg – 1/1	<i>[T]rzeba pamiętać, że zaangażowanie zadu odnosi się do zasięgu wykroku tylnych nóg w przód, pod kłode.</i>
zagalopowanie (N) [canter depart] 17/6.25	N: zagalopowanie – 8 V: zagalopować – 9	<i>R1: z/ze (7). Działanie pomocy jest . . . takie samo jak przy zagalopowaniu z klusa, ale musi być ono mocniejsze.</i>
ZATRZYMAĆ (V) [halt] 13/4.78	V: zatrzymać/zatrzymać się – 4/9	<i>Należy zagalopować z dowolnej nogi, przegalopować kilka taktów, zatrzymać konia i niezwłocznie zagalopować z nogi przeciwnej.</i>

zatrzymanie (N) [halt] 19/6.98	N	L5-R5: parada (5). <i>Prawidłowe zatrzymanie konia powinno nastąpić w wyniku wykonania parady.</i>
zaufanie (N) [trust] 10/3.68	N: zaufanie – 8 A: ufający – 1 V: zaufać – 1	<i>Konie muszą rozumieć, czego od nich chcemy i muszą mieć odpowiednio dużo czasu, aby to pojąć. Tylko w ten sposób można zdobyć ich zaufanie.</i>
ząb (N) [tooth] 10/3.68	N	<i>[M]iękka ręka . . . sprawia, że wędzidło prawidłowo działa na dziąsła zamiast opierać się na zębach.</i>
ZEBRAĆ KONIA (VP) [collect the horse] 3/1.10	VP: zebrać konia – 1 N: zbieranie – 2	<i>Niby wiesz co to znaczy zebrać konia, ale jak to zrobić – od początku do końca?</i>
zebrania, stopień (NP) [degree of collection] 4/1.47	NP: stopień zebrania – 3 AP: zebrany w najwyższym stopniu – 1	<i>Dodawanie i skracanie polega na zmianie stopnia zebrania konia; należy je wykonywać stale, w każdym chodzie, na ujeżdżalni i w terenie.</i>
zebranie (N) [collection] 39/14.34	N: zebranie – 31 A: zebrany – 8	L1: [zebranie:] prawdziwe, w (4), osiągnięcie (3). <i>Osiągnięcie prawdziwego zebrania zabiera dużo czasu i nie wszystkie konie są w stanie dojść do tego etapu. [J]eśli koń nie jest w stanie pracować w zebraniu, to nie będzie w stanie pokazać prawidłowych chodów wyciągniętych.</i>
zgięcie (N) [bend] 38/9.70	N: zgięcie/zginanie – 20/4 A: zgięty/zginający/zginany – 8/4/1 V: zginać się – 1	Reference shifts: ten instances concern the bend of joints, not of the whole body on an arc. <i>Jeździec musi tylko wewnętrzną wodzą utrzymać to zgięcie, a resztę powoduje stały impuls łydki. [S]topień zgięcia zależy od wielkości wykonywanego okręgu.</i>
zgięcie boczne (NP) [lateral bend] 3/1.10	NP	<i>[R]ówne rozłożenie ciężaru pomiędzy lewe i prawe nogi jest główną cechą prawidłowego zgięcia bocznego.</i>
ZGIĘCIE SZYI (NP) [neck bend] 8/2.94	NP: zgięcie/zginanie szyi – 3/1 NP: zgięcie środka szyi – 1 NP: zgięta szyja/szyja zgięta – 1/1 VP: zginać szyję – 1	<i>Przy zgięciu szyi w jej środkowym punkcie i utrzymaniu równowagi na wewnętrznym kolanie i strzemieniu, bardziej panujemy nad głową, szyją i równowagą konia.</i>
ZGIĘCIE WEWNĘTRZNE (NP) [bend to the inside] 4/1.47	NP: zgięcie wewnętrzne/wewnętrzne zgięcie – 2/1 AP: wewnętrznie zgięty – 1	<i>Oto bardzo praktyczne ćwiczenie, które uczy konia stać na obydwu wodzach z równoczesnym pokazaniem mu kierunku oraz zgięcia wewnętrznego w środkowym punkcie szyi.</i>
ZMĘCZONY (A) [tired] 5/1.84	A: zmęczony – 2 N: zmęczenie – 3	<i>Koń rozluźniony to nie znaczy koń leniwy, wymagający stałego popędzania batem. Ani też koń zmęczony.</i>
ZMIANA KIERUNKU (NP) [change of direction] 7/2.57	NP	<i>Nikt nie jest w stanie spowodować zmiany kierunku ruchu konia wodzą zewnętrzną, zachowując prawidłowe jego ułożenie w zakręcie.</i>
ZWOLNIĆ (V) [slow down] 4/1.47	V: zwolnić/zwalniać – 1/1 N: zwolnienie/zwalnianie – 1/1	<i>Zaciskanie i rozluźnianie palców trzymających wodze będzie dla konia sygnałem „obudź się i zatrzymaj, albo zwolnij”.</i>

ZWROT (N) [turn] 13/4.78	N	<i>Powinniśmy zwrócić uwagę, by pomiędzy zwrotami koń szedł po linii prostej.</i>
zwrot na przodzie (NP) [turn on the forehand] 3/1.10	NP	<i>Gdy wykonuje się zwrot na przodzie w prawo, wówczas prawa łydka pozostaje na popręgu, lewa nieco przesuwa się za popręg.</i>
zwrot na zadzie (NP) [turn on the haunches] 8/2.94	NP	<i>Najłatwiej wykonać zwrot na zadzie wychodząc z półwolty, gdyż wtedy koń jest już w odpowiednim ustawieniu.</i>
żucie (N) [chewing] 4/1.47	N: żucie/przeżuwanie – 1/2 V: żuć – 1	<i>Zgodnie z tym co mówił o czynnikach wpływających na przeżuwanie, nie jest powiedziane, że koń potrzebuje wędzidła by żuć.</i>
żucie z ręki (NP) [long and low on the bit] 16/5.88	NP: żucie z ręki – 3 N: żucie – 12 V: żuć – 1	<i>Dobrym sprawdzianem owego posłuszeństwa jest wydłużanie szyi i tzw. żucie z ręki, kiedy pozwalamy koniowi na stopniowe wyciągnięcie i opuszczenie szyi i głowy, a on powinien nadal pozostać na wędzidle.</i>
ŻUĆ KIELZNO (VP) [chew on the bit] 5/1.84	VP: żuć/przeżuć wędzidło – 2/1 AP: żujący wędzidło – 1 NP: przeżucie wędzidła – 1	<i>[W]siadał, ledwo co brał wodze, a koń ustawiał leb jak należy i zaczynał żuć wędzidło.</i>

Table 27. Frequency and characterization of Polish terms in the PTS.

Term [Equivalent] Total/per 15,000 words	Forms in the subcorpus	Significant collocates and clusters Examples
anatomia (N) [anatomy] 7/1.79	N: anatomia – 2 A: anatomiczny – 5	<i>Dobra znajomość zależności w budowie anatomicznej konia pomoże zrozumieć cały przebieg ruchu.</i>
BALANS (N) [balance] 4/1.02	N: balans – 3 V: balansować – 1	<i>Im więcej siły koń nabierze, tym łatwiej mu będzie utrzymać balans.</i>
banda (N) [arena board] 6/1.53	N	<i>Początkowo całe parady należy wykonywać na śladzie, ponieważ kontakt z bandą ułatwia zatrzymanie.</i>
bat (N) [whip] 55/14.03	N	L1: używać (9), działać (5). L5-R5: noga (12), dotknąć (9), łydka (7), reakcja (6). <i>Reakcja konia na dotyk bata zależna jest od jego temperamentu.</i> <i>[J]eśli jeździec zbyt mocno działa batem, koń często zaczyna przesuwając zadnie nogi do wewnątrz.</i>
BATA, UDERZENIE (NP) [whip stroke] 6/1.53	NP: uderzenie batem – 1 N: uderzenie – 1 VP: uderzyć batem – 3 V: uderzyć – 1	<i>Gdy masz leniwego konia, użyj bata raz a dobrze, będzie to skuteczniejsze niż sto uderzeń bez rezultatu.</i>
biodra, obniżenie (NP) [lowering the hip] 6/1.53	NP: obniżenie * biodra – 2 VP: obniżyć * biodro – 3 biodro się obniża – 1	<i>Jeśli koń podczas pracy na kole nauczył się obniżyć wewnętrzne biodro i przejmować większy ciężar na wewnętrzną zadnią nogę, należy dążyć do utrzymania tego ustawienia na linii prostej.</i>
biodro (N) [hip] 27/6.89	N	L1: wewnętrzne (5). L5-R5: bark (5), łopátka (4). <i>Podsumowując: tułów jeźdźca skierowany jest w stronę ujeżdżalni, co umożliwia równoległe ustawienie bioder i barków jeźdźca do bioder i łopatek konia.</i>
budowa konia (NP) [horse's conformation] 14/3.57	NP: budowa konia/* konia – 6/4 N: budowa – 4	<i>Jeśli przyjrzymy się dokładnie anatomicznej budowie głowy konia, stanie się jasne, że usztywnienie ręki na wysokości kłębu zawsze powoduje zwiększony nacisk wędzidla na język.</i>
budowy, wada (NP) [conformation defect] 7/1.79	NP	<i>Są konie, którym ze względu na wady budowy ciężko jest pracować w zgięciu.</i>
CHÓD (N) [gait] 83/21.18	N	L5-R5: kłus (15), stęp (6), galop (5). <i>Natura wyposażyla konia w trzy chody: stęp, kłus i galop. Każdy z chodów cechuje się określonym następstwem kroków.</i>
chód boczny (NP) [lateral movement] 13/3.32	NP	<i>Niestety jeźdźcy rzadko wykonują chody boczne na luku w celach ćwiczeniowych.</i>

chód podstawowy (NP) [basic gait] 11/2.81	NP: chód podstawowy/podstawowy chód – 7/4	<i>Regularność, rozluźnienie i brak spięcia w chodach podstawowych konia umożliwiają jeźdźcowi dobry dosiad i prawidłowe używanie tydek.</i>
ciąg (N) [half-pass] 37/9.44	N	R1: na (6). <i>Sprawdzone ćwiczenie to kontrgalop w ustawieniu jak do ciagu na drugim lub trzecim śladzie. Jeśli zdarzy się, że w ciagu zadnie nogi zaczną wyprzedzać przednie, koń traci impuls.</i>
CIAGNAĆ (V) [pull] 11/2.81	V: ciągnąć – 6 N: ciągnięcie – 3 A: ciągnący – 2	Reference shifts: only three instances concern the horse's action, while eight describe what the rider does. <i>Z powodu braku równowagi koń szuka mocnego oparcia na ręce jeźdźcy i ciągnie pyskiem w dół.</i>
CIĄG PO PRZEKĄTNEJ (NP) [half-pass on a diagonal] 5/1.28	NP: ciąg na * przekątnej – 5	<i>Podwójne ciągi na dłuższej przekątnej wykonywane są w konkursach Grand Prix na czworoboku o wymiarach 20 x 60 m, na linii o długości 30 m.</i>
ciąg w galopie (NP) [half-pass in canter] 5/1.28	NP	<i>Głównym zadaniem ciągów w galopie jest wypracowanie większej giętkości konia po wewnętrznej stronie i mocniejsze obciążenie jego wewnętrznej zadniej nogi.</i>
cierpliwość (N) [patience] 11/2.81	N: cierpliwość – 9 ADV: cierpliwie – 1	<i>Dla jeźdźcy stępowanie jest tylko kwestią cierpliwości, natomiast dla konia czymś niezwykle ważnym.</i>
ciężar ciała (NP) [weight aid] 95/24.24	NP: ciężar ciała/* ciała/jeźdźcy – 35/3/17 N: ciężar – 40	L1: przenieść (10), pomoc, przemieścić (5), działać (4). L5-R5: łydka (24), przód (7). Clusters: ciężar i łydka (10), ciężar, łydka i wodza (5). Reference shifts: five instances of ciężar ciała and 14 of ciężar refer to the horse, not the rider. <i>Posłuszeństwo konia na działania ciężaru, tydek i wodzy ćwiczymy na czworoboku, w terenie lub podczas skoków.</i> <i>Z działaniem wodzy należy łączyć napinanie krzyża (pomoc ciężaru ciała) i nacisk tydek.</i>
ciężaru, przejmowanie (NP) [taking the load] 20/5.10	NP: przejmowanie/przejęcie/przejęcie * ciężaru – 1/4/3 VP: przejąć/przyjąć */przejąć * ciężar – 1/3/8	L5-R5: zadnia noga (10). <i>W piaffie koń przejmuje ciężar na zadnie nogi, a odciąża przód.</i> <i>Dawniej uważano, że od zebranego konia można wymagać coraz mocniejszego przejmowania ciężaru przez zadnie nogi.</i>

ciężaru przez zad, przejęcie (NP) [loading the hindquarters] 19/4.85	NP: przejęcie ciężaru przez/na zad – 4/1 NP: przejęcie * ciężaru przez zad – 1 NP: przyjmowanie ciężaru przez zad – 2 NP: przyjmowanie * ciężaru na zad – 1 VP: przejąć * ciężar na zad/przejąć więcej ciężaru na zad – 4/2 VP: przenieść/przesunąć ciężar na zad – 1/1 zad przejmuje * ciężar – 2	<i>Koń zacznie zmniejszać rozstawienie zadnich nóg, dzięki czemu będzie mógł przejąć większy ciężar na zad. W tym ćwiczeniu zad konia zaczyna przejmować większy ciężar. Koń, który nie nauczył się przyjmowania większego ciężaru na zad, nie zrozumie działania pomocy do cofania.</i>
COFANIE (N) [backing] 97/24.75	N: cofanie/cofanie się – 59/8 N: cofnięcie/cofnięcie się – 2/7 N: wycofywanie – 1 V: cofać/cofać się/wycofywać się – 4/14/2	L1: nauka (5), narów (4). L5-R5: krok (8). <i>Nigdy na konie z narowem cofania się nie wywieram żadnego nacisku wymuszającego ruch do przodu. Podczas każdej jazdy również kilka razy skłaniam konia do cofnięcia się o kilka kroków.</i>
czterotakt (N) [four-beat rhythm] 19/4.85	N: czterotakt – 9 A: czterotaktowy – 10	L5-R5: galop (6), stęp (5). Clusters: stęp jest chodem czterotaktowym (3). <i>Stęp jest chodem czterotaktowym o ośmiu fazach ruchu.</i>
ĆWICZENIE POD JEŹDŹCEM (NP) [an exercise under the rider] 17/4.34	NP: ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem/* pod jeźdźcem – 1/1 PP: pod jeźdźcem – 15	<i>Ćwiczenie piaffu pod jeźdźcem, bez pomocy drugiej osoby, przebiega następująco: Zaklusowujemy z zebranej postawy „stój” i dążymy do tego, by koń znalazł się „przed łydkami”.</i>
ĆWICZENIE W PILARACH (NP) [an exercise between the pillars] 9/2.30	NP: ćwiczenie w pilarach – 1 PP: w pilarach – 8	<i>Praca w pilarach umożliwia koniowi dużą swobodę ruchów i dzięki temu nadaje się dobrze do skorygowania błędów w lewadzcie.</i>
dobanie (N) [speeding up] 20/5.10	N: dodanie/dodawanie – 11/2 A: dodany – 6 V: dodać – 1	L5-R5: galop, kłus (5). <i>Na początku wystarcza dodanie do aktywnego kłusa roboczego. Ciągłe ćwiczenie dodań, gdy koń ma nadal problemy ze zgięciem . . . , jest bezwartościowe.</i>
dosiad (N) [seat] 44/11.23	N	L5-R5: łydka (7), ręka (4). <i>[W]ielu jeźdźców skraca dodany galop za pomocą wodzy zamiast łydek i dosiada. Przy zrównoważonym dosiadzie jeźdźca jego tułów spełnia funkcję dźwigni.</i>
DOSIADAĆ (V) [mount] 9/2.30	V: dosiadać – 8 N: dosiadanie – 1	<i>Dosiadając konia, jeździec zobowiązany jest do zapewnienia mu zdrowia.</i>
DOSIAD MIĘKKI (NP) [relaxed seat] 5/1.28	NP: miękki dosiad – 2 VP: siedzieć miękko w siodle/miękko siedzieć w siodle – 1/2	<i>Osiągnięcie miękkiego i w pełni rozluźnionego dosiadu to lata żmudnej pracy.</i>

dosiad skretny (NP) [turning seat] 4/1.02	NP	Dzięki dosiadowi skretnemu (zob. str. 68) jeździec może wymagać od konia niezbędnego zgięcia.
dwutakt (N) [two-beat rhythm] 11/2.81	N: dwutakt – 4 A: dwutaktowy – 7	W celu znalezienia lepszego balansu koń zaczyna kroczyć w dwutakcie : albo będzie caplować, albo iść inochodem.
efektowność (N) [spectacular nature] 7/1.79	N: efektowność – 1 A: efektowny – 6 ADV: efektownie – 1	Powyższe ćwiczenie ułatwia wykonanie efektownego piruetu w wysokim ustawieniu, pod warunkiem że koń jest w stanie przyjąć takie zebranie.
ELASTYCZNY (A) [elastic] 35/8.93	A: elastyczny – 19 ADV: elastycznie – 5 N: elastyczność – 11	L5-R5: grzbiet (8). Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse. [R]uch oraz siła konia biorą się z zadu i są przenoszone przez elastyczny grzbiet do przodu. Dostatecznie elastyczny i przepuszczalny koń jest w stanie wykonać ciągi na długiej przekątnej.
faza lotu (NP) [suspension phase] 9/2.30	NP	L5-R5: noga (4). Zmiana nogi powinna odbyć się w fazie lotu .
FOULÉE (N) [foulée] 6/1.53	N: foulée/foule – 3/3	Przeciwieństwem takiego ruchu byłyby pozbawione wyrazu krótkie i spieszne skoki galopu (foulée) .
GALOP (N) [canter] 186/47.46	N	L5-R5: kłus (39), stęp (28). Clusters: kłus i galop (17), praca w galopie (6), przejście z galopu do stępa (5), galop na dwóch śladach, galop na kole (4). Niedawno spróbowałam z jednym z moich 3-latków przejścia stęp-galop i galop-stęp . W pracy w galopie naturalne skrzywienie konia jest najbardziej widoczne. Dla wzmocnienia mięśni grzbietu konia warto gorąco polecić pracę w spokojnym galopie .
galopie, krzyżowanie w (NP) [disunited canter] 6/1.53	N: krzyżowanie – 3 NP: galop krzyżowany – 1 V: krzyżować – 1 VP: krzyżować w galopie – 1	Najpoważniejszym błędem w galopie jest krzyżowanie , gdyż dochodzi nie tylko do zaburzeń w takcie chodu, ale i w kolejności stawiania nóg.
GALOPIE, PIRUET W (NP) [pirouette in canter] 11/2.81	NP	Można powiedzieć, że piruet w galopie to najciaśniejsza wersja wolty w ciągu.
galopie, skok w (NP) [foulée] 38/9.70	NP: skok w galopie/skok galopu – 1/26 N: skok – 11	[S]kok galopu najlepiej się poprawia dzięki częstym zagalopowaniom z kłusa na kole. Zadanie jeźdźca to przede wszystkim ponowne zaokrąglenie skoków galopu .
GALOPOWAĆ (V) [canter] 32/8.67	V: galopować – 32 A: galopujący – 1 N: galopowanie – 1	Wewnętrzna łydka pilnuje zgięcia oraz tego, by koń aktywnie galopował zadem. Jeśli koń zacznie spieszyć podczas galopu, galopuj dalej bez zmiany tempa.

galop pośredni (NP) [medium canter] 6/1.53	NP: galop pośredni/pośredni galop – 5/1	[N]ad dodaniami, czyli przejściami z galopu roboczego do pośredniego , a potem wyciągniętego, należy pracować bardzo ostrożnie.
galop roboczy (NP) [working canter] 8/2.04	NP	Kiedy koń porusza się w rozluźnieniu i samoniesieniu w galopie roboczym , możemy przystąpić do zwiększania tempa na długich ścianach.
GALOP WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended canter] 6/1.53	NP: galop wyciągnięty/wyciągnięty galop – 4/2	Patrząc z boku na konia, powinno się widzieć wyraźną różnicę w długości skoków między galopem pośrednim a wyciągniętym .
galop zebrany (NP) [collected canter] 20/5.10	NP: galop zebrany/zebrany galop – 8/12	Dobry ciąg jest zawsze w galopie zebrany , przy zachowaniu impulsu . . . i równego trójtaktu. Nie ma jednego zebranego galopu , w przeciwnym razie robilibyśmy wszystko tak samo.
GALOP Z LEWEJ NOGI (NP) [left-lead canter] 8/2.04	NP: galop na lewą nogę/z lewej nogi/na lewo – 4/1/1 VP: galopować na lewą nogę – 2	Takie działania „otwierają lewą stronę”, więc koń będzie chciał przez nią „wyskoczyć”, robiąc lewymi nogami dłuższy wykrok i zaczynając galop na lewą nogę .
GALOP Z PRAWY NOGI (NP) [right-lead canter] 11/2.81	NP: galop na prawą nogę/z prawej nogi – 3/1 NP: galop na prawą stronę/na prawo – 1/1 VP: galopować na prawą nogę/na prawo – 3/1 VP: iść z prawej nogi – 1	Naturalnie, jeśli chciałeś galopu na lewą nogę, to dałeś mu prawidłowe pomoce. Aby skłonić go do galopu na prawą nogę , zacznij oddziaływać odwrotnie.
głos (N) [voice] 11/2.81	N	W tym celu należy nieco mocniej przyłożyć łydki, a ich działanie można wesprzeć głosem .
głowa (N) [head] 47/11.99	N	Clusters: głowa i szyja (8), szyja i głowa (3). Reference shifts: eight instances concern the rider's head, not the horse's. Gdy koń opuści głowę i szyję, należy pozwolić mu na równomierne kołysanie głową w rytm ruchu. Takie konie zazwyczaj idą z głowa ustawioną poza pionem, rolują się i podskakują.
grzbiet (N) [back] 73/18.63	N	L1: rozluźnienie (14). L5-R5: szyja (10). To trochę niższe ustawienie szyi zmusza konia do rozluźnienia grzbietu . Konie z łatwością mogą zablokować grzbiet , unieść się, i utracić ciągłość kroku.
grzbiet długi (NP) [long back] 4/1.02	NP: długi grzbiet – 4	Ćwiczenie to zaleca się szczególnie dla koni o długim grzbiecie , które mają problemy z jego zaokrągleniem.
grzbiet pracujący (NP) [working back] 15/3.83	NP: praca grzbietu/grzbietem – 8/1 VP: pracować grzbietem – 5 grzbiet nie pracuje – 1	Poziom przepuszczalności zależy jednak od poziomu wyszkolenia, a decydującą rolę ma tu praca grzbietu .

IMPULS (N) [impulsion] 76/19.39	N	R1: dynamika ruchu, idący (4). L5-R5: rytm (9), wyprostowanie (7), kontakt (6). Clusters: impuls do przodu (7), praca nad impulsem (4). <i>Półparady stosowane w klusie winny przekładać się na rozwijanie impulsu do przodu. Wprowadź praca nad wyprostowaniem i impulsem jest ingerencją w naturalny ruch konia, jednak należy pamiętać, że bez ciężaru jeźdźca na grzbiecie koń nie miałby żadnych problemów.</i>
inochód (N) [pace gait] 7/1.79	N	<i>Mylne jest stwierdzenie, że za długa praca w stępie szkodzi koniowi i czyni go podatnym na inochód.</i>
JAZDA KONNA (NP) [horse riding] 9/2.30	NP	<i>Każdy punkt skali wyszkolenia w pewien sposób zapewnia koniowi zdrowie psychiczne, dobrą pracę grzbietu i nóg oraz sprawia, że jazda konna staje się przyjemnością.</i>
jazda po łuku (NP) [ride on the arcs] 26/6.63	NP: jazda po łuku/jazda na łuku/jazda na * łuku/praca na łuku – 9/6/2/7 VP: jeździć po łuku – 2	<i>[J]jazda po łuku działa przede wszystkim rozluźniająco, ale i jest podstawą do osiągnięcia wyprostowania konia. Należy pamiętać o jeździe na łuku, czyli o woltach, wężykach i serpentynach oraz kole.</i>
jazda w terenie (NP) [trail ride] 14/3.57	NP: jazda/przejażdżka/spacer w terenie – 4/1/1 VP: wyjeżdżać w teren – 2 PP: w terenie – 6	L5-R5: parkur, skoki (4). <i>Szkolenie w skokach i jazda w terenie zostaną omówione w innym miejscu, odpowiednio bowiem do stanu wyszkolenia konia na każdy trening przygotowujemy specjalny program.</i>
JECHAĆ (V) [ride] 125/31.89	V: dojechać/dojeżdżać/najeżdżać – 2/2/1 V: jechać/jeździć – 27/44 V: pojechać/przejechać – 5/3 V: wjechać/wjeżdżać/wyjeżdżać – 2/1/9 N: dojechanie/dojeżdżanie/odjechanie – 2/1/1 N: jeżdżenie/przejechanie/wjazd – 2/3/1 N: wjeżdżanie/wyjechanie/wyjeżdżanie – 3/2/8 A: jeżdżony/wyjechany/wyjeżdżany – 4/1/1	L1: moc (8), należy (5). R1: do (7), stęp (5), na koniu/* koniu (4), na * wodzy (4). L5-R5: do przodu (7). <i>Koń powinien być jeżdżony od wewnętrznej łydki do zewnętrznej wodzy. Wykonując cztery lub więcej zakrętów, należy jechać klusem ćwiczebnym, aby utrzymywać konia na stabilniejszym kontakcie (kontrola potylicy). Niektóre konie będą wymagały więcej oparcia na rękę, niektóre są bardziej nerwowe, niektóre musisz jechać bardziej do przodu niż inne.</i>

JEŹDZIEC (N) [rider] 644/164.31	N	L1: ręka (35), ciężar, wielu (17), pomoc (15), doświadczony, łydka (11), umożliwić (9), dobry (8), dosiad, każdy (7), umiejętności, większość (6), ćwiczenie, zadanie (5), niedoświadczony (4). R1: powinien (60), móc (39), musieć (37), działać, siedzieć, wykonać (6). L5-R5: ręka (51), łydka, pomoc (37), ruch (32). Clusters: koń i jeździec (9), jeździec i koń, ręka jeźdźca z pyskiem konia (8), na ręce jeźdźca, stosowany przez jeźdźca (6). <i>Nad prawidłowym ruchem jeździec może pracować, jeszcze zanim po raz pierwszy dosiądzie konia. [D]oświadczony jeździec może dosiadać młodego konia, którego chodom brak jeszcze regularności. Połączenie ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia ma na celu – w pierwszej kolejności – wskazywanie koniowi kierunku, w którym ma podążyć, oraz przyzwyczajanie go do ogłowia.</i>
JEŹDZIECTWO (N) [horse riding] 8/2.04	N	<i>Jedną z podstawowych rzeczy w jeździectwie jest nauczanie konia akceptacji wewnętrznej łydki.</i>
kadencja (N) [cadence] 13/3.32	N	<i>Każde z kopyt dotyka ziemi osobno jako element naturalnej kadencji stąpania.</i>
kapriola (N) [capriole] 11/2.81	N	<i>Idealna kapriola to taka, w której przednie nogi konia znajdują się wyżej niż zadnie.</i>
kara (N) [punishment] 5/1.28	N	<i>[N]ieustannie powtarzana łydka stanowi dla konia karę za każdy wykonany krok.</i>
KARACĆ (V) [punish] 9/2.30	V	<i>Jeśli koń sam zrobi zmianę, nie karz go za to. Oznacza to, że chce z tobą pracować, i że się stara.</i>
kawecan (N) [cavesson] 15/3.83	N	L1: pierścień (5). L5-R5: przypięty (8). <i>[S]zkoleniowiec używa wodzy prowadzącej, przypiętej do środkowego pierścienia kawecanu.</i>
kielzno (N) [bit] 5/1.28		<i>Zdrowy na ciele i umyśle koń nie powinien mieć problemów z akceptacją kielzna od początku pracy.</i>
kłąb (N) [withers] 12/3.06	N	<i>Wysokie postawienie wychodzi z kłębu i koń sprawia wrażenie, jakby mocniej szedł „pod górę”.</i>
KLUS (N) [trot] 144/36.74	N	L1: w (64), z (9), krok (7), step (6). L5-R5: galop (39), step (27), chód (9). Clusters: klus i galop (17). <i>Przykładem łatwej pólparyady może być przejście z klusa do stepa i na odwrót. Moje czterolatki chodzą stepem, klusem i galopem. Ćwiczenia, które robię, zależą od konia. W zasadzie, jeśli twój koń idzie prawidłowo w klusie, w pasaż wejdzie automatycznie.</i>
klus anglezowany (NP) [posting trot] 10/2.55	NP	<i>Elastyczny ruch od zadu można koniowi ułatwić przez klus anglezowany.</i>

KLUS ĆWICZEBNY (NP) [sitting trot] 6/1.53	NP	<i>Ten, kto nie ma tej umiejętności, będzie obijać hydki o brzuch konia, zwłaszcza w klusie ćwiczebnym.</i>
klus hiszpański (NP) [Spanish trot] 5/1.28	NP: kłus hiszpański/hiszpański kłus – 4/1	<i>W klusie hiszpańskiej – w porównaniu z kłusem wyciągniętym – koń unosi przednie nogi zdecydowanie wyżej.</i>
KLUSOWAĆ (V) [trot] 16/4.10	V: kłusować/zakłusować – 5/5 A: kłusujący – 2 N: zakłusowanie – 4	<i>Kiedy koń klusuje, włączasz się aktywnie w jego ruch do przodu.</i>
klus pośredni (NP) [medium trot] 23/5.87	NP	L5-R5: zebrany (6), roboczy (5). <i>Podobnie winniśmy wystrzegać się zbyt wczesnego ćwiczenia klusy pośredniej. Warunkiem klusy pośredniej jest możliwość rozwinięcia z klusa zebranego niezbędnego impulsu.</i>
klus roboczy (NP) [working trot] 17/4.34	NP	L5-R5: pośredni (4). <i>Należy wejść w klusie roboczym na duże koło i zbliżając się do ściany ujeżdżalni, wykonać przygotowującą półparadę.</i>
KLUS WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended trot] 19/4.85	NP	<i>Kłus wyciągnięty jest ukoronowaniem planowego i wszechstronnego wygimnastykowania i wyszkolenia konia.</i>
klus zebrany (NP) [collected trot] 25/6.38	NP: kłus zebrany/zebrany kłus – 23/2	<i>W początkowej fazie szkolenia klus zebrany należy wykonywać tylko na krótkich odcinkach. Nad klusem zebrany również nie pracujemy w trakcie szkolenia podstawowego młodego konia.</i>
koło (N) [circle] 98/25.00	N	L1: na (42), po (6), strona (4). L5-R5: kierunek (10), łuk, wężyk (7). Clusters: praca na kole (15), jazda na kole (6), galop na kole (4). <i>Wielu jeźdźcom wydaje się, że lotna zmiana po prostu oznacza przejechanie z koła wykonywanego w jednym kierunku bezpośrednio na koło wykonywane w drugim kierunku.</i>
kontakt (N) [contact] 96/24.49	N	L1: na (10), stabilny (6), przyjąć (5), delikatny, mocny (4). L5-R5: wodza (19), rozluźnienie (7), impuls (6). Clusters: kontakt z pyskiem/z * pyskiem (11/2), kontakt na * wodzy (8). <i>[J]eździec oddaje nieco wodze, utrzymując jednak lekki kontakt z pyskiem konia. [D]o tego potrzebna jest łączność ręki jeźdźcy z pyskiem konia, czyli stabilny kontakt.</i>
kontrgalop (N) [counter-canter] 15/3.83	N	L5-R5: zmieniń nogę (5). <i>Jeździec, który umie skorzystać z wrodzonego talentu konia, pozwoli mu podczas kontrgalopu zmieniń nogę w narożniku.</i>
koń ujeżdżeniowy (NP) [dressage horse] 14/3.57	NP	L1: szkolenie/wyszkolenie (4). <i>Zasadniczo nie da się zastosować szablonu w szkoleniu konia ujeżdżeniowego.</i>

KOŃ WIERZCHOWY (NP) [ridding horse] 14/3.57	N: wierzchowiec – 14	Galopując na wierzchowcu po łąkach i lasach, również musimy mieć konia dobrze ustawionego na pomocach.
koziółek (N) [cavaletto] 5/1.28	N	Pomocne może tu być włączenie pracy na koziółkach , w spokojnym tempie, w klusie anglezowanym.
kręgosłup (N) [spine] 21/5.36	N	L5-R5: wygiąć (7). [W] zasadzie każdy koń ma lekkie wygięcie kręgosłupa . Dolna część kręgosłupa powinna działać jak amortyzator wstrząsów spowodowanych ruchem konia.
krok, obszerny (NP) [ground-covering stride] 40/10.21	NP: obszerny krok/wykrok – 6/2 NP: obszerność wykroku – 2 N: obszerność – 7 A: obszerny – 12 ADV: obszernie – 5 krok + V + obszerny – 6	W stępie wyciągniętym koń stawia długie, obszerne kroki. Galop jest obszerny , kiedy koń przy rozluźnionym grzbiecie i obniżonym zadzie dobrze kryje teren dynamicznymi skokami w przód – w górę.
kroków, kolejność (NP) [sequence of steps] 5/1.28	NP	Kolejność kroków przedstawiono na ilustracjach faz ruchu w stępie (s. 115), klusie (s. 104) i galopie (s. 109).
krupada (N) [croupade] 4/1.02	N	Ćwiczenia tworzące przejście do szkoły nad ziemią to lewada i pezada. Kurbeta, krupada , balotada i kapriola to z kolei elementy szkoły nad ziemią.
krzyż (N) [lower back] 6/1.53	N	Myśl o pomocach popędzających, o tyłce, krzyżu , połączenie których powoduje, że twój dosiad działa aktywizująco.
KRZYŻA, NAPIĘCIE (NP) [bracing the back] 7/1.79	NP: napięcie/napięcie */napinanie krzyża – 2/1/1 VP: napiąć krzyż – 3	Jednostronne napięcie przez jeźdźca krzyża nie dopuszcza do cofnięcia się konia, co stanowiłoby wszakże mniejszy błąd.
kulawizna wędzidłowa (NP) [rein lameness] 8/2.04	NP: kulawizna wędzidłowa/ odwędzidłowa/od wędzidła – 2/3/1 N: kulawizna – 2	Najpoważniejszym ze wszystkich błędów w regularności chodów jest tzw. kulawizna wędzidłowa : jedna para przekątnych nóg kroczy mocniej niż druga.
kurbeta (N) [courbette] 11/2.81	N	Podczas pokazów w Królewskiej Szkole Jazdy w Jerez widziałem ogiery wykonujące w ręce do dziesięciu kurbet .
lekkość (N) [lightness] 28/7.14	N: lekkość – 4 A: lekki – 14 ADV: lekko – 10	L5-R5: wodza (11). Lekko zbierz konia prawą wodzą i zamknij go delikatnie prawą tyłką. Lekkość konia w klusie wyciągniętym musi być spowodowana tylko przez samo niesienie się konia.
lewada (N) [levade] 27/6.89	N	L1: wykonać (6), w (5). L5-R5: piaff (4). Początkowo lewadę , podobnie jak piaff, należy wykonywać przy ścianie. Koń może wykonać lewadę właściwie tylko z bardzo energicznego piaffu.

linia prosta (NP) [straight line] 38/9.70	NP: linia prosta/prosta linia – 29/1 N: prosta – 8	L1: na (21), po (7). L5-R5: łuk (9). <i>Ćwiczenie łopatką do przodu można wykonywać zarówno na linii prostej, jak i na łuku. Koń powinien wykonać lotną zmianę nogi na linii prostej spokojnie, w wyprostowaniu.</i>
lonża (N) [lunge line] 10/2.55	N	<i>Szkoleniowiec pilnuje lonżę, a pomocnik wodzą, by skok nie tylko był do góry, ale i do przodu.</i>
łokieć (N) [elbow] 17/4.34	N: łokieć – 13 A: łokciowy – 4	L5-R5: swobodny (4). Clusters: staw łokciowy (4). <i>Łokcie powinny być swobodne i lekko dotykać boków.</i>
łopatkach, swoboda w (NP) [freedom of shoulders] 7/1.79	NP: swoboda łopatek/w łopatkach – 3/2 łopaska staje się swobodniejsza – 2	<i>Wykonanie tych ćwiczeń wymaga od konia dużej swobody w łopatkach, co możliwe jest jedynie przy dobrej pracy zadu, nad którą jeździec czuwa cały czas.</i>
łopatką do przodu (NP) [shoulder-fore] 22/5.61	NP	<i>Łopatką do przodu to najlepsze ćwiczenie przygotowujące konia do chodów bocznych. Ćwiczenie łopatką do przodu można wykonywać zarówno na linii prostej, jak i na łuku.</i>
łopatką do wewnątrz (NP) [shoulder-in] 29/7.40	NP: łopatką/łopaska do wewnątrz – 23/6	<i>Łopatką do wewnątrz na czterech liniach można podziwiać w Hiszpańskiej Szkole Jazdy w Wiedniu. Najważniejszą rzeczą przy robieniu łopatki do wewnątrz jest właściwe wygięcie.</i>
łopatką, wypadanie (NP) [shoulder falling out] 9/2.30	NP: wypadanie łopatką/* łopatką/łopatki – 1/1/1 NP: wypadnięcie łopatką – 1 VP: wypadać łopatką/* łopatką – 2/3	L5-R5: na zewnątrz (5). <i>W trakcie ćwiczenia jeździec powinien zwrócić szczególną uwagę, by koń nie wypadał zewnętrzną łopatką lub by zgięcie do wewnątrz nie było symulowane.</i>
łydka (N) [leg aid] 123/31.38	N	L1: lewa, prawa (5), używać (4). Clusters: działanie (11), ciężar i łydka (10), ciężar łydka i wodza (5), reagować na łydkę (4). <i>Oprócz głosu, bata i ostróg są jeszcze takie pomoce, jak ciężar, łydki i wodze. Jeździec działając łydkami, nie może przechylać się na bok, w stronę łydki przesuwałcej konia. Nogę od uda do kolana należy ciągnąć w dół, a łydki luźno przyłożyć do boków konia.</i>
łydka aktywizująca (NP) [driving leg aid] 15/3.83	NP: łydka aktywizująca/aktywizująca łydka – 11/4	<i>Oprócz łydek aktywizujących stosujemy jeszcze łydki o działaniu ograniczającym i przesuwałcym.</i>
LYDKAMI, PRZED (PP) [in front of the leg] 5/1.28	PP: przed łydką/łydkami – 4/1	<i>Kiedy koń jest zarówno „przed łydką”, jak i „pod jeźdźcem”, jeździec może efektywnie wykorzystywać pracę jego zadu i tylnych nóg.</i>

łydka ograniczająca (NP) [restricting leg aid] 9/2.30	NP: łydka ograniczająca/ograniczająca łydka/ograniczająca * łydka/łydka o działaniu ograniczającym – 2/3/1/1 łydka ogranicza/łydka działa ograniczająco – 1/1	L5-R5: zewnętrzny (5). <i>Położoną za popręgiem, ograniczającą prawą łydką zapobiega zbyt śpiesznemu i zbyt silnemu przesuwaniu się zadu w bok.</i>
łydka przesuująca (NP) [lateral leg aid] 8/2.04	NP: łydka przesuująca/przesuwająca łydka/przesuwająca * łydka – 5/2/1	<i>Dopiero gdy jest jasne, że przód idzie pierwszy, zewnętrzna przesuująca łydka może zadziałać aktywniej.</i>
łydka wewnętrzna (NP) [inside leg] 53/13.52	NP: łydka wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna łydka – 2/49 A: wewnętrzna – 2	L5-R5: zewnętrzna wodza (10), wewnętrzna wodza (5). Clusters: wokół wewnętrznej łydki (6). <i>[P]owinniśmy mocniej zgiąć go wokół wewnętrznej łydki, działając w tym celu zewnętrzną łydką. Wewnętrzna wodza oraz wewnętrzna łydka leżąca na popręgu kontrolują ustawienie konia.</i>
łydka zewnętrzna (NP) [outside leg] 38/9.70	NP: łydka zewnętrzna/zewnętrzna łydka – 3/32 A: zewnętrzna – 3	L5-R5: wodza (6), wewnętrzna (5). <i>[T]rzeba bardziej zdecydowanie wygiąć konia zewnętrzną łydką wokół wewnętrznej. Zadaniem zewnętrznej łydki jest aktywizowanie zewnętrznej zadniej nogi.</i>
łydki, nacisk (NP) [leg pressure] 10/2.55	NP: nacisk łydki/* łydki – 4/2 NP: nacisk łydką – 1 N: nacisk – 3	<i>Kiedy koń zagalopował z prawidłowej nogi i utrzymuje krok, należy skrócić prowadzącą stronę, lekko kierując jego nos w stronę wiodących nóg i stosując wewnętrzny nacisk łydką.</i>
łydki, ustępowanie od (NP) [leg-yielding] 29/7.40	NP: ustępowanie od łydki/od * łydki – 24/1 N: ustępowanie – 3 V: ustępować od łydki – 1	L5-R5: koło (6). <i>Jeszcze skuteczniejsze jest ustępowanie od łydki na otwartej stronie koła w klusie. [P]rzy ustępowaniu od łydki wzdłużna oś konia winna być ustawiona skośnie w stosunku do linii śladu, pod kątem dochodzącym do około 45 stopni (na dwóch śladach).</i>
miętkość (N) [softness] 29/7.40	N: miętkość – 1 A: miętki – 22 ADV: miękko – 6	L5-R5: ręka (6), kontakt (5). <i>Po wykonaniu pełnej parady należy zwrócić uwagę, by kontakt był cały czas miękki. By dobrze wykonać półparadę, jeździec musi opanować prowadzenie konia miękką ręką.</i>
mięsień (N) [muscle] 36/9.19	N: mięsień – 31 A: mięśniowy – 5	L5-R5: rozluźnienie, szyja (6), udo (4). <i>Pośladki i mięśnie ud powinny być rozluźnione. Częste przejścia przyczyniają się do wzmocnienia mięśni zadu.</i>
mięsień grzbietu (NP) [back muscle] 12/3.06	NP	<i>U rozluźnionego konia mięśnie grzbietu zaczynają elastycznie sprężynować, a linia górna równomiernie się zaokrągla.</i>
MOMENT ZAWIESZENIA (NP) [suspension phase] 7/1.79	NP: moment/faza zawieszenia – 1/6	<i>W klusie i galopie następuje faza zawieszenia, w której równocześnie wszystkie cztery nogi konia znajdują się nad ziemią.</i>
nagradzanie (N) [rewarding] 11/2.81	N: nagradzanie – 1 V: nagradzać – 10	<i>„Miętkość w pysku” osiąga się przede wszystkim poprzez nagradzanie wierzchowca całkowitą redukcją nacisku.</i>

NAGRODA (N) [reward] 6/1.53	N	<i>Kiedy jeździec prawidłowo zastosuje pochwałę, koń zrozumie każde z tych zachowań jako nagrode.</i>
narożnik (N) [corner] 31/7.91	N	L1: w (17), do, z (3). L5-R5: zgięcie/wygięcie (7). <i>W narożniku koń powinien być równomiernie zgięty, od potylicy aż po ogon. Tempo w narożniku nie może się zmieniać, czyli koń nie może iść ani szybciej, ani wolniej.</i>
narożnika, wyjeżdżanie (NP) [riding the corner] 15/3.83	NP: wyjeżdżanie/wyjechanie narożnika – 10/3 VP: wyjeżdżać narożnik – 2	L5-R5: dokładne (4). <i>Późniejsze prawidłowe wyjeżdżanie narożników odpowiada ćwierćwolcie o średnicy 6 m.</i>
natura (N) [character] 20/5.10	N	L1: z (17). <i>Ponieważ koń z natury skrzywiony jest na prawo, ciężko mu wygiąć szyję w lewą stronę. Koń zawsze stara się uciekać, to część jego natury.</i>
NAWRÓT (N) [stretch] 5/1.28	N	<i>Duże znaczenie mają nawroty klusa lub galopu, na przykład na długich ścianach.</i>
NOGA (N) [leg] 211/53.83	N	L1: zadnia (124), druga, obie (6). Clusters: wszystkie cztery nogi (6). <i>[Z]ewnętrzna łydka ogranicza wypadanie zewnętrznej zadniej nogi i utrzymuje stopień wygięcia. [K]roczenie zadnimi nogami po linii przednich jest możliwe tylko wtedy, gdy koń będzie stawiać je lekko ukośnie, do wewnątrz. W celu równomiernego wygimnastykowania obu nóg ćwiczenie należy wykonywać na dwie strony.</i>
NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP) [foreleg] 114/29.09	NP: noga przednia/przednia noga/przednia * noga – 21/64/2 NP: przednia kończyzna – 2 A: przednia – 25	L1: ślad (13), wewnętrzna (8), prawa (6), zewnętrzna (5). L5-R5: zadnia (20), tylna (17). <i>U młodego konia odległość między przednimi a zadnimi nogami jest jeszcze dość duża. Obowiązuje zasada, że przednie nogi ustawia się na ślad tylnych. [K]oń, odrywając wewnętrzną przednią nogę od ziemi, w fazie lotu wykona zmianę nogi.</i>
NOGA TYLNA (NP) [hind leg] 73/18.63	NP: noga tylna/tylna noga/tylna * noga – 18/47/3 NP: tylna kończyzna – 1 A: tylna – 4	L1: wewnętrzna (10), lewa (7). L5-R5: przednia (17), wewnętrzna (16), lewa (14), prawa (10), zewnętrzna (8). <i>W chwili, kiedy koń unosi wewnętrzną tylną nogę, nabieram wewnętrzną wodzę. Jeśli koń galopuje na lewą przednią i tylną nogę, jego prawe nogi wykonują skrócony pół krok.</i>
noga wewnętrzna (NP) [inside leg] 30/7.65	NP: noga wewnętrzna – 1 NP: wewnętrzna noga/* noga – 14/12 A: wewnętrzna – 3	L1: zadnia (6). L5-R5: zewnętrzna (8). <i>[Z]adnia wewnętrzna noga może przejąć na siebie mocniejsze obciążenie i działać jak sprężyna. Najpierw najlepiej zająć się wewnętrzną zadnią nogą i dążyć do jej kontrolowania.</i>
nogi, obciążanie przedniej (NP) [shifting the weight to foreleg] 6/1.53	NP: obciążenie przedniej nogi – 3 VP: obciążyć przednią nogę – 2 przednie nogi są obciążone – 1	<i>Zbyt niskie ustawienie szyi powoduje zbyt mocne naciągnięcie mięśni grzbietu i obciążenie przednich nóg.</i>

nogi, podnoszenie przedniej (NP) [lifting the foreleg] 9/2.30	NP: podnoszenie przedniej nogi/ podniesienie przedniej nogi/uniesienie przedniej nogi – 1/1/1 VP: podnieść przednią nogę/podnieść * przednią nogę/unieść przednią nogę – 1/4/1	<i>Początki takiego zachowania widać wyraźnie, gdy koń co chwilę próbuje podnieść jedną z przednich nóg i utrzymać ją w powietrzu, drugą opierając się na ziemi.</i>
NOGI, PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE (VP) [engage hind legs] 54/13.78	VP: podstawić zadnią nogę/* zadnią nogę/nogę – 14/2/1 VP: podstawić zad – 4 V: podstawić się – 4 NP: podstawianie zadniej nogi/* zadniej nogi/nogi tylnej/kończyny tylnej/nogi/zadu – 5/2/1/1/1/11 NP: podstawiony zad – 1 NP: zadnia noga podstawiona/ podstawiona zadnia noga – 2/1 N: podstawienie – 2 zad + V + podstawiony – 2	L1: mocny (7). Clusters: podstawić zadnie nogi pod środek ciężkości (5). <i>Wskutek tego zad musi przyjmować większe obciążenie i podstawiać się prosto pod środek ciężkości. Stwierdzenie, że im głębiej koń podstawia zadnią nogę pod kłodę w kierunku linii środka ciężkości, tym lepszy ma ruch, jest niestety błędne.</i>
nogi w galopie co tempo, zmiana (NP) [one-time change] 16/4.08	NP: zmiana nogi co tempo/co * tempa/* co * tempa – 4/5/1 NP: zmiana co tempo/co * tempa – 2/3 NP: zmiana co jedną foule – 1	<i>Jeśli koń ma talent i opanował wykonanie lotnych zmian nogi co dwa tempa, . . . jeździec może nauczyć go zmian co tempo dosłownie w ciągu kilku dni.</i>
nogi w galopie, lotna zmiana (NP) [flying lead change] 65/16.58	NP: lotna zmiana nogi w galopie/lotna zmiana nogi/lotna zmiana – 4/42/19	L1: wykonać (8), nauka (5). <i>Najlepiej zaplanować ćwiczenie lotnej zmiany nogi tak, by wykonywać ją na koniec treningu. Jeśli lotna zmiana, którą zrobi koń nie jest „przeciwko mnie”, pozwalam na zmianę.</i>
nogi w galopie, zwykła zmiana (NP) [simple lead change] 12/3.06	NP: zwykła zmiana nogi w galopie/zwykła zmiana nogi/zwykła zmiana – 6/3/3	<i>Prawidłowe wykonanie zwyklej zmiany nogi w galopie nie jest proste, gdyż wymaga od konia dobrej pracy zadem i jego mocniejszego obciążenia.</i>
NOGI, ZMIANA (NP) [lead change] 53/13.52	NP: zmiana nogi – 19 N: zmiana – 20 VP: zmienić nogę/* nogę – 13/1	L1: wykonać (9). <i>Jeździec powinien pamiętać o tym, że zmiany nogi na jedną ze stron są dla konia zawsze łatwiejsze. Jeśli lotna zmiana, którą zrobi koń nie jest „przeciwko mnie”, pozwalam na zmiianę.</i>
nos (N) [nose] 16/4.08	N	L5-R5: linia, pion (6). <i>[L]inia czolo-nos może być lekko przed pionem.</i>
nóg, kolejność stawiania (NP) [footfall sequence] 6/1.53	NP: kolejność stawiania nóg/* nóg/kopyt – 4/1/1	<i>Na poprawność galopu wpływ ma kolejność stawiania nóg, gdyż w pewnym momencie zewnętrzna zadnia noga przejmuje cały ciężar konia.</i>

nóg, przekątna para (NP) [diagonal leg pair] 18/4.59	NP: przekątna para nóg – 8 NP: przekątna noga/noga przekątna – 4/1 NP: para nóg po przekątnej/para przekątnych nóg – 1/1 NP: nogi parami po przekątnej/nogi * po przekątnej – 1/2	<i>Koń zachowuje takt w klusie, jeżeli jednocześnie unosi i stawia nogi parami po przekątnej. Cofanie służy poprawie przepuszczalności, posłuszeństwa i zebrania. . . . Nogi stawiane są, podobnie jak w klusie, po przekątnej.</i>
oddziaływanie na konia (NP) [influencing the horse] 34/8.67	N: oddziaływanie – 16 A: oddziałujący – 1 V: oddziaływać – 16 VP: oddziaływać na konia – 1	R1: na (8), pomoc (4). <i>Działanie dosiadem polega na oddziaływaniu ciężarem jeźdźca na konia poprzez zmianę położenia środka ciężkości. Aby przejść do klusa, przestajemy oddziaływać pomocami do galopu.</i>
ogon (N) [tail] 11/2.81	N	<i>Podczas stępa kregosłup konia tworzy linię prostą od ogona do głowy.</i>
opór (N) [resistance] 33/8.42	N	L1: bez (8), stawiać (5). <i>Powinien zaczynać galop z wybranej nogi bez oporu i na każde polecenie. Gdy koń pokazuje opór, nigdy nie uzyska wysokich ocen na czworoboku.</i>
ostroga (N) [spur] 10/2.55	N	<i>Pod żadnym pozorem nie bij go ani nie kluj ostrogą.</i>
ÓSEMKA (N) [figure eight] 28/7.14	N	L1: na (6). L5-R5: okrąg (5). Clusters: ósemka na krótkiej ścianie (5). <i>Jazda po lukach na poziomie klasy „L” obejmuje . . . ósemki na krótkiej ścianie. Zanim zaczniesz szkolić konia, zastanów się nad prawidłowym geometrycznym kształtem ósemki.</i>
PARA (N) [leg pair] 9/2.30	N	L5-R5: wewnętrzna, zewnętrzna (3). <i>W każdym zakręcie zewnętrzna para nóg musi wykonać nieco dłuższą drogę niż para wewnętrzna.</i>
parada, pełna (NP) [full halt] 29/7.40	NP: pełna/cała parada – 4/8 N: parada – 17	L1: wykonać (6). L5-R5: półparada (5). <i>Całą paradę przygotowujemy jedną lub kilkoma półparadami. Na podstawie jakości kontaktu jeździec może ocenić wykonaną paradę.</i>
parskanie (N) [snorting] 4/1.02	N: parskanie/parsknięcie – 2/1 V: parskać – 1	<i>Pojedyncze, mocne parsknięcie, podczas którego jeździec o mały włos nie wylatuje z siodła, na pewno nie świadczy o rozluźnieniu.</i>
pasaż (N) [passage] 39/9.95	N	L1: krok (7). <i>Jeśli będziesz chcieć za dużo, to tylko spowoduje, że kroki pasażu będą nieregularne. Nawet w pasażu możesz mieć tę samą długość kroku, co w klusie wyciągniętym.</i>
pezada (N) [pesade] 9/2.30	N	<i>Gdy tylko koń zacznie unosić w pezadzie przód, pomocnik wydłuża wodzę prowadzącą.</i>

piaff (N) [piaffe] 88/22.45	N: piaf/piaff – 12/65 V: piafować/piaffować – 3/7 A: piaffujący – 1	L1: krok (9), ćwiczenie (4). <i>Przy większości dobrych piaffów obserwator nie widzi nic, nogi jeźdźca się nie poruszają. Na początek jeździec powinien wykonać kilka zwykłych kroków piaffu w odpowiednim zebraniu.</i>
piaff w miejscu (NP) [piaffe on the spot] 8/4.02	NP: piaff w miejscu – 7 VP: piaffować w miejscu – 1	<i>Koń powinien wykonać najpierw piaff w miejscu, z którego przechodzi do lewady.</i>
pilność (N) [diligence] 9/2.30	N: pilność – 7 A: pilny – 1 ADV: pilnie – 1	<i>Koń nie może utracić ani taktu, ani pilności w ruchu, dodatkowo ten ruch powinien być ekspresyjny.</i>
PIRUET (N) [pirouette] 46/11.74	N	L1: w, wykonać (4). R1: w (5). <i>Regularność ruchu w stępie najlepiej sprawdzić, wykonując piruet. Ważne, by w piruecie nie nastąpiła utrata wyraźnego trójtaktu.</i>
PLAC DO KONNEJ JAZDY (NP) [riding arena] 9/2.30	NP: plac do jazdy – 1 N: plac – 8	<i>Specjalnie w tym celu w klubie jeździeckim St. Georg w Münster zbudowaliśmy wokół placu do jazdy tor do galopu, który umożliwia nam lepsze rozprężanie koni na długich liniach.</i>
płynność (N) [smoothness] 14/3.57	N: płynność – 3 A: płynny – 9 ADV: płynnie – 2	L5-R5: ruch (4). <i>Utraconą płynność ruchu będzie łatwiej odzyskać, gdy mocniej obciążymy wewnętrzną stronę i lekko poprowadzimy konia wewnętrzną wodzą.</i>
POBUDZIĆ (V) [stimulate] 6/1.53	V: pobudzić – 4 A: pobudzany – 1 N: pobudzenie – 1	<i>Łydki to najważniejsze pomoce aktywizujące, używane przez jeźdźca. Ich równy nacisk, gdy znajdują się tuż za popręgiem, pobudza konia.</i>
pochwała (N) [praise] 23/5.87	N: pochwała/chwalenie – 3/1 V: chwalić – 19	Clusters: wyraźnie pochwalić (7). <i>Zamiast kary jeździec powinien zastosować nagrodę i wyraźnie pochwalić konia. Dobrze wykonane ćwiczenie koniecznie trzeba zakończyć pochwałą.</i>
“pod górę” (PP) [‘uphill’] 11/2.81	PP	L1: galop (4). <i>W dobrym wyciągniętym galopie, koń galopuje tzw. galopem „pod górę” z dużym impulsem.</i>
POKLEPAĆ (V) [pat] 4/1.02	V: poklepać/klepać – 2/1 N: poklepanie – 1	<i>Wszystko jest kwestią zaufania. Kiedy koń go nabiera, powinieneś nagrodzić go i poklepać, nawet jeśli okazał je w jakiejś drobnej sprawie.</i>
POMOC (N) [aid] 181/46.18	N	L1: użyć (17), działanie (15), stosować (9), zewnętrzny (6). R1: do (9), stosowany (7), ciężar (6), popędzający (5). L5-R5: łydka (12). Clusters: reagować na pomoce (11). <i>Pomoce do wykonania półparady to współdziałanie ciężaru, łydek i wodzy. Jedziesz konia naprzód od tyłu przy użyciu pomocy popędzających w kierunku przytrzymującej ręki. [J]eździec powinien z wycuciem odpuścić wodze i użyć pomocy ponownie – najlepiej na kole.</i>

POMOCACH, NA (PP) [on the aids] 15/3.83	PP	L1: ustawienie (6), ustawienie konia (2). <i>Niewiele jest koni, które są w stanie wykonać poprawnie zmiany nogi co tempo w pełnym ustawieniu na pomocach.</i>
pomoc aktywizująca (NP) [driving aid] 39/9.95	NP: pomoc aktywizująca/* aktywizująca – 34/1 NP: aktywizująca/aktywizująca * pomoc – 2/2	L1: działać (6). R1: w przód (9). Clusters: posłuszeństwo/posłuszeństwo * na pomoce aktywizujące (5). <i>Po uspokojeniu . . . przystępujemy do ćwiczenia posłuszeństwa na pomoce aktywizujące w przód. Nieregularne użycie pomocy aktywizujących powoduje nieregularny wykrok zadnich nóg.</i>
pomocnik (N) [assistant] 19/4.85	N	<i>Naukę kurbety rozpoczynamy od ćwiczenia w rękę, początkowo z pomocnikiem.</i>
pomoc wstrzymująca (NP) [restraining aid] 9/2.30	NP: pomoc wstrzymująca/ wstrzymująca pomoc – 7/2	L5-R5: pomoc aktywizująca (4). <i>Uwrażliwiliśmy konia na działania pomocy aktywizujących w przód, w bok, a także wstrzymujących.</i>
POSŁUSZEŃSTWO (N) [obedience] 33/8.42	N: posłuszeństwo – 26 A: posłuszny – 4 ADV: posłusznie – 3	Clusters: posłuszeństwo na (*) pomoce (10), posłuszeństwo konia na (4). <i>[Z]ajmiemy się uczeniem konia posłuszeństwa na pomoce wstrzymujące. Posłuszeństwo na takie pomoce nazywamy przepuszczalnością.</i>
POSTAWA (N) [posture] 14/3.57	N	<i>Jeżeli młody koń zatrzymuje się w postawie nie całkiem zwartej, w początkowej fazie szkolenia niekoniecznie wymaga to korygowania.</i>
postawienie relatywne (NP) [relative elevation] 8/2.04	NP: postawienie relatywne/postawa relatywna/postawa relatywnego wyższego ustawienia – 6/1/1	<i>Prawidłowe postawienie relatywne przy równoczesnym działaniu tydek aktywizujących powoduje mocniejszą akcję zadu.</i>
pośladek (N) [buttock] 13/3.32	N	L1: wewnętrzny (7), zewnętrzny (3). <i>Wewnętrzny pośladek jeźdźca wspiera konia w ruchu naprzód podczas każdego skoku.</i>
potylicca (N) [poll] 65/16.58	N	L1: w (25), kontrola (10), od (6), przez (5). L5-R5: szyja (13), wodza (12), głowa, najwyższy punkt, ustępować (5), odpuszczać (4). <i>Stopień zgięcia szyi, głowy i potylicy ogranicza zewnętrzną wodzą. Ważne, aby koń nie spinał się w potylicy lub nie chował za wędzidło.</i>
POZYCJA (N) [position] 55/14.03	N	L1: w (17), taka (8), do, ta (5). R1: wyjściowa, zwarta (4). Reference shifts: 21 instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>W takiej pozycji koń nie może wydłużyć linii górnej szyi. Należy nauczyć konia stania w bezruchu i w pozycji zwartej przez co najmniej 4-5 sekund.</i>
półparada (N) [half-halt] 73/18.63	N	L1: wykonać (15). <i>By dobrze wykonać półparadę, jeździec musi opanować prowadzenie konia miękką ręką. Liczba półparad zależy od przepuszczalności konia i umiejętności jeźdźca.</i>

półpiruet (N) [half-pirouette] 29/7.40	N	L1: wykonać (4). R1: roboczy (6). Półpiruet roboczy lub półpiruet wykonywany jest zawsze w stępie. Koń zgięty jest zawsze w kierunku, w którym będzie wykonywał półpiruet .
PÓLSIAD (N) [jumping seat] 4/1.02	N	[R]ozprężam konia, galopując półsiadem , korzystając z długich prostych na torze do galopu.
półwolta (N) [half-volte] 12/3.06	N	Po zakończeniu pojedynczej półwolty na dwóch śladach można powrócić do ciągu na linii zmiany kierunku.
prostowanie (N) [straightening] 16/4.08	N: prostowanie – 7 V: prostować – 9	Mimo że istotna część pracy nad prostowaniem konia odbywa się dopiero w drugim roku szkolenia, trzeba na to zwracać uwagę już w pierwszym roku.
PROSTY (A) [straight] 34/8.67	A: prosty – 20 ADV: prosto – 14	L1: pozostawać (4). Najważniejsze, żeby koń szedł prosty . Widziałam wiele koni na Bundeschampionate, które nie były proste . Moim zdaniem podstawową rzeczą jest ruch naprzód i na wprost.
PROWADZENIE (N) [leading] 29/7.40	N: prowadzenie – 6 A: prowadzony – 3 V: prowadzić – 20	R1: koń (16). L5-R5: wodza (11). Zewnętrzna wodza i wewnętrzna tydka prowadzą konia do przodu w bok. Za prowadzenie przodu konia w ustawieniu do wewnątrz ujeżdżalni odpowiedzialne są obie wodze.
przejście (N) [transition] 94/23.98	N: przejście – 74 V: przejść – 20	L1: częste (7). R1: do (18), do stępa (8), między (6). L5-R5: galop (31), kłus, stęp (27). Przejście do stępa każdorazowo powinno odbywać się przy dużym zaangażowaniu zadu. Niedawno spróbowałam z jednym z moich 3-latków przejścia stęp-galop i galop-stęp.
przekątna (N) [diagonal] 6/1.53	N	Lotnej zmiany nogi można nauczyć konia na przekątnej , tuż przed dojechaniem do ściany.
przemoc (N) [violence] 5/1.28	N	[G]dy spróbujesz zatrzymać konia siłą, on w końcu zacznie naciskać na źródło przemocy .
przepuszczalność (N) [throughness] 69/17.60	N; przepuszczalność – 57 A: przepuszczalny – 12	L1: poprawa (5). Cofanie służy poprawie przepuszczalności , posłuszeństwa i zebrania. Pojęcie „ przepuszczalność ” oznacza gotowość konia do przyjmowania („przepuszczania”) wszystkich pomocy jeźdźca.
przestawienie (N) [moving to another place] 69/17.60	N: przestawianie/przestawienie – 3/6 V: przestawić – 9	Przestawienie zadu do wewnątrz nie sprawia koniom dużej trudności, a wręcz przeciwnie. Na wysokości punktu środka ujeżdżalni jeździec przestawia konia w potylicy oraz zmienia ułożenie tydek.

przesunięcie (N) [shifting] 92/23.47	N: przesunięcie/przesuwanie – 20/5 A: przesuwający/przesunięty – 8/10 V: przesuwac/przesuwać się – 40/9	L1: łydka (5), lekkie (4). R1: do przodu (10), zad (9). L5-R5: pomoc (5). <i>[Z]ewnętrzna wodza odpowiada za przesunięcie większości mięśni szyi na zewnątrz. Nie można pozwolić, by łydka ta przesuwała konia w bok, gdyż zacznie on krzyżować tylne nogi.</i>
PRZÓD (N) [forehand] 59/15.05	N	L1: na (14), podnieść (5). L5-R5: zad (9), ciężar (7). <i>Ustępowanie od łydki kończy wprowadzenie przodu na ślad zadu zewnętrzną wodzą. [K]oniem, którego ciężar opiera się na przodzie, trudno jest kierować i zatrzymać go.</i>
psychika konia (NP) [horse's psyche] 8/2.04	A: psychiczny – 6 ADV: psychicznie – 2	<i>Koń rozluźniony, zarówno fizycznie, jak i psychicznie, ma zadowolony wyraz pyska.</i>
pysk (N) [horse's mouth] 65/16.58	N	L1: do (5), w (4). L5-R5: ręka (17), wędzidło (7). Clusters: kontakt/kontakt * z pyskiem (12), łączność/łączność * z pyskiem (6), połączenie ręki/połączenie ręki * z pyskiem (5). <i>[D]o tego potrzebna jest łączność ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia, czyli stabilny kontakt. W tym miejscu pojawia się pytanie, jak koń może żuć wędzidło, skoro ma zamknięty pysk?</i>
renwers (N) [renvers] 12/3.06	N	L1: w (6). L5-R5: trawers (6). <i>Często pracuję z końmi w renwersie, natomiast trawersu nigdy nie wykonuję na długiej ścianie.</i>
ręka (N) [hand aid] 132/33.68	N	L1: jedna (8), do (6), obie (5), używać, wewnętrzna (4). Clusters: oparcie na rękę/ręku (7), łączność ręki (*) z pyskiem, opierać się na rękę, połączenie ręki (*) z pyskiem (4). <i>Bill Roycroft mógł przejechać parkur w Rzymie przy użyciu jednej ręki. Z powodu braku równowagi koń szuka mocnego oparcia na ręce jeźdźca i ciągnie pyskiem w dół. Klasyczna sztuka jeździecka rozumie pod pojęciem idealnego kontaktu stałe i miękkie połączenie ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia.</i>
RĘKA SPOKOJNA (NP) [quiet hand] 5/1.28	NP: spokojna ręka – 3 NP: spokojna pozycja ręki – 1 ręka + V + spokojna – 1	<i>Ręka zewnętrzna pozostaje spokojna. Dzięki temu poprawia się kontakt na prawej wodzy (zewnętrznej), a tym samym wyprostowanie konia.</i>
RĘKI, DZIAŁANIE (NP) [hand aid action] 12/3.06	NP: działanie ręki – 10 VP: działać ręką – 2	<i>Przy prawidłowym działaniu ręki koń może wydłużyć szyję i iść z nosem lekko wysuniętym przed linię pionu.</i>
ręki za mocne, działanie (NP) [too strong hand aid action] 6/1.53	NP: mocne działanie ręki/zbyt mocne działanie ręki/zbyt mocno działająca ręka – 1/2/1 VP: zbyt mocno działać ręką – 2	<i>Przyczyną tego jest sam jeździec, a konkretnie jego zbyt mocno działająca ręka, uniemożliwiająca wykonanie poprawnego wykroku.</i>

RĘKU, ĆWICZENIE W (NP) [an exercise in hand] 14/3.57	NP: ćwiczenie w ręku/* w ręku/* w ręce – 2/1/1 PP: w ręku/w ręce – 6/4	[G]dy koń nauczył się już piaffu i wykonuje to ćwiczenie bez problemów, zarówno w ręce , jak i pod jeźdźcem, można przejść do szkolenia w pilarach.
ręku, praca w (NP) [work in hand] 13/3.32	NP: praca/trening w ręku – 9/1 VP: pracować w ręku/ręce – 2/1	Do pracy w ręku oprócz ogłowia używam kawecanu, który umożliwia lepsze prowadzenie konia.
rozluźnienie (N) [relaxation] 144/36.74	N: rozluźnienie/rozluźnianie – 67/10 A: rozluźniający/rozluźniony/ rozluźniany – 17/36/1 ADV: rozluźniająco – 1 V: rozluźnić/rozluźnić się – 9/3	L5-R5: kontakt (8), rytm (7). Clusters: ćwiczenie rozluźniające (15), rozluźniony grzbiet (14), w rozluźnieniu (12), pełne rozluźnienie (6). Na początku koń powinien stać przy ścianie, spokojnie i w rozluźnieniu . Po około pół roku szkolenia można przejść do trudniejszych ćwiczeń rozluźniających . Codzienna jazda na młodym koniu ma na celu jego pełne rozluźnienie .
ROZPRĘŻONY (A) [warmed up] 21/5.36	N: rozprężanie/rozprężenie – 10/7 V: rozprężyć – 4	L1: faza (4), metoda (3). Faza rozprężania młodych koni trwa od 15 do 20 minut. Jeździec powinien sam określić, jaka jest najlepsza metoda rozprężenia danego konia.
rozwój konia (NP) [horse's development] 48/12.25	NP: rozwój konia – 2 N: rozwój/rozwijanie/rozwiniecie – 11/10/3 A: rozwijający/rozwinęty/rozwijający – 1/4/1 V: rozwijać/rozwinąć się – 9/7	R1: siła (7). Clusters: rozwój naturalnych predyspozycji konia (3). Poprzez ćwiczenia i gimnastykę, koń rozwija się fizycznie i osiąga siłę i wytrzymałość. Ciasna szyja utrudnia rozwój mięśni grzbietu i naturalne procesy ruchowe.
równowaga (N) [balance] 74/18.88	N: równowaga – 67 N: równoważenie/zrównoważenie – 1/1 A: zrównoważony – 3 V: równoważyć – 2	L1: [równowaga:] w (9), utrzymać, znaleźć (6), brak, naturalna, tracić (4). Koń ma naturalną równowagę , która może być zakłócona tylko przez jeźdźca. Im lepszy jeździec, im ma większe umiejętności, tym koń bardziej go akceptuje i łatwiej jest mu zachować równowagę .
RUCH (N) [movement] 227/57.92	N: ruch – 222 A: ruchowy – 5	The two meanings of the term are discussed separately as for <i>movement</i> (see Tables 24 and 25). Movement as an element of a dressage test (only 12 N): Czy jeździec jest w stanie pojechać wszystkie ruchy na długiej wodzy . . . tak długo jak to możliwe. Movement as locomotion (210 N + 5 A): L1: w (19), dynamiczny (7), regularny (6), przebieg (5), naturalny, płynny (4). Zadaniem jeźdźcy jest przy tym . . . skumulowanie siły pchającej i impulsu (dynamiki ruchu). Utraconą płynność ruchu będzie łatwiej odzyskać, gdy mocniej obciążymy wewnętrzną stronę. Obserwuj ruch łopatek, ponieważ łopatka nogi wiodącej . . . również przesuwa się dalej.
ruch do przodu (NP) [forward movement] 63/16.07	NP: ruch do przodu/* do przodu – 17/2 NP: ruch naprzód/* naprzód – 39/1 VP: poruszać się do przodu/* do przodu – 2/1 VP: ruszyć * do przodu – 1	L1: do (17). Clusters: tendencja do ruchu naprzód (5). Jest rzeczą niezwykle istotną, aby koń miał impuls, czyli tendencję do ruchu naprzód . Moim zdaniem największą przeszkodą przy zwrotach jest ruch do przodu .

ruch do przodu w bok (NP) [forward and sideways movement] 22/5.61	NP: ruch do przodu w bok – 3 PP: do przodu w bok/do przodu i w bok – 11/1 PP: w przód – w bok/w przód i w bok – 6/1	<i>Zewnętrzną łydkę trzymamy za poprzęgiem i aktywizujemy konia do kroku do przodu w bok. Wtedy wewnętrzna tylna noga musi wykonywać obszerniejsze wykroki w przód – w bok, co służy doskonaleniu elastyczności i przepuszczalności.</i>
ruch do przodu w dół (NP) [forward and down movement] 8/2.04	PP: do przodu w dół/naprzód i w dół/w przód – w dół – 3/1/4	<i>Jeżeli koń zuje z ręki, wydłużając szyję w przód – w dół (nie wyszarpując wodzy), a więc odpręża się, rozluźniając i uwypuklając grzbiet, jeździec może być zadowolony.</i>
RUCHU, KIERUNEK (NP) [direction of movement] 18/4.59	NP: kierunek ruchu/kierunek * ruchu – 17/1	L1: w (13). Clusters: ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu, zgięty i ustawiony w kierunku ruchu (3). <i>W tym ćwiczeniu koń przez cały czas jest ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu.</i>
ruchu naprzód, dążność do (NP) [forwardness] 5/1.28	NP: dążność/dążność * do ruchu naprzód – 4/1	<i>Kolejny błąd to zbyt mocne przytrzymywanie wodzy prowadzące do zatrzymania konia w miejscu. Skutkiem może być zdławienie jego dążności do ruchu naprzód.</i>
RUSZYĆ (V) [start off] 8/2.04	V: ruszyć – 4 N: ruszanie/ruszenie – 4/1	<i>[D]aj wierzchowcowi odpocząć i rusz galopem po kole w kierunku przeciwnym do wskazówek zegara.</i>
RYTM (N) [rhythm] 92/23.47	N: rytm – 78 A: rytmiczny – 7 ADV: rytmicznie – 7	L1: w (10), utrata (5), tracić (4). R1: rozluźnienie, w (4). L5-R5: rozluźnienie (11), impuls (9), galop, tempo (6). <i>Koń powinien galopować w rytmie trzytaktowym, obszernie i z impulsem. Jeśli koń zaczyna tracić rytm i impuls, musimy aktywniej zadziałać łydką.</i>
samoniesienie (N) [self-carriage] 25/6.38	N: samoniesienie/samo niesienie – 9/2 A: samoidący – 1 VP: sam się nieść – 13	<i>Poprawnie wykonana półparada wspiera samoniesienie konia. Koń, który jest w równowadze, to koń, który sam się niesie.</i>
SERPENTYNA (N) [serpentine] 18/4.59	N	L5-R5: zakręt (4). Clusters: wężyk i serpentyna (5). <i>Należy pamiętać o jeździe na łuku, czyli o woltach, wężykach i serpentynach oraz kole.</i>
siła (N) [force] 34/8.67	N: siła – 25 A: silny – 7 ADV: silnie/siłowo – 1/1	<i>Celem galopu wyciągniętego jest ruch przy użyciu całej siły konia. Zmuszając konia siłą do wykonania zadania, nie okazujemy mu należnego szacunku.</i>
siła nośna (NP) [lift force] 15/3.83	NP	L5-R5: siła pchająca (10), zad (5). <i>[P]ółparada ma na celu wzmocnienie równowagi konia i przekształcenie jego siły pchającej w siłę nośną i elastyczną pracę zadu.</i>
siła pchająca (NP) [push force] 18/4.59	NP	L5-R5: siła nośna (5), zad (4). <i>Zadnie nogi przekształcają siłę pchającą w siłę nośną oraz w sprężynowanie zadu.</i>

skok szkolny (NP) [air above the ground] 29/7.40	NP: skok szkolny – 3 N: skok – 26	L1: wykonać (7). <i>Podstawą skoków szkolnych wyższej szkoły są naturalne ruchy i zachowania konia w stadzie. Większość z nich dochodzi tylko do poziomu balotady, skoku bez wyrzucenia zadnich nóg do tyłu.</i>
skrócenie (N) [shortening] 37/9.44	N: skracanie/skrócenie/skrócenie się – 8/8/1 A: skrócony – 8 V: skrócić/skrócić się – 8/4	R1: tempo (7). <i>Ma to znaczenie w równym stopniu w ujeżdżeniu, jak i . . . np. przy skracaniu przed przeszkodami. W zebranym galopie musisz dążyć do większego zaangażowania, większej aktywności i skrócenia.</i>
skrzywienie (N) [asymmetry] 24/6.12	N: skrzywianie się/skrzywienie – 1/9 A: krzywy/skrzywiony – 3/8 V: krzywić się/skrzywiać się – 2/1	L5-R5: lewy (5), prawy (4). <i>Tylko niecałe 10% koni skrzywionych jest na lewo. Skrzywienie najłatwiej może rozpoznać jeździec siedzący w siodle, zwłaszcza w chodach dynamicznych, klusie i galopie.</i>
skrzywienie, naturalne (NP) [natural asymmetry] 19/4.85	NP: naturalne skrzywienie/naturalna krzywizna – 16/3	<i>W eliminowaniu naturalnego skrzywienia jazda po liniach prostych jest mniej skuteczna.</i>
spięcie (N) [tension] 9/2.30	N: spięcie – 7 A: spięty – 1 V: spinać się – 1	<i>Spięty koń, wykonując program ujeżdżeniowy, popełnia określone błędy, natomiast koń w pełni rozluźniony jest w stanie podczas niektórych ćwiczeń napinać określone grupy mięśni.</i>
<i>staw</i> (N) [joint] 48/12.25	N	L1: zginać (13), w (8). R1: zadnia noga (5), łokciowy (4). Clusters: staw biodrowy kolanowy i skokowy (12), staw biodrowy i kolanowy (6). Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>Lewada jest o wiele trudniejsza niż pezada, ze względu na mocne zgięcie stawów. Wszystkie stawy zadnich nóg, nie tylko skokowe, powinny poruszać się do przodu w górę.</i>
staw skokowy (NP) [hock] 19/4.85	NP	L1: w (5), zgięcie (4). Clusters: staw biodrowy, kolanowy i skokowy (12). <i>Swobodny ruch w klusie mają tylko konie, które przez regularną gimnastykę stawów biodrowych, kolanowych i skokowych są giętkie i gibkie.</i>
stęp (N) [walk] 149/38.02	N: stęp/stępowanie – 138/7 V: stępować – 4	L1: krok (7), galop (4). L5-R5: galop (34), kłus (31). Clusters: przejść/przejście do stępa (7), stęp kłus i galop, zagalopowanie ze stępa (5), krok w stępie, najpierw w stępie, przejście z galopu do stępa, przerwa w stępie (4). <i>Rozprężanie w stępie, klusie i galopie w celu wyeliminowania największego napięcia jest ważne. Każdy z chodów cechuje się określonym następstwem kroków: stęp jest chodem czterotaktowym. Przerwa w stępie jest dobrą okazją do sprawdzenia, czy koń się rozluźnił.</i>
stęp hiszpański (NP) [Spanish walk] 5/1.28	NP: stęp hiszpański/hiszpański stęp – 4/1	<i>Stęp hiszpański nie jest klasycznym elementem ujeżdżeniowym, nie wymaga się go więc podczas konkursów.</i>

STĘP NA DŁUGICH WODZACH (NP) [walk on a long rein] 4/1.02	NP: stęp na długich wodzach/na długiej wodzy – 1/3	<i>W przypadku koni z problemami w stępie, nieco zbyt mocno umięśnioną dolną częścią szyi lub problemami w potylicy – stęp na długich wodzach, z kontrolą potylicy.</i>
STĘP NA WODZACH ODDANYCH (NP) [walk on a loose rein] 9/2.30	NP: stęp na oddanych wodzach/stęp na oddanej wodzy/stęp * na oddanej wodzy – 3/1/2 NP: stępowanie/stępowanie * na oddanych wodzach – 1/1 VP: chodzić na oddanej wodzy stępem – 1	<i>Po „żuciu z ręki” robimy krótką przerwę w stępie na oddanych wodzach. Następnie nabieramy wodze i zakłusowujemy.</i>
stęp pośredni (NP) [medium walk] 12/3.06	NP: stęp pośredni/pośredni stęp – 11/1	<i>Koń stępuje obszernie, kiedy na przykład w stępie pośrednim i wyciągniętym nogi tylne wyraźnie przekraczają ślady nóg przednich.</i>
STĘP WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended walk] 6/1.53	NP	<i>W stępie wyciągniętym należy egzekwować od konia jak największe naturalne przekraczanie, ale bez utraty rytmu.</i>
stęp zebrany (NP) [collected walk] 13/3.32	NP: stęp zebrany/zebrany stęp/zebrany * stęp – 8/4/1	<i>Podczas pracy w stępie zebrany koń uczy się poprawnych reakcji na rękę i tydki jeźdźca, a także utrzymania równowagi.</i>
STÓJ (N) [halt] 19/4.85	N	L1: w (10), do, ze (3). Clusters: zebranie w stój (4). <i>Zebranie w stój znane było już wśród dawnych plemion zajmujących się jeździectwem.</i>
strach (N) [fear] 7/1.79	N: strach – 5 A: straszny – 2	<i>[W] ten sposób konie uczą się bez bólu i strachu słuchać pomocy i czekać na nie.</i>
STRONA LEWA (NP) [left side] 11/2.81	NP: lewa strona/strona lewa – 10/1	<i>[W]iększość koni ma wrodzone skrzywienie od prawej strony zadu ku lewej stronie przodu.</i>
STRONA PRAWA (NP) [right side] 9/2.30	NP: prawa strona – 7 N: prawa – 2	<i>Skierowanie głowy na prawo i nacisk prawej tydki sprawia, że jego prawa strona się skróci, a lewa wydłuży.</i>
STRONA WEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [the inside, e.g. bent to the inside] 15/3.83	NP: strona wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna strona – 1/14	<i>Za giętkość wewnętrznej strony odpowiada wewnętrzna tydka, która pilnuje stopnia zgięcia konia.</i>

STRONA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [the outside, e.g. <i>bent to the outside</i>] 6/1.53	NP: zewnętrzna strona – 6	<i>Koń, który posłusznie daje się ustawić do wewnątrz, automatycznie rozciąga mięśnie po zewnętrznej stronie i lepiej przyjmuje zewnętrzną wodzę.</i>
SZKOLENIE JEŹDZIECKIE (NP) [equestrian training] 131/33.42	N: szkolenie – 131	L1: w trakcie (12), etap (11), dalsze, faza, pierwszy rok (8), cel (7), postępy (5). R1: młody koń (5). <i>Szczególnie ważny dla jakości dalszego szkolenia jest kontakt z ustępującą potylicą. W pierwszym roku szkolenia ćwiczymy całe parady tylko ze stępa i z klusa. Zwrot na przodzie ma w szkoleniu młodego konia . . . większe znaczenie, niż zwykle się uważać.</i>
SZTUKA JEŹDZIECKA (NP) [the art of riding] 6/1.53	NP: sztuka jeździecka/sztuka jazdy – 4/2	<i>Klasyczna sztuka jeździecka rozumie pod pojęciem idealnego kontaktu stałe i miękkie połączenie ręki jeźdźcy z pyskiem konia.</i>
SZTYWNY (A) [stiff] 7/1.79	A	Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>Nie raz słyhać komentarze jeźdźców: „Koń jest dzisiaj wyjątkowo sztywny na prawo”.</i>
SZYBKOŚĆ (N) [speed] 21/5.36	N: szybkość – 4 A: szybki – 9 ADV: szybko – 8	Reference shifts: two instances describe the rider’s actions and one – the horse’s reactions, instead of the primary meaning of “fast” (relating only to the tempo). <i>Kiedy rytm staje się zbyt szybki, koń nie będzie mógł sobie z nim poradzić. Na najwcześniejszych etapach szkolenia skupiamy się na podstawowej kontroli nad szybkością.</i>
szyja (N) [neck] 128/32.66	N: szyja – 125 A: szyjny – 3	L1: ustawienie (22), wydłużyć (6), wygiąć (5). L5-R5: potylica (13), grzbiet (12), mięsień (11), zbyt (9), część, zad (8). Clusters: głowa i szyja, wysokie ustawienie szyi (11), szyja i głowa (6), dolna część szyi, niskie ustawienie szyi, wydłużać szyję w przód – w dół (4). <i>Zbyt niskie ustawienie szyi powoduje zbyt mocne naciągnięcie mięśni grzbietu. Najwyższym punktem szyi konia jest potylica, a linia nosa znajduje się w pionie. [M]ięśnie spodniej części szyi są ściągnięte, co nadaje górnej linii szyi prawidłowy kształt łuku.</i>
ściana (N) [arena side] 86/21.94	N	L1: długa (39), krótka (15), przy (8), do (7). R1: ujeżdżalnia (8). L5-R5: wężyk (8). Clusters: na długiej ścianie (25), na krótkiej ścianie (8). <i>Na długiej ścianie wykonuje się wężyk pojedynczy między dwoma punktami zmiany kierunku. Trudności te pogłębiają się na łukach oraz na krótkich ścianach ujeżdżalni.</i>
ŚLAD (N) [track] 76/19.39	N	L1: na (6), przekraczać (4). R1: noga przednia/przednia noga/przednia (14). L5-R5: kroczyć (7), kopyto (6), przekraczać (5), wkraczać (2). Clusters: na dwóch śladach (14), na jednym śladzie (8), na drugi ślad/na drugim śladzie (5). <i>Zadnie nogi nie mogą przekraczać śladów nóg przednich, najwyżej mogą w te ślady wkraczać. Ponieważ piruet jest zwrotem w ciągu na dwóch śladach, niezbędne jest odpowiednie zgięcie konia.</i>

ŚRODEK (N) [center of the horse's body] 5/1.28	N	<i>Jeśli koń, dzięki poprawnej pracy na lukach, wygnie się w partii żeber, jeździec będzie mógł usiąść dokładnie „na środku i w środku” konia.</i>
środek ciężkości (NP) [center of gravity] 42/10.72	NP: środek ciężkości/* ciężkości – 4/1	L1: pod (17). L5-R5: zadnia noga (9). Clusters: w kierunku linii środka ciężkości (6), podstawić zadnią nogę pod środek ciężkości (5), bliżej linii środka ciężkości, w kierunku środka ciężkości (3). <i>[K]oń z obniżonym grzbietem nie może podstawić zadnich nóg pod środek ciężkości.</i> <i>[U] konia . . . już zebranego, zadnie nogi znajdują się bliżej linii środku ciężkości.</i>
ŚWIEŻY (A) [fresh] 6/1.53	A: świeży – 2 ADV: świeżo – 1 N: świeżość – 3	<i>[Z]nany nam jest również świeży galop roboczy w półsiadzie, stosowany głównie w terenie, w którym koń jest ustawiony nieco niżej.</i>
takt (N) [beat] 44/11.23	N	L1: tracić (9). L5-R5: rozluźnienie (5). <i>Poprawny takt, rozluźnienie oraz kontakt dają podstawę do rozwinięcia impulsu.</i> <i>Czysty takt to dar natury, którym dysponuje większość młodych koni, a który łatwo można zniszczyć.</i>
taktu, zaburzenie (NP) [rhythm disturbance] 6/1.53	NP: zaburzenie taktu/w takcie – 5/1	<i>Zaburzenia taktu w kłusie widać dopiero przy wyjeżdżaniu narożników, wykonywaniu wolty, serpentyny lub pasażu.</i>
talent (N) [talent] 7/1.79	N	<i>Zależnie od możliwości i talentu konia można zwiększyć liczbę następujących po sobie skoków do trzech lub więcej.</i>
temperament (N) [temperament] 12/3.06	N	<i>W zależności od temperamentu konie wykonują pasaż w szybkim lub wolnym tempie.</i>
TEMPO (N) [pace] 56/14.29	N	L1: skracać (7), kontrolować (4). L5-R5: kłus (10), rytm (6), stęp (4). <i>Trenując konie, staram się u nich rozwinąć tempo, rytm i kadencję.</i> <i>Kłus wyciągnięty to najwyższe tempo w kłusie. Cechuje się największym impulsem.</i>
TEMPO, ZMIENIĆ (VP) [change pace] 4/1.02	NP: zmiana tempa – 4	<i>Jeśli koń zacznie spieszyć podczas galopu, galopuj dalej bez zmiany tempa. Nigdy nie karz go gwałtownym zatrzymaniem, czy lotnymi zmianami.</i>
trawers (N) [traverse] 27/6.89	N	L5-R5: renwers (6), łopatka (4). Clusters: trawers w galopie (4). <i>Trawers w galopie to ćwiczenie budzące kontrowersje wśród wielu jeźdźców.</i> <i>Błędy mogące wystąpić w ciągu są takie same jak w trawersie i renwersie.</i>
TRENER (N) [trainer] 14/3.57	N	<i>Dobry trener może przez miesiąc, a nawet sześć tygodni nie robić nic innego, tylko kłusować, ucząc konia zatrzymań.</i>

trójtakt (N) [three-beat rhythm] 15/3.83	N: trójtakt/trzytaktowość – 6/1 A: trzytaktowy/trzy taktowy – 5/2 NP: 3 takty – 1	L5-R5: galop (8). <i>Jeśli dojdzie do utraty trójtaktu, jeździec musi koniecznie dążyć do jego ponownego odtworzenia</i>
tułów pochylony (NP) [trunk leaned forward] 10/2.55	NP: pochylenie tułowia – 3 N: pochylenie – 2 VP: pochylić tułów/kręgosłup – 3/1 V: pochylić się – 1	R1: do przodu (5). Pochylenie tułowia do przodu . . . prowadzi do mocniejszego obciążenia przednich nóg i tym samym cofanie w zebraniu z obniżonym zadem staje się niemożliwe.
tułów odchylony (NP) [trunk leaned backwards] 6/1.53	NP: odchylenie się/odchylenie tułowia – 2/1 VP: odchylić się/odchylić tułów – 2/1	<i>Delikatne odchylenie tułowia aktywizuje konia do ruchu naprzód, pochylenie natomiast działa hamująco.</i>
UCIEC (V) [run off] 25/6.38	V: uciec – 16 N: uciekanie/ucieczka – 1/8	Reference shifts: 18 instances denote a different meaning (the horse's defence against the aids). <i>Są też konie, które na tydki reagują nadwrażliwie, czyli uciekają przed nimi. Jeśli koń ucieka do przodu, oznacza to, że boi się bata – zazwyczaj wystarczy uspokoić go w stój.</i>
UCZEŃ (N) [pupil] 5/1.28	N	Reference shifts: two instances concern the horse, not the human. <i>[P]racowałam z jednym z moich uczniów nad przejściem galop – step.</i>
udo (N) [thigh] 8/2.04	N	L5-R5: mięsień (4). <i>Nogę od uda do kolana należy ciągnąć w dół, a tydki luźno przyłożyć do boków konia.</i>
uspokajanie (N) [calming] 12/3.06	N: uspokajanie/uspokojenie – 1/1 V: uspokoić/uspokoić się – 6/2 ADV: uspokajająco – 2	<i>Chcąc uspokoić konie spieszące, a znajdujące już w wystarczającym stopniu działanie wodzy, wybieramy jazdę na kole.</i>
ustawienie (N) [position] 78/19.90	N	L1: zmienić (6), niskie (5), prawidłowe (4). R1: szyja (9). Clusters: jazda w ustawieniu (6), ustawienie i zgięcie, ustawienie łopatką do przodu (4). Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse. <i>[S]krzywienie trzeba korygować przez jazdę w ustawieniu lub galop na łuku. Jeździec zmieniając ustawienie i zgięcie konia musi zamknąć go pomiędzy ręką a dosiadem.</i>
USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP) [position the horse] 49/12.50	VP: ustawić konia – 17 VP: ustawić/ustawić się – 4/1 N: ustawianie – 3 A: ustawiony – 24	L5-R5: w kierunku ruchu (9), zgięty (7). <i>Przez cały czas wykonywania ciągu . . . koń jest ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu. Wewnętrzna strona konia to ta, na którą go ustawiamy.</i>
ustawienie głowy (NP) [head position] 28/7.14	NP: ustawienie głowy/* głowy – 17/1 NP: głowa ustawiona – 1 VP: ustawić głowę – 8 głowa ustawia się – 1	L5-R5: szyja (7). Głowę w potylicy ustawiamy w tę stronę, z której działają będzie tydka przesuwająca konia w bok. Wewnętrzna wódza kontroluje ustawienie głowy do wewnątrz i czuwa nad zachowaniem giętkości.
ustawienie wysokie (NP) [high neck position] 19/4.85	NP: wysokie ustawienie – 18 AP: wysoko ustawiony – 1	R1: szyja (11). <i>Przy wysokim ustawieniu szyi nos konia powinien znajdować się tuż nad poziomą linią wytyczoną w wyobraźni od jego czubka do kości bioder.</i>

uszywnienie (N) [stiffness] 21/5.36	N: uszywnienie/uszywnianie – 6/1 A: uszywniony/uszywniający – 2/1 V: uszywniać/uszywniać się – 7/4	L5-R5: grzbiet (7), potyllica, szyja (4). <i>Podkurczony lub krzywo noszony ogon świadczy o uszywnieniu.</i> <i>[K]oń nie może uszywniać ani szyi ani grzbietu, ponieważ to będzie blokowało ruch naprzód.</i>
uwaga (N) [attention] 60/15.31	N: uwaga – 54 A: uważny – 1 ADV: uważnie – 1 V: uważać – 4	L1: zwracać (16). R1: na (17), aby/by/żeby (14). Clusters: zwracać szczególną uwagę (12). Reference shifts: as many as 52 instances concern the rider's attention, not the horse's. <i>Jeździec musi zwrócić szczególną uwagę na prawidłową pozycję w siodle.</i> <i>W tym celu jeździec musi odpowiednio wcześniej zwrócić jego uwagę na wewnętrzną wodzę.</i>
węzyk (N) [serpentine] 29/7.40	NF	L5-R5: na długiej ścianie (7), koło (6). Clusters: pojedynczy węzyk/węzyk pojedynczy (5), węzyk i serpentyna (5), podwójny węzyk/węzyk podwójny (4). <i>Na długiej ścianie wykonuje się węzyk pojedynczy między dwoma punktami zmiany kierunku.</i> <i>Należy pamiętać o jeździe na łuku, czyli o woltach, wężykach i serpentynach oraz kole.</i>
wodza (N) [rein] 129/32.91	N	L1: działanie, na (19), obie (10), prawy (7), lewy (4). L5-R5: łydka (16). Clusters: ciężar łydka i wodza (5), sygnał dany wodzą (4). <i>Z działaniem wodzy należy łączyć napinanie krzyża (pomoc ciężaru ciała) i nacisk tydek.</i> <i>Nie można próbować podnosić przodu konia na wodzach – to przyniesie tylko odwrotny efekt.</i> <i>Szczególnie ważne jest, by koń znajdował się na stałym kontakcie na obu wodzach.</i>
wodza długa (NP) [long rein] 15/3.83	NP: długa wodza – 15	L1: na (12). <i>Opisana tu kulawizna znika, gdy tylko koń idzie na długiej wodzy lub gdy porusza się bez jeźdźca.</i>
WODZA PROWADZĄCA (NP) [leading rein] 5/1.28	NP: wodza prowadząca – 4 wodza jest prowadząca – 1	<i>Wodza prowadząca powinna być przypięta do środkowego kółka kawecanu, w żadnym wypadku do pierścieni wędziłowych, gdyż spowodowałaby skrzywienie głowy konia w potylicy.</i>
WODZA WEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [inside rein] 30/7.65	NP: wodza wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna wodza – 6/23 A: wewnętrzna – 1	<i>Koń musi „odkleić się” od wewnętrznej wodzy i „otworzyć” na jeźdźca po wewnętrznej stronie.</i> <i>Należy pamiętać o natychmiastowym odpuszczeniu wodzy wewnętrznej, aby koń się na niej nie oparł.</i>
WODZA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [outside rein] 43/11.00	NP: wodza zewnętrzna/zewnętrzna wodza – 7/35 A: zewnętrzna – 1	L5-R5: wewnętrzna (18), łydka (16). <i>Zewnętrzna wodza w połączeniu z wewnętrzną łydką wylapuje każdy skok galopu dyktowany zewnętrzną łydką.</i> <i>Zewnętrzna wodza jak zwykle ogranicza stopień zgięcia, które najlepiej poprawić, pracując na łuku.</i>
WODZE, ODDAĆ (VP) [give the reins] 22/5.61	VP: oddać wodze/* wodze – 7/5 NP: oddanie/oddawanie wodzy – 2/8	<i>Niektórzy jeźdźcy oddają w dodaniach wodze, co powoduje tylko, że koń przewala się na przód.</i> <i>Wielokrotne oddawanie wodzy skutecznie uspokaja konie niespokojne.</i>

WODZE, SCHOWANY ZA (AP) [behind the bit] 7/1.79	VP: chować się przed wodzą/za wędzidłem/za wędzidło – 1/1/2 NP: chowanie się za pionem/wędzidłem – 1/1 A: schowany – 1	<i>U koni, które wyraźnie chowają się za wędzidłem, sygnał dany wodzą przez jeźdźca nie może przejść przez cały kręgosłup konia i opuszcza go już w kłębie.</i>
WODZE, SKRÓCIĆ (VP) [shorten the reins] 4/1.02	VP: skrócić * wodzę – 2 NP: skrócenie wodzy/skrócona * wodza – 1/1	<i>W piruecie nie można ani trzymać, ani ciągnąć, ani skracać ciągle wodzy.</i>
wodzy, trzymanie (NP) [holding of reins] 5/1.28	NP: trzymanie wodzy – 1 VP: trzymać wodzę – 2 AP: trzymający wodzę/trzymana wodza – 1/1	<i>Równocześnie pomocnik trzymający wodzę przymocowaną do kawecanu prowokuje konia do uniesienia barków, a następnie podniesienia przednich nóg i ich zgięcia w nadgarstkach.</i>
WODZY, UŻYCIE (NP) [use of reins] 6/1.53	NP: użycie wodzy – 1 VP: używać wodzy/używać * wodzy – 2/3	<i>[W]iele osób traci klus, gdy zaczynają używać więcej wodzy niż dosiada.</i>
wolta (N) [volte] 41/10.46	N	L1: wykonać (8). R1: o średnicy 6 m/10 m (5). <i>Wolty o średnicy 10 m wykonujemy najlepiej w narożnikach czworoboku. Już przy rozpoczęciu wolty jeździec musi zwrócić uwagę, by prowadzić konia po odpowiednim łuku.</i>
wolta na kwadracie (NP) [volte in a square] 6/1.53	NP: volta na kwadracie/wolta * na planie kwadratu – 5/1	<i>Wolta na kwadracie w ostatnich latach zupełnie znikła z ujeżdżalni i jest prawie nieznanym ćwiczeniem. Szkoda, bo przynosi wiele korzyści w szkoleniu konia.</i>
wolta w galopie (NP) [volte in canter] 4/1.02	NP	<i>Niektóre lekcje ujeżdżeniowe (np. dodania w klusie i galopie lub wolty w galopie) mogą być wykonane tylko w zebraniu lub z zebrania.</i>
wpływ na konia (NP) [influencing the horse] 9/2.30	NP: wpływ na konia/* konia – 1/2 N: wpływ – 4 V: wpływać – 2	<i>Wszystko, co robisz, wywiera dobry lub zły wpływ na twojego konia.</i>
WYCZUCIE JEŹDŹCA (NP) [rider's sense] 29/7.40	NP: wyczucie jeźdźca/jeździeckie – 1/2 N: wyczucie – 17 A: wyczuwalny – 1 V: wyczuć – 8	L1: z (7). R1: takt (4). <i>Jadąc wzdłuż ściany, nie jest jeszcze tak trudno wyczuć takt. O tym, z jaką dynamiką jechać do przodu, musi decydować wyczucie jeźdźca.</i>
wyginastykowanie (N) [suppleness] 8/2.04	N: wyginastykowanie – 7 A; wyginastykowany – 1	<i>W celu równomiernego wyginastykowania obu nóg ćwiczenie należy wykonywać na dwie strony.</i>
wyszkolenia, skala (NP) [training scale] 26/6.63	NP: skala wyszkolenia/szkolenia/treningowa/ ujeżdżeniowa – 19/1/1/2 N: skala – 3	L5-R5: element, punkt (6). <i>Skala wyszkolenia ma wskazywać prawidłową drogę rozwoju naturalnych predyspozycji konia. Pracując nad poprawą danego punktu skali wyszkolenia, jeździec automatycznie poprawia też inne.</i>

wyszkolenie podstawowe (NP) [basic training] 23/5.87	NP: szkolenie podstawowe/ podstawowe szkolenie – 20/3	L5-R5: młody koń, plan (5). <i>W szkoleniu podstawowym koń powinien poznać działanie pomocy, nauczyć się pracować w rozluźnieniu, w takcie i na kontakcie oraz w wyprostowaniu.</i>
wyższa szkoła (NP) [high school] 9/2.30	NP	L1: na poziomie (4). <i>Najbardziej charakterystyczne elementy wyższej szkoły to piaff, pasaż, piruety – czyli tzw. szkoła na ziemi.</i>
zad (N) [haunches] 143/36.49	N	L1: obniżenie (18), podstawić (15), praca (11), przesuwac (8), wpadać (6). <i>[N]a początek koń z mocno obniżonym zadem wykonuje piaff w miejscu. Jeździec działa wyraźniej wodzami, jednocześnie wymagając mocniejszego podstawienia zadu. Łydki przez cały czas kontrolują pracę zadu i ograniczają jego wypadanie.</i>
zadem do wewnątrz (NP) [haunches-in] 7/1.79	NP: zad/zad */zadem do wewnątrz – 2/1/3	<i>[W] trawersie w galopie konie celowo wpadają zadem do wewnątrz, ponieważ uciekają przed mocniejszym przejściem ciężaru przez zadnie nogi.</i>
zadem, sprężynowanie (NP) [springy haunches] 6/1.53	NP: sprężynowanie zadem/zadu – 1/1 NP: sprężynujący zad – 1 N: sprężynowanie – 2 VP: sprężynować zadem – 1	<i>Sprężynowanie powstaje na skutek połączenia dwóch sił idących z zadu konia, siły pchającej i siły nośnej.</i>
zadem, wypadanie (NP) [hindquarters falling out] 13/3.32	NP: wypadanie zadem – 7 VP: wypadać zadem – 5	L1: zapobiegać (4). <i>Jeśli koń ma tendencję do wypadania zadem, warto czasami przestawić jego przednie nogi lekko na zewnątrz, używając do tego zewnętrznej wodzy.</i>
zadu, obciążenie (NP) [shifting the weight to hindquarters] 12/3.06	NP: obciążenie zadu – 5 AP: obciążony zad – 2 VP: obciążyć zad – 4 zad przyjmuje obciążenie – 1	L1: mocne (5). <i>Przed wykonaniem klasycznego cofania koń powinien przez chwilę stać spokojnie w zebraniu, co sygnalizuje jego gotowość do obciążenia zadu.</i>
ZAD, ZAANGAŻOWAĆ (VP) [engage the hindquarters] 8/2.04	VP: zaangażować zad – 4 NP: zaangażowanie zadu – 4	<i>Jeśli koń nie potrafi się sam nieść i zaangażować zadu, to jak możemy wymagać od niego prawidłowego piafu?</i>
zagalopowanie (N) [canter depart] 35/8.93	N: zagalopowanie – 24 V: zagalopować – 11	L1: ponowne (4). Clusters: zagalopowanie ze stępa (5), zagalopowanie z * nogi (4). <i>Przepuszczalność konia warunkuje wykonanie takich ćwiczeń, jak np. zagalopowanie ze stępa. Kiedy koń zagalopował z prawidłowej nogi i utrzymuje krok, należy skrócić prowadzącą stronę.</i>
ZATRZYMAĆ (V) [halt] 43/10.97	V: zatrzymać/zatrzymać się – 16/27	<i>Jeśli koń nie zareaguje, jeździec zatrzymuje go tam, gdzie zawsze. [J]ak nauczyć konia zatrzymywać się z podstawieniem bez używania łydki?</i>
zatrzymanie (N) [halt] 56/14.29	N: zatrzymanie/zatrzymanie się – 46/2 N: zatrzymywanie/zatrzymywanie się – 7/1	L1: nauka (6). L5-R5: parada (6), wodza (4). <i>Do zatrzymania stosujemy paradę, która jest nieco mocniejsza. Zaczę od charakterystyki podłoża, które moim zdaniem najlepiej się nadaje do nauki zatrzymań.</i>

zaufanie (N) [trust 18/4.59	N: zaufanie – 13 V: ufać – 6	<i>[K]oń i jeździec muszą mieć do siebie zaufanie, niezależnie od tego, w jakiej dyscyplinie będą startować.</i>
ZEBRAĆ KONIA (VP) [collect the horse] 24/6.12	VP: zebrać konia/zebrać się – 7/1 A: zbierający – 12 N: zbieranie – 4	Clusters: ćwiczenie zbierające (6). <i>Początkowo nie powinno się zbierać konia zbyt mocno, ponieważ może dojść do utraty impulsu. [Z]wrot na zadzie należy do ćwiczeń zbierających i jest dużym wyzwaniem.</i>
zebrania, stopień (NP) [degree of collection] 8/2.04	NP	<i>Jeśli koń osiągnął wyższy stopień zebrania, niezbędny dla tego etapu szkolenia, można rozpocząć ćwiczenia wymagające mocnego zebrania.</i>
zebranie (N) [collection] 111/28.32	N: zebranie – 97 A: zebrany – 14	L1: w (7). L5-R5: kłus (7), stęp (6). Clusters: mocne zebranie (5), zebranie w stój (4). <i>Zaletą tego ćwiczenia jest przeniesienie zebrania w kłusie do galopu. Gdy mówimy o zebraniu, zawsze pojawia się termin „postawienie relatywne” (zob. str. 59). Zebranie musi być rozwijane poprzez chody i poprzez przejścia z jednego chodu do drugiego.</i>
zgięcie (N) [bend] 129/32.91	N: zgięcie/zginanie – 88/3 A: zgięty/zginający – 21/1 V: zginać/zginać się – 10/6	L1: mocne (19), odpowiednie (9), poprawne (6). R1: staw (12), zadnia noga (8), podłużne, w kierunku ruchu (4). Clusters: ustawienie i zgięcie (4), ustawiony i zgięty, zgięcie i ustawienie, zgięty i ustawiony (3). Reference shifts: 39 instances concern the bend of joints (two of these describe the rider), not of the whole body on an arc. <i>Mocne zgięcie nóg w stawach jest niezbędne, aby znów mógł się odbić od ziemi. Młode konie, chcąc uniknąć mocniejszego zgięcia, usiłują splaszcząć łuk – na przykład w narożniku. Koń w trawersie jest poprawnie ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu i idzie do przodu w bok.</i>
zgięcie boczne (NP) [lateral bend] 20/5.10	NP	<i>Jeśli jeździec osiągnął dobre zgięcie boczne konia . . . i nie ma problemów z jego utrzymaniem, a przy zmianie ustawienia koń jest giętki, można rozpocząć ćwiczenia na dwóch śladach. Zgięcie boczne konia w ciągu powinno pozostać cały czas bez zmian.</i>
ZGIĘCIE SZYI (NP) [neck bend] 6/1.53	NP: zgięcie szyi/w szyi – 3/2 VP: zginać szyję – 1	<i>Zgięcie szyi w galopie na dwóch śladach powinno być mniejsze niż w kłusie, a ruch ma przebiegać maksymalnie na trzech liniach.</i>
ZMIANA KIERUNKU (NP) [change of direction] 19/4.85	NP: zmiana kierunku – 16 VP: zmienić kierunek – 3	<i>Dobrym rozwiązaniem są częste zmiany kierunku, dzięki którym koń musi równo pracować obiema nogami.</i>
ZSIADAĆ (V) [dismount] 5/1.28	V: zsiadać – 4 N: zsiadanie – 1	<i>[D]aj koniowi szansę popisać się idealnymi zatrzymaniami, kończąc pracę pozytywnym akcentem – czyli zsiadając natychmiast po dobrowolnym zatrzymaniu.</i>
ZWOLNIĆ (V) [slow down] 7/1.79	V: zwolnić – 3 N: zwalnianie/zwolnienie – 2/2	<i>Jeśli więc koń zacznie zwalniać w galopie, należy wrócić do pracy w ustawieniu łopatką do przodu.</i>

ZWROT (N) [turn] 35/8.93	N	L1: wykonywać (10). R1: w (6). <i>Potem następują dwa kolejne kroki – i tak aż do pełnego wykonania zwrotu. Zaczynij zwrot, wyginając lekko dłoń w nadgarstku, by napiąć wewnętrzną wodzę.</i>
zwrot na przodzie (NP) [turn on the forehand] 15/3.83	NP	<i>Ważną lekcją, uczącą młodego konia posłuszeństwa na pomoce jednostronne – przesuujące w bok, w przód i ograniczające – jest zwrot na przodzie.</i>
zwrot na zadzie (NP) [turn on the haunches] 6/1.53	NP	<i>Podczas zwrotu na zadzie . . . koń obracając się na zadniej wewnętrznej nodze, powinien przednią nogą zarysować półokrąg.</i>
żucie z ręki (NP) [long and low on the bit] 13/3.32	NP: żucie z ręki – 11 N: żucie – 1 V: żuć z ręki – 1	<i>Jeżeli przy żuciu z ręki koń usiłuje gwałtownie wyciągnąć wodzę, oznacza to, że jeździec działając zbyt mocno ręką „ściągnął” go w szyi.</i>
ŻUĆ KIELZNO (VP) [chew on the bit] 6/1.53	VP: żuć/przeżuć wędzidło – 4/1 AP: żujący wędzidło – 1	<i>W tym miejscu pojawia się pytanie, jak koń może żuć wędzidło, skoro ma zamknięty pysk?</i>

6.6. Term frequency and its implications: absent, rare and frequent terms

Since one of the mottos displayed by the Wordsmith 5.0 software says “much can be inferred from what is absent”, let us begin the frequency analysis from absent terms (presented in Tables 14-17), which indeed reveal several interesting phenomena. First, approximately one third (34.76%) of all terms is absent from the ECS, which makes it the most saturated with terms of all four subcorpora. Many more terms are absent from the PTS (44.05%) and the EWS (47.93%), while the POS lacks as many as about a half of the terms (50.20%). These results are in line with the development and literature of the equestrian subject field described in section 5.1. Classical writing had been expected to use terms the most extensively owing to the long history of this riding style and numerous works published throughout several centuries; both factors have promoted formation, popularization and stabilization of specialized vocabulary. Western riding is much younger and rooted in a different history and culture, hence the sparser use of terms whose lists had been formed based on classical sources (see section 6.2). The highest absence rate for the POS and the second lowest rate for foreign texts translated into Polish can be justified by the situation of Polish equestrian writing mentioned in section 6.2. Despite the long tradition of horse riding in Poland, the development of original equestrian literature and lexicographic sources in our country is still unsatisfactory compared with Western Europe and Northern America (which is where the source texts of the PTS come from). This makes specialized equestrian vocabulary in those regions fixed better than in Poland. This is not to say that Polish equestrian professionals are less experienced or knowledgeable than their foreign counterparts: Polish specialized equestrian vocabulary does exist, as evidenced by high-quality translations forming the PTS for this dissertation and by spoken language heard i.a. in equestrian centers. However, this state seems insufficiently reflected in writing and lexicography so far.

Second, the absence rate of secondary source terms differs significantly for the English and Polish subcorpora. There are 92 (14.09%) secondary source terms in the whole English term set (see Table 8), 23 (10.13%) among the terms absent from the ECS and 40 (12.78%) among those absent from the EWS. The similar percentage of secondary source terms in the term set and in actual use seems to confirm the equal status/quality of those terms in relation to primary source terms. The situation is completely different for the Polish secondary source terms. There are 501 (65.49%) of them in the whole Polish term set (see Table 9), but as many as 311 (80.99%) among the terms absent from the POS and 319 (94.66%) among those absent from the PTS. The overwhelming prevalence of secondary source terms among the

absent ones confirms the predictions expressed in section 6.2 that the secondary source of Polish terms – Baranowski (1989) – is obsolete and does not reflect the contemporary equestrian vocabulary.

Third, when it comes to the formal analysis of absent terms, the latter are dominated by nouns and noun phrases in all four subcorpora, which is not surprising owing to the share of parts of speech in the term lists (see Tables 8 and 9). However, the English absent terms also include the majority of foreign terms (the Polish term set contains only one foreign term, which is absent from both Polish subcorpora):

- the ECS: 44, which equals 88.00% of all foreign terms (see Table 8) and 19.38% of all terms absent from this subcorpus;
- the EWS: 49, which equals 98.00% of all foreign terms and 15.65% of all terms absent from this subcorpus,

as well as names of the most difficult high school elements – airs above the ground (*ballotade, courbette, croupade, levade, pesade*), which are usually confined nowadays to specialized institutions such as the Spanish Riding School in Vienna and sufficiently skilled interested individuals. The absence of foreign and high school terms might have been anticipated for the EWS due to cultural differences, but it certainly is a bit surprising for the ECS, whose content was expected to be more closely tied to tradition (which is predominantly French – see section 6.3). Thus, it could be suspected that the contemporary classical horse training – and its language – has drawn apart from its historical background to a certain extent. However, the basic extralinguistic principles have remained unchanged as proved by the most frequent terms which point to the key concepts of this subject field (see Table 22 and below). The English absent group also features several complex terms involving biomechanics (*diagonal advanced placement – DAP, diagonal dissociation, dissociation, positive diagonal advance placement – PDAP, trajectory, triangulation, uneven lateral development*). As one may expect that the experienced trainers who wrote the subcorpus articles know those terms, it could be hypothesized that they deliberately avoid that vocabulary in order to make their advice more accessible to the reader, who is assumed to be less experienced with horses. Such terms seem more probable to appear in scientific articles concerning equine biomechanics and/or veterinary science. Polish absent terms are distinguished by their complex nature to a much greater extent: they are dominated by items consisting of two or more words (noun and verb phrases). As stated above, these come almost exclusively from the obsolete secondary source of terms – Baranowski (1989), so one might

suspect that they are not (or no longer) factual terminological units established in the equestrian language. This was anticipated before the research in section 6.2.

Let us now analyze terms which rarely appear in the corpus, that is, whose NFR falls below the established threshold of analysis (i.e. $< 1/15,000$ words). These are presented in Tables 18-21 and also allow for interesting implications. First, there are 33.69% of rare terms in the ECS and 29.25% in the EWS, but only 17.65% in the POS and 17.25% in the PTS. Classical writing is thus once again confirmed as the most saturated with terms, while Polish literature displays its terminological drawbacks again. The percentage of secondary source terms is as follows: as already mentioned, there are 92 (14.09%) secondary source terms in the whole English term set (see Table 8), 37 (16.82%) among the rare terms of the ECS and 25 (13.09%) among those of the EWS, as well as 501 (65.49%) secondary source terms in the whole Polish term set (see Table 9), 81 (60.00%) among the rare terms of the POS and 80 (60.61%) among those of the PTS. This time, the similar percentage of secondary source terms in the term set and in actual use pertains to both languages, but one should remember that it concerns terms below the threshold of analysis. For the Polish subcorpora, due to their smaller size in comparison to the English ones, the threshold ($1/15,000$ words) equals three and four instances respectively; such values are insufficient to leverage the huge percentage of absent secondary source terms for Polish and thus to make an attempt at defending the only Polish equestrian dictionary to date.

Considering the form, nouns and noun phrases dominate this term group in all four subcorpora as in the case of absent terms. However, these terms do appear in the corpus, so they display the phenomenon of form change (in Tables 18-21, such terms are typed in bold). There are 101 (45.91%) rare terms with changed form for the ECS, 106 (55.50%) for the EWS, 74 (54.81%) for the POS and 53 (40.15%) for the PTS. These results seem to comply with the previously mentioned implication that specialized vocabulary is better established in classical equestrian writing: both in English and in translations into Polish, its rate of formal changes is the lowest. However, the range from over 40% to nearly 56% is significant by itself, suggesting that these rare terms are not fixed well. One possible reason may be the fact that they are obsolete (as was stated above, many of them come from the outdated secondary source) and thus in actual use their form begins to change.

Finally, let us analyze the most frequent terms. An $NFR \geq 10.00$ was assumed in order to avoid dealing with insignificant figures and compare frequency in all four subcorpora. A common feature is the prevalence of primary source terms for both languages, which confirms the correctness of term source selection and order. Regarding English (Table 22), 35

terms exceed the abovementioned threshold for the ECS, which equals 5.36% of all English terms, while for the EWS – only 24 (3.68%). The frequency range is similar (it does not exceed 55.00 in either case), but for the ECS nearly a half of the terms have a frequency above 20.00, while for the EWS one third of the terms demonstrate this frequency. Thus, Western writing once again proves to be less saturated with (classical) horse training terms. From the formal point of view, nouns and noun phrases prevail, with other parts of speech reaching only three for both lists. Form changes are also common in these term groups, with only ten and six unchanged terms, respectively. Considering the designated concepts, 18 terms appear on both lists, the first term – *training* – being the same and displaying a very similar frequency. This confirms the assumption expressed in section 6.4 that schooling horses has a core, mutual part regardless of cultural differences (i.e. the riding style). These 18 terms can be grouped into three semantic fields: general notions (e.g. *balance*), movements (e.g. *circle*) and the rider's aids (e.g. *hand*). One can notice the similarity to the most frequent concepts in the English term set listed in Table 10: these belong to the same semantic fields and the first two of them – *rein* and *hand* – reappear among the most frequent English terms.

Regarding Polish (Table 23), 44 terms exceed the established threshold for the POS, which equals 5.75% of all Polish terms, while for the PTS – as many as 62 (8.10%). Thus, Polish corpora yield fewer terms in comparison to English (see the discussion of absent and rare terms above), but instead they have an established set of terms with higher NFRs. Polish horse training vocabulary could accordingly be suspected to be more limited, or less rich, at least in writing. The frequency range is similar again: on either list, one (and the same) term exceeds 100.00 and a bit less than a half of the terms have a frequency above 20.00. Concerning parts of speech, nouns and noun phrases dominate, with other parts of speech reaching two and four, respectively. Upon inspecting form changes, one finds 23 and 32 (i.e. about a half of) terms with formal variations, respectively. This could indicate that the Polish set of the most commonly used terms may be poorer, but at the same time better established (which fact can actually be caused by the smaller number of terms). Considering the designated concepts, 37 terms appear on both lists, the first two terms – *jeździec* and *ruch* – being the same and displaying a somewhat similar frequency. As the difference between the Polish subcorpora concerns translation and not the riding style, such a number of mutual terms might confirm the expected (see section 6.2) high quality of the translations (both of the term source and the texts in the PTS), whose authors seem to have applied factual term units used in the target language. These 37 terms can be grouped into four semantic fields: general notions (e.g. *impuls*), movements (e.g. *chód*), the rider's aids (e.g. *ciężar ciała*) and equine

body parts (e.g. *głowa*). The latter group distinguishes the most frequent Polish terms from the English ones, but the four semantic fields are compliant with the most frequent concepts in the Polish term set listed in Table 11. Thus, the preliminary linguistic image of horse riding outlined in section 6.3 based on those concepts seems to have been confirmed for both languages: its main elements – communication, dynamism and control – correspond to the rider's aids, movements and general notions, respectively.

To sum up, the analysis of term frequency conducted in this section seems to correspond with the preliminary assumptions (see sections 6.2-6.4) concerning the differences between English and Polish as well as those between the subcorpora for each language. In general, classical equestrian vocabulary seems to be best established in the English classical writing and its Polish translations. The English writing concerning Western riding has proved to have a lot in common with the classical tradition, but cultural differences on the one hand and the shorter tradition on the other have resulted in developing its own specific vocabulary, which remains beyond the scope of this work. Finally, the results obtained for the original Polish writing suggest that serious terminological and lexicographic work should be undertaken to the benefit of the Polish equestrian community. The abovementioned high-quality translations of European classical riding works can certainly be useful in this process.

6.7. Formal changes of the terms

The analysis in this section shall only concern terms exceeding the frequency threshold in the subcorpora, i.e. those described in detail in Tables 24-27, because formal changes of absent and rare terms have already been dealt with in the previous section. As in all other tables, terms which showed form changes are typed in bold. As already mentioned in the introduction to Tables 24-27 (section 6.5), derivation is considered form change, while inflection is not (it is only included in the NFR of a given term). Thus, for instance, *reins* – the plural of the term *rein* – is not considered form change, while *reined* (A) is listed as a separate form of that term in the subcorpus (see Table 25).

Let us begin with terms which appear in the ECS (Table 24). The list includes 206 terms (i.e. 31.55% of all terms), 33 (16.02%) of them being secondary source terms. The 206 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 126, NP – 39, A – 30, PP – seven, V – two, VP – one, ADV – one. In this group there are 136 (66.02%) terms which change form, 20 (14.71%) of them being secondary source terms. The 136 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 85, NP – 22, A – 21, PP – four, V – two, VP – one, ADV – one. The distribution of form

numbers is as follows: one form (but different than the original form) – one term, two forms – 41 terms, three – 43, four – 31, five – nine, six – seven, seven to ten – one. Accordingly, 115 (84.56%) terms fall in the moderate range of two to four forms. This can be attributed to the concept-oriented approach to searching terms in the present work (see item c) in section 6.5): if a given concept is represented in the original term set by one term (one part of speech), other parts of speech possibly expressing that concept were also searched for in the subcorpus. For instance, *bucking* (N) is the sole representative of the concept BUCK in the term set, but the subcorpus also yields *buck* (N), *bucked/bucking/bucky* (A) and *buck* (V), so the term is classified as having six forms. On the contrary, the concept of COLLECTING THE HORSE is represented by three terms in the original term set: *collected*, *collection* and *overcollected*; the latter term falls below the frequency threshold, so the first two ones are placed in Table 24 and form variants are distributed among them, thus lowering their individual form numbers to two and three, respectively. This approach increases the form variation rate in comparison to the results one could expect if one limited the search strictly to the term forms listed in the original term sets, but it allows for a more exhaustive presentation of concepts important for the equestrian subject field (see section 6.9). Excluding the variants found in the subcorpora would be a limitation artificially imposed on the specialized vocabulary in question and would prevent one from describing other phenomena such as vocabulary stability or additional terms not present in the term sets, but discovered in the subcorpora (see section 6.8).

The list of terms which appear in the EWS (Table 25) includes 149 terms (i.e. only 22.82% of all terms), 23 (15.44%) of them being secondary source terms. The 149 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 100, NP – 22, A – 18, V – three, VP – three, PP – two, ADV – one. In this group there are 111 (74.50%) terms which change form, 14 (12.61%) of them being secondary source terms. Thus, the percentage rates of English secondary source terms remains consistently similar to their total share in the whole English term set (14.09%), proving the relative stability of those terms for all the analyzed term types (i.e. absent, rare, the most frequent and threshold-exceeding terms) and the reliability of the secondary source of English terms. Moreover, one sees again that the EWS features fewer terms above the frequency threshold than does the ECS and that these terms change forms more often, which suggests their poorer stability in use. The 111 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 73, NP – 15, A – 15, V – three, VP – three, PP – one, ADV – one. The distribution of form numbers is as follows: one form (but different than the original form) – two terms, two forms – 28 terms, three – 35, four – 27, five – seven, six – four, seven – seven, ten – one.

Accordingly, 90 (81.08%) terms fall in the moderate range of two to four forms. These data, in turn, are similar to those obtained for the ECS.

Let us now compare the results for English with the Polish terms. The list of terms which appear in the POS (Table 26) includes 246 terms (i.e. 32.16% of all terms), 108 (43.90%) of them being secondary source terms. Thus, the share of terms exceeding the frequency threshold is comparable to the values for English, but the percentage rate of secondary source terms is approx. three times higher. However, it is much lower in comparison to their total share in the whole Polish term set (65.49%), again suggesting the sparser use of those terms, possibly due to their suspected inaccuracy. The 246 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 123, NP – 93, V – 12, VP – nine, A – six, PP – two, AP – one. The dominance of nouns and noun phrases is not surprising, but they are followed by verbs and verb phrases instead of adjectives and adjective phrases as for English; this is in line with formal features of the Polish term set mentioned in section 6.3. In this group there are 153 (62.20%) terms which change form, 76 (49.67%) of them being secondary source terms. The 153 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 46, NP – 78, V – 12, VP – nine, A – six, AP – one, PP – one. The distribution of form numbers is as follows: one form (but different than the original form) – 14 terms, two forms – 64 terms, three – 40, four – 15, five – five, six – ten, seven – three, nine – one, 12 – one. Accordingly, though the moderate range of two to four forms prevails (129 terms, 84.31%), significant values concern the one to four range, which is wider than for English. It seems, then, that the formal instability of Polish vocabulary is more significant.

Finally, the list of terms which appear in the PTS (Table 27) includes 296 terms (i.e. 38.69% of all terms), 101 (34.12%) of them being secondary source terms. Thus, the share of terms exceeding the frequency threshold is the highest for this subcorpus, whereas the percentage rate of secondary source terms is approx. two times higher than for English, but considerably lower than for the other Polish subcorpus and nearly two times lower in comparison to their total share in the whole Polish term set (65.49%), again suggesting the sparser use of those seemingly inaccurate terms in modern, high-quality translations. The 296 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 131, NP – 135, V – 13, VP – eight, A – five, PP – three, AP – one; this is similar to the data for the other Polish subcorpus, but noun phrases are more numerous this time, suggesting higher terminological complexity of the translations. In this group there are 183 (61.82%) terms which change form, only 68 (37.16%) of them being secondary source terms. The 183 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 49, NP – 108, V – 12, VP – eight, A – four, AP – one, PP – one. The distribution of form

numbers is as follows: one form (but different than the original form) – seven terms, two forms – 60 terms, three – 51, four – 28, five – 15, six – 12, seven – four, eight – two, nine – one, ten – one, 16 – one, 22 – one. Accordingly, though the moderate range of two to four forms prevails (139, 75.96%), but significant values concern the two to six range, which is wider than for English.

To conclude, the formal analysis conducted in this section seems to maintain the frequency-related findings (see section 6.6). First, the writing concerning Western riding is the least saturated with terms and the terms it uses are the least stable. Second, the insufficient quality of Baranowski (1989) seems to be confirmed by the lower share of Polish secondary source terms in comparison to their original share in the term sets; this is especially visible for the translations, once again suggesting their modern, up-to-date nature. Third, the majority of form-changing terms in all subcorpora fall in the scope of two to four forms per term, though Polish vocabulary seems to exhibit a slightly higher diversification beyond that scope.

6.8. Semantics of the terms: reference shifts, term gaps and additional terms

The analysis in this section focuses on the phenomena which allow for describing the relation between the specialized vocabulary and the concept system of the subject field in question. These phenomena were identified during the corpus research, which proves that this kind of investigation is beneficial for terminological studies.

Let us begin with terms which display reference shifts; in Tables 18-27, all such terms are typed in italics. A reference shift means herein that a given term in the relevant subcorpus has different/additional referents in comparison to the definition/explanation of that term in the term source. For example, *through* (A) is defined in its source – Diggle (2005) – as describing the quality of a horse's body, but in the EWS six out of 23 instances of that term concern the rider's body, which is considered an additional referent; for *swinging* (N), all instances concern other movements than those mentioned in term definition, so this term is regarded as having a different referent (see both terms in Table 25).

Among the rare terms (Tables 18-21) there are 11, ten, one and zero (i.e. 4.98%, 5.21%, 0.74% and 0.00%) terms with reference shifts, respectively, while among the most frequent terms (Tables 22-23), there are ten, four, eight and four (i.e. 28.57%, 17.39%, 18.18% and 6.45%) such terms. Although these numbers are too small and irregular to allow for general

implications, one sees that reference shifts are much more common among the most frequent terms, which suggests that those units represent important concepts with a wide range.

For the ECS (Table 24), 45 (21.84%) terms demonstrate reference shifts, nine (20.00%) of these being secondary source terms; 39 terms simultaneously exhibit formal changes. The 45 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 32, NP – one, A – ten, PP – one, ADV – one; thus, only two terms consist of more than one word. 43 terms have additional referents, which shows that meaning extension is much more common; only two terms (*bracing the back* and *elevation*) have different referents. The most common situation is that for a term which originally concerns only the horse to have the rider as an additional referent (28 terms) in the subcorpus, as shown for *through* above. In terms of semantic fields, the majority of nouns represents general notions in horse training (e.g. *contact*), including qualities of the horse's body in movement denoted by adjectives (e.g. *active*); only three terms denote specific movements/actions and no terms concern the rider's aids. This overlaps with the semantic fields identifiable among the most frequent terms (see section 6.6) only as regards the general notions, but is quite understandable for terms with meaning extensions: general notions represent the most basic concepts with the widest range, which are at the same time rather abstract and thus prone to reference shifts and form changes. Specific movements (i.e. exercises) and the rider's aids are also basic notions, but at the same time concrete and unchanging in horse training.

For the EWS (Table 25), 43 (28.86%) terms demonstrate reference shifts, 13 (30.23%) of these being secondary source terms; 38 terms simultaneously exhibit formal changes. The 43 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – 32, A – nine, ADV – one, VP – one (the only term consisting of more than one word). 40 terms show additional referents, while only three terms (*elevation*, *jogging*, *slack*) have different referents. Again, the most common additional referent is the rider (25 terms). In terms of semantic fields, the situation is similar to that for the ECS: the majority of nouns represents general notions in horse training (e.g. *elasticity*, *quality*, *straightness*), including qualities of the horse's body in movement denoted by adjectives (e.g. *loose*); seven terms denote specific movements/actions and no terms concern the rider's aids. What is more, as many as 32 terms (N – 23, A – eight, ADV – one) overlap with those for the ECS; this suggests that at least a part of the fundamental concepts in horse training, which the terms with reference shifts are believed to denote, is similar regardless of style and tradition, as already anticipated in section 6.4. In addition, as only five terms from the mutual group (*nervousness*, *resistance*, *stiff*, *tense*, *tension*) denote negative,

undesirable phenomena, the linguistic image conveyed is positive: it can be seen as a set of horse training objectives.

For the POS (Table 26), only 17 (6.94%) terms demonstrate reference shifts, ten (58.82%) of these being secondary source terms; six terms simultaneously exhibit formal changes. The 17 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – ten, NP – two, V – two, VP – one, A – two; thus, only three terms consist of more than one word. All terms have additional referents, the most common one being the rider (12 terms). The semantic fields are the same as for the most frequent Polish terms (see section 6.6): general notions (11), movements/actions (three), the rider's aids (one) and equine body parts (two).

For the PTS (Table 27), only 13 (4.39%) terms demonstrate reference shifts, seven (53.85%) of these being secondary source terms; seven terms simultaneously exhibit formal changes. The 13 terms represent the following parts of speech: N – eight, NP – one, V – two, A – two; thus, only one term consists of more than one word. All terms have additional referents, the most common one being the rider (ten terms). The semantic fields are the same as above: general notions (eight), movements/actions (two), the rider's aids (one) and equine body parts (two). More than a half of terms (i.e. 11) overlaps with those for the POS, but this number is too small to allow for general implications.

The overview of terms with reference shifts indicates two interesting phenomena. First, the English terms suggest that the fundamental concepts of a given subject field require a variety of linguistic means to be conveyed in a possible appropriate way, hence the reference shifts and simultaneous formal changes among those terms. Second, the significantly small share of Polish terms with reference shifts might indicate that Polish equestrian vocabulary constitutes a relatively limited set with fixed use and/or that the fundamental concepts are more clear-cut in comparison to the English concept system of the subject field in question.

Two other conceptual phenomena to be discussed in this section, i.e. term gaps and additional terms, are related: they both concern terms which seem to be missing in the specialized vocabulary analyzed herein in relation to the corresponding concept system. That is why term gaps are discussed here, in a section concerning corpus research, though they were initially identified upon investigating the original term sets (provided at the end of this work after References). Term gaps are presented in Tables 28-29, while additional terms – in Tables 30-31.

Table 28. Term gaps in the English term set.

Item no.	Term absent from the set	Corresponding term(s) present in the set
1	aid (N)	aid (NPs)
2	attentive	inattentive
3	balanced	unbalanced
4	convex side	hollow side
5	even lateral development	uneven lateral development
6	even steps	uneven steps
7	inside track	outside track
8	lengthened neck	shortened neck
9	longitudinal balance	lateral balance
10	long side	short side
11	outside hand	inside hand
12	outside leg	inside leg
13	right bend	wrong bend
14	right lead	wrong lead
15	stance phase	moment of suspension
16	steady contact	unsteady contact
17	steady halt	unsteady halt
18	steady head	unsteady head
19	subordinate	insubordinate
20/21/22	two-time/three-time/four-time change	one-time change, tempi change
23	vertical flexion	lateral flexion

Table 29. Term gaps in the Polish term set.

Item no.	Term absent from the set	Corresponding term(s) present in the set
1	ciąg w kłusie [half-pass in trot]	ciąg w galopie [half-pass in canter]
2	CZUŁY NA ŁYDKI [sensitive to the leg]	BARDZO CZUŁY NA ŁYDKI [very sensitive to the leg], NIECZUŁY NA ŁYDKI [insensitive to the leg]
3	dodanie w stepie [speeding up in walk]	dodanie [speeding up], dodanie w galopie [speeding up in canter], dodanie w kłusie [speeding up in trot]
4	grzbiet krótki [short back]	grzbiet długi [long back]
5	grzbiet rozluźniony [relaxed back]	grzbiet sztywny [stiff back]
6	GRZBIET UWYPUKLONY [rounded back]	GRZBIET WKŁĘŚLY [concave back]
7	nabranie wodzy [taking the slack out of the reins]	rzucenie wodzy [slackening the reins]
8	NOGA ZEWNĘTRZNA [outside leg]	NOGA WEWNĘTRZNA [inside leg]
9	PROWADZIĆ JEDNĄ RĘKĄ [ride with one hand]	PROWADZIĆ OBU RĘCZAMI [ride with both hands]
10/11	PRZEJŚĆ DO KŁUSA/STĘPA [to transition to trot/walk]	PRZEJŚĆ W GALOP [to transition to canter]
12	PYSK SPOKOJNY [quiet mouth]	PYSK NIESPOKOJNY [restless mouth]
13	ustawienie niskie [low neck position]	ustawienie wysokie [high neck position]
14	wdech [inhalation]	wydech [exhalation]
15	wodza krótka [short rein]	wodza długa [long rein]
16	WODZA NAPIĘTA [tightened rein]	WODZA LUŻNA [loose rein]
17/18	wolta w kłusie/stepie [volte in trot/walk]	wolta w galopie [volte in canter]
19/20	WYKROK [stride length], WYKROK W GALOPIE [stride length in canter]	WYKROK W KŁUSIE [stride length in trot], CAŁKOWITY WYKROK W STĘPIE [stride length in canter]
21	ZAGALOPOWAĆ Z PRAWEJ NOGI [pick up a right-lead canter]	ZAGALOPOWAĆ Z LEWEJ NOGI [pick up a left-lead canter]
22	ZAKŁUSOWANIE [breaking into the trot]	ZAGALOPOWANIE [canter depart]
23/24/25	zmiana nogi w galopie co dwa/trzy/cztery tempa [two/three/four-time change]	zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo [one-time change]

The English term gaps can be classified into four types, two of them prevailing:

- 1) absence of a term for the opposite concept (item no.: 2, 3, 5, 6, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18, 19). All these gaps concern the desired, positive qualities (e.g. *right bend*), while the present terms – the corresponding negative ones (e.g. *wrong bend*). This suggests that the positive image is default for the author of the term source – Diggle, 2005 (which is where all terms from Table 28 come from), while the negative phenomena to be avoided are marked, i.e. named specifically;
- 2) absence of a term for the complementary concept (item no.: 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 23). These pairs concern three distinctions: inside/outside (4, 7, 10, 11, 12), long/short (8, 9, 23) and stationary/moving (15).
- 3) absence of a term for the subordinate concept (item no.: 20, 21, 22). The superordinate in this line is *tempi change* (a dressage exercise – see Diggle, 2005), but only one of its four officially performed types is present in the term set, possibly owing to its greatest degree of difficulty. The same actually concerns the Polish gap set, where *zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo* [one-time change] is present.
- 4) absence of a term for the superordinate concept (item no.: 1). This is a bit surprising owing to the basic nature of this concept: the rider directs the ridden horse using aids. Moreover, this superordinate is present in the Polish term set (*pomoc*) along with its NPs. Perhaps the author of the term source (Diggle, 2005) assumed that extensive definitions of two main types of aids (*natural aids* and *artificial aids*) placed next to each other would suffice the reader. Thus, this term gap may be a result of the encyclopedic rather than linguistic nature of the term source.

In the Polish gaps the regularities are different. The dominant one is change of gait, visible in items no. 1, 3, 10/11, 17/18, 20 and 22 (e.g. trot vs. canter in item no. 1). One also notices the negative opposites in items no. 2, 4, 5, 6 and 12. In items no. 7, 15 and 16, the present terms concern loose reins, which would point to actively used (i.e. not loose) reins as the default state in dressage and horse training. Finally, items no. 8, 13 and 21 demonstrate the location/direction distinctions similar to those in point 2) for English. However, the regularity in the English gap set seems more noticeable, which could suggest that the concept system of the English specialized equestrian vocabulary is more orderly.

The additional terms for both languages were selected on the basis of collocates and clusters identified for individual terms during the corpus research (see Tables 24-27), as well as in connection with term gaps. Only items reaching the frequency threshold (1/15,000

words) are listed, with an exception for items corresponding with term gaps, which are provided even in the case of lower frequency. Thus, the English additional terms (Table 30) contain six items overlapping with the English term gaps (10, 13, 15, 16, 20 and 24), but only two of them (15 and 16) exceed the frequency threshold. Just three items (3, 7 and 15) appear in both English subcorpora and only two of these (7 and 15) exceed the frequency threshold twice. These four terms (3, 7, 15 and 16) can therefore be regarded as serious candidates to join the term sets; those appearing in only one subcorpus (i.e. the majority) would require additional research to verify if they indeed denote concepts specific for a given riding style.

Among the Polish additional terms (Table 31), only three items (16, 22 and 25) overlap with the Polish term gaps, but they all exceed the frequency threshold. Eight items (2, 3, 5, 7, 14, 15, 22 and 25) appear in both Polish subcorpora, five of which (2, 7, 15, 22 and 25) exceed the frequency threshold twice. Thus, the Polish set contains six terms (2, 7, 15, 16, 22 and 25) which could reasonably join the Polish term set. The remaining terms only appear in one subcorpus and their NFRs are not significant, so they would perhaps require additional research before claims are made.

Table 30. Additional terms in the English subcorpora.

Item no.	Additional term	NFR (the ECS/the EWS)	Related term(s) in the term set
1	activity drive	0.00/2.37	ACTIVITY
2	arena pattern	1.38/0.00	arena
3	bending aid	1.03/1.19	aid (NPs), bending
4	counter/counter-shoulder in	1.81/0.00	shoulder in, counter-canter
5	cross-training	1.29/0.00	training
6	degree of collection	1.12/0.00	collection
7	downward transition	2.15/1.19	transition
8	dressage movement	1.38/0.00	dressage, movement
9	forward motion	0.00/5.21	forward
10	inside track	0.86/0.00	outside track
11	lateral work	1.38/0.00	lateral
12	longe/lunge line	1.92/0.00	longeing/lungeing
13	longitudinal balance	0.60/0.00	lateral balance
14	longitudinal flexion	1.03/0.00	lateral flexion
15	outside hand	2.32/0.46	inside hand
16	outside leg	0.00/2.83	inside leg
17	seat bone	0.00/1.37	seat
18	single track	1.29/0.00	track, two-track
19	snaffle bit	0.00/1.37	bit, snaffle
20	stance phase	0.95/0.00	moment of suspension
21	step under	1.89/0.00	STEP
22	training tree	0.00/3.56	training, TRAINING SCALE
23	turning aid	0.00/1.28	aid (NPs), turn
24	vertical flexion	0.00/0.82	lateral flexion

Table 31. Additional terms in the Polish subcorpora.

Item no.	Additional term	NFR (the POS/the PTS)	Related term(s) in the term set
1	ćwiczenie rozluźniające [relaxing exercise]	0.00/3.83	rozluźnienie [relaxation]
2	długa ściana [long side]	1.10/9.95	ściana [arena side]
3	faza rozprężania [warm up phase]	0.37/1.02	ROZPRĘŻONY [warmed up]
4	klasyczne jeździectwo [classical horse riding]	1.10/0.00	JEŹDZIECTWO [horse riding]
5	krótka ściana [short side]	0.74/3.83	ściana [arena side]
6	krzyżowanie nóg [leg yielding]	2.57/0.00	NOGA [leg]
7	miękka ręka [light hand]	1.84/1.02	REKA [hand aid]
8	na jednym śladzie [on one track]	0.00/2.04	ŚLAD [track]
9	na drugim śladzie [on the second track]	0.00/1.28	ŚLAD [track]
10	naturalne jeździectwo, jeździectwo naturalne [natural horsemanship]	1.84/0.00	JEŹDZIECTWO [horse riding]
11	niezależny dosiad [independent seat]	1.47/0.00	dosiad [seat]
12	niskie ustawienie [low head position]	0.00/1.28	ustawienie wysokie [high head position]
13	odpuszczać w potylicy [to relax at the poll]	0.00/1.02	potylicy [poll]
14	podłużne zgięcie [longitudinal bend]	0.37/1.02	zgięcie boczne [lateral bend]
15	pomoc popędzająca [driving aid]	2.21/1.28	POMOC [aid]
16	rozluźniony grzbiet [relaxed back]	0.00/3.57	grzbiet [horse's back], GRZBIET SZTYWNY [stiff back]
17	równowaga horyzontalna [horizontal balance]	1.10/0.00	równowaga [balance]
18	równowaga pionowa [vertical balance]	1.84/0.00	równowaga [balance]
19	ustępować w potylicy [to relax at the poll]	0.00/1.28	potylicy [poll]
20	wężyk podwójny [two-loop serpentine]	0.00/1.02	wężyk [serpentine]
21	wężyk pojedynczy [one-loop serpentine]	0.00/1.28	wężyk [serpentine]
22	wodza napięta [tightened rein]	2.21/1.02	wodza [rein], WODZA LUŻNA [loose rein]
23	zamknąć rękę [close the hand]	1.84/0.00	REKA [hand aid]
24	zebranie w stój [collection at the halt]	0.00/1.02	STÓJ [halt], zebranie [collection]
25	zewnątrzna noga [outside leg]	2.94/9.19	NOGA [leg], NOGA WEWNĘTRZNA [inside leg]

6.9. Describing the concepts: characterization of the most frequent terms

As mentioned in section 6.7, this work also takes interest in concepts standing behind specialized vocabulary. Therefore, the present section discusses selected equestrian concepts based on the most frequent terms listed in Tables 22-23 together with their equivalents in the other language (if present). NFR > 40.00 (a total for both subcorpora of each language) was adopted as the bottom value because the terms in question tend to demonstrate interesting collocates from around this level up. The latter are believed to convey the linguistic image of the concept, hence their research and inclusion in Tables 24-27 as L1/R1 (significant collocates directly to the left/right) and L5-R5 (significant collocates from the 5th word on the

left to the 5th word on the right, according to the WordSmith standard assumption). Since the borderline of 40.00 yields 11 English and 21 Polish terms, the section discusses 11 English and 11 Polish terms plus four Polish terms from positions 12-21 because they have equivalents among the 11 English terms. The descriptions of particular concepts also include related terms present in the term set (e.g. *rein – opening rein, supporting rein* etc.) as well as, wherever relevant, term gaps (see Tables 28 and 29) and additional terms discovered in the subcorpora (see Tables 30 and 31). The resulting linguistic image of the concept is frequently supplemented with information from subject field literature in order to verify the expected correspondence between the linguistic and extralinguistic data.

The most frequent English term is ***training***, which has three related terms (NPs): *gymnastic training*, *pyramid of training* and *training scale*, as well as two additional terms: *cross-training* and *training tree*. Their NFRs are generally low, but they confirm the abstract nature of the main concept: two of them denote its types, while three visualize its internal hierarchy (USDF glossary of judging terms, 2011) by employing concepts associated with the upward direction to convey advance/progress: PYRAMID, SCALE and TREE. The internal order is also expressed by collocates such as *foundation*, *level*, *program* and *sequence*. The term *training* itself takes several other forms: nouns (mainly *trainer*), a verb (*train*) and adjectives (mainly *trained*). Thus, the abstract concept is made more concrete by the agent, action and result, respectively, as well as by collocates focusing on particular manners of implementation: *method*, *session*, *technique* and *training outside the box* [=outside the arena]. Actions can be assessed, hence the presence of *good*, *problem* and *well/well-* among the collocates. Finally, the most frequent collocate is *dressage*, not only in the ECS (which is not surprising), but also in the EWS. This seems to confirm the universal, training-related nature of dressage (assumed in section 6.2) and hence the correctness of scope and title of this dissertation. The only corresponding Polish term is *trener* [trainer], but its NFR and collocates are not as significant.

The second most frequent English term is ***rein***, the most frequent concept in the English term set (see Table 10). This seems to confirm that the human tendency to do most activities with hands transfers to horse riding (McFarland, 2013; Wojciech Ginko, personal communication). The term has as many as 32 related terms (26 NPs, three VPs and three PPs): eight denote types of rein as a tack piece (e.g. *auxiliary rein*), 12 – types of rein aids, i.e. signals given with the tack piece (e.g. *direct rein*) and further 12 – specific actions/exercises (e.g. *canter on a long rein*). The lack of term gaps or additional terms suggests that the concept is represented extensively enough. However, in both subcorpora only eight related

terms (insignificantly) exceed the frequency threshold adopted in this dissertation (1/15,000 words) and their forms are often unstable. Still, since they almost exclusively concern rein aids and actions, the actual rein use seems more important than tack types. This complies with the subject field definition of *rein*: “[the] piece of tack that effects communication between the rider’s hand and the horse’s [muzzle]” (Diggle, 2005: 190). The collocates of *rein* emphasize the identification of individual reins (*both, inside, one, outside, two*). One could expect terms denoting other aids as collocates, but this happens only for the ECS (*hand, rein and leg, seat*). In turn, the EWS seems to focus more on the correct intensity of use (the relevant collocates – *casual, feel, pressure, pull, slack* – demonstrate higher frequency there). This corresponds with the nature of Western riding, which developed during cattle breeding (see section 5.1) and required the horse to cooperate with the cowboy without constant guidance, i.e. oftentimes on loose reins. The Polish equivalent *wodza* also belongs to the most frequent terms and is the most frequent concept in the Polish term set (see Table 11). It has even more related terms (51 NPs, 12 VPs, three PPs, one AP and one N); again, 22 of these concern rein aids (e.g. *wodza bierna*) and 37 – specific actions/exercises (e.g. *chwycić wodze*). The two differences with regard to *rein* are eight terms describing the horse’s reactions to rein aids (e.g. *leżeć na wodzach*) and only one term denoting tack type (*czarna wodza*). Moreover, three term gaps, all concerning rein use, were detected, one of them (*wodza napięta*) compensated by the same additional term. Thus, the importance of rein use seems even more overwhelming, but the multitude of terms proves apparent upon inspecting which related terms exceed the frequency threshold. Only ten do so in the POS and 11 – in the PTS; nearly all of these (nine and ten, respectively) change forms and only two (*wodza wewnętrzna* and *wodza zewnętrzna* [inside rein, outside rein]) have more significant NFRs. Since most of the related terms come from Baranowski (1989), this might serve as another proof of the obsolete/inaccurate nature of this term source. Regarding *wodza*, its most important collocates are similar to those of *rein*: they identify individual reins (*lewa, obie/obydwie, prawa* [left, both, right]) as well as denote other aids (*ciężar, łydka, ręka* [seat aid, leg aid, hand aid]) and rein use (*ciągnięcie, działanie, napięcie* [pulling, rein effect, tightening]). Thus, the concept structure is similar for both languages.

Interestingly, the third most frequent English term is an adverb – *forward*. It becomes less surprising, however, when one learns that “[the] horse’s willingness to move forward with minimal encouragement . . . is an essential building block of correct training” (Diggle, 2005: 96) and that riding the horse forward and straight was the basic rule promoted by classical dressage masters (see e.g. Podhajsky, 2008 and the overview in Radtke, 2010: 10-

23). *Forward* has only one related term (*free forward movement*) and one additional term (*forward motion*); their NFRs are insignificant and the former also has a very unstable form. Still, as they both suggest, the most important accompanying concept of *forward* is movement (collocates: *go, move* and *motion*). Moving forward takes place in particular gaits (*canter, trot, walk*) and should be animated enough (*energy*), but with correct body position (*balance, straight*); the energy to move forward comes from the hindquarters (*hind, hind leg*) (this is another basic subject field principle: see e.g. Prine-Carr, 2011, Rosencrantz, n.d.). However, as stems from the above quote from Diggle (2005), forward movement must sometimes be encouraged by the rider (*ask, drive, push*), who controls and channels the horse's power (*aid, contact, cue, hand, stop, seat*). Thus, the linguistic image of FORWARD seems to be that of controlled energy, which complies with the image of horse riding yielded by the initial semantic characterization of terms in section 6.3: communication, dynamism and control. The five Polish terms containing the equivalent *do przodu/naprzód* [forward] all exhibit form changes and *ruch do przodu* [forward movement] is the only one with a significant NFR, thus confirming the importance of this training component.

The fourth most frequent English term is *circle*, which has no related or additional terms and its form changes only slightly. The fundamental nature of this exercise suggested by its NFR is indeed confirmed by subject field literature: “[a] 20 meter circle at Training Level is the first dressage movement that you’ll do to make your dressage horse more athletic” (Savoie, 2010). The higher NFR in the EWS may be justified by the fact that in Western riding, circles of two types – small and large – are basic and mandatory elements of competition patterns (Winters, n.d.), while classical riding, represented by the ECS, uses a different term – *volte* – to denote a small circle of an established diameter (Diggle, 2005). This extralinguistic difference is visible in the collocates: in the ECS, nearly all L1s are various circle diameters, while in the EWS the dominant L1s are *small* and *large*. The main gait in which the exercise is performed is also different (*trot* and *lope* [=canter], respectively). However, two semantic fields are important for both riding styles: directions (*inside, left, out, outside, right, turn*) and shape (*arc of the circle, bend, center, reverse arc circle, shape*). The Polish equivalent *kolo* appears among the most frequent Polish terms, but with a much lower NFR and its two related terms (*zmiana kierunku w kole* and *zmiana kół*) do not exceed the frequency threshold. Its collocates are much fewer, yet they also denote directions (*kierunek, strona* [direction, side]) and shape (*łuk, środek* [arc, center]). The main accompanying concept is that of general training with use of the circle (*jazda/praca na kole* [riding/work on the circle]).

The fifth most frequent English term is **balance** – another general notion after *training* and *forward*. It has four related terms (*balancé, lateral balance, out of balance, unbalanced*), albeit with insignificant NFRs, and one term gap (*longitudinal balance*), poorly compensated by an identical additional term. The term *balance* itself appears in the subcorpora as nouns, a verb and adjectives, which make this abstract concept more concrete as in the case of *training* above. The most important collocates are other general notions (*collection, energy, feel* (N), *forward, relaxation, rhythm, straightness, suppleness, timing*) and their clusters, which implies the importance and wide influence of balance in horse riding. The only different concept of significance is the rider's body (*seat, weight*) owing to its obvious influence on the horse's balance. The Polish equivalent **równowaga** also belongs to the most frequent terms. It has one related term (*zrównoważyć zad*), yet its NFR is 0.00, as well as two additional terms (*równowaga horyzontalna* and *równowaga pionowa*), but they are specific for the POS and their NFRs barely exceed the threshold. The term *równowaga* itself also changes forms, but not as significantly as its English counterpart. The collocates are different, too: they focus on possession of balance (*brak, tracić, utrata, utrzymać, zachować, znaleźć* [lack, lose, loss, keep, maintain, find]) and on its types (*horyzontalna, naturalna, pionowa, własna* [horizontal, natural, vertical, own]).

The sixth most frequent English term is **hand**, the second most frequent concept in the English term set (see Table 10) and a notion strongly associated with *rein*. It has 14 related terms: 12 NPs (types of hand aid, e.g. *acting hand* and hand aid actions/exercises, e.g. *change of hand*), one AP (*in-hand*) and one PP (*between leg and hand*). However, except *inside hand*, they are virtually absent from the subcorpora. The only additional term – *outside hand* – corresponds to an identical term gap. Regarding *hand*, its L1 collocates concern solely the identification of hands (*both, each, left, one, other, outside, right, two, your*), which is also vital for *rein* (see above). The L5-R5 collocates feature tack pieces transferring signals given by the hands (*bit, rein*) and other aids (*hands and legs, leg, legs and hands, seat*), as well as, in the ECS, two fundamental concepts related to the hand aid action: *contact* and *forward*. The absence of the latter two in the EWS and the lower NFR of *hand* therein might be caused by the secondary nature of the hand aid in relation to the seat and leg aids in Western riding (McFarland, 2013). The Polish equivalent **ręka** also belongs to the most frequent concepts and terms (see Tables 11 and 23). It has 18 related terms (13 NPs, three VPs, one AP and one PP), which fall into three semantic fields: hand aid action (e.g. *działanie ręki*), specific exercises (e.g. *ćwiczenie w ręku*) and the horse's reactions to rein aids (e.g. *lekkość w ręku*). This division is similar to the one for *wodza*, the Polish equivalent of *rein* (see above).

However, only six of those terms appear in the Polish subcorpora, all with changing forms and rather insignificant NFRs. The one term gap (*prowadzić jedną ręką*) and two additional terms (*miękką ręką, zamknąć rękę*) have low NFRs as well. The collocates of *ręka* are analogous to those of its English equivalent: they concern the identification of hands (*jedna, obie, wewnętrzna* [one, both, inside]), the relevant tack piece (*wodza* [rein]) and other aids (*tydka* [leg aid]), supplemented by two clusters with *pysk* [the horse's mouth]).

The seventh most frequent English term is **exercise** (in the meaning of a specific training task), which has no related terms. Its collocates focus on the identification of exercises (*first, new, next*, ordinal numbers) and exercise types (*bending, gymnastic, riding*); they also contain synonymous terms (*movement, practice, work*), but only one concrete exercise (*circle*). The Polish equivalent *ćwiczenie* does not appear as a separate term; it does have one additional, EWS-specific term (*ćwiczenie rozluźniające*) and five related NPs in the Polish term set, but only two of them (*ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem, ćwiczenie w pilarach*) appear in the subcorpora and their NFRs are insignificant.

The eighth most frequent English term is **walk**, the slowest of the horse's three basic gaits. It has only three related terms (*free walk, free walk on a long rein, Spanish walk*), none of which exceeds the frequency threshold. *Walk* changes the form, also appearing as a gerund and verb. The collocates denote first and foremost other gaits (*canter, lope, trot*, three clusters), whose presence necessitates changes in the movement (*back, forward, halt, start, stop, transition*); other significant collocates are dressage walk types (*collected, extended, medium*). Thus, beside *balance* and *hand* in particular, *walk* is another example of the fact that a given concept frequently collocates with related concepts. The Polish equivalent **step** also belongs to the most frequent terms and, in addition, to the most frequent concepts in the Polish term set (see Table 11). Owing to the latter, it has as many as 18 related terms (17 NPs and only one VP). Ten of them denote specific exercises (e.g. *piruet w stepie*), six – walk types (e.g. *step pośredni*) and two – the stride at walk (*całkowity wykrok w stepie, drobić w stepie*). Still, only six of these (insignificantly) exceed the frequency threshold and only two (*step wyciągnięty, step zebrany* [extended walk, collected walk]) do so for both Polish subcorpora. The three term gaps of *step* were not confirmed by factual additional terms. The main term itself exhibits analyzable collocates only in the PTS; these do not feature walk types, which are covered by the related terms, but they do include other gaits (*galop, kłus* [canter, trot]) and movement changes (*przejście z galopu do stępa, przejść do stępa, przerwa w stepie, zagalopowanie ze stępa* [canter-trot transition, transition to trot, a break at the walk, canter depart from walk]).

The ninth most frequent English term is *dressage*, whose high NFRs in both subcorpora confirm its close connection to the notion of training regardless of riding style. It has six related terms (one N, three NPs and two Vs), but none of them exceeds the frequency threshold, as well as one additional term (*dressage movement*) with a low and ECS-specific NFR. The collocates indicate the participants of practicing dressage (*horse, rider, trainer*), subordinate concepts constituting the discipline (*level, movement, principle, test*) and several descriptors of training types, including two proper names of schools (*classical, correct, Cowboy Dressage, Dressage Naturally, Grand Prix, natural*). Finally, a significant collocate is *training*, which confirms the close relation of the two concepts (see the discussion of *training* above). The Polish equivalent *ujeżdżenie* does not appear as a separate term; it has nine related terms (six NPs, two As and one N), but only four of them exceed the frequency threshold and only one (*koń ujeżdżeniowy* [dressage horse]) does so for both subcorpora.

The tenth most frequent English term is *trot*, the second of the three basic gaits. It has six related NPs (faulty trot types, e.g. *hovering trot*, and training trot types, e.g. *rising trot*). Only *rising trot* and *sitting trot* exceed the frequency threshold, but their NFRs are low though they denote the two possible methods of riding the trot. The term *trot* appears also as an adjective and a verb, the latter one having significant NFRs. The collocates include other gaits (*canter, jog, lope, trot, walk*, nine clusters), trot types (*extended, normal, rising, working*) and movement changes (*back, back to trot, forward, from trot to, halt, lengthening, transition, transition to trot*). However, the NFR and the number of collocates are much lower for the EWS, possibly because in Western riding, trot is denoted by one more term – *jog* (e.g. Beth-Halachmy, 2010). The Polish equivalent *klus* also appears among the most frequent terms and has 22 related terms (17 NPs, one V and four VPs). The majority of these are trot types (e.g. *klus anglezowany*), while the remaining ones denote actions/exercises (e.g. *dodanie w klusie*). However, only nine of them exceed the frequency threshold and only four do so in both subcorpora, albeit with rather low NFRs. The four term gaps of *klus* were not confirmed by factual additional terms. The collocates are similar to those for *trot*: they include other gaits (*galop, step* [canter, walk], two clusters), the superordinate (*chód* [gait]) and, among the L1s, prepositions indicating movement changes (*w, z* [in, from]).

The eleventh most frequent English term is an adjective – *outside*. It has two related NPs (*falling over the outside shoulder, outside track*), but they do not exceed the frequency threshold, as well as two term gaps (*outside hand, outside leg*) compensated by identical additional terms. The R1 collocates and clusters of *outside* concern solely the referents which it identifies (*aid, hand, hind* [=hind leg], *leg, outside front leg, outside hind leg, outside*

indirect rein, rein, shoulder), while the L5-R5s additionally include related direction indicators (*against, cross, forward, inside, line, toward(s)*) and indicators of the context in which the inside/outside opposition is frequently mentioned – bending the horse (*bend, girth, indirect rein, neck, slightly, the outside of the circle*). The Polish equivalent *zewnątrzny* is absent from the term set, but it has four related NPs, three of which exceed the frequency threshold. Still, only *łydka zewnętrzna* and *wodza zewnętrzna* [outside leg aid, outside rein] have more significant NFRs, thus proving the importance of correct identification and use of the rider's aids. There is also one term gap (*noga zewnętrzna* [outside leg]), compensated by the additional term *zewnątrzna noga* with a significant NFR.

Let us now discuss the most frequent Polish terms. The first one on the list is ***jeździec*** [rider], with the only NFRs well above 100.00 – by far the highest values among all the English and Polish terms discussed herein; it also represents the second most frequent concept in the Polish term set (see Table 11). It has 19 related terms (NPs), which denote rider types by profession (e.g. *jeździec cyrkowy*) and by skills (e.g. *jeździec dżentelmen*) as well as the rider's features (e.g. *klasa jeźdźca*) and two concepts where the rider serves as an identifier of type (*ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem, ścieżka dla jeźdźca*). However, only three of these (*ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem, jeździec początkujący, wyczucie jeźdźca*) exceed the frequency threshold and they all exhibit significant form changes. The collocates of *jeździec* include three semantic fields: the rider's body parts/features used as aids (*ciało, ciężar, dosiad, łydka, ręka, tułów* [body, weight, seat, leg, hand, body] and the superordinate *pomoc* [aid]), the rider's qualifications (*dobry, doświadczony, niedoświadczony, umiejętności* [good, experienced, inexperienced, skills]) and modal verbs (*móc, musieć, powinien* [can, must, should]), as well as *ruch, siodło* and *trener* [movement, saddle, trainer]. One also notices clusters indicating the importance of collaboration with the horse (*jeździec i koń, koń i jeździec* [rider and horse, horse and rider]). The linguistic image of the rider stemming from these findings is that of a person whose body constitutes a set of means to influence the horse, the use of which is characterized by varying levels of skills and guided by certain rules and obligations to ensure harmony with the animal. The English term set does not include any equivalents of *jeździec*.

The second most frequent Polish term is ***ruch*** [movement], which has six related terms, five of which are discussed with the English term *forward* above, proving the importance of unforced forward movement in horse riding. In the corpus research, *ruch* was analyzed in two meanings – ‘an element of a dressage test’ and ‘locomotion’ – as provided by the term sources. For both subcorpora, the latter meaning is overwhelming and its collocates denote the desired features (*dynamiczny, naturalny, płynny, regularny, swoboda* [dynamic, natural,

regular, fluent, freedom]). The English equivalent *movement* also appears among the most frequent terms; its meaning of locomotion prevails in the EWS, while that of a test element – in the ECS, which is not surprising given that classical riding itself had generated dressage movements which later became test elements. The collocates are significant only in the ECS and also depend on the meaning (locomotion is accompanied by *direction* and *natural*, while the test element by *exercise*). *Movement* has four related terms (*behind the movement*, *free forward movement*; *lateral movement* and *school movement*), as well as one additional term in the ESC (*dressage movement*). However, only *free forward movement* and *lateral movement* exceed the frequency threshold, the former one with a very wide form range. All in all, the meaning of *ruch* and *movement* as the horse's natural desire to go forward seems to be the primary concept for these terms, in line with the horse training principles cited while discussing *forward* (see above).

The third most frequent Polish term is *pomoc* [aid], which denotes means of communication with the horse (Diggle, 2005). It has eight related terms (seven NPs and one PP), which concern aid types (e.g. *pomoc aktywizująca*) and the horse's reaction to the aids (*na pomocach*, *wrażliwość na pomoce*). However, only three of them, as well as one additional term (*pomoc popędzająca*), exceed the frequency threshold and only one of them – *pomoc aktywizująca* [driving aid] – has a significant NFR, again stressing the importance of the horse's forward movement. The collocates of *pomoc* denote aid types (*ciężar*, *dosiad*, *tydka* [weight aid, seat aid, leg aid]), the act of using aids (*stosować*, *ustawiać*, *użyć* [apply, position, use]) and aid effects (*działanie*, *reagować na pomoce* [action, react to the aids]). Strangely, the English equivalent *aid* is absent from the English term set, thus being its most significant gap, but it has 15 related terms (14 NPs and one PP). They mainly denote aid types (e.g. *artificial aid*), as well as the horse's reaction to the aids (*kicking out to the aid*, *on the aids*) and aid application (*timing of aids*). One also has to mention two additional terms, also concerning aid types (*bending aid* and *turning aid*); beside them, only six NPs exceed the frequency threshold, the most frequent ones being *leg aid* and *rein aid* in the ECS and *timing of aids* in the EWS.

The fourth most frequent Polish term is *noga* [leg] – the horse's body part and the second most frequent concept in the Polish term set (see Table 11). Thus, it has as many as 32 related terms (29 NPs and three VPs), which can be grouped into three fields: identification of legs (e.g. *noga podporowa*), features of leg action (e.g. *gra nóg*) and specific exercises (e.g. *galop na trzech nogach*). *Noga* also has five term gaps, but only one – *noga zewnętrzna* [outside leg] – is compensated by the additional term *zewnętrzna noga*. Thus, the leg as an

identifier of exercises seems to dominate in the term set. Regarding the subcorpora, the POS features nine and the PTS – 14 of the above terms; five of them (*lotna zmiana nogi w galopie, noga przednia, noga tylna, podstawić tylne nogi, zmiana nogi*) are themselves the most frequent terms (see Table 23), which additionally exhibit more than one form in the subcorpora. These findings suggest that the concept of NOGA enjoys a wide range and huge importance in Polish equestrian writing. The collocates of *noga* and its five most common related terms focus on the identification of legs (*cztery, druga, jedna, lewa, obie, prawa, trzy, zadnia* [four, the other, one, left, both, right, three, hind]) as well as leg activity (*galopować, krzyżowanie, ślad* [canter (V), crossing, track]). The English equivalent *leg* is absent from the term set, but it has three related NPs (*inside leg, leading leg, change of leg*) as well as one term gap and a corresponding additional term: *outside leg*, which is thus mutual for both languages. Beside it, only *inside leg* exceeds the frequency threshold, but it also refers to the rider because *leg* is applied to both the human and the animal (hence the collocates of *inside leg* indicating the rider's leg aid: *bend, girth, my inside leg, rein, rib cage, your inside leg*), while Polish uses two separate terms: *łydka* and *noga*, respectively. Therefore, the concept of the horse's LEG appears much more elaborate and pervasive in Polish.

The fifth and sixth most frequent Polish terms – *ręka* and *wodza* – have already been discussed above with their English equivalents *hand* and *rein*. Their presence among ten most frequent terms in both languages confirms the importance of these concepts in horse riding as well as the abovementioned role of hands in human activity. The seventh most frequent Polish term is *zad* [haunches] – another horse body part, which has 15 related terms (12 NPs and three VPs). Since the haunches do not require identification, these terms belong to the two remaining semantic fields mentioned for *noga* above: features of action (e.g. *akcja pchająca zadu*) and specific exercises (e.g. *półzwrot zadem w tył*). Three and seven related terms exceed the frequency threshold in the POS and PTS, respectively, but their NFRs are insignificant and nearly all of them change the form. The collocates of *zad* are dominated by features of action (*obniżenie, podstawić, pracować, przesuwać, wpadać* [lowering, engage, engage, shift, fall in]), but they also feature two other important body parts of the horse: *noga* and *przód* [leg, forehead]). In English there are several equivalents of *zad*: ***croup, haunches, hindquarters, quarters*** and *rump*, the first four appearing in the term set as three Ns, nine NPs and one AP. These denote features of action (e.g. *quarters leading*), specific exercises (e.g. *croup to the wall*), the body part itself (*haunches, hindquarters, quarters*) and a conformation feature (*croup-high*). However, only *haunches, haunches in* and *hindquarters* exceed the frequency threshold. *Haunches* have a slightly higher NFR than *hindquarters* in

the ECS, while in the EWS *hindquarters* are much more frequent and *haunches* seems uncommon, which may point to the dependence of naming the same concept on a given riding tradition. The collocates of those three terms also denote features of action (*disengage, engage, flexion, forward, inside, move, outside, push, turn*), specific exercises (*half pass, renvers, shoulder-in*) and other horse body parts (*back, forehand, front end, hip, leg, neck, shoulder*). One other significant collocate is *weight*, owing to the fact that shifting weight to the haunches is a prerequisite for good training (Radtke, 2010). Generally, though, the concept of ZAD in Polish seems to be more consolidated (one term) and pervasive (higher NFR plus more related terms above the frequency threshold) than in English.

The eighth most frequent Polish term is *tydka* [leg aid], which also represents the seventh most frequent concept in the Polish term set (see Table 11). It has 25 related terms (17 NPs, three APs, two VPs and three PPs), which denote types of leg aid (e.g. *tydka aktywizująca*), leg aid actions/applications (e.g. *działanie tydek obustronne i jednoczesne*), the horse's reaction to the aid (e.g. *bardzo czuły na tydki*) and specific exercises (*ustępowanie tydce, ustępowanie od tydki*); the term also has one term gap (*czuły na tydki*). However, only nine related terms exceed the frequency threshold and they all change forms. Only three of these – *tydka wewnętrzna, tydka zewnętrzna* and *ustępowanie od tydki* [inside leg, outside leg, leg-yielding] have significant NFRs, the first two pointing to the importance of using the correct leg and the last one denoting one of the basic dressage exercises (Radtke, 2010). The collocates of *tydka* also concern leg identification (*lewa, prawa* [left, right]) and leg aid action (*działanie* [action]), but they are dominated by other aids (*dosiad, wodza* [seat aid, rein], six clusters), demonstrating once again that related concepts often go together. The English equivalent *leg (aid)* has low NFRs and few significant collocates, mainly other aids (*rein, seat*). It does have eight related terms (three PPs, two NPs, two VPs and one AP), which focus on the horse's reaction to the aid (e.g. *behind the leg*); they also feature *leg-yielding* and *inside leg*. However, only three of them exceed the frequency threshold in each subcorpora and only *inside leg* has a significant NFR (see the discussion of *noga* above). Thus, LEG AID seems to be a more pervasive concept in Polish.

The ninth most frequent Polish term is *galop* [canter], the third most frequent concept in the Polish term set (see Table 11). Thus, it has as many as 41 related terms (36 NPs, two Ns, one V and two VPs), which denote mainly canter types (e.g. *galop ćwiczebny*), as well as features of movement (e.g. *falszowanie w galopie*), changes in movement (e.g. *dodanie w galopie*) and specific exercises (e.g. *ciąg w galopie*). *Galop* also has five term gaps, but no corresponding additional terms were discovered. Several related terms exceed the frequency

threshold (eight in the POS and 17 in the PTS), but nearly all of them exhibit form changes and only six demonstrate more significant NFRs: *galopować*, *galop zebrany*, *lotna zmiana nogi w galopie*, *skok w galopie*, *zagalopowanie* and *zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo* [canter (V), collected canter, flying lead change, foulée, canter depart, one-time change]). The collocates are not very diversified; they denote other gaits (*klus*, *stęp* [trot, walk]) and canter types (*galop na dwóch śladach*, *galop na kole* [canter on two tracks, canter on a circle]). The English equivalent **canter** has six related terms, all of them NPs denoting canter types, but only *counter-canter* (slightly) exceeds the frequency threshold and does so only in the ECS. *Canter* belongs to the most frequent terms only in the ECS, which might be justified by the fact that Western riding (represented herein by the EWS) uses a different term for this gait – *lope*. The collocates of *canter* include canter types (*collected*, *medium*), features of movement in canter (*beat*, *forward*, *lead*, *left*, *stride*), other gaits (*trot*, *walk*, seven clusters), changes between gaits (*back*, *into*, *into the canter*, *to*, *transition*, *trot-canter transitions*, *trot to canter*) and specific exercises (*circle*, *pirouette*).

The tenth most frequent Polish term is *szyja* [neck] – another horse body part. It has five related NPs, but only *zgięcie szyi* (insignificantly) exceeds the frequency threshold, with an unstable form. The collocates include other horse body parts (*głowa i szyja*, *grzbiet*, *potyllica*, *szyja i głowa*, *szyja i grzbiet*, *zad* [head and neck, back, poll, neck and head, neck and back, haunches]), neck movements (*wydłużać*, *wydłużać szyję w przód – w dół*, *wygiąć* [lengthen, lengthen the neck forward and down, bend (V)]) and the resulting neck positions (*ustawienie*, *niskie/wysokie ustawienie szyi* [position, low/high neck position]). The English equivalent *neck* is absent from the term set, but it has five related terms there (four NPs and one VP), as well as one term gap (*lengthened neck*). However, only *neck-rein* exceeds the frequency threshold and, being a Western riding-specific term, does so only in the EWS. Thus, the concept of the horse's NECK, together with *noga*, *zad* and *tydka*, seems more important in Polish equestrian writing.

The eleventh most frequent Polish term is **rozluźnienie** [relaxation], which has only one related term: *luźnienie szczęki* (absent from the subcorpora), as well as one term gap (*grzbiet rozluźniony*) and two additional terms (*ćwiczenie rozluźniające*, *rozluźniony grzbiet*). The term *rozluźnienie* itself exhibits a significant variety of forms (nouns, adjectives, verbs and an adverb) in the subcorpora, which make this abstract concept more concrete and widespread as in the case of *training* and *balance*. The collocates are rather limited; they denote related general training notions (*kontakt*, *rytm* [contact, rhythm]).

The above description of the main equestrian concepts allows for making a few general remarks. First, the difference in the number of the most frequent terms is very interesting by itself, given that the Polish corpus is over three times smaller than the English one (see Table 13). It might suggest that Polish equestrian writing displays a more limited use of specialized vocabulary in relation to English, i.e. it applies a relatively narrow set of terms, as has already been hypothesized in section 6.6. Consequently, that use may be less precise than in English because the higher frequency of a given term implies its presence in various contexts. This may partially be caused (and confirmed) by the second observation: abstract concepts are often made more concrete by form diversification (derivation): agents, actions and results help understand the practical application of these general training notions in horse riding. However, such form changes may also contribute to the abovementioned high frequency. Third, related concepts often appear together: abstract notions accompany one another, as do the subordinates of one superordinate term. Fourth, the resulting linguistic image of individual concepts often corresponds with the extralinguistic knowledge contained in the subject field literature. Thus, specialized equestrian vocabulary may serve as another proof of the important role played by linguistic research in practical terminological work: the results yielded by a linguistic description of concepts indicate related terms and collocates based on the real use of terms in subject field texts, taking into account the extralinguistic knowledge. All these constitute valuable information for terminologists, lexicographers and specialized language users.

6.10. Conclusions

The analysis of English and Polish equestrian specialized vocabulary has brought about several interesting observations detailed above in the description of results. Let us now attempt to cast a new light over these from the perspective of the preceding theoretical enunciations in order to situate this work in the rich flow of specialized language research.

From the historical point of view (presented in chapter 1), the equestrian subject field and its specialized language have been forming their language – world relations since the beginnings of civilization given that the mutual history of man and horse is approximately 6,000 years old (see section 5.1). Thus, the contemporary equestrian specialized language should be viewed as a reminder, proof and product of the development of humanity, even if nowadays put somewhat aside by the many times younger subject fields related to technological progress. Though this work is essentially synchronic, the necessity to utilize an

old term source for Polish – Baranowski (1989) – has shown that the analyzed vocabulary and subject field are still subject to dynamic changes: dozens of terms from that dictionary are absent from the subcorpora, allowing for a suggestion that they have become archaic and/or many of their concepts historic. Regarding the research criteria of specialized language history by S. Grucza (2008b) (see section 1.1), this work is a narrow-scope study of a practical specialized language with cognitive elements (as demonstrated by abstract concepts), conducted by a linguist and at the same time a subject field specialist; it is both cognitive and practical (i.e. essentially theoretical, but with lexicographic implications for the future) and has a national and universal scope: it compares two languages, but the methodology and results concern specialized language research in general. As concluded in section 1.4, the research of specialized languages has been drifting away from specialized knowledge, which is actually their root. By combining the linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge, in this work I have tried to take this root into account.

Concerning the functions of specialized languages (described in chapter 2), all of them have been revealed in the equestrian vocabulary research. The communicative function is demonstrated by the abovementioned vocabulary evolution (obsolete terms prove unused because they no longer serve their purpose) and by the instructive nature of corpus texts (see section 6.4); the abundance of such texts in English and the relative difficulty in obtaining them in Polish show that this language function is still fulfilled more extensively in the English-speaking equestrian world. The cognitive function is proved by findings concerning the most frequent equestrian concepts described in section 6.9: their semantic content (abstract vs. concrete), structure and collocating with one another as well as frequent correspondence of their linguistic image with the extralinguistic information from the subject field literature prove that specialized languages indeed participate in organizing knowledge in human brains. The cumulative function is shown by vocabulary frequency: the most common and significant terms preserve subject field knowledge required for instructing subject field members in their horse riding practice, while irrelevant terms (and hence concepts) are rare or absent from the subcorpora. The group-forming function is fulfilled by the linguistic image of horse training conveyed by its vocabulary: it proves to be based on communication, dynamism and control (see sections 6.3 and 6.9), thus revealing the group's basic values and principles governing their activity, as well as, again, by the instructive nature of texts: they unite the addressees around the authors (often influential trainers) and create a sense of belonging to the equestrian community, especially if the advice contained in those texts is followed. Thus, the vocabulary used in the texts takes part in forming this social group. The

vocabulary and texts also fulfill the instrumental function: they allow subject field members to achieve their extralinguistic goals, i.e. obtaining instructions on horse riding and training, thus letting them improve their skills as well as save time and money in situations where personal contact with a trainer is not necessary. This function is also revealed by the abovementioned absence of many obsolete terms: terms and texts seem to convey the up-to-date content instead of historic concepts whose knowledge is not indispensable for modern riders. Finally, the civilization development indication function is found in the discrepancies between English and Polish as regards the availability and publishing date of term sources, the availability of written texts and the distribution of terms in the texts. Those differences confirm the pre-research observation that the development and social importance of the equestrian community and the horse industry are more advanced in the English-speaking world.

Regarding the linguistic status (discussed in chapter 3), in a study which includes only vocabulary, is based on one (albeit widespread) type of subject field texts and does not cover the entire subject field, it is difficult to state with certainty whether the equestrian specialized language is an autonomous phenomenon, a variety of general language or a set of means contained in the latter. The vocabulary analyzed herein does not seem to indicate a separate system completely different from that of a given national language (English or Polish, respectively). Frequent formal changes (derivation) of terms and their inflection suggest that they are subject to general grammatical rules. Nonetheless, the equestrian specialized language is certainly independent in the functional aspect: its role in the subject field cannot be played by other linguistic means. Concerning the knowledge division criteria presented in section 3.3, knowledge conveyed by the vocabulary analyzed herein combines the anagnostic, diagnostic and prognostic features: drawing on the heritage dating back several thousand years, the contemporary writing on horse training identifies the needs and problems of its addressees and offers means to improve their skills. In terms of typologies (see section 3.4), the equestrian terms are nominative vocabulary with expressive elements (e.g. *dead to the leg*, *'downhill'*, *'uphill'*; *'luzy'*, *'gwiazdy'* [above the bit, literally: 'slack', 'stars']) used by a voluntarily associated group, whose relation to the society is traditional (i.e. coexisting) and the communication scope narrow. The latter feature has been changing, though, owing to the increasing popularity of horse riding as a hobby (see section 5.2).

Regarding the linguistic and related dimensions of specialized language research (presented in chapter 4), this work is mainly diagnostic: its major aim was to describe an underresearched specialized language; however, the observed vocabulary evolution and the

lexicographic implications for the future provide anagnostic (diachronic) and prognostic elements, respectively. It adopts a semasiological approach, drawing conclusions about the subject field based on its vocabulary. Such linguistic orientation distinguishes it from the principles of traditional Terminology, which it wishes to enrich with possibilities offered by descriptive language analysis. Thus, it follows the advice by Humbley (1997) mentioned in section 4.2: it pays attention to social conditions of producing and using terms (as reflected by term selection and corpus compilation), adopts a textual orientation (by utilizing a corpus) and investigates term phraseology (by providing their derivation and collocates). The work is not directly associated with specialized language teaching, translation/interpreting and language planning, but the future bilingual lexicographic project for which it sets the scene is expected to assist in those areas. The analysis conducted herein (especially the detailed description of terms in Tables 24-27) already provides information on the semantic, grammatical and cultural issues of terms in two languages, as well as on the discovered term gaps and additional terms. In this case, language planning carried out by the future lexicographic project would have to be retrospective, i.e. responding to the previously diagnosed communicative situation.

The analyzed vocabulary is dominated by nouns and noun phrases and difficult to divide into semantic fields, thus proving the existence of fuzzy boundaries also in specialized contexts; moreover, it exhibits differences in relevance and distribution. The development and accessibility of subject field writing also varies for the two analyzed languages and all those discrepancies are to the advantage of English as predicted beforehand. The English term set appears to be more up-to-date and its use – more extensive and precise; the Polish set is partially obsolete and its use in texts is based on a core of most frequent terms which therefore have to serve diversified contexts. This is not to say that the Polish equestrian language is poorer: since the analysis was based on written language (term sources and texts), this situation indicates the need to conduct lexicographic and language planning works in order to organize and popularize the vocabulary. Moreover, the differences between English and Polish as well as between two riding traditions (classical/English and Western) confirm the assumption made in section 6.4: knowledge is transferred by specialized languages also in an indirect manner, i.e. via the distribution of individual linguistic means and the image of the world they convey. In this situation, the drawbacks and absences can be equally informative and inspiring for the future.

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List of English terms

[foreign terms are underlined and marked as follows: F – French, G – German, I – Italian, P – Portuguese]

Diggle (2005):

abduction	brushing boot	<u>descente de jambes</u> [F]
above the bit	bucking	<u>descente de main</u> [F]
abrupt	cadence	<u>descente de main et de jambes</u> [F]
accepting the bit	canter	diagonal [arena line]
accuracy	canter on a long rein	diagonal [horse leg pair]
acting hand	capriole	diagonal aid
action	carriage	direct elevation
active	carted	direct flexion
active elevation	<u>cavaletto</u> [I]	direct rein
adduction	centre line	direct rein of opposition
age	centre of gravity	direct transition
air above the ground	chair seat	dishing
<u>a la brida</u> [P]	Chambon	disobedience
<u>a la gineta</u> [P]	<u>chambrière</u> [F]	distraction
<u>allures</u> [F]	change in the air	disunited
amble	change of direction	diving
anticipation	change of hand	double bridle
<u>appui/appuy</u> [F]	change of lead	<u>doux passage</u> [F]
arena	change of leg	‘downhill’
<u>arrest/arret</u> [F]	change of rhythm	dragging
artificial aid	change the rein	draw rein
artificial gait	chewing the bit	dress [noun: rider’s attire]
auxiliary rein	circle	dress [verb]
backing	classical	dressage
balance	clean	dressage arena
<u>balancé</u> [F]	collection	dressage saddle
ballotade	concave	dressage whip
bandage	conformation	<u>dresser</u> [F]
baroque	connection	<u>dresseur</u> [F]
base of support	constant angle	drifting
behind the bit	contact	driving aid
behind the leg	convex	dry mouth
behind the movement	corner	<u>durchlässigkeit</u> [G]
behind the vertical	correction	earthbound
bend	counter-canter	<u>écouté</u> [F]
bending	counter-change of hand	<u>écuyer</u> [F]
between leg and hand	counter-position	educating
bilateral	courbette	elasticity
biomechanics	cramped	elevation
bit	crookedness	<u>embouchure</u> [F]
bit guard	cross canter	energy
blocking	crotch seat	engaged
body armouring	croupade	engagement
boring on the bit	croup-high	equestrian [adjective]
bracing the back	croup to the wall	equestrian [noun: male rider]
bradoon/bridoon	curb bit	<u>equestrienne</u> [F]
bradoon rein	curb rein	equilibrium
break gait	cut corners	equitation
breed	daisy cutting	evasion
bridle	<u>de Gogue</u> [F]	exercise [noun: a training task]
bridle hand	dead to the leg	exercise [noun: training]
bridle lameness	deep and round	extension
bridling	deep work	extravagant
broke	<u>demi-pirouette</u> [F]	fall
broken neck	<u>demi-volte</u> [F]	fall apart
brushing	depart	fall in
	<u>descente d’encolure</u> [F]	fall into

fall out	haunches in	level [adjective: balanced]
falling over the outside shoulder	haunches out	leverage [of the bit]
false bend	<u>haute école</u> [F]	leverage [of the rider]
false canter	head carriage	lift
false extension	headshaker	light [aid application]
fatigue	head to the wall	lightness [horse's feature]
feeling the hair	high air	locomotion
figure	high school	long and low
figure of eight	hindquarters	longeing/lungeing
first position	holding back	longitudinal
fitness	holding of reins	long-reining
flapping	hollow-backed	loose
flat	hollow side	loose rein
flexibility	hoof print	loose seat
flexion	horsemanship	<u>losgelassenheit</u> [G]
flexion in-hand	horsemastership	low air
floating	hovering trot	low and round
flying change	hurrying	made mouth
footing	impulsion	<u>manège</u> [F]
forehand	in front of the leg	martingale
forging	in front of the vertical	medium
fork seat	inactive	<u>mézair</u> [F]
forward	inattentive	<u>mise en main</u> [F]
four-time	independent seat	moment of suspension
free	indirect rein	mouthing
free forward movement	indirect rein of opposition	mouth open
free walk on a long rein	in-hand	move away from the leg
fresh	inside	movement
full bridle	inside hand	move off the leg
full halt	inside leg	napping
full pass	<u>insterburger</u> [G]	natural aid
gait	insubordinate	natural gait
gait variant	interfering	nearside
gallop	ipsilateral	neck-rein
<u>galop</u> [F]	irregular	nervousness
<u>giravolta</u> [I]	jogging	nodding
give and re-take the reins	kicking out to the aid	noseband
glove	<u>l'effet d'ensemble</u> [F]	nose-diving
going [noun: footing]	lacing	novice
going short	lameness	nuchal apparatus
go large	lateral	numnah
good hand	lateral aid	obedient
good mouth	lateral balance	offside
<u>grand passage</u> [F]	lateral flexion	on a long rein
grinding teeth	lateral movement	one-sided
gripping	lazy	one-time change
gymnastic training	leading leg	on his toes
habit	leaning in	on the aids
hackamore	leaning on the bit	on the bit
hacking	leaning on the wall	on the forehand
half-halt	leaning out	on the left rein
half-parade	left diagonal	on the right rein
half-pass	left lead	open rein
half-pirouette	left rein	opening rein
half-volte	leg aid	opposite rein
halt	leg-yielding	outline
hand	lengthened stride	out of balance
hard-mouthed	lengthening	outside
harmony	length of stride	outside track
haunches	levade	overbent

overcollected	restraining aid	stirrup
overtracking	reversed pirouette	stirrup leather
pace [=amble]	reversed volte	straightening
pace [=gait]	reward	straightness
pace [=speed]	rhythm	strength
pace [=step]	ride in	stretching
pacing	right diagonal	stretching the frame
parade	right lead	stretching the topline
<u>pas de deux</u> [F]	right rein	stride
passade	rising trot	strike off
passage	rocking and rolling	stroking the horse's neck
<u>passagé</u> [F]	rounded	stubbornness
passagey trot	rounding	stud
passive hand	rowel	stumble
perched	running	submission
perpendicular	running rein	suppleness
pesade	'running through the bit'	supporting rein
<u>petit galop</u> [F]	saddle cloth	supraspinous ligament
piaffe	saddle cover	suspension
pillar	saddlery	sustaining hand
pirouette	<u>schaukel</u> [G]	swinging back
pivot	school [noun: arena]	tack
plaiting	school figure	tail carriage
poll	school horse	tail swishing
port	schooling	taking hand
position [noun: bend of horse]	schoolmaster	temperament
position [noun: rider's posture]	school movement	tempi change
positive diagonal advance	<u>schwung</u> [G]	tempo
placement – PDAP	seat	tendon boot
posting	seat aid	tension
posture	seat saver	<u>terre-à-terre</u> [F]
preparatory aid	seesaw	three in one
progressive transition	self-carriage	three-quarter line
propy	serpentine	three-time
punishment	setting the jaw	through [adjective from
quarters	shankmover	<i>throughness</i>]
quarters in	shoeing	throughness
quarters leading	shortened neck	thrust
quarters not engaged	shortening	ticklishness
quarters out	short side	timidity
quarters trailing	shoulder-fore	timing of aids
<u>ramener</u> [F]	shoulder-in	tongue fault
<u>rassembler</u> [F]	shoulder-out	tongue strap
rearing	shying	topline
<u>redopp/redoppe/redoppo/radoppio</u>	side rein	track
<u>[I]</u>	side-saddle	tracking up
regular	simple change	trailing
rein	sitting trot	training
rein aid	size	transition
rein-back	slack	travers
rein contact	snaffle	<u>traverse</u> [noun: full pass] [F]
rein effect	sour	<u>traverse</u> [noun: side-stepping] [F]
relative elevation	Spanish trot	triangulation
relaxed	Spanish walk	<u>tride</u> [F]
release of the rein	speed	trot
<u>remonte des dents</u> [F]	spinning	turn
renvers	spooking	turn on the centre
resistance	spur	turn on the forehand
resistant	square halt	turn on the haunches
responsiveness	stiffness	two-time

two-track
uberstreichen [G]
un pas un saut [F]
 unbalanced
 uneven lateral development
 uneven steps
 unilateral
 united
 unlevel
 unsteady contact
 unsteady halt
 unsteady head
 'uphill'
 use of voice
 vertical
 vice
volte [a one-track circle] [I]
volte [a two-track movement] [F]
 walk
 wandering
 warm up
 warning aid
 way of going
 weight aid
 whip
 winging
 work in
 working
 work in-hand
 wrong bend
 wrong lead
 yield
 yielding hand
 zigzag

USDF Glossary of Judging Terms (2011):

acceptance
 activity
 against the bit
 alignment
 amplitude
 basics
 beat

blocked
 bobbing
 bpm
 broken neckline
 center of mass
 clarity
 clear
 closed halt
 collected
 confidence
 connected
 constrained
 constricted
 correctness
 defined
 definition
 diagonal advanced placement –
 DAP
 diagonal dissociation
 dissociation
 expression
 extended
 falling on inside shoulder
 footfall
 frame
 freedom
 free walk
 from behind
 hasty
 hollow back
 hurried
 inner
 inwards
 late
 late behind
 lengthening of stride
 looseness
 marching
 mobility
 mpm
 obedience
 out behind
 outer
 outwards

overbending
 overflexed
 overstep
 overstride
 over the back
 over the topline
 over-turned
 passage-like trot
 phase
 pivoting
 popped shoulder
 purity
 pushing out
 pyramid of training
 quality
 quick
 rapid
 reach
 regularity
 relax
 relaxation
 release
 rocking canter
 rocking horse canter
 roundness [of gaits]
 roundness [of the horse's topline]
 rushed
 scope
 snatching [of hind legs]
 snatching [of the bit]
 step
 stiff
 strung out
 stuck
 swinging
 swinging head
 tense
 tilting
 training scale
 trajectory
 uneven
 wide behind

List of Polish terms

[foreign terms are underlined and marked as follows: F – French]

Radtke (2010):

anatomia	kielżno	obszerny krok
balotada	kląskanie językiem	oddziaływanie na konia
banda	kląb	ogłowie wędzidłowe
bat	klus anglezowany	ogon
biodro	klus hiszpański	opór
budowa konia	klus pośredni	ostroga
charakter konia	klus roboczy	parskanie
chód boczny	klus skrócony	pasaż
chód podstawowy	klus zebrany	pas do lonżowania
ciąg	kolejność kroków	pchnięcie zadniej nogi
ciąg w galopie	kolejność stawiania nóg	pełna parada
cierpliwość	koło	pezada
ciężar ciała	kontakt	piaff
czambon	kontrgalop	piaff do tyłu
czarna wodza	koń rekreacyjny	piaff w miejscu
czterotakt	koń ujeżdżeniowy	pierścień wędzidła
ćwierćwolta	koziółek	pilar
dążność do ruchu naprzód	kręg	pilność
dodanie	kręgosłup	piruet w galopie
dodanie w galopie	krok z fazą zawieszenia	piruet w stępie
dodanie w klusie	krupada	płynność
dosiad	krzyż	pochwała
dosiad niepoprawny	krzyżowanie w galopie	“pod górę”
dosiad skrotny	kulawizna wędzidłowa	podnoszenie przedniej nogi
dosiad ujeżdżeniowy	kurbeta	pomoc aktywizująca
dwutakt	lekkość	pomocnik
działanie łydką aktywizującą	lewada	pomoc wstrzymująca
działanie łydką przesuwającą	linia prosta	postawienie absolutne
działanie ręki	lonża	postawienie relatywne
działanie ręki lekkie	lonżowanie	pośladek
działanie ręki za mocne	lotna zmiana nogi w galopie	potylicyca
efektywność	łokieć	półparada
faza lotu	łopatką do przodu	półpiruet
galop do tyłu	łopatką do wewnątrz	półwolta
galop na trzech nogach	łydka	praca nad zgięciem
galop pośredni	łydka aktywizująca	praca w rękę
galop roboczy	łydka ograniczająca	prostowanie
galop w miejscu	łydka przesuwająca	przejęcie ciężaru przez zad
galop w trawersie	łydka wewnętrzna	przejmowanie ciężaru
galop zebrany	łydka zewnętrzna	przejsćie
głos	miętkość	przekątna
głowa	mięsień	przekątna para nóg
grzbiet	mięsień grzbietu	przemoc
grzbiet długi	munsztuk	przepuszczalność
grzbiet falujący	nachrapnik angielski	przestawienie
grzbiet pracujący	nachrapnik hanowerski	przesunięcie
inochód	nacisk łydki	psychika konia
jazda po łuku	nadpęcie	punkt przejścia
jazda w terenie	nagradzanie	pysk
jezdność	narożnik	renwers
jeździec rekreacyjny	natura	ręka niespokojna
język	naturalne skrzywienie	rozluźnienie
kadencja	nieposłuszeństwo	rozwój konia
kapriola	nos	równowaga
kara	obciążanie przedniej nogi	ruch do przodu
kawecan	obciążenie zadu	ruch do przodu w bok
	obniżenie biodra	ruch do przodu w dół

rzucenie wodzy	wolta na kwadracie	ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem
samoniesienie	wolta w galopie	ćwiczenie w pilarach
siła	wolta w trawersie	ćwiczenie w rękę
siła nośna	wpływ na konia	ćwiczenie w słupekach
siła pchająca	wydech	“demi-arrêt” [F]
skala wyszkolenia	wyginastykowanie	dobry stan
skok szkolny	wyjeżdżanie narożnika	dodać
skracanie skoków galopu	wypadanie łopatką	dodać tempo
skrócenie	wypadanie w galopie	dojezdek
skrócenie wykroku	wypadanie zadem	dosiadać
skrzywienie	wypinacz	dosiad fotelowy
skrzywienie w potylicy	wyraz oka	dosiad miękki
smakołyk	wyraz pyska	dosiad normalny
spięcie	wyszkolenie podstawowe	dosiad poprawny
sprężynowanie zadem	wyższa szkoła	dosiad sportowy
staw	zaburzenie taktu	dosiad szkolny
staw skokowy	zad	dosiad sztywny
stęp	zadem do wewnątrz	dosiad widłowy
stęp hiszpański	zadem na zewnątrz	dotykać palcatem
stęp pośredni	zagalopowanie	drobić w stępie
stęp zebrany	załamanie w biodrze	dróżka
stopień zebrania	zapał do ruchu naprzód	działanie łydek obustronne
strach	zatrzymanie	i jednoczesne
stroma łopatka	zaufanie	działanie łydki jednostronne
swoboda w ganaszach	ząb	działanie łydki podtrzymujące
swoboda w łopatkach	zebranie	działanie łydki przesuwające
system dźwigni	zgięcie	ekwijer
sztywna łopatka	zgięcie boczne	ekwitacja
szyja	zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo	ekwitacja klasyczna
ściana	zwrot na przodzie	elastyczny
środek ciężkości	zwrot na zadzie	falszowanie w galopie
takt	zwykła zmiana nogi w galopie	figura osiem
talent	żucie	forma
temperament	żucie z ręki	foulée
trawers		galop
trójtakt	Baranowski (1989):	galop ćwiczebny
trzy czwarte piruetu	akcja	galop na krzyż
trzymanie wodzy	akcja pchająca zadu	galop nieprawidłowy
tułów	amator	galop normalny
tułów odchylony	amazonka	galop “ostry”
tułów pochylony	amazonka cyrkowa	galopować
udo	asymetria osi głównej	galop “równy”
ukątownie łopatki	balans	galop skrócony
ukątownie zadniej nogi	barani skok	galop szkolny
uspokajanie	bardzo czuły na łydki	galop “trial”
ustawienie	berajter	galop użytkowy
ustawienie głowy	bez łączności	galop wyciągnięty
ustawienie kozicy na szczycie	bez styczności	galop z fałszywej nogi
ustawienie w trawersie	bić	galop z lewej nogi
ustawienie wysokie	brać na kiel	galop z prawej nogi
ustępowanie od łydki	budzić	galop z wewnętrznej nogi
usztynienie	całkowity wykrok w stępie	galop z właściwej nogi
uwaga	chód	ganaszowanie
wada budowy	chwycić wodze	głaskanie
wewnętrzna strona oka	chwycić czanki	głowa do ściany
wężyk	chwycić zębami	gra nóg
więzadło karkowe	ciągnąć	gra wodzy
wodza	ciąg po przekątnej	gryźć
wodza długa	cofanie	grzbiet bierny
wolta	ćwiczenie na długich wodzach	grzbiet czynny

grzbiet naprężony	koniuszy przyboczny	nowoczesny sposób trzymania
grzbiet rozprężony	koniuszy wielki	wodzy
grzbiet sztywny	“kontrwodza”	“obramowany”
grzbiet wklęsły	kontrzmiana	oddać łydki
“gwiazdy”	koń wierzchowy	oddać wodze
impuls	koń wyższej szkoły jazdy	oddanie wodzy na kontakcie
instruktor konnej jazdy	kończyna	z pyskiem
jazda konna	kopać	o dobrych manierach
jazda podstawowa	kora	odruch
jazda polowa	kora w kruchach	oporny
jazda spacerowa	kurbeta klasyczna	osadzić
jazda szkoleniowa	lansada	osadzić na zadzie
jazda terenowa	lekkość w ręku	oś główna konia
jazda wyższą szkołą	leżeć na wodzach	oś podłużna konia
jechać	“luzy”	ósemka
jeździć na oklep	luźnienie szczęki	para
jeździć “po damsku”	łatwy do prowadzenia	parapet
jeździć po męsku	łatwy w prowadzeniu	pchnięcie ostrogi
jeździć w damskim siodle	łopatą do wewnątrz	piana
jeździec	łydka bierna	piasek
jeździec cyrkowy	łydka czynna	piruet
jeździec dżentelmen	manez	piruet odwrócony
jeździec kawalkator	mezer	piruet zwykły
jeździec początkujący	miękki w pysku	plac do konnej jazdy
jeździec szkolny	miłośnik koni	po wolicie na wprost
jeździec wyszkolony	mistrz w siodle	pobudzić
jeździec wytrawny	mlaskanie językiem	podbiegać
jeździec zaawansowany	młodszy kawalkator	podciąganie języka
jeździec zawodowy	moment przechyłowy	podjezdek
jeździec znakomity	moment wykrocny	podjeżdżać
jeździectwo	moment zawieszenia	podniesienie głowy
jeździectwo sportowe	mur	podniesienie szyi
kanter	nad wodzami	podskok
kapitan ekipy	na łączności	podstawić tylne nogi
karać	na łączność	poklepać
karność	na pomocach	położenie
kawalkator	na wodzach zebranych	pomoc
kąsać	nagroda	pomoc dodatkowa
kierunek ruchu	napięcie krzyża	pomoce jednostronne
klasa jeźdźca	napór przesadny	pomoce przeciwległe
klasyczny sposób trzymania	naprostowanie kręgosłupa	pomoce równoległe
wodzy	nawierzchnia	pomocnik instruktora konnej jazdy
kłus	nawrót	ponieść
kłus ćwiczebny	neoklasyczny sposób trzymania	posłuszeństwo
kłus normalny	wodzy	postawa
kłusować	nerwowo ruszać ogonem	postawa dowolna
kłusować na lewej nodze	nieczuły na łydki	postawa na wodzach
kłusować na lewej przekątnej	nie odchodzący od koni	postawa na wodzach oddanych
kłusować na prawej nodze	nie odchodzący od przedmiotów	postawa swobodna
kłusować na prawej przekątnej	nieposłuszny	postawa w wodzach
kłus podróżny	nie przyjmuje wodzy	pozycja
kłus szeroki	nieujeżdżony	półciąg
kłus szkolny	noga	półobrót w tył
kłus użytkowy	noga podporowa	półsiad
kłus w miejscu	noga przednia	półzwrot w tył
kłus wyciągnięty	noga tylna	półzwrot zadem w tył
kłus wysiadwany	noga wewnętrzna	praca na dwóch śladach
kondycja	noga wykrocna	prosty
koniarz	normalna zmiana nogi w galopie	prowadzenie
koniuszy nadworny	normalny sposób trzymania wodzy	prowadzić na munsztuku

prowadzić na samym munsztuku
prowadzić oburącz
przed łydkami
przed wodzami
przeganaszowany
przejść w galop
przekładać język na kielzno
przerwać działanie łydki
przestraszyć się
przód
przyjęcie wędzidla
pysk czuły
pysk miękki
pysk nieczuły
pysk niespokojny
pysk niewrażliwy
pysk przyjemny
pysk ruchliwy
pysk surowy
pysk świeży
pysk twardy
pysk wilgotny
pysk wrażliwy
pysk zbyt ruchliwy
pysk zbyt wrażliwy
pysk zepsuty
redop
refleks
ręka
ręka spokojna
ręka stateczna
rotmistrz
rozbiegać się
rozdzielić wodze
rozmach
rozprężony
ruch
ruszyć
ruszyć z miejsca
rytm
rytm miarowy
rzucić łbem
"sakada"
schowany za wodze
serpentyna
siad
skoczek szkolny
skok w galopie
skrócić wodze
skrzywienie osi głównej
spłoszyć się
sport hipiczny
sport jeździecki
sport konny
sposób trzymania wodzy
sprężony
stanie w miejscu
stan zaprawy
starofrancuski sposób trzymania
wodzy

starszy kawalkator
starszy kawalkator szef
stawać dęba
stęp na długich wodzach
stęp na dwóch śladach
stęp na kontakcie
stęp na wodzach
stęp na wodzach oddanych
stęp na wodzach rzuconych
stęp po dwóch śladach
stęp roboczy
stęp swobodny
stęp szkolny
stęp w wodzach
stęp wyciągnięty
stosowanie wodzy
stój
strona lewa
strona prawa
strona wewnętrzna
strona wklęsła
strona wypukła
strona zewnętrzna
styczność wstępna
styl jeźdźca
surowy
szarpać wodze
szef ekipy
szef ekwipacji
szef szkolenia
szkolenie jeździeckie
szkoła podstawowa
szkoła polowa
sztuka jeździecka
sztuka jeźdźca
szybwny
szybkość
ścieżka dla jeźdźca
ślad
środek
świeży
takt jeździecki
talent jeździecki
technika jeździecka
temperament dzielny
temperament energiczny
temperament flegmatyczny
temperament gorący
temperament leniwy
temperament łagodny
temperament płochliwy
temperament spokojny
temperament trudny
tempo
trawersować
trener
trociny
trudny do prowadzenia
"tuszować"
uciec

uczennica
uczeń
uderzenie bata
uderzyć
ujeżdżacz
ujeżdźalnia kryta
ujeżdźalnia otwarta
ujeżdżony
uparty
ustawić konia
ustawienie konia na krzywej
ustawienie konia na wprost
ustawienie konia w zgięciu
ustępowanie ciągiem
ustępowanie łopatką do wewnątrz
ustępowanie łydce
ustępowanie nóg
ustępowanie zadem do wewnątrz
uzdolnienie jeździeckie
użycie wodzy
w łydkach
w rękę
w tył zwrot
w wodzach zebranych
wąz
"wibracja"
wierzgać
wodza bierna
wodza czynna
wodza izolowana
wodza kierunkowa
wodza luźna
wodza nieczynna
wodza oddana
wodza oddzielna
wodza oparta o szyję
wodza powstrzymująca
wodza prowadząca
wodza przeciwstawna
bezpośrednia
wodza "przeciwstawna pośrednia"
użyta przed kłębem
wodza "przeciwstawna pośrednia"
użyta za kłębem
wodza rzucona
wodza wewnętrzna
wodza zewnętrzna
wodza zwisająca
"wodze bez łydek, łydki bez
wodzy"
wodze spokojne
wodze stateczne
wodze w jednej ręce
wodze w obu rękach
wojskowy sposób trzymania
wodzy
wpływ ciężaru jeźdźca
wpływ jeźdźca
wrażliwość na pomoce
wsiaść na koń

wyczerpany
wyczucie jeźdźca
wydłużyć wodze
wykrok w klusie
wyrównać wodze
wrywać wodze
wrywać wodze z ręki
wyrzucać język
wysoka lewada
wysoka szkoła jazdy
wytrzymujące działanie wodzy
wyższa szkoła jazdy
wzbraniające działanie wodzy
wzorowa reakcja
zaangażować zad
zad do muru
zad do ściany
zagalopować z lewej nogi
za łydkami
“zamknięty” w ręku i w łydkach
zaprawa
zatrzymać
zatrzymanie swobodne

zatrzymanie w miejscu na
wodzach w zebraniu
zatrzymanie w miejscu swobodne
zatrzymanie w zebraniu
zebrać konia
zebrać wodze
zespół nóg
zespół nóg bocznych
zespół nóg przekątnych
zgięcie boczne głowy
zgięcie boczne szyi
zgięcie głowy
zgięcie szyi
zgięcie szyi w potylicy
zgięcie wewnętrzne
zgięcie zewnętrzne
zgrzytać zębami
zły stan
zmęczony
zmiana kierunku
zmiana kierunku odwrotna
zmiana kierunku przez środek
ujeżdźalni
zmiana kierunku w kole

zmiana kół
zmiana na długiej ścianie
zmiana na krótkiej ścianie
zmiana nogi
zmiana nogi normalna
zmiana nogi w powietrzu
zmiana po przekątnej
zmiana przez ujeżdżalnię
zmiana ręki odwrotna
zmienić chód
zmienić kierunek
zmienić nogę
zmienić rękę
zmienić tempo
znawca koni
zrównoważyć zad
zsiadać
zwijanie języka
zwolnić
zwolnić tempo
zwrot
zwrot na osi
żuć kielzno

Streszczenie w języku polskim

Porównawcza analiza korpusowa angielskiego i polskiego specjalistycznego słownictwa jeździeckiego z zakresu ujeżdżenia i treningu koni

Niniejsza rozprawa doktorska jest analizą angielskiego i polskiego słownictwa jeździeckiego z zakresu ujeżdżenia i treningu koni przeprowadzoną z zastosowaniem porównawczego korpusu tekstów. Wpisuje się ona w nurt badań języków specjalistycznych, którym dotąd poświęcano niewiele uwagi w językoznawstwie i powiązanych dziedzinach. Specjalistyczny język jeździecki, którego jądro stanowi badane słownictwo, wymaga zarówno teoretycznej (badania), jak i praktycznej (leksykografia) pracy językoznawczej, szczególnie w Polsce, gdzie poświęcono mu jak dotąd pojedyncze artykuły oraz nieaktualny już słownik. Jest to wysoce niewystarczające z uwagi na rosnącą popularność jeździectwa jako sportu i rekreacji w Polsce i na świecie. Niniejsza praca ma stanowić przyczynek do poprawy tego stanu.

W opisanej sytuacji wstępne oczekiwania mają charakter ogólny: celem jest formalna i semantyczna charakterystyka dwóch zestawów słownictwa (angielskiego i polskiego) pozyskanych z wiarygodnych źródeł w celu odkrycia zawartego w nim językowego obrazu przedmiotowej dziedziny. Następnie badane jest występowanie terminów w korpusie złożonym odpowiednio z angielskich i polskich tekstów z zakresu ujeżdżenia i treningu koni. Każdy z dwóch podkorpusów podzielony jest dodatkowo na dwie części według rozróżnienia ważnego dla danego języka: podkorpus angielski zawiera część dotyczącą jeździectwa klasycznego (angielskiego) oraz jeździectwa w stylu western (amerykańskiego), zaś podkorpus polski – część oryginalną oraz złożoną z tłumaczeń. Pozwala to na porównanie występowania słownictwa w zależności od obszarów językowo-kulturowych oraz weryfikację jakości i aktualności źródeł słownictwa w kontekście planowanego projektu leksykograficznego, do którego wprowadzeniem teoretycznym ma być niniejsza praca.

Rozprawa składa się z czterech rozdziałów teoretycznych oraz dwóch badawczych. Rozdział 1 przedstawia historię badań języków specjalistycznych, a rozdział 2 opisuje współczesne funkcje tych języków. Rozdział 3 przybliża pojęcie języka specjalistycznego, omawiając jego nazwy stosowane w językoznawstwie, jego stosunek do języka ogólnego, powiązane pojęcia wiedzy i specjalisty oraz typologie języków specjalistycznych. Rozdział 4 przedstawia badania języków specjalistycznych podejmowane przez szereg powiązanych dyscyplin: językoznawstwo, terminologię, dydaktykę, leksykografię, translatorykę i planowanie językowe. Rozdział 5 stanowi bezpośrednie wprowadzenie do badań, opisując

rozwój przedmiotowej dziedziny specjalistycznej, tj. jeździectwa, oraz jej stan obecny, z naciskiem na grupę użytkowników. Rozdział 6 zawiera właściwe badanie podzielone na etapy: wytyczenie zakresu tematycznego i utworzenie dwóch zestawów słownictwa, ich wstępną formalną i semantyczną charakterystykę, uformowanie korpusu, badanie występowania terminów w korpusie za pomocą oprogramowania WordSmith 5.0 oraz analizę frekwencyjną, formalną i semantyczną wyników.

Przeprowadzone badanie wykazuje znaczną zależność występowania słownictwa od obszaru kulturowego, reprezentowanego przez style jeździeckie i języki narodowe. Angielski podkorpus jeździectwa klasycznego zawiera więcej terminów niż podkorpus jeździectwa westernowego, co odzwierciedla pozajęzykową wiedzę o tradycji i charakterze obu tych stylów. Z kolei znaczna część terminów polskich jest nieobecna w tekstach, potwierdzając przewidywane niedostatki jednego z wykorzystanych źródeł słownictwa oraz zasadność planowanego projektu leksykograficznego. Podkorpus polskich tłumaczeń wykazuje wyższe nasycenie słownictwem niż podkorpus oryginalny, sugerując różnicę jakościową między zagranicznym a polskim piśmiennictwem jeździeckim przy jednoczesnej wysokiej jakości przekładów. Niniejsza rozprawa stanowi zatem kolejny dowód na powiązanie języków specjalistycznych z ich dziedzinami, a tym samym na użyteczność z jednej strony opisowych badań językoznawczych przed praktycznymi pracami terminologiczno-leksykograficznymi, z drugiej zaś uwzględniania wiedzy pozajęzykowej i opisu pojęć w badaniach językoznawczych.