Title: A comparative corpus analysis of English and Polish equestrian specialized vocabulary concerning dressage and horse training

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6500

PhD THESIS

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

SUPERVISOR:
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SOSNOWIEC 2014
PRACA DOKTORSKA

PORÓWNAWCZA ANALIZA KORPUСOWA
ANGIELSKIEGO I POLSKIEGO
SPECJALISTYCZNEGO SŁOWNICTWA JEŻDŻECKIEGO
Z ZAKRESU UJEŻDŻENIA 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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Acknowledgements

Writing a PhD thesis concerning a linguistically underresearched subject field posed several difficulties, as did gathering the research material. I would like to express my thanks to persons without whose kind assistance the thesis would be much poorer and would have no chance to do justice to the fascinating theme of horse riding and its specialized vocabulary.

First, I wish to thank my supervisor, dr. hab. Adam Wojtaszek, for guiding my work with calmness and patience, understanding my passion for horses and supporting the topic and shape of this dissertation.

Second, I am grateful to the following persons involved in the horse industry who shared their expertise and facilitated corpus compilation by providing their works:

- Robert M. Miller, DVM and Mark Miller, General Manager at Robert M. Miller Communications: for making available Dr. Miller’s book (Miller, 1999) in the electronic form;
- Jane Savoie and Martha Cook, Managing Director at Trafalgar Square Publishing: for making available Jane Savoie’s book (Savoie, 2003) in the electronic form;
- Marek Szewczyk, former editor-in-chief and Witold Mickiewicz, DTP specialist at the Koń polski monthly: for formatting and making available 17 articles in the electronic form;
- Wojciech Ginko, my horse riding instructor: for making available several of his articles in the electronic form and recording our two riding lessons for the purpose of researching spoken equestrian language, as well as for kindness and patience towards me and horses.

Last but not least, I thank my parents for their unchanging patience and support, as well as my best friends Ewelina Romik and Father Robert Chudoba, PhD, for the refreshing joy that meeting them gives me.
Introduction

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

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

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 is 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 amphitheaters, 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* 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.

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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 Métiers², 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

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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 Chimique³ (1787), while the publication of Traité Elémentaire de Chimie⁴ (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 Technologie⁵ (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.
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 Wörtebuch* (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: Wirtschaftlinguistik), 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 Ścisłości 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

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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*\(^9\) (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

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\(^9\) 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”\(^\text{16}\). 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: \textit{Probleme der Fundierung eines Modernen Fachbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterrichts}\(^\text{17}\)), but then developed linguistic approach to specialized languages and presented it in his 1976 work \textit{Kommunikationsmittel Fachsprache. Eine Einführung}\(^\text{18}\). 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“\(^\text{19}\) 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 \textit{Deutsche Gegenwartssprache. Tendenzen und Perspektiven}\(^\text{20}\), 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,
The 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’”\textsuperscript{21}), specialized languages continue to be a source of information about the modern world.

\textsuperscript{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.

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

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;
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 specjalistycznych 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

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22 . . . wewnętrznie spójnych podzbiorów językowych, obejmujących jednocześnie wszystkie poziomy językowe: leksykalny, morfologiczny, składniowy i dyskursywny.
23 . . . kod semiotyczny drugiego rzędu, wtóry 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 ‘gwarą’ 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

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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 group

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.)
a colloquial language variety used by a professional or social group\(^{27}\) (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 group\(^{28}\) (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).

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\(^{27}\) 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 \( \text{język fachowy} \) provided above also applies to ‘fachowy’ in \( \text{słownictwo fachowe} \)). 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 professiolects and technolects 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). Pieńot (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.
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 (Cabré, 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 ogólni 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 Bergen Holtz 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).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Confrontation: specialized language opposed to general language (corresponds to b) above – E.P.</th>
<th>Abolishing the confrontation (corresponds to a) above – E.P.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abolishing differences between specialized languages</td>
<td>Specialized languages as a diversified group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Main research trends:  
- 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) | Main research trends:  
- 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. Professiolects 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. Guenza and S. Guenza, 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:

![The semantic triangle of Gomperz (Temmerman, 2000: 59).](image)

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

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.)

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: poliwiedza 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;

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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:

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prognostic Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>concerns those states of affairs within a given object of cognition which are assumed to exist in the future; divided into:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- knowledge of states of affairs assumed to emerge as consequences of the presently existing ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- knowledge of the behavior of those states after human impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- knowledge of bringing into existence those future states of affairs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

↑ Diagnostic Knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnostic Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>concerns those states of affairs within a given object of cognition which are assumed to exist presently</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

↓ Anagnostic Knowledge

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anagnostic Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>concerns the reconstruction of those states of affairs within a given object of cognition which are assumed to have existed in the past</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

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:
Specialist has the following definitions:

a person distinguished by thorough knowledge of a given subject field

a person who specializes in or devotes himself to a particular area of activity, field of research, etc

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)

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

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31 specjalista powoływany do wydania orzeczenia lub opinii w sprawach spornych; 2. osoba uznawana za autorytet w jakiejs dziedzinie
32 człowiek odznaczający się gruntowną znajomością jakiejs 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 (Cabré, 1999). One may be tempted to say that there are possibly as many specialized languages are 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 quasiklasyfikacje polskich języków 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 Bibliograficzny34 and Bibliografia Zawartości Czasopism35 (Biblioteka Narodowa, n.d.; Lewandowski, 2008). Lewandowski (2008) also compares the classification of sciences developed by Stanisław Kamiński 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: Kamiński 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.

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

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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ESP</th>
<th>English for Academic Purposes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EBE</td>
<td>English for Business and Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBP</td>
<td>English for Business Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBT</td>
<td>English for Business and Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELP</td>
<td>English for Legal Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMFE</td>
<td>English for Management, Finance and Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EMP</td>
<td>English for Medical Purposes/English for Military Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EOP</td>
<td>English for Occupational Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESS</td>
<td>English for Social Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EST</td>
<td>English for Science and Technology</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Authors have attempted to order the diversified set of ESPs. Trimble (1992) suggested the following tentative division:
A more complex division was prepared by Johns (1991):

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.

Professionlects 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 professionlects 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):
   - professiolects: 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).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialized language groups</th>
<th>Classification criteria</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>Level of abstraction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>symbols for elements and relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>symbols for elements, natural language for relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>natural language with a large share of specialized vocabulary and precisely determined grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 4</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>natural language with a large share of specialized vocabulary and relatively undetermined grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 5</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>natural language with a small share of specialized vocabulary and undetermined grammar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 equaling 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).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prognostic tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(applied specialized linguistics)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- an attempt to predict natural development of a specialized language described within the diagnostic tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- establishing possibilities of conscious influence on the specialized language to make it a better tool in its subject field</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

↑

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnostic tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>('pure' specialized linguistics)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- reconstruction of a contemporary specialized language on the basis of texts produced by specialists</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- describing distinctive features of the specialized language (e.g. vocabulary, text genres)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- comparison of the specialized language to general language and other specialized languages</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

↓

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anagnostic tasks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(history of specialized languages)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, multifaceted 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).

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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 lexicon

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 texts (Jadacka, 1976: 28)

[a] word, phrase or alphanumeronic 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).

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38 zakę 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 (Cabrè, 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-
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);
- qtnh – 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 hypotems. 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 (Cabré, 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 Żydek-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 skrzydelkowa [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 hypoterminds 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 (Cabré, 1999; Hartmann and James, 2002; Żydek-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. *wiosnówka* – 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: -oś, 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.e. 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 (Łukszyn 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 (Łukszyn 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 (Góńicz, 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. exclamation) 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 Elektrotechnik41 (his doctoral thesis defended in 1931) and The Machine Tool. An Interlingual Dictionary of Basic Concepts

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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 Schloemann: 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;

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).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Use</th>
<th>Terminology as a separate scientific discipline</th>
<th>Terminology as a practice and art</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing a theoretical framework allowing for the description of specialized vocabulary dynamics (growth and formation)</td>
<td>communication in specialized fields</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>communication via intermediaries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>compiling dictionaries of specialized fields</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Users | - linguists 
|       | - sociolinguists 
|       | - cognitive scientists | - subject field specialists |
|       |                                              | intermediaries (semispecialists, interpreters, translators/interpreters) |
|       |                                              | linguists (terminologists, terminographers, language planners) |
| Output | consolidated theory of Terminology | 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):
- negative: today a minor line, it rejects and ignores the opponent;
- constructive: it has two streams – revisiting the old theory to improve it or refining it to silence the critics;
- 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, intracategorial information and intercategorial 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, Cabrè (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 Cabrè, 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 form 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 Schlamann-Oldenbourg *Illustrierte Technische Woerterbucher*\(^{43}\), 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 Sciences\(^{44}\); 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

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\(^{43}\) 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 (Cabré, 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Lexicography</th>
<th>Terminography</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approach</td>
<td>descriptive</td>
<td>prescriptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working method</td>
<td>semasiological</td>
<td>onomasiological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ordering</td>
<td>alphabetical</td>
<td>systematic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Side of the linguistic sign</td>
<td>oriented at language</td>
<td>concept-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Users</td>
<td>oriented at non-specialists</td>
<td>specialist-oriented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User needs</td>
<td>decoding</td>
<td>encoding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach to regulation</td>
<td>synonymy and polysemy</td>
<td>precision and univocity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 prescriptive 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 prescriptive 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:

\[
\text{LSP} - \text{subject-specific terminology} = \text{remaining text (RT)}
\]

\[
\text{RT} = \text{basic terms} + \text{non-basic terms}
\]

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’ 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 (Cabré, 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 (Cabré, 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
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 (Cabré, 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\textsuperscript{47} concerns horse ownership and riding, while Hipparchikos\textsuperscript{48} describes the functioning of cavalry (Edwards, 1996; Encyclopedia Britannica, n.d.; Gürtler and Sternthal,

\textsuperscript{47} On horsemanship
\textsuperscript{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 Guénière (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'Équitation49 (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).

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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.). Thought 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 (Adameczyk and Jarmula, 2001a, 2001b; Jarmula 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/thoroughness (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.

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. *łopatą 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:

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term source</th>
<th>Diggle</th>
<th>USDF</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of included terms</td>
<td>561</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>653</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammatical structure of the final term set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Diggle</th>
<th>USDF</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nouns (N)</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>254 (38.90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrases (NP)</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>242 (37.06%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives (A)</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>89 (13.63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective phrases (AP)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20 (3.06%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional phrases (PP)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23 (3.52%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs (V)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13 (2.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb phrases (VP)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8 (1.22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbs (ADV)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3 (0.46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numerical phrases (NUP)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.15%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language structure of the final term set

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign terms</td>
<td>50 (French – 38, German – 6, Italian – 4, Portuguese – 2)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Word structure of the final term set

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Words in total</td>
<td>1095</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words per term – average</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-word terms</td>
<td>354 (54.21%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-word terms</td>
<td>202 (30.93%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-word terms</td>
<td>62 (9.50%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-word terms</td>
<td>26 (3.98%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-word terms</td>
<td>7 (1.07%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-word terms</td>
<td>2 (0.31%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Characterization of the Polish term set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term source</th>
<th>Radtke</th>
<th>Baranowski</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of included terms</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>501</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Grammatical structure of the final term set

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Radtke</th>
<th>Baranowski</th>
<th>Overall</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nouns (N)</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>196 (25.62%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrases (NP)</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>293</td>
<td>441 (57.65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs (V)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30 (3.92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb phrases (VP)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>54 (7.06%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectives (A)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>16 (2.09%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective phrases (AP)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10 (1.31%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional phrases (PP)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17 (2.22%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Numerical phrases (NUP)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.13%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Language structure of the final term set

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Foreign terms</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (French)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Word structure of the final term set

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Words in total</td>
<td>1589</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words per term – average</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-word terms</td>
<td>238 (31.11%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-word terms</td>
<td>324 (42.35%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-word terms</td>
<td>131 (17.12%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-word terms</td>
<td>58 (7.58%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-word terms</td>
<td>7 (0.91%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-word terms</td>
<td>6 (0.78%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-word terms</td>
<td>1 (0.13%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Concept</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Inflection in the term set</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WODZA (N)</td>
<td>rein</td>
<td>wodza (N)</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAZDA (N)</td>
<td>ride</td>
<td>dojezd, jazda, jezdność, jeździec, jeździeckost, podjezd, ujeżdżacz, ujeżdżalnia, wjeżdżanie, wyjeżdżanie (N); jechać, jeździć, podjeżdzać, ujeżdżać (V); jeździecki, ujeżdżeniowy, ujeżdżony (A)</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALOP (N)</td>
<td>canter</td>
<td>galop (N); galopować (V)</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOGA (N)</td>
<td>leg</td>
<td>noga (N)</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KON (N)</td>
<td>horse</td>
<td>koń, koniarz, koniuszy (N)</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STAWIAĆ (V)</td>
<td>position</td>
<td>postawa, postawienie, przestawienie, staw, stawianie, ustawienie (N); podstawić, stawać, ustawić (V); podstawowy, przeciwsławny (A)</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŁYDKA (N)</td>
<td>calf</td>
<td>łydka (N)</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEP (N)</td>
<td>walk</td>
<td>step, ustawianie (N)</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SZKOLIC (V)</td>
<td>school</td>
<td>szkolenie, szkoła (N); szkolny (A)</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KLUS (N)</td>
<td>trot</td>
<td>kłus (N); kłusować (V)</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZMIANA (N)</td>
<td>change</td>
<td>zmiana (N); zmieniać (V)</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIAD (N)</td>
<td>seat</td>
<td>dosiad, dosiadanie, pólsiad, siad, zsiadanie (N); wsiadać, zsiadać (V); podstawić, stawać, ustawić (V); podstawowy, przeciwsławny (A)</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PYSK (N)</td>
<td>horse’s mouth</td>
<td>pysk (N)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RĘKA (N)</td>
<td>hand</td>
<td>ręka (N); oburącz (ADV)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZAD (N)</td>
<td>croup</td>
<td>zad (N); zadni (A)</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRZYMAĆ (V)</td>
<td>hold</td>
<td>podtrzymujący, powstrzymujący, wstrzymujący, podtrzymujący (A); trzymanie, zatrzymanie (N); zatrzymać (V)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WNĘTRZE (N)</td>
<td>inside</td>
<td>wewnętrzny, zewnętrzny (A); wewntrz, zewntrz (ADV)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRZÓD (N)</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>naprzód (ADV); przedni (A); przód (N)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUCH (N)</td>
<td>movement</td>
<td>oderch, ruch (N); ruchliwy (A); ruszać (V)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZBIERAC (V)</td>
<td>collect</td>
<td>zbierający, zebrany (A); zebrac (V); zebranie (N)</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GLOWA (N)</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>głowa, oglowie (N); głowny (A)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POMOC (N)</td>
<td>aid</td>
<td>pomoc, pomocnik (N)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SKOK (N)</td>
<td>jump</td>
<td>podskok, skakanie, skoczek, skok (N); skokowy (A)</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GRZBIT (N)</td>
<td>back</td>
<td>grzbiet (N)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZGINAC (V)</td>
<td>bend</td>
<td>zgięcie (N)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CIĄGNAC (V)</td>
<td>pull</td>
<td>ciąg, podciągnięcie, pólciąg (N); ciągnąć (V); wyciągnięty (A)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROWADZIĆ (V)</td>
<td>lead</td>
<td>prowadzący (A); prowadzenie (N); prowadzić (V)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPERAMENT (N)</td>
<td>temperament</td>
<td>temperament (N)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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, łydka, siad, pomoc). However, attention is also paid to the horse’s gaits (step, kłus, 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 łydka) 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.

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

Table 13. Structure and size of the Polish corpus.

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

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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Absent terms</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>abduction, action, addiction, allures, AMPLITUDE, appui/appuy, arrest/arret, balancé, ballotade, bandage, bradoon/bridoon, bridling, brushing, Chambon, chambrière, CLARITY, courbette, croupade, DEFINITION, dishing, DISSOCIATION, dress, dresseur, durchlässigkeit, écuyer, embouchure, equestrian, equestrienne, galop, giravolta, glove, habit, hackamore, headshaker, horsemastership, insterburger, interfering, lacing, levade, leverage [of bit], manège, mézair, mouthing, nearside, numnah, offside, pace [=amble], pace [=step], parade, pesade, plaïting, port, ramener, rassembler, redopp/redoppe/redoppio, ROUNDNESS [of gaits], rowel, saddlery, schaukel, SCOPE, seesaw, shankmover, shoeing, stud, ticklishness, TRAJECTORY, traverse [=full pass], traverse [=side-stepping], triangulation, tride, uberstreichen, vice, volte [a two-track movement], winging</td>
<td>74/254 (29.13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>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, de Gogue, demi-pirouette, demi-volte, descente d’encolure, descente de jambes, descente de main, descente de main et de jambes, DIAGONAL ADVANCED PLACEMENT – DAP, DIAGONAL DISSOCIATION, direct elevation, direct flexion, direct rein, direct rein of opposition, doux passage, dressage whip, dry mouth, false canter, false extension, feeling the hair, first position, fork seat, full bridle, gait variant, good hand, grand passage, grinding teeth, half-parade, half-volte, high air, hovering trot, lateral aid, l’effet d’ensemble, leading leg, leaning on the wall, left diagonal, low air, made mouth, mise en main, mouth open, natural aid, neck-rein, nose-diving, one-time change, open rein, PASSAGE-LIKE TROT, passagey trot, petit galop, POPPED SHOULDER, positive diagonal advance placement – PDAP, preparatory aid, progressive transition, quarters leading, quarters not engaged, quarters trailing, relative elevation, remonte des dents, 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, terre-à-terre, tongue fault, tongue strap, turn on the centre, un pas un saut, uneven lateral development, uneven steps, unsteady contact, unsteady halt, warning aid, wrong bend, yielding hand</td>
<td>112/242 (46.28%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>bilateral, broke, carted, CONSTRAINED, DEFINED, disunited, earthbound, écouteré, extravgant, HASTY, inactive, insubordinate, ipsilateral, level, OUTER, OVER-TURNED, passagé, proppy, RAPID, rounding, sour, unilateral, united, unlevel, wandering</td>
<td>25/89 (28.09%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>croup-high, deep and round, four-time, going short, low and round, three-time, two-time</td>
<td>7/20 (35.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>a la brida, a la gineta, on his toes</td>
<td>3/23 (13.04%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>dresser, OVERSTEP, ride in, stumble, work in</td>
<td>5/13 (38.46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUP</td>
<td>three in one</td>
<td>1/1 (100.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>227/653 (34.76%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Table 15.** English terms absent from the EWS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Absent terms</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>abduction, adduction, allures, amble, AMPLITUDE, appui/appuy, arrest/arret, backing, balance, ballotade, bandage, bradon/bridoon, brushing, capriole, chambrière, CLARITY, courbette, croupade, DEFINITION, dishing, DISSOCIATION, diving, dresseur, durchlässigkeit, élèves, embouchure, equestrian, equestrienne, figure, forgant, galop, giravolta, going [=footing], habit, horsemanship, insterberger, interfering, facing, losgelassenheit, manège, mézair, mouthing, napping, nearside, nodding, nummuh, outline, overtracking, pace [=amble], pace [=gait], pace [=step], pacing, parade, passeade, pillar, pivoting, plaiting, port, ramener, rassembler, redopp/redoppe/redoppes/redoppi, renvers, rowel, ROUNDEDNESS [of gaits], ROUNDNESS [of topline], saddlery, schaukel, school [=arena], schwung, scope, shankmover, shoeing, SNATCHING [of hind legs], SNATCHING [of bit], stud, suspension, tickliness, TILTING, TRAJECTORY, travers, traverse [=full pass], traverse [=side-stepping], triangulation, tride, uberstreichen, vice, volte [=a one-track circle], volte [=a two-track movement], winging, zigzag</td>
<td>91/254 (35.83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>acting hand, active elevation, air above the ground, artificial gait, auxiliary rein, bit guard, body armouring, BPM, bradon 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, de Gogue, demi-pirouette, demi-volte, descente d’encolure, descente de jambes, descente de main, descente de main et de jambes, DIAGONAL ADVANCED PLACEMENT – DAP, DIAGONAL DISSOCIATION, direct elevation, direct flexion, direct rein of opposition, direct transition, doux passage, 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, grand passage, half-parade, half-pirouette, half-volte, haunches out, haute école, 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, l’effet d’ensemble, left diagonal, lengthened stride, long-reining, loose seat, low air, made mouth, mise en main, MPM, nose-diving, one-time change, pas de deux, PASSAGE-LIKE TROT, passageway trot, passive hand, petit galop, POPPED SHOULDER, positive diagonal advance placement – PDAP, preparatory aid, progressive transition, quarters in, quarters leading, quarters out, quarters trailing, rein effect, relative elevation, remontee des dents, restraining aid, reversed piroette, 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, supraspious ligament, sustaining hand, tail carriage, tempi change, tendon boot, terre-à-terre, three-quarter line, tongue fault, tongue strap, turn on the centre, un pas un saut, uneven lateral development, uneven steps, unsteady hand, unsteady head, warning aid, work in-hand, wrong bend, wrong lead, yielding hand</td>
<td>151/242 (62.40%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>bilateral, broke, carted, clean, CLEAR, concave, convex, cramped, DEFINED, disunited, earthbound, écoulé, equestrian, extravagant, HASTY, HURRIED, hurrying, inactive, inattentive, INNER, insubordinate, ipsilateral, overcollected, OVERFLExED, OVERTURNED, passage, perched, proppy, running, spinning, STUCK, UNEVEN, unilateral, united, wandering</td>
<td>35/89 (39.33%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>15/20 (75.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>a la brida, a la gineta, 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</td>
<td>11/23 (47.83%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>dress, dresser, fall into, OVERSTEP, OVERSTRIde, ride in, work in</td>
<td>7/13 (53.85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>change the rein, go large</td>
<td>2/8 (25.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUP</td>
<td>three in one</td>
<td>1/1 (100.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>313/653 (47.93%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 16. Polish terms absent from the POS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Absent terms</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>balotada, banda, BERAJTER, czambon, ćwierćwółta, “DEMI-ARRÊT”, DOJEZDEK,</td>
<td>45/196 (23.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DRÓŻKA, EKWJER, EKWITACJA, FORMA, GANASZOWANIE, “GWIADZY”, jezdniość,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KANER, KAWALKATOR, KONDYCJA, “KONTRWODZA”, KONTRZMIANA, KORA, krupada,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kurbeta, LANSADA, “LUZY”, MEZER, nadpęcie, naroźnik, NAWROT, PARAPET,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pezada, PIANA, pilar, pilność, pochwała, PODSKOK, PÓŁCIĄG, REDOP, REFEK</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LEKS, “SAKADA”, TROCZNI, UCZENNICZA, WAŻ, “VIBRACJA”, wydech, ZAPRAWA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>AKCJA PHAŁAJĄCA ZADU, AMAZONKA CYRKOWA, BARANI SKOK, CAŁKOWITY WYKROK</td>
<td>263/441 (59.64%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>W STĘPIEŃ, CIĄG PO PRZEKĄTNIEJ, ĆWICZENIE NA DŁUŻCH WODZACH, ĆWICZENIE W</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PILARACH, ĆWICZENIE W RĘKU, ĆWICZENIE W SŁUPKACH, DOBRY STAN, dodanie w</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>galopie, dodanie w kłusie, DODIAT FOTELOWY, dosiad niepoprawny, DOSIAD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NORMALNY, dosiad skrętny, DOSIAD SPORTOWY, DOSIAD SZKOLNY, dosiad</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ujeżdżeniowy, DOSIAD WIDŁOWY, DZIALENIE ŁYDEK OBUSTRONNE I JEDNOCZESNE,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>DZIALAJ LÝDKY JEDNOSTRONNE, DZIALENIE LÝDKY PODTRZYMUJACE, dzialanie ręki</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lekkie, dzialanie ręki za mocne, EKWITACJA KLASYCZNA, FIGURA OSIEM, GALOP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ĆWICZENNY, galop do tylu, GALOP NA KRZYŻ, galop na trzech nogach, GALOP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NIEPRAWIDŁOWY, GALOP NORMALNY, GALOP “OSTRY”, GALOP “RÓWNY”, GALOP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SZKOLNY, GALOP “TRIAL”, GALOP UŻYTKOWY, galop w trasersie, GALOP Z</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FALSZYWEJ NOGI, GŁOWA DO ŚCIANY, GRA NÓG, GRA WODZY, GRZBIET BIERNY,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GRZBIET CZYNNY, grzbięt długi, GRZBIET NAPRZĘŻONY, GRZBIET ROZPRĘŻONY,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JAZDA POŁOWA, JAZDA SPACEROWA, JAZDA SZKOLENIOWA, JAZDA WYŻSZĄ SZKOLĄ,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JEŹDZIEC CYRKOWY, JEŹDZIEC DZİENTELMEN, JEŹDZIEC KAWALKATOR, JEŹDZIEC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SZKOLNY, JEŹDZIEC WYTRAWNY, JEŹDZIEC ZAWODOWY, JEŹDZIEC ZNAKOMITY, KAPITAN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EKIPI, KLASA JEŹDZCA, KLASYCZNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, kląskanie językiem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kłusz hispański, KLUS PODRÓŻNY, KLUS Szeroki, KLUS SZKOLNY, KLUS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UŻYTKOWY, kolejność kroków, KONIUSZY NADWORNY, KONIUSZY WIELKI, KOŃ</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WYŻSZE SZKOLY JAZDY, KORA W KRUCHACH, krok z fazą zawieszenia, KURBETA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KLASYCZNA, ŁOPATĄ DO WEWNĄTRZ, łopatą do przodu, ŁYDKA BIERNĄ, ŁYDKA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>CZYNNA, MIŁOŚNIK KONI, MLĄSKANIE JEŹYKIEM, MLODSZY KAWALKATOR, MOMENT</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRZECIWDZIALNY, MOMENT WYKRÓCNÝ, nachranki angielski, nachranki hanowerski,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NAPÓR PRZESADNY, NAPROSTOWAKO KRĘGOSŁUPA, naturalne skrzywienie,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NEOKLASYCZNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOGA PODPOROWA, NOGA WYKRÓCNÄ,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NORMALNA ZMIANA NOGI W GALOPIE, NORMALNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOWOCZESNY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, OBCIĄŻANIE przedniej nogi, ODANIE WODZY NA KONTAKTE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Z PSYKIEM, oglowie wędzidłowe, OŚ GŁOWA, OŚ PODŁUŻNA KONIA, pas do łonżowania,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PCHNIEŃ OŚ TROGZI, pchnięcie zadniej nogi, piaść do tylu, piaść w miejscu,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>piersziehung wędzida, PIURET OWDROCONY, piuret w galopie, piuret w stępie,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PIURET ZWYKLANY, PODEŚCIERZ JĘZYKA, PODNIESIENIE GŁOWY, PODNIESIENIE Szyi,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>POMOC PRZECIWLEGŁE, POMOC RÓWNOLEGŁE, POMOCNIK INSTRUKTORA KONNEJ JAZDY,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>POSTAWA DOWOLNA, POSTAWA NA WODZACH, POSTAWA NA WODZACH ODDANYCH,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>POSTAWA SWOBODNA, POSTAWA W WODZACH, postawienie absolutne, postawienie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>relatywnie, PÓŁOBÓR DT TYL, PÓŁZWROT DT TYL, PÓŁZWROT ZADEM DT TYL, praca</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nad zgiechem, przejmowanie ciezą, punkt przejścia, PSYP CZULY, PSYP MIĘKKI,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PSYP NIECZULY, PSYP NIESPOKONY, PSYP NIEWRAŻLIWY, PSYP PRZEMIENNY, PSYP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RUCHLIWY, PSYP SUROWY, PSYP ŚWIEŻY, PSYP WRAŻLIWY, PSYP ZBYT RUCHŁY, PSYP</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZBYT WRAŻLIWY, PSYP ZESZPETY, ręka niespokojna, RĘKA STAECZNA, RYTM</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MIAROWY, SKOCZEK SZKOLNY, skok szkolny, SKRZYWIEŃ OSI GŁOWIWE, skrzywienie</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>w potylicy, SPORT HIPICZNY, SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, sprężynowanie zadem, STAN</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZAPRAWY, STAROFRANCUSKI SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, STARSZY KAWALKATOR, STARSZY</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>KAWALKATOR SZEF, STĘP NA DWOCH SŁADACH, STĘP NA KONTAKTIE, STĘP NA WODZACH,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>STĘP W WODZACH, STOSOWANIE WODZY, stroma łopatka, STYCZNOŚĆ WSTĘPNA, STYL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>JEŹDZCA, swoboda w ganaszach, system dźwigni, SZEF EKIPIE, SZEF EWITACJA,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SZEF SZKOLENIA, SZKOŁA PODSTAWOWA, SZKOŁA POŁOWA, SZTUKA JEŹDZCA,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>nieposłuszny, nieujężdżony, &quot;obramowany&quot;, przeganiaszowany, sprężony, uparty, wyczerpany</td>
<td>7/16 (43.75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>bardzo czuły na łydkę, łatwy do prowadzenia, łatwy w prowadzeniu, miękki w pysku, nieczuły na łydkę, nie odchodzący od koni, nie odchodzący od przedmiotów, chowany za wodze</td>
<td>8/10 (80.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>bez łączności, bez styczności, nad wodzami, na łączność, na wodzach zebranych, o dobrych manierach, &quot;pod górę&quot;, po wolcie na wprost, przed lydkami, przed wodzami, w lydkach, w ręku, w tył zwrot, w wodzach zebranych, za lydkami</td>
<td>15/17 (88.24%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>bic, budzić, dodać, kąsać, kopać, osadzić, podbiegać, podjeżdżać, przestraszyć się, rozbiegać się, spłoszyć się, trawersować, &quot;tuszować&quot;, uderzyć, zsiadać</td>
<td>15/30 (50.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>brać na kiel, chwytać czanki, chwytać zęby, dodać tempo, drobić w stępie, jeździć &quot;po damsku&quot;, jeździć na oklep, jeździć po męsku, jeździć w damska siodło, kłusować na lewej przekątnej, klusować na prawej przekątnej, leżeć na wodzach, nerwowo ruszać ogonem, oddać łydkę, osadzić na zadzie, prowadzić na munsztuku, prowadzić na samym munsztuku, przejść w galop, przerwać działanie łydk, ruszyć z miejsca, stawać deba, wydłużyć wodze, wyrwać wodze, wyrwać wodze z ręki, wyrzucać język, zagalołować z lewej nogi, zgrzytać zębyami, zmienić ręce, zrókować zad, zwolnić tempo</td>
<td>30/54 (55.55%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUP</td>
<td>trzy czwarte piruetu</td>
<td>1/1 (100.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>384/765 (50.20%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of speech</td>
<td>Absent terms</td>
<td>Number/Part of speech total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>AMAZONKA, czambon, &quot;DEMI-ARRÊT&quot;, DOJEZDEK, DRÓŻKA, EKWJER, EKWITACJA, &quot;GWIADZY&quot;, KANTER, KARNOSĆ, KAWALKATOR, &quot;KONTRWODZA&quot;, KONTRZMIANA, KORA, LANSADA, &quot;LUZY&quot;, MANEŻ, MEZER, MUR, PARAPET, PIANA, PODJEZDEK, PODSKOK, POŁOŻENIE, PÓŁCIAΓ, REDOP, REFLEX, ROTMISTRZ, ROZMACH, &quot;SAKADA&quot;, SIAD, TROCINY, UCZENNICA, UEJDŻACZ, WĄZ, &quot;WIBRACJA&quot;, ZAPRAWA</td>
<td>37/196 (18.88%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>AMAZONKA CYRKOWA, ASYMETRIA OSI GŁÓWNEJ, BARANI SKOK, CAŁKOWITY WYKROK W STEpie, ĆWICZENIE NA DŁUGICH WODZACH, ĆWICZENIE W SŁUΓKACH, DOBRY STAN, DOSIAD FOTELOWY, DOSIAD NIEPOPRAWNY, DOSIAD NORMALNY, DOSIAD SPORTOWY, DOSIAD SZKOLNY, DOSIAD SZYWNY, DOSIAD WIDLOWY, DZIAŁANIE LYDEK OBUSTRONNE I JEDNOCZESNE, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI JEDNOSTRONNE, DZIAŁANIE ŁYDKI PODTRZYMUJACE, dziaΓanie ręki lekkie, EKWITACJA KLASYCZNA, FAŁSZOWANIE W GALOPIE, FIGURA OSIEM, GALOP ĆWICZENNY, galop do tyłu, GALOP NA KRZYŻ, galop na trzech nogach, GALOP NIEPRAWIDLOWY, GALOP &quot;OSTRY&quot;, GALOP &quot;RÓWNY&quot;, GALOP SZKOLNY, GALOP &quot;TRIAL&quot;, GALOP UŻYTKOWY, GALOP Z FALSZYWEJ NOIΓ, GALOP Z WŁAŚCIWEJ NOIΓ, GŁOWA DO STYwel, GRA NÓΓ, GRA WODZY, GRZBIET BIERNY, GRZBIET CZYNNY, grzbiet fałszujący, GRZBIET NAPRĘZONY, GRZBIET ROZRÓŻNY, INSUSTRUKTOR KONNEJ JAZDY, JAZDA PODSTAWOWA, JAZDA POŁOWA, JAZDA SPACEROWA, JAZDA SZKOLENIOWA, JAZDA TERENOWA, JAZDA WYŻSzą SZKOLą, JEJZDIEC CYRKOWY, JEJZDIEC DZENTLEMEN, JEJZDIEC KAWALKATOR, JEJZDIEC POCZĄTKUJąCY, JEJZDIEC SZKOLNY, JEJZDIEC WYŚZKOLONY, JEJZDIEC WYTRAWNY, JEJZDIEC ZAAWANSOWANY, JEJZDIEC ZAWODY, JEJZDIEC ZNAKOMITY, KAPITAN EKIPY, KLASA JĘZDZCA, KLASYCZNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, KLUS NORMALNY, KLUS PODRÓZNY, KLUS SZEWOΛI, KLUS SZKOLNY, KLUS UŻYTKOWY, KLUS W MIEJSCU, KON WYŻSzej SZKOΛY JAZDY, KONIUSZY NADOWorny, KONIUSZY PRZEBOCZNY, KONIUSZY WIELKI, KORA W KRUCHAC, KURBETA KLASYCZNA, LEEKOŚĆ W REKU, ŁOPΑTO D UVENATRZ, LUŹNIEŃIE SZECEL, ŁYDKA BIERNĄ, ŁYDKA CZYNNĄ, MILOŚNIK KONI, MLASANIE JĘZYKIEM, MŁODŚCY KAWALKATOR, MOMENT PRZECYŁOWY, MOMENT WYKROCZNy, nachrąpnik angielski, nachrąpnik hanowerski, NAPÒR PRZESADNY, NAPROSTOWANIE KREGOSŁUPE, NEOKLASYCZNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOGA PODPOROWA, NORMALNA ZMIANA NOIΓ W GALOPIE, NORMALNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, NOWOCZESNY SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, ODWZÓR WODZY NA KONTAKCIE Z PSKIEΜ, ogłowie wędzidłowe, OŚ GŁÓWNA KONIA, pas do lonoΨowania, PCHNIE Tears 0STRóΓI, PIURUT ODWROČNY, piurut w stępie, PIURUT ZWYKŁY, PODCIĄGANIE JĘZYKA, PÒŁOBROΤ W TYL, PÓŁZWÓR W TYL, PÒŁZWÓR ZADEM W TYL, POMOC PRZECIWLEGLE, POMOC PRÓWNOLEGLE, POMOCNIK INSTRUKTORA KONNEJ JAZDY, POSTAWA DOWOLNA, POSTAWA NA WODZACH, POSTAWA NA WODZACH ADDANCY, POSTAWA SWOBODNĂ, POSTAWA W WODZACH, PSK CZUŁY, PSK NIECZUŁY, PSK NIESPOKOJNY, PSK NIEWRAZLIWY, PSK PRZYJEMNY, PSK RUCHLIWY, PSK SUROWY, PSK ŚWIWE, PSK WILGOTNY, PSK WRAZLIWY, PSK ZBYΤ RUCHLIWY, PSK ZBYΤ WRAZLIWY, PSK ZEPSUTY, PSK ZBYΤ WRAZLIWY, PSK ZBYΤ WRAZLIWY, PSK ZEPSUTY, PSK ZBYΤ WRAZLIWY, POŚCIE, USTANOΛNI OSI ŚWIWEJ, SPORT HIPICZNY, SPORT JEJZDIECKI, SPORT KONNY, STAN ZAPRAWY, STANIE W MIEJSCU, STARIOFRANCUSKI SPOŚÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, STARSZY KAWALKATOR, STARSZY KAWALKATOR SZEΦ, SΤEG NA WODZACH, STĘP NA WODZACH RZUCONYCH, STĘP PO DWÓCH ŚLADACH, STĘP SZKOLNY, STĘP NA WODZACH, STOSOWANIE WODZY, STRONA WKLĘŚLA, STRONA WYPUKŁA, STYCZNOŚĆ WSTĘPNA, STYΦ JEJZDZCA, swoboda w ganaszach, SŒF EKIPY, SŒF EKWITACJI, SŒF SZKOΛENIA, SZKOΛA PODSTAWOWA, SZKOŁA POΛOWA, SZTUΚA JEJZDCA, sztywna łopatka, TAKT JEJZDIECKI, TALENT JEJZDIECKI, TECHNIKA JEJZDZCA, TEMPERAMENT DZIELNY, TEMPERAMENT ENEΡICZNY, TEMPERAMENT FLEGMATYCZNY, TEMPERAMENT GORĄCY, TEMPERAMENT ŁAGODNY, TEMPERAMENT LENIWE, TEMPERAMENT PŁOCHLIWY, TEMPERAMENT SPOKOJNY, TEMPERAMENT TRUDNY, UEJDŻALNIA KRYTA, UEJDŻALNIA OTWARTA, ukąsowanie łopatki, USTAWIENIE KONIA NA KRZYWEJ, USTAWIENIE KONIA NA WPROST, USTAWIENIE KONIA W ZGIECIU,</td>
<td>231/441 (52.38%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wzór i opis</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>AP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USTĘPOWANIE CIĄGiem, USTĘPOWANIE ŁOPATką do WewnąTRZ, USTĘPOWANIE LYDCE, USTĘPOWANIE NÓG, USTĘPOWANIE ZADEM do WewnąTRZ, UZDOLNIENIE JEŻDZIECKIE, WODZA &quot;PRZECIWSTAWNA POŚREDNia&quot; UŻyTA PRZED KŁEBEM, WODZA &quot;PRZECIWSTAWNA POŚREDNia&quot; UŻyTA za KŁEBEM, WODZA BIERNa, WODZA CZYNNa, WODZA IZÓLOWANA, WODZA KIERUNKOWA, WODZA NIECZYNNa, WODZA ODZIEZNa, WODZA OPARTA o Szyję, WODZA POWSTRZYMUJĄCA, WODZA PRZECIWSTAWNA BEZPOŚREDNia, &quot;WODZE BEZ LYDEK, LYDEK BEZ WODZY&quot;, WODZE SPOKOJNE, WODZE STATEczNE, WODZE W JEDNIEJ RĘCE, WOISKOWY SPOSÓB TRZYMANIA WODZY, wolła w trawersie, WPLyw CIEŻARU JEŻDŻECa, WRAZLIWOŚĆ NA POMOCe, WYKROK W KLUSIE, wypadanie w galopie, wyraz oka, WYSoka Szkóła JADY, WYTRZYMUJĄCE DZIAŁANIE WODZY, WYŚsZA Szkóła JADY, 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, ZESPÓL NÓG, ZESPÓL NÓG BOCZNych, ZESPÓL NÓG PRZEKĄTNYch, ZGłęCIE BOCZNé GŁowy, ZGłęCIE BOCZNé SzyI, ZGłęCIE WewnĘTRzNE, ZGłęCIE ZewnĘTRzNE, ZłY STan, ZMIANA KIERUNKU ODWROTNA, ZMIANA KIERUNKU PRZEz Śródek UJEŻDżA, ZMIANA KIERUNKU w KOLE, ZMIANA na KRÓTKIEj ŚCIANie, ZMIANA NOGI NORMaLNA, ZMIANA NOGI w POWIETrzu, ZMIANA RĘKI ODWROTNA, ZWIJANIE JĘZYka, ZWROT na OSI</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NieposłusznY, &quot;oBRAMOWany&quot;, Oporny, PRZEGANASzOWany, SPREŻony, Uparty, WYCzerpanY</td>
<td>7/16 (43.75%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bardzo CzUły na LyDKi, LATwy DO PROwADZENIA, NieczUły na LyDKi, nie oDchodziąCY od KONi, nie oDchodziąCY od PRZEDMIOTów, trUdny DO PROwADZENIA</td>
<td>6/10 (60.00%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bez styczNOŚci, na ŁĄczNOŚCI, na ŁĄczNOŚć, na WODZACH ZEBRanych, na WODZAMI, o DObrYCH MANiERACH, Po WoLCie na WPoRSTE, PRZED WODZAMI, w ŁYDKACH, w TyL zWROT, w WODZACH ZEBRanych, za ŁYDKaMI</td>
<td>12/17 (70.59%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUDZiC, GRYŻĆ, KąSAĆ, OSADZiC, PODBiEGAĆ, PODJEŻDżAĆ, PRZESTRASZyĆ Się, ROzBiEGAĆ Się, TRAWarSOwAĆ, &quot;tUSzOWAĆ&quot;, WIERZGAć</td>
<td>11/30 (36.67%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brać na KIEL, CHWYCić WODZE, CHWYTać CZANKi, CHWYTać zĘBami, DODAć TEMPO, DOTAykAC PaLCATeM, DROBiC w STępiE, JEŻDżiC &quot;Po DAMSKU&quot;, JEŻDżiC Po MęSkU, JEŻDżiC w DAMSKIM SiodLe, KŁUsOwAć na LEWEj NODZe, KŁUsOwAć na LEWEj PRZEKĄTNEj, KŁUsOwAć na PAWEJ NODZe, KŁUsOwAć na PAWEj PRZEKĄTNEj, LEŻeĆ w WODZACH, NErwowo RUSzAĆ OGONeM, ODDAć LyDKi, OSADZiC na ZAdZe, PROwADZiC na MuNSzTUkU, PROwADZiC na SAmY MuNSzTUkU, PROwADZiC oBURaCZ, PRZEKŁADaĆ JęZYk na KIELNO, PRZEwRAwAć DZiALANie LYDKi, ROZDziEliC WODZE, WYRÓwNAć WODZE, WYRyWAć WODZę z RĘKI, WYRyWAć WODZE, WYRZUCAć JęZYk, ZGRyTAć zĘBami, ZMiENiC CHÓD, ZMiENiC NOGe, ZMiENiC RĘKę, ZRÓwNOWAŻYĆ ZAD</td>
<td>33/54 (61.11%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>337/765 (44.05%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 18. English terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 12 instances) in the ECS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Terms below the NFR</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>age, amble, backing, BASICS, biomechanics, BOBBING, cadence, capriole, carriage, cavaletto, CORRECTNESS, depart, disobedience, distraction, diving, dragging, equilibrium, equitation, fatigue, footing, forging, going [=footing], jogging, leverage [of rider], locomotion, martingale, MOBILITY, napping, nodding, noseband, outline, OVERRACING, overtracking, pace [=speed], pacing, passade, pillar, pivot, PIVOTING, quarters, rearing, ROUNDNESS [of topline], schwing, shy, size, snaffle, SNATCHING [of the bit], SNATCHING [of hind legs], stubbornness, tack, temperament, throughness, TILTING, timidity, zigzag</td>
<td>55/254 (21.65%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>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, free walk on a long rein, full halt, full pass, good mouth, gymnastic training, haunches out, haute école, 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, nuchal apparatus, opening rein, opposite rein, outside track, pas de deux, 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, stroking the horse’s neck, 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</td>
<td>90/241 (37.34%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>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, resistant, running, RUSHED, slack, spinning, spooking, STUCK, trailing,UNEVEN</td>
<td>34/89 (38.20%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>13/20 (65.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV</td>
<td>INWARDS, OUTWARDS</td>
<td>2/3 (66.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>14/23 (60.87%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>dress, fall, fall apart, fall in, fall into, OVERSTRIDE</td>
<td>6/13 (46.15%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>break gait, change the rein, cut corners, go large, move away from the leg, move off the leg</td>
<td>6/8 (75.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>220/653 (33.69%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 19. English terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 11 instances) in the EWS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Terms below the NFR</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>accuracy, action, blocking, BOBBING, bridling, cavaletto, 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, stiffness, stubbornness, submission, temperament, tempo, throughness, thrust, timidity, topline</td>
<td>63/254 (24.80%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>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 forehead, turn on the haunches, use of voice, way of going, weight aid</td>
<td>69/241 (28.63%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>abrupt, baroque, BLOCKED, classical, CONNECTED, CONSTRAINED, ‘downhill’, flapping, flat, floating, fresh, gripping, irregular, LATE, lazy, level, longitudinal, MARCHING, medium, novice, obedient, OUTER, overbent, perpendicular, RAPID, regular, resistant, rounding, RUSHED, sour, trailing, unbalanced, unlevel, uphill, working</td>
<td>36/89 (40.45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>hollow-backed, leaning in, one-sided, STRUNG OUT, two-track</td>
<td>5/20 (25.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV</td>
<td>inwards, outwards</td>
<td>2/3 (66.66%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>10/23 (43.48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>fall, fall apart, stumble</td>
<td>3/13 (23.08%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>break gait, cut corners, give and re-take the reins</td>
<td>3/8 (37.50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>191/653 (29.25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Part of speech</td>
<td>Terms below the NFR</td>
<td>Number/Part of speech total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>AMATOR, anatomia, efektowność, Głaskanie, kapriola, KARNOŚĆ, kawecan, kielzno, krog, lewada, MANEŻ, MUR, NAWIERZCHNIA, PARA, parskanie, PIASEK, PODJEZDEK, pomocnik, przemoc, ROTMISTRZ, ROZMACH, SERPENTYNA, smakołyk, STÓJ, ŚRODEK, temperament, UJEŻDŻACZ, wypinacz</td>
<td>28/196 (14.29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>ASYMETRIA OSI GŁÓWNE, ciąg w galopie, DOSIAD MięKKIEJ, DOSIAD POPRAWNY, DOSIAD SZTYWNY, działanie łydką aktywizującą, FALSZOWANIE W GALOPIE, galop pośredni, galop roboczy, GALOP SKRÓCONY, galop w miejscu, GALOP WYCIĄGNIĘTY, GALOP Z WEWNĘTRZNEJ NOGI, grzbiet falujący, GRZBIET SZTYWNY, GRZBIET WKLĘSŁY, JAZDA PODSTAWOWA, jazda po łuku, JAZDA TERENOWA, jeździec rekreacyjny, JEŹDZIEC WYCIĄGNIĘTY, JEŹDZIEC WYSZKÓLONY, JEŹDZIEC ZAAWANSOWANY, klus anglezowany, klus pośredni, klus roboczy, klus skrócony, KLUS W MIEJSCU, KLUS WYSIADYWANY, kolejność stawiania nóg, koń rekreacyjny, kulawizna wędzidłowa, L EkKOŚć W RĘKU, ŁUŻNIENie SzcZĘKI, łydka aktywizująca, łydka przesuwająca, obciążenie zadu, obniżenie biodra, podnoszenie przedniej nogi, pomoc aktywizująca, POMOC DODATKOWA, POMOC JEDNOSTRONNE, pomoc wstrzymująca, PRACA NA DWÓCH ŚLADAch, praca w ręku, przejęcie ciężaru przez zad, PYSK TWARDY, PYSK WILGOTNY, rzucenie wodzy, SKOK W GALOPIE, skracanie skoków galopu, SPORT JEŹDZIECKI, SPORT KONNY, stop hiszpański, STOP NŁUChOG WODZACH, STOP PO DWÓCH ŚLADAch, stop pośredni, STOP SWOBODNY, STRONA WKŁĘSŁA, STRONA WYPUKŁA, STRONA ZEWNĘTRZNA, SWOBODA W ŁOPATKACH, tułów pochylony, ustawienie wysoko, USTĘPOWANIE ZADEM DO WewnĄTRZ, UZDOLNIENIE JEŹDZIECKIE, WADA BUDOWY, wewnĘTRZNA STRONA OKA, wędzido karkowe, WODZA DWÓCH ŚLADACh, WODZA POWSTRZYMUJĄCA, WODZA RZUCONA, WODZA ZWISAJĄCA, WRAŻLIWOŚĆ NA POMOC, wypadanie łopatką, wypadanie zadem, wyraz oka, wyraz pyska, WYSZKOLENIE PODSTAWOWE, ŻAD DO ŚCIANY, ZADEM W SŁADACH, ZGIECIE GŁOWY, ZGIECIE SYZI W POTYLIcY, ZMIANA KIERUNKU W KOLE, ZNAWCA KONI</td>
<td>86/441 (19.50%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>OPORNY, SUROWY, ŚWIEŻY</td>
<td>3/16 (18.75%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>“ZAMKNIĘTY” W RĘKU I W ŁYDKACH</td>
<td>1/10 (10.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>GRYŻĆ, PONIĘŚĆ, WIERZGAĆ</td>
<td>3/30 (10.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>CHWYCIĆ WODZE, DOTYKAĆ PALCATEM, KŁUSOWAĆ NA LEWEJ NODZE, KŁUSOWAĆ NA PRAWej NODZE, PRZEKŁADAć JĘZYK NA KIELZNO, RZUCĄC LBEm, SZARPAć WODZE, WYRÓWNAĆ WODZE, ZEBRAc WODZE, ZMIENiC KIERUNK, ZMIENiC NOGĘ [change the diagonal in trot]</td>
<td>14/54 (25.93%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>135/765 (17.65%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 21. Polish terms below the NFR of 1/15,000 words (=below 4 instances) in the PTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part of speech</th>
<th>Terms below the NFR</th>
<th>Number/Part of speech total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>AKCJA, AMATOR, balotada, BERAJTER, ćwierćwołta, FORMA, GANASZOWANIE, GLASKANIE, jezdność, język, KONDIJCJA, KONIARZ, KOŃCZYNA, krog, lonżowanie, munsztuk, nadpęcie, NAWIERZCHNIA, nieposłuszeństwo, ODRUCH, PIASEK, pilar, smałyku, tułów, wydech, wypinacz, żąb, żucie</td>
<td>28/196 (14.29%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP</td>
<td>AKCJA PCHAJĄCA ZADU, charakter konia, czarna wodza, dodanie w galopie, dodanie w kłusie, DOSIAD POPRAWNY, galop w miejscu, galop w trawersie, GALOP NORMALNY, GALOP SKRÓCONY, galop w jednej, galop w jednej, GŁASKANIE, język, KONDYCJA, KONIARZ, KOŃCZYNA, krąg, odgałopowanie, munsztuk, nadpęcie, NAÑWIERZCHNIA, nieposłuszeństwo, ODRUCH, PIASEK, pilar, smałyku, tułów, wydech, wypinacz, żąb, żucie</td>
<td>75/441 (17.01%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>NIEUJEŻDŻONY, SUROWY, UJEŻDŻONY, ZMĘCZONY</td>
<td>4/16 (25.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AP</td>
<td>ŁATWY W PROWADZENIU, MIĘKKI W PYSKU, “ZAMKNIĘTY” W RĘKU I W LYDKACH</td>
<td>3/10 (30.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>BEZ ŁĄCZNOŚCI, W RĘKU</td>
<td>2/17 (11.76%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>BIC, DODAĆ, KOPAĆ, PONIEŚĆ, SPŁOSZYĆ SIĘ, UDERZYĆ</td>
<td>6/30 (20.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP</td>
<td>JEŻDŻYC NA OKLEP, NIE PRZYJMUJE WODZY, PRZEJSZ W GALOP, RUSZYĆ Z MIEJSCA, RZUCĄć ŁBEM, STAWAĆ DĘBA, SZARPAĆ WODZE, WSIADAć NA KON, WYDŁUŻYć WODZE, ZAGAŁOPOWAć Z LEWEJ NOG, ZEBRAć WODZE, ZMIENIĆ KIERUNEK, ZWOLNIĆ TEMPO</td>
<td>13/54 (24.07%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUP</td>
<td>trzy czwarte piruetu</td>
<td>1/1 (100.00%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>132/765 (17.25%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 22. The most frequent terms (≥10.00 per 15,000 words) in the English subcorpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>ECS Term</th>
<th>Per 15,000 words</th>
<th>EWS Term</th>
<th>Per 15,000 words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>training (N)</td>
<td>50.18</td>
<td>training (N)</td>
<td>54.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>balance (N)</td>
<td>41.40</td>
<td>rein (N)</td>
<td>44.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>forward (ADV)</td>
<td>37.78</td>
<td>circle (N)</td>
<td>41.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>trot (N)</td>
<td>33.57</td>
<td>forward (ADV)</td>
<td>31.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>hand (N)</td>
<td>31.85</td>
<td>exercise [a training task] (N)</td>
<td>26.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>rein (N)</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>turn (N)</td>
<td>26.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>walk (N)</td>
<td>30.55</td>
<td>hand (N)</td>
<td>25.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>exercise [a training task] (N)</td>
<td>29.95</td>
<td>balance (N)</td>
<td>22.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>dressage (N)</td>
<td>29.78</td>
<td>bit (N)</td>
<td>16.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>outside (A)</td>
<td>28.75</td>
<td>walk (N)</td>
<td>16.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>circle (N)</td>
<td>26.42</td>
<td>dressage (N)</td>
<td>15.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>canter (N)</td>
<td>26.25</td>
<td>rhythm (N)</td>
<td>15.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>movement (N)</td>
<td>24.53</td>
<td>RELEASE (N)</td>
<td>15.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>flexion (N)</td>
<td>23.67</td>
<td>responsiveness (N)</td>
<td>15.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>transition (N)</td>
<td>22.72</td>
<td>STEP (N)</td>
<td>14.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>rhythm (N)</td>
<td>20.74</td>
<td>outside (A)</td>
<td>13.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>bending (N)</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>hindquarters (N)</td>
<td>13.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>STEP (N)</td>
<td>19.28</td>
<td>seat (N)</td>
<td>13.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>seat (N)</td>
<td>18.59</td>
<td>movement (N)</td>
<td>13.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>inside (A)</td>
<td>18.42</td>
<td>inside (A)</td>
<td>13.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>energy (N)</td>
<td>16.87</td>
<td>stride (N)</td>
<td>12.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>half-halt (N)</td>
<td>15.92</td>
<td>trot (N)</td>
<td>12.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>stride (N)</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>speed (N)</td>
<td>11.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>contact (N)</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>arena (N)</td>
<td>11.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>inside leg (NP)</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>bend (N)</td>
<td>13.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>gait (N)</td>
<td>13.77</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>suppleness (N)</td>
<td>13.51</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>collection (N)</td>
<td>13.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>strength (N)</td>
<td>12.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>tempo (N)</td>
<td>12.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>shoulder-in (NP)</td>
<td>12.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>turn (N)</td>
<td>11.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>straightness (N)</td>
<td>10.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>stretching (N)</td>
<td>10.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 23. The most frequent terms (≥10.00 per 15,000 words) in the Polish subcorpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>POS</th>
<th>Per 15,000 words</th>
<th>PTS</th>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Per 15,000 words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>JEŻDZIEC (N)</td>
<td>[rider]</td>
<td>123.51</td>
<td>JĘZDZIEC (N)</td>
<td>[rider]</td>
<td>164.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>RUCH (N)</td>
<td>[movement]</td>
<td>68.74</td>
<td>RUCH (N)</td>
<td>[movement]</td>
<td>57.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>równowaga (N)</td>
<td>[balance]</td>
<td>40.80</td>
<td>NOGA (N)</td>
<td>[leg]</td>
<td>53.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>RĘKA (N)</td>
<td>[hand aid]</td>
<td>38.97</td>
<td>GALOP (N)</td>
<td>[canter]</td>
<td>47.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>POMOC (N)</td>
<td>[aid]</td>
<td>36.76</td>
<td>POMOC (N)</td>
<td>[aid]</td>
<td>46.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>łydra (N)</td>
<td>[leg aid]</td>
<td>35.66</td>
<td>stop (N)</td>
<td>[walk]</td>
<td>38.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>CHÓD (N)</td>
<td>[gait]</td>
<td>35.29</td>
<td>KLUS (N)</td>
<td>[trot]</td>
<td>36.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>wodza (N)</td>
<td>[rein]</td>
<td>35.29</td>
<td>rozluźnienie (N)</td>
<td>[relaxation]</td>
<td>36.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>szty (N)</td>
<td>[neck]</td>
<td>33.08</td>
<td>zad (N)</td>
<td>[haunches]</td>
<td>36.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>zad (N)</td>
<td>[haunches]</td>
<td>31.25</td>
<td>ręka (N)</td>
<td>[hand aid]</td>
<td>33.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>mięśni (N)</td>
<td>[muscle]</td>
<td>26.47</td>
<td>SZKOLENIE JEŹDZIECKIE</td>
<td>(NP)</td>
<td>[equestrian training]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>NOGA (N)</td>
<td>[leg]</td>
<td>26.10</td>
<td>wodza (N)</td>
<td>[rein]</td>
<td>32.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>RTYM (N)</td>
<td>[rhythm]</td>
<td>25.36</td>
<td>zgłębie (N)</td>
<td>[bend]</td>
<td>32.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>rozluźnienie (N)</td>
<td>[relaxation]</td>
<td>24.63</td>
<td>szty (N)</td>
<td>[neck]</td>
<td>32.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>siła (N)</td>
<td>[force]</td>
<td>24.26</td>
<td>JĘCHAC (V)</td>
<td>[ride]</td>
<td>31.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>KLUS (N)</td>
<td>[trot]</td>
<td>23.16</td>
<td>łydra (N)</td>
<td>[leg aid]</td>
<td>31.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>NOGA TYLNA (NP)</td>
<td>[hind leg]</td>
<td>22.79</td>
<td>NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP)</td>
<td>[foreleg]</td>
<td>29.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>głowa (N)</td>
<td>[head]</td>
<td>20.95</td>
<td>zebranie (N)</td>
<td>[collection]</td>
<td>28.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP)</td>
<td>[foreleg]</td>
<td>19.12</td>
<td>koło (N)</td>
<td>[circle]</td>
<td>25.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>galop (N)</td>
<td>[canter]</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>COFANIE (N)</td>
<td>[backing]</td>
<td>24.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>dosiad (N)</td>
<td>[seat]</td>
<td>18.38</td>
<td>kontakt (N)</td>
<td>[contact]</td>
<td>24.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>JĘCHAC (V)</td>
<td>[ride]</td>
<td>18.38</td>
<td>ciężar ciała (NP)</td>
<td>[weight aid]</td>
<td>24.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>pysk (N)</td>
<td>[horse’s mouth]</td>
<td>18.01</td>
<td>przejście (N)</td>
<td>[transition]</td>
<td>23.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>stop (N)</td>
<td>[walk]</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>przesunięcie (N)</td>
<td>[shifting]</td>
<td>23.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>lekkość (N)</td>
<td>[lightness]</td>
<td>15.44</td>
<td>RTYM (N)</td>
<td>[rhythm]</td>
<td>23.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>kontakt (N)</td>
<td>[contact]</td>
<td>15.44</td>
<td>piaff (N)</td>
<td>[piaffe]</td>
<td>22.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>koło (N)</td>
<td>[circle]</td>
<td>15.07</td>
<td>ścian (N)</td>
<td>[arena side]</td>
<td>21.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>IMPULS (N)</td>
<td>[impulsion]</td>
<td>14.70</td>
<td>CHÓD (N)</td>
<td>[gait]</td>
<td>21.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>przesunięcie (N)</td>
<td>[shifting]</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>ustawienie (N)</td>
<td>[position]</td>
<td>19.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>SZKOLENIEJEŹDZIECKIE (NP)</td>
<td>[equestrian training]</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>SLAD (N)</td>
<td>[track]</td>
<td>19.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>zebranie (N)</td>
<td>[collection]</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>IMPULS (N)</td>
<td>[impulsion]</td>
<td>19.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>ustawienie (N)</td>
<td>[position]</td>
<td>13.97</td>
<td>równowaga (N)</td>
<td>[balance]</td>
<td>18.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP)</td>
<td>[position the horse]</td>
<td>13.60</td>
<td>grzbiet (N)</td>
<td>[back]</td>
<td>18.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>grzbiet (N)</td>
<td>[back]</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>NOGA TYLNA (NP)</td>
<td>[hind leg]</td>
<td>18.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>POZYCJA (N)</td>
<td>[position]</td>
<td>12.13</td>
<td>półparada (N)</td>
<td>[half-halt]</td>
<td>18.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>TEMPO (N)</td>
<td>[pace]</td>
<td>12.13</td>
<td>przepuszczalność (N)</td>
<td>[throughness]</td>
<td>17.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>ELASTYCYZY (A)</td>
<td>[elastic]</td>
<td>11.76</td>
<td>przestawienie (N)</td>
<td>[moving to another place]</td>
<td>17.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>uwaga (N)</td>
<td>[attention]</td>
<td>11.40</td>
<td>lotna zmiana nogi w galopie</td>
<td>(NP)</td>
<td>[flying lead change]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>ciężar ciała (NP)</td>
<td>[weight aid]</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>potylica (N)</td>
<td>[poll]</td>
<td>16.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Szybkość (N)</td>
<td>[speed]</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>pysk (N)</td>
<td>[horse’s mouth]</td>
<td>16.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>TRENER (N)</td>
<td>[trainer]</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>ruch do przodu (NP)</td>
<td>[forward movement]</td>
<td>16.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>PROSTY (A)</td>
<td>[straight]</td>
<td>10.66</td>
<td>uwaga (N)</td>
<td>[attention]</td>
<td>15.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>staw (N)</td>
<td>[joint]</td>
<td>10.29</td>
<td>PRZÓD (NP)</td>
<td>[forehand]</td>
<td>15.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>środek ciężkości (NP)</td>
<td>[center of gravity]</td>
<td>10.29</td>
<td>TEMPO (N)</td>
<td>[pace]</td>
<td>14.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>zatrzymanie (N)</td>
<td>[halt]</td>
<td>14.29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>bat (N)</td>
<td>[whip]</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>pozycja (N)</td>
<td>[position]</td>
<td>14.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Phrase</td>
<td>Translation</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>----------------------------------</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE NOGI (VP)</td>
<td>engage hind legs</td>
<td>13.78</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>łydka wewnętrzna (NP) [inside leg]</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>ZMIANA NOGI (NP) [lead change]</td>
<td></td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>USTAWIĆ KONIA (VP) [position the horse]</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>rozwój konia (NP) [horse's development]</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>staw (N) [joint]</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>głowa (N) [head]</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.99</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>PIRUET (N) [pirouette]</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>dosiad (N) [seat]</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>takt (N) [beat]</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>WODZA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [outside rein]</td>
<td></td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>ZATRZYMAĆ (V) [halt]</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.97</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>środek ciężkości (NP) [center of gravity]</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>olta (N) [volte]</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>obszerny krok (NP) [ground-covering stride]</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Table 24. Frequency and characterization of English terms in the ECS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Total/per 15,000 words</th>
<th>Forms in the subcorpus</th>
<th>Significant collocates and clusters</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACCEPTANCE (N)</strong></td>
<td>37/3.18</td>
<td><strong>N</strong>: acceptance/accepting – 5/2</td>
<td>L5-R5: aid (15).</td>
<td>A horse who does not <strong>accept</strong> 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 <strong>acceptance</strong> of the aids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>accuracy (N)</strong></td>
<td>27/2.32</td>
<td><strong>N</strong>: accuracy – 8</td>
<td><strong>Down the road, you’ll be positioned to ride an accurate 10-meter half-circle onto the centerline.</strong> The development of <strong>accuracy</strong> is one step farther in the quality, but the rider who always makes it a priority easily loses the quality.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>active (A)</strong></td>
<td>65/5.59</td>
<td><strong>A</strong>: active – 53</td>
<td>L1: more (6).</td>
<td><strong>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.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ACTIVITY (N)</strong></td>
<td>22/1.89</td>
<td><strong>N</strong></td>
<td><strong>[The 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.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>aid, driving (NP)</strong></td>
<td>40/3.44</td>
<td><strong>NP</strong>: driving aid – 37</td>
<td><strong>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.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>aid, leg (NP)</strong></td>
<td>72/6.20</td>
<td><strong>NP</strong></td>
<td>L1: light (7).</td>
<td><strong>Clusters: rein and leg aids (4). 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.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>aid, rein (NP)</strong></td>
<td>65/5.59</td>
<td><strong>NP</strong></td>
<td>L1: seat (8), leg (7).</td>
<td><strong>Clusters: seat and rein aids (6), flexing rein aid, leg and rein aids (3). They can remain unflexed, since they are out of reach for the rider’s leg, seat and rein aids in this position.</strong> <strong>If you’ll teach your horse to respond to your leg and rein aids in an increasingly sophisticated manner.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>aid, seat (NP)</strong></td>
<td>15/1.29</td>
<td><strong>NP</strong></td>
<td>From the full halt, I ask for an immediate forward response from my leg and seat aids to go forward.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>aids, timing of (NP)</strong></td>
<td>21/1.81</td>
<td><strong>NP</strong>: timing of * aids – 4</td>
<td><strong>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.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

### ALIGNMENT

- **Weight aids**
  - L5-R5: (8) hip (8), body (6), shoulder (5).
  - Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s.
  - [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.

### Anticipation

- **Hand**
  - 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.

### Arena

- **Pattern**
  - L5-R5: inside (10), around, long side (9), towards (7), canter, inside (6), accurate (5).
  - Reference shifts: maintaining the same spacing throughout the ride requires that each rider . . . rides very accurate arena patterns.

### Back, Bracing

- **Reaction**
  - Any 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.

### BACK, HOLLOW

- **Swinging**
  - 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.
**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).

[B]alance and straightness are prerequisites of Relaxation, or Suppleness, since an unbalanced, crooked horse will always be stiff.

[B]alance 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.

Every horse’s rhythm keeps him in comfortable balance by being regular: neither too fast nor too slow.

**balance, out of** (PP) 14/1.20

- PP

More instances describe the horse (ten) than the rider (four), contrary to what term definition states. Young horses tend to get quick when out of balance and start “running”: an unbalanced gait that is heavy on the forehand.

**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).

A horse that is rhythmic has a clear four-beat walk, two-beat trot, and three-beat canter.

[T]he walk has to have four distinct hoof-beats, not the two-beat rhythm of the jog or amble.

**BEHIND, FROM** (PP) 12/1.03

- PP

Similarly, the horse is gathered up from behind by energizing his haunches and giving him the room through the reins to articulate freely.

**BEHIND, OUT** (PP) 16/1.38

- PP

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.

**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).

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.

The end of the left turn is also the location where the horse has to change his bend to the right.

**bend, false** (NP) 15/1.29

- NP

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.
| **bending** (N) | 233/20.05 | **N:** bending – 64  
**A:** bending/bent – 25/37  
**V:** bend – 107 | **L1:** lateral (6).  
**R1:** aid (12).  
LS-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).  
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).  
[H]e fills out my outside rein as a result of his **bending** around my inside leg.  
[T]he outside rein does not support the **bending** inside rein sufficiently, which leads to a bulging of the outside shoulder. |
| **bit** (N) | 71/6.11 | **N:** block – 10  
**A:** bucking/buck – 5/1  
**V:** buck – 14 | LS-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/or the bit (4).  
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**.  
If he tries to come off the **bit**, however, by sticking his head up in the air, . . . you’ll apply the connecting aids again.  
Clusters: put your horse on the bit (7), putting him on the bit (4).  
A phrase that summarizes the secret of dressage is understanding how to ride the horse “forward into the bridle in balance.” |
| **buck** (N) | 23/1.98 | **N:** blockage/block – 10/4  
**A:** bucked/bucking/buck – 1/1 | This tension creates blockages that interrupt the energy flow.  
Some horses that have so far worked willingly, develop a resistance or ‘block’ to one exercise in particular.  
Clusters: forward into the bridle (4).  
A phrase that summarizes the secret of dressage is understanding how to ride the horse “forward into the bridle in balance.”  
[A]ll this stored up energy will come out sooner or later in the form of spookiness or **bucking**.  
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. |
| **canter** (N) | 305/26.25 | **N:** canter/cantering – 263/9  
**A:** cantering – 1  
**V:** canter – 32 | **L1:** to (20), or (17), collected, trot (11).  
LS-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).  
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.  
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 do not **canter** young, green horses for a very long time--just one 20-meter circle and then back to trot.  
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).  
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.  
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 do not **canter** young, green horses for a very long time--just one 20-meter circle and then back to trot. |
When you are on the center line or on the quarter line, he will tend to drift towards the left with his entire body. 

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. 

Fluid, balanced, accurate circles, corners and changes of bend and direction are a big part of the basics of dressage.

Ask for very little at a time. It’s best not to perform the changes at the letter where they are required. 

Trot a 15m circle, then leg-yield out to a 20m circle. Make sure you keep your horse working forward into a contact. 

In discussions of this subject the participants often disagree on which movements are considered “classical”. 

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.
<p>| collection (N) | 155/13.34 | N: collection/collection – 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). There is no collection without impulsion. But there is also no true impulsion without a certain degree of collection. Tighter 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. |
| CONFIDENCE (N) | 50/4.30 | N: confidence – 30 A: confident – 19 ADV: confidently – 1 | Reference shifts: 22 instances concern the human, not the horse. 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. |
| conformation (N) | 15/1.29 | N | There are horses who are naturally balanced—they have excellent conformation, are athletic in their movement and have been well started. |
| 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). 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. |
| 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). 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. |
| contact (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’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. |
| contact, rein (NP) | 55/4.73 | NP | 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. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>V</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>corner (N)</td>
<td>95/8.18</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>LS-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). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correction (N)</td>
<td>51/4.39</td>
<td>N: correction/correcting – 17/5 A: correcting – 1 V: correct – 28 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>counter-canter (NP)</td>
<td>24/2.07</td>
<td>NP: counter-canter – 5 NP: counter canter – 19 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crookedness (N)</td>
<td>49/4.22</td>
<td>N: crookedness – 20 A: crooked – 29 Reference shifts: three A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diagonal [=arena line] (N)</td>
<td>25/2.15</td>
<td>N: diagonal – 22 A: diagonal – 3 L5-R5: across, canter (6). [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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diagonal [=horse leg pair] (N)</td>
<td>22/1.89</td>
<td>N: diagonal – 6 A: diagonal/diagonalized – 14/1 ADV: diagonally – 1 Clusters: diagonal hind leg (4), on the wrong diagonal (3). 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”.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dressage (N)</td>
<td>346/29.78</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: level (16). R1: horse (70), training (31), rider (24), test (21), movement (17), trainer (6). LS-R5: training (57), classical, correct (11). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drifting (N)</td>
<td>15/1.29</td>
<td>N: drifting – 3 A: drifting – 2 V: drift – 10 [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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educating (N)</td>
<td>27/2.32</td>
<td>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. 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 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).  
*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.*  
*Elasticity can be used against the rider as a means to evade the influence of the aids.*

### 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 forehead 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.  
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.*  
*If the rider wants to elevate the neck more and connect the jowl more to the neck muscles, s/he can lift the flexing hand straight up, with an almost straight elbow.*

### 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).  
*You’ll refine your aids by bending your horse as you contain his forward energy.*  
*Through systematic training the horse learns to adjust the tempo, stride length, and energy level independently.*  
*If it’s your leg aid and the resulting increased energy coursing through his body that allow you to create and maintain the bend.*

### 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.  
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.

### engagement (N) 37/3.18
N: engagement/engaging — 30/7  
L5-R5: hind leg (11).  
*Your inside leg should be able to bring the horse’s inside hind leg under and increase his engagement.*  
The rider therefore has to preface each new demand by engaging the inside hind leg more underneath the body.

### equestrian (A) 24/2.07
A  
*In all equestrian disciplines we want our horses to be obedient, focused and responsive to our aids at any time.*  
*In technical equestrian terms we say: The aid does not go through.*

### evasion (N) 15/1.29
N: evasion — 10  
V: evade — 5  
The false bend becomes an evasion for the horse, because he can basically hide his stiff, unflexed poll from the rider’s aids.

### 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 call that bouncy, upright feeling “the second trot.” This . . . is a direct gymnastic result of the transition exercises.*  
**Exercise 2:** Squeeze the fingers of your outside hand on every other sitting moment.  
The dressage movements and exercises should never be done at the expense of rhythm.
<p>| <strong>exercise</strong> | N: exercise/exercising – 9/2 | V: exercise – 7 | Many training problems are caused by the fact that horses are not allowed to have enough exercise on their own. He needs to be warmed up stretching through to the contact in order to exercise his back, topline, and haunches. |
| <strong>EXPRESSION</strong> | N: expression/expressiveness – 6/2 | A: expressive – 5 | Trotting poles are a great way to add interest and increase energy. For even more expression, raise them on to bricks at alternate ends. |
| <strong>EXTENDED</strong> | 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. Ask for an extended trot when the inside hind is on the ground so that the horse can propel himself forward. The lateral distance is about five centimeters shorter in the collected walk than in the medium and extended walks. |
| <strong>extension</strong> | N: extension – 20 | V: extend – 11 | Request shifts: four A instances concern faulty position of hind legs or the work of muscles and joints, not a gait type. Think of the lateral work, collection and extension as having the ability to enhance the personality of the horse. The forward-driving aids go through a soft poll and jaw, whether we are collecting or extending. |
| <strong>fall out</strong> | V: fall out – 12 | NP: falling out – 4 | 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. |
| <strong>figure</strong> | N | 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. Whatever movement, figure, or pattern you do in dressage, the outside shoulder is where his balance needs to be. 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! |
| <strong>figure of eight</strong> | NP: figure-of-eight – 1 | NP: figure eight/figure-eight – 9/4 | 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! |
| <strong>fitness</strong> | N: fitness – 23 | A: fit – 19 | Reference shifts: four A instances concern the rider, not the horse. 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. |
| <strong>flexibility</strong> | N: flexibility – 28 | A: flexible – 19 | Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). 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. |
|-------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 275/23.67         | A: flexed/flexing – 24/18    | R1: [flexing:] rein (10).|
|                   | V: flex – 89                  | LS-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.  |
|                   |                               | [A]s the elevation of the head and neck increases, the longitudinal <strong>flexion</strong> of the neck and poll has to increase as well.  |
|                   |                               | [R]ide a 10-meter volte in each corner to develop the proper bend and <strong>flexion</strong> in the corners.  |
|                   |                               | <em>When a horse flexes to the left or right, he’s flexing at the poll.</em>  |
| FOOTFALL (N)      | N                             | R1: sequence (9).  |
| 33/2.84           |                               | <em>As in music, the Rhythm of the footfall sequence is inextricably linked to the Tempo.</em>  |
|                   |                               | <em>Only when a rider aids in the rhythm of the horse’s footfalls will they make sense to the horse.</em>  |
| <strong>forehand (N)</strong>  | N                             | L5-R5: haunches, hindquarters (5).  |
| 35/3.01           |                               | Clusters: around his forehand (5).  |
|                   |                               | <em>You always want a prompt response to your leg aid, but you don’t just want him spinning around his forehand haphazardly.</em>  |
|                   |                               | <em>If the horse raises his forehand adequately and uses his hindquarters and back effectively because of your help, you’ll be in equilibrium.</em>  |
| <strong>forehand, on the (PP)</strong> | PP: on * forehand – 23  | Clusters: fall onto the forehand (4).  |
| 33/2.84           | PP: onto * forehand – 9      | <em>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.</em>  |
|                   | PP: on to the forehand – 1   |  |
| <strong>forward (ADV)</strong> | ADV: forward/forwards – 339/2 | L1: go (75), move (23), move (21), hand (8), body (6).  |
| 439/37.78         | A: forward – 88              | R1: in, into (15), from (11), motion, with (8), energy, through (7).  |
|                   | N: forwardness/forward – 7/3 | LS-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.  |
|                   |                               | <em>Everything is connected, and your horse has the desire to go forward—not speedily, but energetically and actively.</em>  |
|                   |                               | <em>Get your horse forward so that when you put your leg on, you can ride into a forward canter.</em>  |
|                   |                               | <em>Now... is your horse warmed up? The answer is “yes” if he’s forward—not only over the ground, but in his thinking.</em>  |
| <strong>FRAME (N)</strong>     | N: frame/framework – 61/2     | Clusters: frame of mind (6), the horse’s frame (4).  |
| 68/5.85           | V: frame – 5                 | Reference shifts: the horse’s frame of mind (6), the rider’s body – framework/unmovable frame (2/5), frame [V] (5).  |
|                   |                               | <em>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.</em>  |
|                   |                               | <em>He needs to be in a confident frame of mind, where he can place his trust in us, his herd leader.</em>  |
| <strong>free (A)</strong>      | A: free – 10                 | [T]hey need to move through their shoulders, keeping them loose and <strong>free</strong>.  |
| 13/1.12           | ADV: freely – 5              | [A] lot of dressage horses’ movement would be improved by a good swift gallop to <strong>free up</strong> their back muscles.  |
|                   | V: free/free up – 1/3        |  |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDOM (N) 16/1.38</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Clusters: shoulder freedom (5), freedom of movement (4). If the rider merely sits passively, his weight alone can sometimes be enough to diminish the <strong>freedom</strong> of movement of the horse’s back.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gait (N) 160/13.77</td>
<td>N: gait – 159  A: gaited – 1</td>
<td>L1: working (10), collected (9), three (5). L5-R5: transition (15), basic, from (8), speed, rhythm, tempo (7), down, walk (6), between (5). When you do the downward transition back to the working <strong>gait</strong>, be sure that you close your legs. You need to ride him more forward, almost into a lengthening, to create rhythm in the <strong>gait</strong>. A downward transition from a more extended <strong>gait</strong> to a more collected <strong>gait</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gallop (N) 24/2.07</td>
<td>N: gallop/galloping – 3/8  A: galloping – 2  V: gallop – 11</td>
<td>[A] lot of dressage horses’ movement would be improved by a good swift <strong>gallop</strong> to free up their back muscles. Aetes turned around and <strong>galloped</strong> back to the other side of the ring . . . where there was a box.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gripping (A) 21/1.81</td>
<td>A: gripping – 3  N: grip/gripping/gripper – 2/6/1  V: grip – 9</td>
<td>This exercise . . . can be done in all three gaits at the longe line. It’s a great cure for “grippers”. <strong>Gripping</strong> with your heels or hanging on the reins like a drunk on a lamppost will produce predictable, but not desirable, results.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hacking (N) 14/1.20</td>
<td>N: hacking/hack – 3/5  V: hack – 6</td>
<td>Expect the same from your horse out <strong>hacking</strong> as you do in the school, so he is clear what you want.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>half-halt (N) 185/15.92</td>
<td>N: half-halt/half halt – 24/146  N: half-halting – 1  A: half halting – 1  V: half-halt/half halt – 5/8</td>
<td>L1: invisible (6), strong (4). R1: idea (7). L5-R5: transition (6), balance (5). Clusters: half goes and half-halt ideas (4). Anticipation, together with those invisible <strong>half halts</strong>, can make the execution of your dressage tests easier. If the <strong>half halt</strong> 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 <strong>half halts</strong> and/or riding down transitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>half-pass (NP) 64/5.51</td>
<td>NP: half-pass/half pass – 4/60</td>
<td>After you ride <strong>half pass</strong> 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 <strong>half-pass</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>half-pirouette (NP) 12/1.03</td>
<td>NP: half pirouette – 9  NP: half (a) * pirouette – 3</td>
<td>However, the greater engagement and lowering of the horse’s hindquarters brought about by the greater demands of the canter <strong>half pirouette</strong> will encourage even better throughness of the right hind leg. [T]ransition to walk and make <strong>half a walk pirouette</strong> to the right.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halt (N) 71/6.11</td>
<td>N: halt/halting – 58/1  V: halt – 12</td>
<td>L5-R5: trot (22), walk (16), transition (15). Clusters: at the halt (18), from the halt (5). [R]ide <strong>trot-halt</strong> and trot-walk transitions to encourage him to engage his hindquarters and lighten in front. You want to be able to <strong>halt</strong>, walk, trot, canter, and slow down from your voice alone.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand (N)</td>
<td>370/31.85</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand, inside (NP)</td>
<td>13/1.12</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>harmony (N)</td>
<td>48/4.13</td>
<td>N: harmony – 39 A: harmonious – 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haunches (N)</td>
<td>108/9.30</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>haunches in (NP)</td>
<td>37/3.18</td>
<td>NP: haunches-in – 36 VP: swing the haunches in – 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hindquarters (N)</td>
<td>90/7.75</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horsemanship (N)</td>
<td>16/1.38</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impulsion (N)</td>
<td>101/8.69</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inside (A)</td>
<td>A: inside – 155</td>
<td>N: inside – 57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irregular (A)</td>
<td>A: irregular – 6</td>
<td>N: irregularity – 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lameness (N)</td>
<td>A: lame – 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateral (A)</td>
<td>A: lateral – 69</td>
<td>ADV: laterally – 30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lazy (A)</td>
<td>A: lazy – 42</td>
<td>N: laziness – 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leg, in front of the (PP)</td>
<td>PP: in front of * leg – 13</td>
<td>PP: in front of me/the rider/you – 1/1/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leg, inside (NP)</td>
<td>NP: inside leg – 79</td>
<td>NP: inside * leg – 72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leg-yielding (NP)</td>
<td>NP: leg-yielding/leg yielding – 16/8</td>
<td>NP: leg-yield/leg yield – 5/38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lengthening (N)</td>
<td>N: lengthening – 56</td>
<td>V: lengthen – 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>length of stride (NP)</td>
<td>NP: stride length – 36</td>
<td>LS-R5: tempo (23), rhythm (6), energy (5). Clusters: tempo and stride length (11), tempo stride length (6). [D]ressage horses are trained to change speed within a gait not . . . by adjusting the stride length. The seat then dictates the rhythm, tempo, stride length, and direction of the horse’s movement.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**lift (N)**

| 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.

The result is a snappier lift off and a higher arch of the hind leg on this side, with better hock flexion.

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.

**light (A) [aid application]**

| A: light – 74 | ADV: lightly – 17 | N: lightness/lightening – 2/1 |

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).

You’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.

Try it: Lightly close your legs. If he moves off immediately and eagerly, you’re in business.

**lightness (N) [horse’s feature]**


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.

As he carries more weight behind, he grows more uphill and light in self-carriage.

**longeing/lungeing (N)**

| N: lo/ungeing – 14/6 | A: lo/unge – 28/7 |

Contrary to term definition, the spelling with “u” is far less common.

Correct longeing, basic ridden work and a broadly based plan of training are usually required.

I start all horses the same way. First, I saddle them and put them on a longe line.

**longitudinal (A)**

| A: longitudinal – 32 | ADV: longitudinally – 13 |

R1: flexion (12), balance (7).

Clusters: longitudinal flexion (6), longitudinally and laterally (4).

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.

A horse who is longitudinally unbalanced will look for a fifth leg in the rider’s hand to hold him up.

**loose (A)**

| A |

L5-R5: supple (5).
Reference shifts: four instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s (contrary to term definition).

If a horse has what we called a “warm back” – a loose, supple and oscillating back – he can lift the rider.

**looseness (N)**

| N: looseness/loosening – 7/15 | V: loosen – 12 |

[S]loped terrain encourages the horse to use his back in a way that improves looseness along his dorsal muscles.

I always start by loosening my horse in a free walk for at least 10 minutes but usually longer.

**Losgelassenheit (N)**

| N |

14 instances appear in texts by a German author Thomas Ritter.

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.

**medium (A)**

| 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).

[T]he head tends to nod more in the medium and the extended walk than in the collected walk.

Strike off in left lead canter and ride a lively medium canter across the diagonal.
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).

_When you start riding the dressage movements, keep in mind that your priority is maintaining rhythm and tempo as you do those movements._

Each exercise and movement influences the horse’s gait and posture in specific ways.

Movement as locomotion (110):

L5-R5: natural (8), direction (6).

[M]ankind destroys things that he touches in the natural world, including the natural movement of the horse.

Eventually this exercise is converted into a half pass, where the horse is bent in the direction of the movement.

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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.

To sum up, the lateral movements are intended to improve the quality of the horse’s gaits.

Reference shifts: two A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).

They tend to back off as soon as their horse shows any sign of nervousness or discomfort.

You have to pay attention to the horse and not rush things and make it nervous.

Your horse also needs to be obedient to your rein aids.

This will help make your horse more obedient to shoulder-in as well as to forward aids.

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.

If you’re tracking to the left, the left rein becomes the outside rein in the leg yield.

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.

The Old Masters would argue that the deep and overflexed method is likely to create false bends through excessive lateral and/or longitudinal flexion.

Collected and medium paces ask for more engagement and thrust from his haunches.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>passage (N)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Clusters: piaffe and passage (6), piaffe passage and * (4).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25/2.15</td>
<td></td>
<td><a href="https://example.com">It 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.</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PHASE (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: stance (11), airborne (5), swing (4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34/2.93</td>
<td></td>
<td>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).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>piaffe (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: piaffe and passage (6), piaffe passage and * (4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31/2.67</td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pirouette (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: quarter pirouette (5), canter pirouette (4).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25/2.15</td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poll (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: at the poll (12), neck and poll (11), in the poll (10), poll and neck (6), from poll to tail (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>114/9.81</td>
<td></td>
<td>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 corner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position [≡bend of horse] (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: neck (7), head (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>93/8.00</td>
<td></td>
<td>L5-R5: head (15), neck (12), right (6), haunches, left (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>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).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The rider knows that he has found the right head and neck position when the impulses of the hind legs reach the bit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position [of rider] (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: posting trot (8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71/6.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posting (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: posting trot (8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20/1.72</td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>posture (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Clusters: posting trot (8).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42/3.61</td>
<td></td>
<td>Only 7 instances (N) concern the rider, though the definition says that posture is more commonly applied to him. I was very impressed by the sophisticated equine “professors” who moved in a posture of big, rounded necks. <a href="https://example.com">His posture should evolve naturally as he is able to carry himself with a “rounded” back.</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### punishment (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N: punishment/punishing – 9/1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: punishing – 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: punish – 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference shifts: one instance concerns the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).

Anger and **punishment** is inappropriate in the training of a sensitive horse.

Don’t **punish** him if he doesn’t obey immediately. Repetition will solve most problems.

### PURITY (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N: purity – 7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: pure – 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**[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.

### QUALITY (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N: quality – 52</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A: quality – 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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.

In dressage competition, the **quality** of the walk contributes to the collective score for the gaits.

In principle, you can use this system to improve a horse of any **quality**.

### QUICK (A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A: quick – 36</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ADV: quickly – 21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N: quickness/quickening – 2/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: quicken – 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Clusters: quick to + V/quick to + N/NP (7).

Reference shifts: term definition explains **quick** as “fast” and relating only to the tempo, but 37 instances concern the rider’s and the horse’s actions.

Then when you shorten the strides, keep the same **quick** tempo by moving your seat “as if” you’re still lengthening. I . . . change the bend into a leg-yielding position for a few strides, trying to make the horse **quicker** to that leg.

### REACH (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N: reach/reaching – 10/1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>V: reach – 28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

L5-R5: hind leg (12), forward (5).

Reference shifts: nine instances concern the rider and his aids, not the horse (contrary to term definition).

*When asking for greater reach, we influence the flight pattern of a hind leg when it is . . . articulated the most.*

If the hind legs are dragging out behind, . . . the hind legs are literally out of **reach** for the seat.

### regular (A)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*In a **regular** rhythm, the footfalls are separated by equal intervals of time.*

### REGULARITY (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*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.*

### rein (N)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N: rein – 361</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: shoulder-reining – 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP: shoulder-rein – 3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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).

*He (the rider) must also pull the outside **rein** inward periodically, in order to bring the horse’s outside shoulder in.*

If the shoulder follows the **rein** pressure, the horse leans onto this shoulder and remains stiff and braced in the neck.

The most common longitudinal false bend occurs . . . when the rider forces the horse’s head down with the **reins**.

**rein, left (NP)**

| NP |

*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**.*

### rein, loose (NP)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NP: loose rein – 13</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: rein too loose – 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rein + V + loose – 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the looser the rein – 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The horse’s ability to perform on soft or **loose reins** is a hallmark of self-carriage.

If his neck bends to the outside and the outside **rein becomes loose**, the connecting aids didn’t “go through”.

---

168
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rein, on the right (PP)</th>
<th>PP: on/onto the right rein – 11 PP: on your outside right rein – 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Riding shoulder-fore on the right rein,</strong> come onto the long side and start as if you were going to ride a 10-metre circle in the corner.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rein, right (NP)</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>By using your opening right rein</strong> and your supporting left rein, you can transfer some of the responsibility for going sideways away from your leg and into your reins.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reins, give and re-take the (VP)</td>
<td>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</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only 1 instance (taking and giving on the rein) includes both verbs. The term form seems very unstable. Then you can <strong>give a little with the outside rein,</strong> and you will see that gradually a larger portion of the neck begins to participate in the bend. [R]eforce the bending aids by softly <strong>taking and giving on the inside rein</strong> to help keep your horse flexed to the inside along the arc of the circle.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rein, side (NP)</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[F]rom a physiological standpoint, auxiliary aids like <strong>side reins</strong> are not the cure-all that many riders hope.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>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). Chewing and <strong>relaxing of his neck</strong> 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELAXATION (N)</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5-R5: rhythm (12), balance (9), suppleness (8). Clusters: rhythm and relaxation (5). <strong>Rhythm and relaxation</strong> 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relaxed (A)</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5-R5: mentally, muscles (6), aid, body, feel (5). Reference shifts: 17 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). 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 &quot;rainbow&quot; of muscles starting to emerge along his topline.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RELEASE</strong> (N)</td>
<td>N: release/releasing – 16/6 V: release – 19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference shifts: only 11 instances convey the definition meaning of loosening the reins. The remaining ones denote the release of aids and muscle tension. [T]You must be able to release the rein without your horse running off from tension. [T]His most basic unit consists of <strong>TWO releases</strong> and only <strong>ONE active aid</strong>.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renvers (N)</td>
<td>25/2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>resistance (N)</td>
<td>50/4.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>responsiveness (N)</td>
<td>87/7.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reward (N)</td>
<td>39/3.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rhythm (N)</td>
<td>241/20.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rounded (A)</td>
<td>16/1.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school (=arena) (N)</td>
<td>37/3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schooling (N)</td>
<td>76/6.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>schoolmaster</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>seat</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self-carriage</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>The horse in self-carriage is a pleasure to watch. He moves like a dancer and feels like a sports car. 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serpentine</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>The three loop serpentine is based on the same geometric principles as the 20 meter circle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shortening</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>The initial shortening of the canter stride--best done on a circle in training--prepares the horse for the transition to trot. Your hands take and give to ask your horse to shorten his steps.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoulder-fore</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shoulder-in</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Establish a very collected left lead counter canter--almost in place--four strides in front of the short side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speed</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>The feeling rider never creates more speed with the leg and seat than he can control in the front. When a horse holds tension in his back . . ., he will tend to speed up in response to the driving aids.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spur</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>When I was . . . yanking, whipping, and spurring, it was all about me. It was never about the horse. Kicking and jabbing with the leg or spur are also unhorsemanlike and counter productive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>STEP</strong> (N)</td>
<td>224/19.28</td>
<td>N: step/stepping – 147/12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A: stepping – 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V: step – 62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>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).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>L1: few (8), every (6), each, first, slower, two (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>L5-R5: hind (18), ask (17), more (16), shorter (13), leg, walk (12), forward (11), longer, sideways (8), three (7), length, short (6).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clusters: a few steps (7).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[H]is strides will be longer and less frequent, because his hind legs will be stepping farther under his body.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>[U]se a half-halt idea to ask for slower, shorter steps.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>STIFF</strong> (A)</th>
<th>81/6.97</th>
<th>A: stiff – 80</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ADV: stiffly – 1</td>
<td>L5-R5: side (13), back [N], hollow, left, muscles (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clusters: the stiffer side (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reference shifts: 18 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>As long as the horse is still crooked, he will carry more weight on his stiffer side.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>As a result, the rider is able to detect which muscles are stiff from lack of use or from habitual tension.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>stiffness</strong> (N)</th>
<th>34/2.93</th>
<th>N: stiffness/stiffening – 23/4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>A: stiffen – 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>L5-R5: side (13), back [N], hollow, left, muscle (5).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clusters: stiffness in the (6), stiffness and bracing (3).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reference shifts: ten instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>When the stiffness in the poll is removed, the horse is suddenly more in front of the rider’s legs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>If he stiffens against your hand or tilts his head when you ask him to flex . . ., you probably need to supple his poll.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>stirrup</strong> (N)</th>
<th>25/2.15</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N: straightening – 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A: straightened/straightening – 1/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>V: straighten – 32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>straightening</strong> (N)</th>
<th>44/3.79</th>
<th>N: straightening – 9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A: straightened/straightening – 1/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>V: straighten – 32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clusters: straightening(*) horse (16), straighten him [=the horse] (4).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Y]ou have created a valuable tool that can improve the canter by straightening and strengthening his muscles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>On the second step, begin to straighten your horse as if you were going to ride on the diagonal.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>straightness</strong> (N)</th>
<th>119/10.24</th>
<th>N: straightness – 57</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A: straight – 62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L1: balance (8), neck (5).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>L5-R5: balance (27).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Clusters: straightness and balance (5), balance and straightness (4).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reference shifts: 17 A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[Y]our horse can’t be straight if you’re not straight. [B]ook some lunge lessons and take up Pilates or yoga.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **strength** (N) | 148/12.74 | N: strength – 51  
A: strong – 87  
ADV: strongly – 2  
V: strengthen – 8 | 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).  
She knows that developing physical strength is something that happens gradually.  
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.  
Aim for aids where 'less is more'. If aids become strong, re evaluate your communications. |
| :--: | :--: | :--: | :--: |
| **stretching** (N) | 117/10.07 | N: stretching/stretch – 15/11  
A: stretched/stretching/stretchy – 9/12/1  
V: stretch – 69 | 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).  
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.  
Jerry Schwartz gives you a six-step plan for asking your horse to stretch down into the contact.  
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. |
| **stride** (N) | 174/14.98 | N: stride – 173  
V: stride out – 1 | L1: every (12), longer (9).  
L5-R5: canter (15), three, two (13), forward (10), four (9).  
Clusters: a few strides (19).  
After a few strides, the rider returns to the original leg yield or lateral movement.  
Then I begin a few steps of collected canter and after a few strides, transition to working canter.  
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. |
| **submission** (N) | 25/2.15 | N: submission/submissiveness – 12/1  
A: submissive – 9  
V: submit – 3 | This requires that the elevation is combined with willing submission of the poll.  
[T]he horse learns . . . that when he is submissive to the aids, he is comfortable and will be allowed to move freely. |
| **suppleness** (N) | 157/13.51 | N: suppleness – 62  
A: supple – 75  
V: supple – 20 | 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).  
[B]alance and suppleness should really be included in the training scale.  
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.  
Horses with ill-developed muscles, lacking strength and suppleness, might appear to have round necks but remain still disconnected through the topline. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suspension (N) 27/2.32</th>
<th>N: suspension/suspending – 22/1 A: suspended – 4</th>
<th>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.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Swinging (N) 19/1.64</td>
<td>N: swinging – 10 V: swing – 9</td>
<td>L1: from (8). L5-R5: haunches, out (5). The rail will help restrain his haunches from swinging to the left.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tempo (N) 146/12.57</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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]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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tense (A) 42/3.61</td>
<td>A: tense – 39 V: tense/tense up – 1/2</td>
<td>Reference shifts: seven A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tension (N) 60/5.16</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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: positive (body) tension, though the definition describes tension as a negative phenomenon. 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Through (A) 79/6.80</td>
<td>A: through – 3 ADV: through – 31 P: through – 45</td>
<td>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. The tense muscle group does not let the rider’s aids “go through”. [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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thrust (N) 73/6.28</td>
<td>N: thrust/thrusting – 36/7 A: thrusting – 15 V: thrust – 15</td>
<td>L5-R5: hind (24), carrying (12), power (9). Clusters: ideal point of thrust (7), carrying and thrusting (5). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Topline (N) 29/2.50</td>
<td>N: topline/top line – 24/5</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
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<tr>
<td>A: tracking – 1</td>
<td>R1: left (5).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: track – 13</td>
<td>L5-R5: shoulder (12), left (10), movement, haunches (5).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training (N)</td>
<td>583/50.18</td>
<td>N: training/trainer – 381/85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: trainable/trained/training – 1/37/1</td>
<td>R1: [training:] level (22), method (14), session (11).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: train – 78</td>
<td>L5-R5: dressage (59), level (32), good (11), problem (10).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Scale (NP)</td>
<td>32/2.75</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transition (N)</td>
<td>264/22.72</td>
<td>N: transition/transitioning – 244/3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: transitional – 2</td>
<td>R1: to (31), from (28), between (8).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: transition – 15</td>
<td>L5-R5: trot (60), walk (44), canter (37), from (31), do (23), halt (13), between, gait (12), half halt (10), down (9).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traverse (N)</td>
<td>25/2.15</td>
<td>N: travers/traverse – 24/1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Traverse is a separate term with a different meaning, but one author uses it to denote travers.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The only difference between riding a circle, a shoulder-in and a travers lies in the direction of travel and the aids.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The haunches-in, or Traverse, is a lateral movement, in which the horse is bent in the direction of his movement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 or canter (7), halt and trot (6), back to trot, normal working trot, transition to trot, trot-canter transitions, trot-walk-trot (5).
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.

NP: rising trot – 18
N: rising – 1
V: rise – 3

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.

NP: sitting trot/sitting the trot – 11/2

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.

NP: turn on the forehand – 39
N: turn on forehand – 1
L5: leg (11), motion (7), yield (6), corner, left (5).
Clusters: turn on the forehand in motion (7).
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.

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 out of balance.
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.

‘uphill’ (A) 13/1.12
A
No inverted commas with this term in the subcorpus.
A horse in good balance at the trot quite easily hops into the canter in an uphill frame.

NP: using * voice – 1
VP: use * voice – 2
N: voice – 32
Clusters: voice command (12).
If you have a hard time with the downward transition, use your voice if you need to.
When you give the voice command, combine it with an aid from your body.
| **vertical** (N) | N: vertical – 20  
A: vertical – 6  
ADV: vertically – 4 |
|------------------|--------------------|
| **volte** [=a one-track circle] (N) | N: | L1: 10m/10 m/10-meter (8).  
Clusters: volte to the right (7).  
When you reach the first Quarter Line, begin an immediate 10 m volte to the right.  
Once you are able to ride the volte exercise in trot and canter, you are ready to add transitions. |
| **walk** (N) | N: walk/walking – 282/19  
V: walk – 54 |
| **warm up** (NP) | NP: warm-up/warm up/warmup – 40/6/3  
NP: warming up/warming-up – 16/1  
V: warm up – 20 |
| **whip** (N) | N: whip/whipping – 64/1 |
| **working** (A) | A: | R1: trot (26), gait (10), canter (3).  
L5-R5: transition (6), back [ADV] (5).  
Transition back into working trot with the use of your outside rein.  
I focus on creating and maintaining my horse’s flexibility, rhythm and impulsion as I warm up in working gait. |
| **yield** (V) | V: yield – 33  
N: yielding – 11  
A: yielding – 1 |

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 will tighten the side reins a notch or two every day until the horse’s head is on the vertical.  
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.  

Mixing trot-halt and trot-extended walk work also will help relax a hot, strong horse.  
[Eliminate 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.  

If your horse is the type that bucks when you use the whip, it’s better to bump him with your legs instead. Use the added cues of your body movement, whip, and lead line as needed.  

I focus on creating and maintaining my horse’s flexibility, rhythm and impulsion as I warm up in working gaits.  

Yielding to pressure, i.e. respect for the human’s space and aids, is taught long before the horse is ever backed.  
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.
Table 25. Frequency and characterization of English terms in the EWS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Total/per 15,000 words</th>
<th>Forms in the subcorpus</th>
<th>Significant collocates and clusters</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **ACCEPTANCE** (N)        | 30/2.74                | N: acceptance/accepting – 4/1 | 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.  
The rider also should look for soft eyes which indicate **acceptance**, while bulging eyes signal alarm.  
We ask him to **accept** the contact between the bit and our hand.                  |
| **active** (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.  
[R]ide your horse more forward so he is more **active**, uses his body better and stretches his topline.  
[I]f he drifts toward the outside cones, use your outside aids more **actively**.          |
| **ACTIVITY** (N)          | 50/4.57                | L1: physical (5). R1: drive (26), level (9). LS-R5: create, mental, spend (5). You don’t add to the **activity** drive by chasing him or doing anything exciting.  
Managing the horse’s mental and physical **activity** levels intelligently helps him enjoy what he’s doing. |
| **age** (N)               | 14/1.28                | N Clusters: months of age (4).  
At present yearling sales typically occur when the animals are 16-18 months of **age**. |
| **aid, leg (NP)**         | 29/2.65                | LS-R5: seat (12). Clusters: leg and seat aids (5).  
[W]e use pictographs to show students which combination of rein, leg, and seat aids they should apply.  
The left **leg aids** control left side of the barrel, left hip, and left hind leg. |
| **aid, rein (NP)**        | 26/2.37                | NP The outside leg and **rein aids** are also important to support the bend.  
As the horse is more well trained and I can trust the horse more, I can relax the **rein aids**. |
| **aid, seat (NP)**        | 16/1.46                | NP When he’s relaxed and focused, use your leg and **seat aids** to pick up a forward jog. |
| **aids, timing of** (NP)  | 57/5.21                | N: timing – 53  
A: timed – 3  
V: time – 1 LS-R5: release (8). Clusters: feel timing and balance (7), feel and timing (5).  
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. |
| **ALIGNMENT** (N)         | 25/2.28                | N: alignment – 19  
A: aligned – 6 LS-R5: body (7), straight (6).  
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. |
| **anticipation** (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.  
If you have a horse that is jigging in **anticipation** of returning home to his stall or pasture, try tying him up for an hour after you return.  
You can never **anticipate** all the possible changes that might occur in the horse’s routine or environment. |
| 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 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. |
|---|---|---|
| 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).
[Without 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. |
| BASICS (N) 21/1.92 | N | 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”. |
| BEAT (N) 14/1.28 | N: beat – 13
V: beat – 1 | The walk should be a four-beat march, the trot has a two-beat rhythm. The canter has three beats. |
| BEHIND, FROM (PP) 11/1.00 | PP | To create Self-Carriage I drive the horse from behind, rounding his back and lifting him up into my hands. |
| bend (N) 57/5.21 | N | L5-R5: body (9), arc (8), rein (6), change, neck, outside, support (5).
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. |
| 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).
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. |
| 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 | 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. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| bit           | 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).  
Through repetition, your horse learns that rein pressure against his neck will be accompanied by bit pressure from the opposite rein.  
The motivator comes from pressure that is placed on the horse’s mouth. This is the start of “giving to the bit”.  
You also teach him to lie on the bit and your hands. When a horse lies on the bit there is no Self-Carriage. |
| bracing the back | 28/2.56 | A: bracey/bracy – 1/3  
AP: braced against * – 1  
N: bracing/brace – 5/6  
V: brace – 4  
VP: brace against * – 8  
Look and feel for signs like the head going up, a tense jaw, working the bit, bracing of the ribs, quickening of step.  
Do not release if he’s bracing and pulling against you.  
the feeling you want: a rhythmic, soft stride with no brace in the body |
| breed         | 17/1.55  | Breeds such as Quarter Horses and Thoroughbreds and Warmbloods are as a rule naturally Engaged due to their conformation and strength of their back. |
| bridle        | 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).  
Pick up on both reins and get your horse soft in the bridle.  
For best results, outfit your horse to start with a bridle that has a snaffle bit and slobber straps. |
| bucking       | 26/2.37  | N: bucking/buck – 8/3  
V: buck – 15  
How can you tell they’re bored? Low energy, crabby expression, resistant, tail swishing, bucking.  
I’ve been bucked off on occasion and have been in a few wrecks. |
| cadence       | 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.  
He will loose his cadence if you slow him down to much.  
You want the horse to pick up on the cadence of your breathing which should be in the same cadence as your steps. |
| canter        | 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 – lope (NFR: 10.96).  
We’ll start to the right, so ask for a right-lead canter departure.  
This engagement must be alive in all three gaits, the walk, jog/trot and the lope/canter. |
| carriage      | 18/1.64  | N  
As he begins to fall out of carriage you pick him up with your seat and legs and light contact with the rein. |
| change, flying | 21/1.92 | NP: flying change/flying lead change – 3/18  
The more you lope reverse arc circles in preparation for your flying lead changes, the better.  
If 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. |
| change of direction (NP) | NP: change of/in direction – 7/2  
| VP: change direction/* direction – 6/2 |
|---|---|
| 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. |

| change of lead (NP) | NP: lead change/lead-changing leads – 6/1/2  
| N: change – 2  
| V: change – 10  
| VP: change leads – 3 |
|---|---|
| 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. |

| circle (N) | 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).  
| If you’ve gained the confidence to keep your horse on a circle, you should be able to ride with one hand. This really smooths 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. |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COLLECTED (A)</th>
<th>A</th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 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. |

| collection (N) | N: collection/collection – 93/1  
| V: collect – 10 |
|---|---|
| L1: true (9).  
| L5-R5: achieve (6), softness, training (5).  
| Clusters: balance and collection (4).  
| 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. |

| CONFIDENCE (N) | 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.  
| 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. |

| connection (N) | N: connection – 41  
| V: connect – 5 |
|---|---|
| L1: in (7).  
| R1: with (12), between (7).  
| Clusters: connection with the reins (8), elastic connection between (4).  
| We’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. |
| **contact** (N) | 108/9.86 | 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.  
To apply the aid, establish light **contact** with both reins.  
Maintain a light **contact**, but not so much that you cannot make any corrections quickly if needed.  
Let out line as necessary while maintaining light left-line **contact** to keep him on the leftward circle. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **corner** (N) | 27/2.47 | You should only ride as deep into the **corners** as your horse can go without losing the rhythm.  
Second, don’t round your **corner**. |
| **correction** (N) | 54/4.93 | Make the **correction** and ask for a few steps forward. Do not drill but be consistent and clear.  
The shoulder in . . . serves to **correct** crookedness and weakness in the hind end. |
| **correctness** (N) | 18/1.64 | 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. |
| **diagonal** [arena line] (N) | 18/1.64 | 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. |
| **diagonal** [horse leg pair] (N) | 15/1.37 | Most often the front **diagonal** will hit the ground first and then the **diagonal** rear will follow. |
| **distraction** (N) | 14/1.28 | [Y]ou will begin teaching this exercise from the ground in an area where you have few **distractions**. |
| **dressage** (N) | 175/15.98 | 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.  
**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.  
Like the western horse a good **dressage** horse must also have self-carriage. |
| **drifting** (N) | 28/2.56 | Reference shifts: two V instances denote a conscious change of direction, not the horse’s faulty posture (contrary to term definition).  
The outside rein blocks the shoulder from **drifting** out.  
If the horse’s hips start to **drift** to the outside of the circle I bring them back with my outside leg. |
| **elasticity** (N) | 13/1.19 | N: elasticity/elasticizing – 3/1  
A: elastic – 9  
L1: inner (16), more, much (5).  
L5-R5: balance, relaxation (9), release (6), forward, level, through (5).  
Clusters: elastic connection between (4).  
Reference shifts: six instances concern rein contact, not the muscles (contrary to term definition).  
True contact is an “elastic connection” between horse and rider through the bit. |
| **elevation** (N) | 15/1.37 | N: elevation – 2  
A: elevated – 8  
V: elevate – 5  
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).  
One of the best ways to help the horse release this inner energy is through what is called “forced exercise”. Look at the quality of their response to relaxation, energy and balance shifts.  
Head down when using the halter and lead rope is also used to control the head elevation. |
| **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).  
One of the best ways to help the horse release this inner energy is through what is called “forced exercise”. Look at the quality of their response to relaxation, energy and balance shifts. [W]e spend a tremendous amount of energy walking, trotting, and loping circles. |
| **engaged** (A) | 49/4.47 | A: engaged – 25  
V: engage – 24  
L1: circle (6), new (5), first, next, riding (4);  
L5-R5: practice (20), circle (14), work (10).  
Reference shifts: seven instances concern preoccupying the horse’s mind, not only its body.  
To be engaged the hock should reach back just to the fall of the tail.  
When the horse has a nice bend, you are teaching the horse to engage his hindquarters.  
Clusters: engage his hindquarters (14).  
Reference shifts: seven instances concern preoccupying the horse’s mind, not only its body.  
To be engaged the hock should reach back just to the fall of the tail.  
When the horse has a nice bend, you are teaching the horse to engage his hindquarters. |
| **engagement** (N) | 29/2.65 | N: engagement/engaging – 27/3  
N: engagement/engaging – 27/3  
L1: circle (6), new (5), first, next, riding (4);  
L5-R5: practice (20), circle (14), work (10).  
You can start right away. Practice these exercises and evaluate yourself.  
If he continues to speed up, go back to the circle exercise until you regain your balance.  
Clusters: engagement of the hindquarters (3).  
Reference shifts: one instance concerns preoccupying the horse’s mind, not only its body.  
So we now know that to have forward motion we must have torque created by engagement of the hind legs. |
| **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).  
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. |  |
| **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).  
Transitions within a gait also help the flexibility, strength, and responsiveness of his joints and muscles. |  |
| **flexion** (N) | 49/4.47 | N: flexion/flexing – 28/4  
A: flexed – 6  
V: flex – 11  
L1: vertical (9), poll (6).  
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. |  |
| **footfall** (N) | 16/1.46 | N: Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).  
If you know your footfalls and can feel where one foot is you will know where the other three are. |  |
| **forehand** (N) | 11/1.00 | N: Heavier forehand concussion puts greater stress on the hard and soft tissues of the forelegs. |  |
| **forehand, on the** (PP) | 11/1.00 | PP: on * forehand – 11  
A horse that leans on the bit loses self-carriage and becomes heavier on the forehand. |  |
| **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 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. |  |
| **frame** (N) | 44/4.02 | N: frame – 33  
V: frame – 11  
Clusters: frame ride and re-frame (4).  
Reference shifts: the horse’s frame of mind (3), though term definition only concerns its body.  
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. |  |
| **free** (A) | 50/4.57 | A: free – 36  
ADV: freely – 10  
V: free/free up – 1/3  
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. |  |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FREEDOM (N) 28/2.56</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>LS-R5: relaxation (6), rhythm (5). Clusters: freedom of gait/gaits (7/7). 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.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gait (N) 98/8.95</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>LS-R5: freedom (13), speed (10), change, relaxation, rhythm (5). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gallop (N) 17/1.55</td>
<td>N: gallop – 8 A: galloping – 4 V: gallop – 5</td>
<td>You’ll see some people flapping and slapping their horse’s sides with their legs to keep the horse at a canter or gallop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hand (N) 283/25.84</td>
<td>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). 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.</td>
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<tr>
<td>harmony (N) 36/3.29</td>
<td>N: harmony/harmonizing – 26/1 A: harmonious – 8 V: harmonize – 1</td>
<td>[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.</td>
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<tr>
<td>haunches (N) 25/2.28</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>LS-R5: hip, leg, move [V] (5). I... only use my legs to move the rib cage and haunches. Move your outside leg back towards the haunches and move the hip in side the bend or arc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hindquarters (N) 152/13.88</td>
<td>N: hindquarters/hind quarters – 136/9 N: hindquarter/hind quarter – 6/1</td>
<td>LS-R5: back [N] (13), move (22), disengage (17), engage (15), weight (10), front end, shoulder (6), forehand, forward, power, push, turn (5). Clusters: over his hindquarters (8), engage his hindquarters, move his hindquarters (5). 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horsemanship (N) 81/7.40</td>
<td>N: horsemanship – 77 N: Horse.Man.Ship – 4 L1: natural (22), your (7). LS-R5: dressage (9). Clusters: horsemanship and dressage (5). 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...</td>
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<tr>
<td>impulsion (N) 54/4.93</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 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).  
LS-R5: rein (72), shoulder (26), circle (13), line (11), left (10), outside, slightly (8), right (7).  
The inside rein stays open to keep the head and neck flexed.  
When a horse drops his inside shoulder he is out of balance.  
She stopped with her headquarters to the inside instead of stopping parallel to the wall.  |
| jogging (N) 31/2.83 | N: jog – 26  
A: jogging – 1  
V: jog – 4  | R1: trot (7).  
LS-R5: lope, walk (8), circle (6).  
Clusters: walk and jog (4), jogging or trotting (3).  
Reference shift: all instances denote jog (a slow, fluent variety of trot practiced in Western riding). The meaning described in term definition (a faulty, shortened, impure trot) is absent.  
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.  |
| lateral (A) 26/2.37 | A: lateral – 18  
ADV: laterally – 7  
P: lateral – 1  | R1: work (9).  
Finally, in Part IV, you’ll use lateral work to enhance your horse’s balance.  
Once vertical flexion has become redundant, create a combination of lateral and vertical.  |
| left lead (NP) 14/1.28 | NP: left lead/left-lead – 10/2  
AP: left-leaded – 2  | LS-R5: canter (5).  
Canter on the left lead but take the horses head to the right as you canter.  |
| 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).  
Gently bump the rib cage with your inside left leg.  
Maybe the horse is crossing his outside front leg behind his inside front instead of in front of it.  |
| 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.  
The horse, through his training and instinct, moves away from the pressure of the aid.  
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.  |
| leg, move off the (VP) 12/1.10 | VP: move off * leg – 9  
V: move off – 3  | 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.  |
| leg-yielding (NP) 14/1.28 | NP: leg yielding/leg yield – 6/6  
V: leg yield – 2  | 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.  |
| light (A) [aid application] 65/5.94 | A: light – 54  
ADV: lightly – 11  | R1: contact (15).  
LS-R5: pressure, rein (8).  
Clusters: light contact with (5).  
As he begins to fall out of carriage you pick him up with your seat and legs and light contact with the rein.  
The leg aids follow with a light pressure to ask the horse to move forward.  |
### lightness (N) [horse’s feature]


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?

### longeing/lungeing (N)


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.

### loose (A)

| A: loose – 19  | A: loosened up – 1  | V: loosen/loosen up – 3/4  |

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.

### martingale (N)

| N  |

The running martingale when used as a head set device is being misused.

### movement (N)

| N  |

The two meanings of movement (locomotion and an exercise) are not discussed separately here due to lack of characteristic findings (contrary to movement in the ECS – see Table 24).

### movement, free forward (NP)


The 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].

### neck-rein (VP)

| VP: neck rein – 1  | NP: neck rein/neck reining – 10/9  |

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.

### nervousness (N)

| N: nervousness – 3  | A: nervous – 9  |

Reference shifts: two A instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). Your rhythmic breathing keeps you from patting too fast or doing anything that transmits nervousness.
outside (A) 153/13.97
A: outside – 119
N: outside – 33
P: outside – 1
R1: leg (31), rein (28), shoulder (11).
LS-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.
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.

poll (N) 40/3.65
N
R1: flexion (6).
LS-R5: withers (6).
Clusters: at the poll (11).
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.

position [=bend of horse] (N) 58/5.30
N: position/positioning – 41/4
A: positioning/positioned – 2/3
V: position – 8
L1: body (5).
LS-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.
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.

position [of rider] (N) 64/5.84
N
L1: body (16).
LS-R5: stop (7), back, forward (6).
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.

posting (N) 13/1.19
N: posting – 9
A: posting – 1
V: post – 3
LS-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.
If we go beyond calm and bore our horses, we will be fighting a posture of boredom rather than athleticism.

punishment (N) 26/2.37
N: punishment/punishing – 12/2
A: punished – 1
V: punish – 11
LS-R5: movement (5).
Reference shifts: ten N instances concern other concepts such as the horse’s response, not only the movement.
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.

QUALITY (N) 25/2.28
N: quality – 23
A: quality – 2
LS-R5: movement (5).
Reference shifts: ten N instances concern other concepts such as the horse’s response, not only the movement.
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.

QUICK (A) 47/4.29
A: quick – 17
ADV: quickly – 25
N: quickness/quickening – 1/1
V: quicken – 3
Reference shifts: 35 – the rider’s actions (7) and the horse’s reactions (28), while term definition explains quick as “fast” and relating only to the tempo.
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.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REACH (N)</th>
<th>N: reaching – 3</th>
<th>A: reaching – 1</th>
<th>V: reach – 20</th>
<th>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). As your horse is traveling around, reach down the line towards his head and tip him to you. Freedom of gait means the horse can reach forward with his hips and shoulders without meeting any resistance.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rein (N) 487/44.48</td>
<td>N: rein – 481</td>
<td>A: reined – 6</td>
<td>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). [Y]ou suddenly feel an increased pull on your inside rein, along with pressure against your inside leg. Pick up on both reins and get your horse soft in the bridle. Don’t pull back on your reins to get the stop, just sit and ask him to stop off your seat cue.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rein, indirect (NP) 31/2.83</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>L5-R5: outside (12), neck (10), leg (6). Clusters: indirect rein against the neck, outside indirect rein, use of the indirect rein (4). 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.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rein, left (NP) 25/2.28</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Pick up your inside left rein and take up enough rein to see the eye of the horse. [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.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rein, loose (NP) 36/3.29</td>
<td>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). Try as much as possible to walk on a loose rein. 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.</td>
<td>If he moves forward freely, release the rein to a slack position with a good-sized dip. When your horse tips his nose off center and flexes at the poll, release the rein immediately to reward him.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rein, release of the (NP) 16/1.46</td>
<td>NP: release of the rein/reins – 2/1 NP: releasing the rein/reins – 1/1 VP: release the rein/reins – 10/1</td>
<td>Use the inside (right) rein, now an indirect rein against the neck, to bring his shoulders back to the left. At the same time, the rider lays the right rein—the outside or turning rein—against the horse’s neck.</td>
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<tr>
<td>rein, right (NP) 26/2.37</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>When he’s ready to work, proceed at a posting trot . . . , holding the middle of your reins with your inside hand. Worst of all, holding the reins with two hands automatically causes you to pull backward on them in almost any situation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>reins, holding of (NP) 16/1.46</td>
<td>NP: holding * reins – 6 VP: hold * rein/reins – 2/7 VP: take hold of the reins – 1</td>
<td>L5-R5: body (8). Reference shifts: 16 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). The tenseness in his body will relax. His tail will relax and swing with his gait. The horse gets into a familiar situation, feels a familiar shape, feels a familiar rhythm and starts to relax.</td>
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<tr>
<td>RELAX (N) 60/5.48</td>
<td>N: relaxing – 4 A: relaxing – 4 V: relax – 52</td>
<td>L5-R5: body (8). Reference shifts: 16 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition). The tenseness in his body will relax. His tail will relax and swing with his gait. The horse gets into a familiar situation, feels a familiar shape, feels a familiar rhythm and starts to relax.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>A/N</td>
<td>Reference Shifts</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>RELAXATION</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>Cluster: rhythm and relaxation (35), relaxation energy and balance (5).</td>
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<td>Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
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<td>[A] consistent corridor of pressures . . . produces a feeling of rhythm and relaxation in the horse.</td>
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<td>Look at the quality of their response to relaxation, energy and balance shifts.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>relaxed</strong></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Reference shifts: 36 instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
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<td>Hold the partial disengagement in the trot or canter until your horse is calm, rhythmic and relaxed.</td>
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<td>Then, from the saddle, they learn to apply the aids in a rhythmic and relaxed way.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>RELEASE</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>V/N</td>
<td>Reference shifts: only 3 of 6 instances convey the definition meaning of loosening the reins. The remaining ones denote the release of leg pressure, aids in general and muscle tension.</td>
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<td>[Y]ou must apply pressure and then release the pressure and then re-apply the pressure and then release again.</td>
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<td>With a bump you ask, then release, ask, then release. The release is the reward.</td>
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<td>You must understand how to find release in the body when tension creeps in.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>resistance</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>Reference shifts: three instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>The degree of resistance varies from mild pulling to shoulder-aching tugging.</td>
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<td>These riders feel when a horse is resisting pressure and when they are yielding.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>responsiveness</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>A/N</td>
<td>Reference shifts: six instances of response 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 response concern the rider.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Transitions within a gait also help the flexibility, strength, and responsiveness of his joints and muscles.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>[W]ithout an innately superior response time, no amount of training would enable the horse to outmaneuver the bovine.</td>
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<td>Then you do it again until the horse’s response to that pressure becomes a habit.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>reward</strong></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>V/A</td>
<td>Reference shifts: one A instance concerns the rider, who is satisfied with a good ride.</td>
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<td>Release of pressure is a reward. One example is to put slack in a lead rope/rein.</td>
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<td>Think of it as: ask, execute and reward.</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **rhythm** (N) | 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).  
|               | [W]ithout enthusiasm you are not going to get any **rhythm** and relaxation.  
|               | **Dressage** is a game of maintaining **rhythm** with varying degrees of strength and stride length.  
|               | The key is that you always move in a **rhythmic** way that never startles the horse.  
| **ROUNDED (A)** | N: rounded/round – 4/24  
|               | V: round – 33  
|               | R1: [round:] back (13).  
|               | L5-R5: back [N] (44).  
|               | Clusters: round his back (15).  
|               | **Transitions** are a great way to teach your horse to . . . **round** his back, and elevate his shoulders.  
|               | A stop helps teach **Self-Carriage** because a good stop has a **round** back.  
| **schooling (N)** | N: schooling/school – 20/2  
|               | A: schooled – 2  
|               | V: school – 11  
|               | As part of my training program, I try to take a horse out on the trail after each **schooling** period.  
|               | When we are ready to **school** our horse to the next level, we then do the same exercise but in a square pattern.  
| **seat (N)** | 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).  
|               | When asking for a canter we want to have our weight back on the left **seat** bone.  
|               | Be ready with your seat and legs to drive your horse forward if he should stall out and break to a trot.  
|               | A simple exercise to help you improve the use of your aids: your **seat**, leg, and hands  
| **self-carriage (NP)** | NP: self-carriage/self carriage – 94/12  
|               | L5-R5: back [N], dressage (6).  
|               | Clusters: in self-carriage (18), for self-carriage (6).  
|               | A round back horse in **self-carriage** is quicker and more maneuverable. A horse in **self-carriage** is pretty to look at.  
|               | **Self Carriage** from a Dressage, Naturally Perspective  
| **shortening (N)** | N: shortening – 6  
|               | A: shortening – 3  
|               | V: shorten – 6  
|               | The correct way to create a jog is by **shortening** the stride thus keeping the horse in sync.  
|               | I always **shorten** the stride of my horse first before I transition up or down.  
| **slack (A)** | N: 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).  
|               | **Leave enough slack** so your horse doesn’t bump his nose when standing with his head in a natural position.  
|               | Take the **slack** out of the line and make contact until the horse stops his feet and faces you.  
| **snaffle (N)** | N  
|               | R1: bit (15).  
|               | L5-R5: bridle (7).  
|               | 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.  

191
### 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).

*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.*

### spooking (A)
- **28/2.56**
  - **A:** spooked/spooky – 1/9
  - **N:** spook/spooking – 3/6
  - **V:** spook – 9
- **R1:** control (6).
- **L5-R5:** control (14), direction (11), gait (10), slow (9), barrel, particular (6).

*If you’re coming too fast or he’s a spook 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!*  

### spur (N)
- **30/2.74**
  - **N:** spur/spurring – 26/3
  - **V:** spur – 1
- **R1:** control (6).
- **L5-R5:** control (14), direction (11), gait (10), slow (9), barrel, particular (6).

*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.*

### STEP (N)
- **158/14.42**
  - **N:** step/stepping – 95/5
  - **V:** step – 58
  - **L5-R5:** step (5).
- **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).
- **R1:** back (11), one (6).
- **Clusters:** a few steps (17), one or two steps (5).

*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.*

### 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).

*Maybe he doesn’t yield his right shoulder well or is stiffer in one hip than the other.*

### stirrup (N)
- **31/2.83**
  - **N**
- **L5-R5:** foot (5).
  - **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.

### straightening (N)
- **16/1.46**
  - **V:** straighten
  - **L5-R5:** neck (6).
  - **Use a slight left opening rein to straighten his head and neck.**

### 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).

*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.*
| **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).  
The drape of the rein is determined by the **strength** of the back and loin.  
That side of the horse’s body also becomes **stronger** than the other and thus loping on the dominant lead becomes easiest.  
**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.  
[H]e begins to relax his neck and back under the rider’s weight and **stretch** down.  
**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).  
[The handler should pay attention to the horse and the horse should pay attention to the handler. All the time.  
**Stride by stride**.  
When you get a few strides reward the horse with a loose rein and relaxed manner.  
**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 (supple) instances concern the rider, not the horse (contrary to term definition).  
**Flexibility exercises will lead to greater suppleness. Mobility exercises will lead to greater straightness and Collectibility exercises will lead to greater carrying power.**  
There are a lot of... exercises trainers can use to help any horse become looser and more supple in his joints.  
**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.  
**Otherwise, his shoulder will drop and his haunches will swing out, and you will lose your “arc.”**  
**tack** (N) 16/1.46 | N: tack – 12  
A: tacked – 1  
V: tack up/untack – 2/1 | 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.  
**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).  
**If he were to get more tense, I’d back off my intensity until he was comfortable, then gradually start... again.**  
**Power is a combination of Energy plus Relaxation, while energy without relaxation is just... tense energy!**  
**tension** (N) 36/3.29 | N: tension/tenseness – 34/2 | Reference shifts: three tension instances describe the necessary rein tension (contrary to term definition, which only mentions negative muscle tension).  
**If their backs are free from negative tension, their legs are also free.**  
You have the horse’s trust when he works without any tension in his body--no tight muscles. |
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. *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.”*

A horse that is on the aids . . . [*is* muscually connected from his hocks *through* his back and neck to the bit because the rider’s whole circle of aids is closed.]

*The closer the hind foot *track* is the front foot *track* the more engaged the horse is. His front legs stay on the original *track* of the circle and his hindquarters describe a larger circle.*

*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. 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.*

*You can ride purely for pleasure or you can ride to train.*

*At the nine o’clock position on the large circle, prepare for a downward *transition* to a slower walk. This time, before returning to the large circle, ask for an upward *transition* within the small circle.*

*Horses were created to walk, trot, lope, gallop, stop, turn, and then go some more! Once you have practised controlling falling out on the circle at the walk, do the exercise at the trot. Make him exercise at the trot, then the walk, back to the trot, and then back to the canter.*

*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.”*
| **turn** (N) | 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).  
*As you come out of the turn ask the horse to step out briskly with energy and forward motion.  
If a horse is *turned* only with the inside rein, however, it puts all of his weight onto the inside front leg.  
If you’re a little to his right, he’ll *turn* his head to his right.* |
| **vertical** (N) | 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).  
*He needs to . . . give his face laterally as well as vertically in response to your reins.*  
*Tip your horse’s head both ways to achieve first lateral and then vertical flexion.* |
| **walk** (N) | 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).  
*You can practice the circle-in-a-circle at the walk and jog as well as at the lope.*  
*Continue the extended walk on the large circle.*  
*The arc and bend stay exactly the same as when you were walking forward.* |
| **warm up** (NP) | 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 | 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.  
*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.* |
| **whip** (N) | N: whip – 44  
V: whip – 1 | L1: longe/lunge (2/4).  
L5-R5: pressure (6), spur (5).  
*When people constantly jab with their spurs or tap with a whip, that becomes a constant pressure that the horse learns to ignore.*  
*All you need is a good fitting halter, a cotton longe line, and a lunge whip.* |
| **yield** (V) | V: yield – 26  
N: yielding – 5  
A: yielding – 2 | Clusters: resist then yield (3).  
*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.* |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term [Equivalent]</th>
<th>Forms in the subcorpus</th>
<th>Significant collocates and clusters Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>AKCJA (N) [action]</strong> 3/1.10</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Skaczemy na koniu swobodnie galopującym, o uniesionej głowie, u którego szyja amortyzuje każdy skok galopu, będący wynikiem wydatnej akcji tylnych kończyn.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>AMAZONKA (N) [woman rider]</strong> 4/1.47</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Słyszałem kiedyś jak na polecenie instruktora „daj mu łydkę” skonfundowana amazonka wyszeptała „przecież ja go nie znam”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BALANS (N) [balance]</strong> 4/1.47</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>[U]łożenie dłoni i ręki pozwala koniowi na balans głowy i szyi.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>bat (N) [whip]</strong> 11/4.04 N: bat/bacik – 10/1</td>
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<td>Na swoje własne nieszczęście koń jest na tyle chętnym i uległym partnerem, że w większości wypadków jest możliwe wy trenować go siłą, z pomocą bata i ostróg.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>biodro (N) [hip]</strong> 8/2.94</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Biodra nadają ruch obrotowy, a za tym idzie dalsze ustawienie się tułowia równolegle do łopatek konia.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>budowa konia (NP) [horse’s conformation]</strong> 3/1.10</td>
<td>NP: budowa konia – 2 N: budowa – 1</td>
<td>Tempo (do 600 m/min) zależy od budowy i stopnia wytrenowania konia.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>charakter konia (NP) [horse’s character]</strong> 4/1.47</td>
<td>NP: charakter konia – 1 N: charakter – 3</td>
<td>O sile działania pomocy decyduje charakter i wrażliwość konia.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>CHÓD (N) [gait]</strong> 96/35.29</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: odmiana, trzy (4). Clusters: we wszystkich chodach, w tym chodze (4). Pod pojęciem regularności rozumiemy najogólniej konieczność równomiernego poruszania się konia we wszystkich chodach i ich odmianach. Wykrok konia jest w tym chodzie maksymalnej długości.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>chód boczny (NP) [lateral movement]</strong> 13/4.78</td>
<td>NP: chód/ruch boczny – 10/3</td>
<td>Wykonywane poprawnie koło jest wstępnem do chodów bocznych, pomaga w odnalezieniu koniowi równowagi oraz w wyprostowaniu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>chód podstawowy (NP) [basic gait]</strong> 3/1.10</td>
<td>NP: chód podstawowy/podstawowy chód – 1/1 NP: podstawowy rodzaj chodu – 1</td>
<td>[F]achowe oko dostrzegie mnóstwo innych błędów w postawie ciała, sposobie noszenia się, braku wyprostowania i symetrii obciążania kończyn, a często także w podstawowych chodach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHÓD, ZMIENIĆ (VP) [change gait]</strong> 3/1.10</td>
<td>VP: zmienić chód – 1 NP: zmiana chodu – 2</td>
<td>Zmiana chodów i ich szybkości powinna odbywać się miękko i delikatnie, a dosiad jeźdźca powinien być spokojny.</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ciąg (N) [half-pass]</strong> 5/1.84</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Ciąg (rys. 70) jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydkę jest ustawiony w kierunku ruchu.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| CIĄGNĄĆ (V) [pull] | 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. 
Marek Roszczynialski odpowiadał: „to nie koń ciągnie jeźdźca, tylko jeździec ciągnięcie konia”. Stałe ciągnięcie za wodze spowoduje u konia reakcję oporu i napierania na wodze. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| cierpliwość (N) [patience] | N: cierpliwość – 5  
| ciężar ciała (NP) [weight aid] | NP: ciężar ciała/jeźdźca – 10/7  
N: ciężar – 13  
A: przenosić (4), działanie, rozłożenie (3).  
Clusters: ciężar i łydka (4), ciężar, łydka i wodza (3).  
Reference shifts: seven instances of ciężar ciała refer to the horse, not the rider. | Poważnym błędem jest nadmierne używanie ręki przy niedsostatecznym działaniu ciężarem i łydką. Pomoże mu to przenieść ciężar ciała na tył i podstawić tylne nogi pod kłodę. |
| COFANIE (N) [backing] | N: cofanie – 15  
A: cofający – 1  
V: cofać/cofać się – 1/8 | Cofanie jest bazą do prawidłowego wykonywania szybkiego zatrzymania, roll-backu, czy też sliding stopu. [G]dy nasz koń nauczy się już cofać, wykonujemy ten ruch po KAŻDYM zatrzymaniu! |
| czterotakt (N) [four-beat rhythm] | NP: cztero-takt – 1  
A: czterotaktowy/4-taktowy – 5/1 | Bardzo szybki galop, tzw. cwał (rys. 60), jest już chodem czterotaktowym. Tempo (do 600 m/min) zależy od budowy i stopnia wytrenowania konia. |
| ĆWICZENIE POD JEŹDŹCEM (NP) [an exercise under saddle] | PP: pod jeźdźcem – 7 | Często zdarza się, że koń, który porusza się w prawidłowym rytmie na swobodzie, pod jeźdźcem staje się nierówny, skraca kroki i sztywnieje. |
| dodanie (N) [speeding up] | N: dodanie/dodawanie – 2/1  
A: dodany – 3 | Jeśli koń się leni, to natychmiast jeździec musi to wyczuć i energicznym dodaniem wyegzekwować prawidłowe tempo i rytm. |
| dosiad (N) [seat] | N | L1: niezależny, prawidłowy (4).  
L5-RS: pomoc (11), łydka (10).  
Wadliwe: dosiad i pomoce z miejsca przekreślają jakikolwiek sukces w tym względzie.  
Palecit i ostrog to dodatkowe pomoce. Dosiad, łydka i ręka działają na ogół łącznie. |
| DOSIADAĆ (V) [mount] | V: dosiąść – 2  
| dwutakt (N) [two-beat rhythm] | A: dwutaktowy/2-taktowy – 2/1 | Klus (rys. 57) jest chodem dwutaktowym, symetrycznym, w którym słychać dwa uderzenia kopyt o ziemię. |
| ELASTYCZNY (A) [elastic] | A: elastyczny – 15  
ADV: elastycznie – 2  
N: elastyczność – 15 | Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider, not the horse.  
Koń elastyczny to równocześnie taki, który chętnie przystosowuje się do wymagań jeźdźca. Prawidłowo wykonywane ustepowania . . . mają świetny wpływ na swobodę i elastyczność chodów. |
<p>| faza lotu (NP) [suspension phase] | NP: faza lotu – 7 | Zmiana nóg w galopie jest jednym z trudniejszych elementów ujężdżenia. Koń musi zmielić położenie kończyn w fazie lotu, nie zwalniając rytmu galopu i ruchu do przodu. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FOULEE (N) [foulée] 9/3.31</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Przeszkody w liniach powinny być łatwe i dostosowane do długości <strong>foulée</strong> konia.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>galopie, krzyżowanie w (NP) [disunited canter] 3/1.10</td>
<td>V: krzyżować – 3</td>
<td>Przy wykonywaniu zmiany nogi w galopie należy uważać, by koń zmieniał zarówno przednią, jak i odpowiednią tylną nogę, a więc aby nie „krzyżować”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>galop zebrany (NP) [collected canter] 3/1.10</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Głowa jest trochę bardziej przed pionem aniżeli w <strong>galopie zebranym</strong> i roboczym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALOP Z LEWEJ NOGI (NP) [left-lead canter] 4/1.47</td>
<td>NP: galop z lewej nogi – 2 VP: galopować z lewej nogi – 2</td>
<td>[J]eżeli dotychczas pomoce ustawiały konia np. w prawo . . ., to teraz pomoce ustawiają konia w lewo, czyli do <strong>galopu z lewej nogi</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALOP Z PRAWEJ NOGI (NP) [right-lead canter] 10/3.68</td>
<td>NP: galop z prawej nogi – 3 VP: galopować isć z prawej nogi – 6/1</td>
<td>Teraz pomoce działają tak, jak podczas <strong>galopu z prawej nogi</strong>, wskutek czego koń zmienia nogę.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>głos (N) [voice] 4/1.47</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>[G]łosu używamy równocześnie z działaniem liny i odpowiednim ustawieniem naszego ciała.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>głowa (N) [head] 57/20.95</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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. Jego szyja i głowa są wyciągnięte do przodu i w dół, w dół, swym ciężarem naciągając skórę na grzbiecie. Koń na wężej idzie . . . z głową opuszczoną na tyle, że nos pozostaje tuż przed pionem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grzbiet (N) [back] 36/13.23</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: na (6). L5-R5: szyja (9). To napięcie przenosi się wzdłuż szyi i <strong>grzbietu</strong> konia do zadu. [K]on znacznie bardziej reaguje na zmiany rozłożenia naszego ciężaru na <strong>grzbietu</strong> i jego przesuwaniu, niż na próby sterowania wodami.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grzbiet pracujący (NP) [working back] 5/1.84</td>
<td>NP: praca grzbietu – 2 VP: pracować grzbietem – 1 grzbiet pracuje – 2</td>
<td><strong>Grzbiet pracuje</strong>, poruszając się w górę i w dół miękkim, falistym ruchem, a chody są rytmiczne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grzbietu, mięsień (NP) [back muscle]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Na koniec pracował z koniem, który był tak skrzywiony, że miał widocznie jeden mięsień grzbietu uniesiony i zesztywniały za bardzo, a drugi aż zapadnięty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inochód (N) [pace gait] 4/1.47</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Koń chodzący inochodem porusza się zawsze tym chodem, niezależnie od prędkości.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAZDA KONNA (NP) [horse riding] 14/5.15</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Jazda konna jest jak gra na fortepianie. Używa się obu dłoni i każda z nich ma odrębne zadanie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jazda w terenie (NP) [trail ride] 9/3.31</td>
<td>NP: jazda w terenie – 1 PP: w teren/w terenie – 3/5</td>
<td>[P]onoszenie w terenie, odmowa wykonania skoku, opór na wędzidle, nie zagalopowanie z prawidłowej nogi – wszystko to wynika z braku szacunku dla człowieka.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JEŹDZIEC POCZĄTKUJĄCY (NP) [beginning rider] 3/1.10</td>
<td>NP: jeździec początkujący/początkujący jeździec – 1/1 N: początkujący – 1</td>
<td>Początkujący jeździec dla ułatwienia rozpoczęcia obrótu mają tendencję do przechylania się na wewnętrzną stronę.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Jęździectwo (N) [horse riding] | N | L1: klasyczne, naturalne (3).  
R1: naturalne (2).  
{O}dnotował się do wzorów starego klasycznego jęździectwa 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 jęździectwa naturalnego. |
| język (N) [tongue] | N | Przeciętne wędzidło powinno mieć grubość między 18 a 21 mm, dla koni o małych pyskach i grubym języku – 16 mm. |
| kadencja (N) [cadence] | N | Jeśli weźmiemy dwa podobne konie, to lepszą kadencję będzie miał ten, którego przekątna para nóg będzie uderzała o podłoże idealnie w tym samym momencie. |
| kara (N) [punishment] | N | Nie ma takich przewinień, za które „słuszną” karę byłoby okładanie batem, klucie ostrogami, czy szarpanie za pysk. |
| najem (V) [rent] | 1/2 | | |
| kląb (N) [withers] | 1/1 | Wtedy bacznie patrzę na linię szyi, aby wychodząc z kłębu płynnie biegła wyłącznie w dół, jak zjeżdżalnia. |
| kłus (N) [trot] | 1/1 | L1: z (12), w (10), do, stęp (4).  
L5-R5: galop (15), stęp (10).  
Clusters: w kłusie i w galopie (4).  
Od młodych koni, niedolnych jeszcze do użycia siły nośnej, wymaga się jedynie wydłużenia kroków w kłusie i w galopie, przy zachowaniu równowagi i tempa.  
Zagaloować najłatwiej jest z kłusa.  
Kłus normalny (z anglezowaniem) jest pewnego rodzaju odpoczykiem dla konia i jeźdźca, gdyż kontakt jeźdźca z siodłem trwa tylko krótkie chwile.  
W kłusie normalnym bardziej obciążona jest ta para nóg, na którą jeździec kłusuje.  
Kłus normalny (z anglezowaniem) jest pewnego rodzaju odpoczykiem dla konia i jeźdźca, gdyż kontakt jeźdźca z siodłem trwa tylko krótkie chwile.  
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Kłus normalny (z anglezowaniem) jest pewnego rodzaju odpoczykiem dla konia i jeźdźca, gdyż kontakt jeźdźca z siodłem trwa tylko krótkie chwile.  
W kłusie normalnym bardziej obciążona jest ta para nóg, na którą jeździec kłusuje. |
| kląć (V) [off] | 1/1 | W treningu koni zdarza się, że trzeba konia ukarać. |
| koło (N) [circle] | 1/1 | L1: na, po (7), mniejsze, środek (3).  
Poruszając się po kole we wszystkich chodach powinien być odpowiednio wygaśnięty.  
Wyrabianie elastyczności kłody wykonuje się najczęściej na kole. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KONIARZ (N)</td>
<td>horseman</td>
<td>Drodzy koniarze – klasyczni i naturalni, westowcy i skoczkowie, dresażyści i rekreaci! Więcej tolerancji i zrozumienia dla siebie nawzajem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kontakt (N)</td>
<td>contact</td>
<td>L1: lekki (5). L5-R5: wodza (9).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kontragalop (N)</td>
<td>counter-canter</td>
<td>W kontragalopie działanie pomocy jest identyczne jak w galopie, z wyjątkiem sterującego działania wody.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KOŃ WIERZCHOWY (NP)</td>
<td>riding horse</td>
<td>Jeżeli poczujemy, że wierzchowiec „wiesza się” na wędzidle, sygnal łydką przypomina mu gdzie jest miejsce jego głowy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>koziołek (N)</td>
<td>cavaletto</td>
<td>Na placu stoją również koziołki (cavaletti) i co drugi dzień konie ujeżdżeniowe mają również skoki gimnastyczne.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kręgosłup (N)</td>
<td>spine</td>
<td>Wszystko po to, by unieść do góry najabszy kawałek mostu, jakim jest kręgosłup konia, a konkretnie jego odcinek lędźwiowy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krzyż (N)</td>
<td>lower back</td>
<td>Jeżeli koń porusza się po linii prostej, jest mu obojętne, z której nogi galopuje.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lekkość (N)</td>
<td>lightness</td>
<td>Jeżeli koń porusza się po linii prostej, jest mu obojętne, z której nogi galopuje.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linia prosta (NP)</td>
<td>straight line</td>
<td>Od młodego konia żądamy jedynie wyprostowania liniowego, którego podstawy kształtują się wstępnie już podczas pracy na lonży.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| lonżowanie (N) [lungeing] 9/3.31 | N: lonżowanie – 4  
V: lonżować – 1  
A: lonżujący/lonżowany – 2/2 | Dla młodego konia najlepszym sposobem na rozluźnienie jest **lonżowanie**.  
Jeśli trzeba można oddać wodze z lokcia i z barku (żucie z ręki). |
| lokcie (N) 3.1.10 | N | „Lopatka do wewnątrz” jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu. |
| lopatka do wewnątrz (NP) 6/2.21 | NP: lopatka/łopatka do wewnątrz – 1/5 |  
**Lopatka do wewnątrz** jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu. |
| łydka (N) [leg aid] 97/35.66 | N | Jeździec ma wrażenie, jak gdyby pod lewą łydka nie było konia. |
| łydka ograniczająca (NP) 4/1.47 | NP: łydka ograniczająca/ograniczająca łydka – 1  
łydka działa ograniczająco – 2 | Większy nacisk wewnętrznej kości kulszowej powstaje już przez samo użycie zewnętrznej ograniczającej łydki. |
Koń jest wygięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki i ustawiony w kierunku ruchu. |
| łydka zewnętrzna (NP) 15/5.51 | NP: łydka zewnętrzna/zewnętrzna łydka – 7/8 | **Zewnętrzna łydka** reguluje ruch i razem z zewnętrzną wodzą zapobiega zbytniemu zgięciu lub zbyt szybkemu ruchowi w bok. |
| łydki, nacisk (NP) 5/1.84 | N: nacisk obiema łydkami – 1  
N: nacisk – 4 | 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. |
| łydki, ustępowanie od (NP) 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 | 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**. |
| miękkość (N) [softness] | 16/5.88 | N: miękkość – 1  
A: mięki – 13  
ADV: miękko – 2 | Clusters: miękka ręka (5).  
Pierwsze lekcje polegają na zrozumieniu czym jest miękka ręka, która sprawia, że wędzidło prawidłowo działa na dziąsła zamiast opierać się na zębach. |
| mięsień (N) [muscle] | 72/26.47 | N: mięsień – 64  
A: mięśniowy – 6  
R1: zad (5), brzuch (3).  
Największym błędem, jaki można popełnić w treningu młodego konia, jest próbowanie osiągnięcia „pasażowego” ruchu, który należy natychmiast eliminować. |
| MISTRZ W SIODLE (NP) [master in the saddle] | 4/1.47 | NP: mistrz jeździecki/klasyczny mistrz – 1  
N: mistrz – 2 | Osoby, takie jak Philippe Karl, które zadały sobie trud dokładnego studiowania zapisów dawnych mistrzów i prawdziwego zgłębiania ich filozofii, sprzeciwiają się takim nadażyciom. |
| MOMENT ZAWIESZENIA (NP) [suspension phase] | 17/6.25 | NP: moment/faza zawieszenia – 3/11  
N: zawieszenie – 3 | Fażaw zawieszenia powinna być bardzo wyraźna, aczkolwiek nie wtedy, kiedy przybiera postać „pasażowego” ruchu, który należy natychmiast eliminować. |
| munsztuk (N) [curb] | 3/1.10 | N: munsztuk – 2  
A: munsztukowy – 1 | [K]arygodne jest zakładanie munsztuka jako instrumentu hamującego, czy mającego uczynić konia „lżejszym na ręce”.

MOMENT ZAWIESZENIA (NP) [suspension phase]  
17/6.25  
NP: moment/faza zawieszenia – 3/11  
N: zawieszenie – 3  
Faza zawieszenia powinna być bardzo wyraźna, aczkolwiek nie wtedy, kiedy przybiera postać „pasażowego” ruchu, który należy natychmiast eliminować.

munsztuk (N) [curb]  
3/1.10  
N: munsztuk – 2  
A: munsztukowy – 1  
[K]arygodne jest zakładanie munsztuka jako instrumentu hamującego, czy mającego uczynić konia „lżejszym na ręce.” |

nagradzanie [rewarding]  
8/2.94  
V: nagradzać – 8  
Nagradzając najlíchsze próby sprawimy, że bardzo szybko pojmie, o co nam chodzi i będzie się starał nas zadowolić. |

NAGRODA (N) [reward]  
3/1.10  
N  
Ważną rzeczą jest, by nagroda . . . spotykała konia tylko po prawidłowym wykonaniu ćwiczenia. |

NA ŁĄCZNOŚCI (PP) [connected]  
4/1.47  
Pp: w łączności – 1  
N: łączność – 3  
Galop roboczy . . . jest chodem, w którym koń nie wytrenowany i nie przygotowany do ruchów zebranych wykazuje właściwie zrównoważenie i pozostaje w łączności z jeźdźcem. |

natura (N) [character]  
8/2.94  
N  
Konie atletyczne z natury, z krótkimi dźwigniami muszą być szkolone pod kątem rozluźnięcia i elastyczności, bowiem sama siła może mieć efekt usztywniający. |

nieposłuszeństwo (N) [disobedience]  
5/1.84  
N  
Część błędów w trenowaniu stępa polega na niezauważaniu przez jeźdźca nieposłuszeństwa na pomoce prosto taj edzącą i popędzającą. |

NOGA (N) [leg]  
71/26.10  
N  
L1: zadnia (9), krzyżowanie (7), prawa (6), zewnętrzna (5), cztery (4).  
L.5-R5: galopować (7), jedna, trzy (6).  
[G]dy pocięwmy, że koń robi krzyżowanie nog płynnie i w rytmie możemy zwiększyć szybkość.  
[K]on musi iść jednym śladem, czyli stawiać zadnie nogi dokładnie w tej samej linii co przednie. |

NOGA PRZEDNIA (NP) [foreleg]  
52/19.12  
N: nogę/przednia * nogę – 4/20/5  
N: kończyna przednia/przednia kończynę – 2/3  
A: przednia – 18  
L1: prawa (7), ślad (5).  
L.5-R5: tylna (19), krzyżować (8).  
[J]eździec opada w siodło wtedy, kiedy koń stawia na ziemi przednią lewą nogę.  
[K]on powinien obracać się wokół jednej przedniej nogi (przy zwrócie w prawo wokół prawej przedniej nogi).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOGA TYLNA (NP) [hind leg]</th>
<th>62/22.79</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: noga tylna/tylna noga/tylna * noga – 2/39/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: kończyna tylna/tylna kończyna – 2/7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: tylna – 11</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1: aktywność (4), lewa, odpowiednia, ślad (3).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5-R5: przednia (20).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ci jeźdźcy . . . często próbują „zmieścić” twarde wodzę siłą, zamiast starać się stopniowo kierować tylną nogę bardziej pod ciało, wyrównując tym samym obciążenie obu tylnych nóg.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOGA WewnęTRZNA (NP) [inside leg]</th>
<th>9/3.31</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: noga wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna noga – 6/3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Warunkiem krzyżowania jest to, aby noga wewnętrzna przekroczyła ślad nogi zewnętrznej.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOGI, PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE (VP) [engage hind legs]</th>
<th>15/5.51</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VP: podstawić tylne kończyny/tylne nogi/zadnie nogi – 1/1/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP: podstawić konia/nogę/zad – 1/2/2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: podstawianie się – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: podstawienie tylnych kończyn/żadu – 2/3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[W]arto poprzedzić obrót cofnięciem go o krok lub dwa. Pomoże mu to przenieść ciężar ciała na tył i podstawić tylną nogę pod kłodę.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nogi w galopie, lotna zmiana (NP) [flying lead change]</th>
<th>6/2.21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: zmiana nogi w galopie – 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: lotna zmiana nogi – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NOGI, ZMIANA (NP) [lead change]</th>
<th>20/7.35</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: zmiana nogi – 15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N: zmiana – 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VP: zmieniać nogę – 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[Z] czasem koń na samo przelotzenie pomocy zareaguje zmianą nogi. Opisane działanie zmusza konia do zmiany nogi, na którą ląduje.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nos (N) [nose]</th>
<th>18/6.62</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5-R5: pion, przód (5).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trener bardzo zwracał uwagę na to, by . . . koński nos był wypuszczony nieco przed pion.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nóg, przekątna para (NP) [diagonal leg pair]</th>
<th>12/4.41</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: przekątna para nog/kończyn – 6/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: przekątna kończyn/przekątna noga/noga przekątna – 2/1/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: nogi rozmieszczone po przekątnej – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Przekątna para nog znajdujaca się w powietrzu na moment zawiasa, nadpęcie opada pionowo do ziemi, stawy pęcine je ugięte.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>obszerny krok (NP) [ground-covering stride]</th>
<th>4/1.47</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: obszerny krok/ruch/skok – 1/1/1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NP: obszerność chodu – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impuls może być także nadmierny: wówczas koń . . . zamienia większe, obszerniejsze kroki na większą liczbę mniejszych, pospieśnych kroczków.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>oddziaływanie na konia (NP) [influencing the horse]</th>
<th>6/2.21</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NP: oddziaływania na konia – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N: oddziaływania – 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prawidłowy kontakt, a więc takie oddziaływania pomocy jeźdźca (ciężaru, tydek i ręki), aby w efekcie uzyskać lekką i stabilną łączność z pyskiem konia, a poprzez to niezbędną lekkość przodu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ODRUCH (N) [reflex]</th>
<th>4/1.47</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N: odruch – 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: odruchowy – 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| [N]ajczęstszym odruchem w takiej sytuacji jest ciągnięcie za zewnętrzną wodzę na zewnętrzn, co jedynie bardziej pogłębia problem.
ogon (N) [tail] 8/2.94  N  Aby to osiągnąć, ciało konia powinno być rozluźnione i utrzymywać raz przyjęte podłużne zgięcie w kształcie luku: od nasady ogona po potylicę.

opór (N) [resistance] 20/7.35  N  Ten kto ma wyczucie jeździeckie[, . . . nie dopuszcza do oporu konia, wracając w porę do lekcji poprzedniej.

ostroga (N) [spur] 12/4.41  N  L5-R5: bat (4), używać, stosować (3).  
Ostrogi i bat użyte przeciwko twardej, nieustępliwej ręce potrafią wykreować . . . falszywa hiperaktywność.

ósemka (N) [figure eight] 4/1.47  N  Jeśli poruszamy się na ósemce i chcemy skakać na przemian z obydwu kierunków, to skok wykorzystujemy do zmiany nogi.

opór (N) [resistance] 20/7.35  N  Ten kto ma wyczucie jeździeckie[, . . . nie dopuszcza do oporu konia, wracając w porę do lekcji poprzedniej.

Warunkami efektywnej pracy z końmi jest: cierpliwość, prawidłowa jazda i czas – konia można wszystkiego nauczyć, za wyjątkiem pasażu i piaffu!


piaff (N) [piaffe] 7/2.57  N  L5-R5: pasaż (3).  
{P}roblem z piaffem i pasażem nie biorą się znikąd, ani z tego, że dany koń „już taki jest”

piruet (N) [pirouette] 7/2.57  N  Piruet jest ćwiczeniem dość łatwym w stępie, ale bardzo trudnym w galopie.


 płynność (N) [smoothness] 8/2.94  N: płynność – 3  A: płynny – 1  ADV: płynnie – 4  
Cechą charakterystyczną przepuszczalności jest płynność ruchu u konia, możliwa dzięki elastycznym mięśniom i ruchomym wszystkim stawom.

pobudzić (V) [stimulate] 4/1.47  V: pobudzić – 1  A: pobudzający/pobudzony – 1/1  ADV: pobudzając – 1  
W jednym przypadku trzeba upuścić nadmiar energii, w innym – pobudzić ją. Rozprężeniem starszego konia zajmiemy się w dalszej części moich rozważań.

poklepać (V) [pat] 3/1.10  V: poklepać/klepać – 1/1  N: klepanie – 1  
Może się okazać, że koń bardziej schodzi na klepanie i nasze ciepłe słowa aprobaty, niż na nasze pomocy, ale to nic.

położenie (N) [position] 9/3.31  N  Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s.  
Kon powinien zajmować takie położenie, jakby galopował we właściwym kierunku.
<p>| <strong>POMOC</strong> (N) [aid] | N | <strong>L1:</strong> działanie/zadziałanie (13), użyć (12), nasza (5), podstawowa (4). <strong>R1:</strong> jeździecka/jeźdca (11), ustawiać (4), działać (3). <strong>L5-R5:</strong> dosiad (13). Dosiad, działanie pomocami oraz równoważą, to codzienny chleb w treningu. To niesamowite, jak można osiągnąć taki stopień „wysokołości” bez używania pomocy jeździeckich, tylko pracą w ręku, z ziem. Ćwicząc ten ruch jeździec nabiera doświadczenia w używaniu pomocy, ograniczających i przesuważujących, a także w ich wzajemnym skoordynowaniu. |
| <strong>POMOCACH, NA (PP) [on the aids]</strong> | PP | Koń prawidłowo ustawiony na pomocach jest rozluźniony i reaguje na działanie łydek, dosiadu i wody, porusza się w równowadze. |
| <strong>POŚLUSZEŃSTWO</strong> (N) [obedience] | N: posłuszeństwo – 7 A: posłuszny – 1 | Metody te odrzucają zmuszanie konia do posłuszeństwa i opierają się na kształtowaniu jego zachowania poprzez działanie oparte na rozumieniu zasad końskiej psychologii. |
| <strong>POSTAWA</strong> (N) [posture] | N | R1: ciało (6). Reference shifts: eight instances concern the human’s body, not the horse’s. „[S]zakunie” wędzidło powoduje u konia przybranie właściwej postawy ciała. |
| pośladek (N) [buttock] | N | W kłusie ćwicznym jeździec zachowuje pełny dosiad na rozluźnionych mięśniach pośladków, trzymając tułów pionowo. |
| <strong>POZYCJA</strong> (N) [position] | 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. Rozpoczynamy z pozycji wyjściowej (koń frontem do nas), a ruch wężujący liny stanowi dla konia sygnał do cofnięcia się. Ćwicząc ten ruch jeździec nabiera doświadczenia w „wymaganiu” i „danej” od konia. |
| półparada (N) [half-halt] | N | Półparady najpierw działają równoważno, a dopiero później mogą być użyte jako środek do zwiększania stopnia zebrania u konia. |
| półpirueta (N) [half-pirouette] | N | Do elementów wyższej szkoły ujeżdżenia należą między innymi: półpiruety, piiruety, rytmiczna zmiana nóg w galopie, pasaż i piaff [correct form: pasaż – E.P.]. |
| <strong>PÓŁSIAD</strong> (N) [jumping seat] | N: półsiad – 5 NP: pół siad – 1 | Z reguły na ujeżdżalni jeździ się pełnym siadem, natomiast w terenie półsiadem. |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>półwolta (N) [half-volte]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>5/1.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prostowanie</td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>N: prostowanie – 6 A: prostujący – 1 V: prostować – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PROSTY (A) [straight]</td>
<td>29/10.66</td>
<td>A: prosty – 18 ADV: prosto – 7 N: prostość – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prowadzenie</td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>N: prowadzenie – 6 A: prowadzony – 1 V: prowadzić – 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>przejście (N) [transition]</td>
<td>22/8.09</td>
<td>N: przejście/przechodzenie – 14/1 V: przejść – 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>przekątna (N) [diagonal]</td>
<td>3/1.10</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>przepuszczalność (N)</td>
<td>throughness</td>
<td>N; przepuszczalność – 9 A: przepuszczalny – 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>przestawienie (N)</td>
<td>[moving to another place]</td>
<td>N: przestawienie – 1 V: przestawić – 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRZÓD (N) [forehand]</td>
<td>26/9.56</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRZYJĘCIE WĘDZIDŁA (NP)</td>
<td>[acceptance of the bit]</td>
<td>NP: przyjęcie wędzidła – 5 VP: przyjąć wędzidło – 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gdy ćwiczenie jest już poprawnie wykonywane, wówczas półwólę wykonuje się w takim miejscu, aby jej zakończenie wypadło jeszcze na ścianie długiej.

Kolejnym elementem tego ćwiczenia jest prostowanie konia, który chodzi po kół.

Clustering: zewnętrznie prosty (5).

Tymczasem dziś, we współczesnych skokach, jeździ się na koniu „zewnętrznie prostym”.

Przepuszczalność objawia się zauważalną chęcią pójścia do przodu i przyjęciem wędzidła, połączonym ze stałą gotowością do współpracy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N: psychika</td>
<td>– 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A: psychiczny</td>
<td>– 15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADV: psychicznie</td>
<td>– 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference shift:</td>
<td>seven instances concern the rider.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wielkie nieraz talenty są niszczone, zanim osiągną dojrzałość fizyczną i psychiczną.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeżeli chcemy konia-partnera, musimy zaangażować przede wszystkim jego umysł, emocje i psychikę, a nie jego mięśnie.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>psyk (N) [horse’s mouth]</td>
<td>49/18.01</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: z (17), za (4).  L5-R5: kontakt (11).  Kontakt ręki z psykiem przez wodze . . . zależy od rodzaju stępa, jakim zamierzamy się poruszać.  Każdy koń ciągnięty za psyk natychmiast zaczyna się opierać, co jeździec odbiera jako ciągnięcie.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renwers (N) [renvers]</td>
<td>3/110</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Trawers i renvers wykonywane są wzdłuż ściany ujeżdżalni lub poprawnej – na linii środkowej pod kątem 30° do kierunku ruchu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RĘKA SPOKOJNA (NP) [quiet hand]</td>
<td>4/1.47</td>
<td>NP: spokojna ręka – 4</td>
<td>Tajemnica spokojnej ręki polega na tym, że nie porusza się ona razem z tułowiem jeźdźca, ale z głową konia.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ręki, działanie (NP) [hand aid action]</td>
<td>16/5.88</td>
<td>NP: działanie ręki/ działanie * ręki/działalność ręki – 4/1/1  VP: działać ręką – 2  ręka działa – 8</td>
<td>Jazda poprzedzona jest pracą z ziemi na wędzidle, podczas której jeździec uczy konia rozumienia działania ręki.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| równowaga (N) [balance] | N: równowaga – 98  
111/40.80  
N: równoważenie/równoważenie się/zrównoważenie – 1/2/4  
A: zrównoważony – 4 
ADV: równoważąco – 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).  
Brak równowagi pionowej najłatwiej zauważyć podczas pracy na kolach i w czasie ... zakrętów.  
W galopie ogromną rolę w zachowaniu równowagi odgrywają głowa i szyja konia.  
[S]trach przed utratą równowagi powoduje usytuowanie całego ciała; czasem do pułapu, w którym zaczyna się aktywnie opierać jeźdźcowi. | L1: [równowaga:] zachować (6), brak (5), utrata, własna (4).  
R1: [równowaga:] pionowa (5), horyzontalna (3).  
Clusters: równowaga i rytm (3).  
Brak równowagi pionowej najłatwiej zauważyć podczas pracy na kolach i w czasie ... zakrętów.  
W galopie ogromną rolę w zachowaniu równowagi odgrywają głowa i szyja konia.  
[S]trach przed utratą równowagi powoduje usytuowanie całego ciała; czasem do pułapu, w którym zaczyna się aktywnie opierać jeźdźcowi. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| RUCH (N) [movement] | N: ruch – 181  
187/68.74  
A: ruchowy – 6  
The two meanings of the term are discussed separately as for movement (see Tables 24 and 25).  
Movement as an element of a dressage test (27 N):  
Krzyżowanie nóg ... to podstawowe ćwiczenie w nauce ruchów bocznych.  
Piaff (rys. 72) to wysoko zebrany kłus w miejscu ... W ruchu tym koń nie może kołysać się, ani nawet lekko poruszać do tułu.  
Movement as locomotion (154 N + 6A):  
L1: swoboda, w (11), z (6), rytm, za (4).  
L5-R5: ciało (11), rytm (9).  
Jeśli koń w 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 jeźdźca porusza się w synchronizacji z ruchem konia.  
Ogólna wręczzenie często mówi najwięcej: całe ciało konia wyraża bolesne skrępowanie w ruchu. | The two meanings of the term are discussed separately as for movement (see Tables 24 and 25).  
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Krzyżowanie nóg ... to podstawowe ćwiczenie w nauce ruchów bocznych.  
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Movement as locomotion (154 N + 6A):  
L1: swoboda, w (11), z (6), rytm, za (4).  
L5-R5: ciało (11), rytm (9).  
Jeśli koń w 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 jeźdźca porusza się w synchronizacji z ruchem konia.  
Ogólna wręczzenie często mówi najwięcej: całe ciało konia wyraża bolesne skrępowanie w ruchu. |
| ruch do przodu (NP) [forward movement] | NP: ruch do przodu/ruch * do przodu/naprzód – 13/1/3  
27/9.93  
VP: ruszyć do przodu/ ruszyć * do przodu/ruszyć w przód – 5/1/1 VP: poruszać się do przodu – 3  
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: łydkę i wodzę.  
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. | | W wartości 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: łydkę i wodzę.  
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| ruch do przodu w bok (NP) [forward and sideways movement] | PP: do przodu i w bok – 3  
3/1.10  
W zasadzie w każdym przypadku polegało to na rozluźnieniu przez chody boczne, a następnie zachęcanie konia do wyjść z nosem do przodu i w dół i poruszanie się w ten sposób w elastycznym kłusie. | | W zasadzie w każdym przypadku polegało to na rozluźnieniu przez chody boczne, a następnie zachęcanie konia do wyjść z nosem do przodu i w dół i poruszanie się w ten sposób w elastycznym kłusie. |
| ruch do przodu w dół (NP) [forward and down movement] | PP: do przodu i w dół/w dół i do przodu – 3/2  
5/1.84  
W zasadzie w każdym przypadku polegało to na rozluźnieniu przez chody boczne, a następnie zachęcanie konia do wyjść z nosem do przodu i w dół i poruszanie się w ten sposób w elastycznym kłusie. | | W zasadzie w każdym przypadku polegało to na rozluźnieniu przez chody boczne, a następnie zachęcanie konia do wyjść z nosem do przodu i w dół i poruszanie się w ten sposób w elastycznym kłusie. |
| RUCHU, KIERUNK (NP) [direction of movement] | NP | L1: do (7), w (6).  
L5-R5: ustawić (6).  
Clusters: w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu (3).  
„Łopatka do wewnątrz” jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu. | L1: do (7), w (6).  
L5-R5: ustawić (6).  
Clusters: w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu (3).  
„Łopatka do wewnątrz” jest ćwiczeniem, w którym koń lekko zgięty wokół wewnętrznej łydki jest ustawiony w kierunku przeciwnym do kierunku ruchu. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>słowo</th>
<th>tłumaczenie</th>
<th>noty</th>
<th>przykłady</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>RUCHU</td>
<td>dążność do ruchu naprzód/do przodu – 5/1</td>
<td>Swoboda ruchu u konia jest koniecznym warunkiem wykazania się dążnością do ruchu naprzód.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RUSZYĆ</td>
<td>ruszyć – 13, ruszenie – 6</td>
<td>Rola instruktora w początkowym nauczaniu musi się zacząć od tego, jak prawidłowo ruszyć na koniu do przodu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>samoniesienie</td>
<td>samoniesienie/samoniesienie się – 1/3</td>
<td>[P]onieważ chód ten nie ma fazy zawieszenia, trudniej jest wyczuć u konia brak równowagi i samoniesienia się.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIAD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Teraz jeździec . . . wypycha siadem konia do przodu (tzw. działanie krzyża) i jednocześnie naciska (daje impuls) łydką wewnętrzną.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIAD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Od młodych koni, niezdolnych jeszcze do użycia siły nośnej, wymaga się jedynie wydłużenia kroków.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIAA</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Od młodych koni, niezdolnych jeszcze do użycia siły nośnej, wymaga się jedynie wydłużenia kroków.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SIAA</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>[N]apięcie obu wodzy . . . przenosi się wzdłuż szyi i grzbietu konia do zadu i pozwala na kontrolowanie jego siły pchającej.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skala wyszkolenia</td>
<td>skala treningowa/ujeżdżeniowa – 4/9, N: skala – 5</td>
<td>Praca nad regularnością doskonale pozwala zauważyć wzajemną zależność wszystkich elementów skali treningowej i powiązania między nimi.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>słowo</td>
<td>skrzywienie</td>
<td>śpięcie</td>
<td>STANIE W MIEJSCU</td>
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<tr>
<td>-------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>skrzywienie/krzywienie</td>
<td>śpięcie (tension)</td>
<td>STANIE W MIEJSCU (NP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Kłonie skokowe i WKKW, powinny być poddane prawidłowemu treningowi, uwzględniając korektę skrzywienia.***
**SZTUKA JEŹDZIECKA** *(the art of riding)*  
5/1.84

> Właśnie na tym polega cała sztuka i geniusz pracującego z koniem człowieka, by nie zamykać się w jednej „szkole” odrzucając pozostałe.

**SZTYWNY** *(stiff)*  
20/7.35

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A: sztywny – 11</th>
<th>ADV: sztywno – 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N: szybkość – 5</td>
<td>V: sztywnieć – 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reference shifts: six instances concern the rider, not the horse.

Prawo-czy leworeczność jeźdźca też ma wpływ na skrzywienie konia: staje się on „sztywny” po stronie mocniejszej ręki jeźdźca. Należy reagować, gdy koń wykazuje sztywność, niechęć do ruchu.

**SZYBKOŚĆ** *(speed)*  
30/11.03

| 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).

Zmiana chodów i ich szybkości powinna odbywać się miękko i delikatnie. To trzeba ćwiczyć stale, żeby nauczyć konia szybkich reakcji na pomoce jeźdźca.

**SZYJA** *(neck)*  
90/33.08

| N: szyja – 88 | A: szyjny – 2 |

Clusters: głowa i szyja (18), szyja i głowa (9), szyja i grzbiet (5).

Dowodem na osiągnięcie rozluźnienia jest gotowość konia do wyciągnięcia głowy i szyja do przodu i w dół we wszystkich trzech chodach. A czym innym jest właśnie żucie, jak nie wydłużeniem szyj i grzbietu.

**ŚCIANA** *(arena side)*  
26/9.56

| N |

L1: wzdłuż (5), duga, od, przy (3).
R1: ujeżdżalnia (7).

Clusters: do długiej ściany, do ściany ujeżdżalni (3).

[K]oń powinien być ustawiony równolegle do długiej ściany ujeżdżalni. To zgięcie widziane z przodu manifestuje się tym, że tylna noga wewnętrzna trafia pomiędzy ślady przednich kończyn. Jeśli popatrzymy na ślady kopyt na ziemi, to lewe przednie powinno być stawiane w tej samej linii co lewe tylne.

**ŚLAD** *(track)*  
24/8.82

| N |

L1: przekraczać (4), linia (3).
R1: przednia (8), noga (6), tylna (5).

L5-R5: noga (16), kopyto (8).

To zgięcie widziane z przodu manifestuje się tym, że tylna noga wewnętrzna trafia pomiędzy ślady przednich kończyn. Jeśli popatrzymy na ślady kopyt na ziemi, to lewe przednie powinno być stawiane w tej samej linii co lewe tylne.

**ŚRODEK CIĘŻKOŚCI** *(center of gravity)*  
28/10.29

| NP: środek/punkt ciężkości – 1/27 |

L1: pod (5).
L5-R5: przesunąć (6).


**TAKT** *(beat)*  
16/5.88

| N |

L1: jeden, pierwszy, trzeci (2).
R1: galop (3), kłus (2).

Między trzecim taktem galopu a pierwszym z następnego cyklu, następuje faza lotu.

**TALENT** *(talent)*  
10/3.68

| N |

Talent decyduje w rozgrywkach, konkursach szybkości, gdzie jest miejsce na improvizację.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TECHNIKA JEŹDZIECKA (NP) [riding technique]</th>
<th>NP: technika jazdy/jeźdźca – 3/1</th>
<th>N: technika – 11</th>
<th>Na pewno warto poświęcić trochę czasu i wysiłku, aby na manęźu, pod okiem instruktora, stale poprawiać swoją technikę jazdy, a zwłaszcza dosiad.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TEMPO (N) [pace] 33/12.13</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: odpowiednie (4). L5-R5: rytm (12), m/min (6), galop (3). Clusters: tempo i rytm, rytm i tempo (3). 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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEMPO, ZMIENIĆ (NP) [change pace] VP: zmieniać tempo – 1 N: zmiana tempa – 2</td>
<td>Częste zmiany kierunku i tempo ćwiczeń utrzymują konia w skupieniu i zainteresowaniu pracą.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trawers (N) [traverse] 3/1.10</td>
<td>Trawers i renwers różnią się ustawieniem zadu odpowiednio od i do ściany.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trener (N) [trainer] 30/11.03</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trójtakt (N) [three-beat rhythm] 3/1.10</td>
<td>A: trzytaktowy/3-taktowy – 2/1 Galop . . . [t]o chód 3-taktowy, 6-fazowy, gdzie cykl ruchowy tworzy rodzaj skoku.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRUDNY DO PROWADZENIA (AP) [difficult to lead] 3/1.10</td>
<td>A: trudny – 3 Oczywiście, zdarzają się konie trudne i niebezpieczne w czasie zajażdżki, ale są one nieliczne.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tulów (N) [trunk] 19/6.98</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Reference shifts: four instances concern the horse’s body, not the rider’s. Tajemnica spokojnej ręki polega na tym, że nie porusza się ona razem z tulowiem jeźdźca, ale z głową konia.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCIEC (V) [run off] 20/7.35</td>
<td>V: uciec – 9 N: uciekanie/ucieczka – 5/4</td>
<td>Reference shifts: seven instances denote a different meaning (the horse’s defence against the aids). „[W]ystarczy, że przestanę uciekać, a wtedy człowiek zmniejsza presję”. [K]oń dosiadany przez sztywnego . . . jeźdza zawsze będzie usiłował bronić się instynktowną ucieczką.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UCZĘŃ (N) [pupil] 5/1.84</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Do jego uczniów należy cała plejada doskonałych jeźdźców, takich jak: Heike Kemmer, Martina Hannover, Ulla Salzgeber, Sven Rothenberger i wielu innych.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Udo (N) [thigh] 4/1.47</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Uda i kolana nie służą przytrzymywaniu się siodła, lecz przylegają jedynie własnym ciężarem do niego.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **UJEŻDŻONY (A) [broke]** | **A:** ujeżdżony – 6  
**V:** ujeździć – 1 | **Od ujeżdżonego konia oczekujemy prawie instynktonowego ustawienia się w momencie sygnału od jeźdźca do rozpoczęcia jakiegokolwiek ruchu.**  
**uspokajanie (N) [calming]** | **N:** uspokojenie – 1  
**V:** uspokoić/uspokoić się – 1/1 | **Wyjmijmy stopę, pogłaszczmy konia, uspokójmy i spróbujmy znowu.**  
**USTawić KONIA (VP) [position the horse]** | **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.  
To znaczy, jeżeli dotychczas pomoce ustawiały konia np. w prawo (a więc gałopował po kole w lewo, gdyż jest to kontrgalop), to teraz pomoce ustawiają konia w lewo, czyli do galopu z lewej nogi.  
**ustawienie (N) [position]** | **N** | **L1:** odpowiednie (4), przyjmować, właściwe (3).  
**Reference shifts:** eight instances concern the rider’s body, not the horse’s.  
**USTAWIENIE GŁOWY (NP) [head position]** | **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).  
**Prezentował symulację komputerową, która ukazywała jak kolejne ustawienia głowy i szyi wpływają na pracę grzbietu i zadu.**  
**USTAWIENIE KONIA NA WPROST (NP) [horse in a straight position]** | **AP:** ustawiony na wprost – 1  
**VP:** ustawiać konia na wprost – 1  
**PP:** na wprost – 1 | **W pierwszym przypadku zatrzymujemy konia w pozycji wyjściowej tj. na wprost, głową w naszym kierunku, a następnie rozpoczynamy ruch w przeciwną stronę.**  
**usztywnienie (N) [stiffness]** | **N:** usztywnienie/usztywnianie – 16/1  
**A:** usztywniony/usztywniający – 4/2  
**V:** usztywniać/usztywniać się – 2/1 | **L1:** powodować/powód (5).  
**Przyspieszenie „naturalnego”... tempa powoduje zanik ekspresji ruchu i usztywnienie ciała.**  
Powszechnie widzi się takie usztywnienie przy próbach osiągnięcia zebrania, kiedy jeździec lub trener nie rozumieją istoty tego, co chcą osiągnąć.  
**uwaga (N) [attention]** | **N:** uwaga – 28  
**A:** uważny – 3 | **L1:** zwracać (11), szczególna (3).  
**Reference shifts:** 20 instances concern the rider’s attention, not the horse’s.  
Powinniśmy zwrócić uwagę, by pomiędzy zwrotem koń szedł po linii prostej.  
To wszystko zwiększa zebranie konia oraz jego koncentrację i uwagę.  
**wężyk (N) [serpentine]** | **N** | **Naukę kontrgalopu najlepiej rozpocząć wykonując w galopie wężyk płaski o trzech zakrętach.**  
**uwagę (N) [attention]** | **N:** uwaga – 28  
**A:** uważny – 3 | **L1:** zwracać (11), szczególna (3).  
**Reference shifts:** 20 instances concern the rider’s attention, not the horse’s.  
Powinniśmy zwrócić uwagę, by pomiędzy zwrotem koń szedł po linii prostej.  
To wszystko zwiększa zebranie konia oraz jego koncentrację i uwagę.  
**wężyk (N) [serpentine]** | **N** | **Naukę kontrgalopu najlepiej rozpocząć wykonując w galopie wężyk płaski o trzech zakrętach."
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Loci</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wodza (N) [rein]</td>
<td>96/35.29</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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). łydki i wodze muszą współdziałać i obie wodze też muszą ze sobą współdziałać. Jedno z najczęściej zadawanych pytań dotyczy stopnia napięcia wodzy: jak „ciężki” ma być kontakt z pyskiem?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wodza, czarna (NP) [draw rein]</td>
<td>5/1.84</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Taki sam rezultat przynosi używanie czarnej wodzy – zakładanie jej koniowi jest manifestacją braku umiejętności u jeźdźca.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wodza prowadząca (NP) [leading rein]</td>
<td>4/1.47</td>
<td>NP: wodza prowadząca/prowadząca wodza – 3/1</td>
<td>Powiedzenie, że zewnętrzna wodza jest wodzą prowadzącą będzie wtedy słusze, jeśli dodamy: „prowadząca konia prosto”!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wodze, oddać (VP) [give the reins]</td>
<td>10/3.68</td>
<td>VP: oddać wodze – 7</td>
<td>W momencie ruszenia nie należy oddawać (tzn. luzować) wodzy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wodze, skrócić (VP) [shorten the reins]</td>
<td>4/1.47</td>
<td>VP: skrócić wodze – 1</td>
<td>[R]ęka zewnętrzna nie zmienia swojego położenia (nie można ani oddać, ani skrócić tej wodzy).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wodzy, wstrzymujące działanie (NP) [opposing action of the reins]</td>
<td>5/1.84</td>
<td>NP: wstrzymujące działanie wodzy/działanie wstrzymujące wodzy/działanie wstrzymujące ręki – 2/1/1</td>
<td>The term is probably misspelled in the term source (wstrzymujące instead of wstrzymujące). Wstrzymujące działanie wodzy polega na chwilowym przynknięciu ręki, które nie może się zmienić w „cięgnięcie za wodze”, tylko musi być powtarzane na przemian z odpuszczeniem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>słowo</td>
<td>definicja</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>wałta</strong> (N) [volte]</td>
<td>ustępowanie jechane przez całą szerokość placu, co jakiś czas przeplatane woltami</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wpływ na konia</strong> (NP) [influencing the horse]</td>
<td>Każda praca z koniem to trening i zawsze jesteśmy trenerami, ponieważ wszystko, co robimy na wpływ na konia i czego go uczy. Doktor dużo zajmował się rozluźnieniem. Ma na to wpływ i sposób prowadzenia konia.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wsiadać na koni</strong> [mount]</td>
<td>Jak wiele koni kręci się podczas wsiadania, a jeździec szarpiąc za wodze i podskakując stara się dogonić wierzchowca z jedną nogą uwięzioną w strzemieniu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wyczucie jeździe</strong> (NP) [rider’s sense]</td>
<td>Czym jest wyczucie jeździeckie – jest umiejętnością oddziaływania na konia: - we właściwy sposób, - we właściwym momencie, - z właściwą intensywnością.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wygimnastykowanie</strong> (N) [suppleness]</td>
<td>Znowu klaniają się podstawy jazdy i początki, które kształtowały i wyrabiały u konia wygimnastykowanie kłody, równowagę i rytm.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>wyższa szkoła jazdy</strong> (NP) [high school]</td>
<td>Jeździec nie zajmujący się wyższą szkołą jazdy, nie powinien tego ćwiczyć, ponieważ mogłoby to zniechęcić konia do dalszej pracy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zad</strong> (N) [haunches]</td>
<td>Żad uciekający na zewnątrz, a czasem niemalże krzyżowanie zadnich nóg, nawet na 20-metrowym kole, to wcale nie jest rzadki widok.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zadem na zewnątrz</strong> (NP) [haunches out]</td>
<td>Żad uciekający na zewnątrz, a czasem niemalże krzyżowanie zadnich nóg, nawet na 20-metrowym kole, to wcale nie jest rzadki widok.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ZAD, ZAANGAŻOWAĆ</strong> (VP) [engage the hindquarters]</td>
<td>[T]rzeba pamiętać, że zaangażowanie zadu odnosi się do zasięgu wykroku tylnych nóg w przód, pod kłodę.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zagalopowanie</strong> (N) [canter depart]</td>
<td>Działanie pomocno jest . . . takie samo jak przy zagalopowaniu z klusa, ale musi być ono mocniejsze.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zatrzymać</strong> (V) [halt]</td>
<td>Należy zagalopować z dowolnej nóg, przegalopować kilka taktów, zatrzymać konia i niezwłocznie zagalopować z nogi przeciwnej.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Prawidłowe zatrzymanie konia powinno nastąpić w wyniku wykonania parady.

Konie muszą rozumieć, czego od nich chceemy i muszą mieć odpowiednio dużo czasu, aby to pojąć. Tylko w ten sposób można zdobyć ich zaufanie.

Naby wiesz co to znaczy zebrać konia, ale jak to zrobić – od początku do końca?

Dodawanie i skracanie polega na zmianie stopnia zebrania konia; należy je wykonywać stale, w każdym chodzie, na ujeżdżalni i w terenie.

Osiągnięcie prawdziwego zebrania zabiera dużo czasu i nie wszystkie konie są w stanie dojść do tego etapu.

Jeździec musi tylko wewnętrzną wodzą utrzymać to zgięcie, a resztę powoduje stały impuls łydki.

Prawdziwe zgięcie szyi w jej środkowym punkcie i utrzymaniu równowagi na wewnętrznym kolanie i strzemieniu, bardziej panujemy nad głową, szyją i równowagą konia.

Oto bardzo praktyczne ćwiczenie, które uczy konia stać na obydwu wodzach z równoczesnym pokazaniem mu kierunku oraz zgięcia wewnętrznego w środkowym punkcie szyi.

Zaciskanie i rozluźnianie palców trzymających wodze będzie dla konia sygnałem „obudź się i zatrzymaj, albo zwolnij”.

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>zatrzymanie (N) [halt]</th>
<th>19/6.98</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>L5-R5: parada (5). Prawidłowe zatrzymanie konia powinno nastąpić w wyniku wykonania parady.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| zaufanie (N) [trust]  | 10/3.68 | N: zaufanie – 8  
A: ufający – 1  
V: zaufać – 1 | Konie muszą rozumieć, czego od nich chceemy i muszą mieć odpowiednio dużo czasu, aby to pojąć. Tylko w ten sposób można zdobyć ich zaufanie. |
| ząb (N) [tooth]      | 10/3.68 | [M]iękka ręka . . . sprawia, że wędkidło prawidłowo działa na dziąsła zamiast opierać się na zębach. |
| zebrać konia (VP)     | 3/1.10  | VP: zebrać konia – 1  
N: zbieranie – 2 | Naby wiesz co to znaczy zebrać konia, ale jak to zrobić – od początku do końca? |
| zebrania, stopień (NP)| 4/1.47  | NP: stopień zebrania – 3  
AP: zebrany w najwyższym stopniu – 1 | Dodawanie i skracanie polega na zmianie stopnia zebrania konia; należy je wykonywać stale, w każdym chodzie, na ujeżdżalni i w terenie. |
| zebranie (N) [collection] | 39/14.34 | N: zebranie – 31  
A: zebrany – 8 | L1: [zebranie:] prawdziwe, w (4), osiągnięcie (3). Osiągnięcie prawdziwego zebrania zabiera dużo czasu i nie wszystkie konie są w stanie dojść do tego etapu. (J)Jeśli koń nie jest w stanie pracować w zebraniu, to nie będzie w stanie pokazać prawidłowych chodów wyciągniętych. |
| 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. Jeździec musi tylko wewnętrzną wodzą utrzymać to zgięcie, a resztę powoduje stały impuls łydki. (S)Stopień zgięcia zależy od wielkości wykonywanego okręgu. |
| zgięcie boczne (NP)   | 3/1.10  | NP | [R]ównie rozłożenie ciężaru pomiędzy lewe i prawe nogi jest główną cechą prawidłowego zgięcia bocznego. |
| ZGIECIE SZYI (NP) [neck bend] | 8/2.94 | NP: zgięcie/zginanie szyi – 3/1  
NP: zgięcie środka szyi – 1  
NP: zgęta szyja/szyja zgęta – 1/1  
VP: zginać szyję – 1 | Przy zgięciu szyi w jej środkowym punkcie i utrzymaniu równowagi na wewnętrznym kolanie i strzemieniu, bardziej panujemy nad głową, szyją i równowagą konia. |
| ZGIECIE WEWNĘTRZNE (NP) [bend to the inside] | 4/1.47 | NP: zgięcie wewnętrzne/wewnętrzne zgięcie – 2/1  
AP: wewnętrznie zgęty – 1 | Oto bardzo praktyczne ćwiczenie, które uczy konia stać na obydwu wodzach z równoczesnym pokazaniem mu kierunku oraz zgięcia wewnętrznego w środkowym punkcie szyi. |
| ZMIĘCZONY (A) [tired] | 5/1.84  | A: zmęczony – 2  
N: zmęczenie – 3 | Koń rozluźniony to nie znaczy koń leniwy, wymagający stałego popędzania batem. Ani też koń zmęczony. |
| ZMIANA KIERUNKU (NP) [change of direction] | 7/2.57 | NP | Nikt nie jest w stanie spowodować zmiany kierunku ruchu konia wodzą zewnętrzną, zachowując prawidłowe jego ułożenie w zakręcie. |
| ZWOLNIĆ (V) [slow down] | 4/1.47 | V: zwolnić/zwalniać – 1/1  
N: zwolnienie/zwalnianie – 1/1 | Zaciskanie i rozluźnianie palców trzymających wodze będzie dla konia sygnałem „obudź się i zatrzymaj, albo zwolnij”. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ZWROT (N) [turn]</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Powinniśmy zwrócić uwagę, by pomiędzy <strong>zwrotami</strong> koń szedł po linii prostej.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>zwrot na przodzie (NP)</strong> [turn on the forehand]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Gdy wykonuje się <strong>zwrot na przodzie</strong> w prawo, wówczas prawa łydka pozostaje na popręgu, lewa nieco przesuwa się za popręg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>zwrot na zadzie (NP)</strong> [turn on the haunches]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Najłatwiej wykonać <strong>zwrot na zadzie</strong> wychodząc z półwolty, gdyż wtedy koń jest już w odpowiednim ustawieniu.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **żucie (N) [chewing]** | N: żucie/przeżuwanie – 1/2  
V: żuć – 1 | Zgodnie z tym co mówił o czynnikach wpływających na **przeżuwanie**, nie jest powiedziane, że koń potrzebuje wędzidła by żuć. |
| **żucie z ręki (NP) [long and low on the bit]** | NP: żucie z ręki – 3  
N: żucie – 12  
V: żuć – 1 | 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 pozostawać na wędzidle. |
| **ŻUC KIELZNO (VP) [chew on the bit]** | VP: żuć/przeżuć wędzidło – 2/1  
AP: żujący wędzidło – 1  
NP: przeżucie wędzidła – 1 | Wsiadał, lewko brał wodze, a koń ustawiał leb jak należy i zaczynał **żuc wędzidło**. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term [Equivalent]</th>
<th>Total/per 15,000 words</th>
<th>Forms in the subcorpus</th>
<th>Significant collocates and clusters</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BALANS (N) [balance]</td>
<td>4/1.02</td>
<td>N: balans – 3  V: balansować – 1</td>
<td>Im więcej siły koń nabierze, tym łatwiej mu będzie utrzymać balans.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>banda (N) [arena board]</td>
<td>6/1.53</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Początkowo całe parady należy wykonywać na śladzie, ponieważ kontakt z bandą ułatwia zatrzymanie.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>biodra, obniżenie (NP) [lowering the hip]</td>
<td>6/1.53</td>
<td>NP: obniżenie * biodra – 2  VP: obniżyć * biodro – 3  biodro się obniża – 1</td>
<td>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.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>budowy, wada (NP) [conformation defect]</td>
<td>7/1.79</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Są konie, którym ze względu na wady budowy ciężko jest pracować w zgięciu.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chód boczny (NP) [lateral movement]</td>
<td>13/3.32</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Niestety jeźdźcy rzadko wykonują chody boczne na łuku w celach ćwiczeniowych.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>słowo</td>
<td>definicja</td>
<td>przykład</td>
<td>uwagi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chód podstawowy (NP)</td>
<td>[basic gait]</td>
<td>chód podstawowy/podstawowy chód – 7/4</td>
<td>Regularność, rozluźnienie i brak spięcia w chodach podstawowych konia umożliwiają jeźdźcowi dobry dosiad i prawidłowe używanie łydek.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciąg na * przekątnej</td>
<td>5/1.28</td>
<td>Podwójne ciągi na długiej przekątnej wykonywane są w konkursach Grand Prix na czworoboku o wymiarach 20 x 60 m, na linii o długości 30 m.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ciąg w galopie (NP) [half-pass on a diagonal]</td>
<td>5/1.28</td>
<td>N: ciągnięcie – 3 A: ciągnący – 2</td>
<td>Podwójny ciąg w galopie jest wypracowaniem większej giętkości konia po wewnętrznej stronie i mocniejsze obciążenie jego wewnętrznej zadniej nóg.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cierpliwość (N) [patience]</td>
<td>11/2.81</td>
<td>N: cierpliwość – 9 ADV: cierpliwie – 1</td>
<td>Dla jeźdźca stępowanie jest tylko kwestią cierpliwości, natomiast dla konia czymś niezwykle ważnym.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 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:** przejmowanie ciężaru przez zad – 2  
|         | **NP:** przyjmowanie * ciężaru na zad – 1  
|         | **VP:** przejęć * ciężar na zad/przejęć więcej ciężaru na zad – 4/2  
|         | **VP:** przeniesć/przesunąć ciężar na zad – 1/1  

*Zad przejmuje * ciężar – 2

---

### COFANIE (N) [backing]

| 97/24.75 | **N:** cofanie/cofanie się – 59/8  
|          | **N:** cofnięcie/cofnięcie się – 2/7  
|          | **V:** cofać/cofać się/wycofywać się – 4/14/2  

*L1:* nauka (5), narów (4).  
*L5-R5:* krok (8).  
Nigdy na konie z narowem cofania się nie wywieram żadnego nacisku wymuszającego ruch do przodu.  
Podczas każdej jazdy również kilka razy sklaniam konia do cofnięcia się o kilka kroków.

---

### czterotakt (N) [four-beat rhythm]

| 19/4.85 | **N:** czterotakt – 9  
|         | **A:** czterotaktowy – 10  

*L5-R5:* galop (6), step (5).  
Clusters: step jest chodem czterotaktowym (3).  
Step jest chodem czterotaktowym o ośmiu fazach ruchu.

---

### ĆWICZENIE POD JEŹDŻCEM (NP) [an exercise under the rider]

| 17/4.34 | **NP:** ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem/* pod jeźdźcem – 1/1  
|          | **PP:** pod jeźdźcem – 15  

*Ćwiczenie piaffu pod jeźdźcem,* bez pomocy drugiej osoby, przebiega następująco:  
Zakłusowujemy z zebranej postawy „stój” i dążymy do tego, by koń znalazł się „przed łydkami.”

---

### ĆWICZENIE W PILARACH (NP) [an exercise between the pillars]

| 9/2.30 | **NP:** ćwiczenie w pilarach – 1  
|         | **PP:** w pilarach – 8  

Praca w pilarach umożliwia koniowi dużą swobodę ruchów i dzięki temu nadaje się dobrze do skorygowania błędów w lewadzie.

---

### dodanie (N) [speeding up]

| 20/5.10 | **N:** dodanie/dodawanie – 11/2  
|          | **A:** dodany – 6  
|          | **V:** dodać – 1  

*L5-R5:* galop, kłus (5).  
Na początku wystarcza dodanie do aktywnego klusa roboczego.  
Ciągłe ćwiczenie dodań, gdy koń ma nadal problemy ze zgięciem . . ., jest bezwartościowe.

---

### dosiad (N) [seat]

| 44/11.23 | **N:** dosiadać – 8  
|           | **N:** dosiadamie – 1  

*L5-R5:* łydka (7), ręka (4).  
[W]ięlu jeźdźców skraca dodany galop za pomocą wodzy zamiast łydek i dosiadu.  
Przy zrównoważonym dosiadzie jeźdza jego tułów spełnia funkcję dźwigni.

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### DOSIADAĆ (V) [mount]

| 9/2.30 | **V:** dosiadać – 8  
|         | **N:** dosiadamie – 1  

Dosiadając konia, jeździec zobowiązany jest do zapewnienia mu zdrowia.

---

### DOSIAD MIĘKKI (NP) [relaxed seat]

| 5/1.28 | **NP:** miękki dosiad – 2  
|         | **VP:** siedzieć miękko w siodle/miękko siedzieć w siodle – 1/2  

Osiągnięcie miękkiego i w pełni rozluźnionego dosiadu to lata żmudnej pracy.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dosiad skrętny (NP)</td>
<td>[turning seat]</td>
<td>Dzięki dosiadowi skrętnemu (zob. str. 68) jeździec może wymagać od konia niezbędnego zgięcia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dwutakt (N)</td>
<td>[two-beat rhythm]</td>
<td>W celu znalezienia lepszego balansu koń zaczyna kroczyć w dwutakcie: albo będzie caplować, albo iść inochodem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>efektowność (N)</td>
<td>[spectacular nature]</td>
<td>Powyższe ćwiczenie ułatwia wykonanie efektownego piruetu w wysokim ustawieniu, pod warunkiem że koń jest w stanie przyjąć takie zebranie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELASTYCZNY (A)</td>
<td>[elastic]</td>
<td>Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faza lotu (NP)</td>
<td>[suspension phase]</td>
<td>Zmiana nogi powinna odbyć się w fazie lotu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOULÉE (N)</td>
<td>[foulée]</td>
<td>Przeciwieństwem takiego ruchu byłyby pozbawione wyrazu krótkie i spieszne skoki galopu (foulée).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALOP (N)</td>
<td>[canter]</td>
<td>Najpoważniejszym błędem w galopie jest krzyżowanie, gdyż dochodzi nie tylko do zaburzeń w takcie chodu, ale i w kolejności stawiania nóg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GALOP, krzyżowanie w (NP)</td>
<td>[disunited canter]</td>
<td>Możesz powiedzieć, że piruet w galopie to najciaśniejsza wersja volty w ciągu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>galop, skok w (NP)</td>
<td>[foulée]</td>
<td>[S]kok galopu najlepiej się poprawia dzięki częstym zagalopowaniom z klusa na kole. Zadanie jeźdza to przede wszystkim ponowne zaokrąglenie skoków galopu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAŁOPOWAĆ (V)</td>
<td>[canter]</td>
<td>Wewnętrzna łydka pilnuje zgięcia oraz tego, by koń aktywnie galopował zadem. Jeśli koń zacznie spieszyć podczas galopu, galopować dalej bez zmiany tempa.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reference shifts:**

- five instances concern the rider, not the horse.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Galop nośny (NP)</th>
<th>6/1.53</th>
<th>NP: galop nośny/nośny galop – 5/1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galop roboczy (NP)</td>
<td>8/2.04</td>
<td>Kiedy koń porusza się w rozluźnieniu i samoniesieniu w galopie roboczym, możemy przystąpić do zwiększania tempa na długich ścianach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galop wyciągnięty (NP)</td>
<td>6/1.53</td>
<td>Patrząc z boku na konia, powinno się widzieć wyraźną różnicę w długości skoków między galopem nośnym a wyciągniętym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galop zebrany (NP)</td>
<td>8/12</td>
<td>Dobry ciąg jest zawsze w galopie zebranym, przy zachowaniu impulsu... i równego trójkątu. Nie ma jednego zebranego galopu, w przeciwnym razie robilibyśmy wszystko tak samo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galop z lewej nogi (NP)</td>
<td>8/2.04</td>
<td>Takie działania „otwierają lewą stronę”, więc koń będzie chciał przez nią „wyskoczyć”, robiąc lewymi nogami dłuższy wykrok i zaczynając galop na lewą nogę.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galop z prawej nogi (NP)</td>
<td>11/2.81</td>
<td>Naturalnie, jeśli chciełeś galopu na lewą nogę, to dałeś mu prawidłowe pomoce. Aby skłonić go do galopu na prawą nogę, zacznij oddziaływać odwrotnie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Głos (N)</td>
<td>11/2.81</td>
<td>W tym celu należy nieco mocniej przyłożyć łydki, a ich działanie można wesprzeć głosem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Głowa (N)</td>
<td>47/11.99</td>
<td>Clusters: głowa i szyja (8), szyja i głowa (3). Reference shifts: eight instances concern the rider’s head, not the horse’s. Gdy koń opuścił głowę i szyję, należy pozwolić mu na równomierne kołysanie głową w rytm ruchu. Takie konie zazwyczaj idą z głową ustawioną poza pionem, robią się i podskakują.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grzbiet długi (NP)</td>
<td>4/1.02</td>
<td>Cwiczenie to zaleca się szczególnie dla koni o długim grzbiecie, które mają problemy z jego zaokrągleniem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grzbiet pracujący (NP)</td>
<td>15/3.83</td>
<td>Poziom przepuszczalności zależy jednak od poziomu wyszkolenia, a decydującą rolę ma tu praca grzbietu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inochód (N) [pace gait]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mylne jest stwierdzenie, że za długą praca w stępie szkodzi koniowi i czyni go podatnym na <strong>inochód</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JAZDA KONNA (NP) [horse riding]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Każdy punkt skali wyszkolenia w pewien sposób zapewnia koniowi zdrowie psychiczne, dobrą pracę grzbietu i nóg oraz sprawia, że <strong>jazda konna</strong> staje się przyjemnością.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jazda w terenie (NP) [trail ride]</td>
<td>NP: jazda/przejażdżka/spacer w terenie – 4/1/1 VP: wyjeżdżać w teren – 2 PP: w terenie – 6</td>
<td><strong>Szkolenie w skokach i jazda w terenie</strong> zostaną omówione w innym miejscu, odpowiednio bowiem do stanu wyszkolenia konia na każdy trening przygotowujemy specjalny program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jęździec (N) [rider]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>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). Nad prawałdowym ruchem jeździec może pracować, jeszcze zanim po raz pierwszy dosiędzie konia. Doświadczony jeździec może dosiadać młodego konia, którego chodem brak jeszcze regularności. Połączenie ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia ma na celu – w pierwszej kolejności – wskazywanie koniowi kierunku, w którym ma podążać, oraz przyzwyczajenie go do ogłowia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jęździectwo (N) [horse riding]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Jedną z podstawowych rzeczy w jeździectwie jest nauczenie konia akceptacji wewnętrznej łydki.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kadencja (N) [cadence]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Każde z kopyt dotyka ziemi osobno jako element naturalnej kadencji stępania.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kapriola (N) [capriole]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Idealna kapriola to taka, w której przednie nogi konia znajdują się wyżej niż zadnie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kara (N) [punishment]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>[N]ieustannie powtarzana łydka stanowi dla konia karę za każdy wykonany krok.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karać (V) [punish]</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>Jeśli koń sam zrobi zmianę, nie karz go za to. Oznacza to, że chce z tobą pracować, i że się stara.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kielzno (N) [bit]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Zdrowy na ciele i umyśle koń nie powinien mieć problemów z akceptacją kielzna od początku pracy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kląb (N) [withers]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Wysokie postawienie wychodzi z klębu i koń sprawia wrażenie jakby mocniej szedł „pod górę”.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klus (N) [trot]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: w (64), z (9), krok (7), stop (6). L5-R5: galop (39), stop (27), chód (9). Clusters: klus i galop (17). Przykładem łatwej półparady może być przejście z klusa do stępa i na odwrot. Moje czterolatki chodzą stępem, klusem i galopem. Ćwiczenia, które robimy, zależą od konia. W zasadzie, jeśli twój koń idzie prawidłowo w klusie, w pasaż wejdzie automatycznie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Klus anglezowany (NP) [posting trot]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Elastyczny ruch od żadu można koniowi ułatwić przez klus anglezowany.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Ten, kto nie ma tej umiejętności, będzie obijać łydki o brzuch konia, zwłaszcza w klusie ćwiczebnym.

W klusie hiszpańskim – w porównaniu z klusem wyciągniętym – koń unosi przednie nogi zdecydujaco wyżej.

Kiedy koń klusuje, włączasz się aktywnie w jego ruch do przodu.

Podobnie winniśmy wystrzegać się zbyt wczesnego ćwiczenia klusa pośredniego. Warunkiem klusa pośredniego jest możliwość rozwinięcia z klusa zebranego niezbędnego impulsu.

Klus wyciągnięty jest ukoronowaniem planowego i wszechstronnego wygimnastykowania i wyszkolenia konia.

W początkowej fazie szkolenia klus zebrany należy wykonywać tylko na krótkich odcinkach. Nad klusem zebranym również nie pracujemy w trakcie szkolenia podstawowego młodego konia.

L1: na (42), po (6), strona (4).
L5-R5: kierunek (10), jazda na kole (6), galop na kole (4).

Wielu jeźdźcom wydaje się, że lotna zmiana po prostu oznacza przejechanie z koła wykonywanego w jednym kierunku bezpośrednio na koło wykonywane w drugim kierunku.

L1: na (10), stabilny (6), przyjąć (5), delikatny, mocny (4).
L5-R5: wodza (19), rozluźnienie (7), impuls (6).

Jeździec, który umie skorzystać z wrodzonego talentu konia, pozwoli mu podczas kontrgalopu zmienić nogę w narożniku.

L1: szkolenie/wyszkolenie (4).
Zasadniczo nie da się zastosować szablonu w szkoleniu konia ujeżdżeniowego.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KOŃ WIERZCHOWY (NP) [riding horse]</th>
<th>14/3.57</th>
<th>Galopując na wierzchowcu po łąkach i lasach, również musimy mieć konia dobrze ustawionego na pomocach.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>koziołek (N) [cavaletto]</td>
<td>5/1.28</td>
<td>Pomoce może tu być włączenie pracy na koziołkach, w spokojnym tempie, w klusie anglezowanym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kregęsłup (N) [spine]</td>
<td>21/5.36</td>
<td>L5-R5: wygiąć (7). Wolną część kregęsłupa powinna działać jak amortyzator wstrząsów spowodowanych ruchem konia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krok, obszerny (NP) [ground-covering stride]</td>
<td>40/10.21</td>
<td>W stępie wyciągniętym koń stawia długie, obszernie kroki. Galop jest obszerny, kiedy koń przy rozluźnionym grzbiecie i obniżonym zadzie dobrze kryje teren dynamicznymi skokami w przód – w górę.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kroków, kolejność (NP) [sequence of steps]</td>
<td>5/1.28</td>
<td>Kolejność kroków przedstawiono na ilustracjach faz ruchu w stępie (s. 115), klusie (s. 104) i galopie (s. 109).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krupada (N) [croupade]</td>
<td>4/1.02</td>
<td>Ćwiczenia tworzące przejście do szkoły nad ziemią to lewada i pezada. Kurbeta, krupada, balotada i kapriola to z kolei elementy szkoły nad ziemią.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krzyż (N) [lower back]</td>
<td>6/1.53</td>
<td>Myśl o pomocach popędzających, o łydce, krzyżu, połączenie których powoduje, że twoj dosiad działa aktywnie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>krzyża, napięcie (NP) [bracing the back]</td>
<td>7/1.79</td>
<td>Jednostronne napięcie przez jeźdźca krzyża nie dopuszcza do cofnięcia się konia, co stanowiłoby wszakże mniejszy błąd.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kulawizna wędzidłowa (NP) [rein lameness]</td>
<td>8/2.04</td>
<td>Najpoważniejszym ze wszystkich błędów w regularności chodów jest tzw. kulawizna wędzidłowa: jedna para przekątnych nóg kroczy mocniej niż druga.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kurbeta (N) [courbette]</td>
<td>11/2.81</td>
<td>Podczas pokazów w Królewskiej Szkole Jazdy w Jerez widziałem ogiery wykonujące w ręce do dziesięciu kurbet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lekkość (N) [lightness]</td>
<td>28/7.14</td>
<td>L5-R5: wodza (11). Lekkość konia w klusie wyciągniętym musi być spowodowana tylko przez samo niesienie się konia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lonża (N) [lunge line] 10/2.55</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Szkoleniowiec pilnuje <em>lonżę</em>, a pomocnik wodzą, by skok nie tylko był do góry, ale i do przodu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>łopatki, swoboda w (NP) [freedom of shoulders] 7/1.79</td>
<td>NP: swoboda łopatek/w łopatkach – 3/2 łopatka staje się swobodniejsza – 2</td>
<td>Wykonanie tych ćwiczeń wymaga od konia dużej <em>swobody w łopatkach</em>, co możliwe jest jedynie przy dobrzej pracy zadu, nad którą jeździec czuwa cały czas.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>łopatką do przodu (NP) [shoulder-fore] 22/5.61</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Łopatką do przodu to najlepsze ćwiczenie przygotowujące konia do chodów bocznyc. Ćwiczenie <em>łopatką do przodu</em> można wykonywać zarówno na linii prostej, jak i na łuku.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>łydka (N) [leg aid] 123/31.38</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Oprócz głosu, bata i ostróg są jeszcze takie pomoce, jak ciężar, łydki i wodze. Jeździec działając <em>łydkami</em>, nie może przechylać się na bok, w stronę łydki przesuwającej konia. Nagę od uda do kołana należy ciągnąć w dół, a <em>łydki</em> luźno przyłożyć do boków konia.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>łydka aktywizująca (NP) [driving leg aid] 15/3.83</td>
<td>NP: łydka aktywizująca/aktywizująca łydka – 11/4</td>
<td>Oprócz <em>łydek aktywizujących</em> stosujemy jeszcze łydki o działaniu ograniczającym i przesuwającym.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LYDKAMI, PRZED (PP) [in front of the leg] 5/1.28</td>
<td>PP: przed łydką/łydkami – 4/1</td>
<td>Kiedy koń jest zarówno „przed łydką”, jak i „pod jeźdźcem”, jeździec może efektywnie wykorzystywać pracę jego zadu i tylnych nóg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lydka ograniczająca</strong> (NP) [<em>restricting leg aid</em>]</td>
<td>NP: lydka ograniczająca/ograniczająca lydka/lydka o działaniu ograniczającym – 2/3/1 lydka ogranicza/lydka działa ograniczająco – 1/1</td>
<td>L5-R5: zewnętrzny (5). Położoną za popręgiem, <strong>ograniczającą prawą lydką</strong> zapobiega zbyt śpiesznemu i zbyt silnemu przesuwaniu się zadu w bok.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lydka przesuwająca</strong> (NP) [<em>lateral leg aid</em>]</td>
<td>NP: lydka przesuwająca/przesuwająca lydka/przesuwająca * lydka – 5/2/1</td>
<td>Dopiero gdy jest jasne, że przód idzie pierwszy, zewnętrzna <strong>przesuwająca lydka</strong> może zadziałać aktywniej.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lydka zewnętrzna</strong> (NP) [<em>outside leg</em>]</td>
<td>NP: nacisk lydki/* lydki – 4/2 A: lydka – 3/32 N: nacisk – 3</td>
<td>Kiedy koń zagalopował z prawidłowej nogi i utrzymuje krok, należy skrócić prowadzącą stronę, lekko kierując jego nos w stronę wiodących nóg i stosując wewnętrzny <strong>nacisk lydką</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lydki, nacisk (NP) [leg pressure]</strong></td>
<td>A: miękki (N) [softness] – 31 ADV: miękko – 6</td>
<td>Po wyk. wykonaniu pełnej parady należy zwrócić uwagę, by kontakt był cały czas <strong>miękki</strong>. By dobrze wykonać półparadę, jeździec musi opanować prowadzenie konia <strong>miękką ręką</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>lydkie, ustępowanie od (NP) [leg-yielding]</strong></td>
<td>L5-R5: ręka (6), kontakt (5). [P]rzycie zamiast <strong>ustępowania od lydki</strong> na otwarciu stronie koła w kłusie.</td>
<td>[P]rzy uzyskaniu pełnego parady należy zwrócić uwagę, by kontakt był cały czas <strong>miękki</strong>. By dobrze wykonać półparadę, jeździec musi opanować prowadzenie konia <strong>miękką ręką</strong>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>miękość (N)</strong></td>
<td>L5-R5: koło (6). Jeździec skuteczniejsze jest <strong>ustępowaniem od lydki</strong> na otwarciu stronie koła w kłusie.</td>
<td>L5-R5: koło (6). Jeździec skuteczniejsze jest <strong>ustępowaniem od lydki</strong> na otwarciu stronie koła w kłusie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>mięsień (N) [muscle]</strong></td>
<td>L5-R5: rozluźnienie, szyja (6), udo (4). Pośladki i <strong>mięśnie</strong> na wodzie są lekko skośne, pod kątem dochodzącym do około 45 stopni (na dwóch śladach).</td>
<td>[P]rozluźnienie, szyja (6), udo (4). Pośladki i <strong>mięśnie</strong> na wodzie są lekko skośne, pod kątem dochodzącym do około 45 stopni (na dwóch śladach).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>mięsień grzbietu (NP) [back muscle]</strong></td>
<td>U rozluźnionego konia <strong>imięśnie grzbietu</strong> zacznają elastycznie sprężynować, a linia góra równoleżnicie się zakończy.</td>
<td>U rozluźnionego konia <strong>mięśnie grzbietu</strong> zacznają elastycznie sprężynować, a linia góra równoleżnicie się zakończy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>MOMENT ZAWIESZENIA (NP) [suspension phase]</strong></td>
<td>NP: moment/faza zawieszenia – 1/6</td>
<td>W kłusie i galopie następuje <strong>faza zawieszenia</strong>, w której równocześnie wszystkie cztery nogi konia znajdują się nad ziemią.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>nagradzanie (N) [rewarding]</strong></td>
<td>N: nagradzanie – 1 A: nagroda – 10</td>
<td>„<strong>Miękkość w pysku</strong>” osiąga się przede wszystkim poprzez <strong>nagradzanie</strong> wierzchowca całkowitą redukcją nacisku.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAGRODA (N) [reward]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Kiedy jeździec prawidłowo zastosuje pochwałę, koń zrozumie każde z tych zachowań jako nagrodę.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>narożnik (N) [corner]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: w (17), do, z (3). L5-R5: zgiecie/wygięcie (7). W narożniku koń powinien być równomiernie zgięty, od potylicy aż do ogona. Tempo w narożniku nie może się zmieniać, czyli koń nie może iść ani szybciej, ani wolniej.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>natura (N) [character]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: z (17). Ponieważ koń z natury skrzywiony jest na prawo, ciężko mu wygiąć szyję w lewą stronę. Koń zawsze stara się uciekać, to część jego natury.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAWRÓT (N) [stretch]</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Duże znaczenie mają nawroty klusa lub galopu, na przykład na długich ścianach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nogi, obciążanie przedniej nogi (NP) [shifting the weight to foreleg]</td>
<td>NP: obciążenie przedniej nogi – 3 A: tylna – 4</td>
<td>Zbyt niskie ustawienie szyi powoduje zbyt mocne naciągnięcie mięśni grzbietu i obciążenie przednich nóg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podniesienie przedniej nogi (NP)</td>
<td>Podniesienie przedniej nogi/uniesienie przedniej nogi – 1/1/1</td>
<td>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.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Podniesienie przedniej nogi/ podnieść przednią nogę/uniesienie przednią nogę – 1/4/1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podnoszenie przedniej nogi/podnieść * przednią nogę/uniesienie przednią nogę</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOGI, PODSTAWIĆ TYLNE (VP) [engage hind legs]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawić zadnią nogę/zadnią nogę/nogę – 14/2/1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wskutek tego zad musi przyjmować większe obciążenie i podstawiać się prosto pod środek ciężkości.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stwierdzenie, że im głębiej koń podstawia zadnią nogę pod kłodę w kierunku linii środka ciężkości, tym lepszy ma ruch, jest niestety błędne.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawić zad – 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawić się – 4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawianie zadniej nogi/* zadniej nogi/nogą tylną/koncosystemy tylną/nogą/zadą – 5/2/1/11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawiony zad – 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawić nogę podstawiona/ podstawiona zadnia noga – 2/1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Podstawienie – 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zad + V + podstawiony – 2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeśli koń ma talent i opanował wykonanie lotnych zmian nogi co dwa tempa, . . . jeździec może nauczyć go zmiany co tempo dosłownie w ciągu kilku dni.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1: mocny (7).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clusters: podstawić zadnie nogi pod środek ciężkości (5).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zmiana nogi co tempo (NP) [one-time change]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zmiana nogi co tempo/co * tempa*/ co * tempa – 4/5/1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeśli koń ma talent i opanował wykonanie lotnych zmian nogi co dwa tempa, . . . jeździec może nauczyć go zmiany co tempo dosłownie w ciągu kilku dni.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zmiana nogi co tempo/co * tempa – 2/3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zmiana nogi co jedną foule – 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1: wykonać (8), nauka (5).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Najlepiej zaplanować ćwiczenie lotnej zmiany nogi tak, by wykonywać ją na koniec treningu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeśli lotna zmiana, którą zrobi koń nie jest „przeciwko mnie”, pozwalam na zmianę.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Zmiana nogi w galopie (NP) [flying lead change]</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>zmiana nogi w galopie/lotna zmiana nogi/lotna zmiana – 4/42/19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Prawidłowe wykonanie zwykłej zmiany nogi w galopie nie jest proste, gdyż wymaga od konia dobrej pracy zadem i jego mocniejszego obciążenia.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>L1: wykonać (9).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jeżeli powinien pamiętać o tym, że zmiany nogi na jedną ze stron są dla konia zawsze łatwiejsze.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Jeśli konia zawsze łatwiejsze.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zmiana nogi (NP) [lead change]</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>zmiana nogi – 19</td>
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<tr>
<td>zmiana – 20</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Zmienić nogę*/ nogę – 13/1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>L1: wykonać (9).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Jeśli konia zawsze łatwiejsze.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zmiana nogi w galopie, zwykła zmiana (NP) [simple lead change]</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Zmiana nogi w galopie/lotna zmiana nogi/lotna zmiana – 4/42/19</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>L5-R5: linia, pion (6).</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Linia czoło-nos może być lekko przed pionem.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Nos (N) [nose]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nogi w galopie, kolejność stawiania nóg (NP) [footfall sequence]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kolejność stawiania nóg/* nóg/kopyt – 4/1/1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Na poprawność galopu wpływ ma kolejność stawiania nóg, gdyż w pewnym momencie zewnętrzna zadnia noga przejmuje cały ciężar konia.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>nóg, przekątna para</strong> (NP) [diagonal leg pair]</td>
<td><strong>oddziaływanie na konia</strong> (NP) [influencing the horse]</td>
<td><strong>ogon</strong> (N) [tail]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>18/4.59</td>
<td>34/8.67</td>
<td>11/2.81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Kościół zachowuje takt w kłusie, jeżeli jednocześnie unosi i stawia nogi parami po przekątnej.** |

| **Coś to służy poprawie przepuszczalności, posłuszeństwa i zebrania. . . . Nogi stawiane są, podobnie jak w kłusie, po przekątnej.** |

| **Podczas stępa kręgosłup konia tworzy linię prostą od ogona do głowy.** |

| **Powyższy jeździec z wybranej nogi bez oporu i na każde polecenie. Gdy koń pokazuje opór, nigdy nie uzyska wysokich ocen na czworoboku.** |

| **Pod żadnym pozorem nie bij go ani nie kłuj ostrogą.** |

| **Rzadko zaczyna szkolić konia bez prawidłowego geometrycznego kształtu ósemki.** |

| **W każdym zakończeniu zewnętrzna para nóg musi wykonać nieco dłuższą drogę niż para wewnętrzna.** |

| **W przypadku kroku nóg musi wykonać nieco dłuższą drogę niż para wewnętrzna.** |

| **Pojeździe, mocne parsknięcie, podczas którego jeździec o mały włos nie wylatuje z siodła, na pewno nie świadczy o rozluźnieniu.** |

| **Jeśli będziesz chciał za dużo, to tylko spowoduje, że kroki pasażu będą nieregularne. Nawet w pasażu możesz mieć tę samą długość kroku, co w kłusie wyciągniętym.** |

| **Gdy tylko koń zacznie unosć w pezadzie przód, pomocnik wydłuża wodzę prowadzącą.** |
**piaff** (N) [piaffe] 88/22.45
N: piaf/piaff – 12/65
V: piafować/piaffować – 3/7
A: piafujący – 1
L1: krok (9), ćwiczenie (4).
Przy większości dobrych piaffów obserwator nie widzi nic, nogi jeźdza się nie poruszają.
Na początku jeździec powinien wykonać kilka zwykłych kroków piaffu w odpowiednim zebaniu.

**piaff w miejscu** (NP) [piaffe on the spot] 8/4.02
NP: piaff w miejscu – 7
VP: piaffować w miejscu – 1
Koń powinien wykonać najpierw piaff w miejscu, z którego przechodzi do lewady.

**pilność** (N) [diligence] 9/2.30
N: pilność – 7
A: pilny – 1
ADV: pilnie – 1
Koń nie może utracić ani taktu, ani pilności w ruchu, dodatkowo ten ruch powinien być ekspresyjny.

**PIRÜET** (N) [pirouette] 46/11.74
L5-R5: ruch (4).
Regularność ruchu w stępie najlepiej sprawdzić, wykonując piruet.
Ważne, by w pirucie nie nastąpiła utrata wyraźnego trójtaktu.

**PLAC DO KONNEJ JAZDY** (NP) [riding arena] 9/2.30
NP: plac do jazdy – 1
N: plac – 8
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.

**płynność** (N) [smoothness] 14/3.57
N: płynność – 3
A: płynny – 9
ADV: płynnie – 2
L5-R5: ruch (4).
Utraconą płynność ruchu będzie łatwiej odzyskać, gdy mocniej obciążymy wewnętrzną stronę i lekko poprowadzimy konia wewnętrzną wodzą.

**pobudzić** (V) [stimulate] 6/1.53
V: pobudzić – 4
A: pobudzany – 1
N: pobudzenie – 1
Lydki to na jważniejsze pomoce aktywizujące, używane przez jeźdza. Ich równy nacisk, gdy znajdują się tuż za popręgiem, pobudza konia.

**pochwała** (N) [praise] 23/5.87
N: pochwała/chwalenie – 3/1
V: chwalić – 19
Clusters: wyraźnie pochwalić (7).
Zamiast kary jeździec powinien zastosować nagrodę i wyraźnie pochwalić konia.
Dobre wykonane ćwiczenie koniecznie trzeba zakończyć pochwałą.

**“pod górę”** (PP) ['uphill'] 11/2.81
PP
L1: galop (4).
W dobrym wyciągniętym galopie, koń galopuje tzw. galopem „pod górę” z dużym impulse.

**Poklepać** (V) [pat] 4/1.02
V: poklepać/klepać – 2/1
N: poklepanie – 1
Wszystko jest kwestią zaufania. Kiedy koń go nabiera, powinieneś nagrodzić go i poklepać, nawet jeśli okazał je w jakiejś drobnej sprawie.

**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 pomoc (11).
Pomoc do wykonania polparady to współdziałanie ciężaru, łydek i wodzy.
Jeździesz konia naprzód od tyłu przy użyciu pomocy popędzających w kierunku przytrzymującej ręki. [J]eździec powinien z wyczuciem odpuścić wodze i użyć pomocy ponownie – najlepiej na kole.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>POMOCACH, NA (PP) [on the aids]</td>
<td>15/3.83</td>
<td>PP</td>
<td>L1: ustawienie (6), ustawienie konia (2). Niewiele jest koni, które są w stanie wykonać poprawnie zmiany nogi co tempo w pełnym ustawieniu na pomocach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pomocnik (N) [assistant]</td>
<td>19/4.85</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Naukę kurbety rozpoczynamy od ćwiczenia w ręku, początkowo z pomocnikiem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POSTAWA (N) [posture]</td>
<td>14/3.57</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Jeżeli młody koń zatrzymuje się w postawie nie całkiem zwartej, w początkowej fazie szkolenia niekoniecznie wymaga to korygowania.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postawienie relatywne (NP) [relative elevation]</td>
<td>8/2.04</td>
<td>NP: postawienie relatywne/postawa relatywna/postawa relatywnego wyższego ustawienia – 6/1/1</td>
<td>Prawidłowe postawienie relatywne przy równoczesnym działaniu łydek aktywizujących powoduje mocniejszą akcję zadu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pośladek (N) [buttock]</td>
<td>13/3.32</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: wewnętrzny (7), zewnętrzny (3). Wewnętrzny pośladek jeźdźca wspiera konia w ruchu naprzód podczas każdego skoku.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POZYCJA (N) [position]</td>
<td>55/14.03</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: w (17), taka (8), do, tu (5). R1: wyjściowa, zwarta (4). Reference shifts: 21 instances concern the rider, not the horse. 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>półparada (N) [half-halt]</td>
<td>73/18.63</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: wykonać (15). By dobrze wykonać półparadę, jeździec musi opanować prowadzenie konia miękką ręką. Liczba półparada zależy od przepuszczalności konia i umiejętności jeźdźca.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Poznawanie | (N) | [half-pirouette] | 29/7.40 | L1: wykonać (4).  
R1: roboczy (6).  
Półpiruet roboczy lub półpiruet wykonywany jest zawsze w stępie.  
Koń zgryty jest zawsze w kierunku, w którym będzie wykonywał półpiruet. |  

| Posiad (N) | [jumping seat] | 4/1.02 | [R]ozprzęgam konia, galopując półsiadem, korzystając z długich prostych na torze do galopu. |  

| Półwolta (N) | [half-volte] | 12/3.06 | Po zakończeniu pojedynczej półwolty na dwóch śladach można powrócić do ciągu na linii zmiany kierunku. |  

| Prostowanie (N) | [straightening] | 16/4.08 | Mimo że istotna część pracy nad prostowaniem konia odbywa się dopiero w drugim roku szkolenia, trzeba na to zwracać uwagę już w pierwszym roku. |  


| Przewodzenie (N) | [leading] | 29/7.40 | Za prowadzenie konia w ustawieniu do wewnątrz ujeżdżalni odpowiedzialne są obie wodze. |  

| Przejście (N) | [transition] | 94/23.98 | Przejście do stępa każdorazowo powinno odbywać się przy dużym zaangażowaniu zadu.  
Niedawno spróbowałam z jednym z moich 3-żółtych przejść stęp-galop i galop-stęp.  
Przejście do stępa każdorazowo powinno odbywać się przy dużym zaangażowaniu zadu.  
Niedawno spróbowałam z jednym z moich 3-żółtych przejść stęp-galop i galop-stęp. |  

| Przekątna (N) | [diagonal] | 6/1.53 | Lotnej zmiany nogi można nauczyć konia na przekątnej, tuż przed dojechaniem do ściany. |  

| Przemoc (N) | [violence] | 5/1.28 | [G]dy spróbujesz zatrzymywać konia siłą, on w końcu zacznie naciskać na źródło przemocy. |  

| Przepuszczalność (N) | [throughness] | 69/17.60 | Pojęcie „przepuszczalność” oznacza gotowość konia do przyjmowania („przepuszczania”) wszystkich pomocy jeźdźca. |  

| Przestawienie (N) | [moving to another place] | 69/17.60 | 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 łydek. |  

| Przestawienie (N) | [moving to another place] | 69/17.60 | Przekątnej, tuż przed dojechaniem do ściany. |  

| Prostowanie (N) | [straightening] | 16/4.08 | Mimo że istotna część pracy nad prostowaniem konia odbywa się dopiero w drugim roku szkolenia, trzeba na to zwracać uwagę już w pierwszym roku. |  

| Przejście (N) | [transition] | 94/23.98 | Przejście do stępa każdorazowo powinno odbywać się przy dużym zaangażowaniu zadu.  
Niedawno spróbowałam z jednym z moich 3-żółtych przejść stęp-galop i galop-stęp. |  

| Przepuszczalność (N) | [throughness] | 69/17.60 | Pojęcie „przepuszczalność” oznacza gotowość konia do przyjmowania („przepuszczania”) wszystkich pomocy jeźdźca. |  

| Przestawienie (N) | [moving to another place] | 69/17.60 | 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 łydek. |
przesunięcie (N) [shifting]
92/23.47
N: przesunięcie/przesuwanie – 20/5
A: przesuwający/przesunięty – 8/10
V: przesuwać/przesuwać się – 40/9
L1: łydka (5), lekkie (4).
R1: do przodu (10), zad (9).
L5-R5: pomoc (5).
[Zewnątrzna 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.

PRZÓD (N) [forehand]
59/15.05
N
L1: na (14), podnieść (5).
L5-R5: zad (9), ciężar (7).
Ustępowanie od łydki kończy wprowadzenie przodu na ślad zadu zewnętrzną wodzą.
[Kłonieniu, którego ciężar opiera się na przodzie, trudno jest kierować i zatrzymać go.

psychika konia (NP) [horse’s psyche]
8/2.04
A: psychiczny – 6
ADV: psychicznie – 2
Kon rozluźniony, zarówno fizycznie, jak i psychicznie, ma zadowolony wyraz pyska.

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).
[Do 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?

renwers (N) [renvers]
12/3.06
N
L1: w (6).
L5-R5: trawers (6).
Często pracuję z konmi w renwersie, natomiast trawersu nigdy nie wykonuję na długiej ścianie.

ręka (N) [hand aid]
132/33.68
N
L1: jedna (8), do (6), obie (5), używać, wewnętrzna (4).
Clusters: oparcie na ręce/ręku (7), łączność ręki (*) z pyskiem, opierać się na ręce, połączenie ręki (*) z pyskiem (4).
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. Klasyfikacja sztuka jeździecka rozumie pod pojęciem idealnego kontaktu stałe i miękki połączenie ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia.

RĘKA SPOKOJNA (NP) [quiet hand]
5/1.28
NP: spokojna ręka – 3
NP: spokojna pozycja ręki – 1
ręka + V + spokojna – 1
Ręka zewnętrzna pozostaje spokojna. Dzięki temu poprawia się kontakt na prawej wodzy (zewnętrznej), a tym samym wyprostowanie konia.

RĘKI, DZIAŁANIE (NP) [hand aid action]
12/3.06
NP: działanie ręki – 10
VP: działać ręką – 2
Przy prawidłowym działaniu ręki koń może wydłużyć szyję i iść z nosem lekko wysuniętym przed linię pionu.

ręki za mocne, działanie (NP) [too strong hand aid action]
6/1.53
NP: mocne działanie ręki/zbity mocne działanie ręki/zbity mocno działająca ręka – 1/2/1
VP: zbity mocno działać ręką – 2
Przyczyną tego jest sam jeździec, a konkretnie jego zbity mocno działająca ręka, uniemożliwiająca wykonanie poprawnego wykroku.
| RĘKU, ĆWICZENIE W (NP) [an exercise in hand] 14/3.57 | NP: Ćwiczenie w ręku/* w rękę/* 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 jeźdzcem, 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. |
| rozwój konia (NP) [horse’s development] 48/12.25 | NP: rozwój konia – 2  
N: rozwój/rozwijanie/rozwinięcie – 11/10/3  
A: rozwijający/rozwinięty/rozwojowy – 1/4/1  
V: rozwijać/rozwijać 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).  
Kon 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 movement (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 jeźdza jest przy tym . . . skumulowanie siły pchającej i impulsu (dynamiki ruchu).  
Utraczoną płynność ruchu będzie łatwiej odzyskać, gdy mocniej obciążymy wewnętrzną stronę.  
Obserwuj ruch łopatek, ponieważ łopatka nagi 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.  
Moin zdania największą przeszkodą przy zwrotach jest ruch do przodu. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ruch do przodu w bok</strong> (NP) [forward and sideways movement] 22/5.61</td>
<td>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</td>
<td>Zewnętrzna łydkę trzymamy za popręgiem 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.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ruch do przodu w dół</strong> (NP) [forward and down movement] 8/2.04</td>
<td>PP: do przodu w dół/naprzód i w dół/w przód – dół – 3/1/4</td>
<td>Jeżeli koń żuje z ręki, wydłużając szyję w przód – w dół (nie wyszarpując wodzy), a więc odpręża się, rozluźniając i uwypuklając grzbiet, jeździec może być zadowolony.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>RUCHU, KIERUNEK</strong> (NP) [direction of movement] 18/4.59</td>
<td>NP: kierunek ruchu/kierunek * ruchu – 17/1</td>
<td>L1: w (13). Clusters: ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu, zgięty i ustawiony w kierunku ruchu (3). W tym ćwiczeniu koń przez cały czas jest ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ruchu naprzód, dążność do</strong> (NP) [forwardness] 5/1.28</td>
<td>NP: dążność/dążność * do ruchu naprzód – 4/1</td>
<td>Kolejny błąd to zbyt mocne przytrzymywanie wodzy prowadzące do zatrzymania konia w miejscu. Skutkiem może być zdławienie jego dążności do ruchu naprzód.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SERPENTYNA</strong> (N) [serpentine] 18/4.59</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L5-R5: zakręt (4).  Clusters: wężyki i serpenty (5).  Należy pamiętać o jeździe na łuku, czyli o woltach, wężykach i serpentynach oraz kole.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>siła nośna</strong> (NP) [lift force] 15/3.83</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>L5-R5: siła pchająca (10), zad (5).  [P]ółparada ma na celu wzmacnienie równowagi konia i przekształcenie jego siły pchającej w siłę nośną i elastyczną pracę zadu.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Term</td>
<td>Definition</td>
<td>Examples</td>
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<td>-----------------------------</td>
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<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| skok szkolny (NP) [air above the ground] | NP: skok szkolny – 3  
N: skok – 26 | L1: wykonać (7).  
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. |
| skrócenie (N) [shortening] | N: skracanie/skrócenie/skrócenie się – 8/8/1  
A: skrócony – 8  
Ma to znaczenie w równym stopniu w ujeżdżeniu, jak i . . . np. przy skracaniu przed przeszkodełami.  
W zebranym galopie musisz dążyć do większego zaangażowania, większej aktywności i skrócenia. |
| skrzywienie (N) [asymmetry] | N: skrzywianie się/skrzywienie – 1/9  
A: krzywy/skrzywiony – 3/8  
Tylko niecałe 10% koni skrzywionych jest na lewo. Skrzywienie najłatwiej może rozpoznać jeździec siedzący w siodle, zwłaszcza w chodach dynamicznych, klusie i galopie. |
| skrzywienie, naturalne (NP) [natural asymmetry] | NP: naturalne skrzywienie/naturalna krzywizna – 16/3 | W eliminowaniu naturalnego skrzywienia jazda po liniach prostych jest mniej skuteczna. |
| spięcie (N) [tension] | N: spięcie – 7  
A: spięty – 1  
V: spinać się – 1 | Spięty koń, wykonując program ujeżdżeniowy, popełnia określone błędy, natomiast koń w pełni rozluźniony jest w stanie podczas niektórych ćwiczeń napina określone grupy mięśni. |
| staw (N) [joint] | 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.  
Lewada jest o wiele trudniejsza niż pezada, ze względu na mocne zgięcie stawów.  
Wszystkie stawy zadnich nóg, nie tylko skokowe, powinni poruszać się do przodu w górę. |
| staw skokowy (NP) [hock] | NP | L1: w (5), zgnięte (4).  
Clusters: staw biodrowy, kolanowy i skokowy (12).  
Swobodny ruch w klusie mają tylko konie, które przez regularną gimnastykę stawów biodrowych, kolanowych i skokowych są giętkie i gibkie. |
| step (N) [walk] | N: step/stepowanie – 138/7  
V: stepować – 4 | L1: krok (7), galop (4).  
L5-R5: galop (34), klus (31).  
Clusters: przejść/przejście do stępa (7), step klus i galop, zagalopowanie ze stępą (5), krok w stępie, najpierw w stępie, przejście z galopu do stępa, przerwa w stępie (4).  
Rozprężanie w stepie, klusie i galopie w celu wyeliminowania największego napięcia jest ważne.  
Każdy z chodów cechuje się określonym nastepstwem kroków: step jest chodem czterotaktowym.  
Przerwa w stepie jest dobrą okazją do sprawdzenia, czy koń się rozluźnił. |
| step hiszpański (NP) [Spanish walk] | NP: step hiszpański/hiszpański step – 4/1 | Step hiszpański nie jest klasycznym elementem ujeżdżeniowym, nie wymaga się go więc podczas konkursów. |
STĘP NA DŁUGICH WODZACH (NP) [walk on a long rein] 4/1.02
NP: stęp na długich wodzach/na długiej wodzy – 1/3
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.

STĘP NA WODZACH ODDANYCH (NP) [walk on a loose rein] 9/2.30
NP: stęp na oddanych wodzach/step * na oddanej wodzy – 3/1/2
VP: chodzić na oddanej wodzy stępem – 1
Po „zuciu z ręki” robimy krótką przerwę w stępie na oddanych wodzach. Następnie nabieramy wodze i zakłusowujemy.

stęp pośredni (NP) [medium walk] 12/3.06
NP: stęp pośredni/pośredni stęp – 11/1
Koń stępuje obszernie, kiedy na przykład w stępie pośrednim i wyciągniętym nogi tylne przekraczają ślady nog przenikych.

STĘP WYCIĄGNIĘTY (NP) [extended walk] 6/1.53
NP
W stępie wyciągniętym należy egzekwować od konia jak największe naturalne przekraczanie, ale bez utraty rytmu.

step zebrany (NP) [collected walk] 13/3.32
NP: step zebrany/zebrany step/zebrany * step – 8/4/1
Podczas pracy w stępie zebranym koń uczy się poprawnych reakcji na rękę i łydki jeźdźca, a także utrzymania równowagi.

STÓJ (N) [halt] 19/4.85
N
L1: w (10), do, ze (3).
Clusters: zebranie w stój (4).
Zebranie w stój znane było już wśród dawnych plemion zajmujących się jeździectwem.

strach (N) [fear] 7/1.79
N: strach – 5
A: straszny – 2
[W] ten sposób konie uczą się bez bólu i strachu słuchać pomocy i czekać na nie.

STRONA LEWA (NP) [left side] 11/2.81
NP: lewa strona/strona lewa – 10/1
[W]większość koni ma wrodzone skrzywienie od prawej strony zadu ku lewej stronie przodu.

STRONA PRAWA (NP) [right side] 9/2.30
NP: prawa strona – 7
N: prawa – 2
Skierowanie głowy na prawo i nacisk prawej łydki sprawiają, że jego prawa strona się skróci, a lewa wydłuży.

STRONA WENĘTRZNA (NP) [the inside, e.g. bent to the inside] 15/3.83
NP: strona wewnętrzna/wewnętrzna strona – 1/14
Za giętkość wewnętrznej strony odpowiada wewnętrzna łydka, która pilnuje stopnia zgięcia konia.
| STRONA ZEWNĘTRZNA (NP) [the outside, e.g. bent to the outside] 6/1.53 | NP: zewnętrzna strona – 6 | Koń, który posłusznie daje się ustawić do wewnątrz, automatycznie rozciąga mięśnie po zewnętrznej stronie i lepiej przyjmuje zewnętrzną wodzę. |
| 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). Szczególnie ważny dla jakości dalszego szkolenia jest kontakt z ustępującą potylicą. W pierwszym roku szkolenia ćwiczymy całe parady tylko ze stępa i z kłusa. Zwróć na przodzie ma w szkoleniu młodego konia... większe znaczenie, niż zwykle się uważa. |
| Sztuka jeździecka (NP) [the art of riding] 6/1.53 | NP: sztuka jeździecka/sztuka jazdy – 4/2 | Klasyczna sztuka jeździecka rozumie pod pojęciem idealnego kontaktu stałe i miękkie połączenie ręki jeźdźca z pyskiem konia. |
| Szywy (A) [stiff] 7/1.79 | A | Reference shifts: two instances concern the rider, not the horse. Nie raz słychać komentarze jeźdźców: „Koń jest dzisiaj wyjątkowo szywy na prawo.” |
| 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). Kiedy rytm staje się zbyt szybki, koń nie będzie mógł sobie z nim poradzić. Na najwcześniejszych'étapach szkolenia skupiamy się na podstawowej kontroli nad szybkością. |
| **ŚRODEK (N)** [center of the horse’s body] | N | Jeśli koń, dzięki poprawnej pracy na łukach, wygnie się w partii żeber, jeździec będzie mógł usiąść dokładnie „na środku i w środku” konia. |
| **taktu, zaburzenie (NP)** [rhythm disturbance] | NP: zaburzenie taktu/w takcie – 5/1 | Zaburzenia taktu w kłusie widać dopiero przy wyjeżdżaniu narożników, wykonywaniu woły, serpenty lub pasażu. |
| **talent (N)** [talent] | N | Zależnie od możliwości i talentu konia można zwiększyć liczbę następujących po sobie skoków do trzech lub więcej. |
| **temperament (N)** [temperament] | N | W zależności od temperamentu konie wykonują pasaż w szybkim lub wolnym tempie. |
| **TRENER (N)** [trainer] | N | Dobry trener może przez miesiąc, a nawet sześć tygodni nie robić nic innego, tylko kłusować, ucząc konia zatrzymań. |
| 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).  
Jeśli dojdzie do utraty trójtaktu, jeździec musi koniecznie dążyć do jego ponownego odtworzenia |
| tułów pochylony (NP)  
[trunk leaned forward] | 10/2.55 | NP: pochylenie tułowia – 3  
N: pochylenie – 2  
VP: pochylić tułów/kregosłup – 3/1  
V: pochylić się – 1 | R1: do przodu (5).  
Pochylenie tułowia do przodu . . . prowadzi do mocniejszego obciążenia przednich nóg i tym samym cofanie z zebraniu z obniżonym zadem staje się niemożliwe. |
| tułów odchylony (NP)  
[trunk leaned backwards] | 6/1.53 | NP: odchylanie się/odchylenie tułowia – 2/1  
VP: odchylać się/odchylać tułów – 2/1 | Delikatne odchylanie tułowia aktywizuje konia do ruchu naprzód, pochylenie natomiast działa hamująco. |
| 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).  
Są też konie, które na łydki reagują nadwrażliwie, czyli uciekają przed nimi.  
Jeśli koń ucieka do przodu, oznacza to, że boi się bata – zazwyczaj wystarczaj wystarczy uspokoić go w stój. |
| UCZĘŃ  (N)  [pupil] | 5/1.28 | N | Reference shifts: two instances concern the horse, not the human.  
Pracowałam z jednym z moich uczniów nad przejściem galop –stęp. |
| udo  (N)  [thigh] | 8/2.04 | N | L5-R5: mięsień (4).  
Nogę od uda do kołana należy ciągnąć w dół, a łydki luźno przyłożyć do boków konia. |
| uspokajanie (N)  [calming] | 12/3.06 | N: uspokajanie/uspokojenie – 1/1  
V: uspokoić/uspokoić się – 6/2  
ADV: uspokajając – 2 | Chcąc uspokoić konie spieszące, a znające już w wystarczającym stopniu działanie wodzy, wybieramy jazdę na kole. |
| ustawienie  (N)  [position] | 78/19.90 | N | L1: zmienić (6), niskie (5), prawidłowe (4).  
R1: szyja (9).  
Clusters: jazda w ustawienniu (6), ustawienie i zgięcie, ustawienie łopatką do przodu (4).  
Reference shifts: five instances concern the rider, not the horse.  
[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. |
| 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).  
Przez cały czas wykonywania ciągu . . . koń jest ustawiony i zgięty w kierunku ruchu.  
Wewnętrzna strona konia to ta, na którą go ustawiamy. |
| ustawienie głowy  (NP)  
[head position] | 28/7.14 | NP: ustawienie głowy/* głowy – 17/1  
NP: głowa ustawiona – 1  
VP: uściśnić główę – 8  
V: głowa ustawia się – 1 | L5-R5: szyja (7).  
Głowę w potylicy ustawiamy w tę stronę, z której działać będzie łydka przesuwająca konia w bok.  
Wewnętrzna wodza 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).  
Przy wysokim ustawieniu szyi nos konia powinien znajdować się tuż nad poziomą linią wytyczoną w wyobraźni od jego czubka do kości bioder. |
| (N) 21/5.36 | | | | |

| 60/15.31 | | | | |

| 29/7.40 | | | |

| 129/32.91 | | | |

| 15/3.83 | | | |

| **WODZA PROWADZĄCA** [leading rein] | NP: wodza prowadząca – 4 wodza jest prowadząca – 1 | Wodza prowadząca powinna być przypięta do środkowego kółka kawecanu, w żadnym wypadku do pierścieni wędzidłowych, gdyż spowodowałaby skrzywienie głowy konia w potylicy. |
| 5/1.28 | | | |

| 30/7.65 | | | |

| 43/11.00 | | | |

| **WODZE, ODDAĆ** [give the reins] | VP: oddać wodze/* wodze – 7/5 NP: oddanie/oddawanie wodzy – 2/8 | Niektórzy jeźdźcy oddają w dodaniach wodze, co powoduje tylko, że koń przewala się na przód. Wielokrotne oddawanie wodzy skutecznie uspokaja konie niespokojne. |
| 22/5.61 | | | |
| WODZE, SCHOWANY ZA (AP) [behind the bit] | VP: chować się przed wodżą/za wędzidłem/za wędzidło – 1/1/2  
NP: chowanie się za pionem/wędzidłem – 1/1  
A: schowany – 1 | 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. |
| --- | --- | --- |
| WODZE, SKRÓCIĆ (VP) [shorten the reins] | VP: skrócić * wodzę – 2  
NP: skrócenie wodzy/skrócona * wodza – 1/1 | **W pirucie** nie można ani trzymać, ani ciągnąć, ani **skracać ciągłe wodzy**. |
| wodzy, trzymanie (NP) [holding of reins] | NP: trzymanie wodzy – 1  
VP: trzymać wodzę – 2  
AP: trzymający wodzę/trzymana wodza – 1/1 | Równocześnie pomocnik **trzymający wodzę** przymocowaną do kawecanu prowokuje konia do uniesienia barków, a następnie podniesienia przednich nóg i ich zgłęcia w nadgarstkach. |
| WODZY, UŻYCIE (NP) [use of reins] | NP: użycie wodzy – 1  
VP: używać wodzy/używać * wodzy – 2/3 | **[W]**iele osób traci kłus, gdy zaczynają **używać więcej wodzy niż dosiadu.** |
| wolta (N) [volte] | N | **Wolta** o średnicy 10 m wykonujemy najlepiej w narożnikach czworoboku.  
Już przy rozpoczęciu **wolty** jeździec musi zwrócić uwagę, by prowadzić konia po odpowiednim łuku. |
| wolta na kwadracie (NP) [volte in a square] | NP: wolta na kwadracie/wolta * na planie kwadratu – 5/1 | **Wolta na kwadracie** w ostatnich latach zupełnie znikła z ujeżdżalni i jest prawie nieznanym ćwiczeniem. Szkoda, bo przynosi wiele korzyści w szkoleniu konia. |
| wodza w galopie (NP) [volte in canter] | NP | **Niektóre lekcje ujeźdżeniowe** (np. dodania w kłusie i galopie lub **wolty w galopie**) mogą być wykonane tylko w zebraniu lub z zebrania. |
| wpływ na konia (NP) [influencing the horse] | NP: wpływ na konia/* konia – 1/2  
N: wpływ – 4  
V: wpływać – 2 | **Wszytko, co robisz, wywiera dobry lub złý wpływ na twojego konia.** |
| WYCZUCIE JEŹDŻCA (NP) [rider’s sense] | NP: wyczucie jeźdźca/jeździeckie – 1/2  
N: wyczuwanie – 17  
A: wyczuwalny – 1  
V: wyczuć – 8 | **L1:** z (7).  
R1: takt (4).  
Jadąc wzdłuż ściany, nie jest jeszcze tak trudno **wyczuć** tak.  
O tym, z jaką dynamiką jechać do przodu, musi decydować **wyczucie jeźdźca**. |
| wygimnastykowanie (N) [suppleness] | N: wygimnastykowanie – 7  
A: wygimnastykowany – 1 | **W celu równomiernego wygimnastykowania** obu nóg ćwiczenie należy wykonywać na dwie strony. |
| wyszkolenia, skała (NP) [training scale] | NP: skała wyszkolenia/szkolenia/treningowa/ujężdżeniowa – 19/1/1/2  
N: skała – 3 | **L5-R5:** element, punkt (6).  
**Skala wyszkolenia** ma wskazywać prawidłową drogę rozwoju naturalnych predyspozycji konia.  
Pracując nad poprawą danego punktu **skali wyszkolenia**, jeździec automatycznie poprawia też inne. |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>wyszkolenie podstawowe (NP) [basic training]</th>
<th>NP: szkolenie podstawowe/ podstawowe szkolenie – 20/3</th>
<th>L5-R5: młody koń, plan (5). W szkoleniu podstawowym koń powinien poznać działanie pomocy, nauczyć się pracować w rozluźnieniu, w takcie i na kontakcie oraz w wyprostowaniu.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>wyższa szkoła (NP) [high school] 9/2.30</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>L1: na poziomie (4). Najbardziej charakterystyczne elementy wyższej szkoły to piaffi, pasaż, piruety – czyli tzw. szkoła na ziem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zad (N) [haunches] 143/36.49</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>L1: obniżenie (18), podstawić (15), praca (11), przesuwać (8), wpadać (6). [N]a początek koń z mocno obniżonym zadem wykonuje piaff w miejscu. Jeżeli działa wyraźnie wodzami, jednocześnie wymagając mocniejszego podstawienia zadu. Łydki przez cały czas kontrolują pracę zadu i ograniczają jego wpadanie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zadem, sprężynowanie (NP) [springy haunches] 6/1.53</td>
<td>NP: sprężynowanie zadem/zadu – 1/1 VP: sprężynować zadem – 1</td>
<td>Sprężynowanie powstaje na skutek połączenia dwóch sił idących z zadu konia, siły pchającej i siły nośnej.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZAD, ZAANGAŻOWAĆ (VP) [engage the hindquarters] 8/2.04</td>
<td>VP: zaangażować zad – 4 NP: zaangażowanie zadu – 4</td>
<td>Jeśli koń nie potrafi się sam nieść i zaangażować zadu, to jak możemy wymagać od niego prawidłowego piaffi?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZATRZYMAĆ (V) [halt] 43/10.97</td>
<td>V: zatrzymać/zatrzymać się – 16/27</td>
<td>Jeśli koń nie zatrzymuje, jeździec zatrzymuje go tam, gdzie zawsze. [J]ak nauczyć konia zatrzymywać się z podstawieniem bez używania łydki?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
zaufanie (N) [trust]  
18/4.59  
N: zaufanie – 13  
V: ufać – 6  
[K]łon i jeździec muszą mieć do siebie zaufanie, niezależnie od tego, w jakiej dyscyplinie będą startować.

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).

zebrańia, stopień (NP)  
[degree of collection]  
8/2.04  
NP  
Jeśli koń osiągnął wyższy stopień zebrania, niezbędny dla tego etapu szkolenia, można rozpocząć ćwiczenia wymagające mocnego zebrania.

zebranie (N) [collection]  
111/28.32  
N: zebranie – 97  
A: zebrany – 14  
L1: w (7).  
L5-R5: kłus (7), stopień (6).  
Clusters: mocne zebranie (5), zebranie w stój (4).  
Zaletą tego ćwiczenia jest przeniesienie zebrania w kłusie do galopu.  
Gdy mówimy o zebraniu, zawsze pojawia się termin „postawienie relatywne” (zob. str. 59).

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: sław (12), zadnia noga (8), podłużne, w kierunku ruchu (4).  
Clusters: ustawienie i zgięcie (4), ustawiony i zgięty, zginąć 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.

ZGIĘCIE SZYI (NP)  
[neck bend]  
6/1.53  
NP: zgięcie szyi/w szyi – 3/2  
VP: zginać szyję – 1  
Zgięcie szyi w galopie na dwóch śladach powinno być mniejsze niż w kłusie, a ruch ma przebiegać maksymalnie na trzech liniach.

ZMIANA KIERUNKU (NP)  
[change of direction]  
19/4.85  
NP: zmiana kierunku – 16  
VP: zmienić kierunek – 3  
Dobrym rozwiązaniem są częste zmiany kierunku, dzięki którym koń musi równo pracować obiema nogami.

ZSIADAĆ (V) [dismount]  
5/1.28  
V: zsiadać – 4  
N: zsiadanie – 1  
[D]aj koniowi szansę popisać się idealnymi zatrzymaniami, kończąc pracę pozytywnym akcentem – czyli zsiadając natychmiast po dobrowolnym zatrzymaniu.

ZWOLNIĆ (V) [slow down]  
7/1.79  
V: zwolnić – 3  
N: zwalnianie/zwolnienie – 2/2  
Jeśli więc koń zacznie zwalniać w galopie, należy wrócić do pracy w ustawieniu łopatką do przodu.

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).  
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.

zebranie, stopień (NP)  
[degree of collection]  
8/2.04  
NP  
Jeśli koń osiągnął wyższy stopień zebrania, niezbędny dla tego etapu szkolenia, można rozpocząć ćwiczenia wymagające mocnego zebrania.

zebranie (N) [collection]  
111/28.32  
N: zebranie – 97  
A: zebrany – 14  
L1: w (7).  
L5-R5: kłus (7), stopień (6).  
Clusters: mocne zebranie (5), zebranie w stój (4).  
Zaletą tego ćwiczenia jest przeniesienie zebrania w kłusie do galopu.  
Gdy mówimy o zebraniu, zawsze pojawia się termin „postawienie relatywne” (zob. str. 59).

ZMIANA KIERUNKU (NP)  
[change of direction]  
19/4.85  
NP: zmienna kierunek – 16  
VP: zmienić kierunek – 3  
Dobrym rozwiązaniem są częste zmiany kierunku, dzięki którym koń musi równo pracować obiema nogami.

ZWIĘKŚCIE (V) [dissipate]  
6/2.74  
V: zwieść – 3  
N: zwieńczenie – 2/2  
Jeśli więc koń zacznie zwieść w galopie, należy wrócić do pracy w ustawieniu łopatką do przodu.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>zwrot na przodzie (NP) [turn on the forehand]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Ważną lekcją, uczącą młodego konia posłuszeństwa na pomoce jednostronne – przesuwające w bok, w przód i ograniczające – jest zwrot na przodzie.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zwrot na zadzie (NP) [turn on the haunches]</td>
<td>NP</td>
<td>Podczas zwrotu na zadzie... koń obracając się na zadniej wewnętrznej nodze, powinien przednią nogą zarysować półokrąg.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>żucie z ręki (NP) [long and low on the bit]</td>
<td>NP: żucie z ręki – 11 N: żucie – 1 V: żuć z ręki – 1</td>
<td>Jeżeli przy żuciu z ręki koń usiłuje gwałtownie wyciągnąć wodzę, oznacza to, że jeździec działając zbyt mocno ręką „ściągnął” go w szyi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ŻUĆ KIELZNO (VP) [chew on the bit]</td>
<td>VP: żuć/przeżuć wędzidło – 4/1 AP: żujący wędzidło – 1</td>
<td>W tym miejscu pojawia się pytanie, jak koń może żuc wędzidło, skoro ma zamknięty pysk?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 indentified 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Term absent from the set</th>
<th>Corresponding term(s) present in the set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>aid (N)</td>
<td>aid (NPs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>attentive</td>
<td>inattentive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>balanced</td>
<td>unbalanced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>convex side</td>
<td>hollow side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>even lateral development</td>
<td>uneven lateral development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>even steps</td>
<td>uneven steps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>inside track</td>
<td>outside track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>lengthened neck</td>
<td>shortened neck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>longitudinal balance</td>
<td>lateral balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>long side</td>
<td>short side</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>outside hand</td>
<td>inside hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>outside leg</td>
<td>inside leg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>right bend</td>
<td>wrong bend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>right lead</td>
<td>wrong lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>stance phase</td>
<td>moment of suspension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>steady contact</td>
<td>unsteady contact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>steady halt</td>
<td>unsteady halt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>steady head</td>
<td>unsteady head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>subordinate</td>
<td>insubordinate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20/21/22</td>
<td>two-time/three-time/four-time change</td>
<td>one-time change, tempi change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>vertical flexion</td>
<td>lateral flexion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 29. Term gaps in the Polish term set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Term absent from the set</th>
<th>Corresponding term(s) present in the set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ciąg w kłusie [half-pass in trot]</td>
<td>ciąg w galopie [half-pass in canter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>CZUŁY NA ŁYDKI [sensitive to the leg]</td>
<td>Bardzo czuły na łydk [very sensitive to the leg], nieczuły na łydk [insensitive to the leg]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>dodanie w stępie [speeding up in walk]</td>
<td>dodanie [speeding up], dodanie w galopie [speeding up in canter], dodanie w kłusie [speeding up in trot]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>grzbiet krótki [short back]</td>
<td>grzbiet długi [long back]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>grzbiet rozluźniony [relaxed back]</td>
<td>grzbiet sztywny [stiff back]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>GRZBIET UWYPUKLONY [rounded back]</td>
<td>Grzbiet wklęsły [concave back]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>nabranie wodzy [taking the slack out of the reins]</td>
<td>Rzucenie wodzy [slackening the reins]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>NOGA ZEWNĘTRZNA [outside leg]</td>
<td>Noga wewnętrzna [inside leg]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>PROWADZIĆ JEDNĄ REKA [ride with one hand]</td>
<td>Prowadzić oburącz [ride with both hands]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10/11</td>
<td>PRZEJŚĆ DO KŁUSA/STĘPA [to transition to trot/walk]</td>
<td>Przejść w galop [to transition to canter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>PYSK SPOKOJNY [quiet mouth]</td>
<td>Pysk niespokojny [restless mouth]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>ustawienie niskie [low neck position]</td>
<td>Ustawienie wysokie [high neck position]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>wdech [inhale]</td>
<td>Wydech [exhalation]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>wodza krótka [short rein]</td>
<td>Wodza długa [long rein]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>WODZA NAPIĘTA [tightened rein]</td>
<td>Wodza luźna [loose rein]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17/18</td>
<td>olta w kłusie/stępie [volte in trot/walk]</td>
<td>olta w galopie [volte in canter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19/20</td>
<td>WYKROK [stride length], WYKROK W GALOPIE [stride length in canter]</td>
<td>Wykrok w kłusie [stride length in trot], całkowity wykrok w stępie [stride length in canter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>ZAGALOPOWAĆ Z PRAWEJ NOGI [pick up a right-lead canter]</td>
<td>Zagalopować z lewej nogi [pick up a left-lead canter]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>ZAKŁUSOWANIE [breaking into the trot]</td>
<td>Zagalopowanie [canter depart]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23/24/25</td>
<td>zmiana nogi w galopie co dwa/trzy/cztery tempa [two/three/four-time change]</td>
<td>zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo [one-time change]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 tem 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.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Additional term</th>
<th>NFR (the ECS/the EWS)</th>
<th>Related term(s) in the term set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>activity drive</td>
<td>0.00/2.37</td>
<td>ACTIVITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>arena pattern</td>
<td>1.38/0.00</td>
<td>arena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>bending aid</td>
<td>1.03/1.19</td>
<td>aid (NPs), bending</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>counter/counter-shoulder in</td>
<td>1.81/0.00</td>
<td>shoulder in, counter-canter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>cross-training</td>
<td>1.29/0.00</td>
<td>training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>degree of collection</td>
<td>1.12/0.00</td>
<td>collection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>downward transition</td>
<td>2.15/1.19</td>
<td>transition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>dressage movement</td>
<td>1.38/0.00</td>
<td>dressage, movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>forward motion</td>
<td>0.00/5.21</td>
<td>forward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>inside track</td>
<td>0.86/0.00</td>
<td>outside track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>lateral work</td>
<td>1.38/0.00</td>
<td>lateral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>longe/lunge line</td>
<td>1.92/0.00</td>
<td>longeing/lungeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>longitudinal balance</td>
<td>0.60/0.00</td>
<td>lateral balance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>longitudinal flexion</td>
<td>1.03/0.00</td>
<td>lateral flexion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>outside hand</td>
<td>2.32/0.46</td>
<td>inside hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>outside leg</td>
<td>0.00/2.83</td>
<td>inside leg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>seat bone</td>
<td>0.00/1.37</td>
<td>seat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>single track</td>
<td>1.29/0.00</td>
<td>track, two-track</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>snaffle bit</td>
<td>0.00/1.37</td>
<td>bit, snaffle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>stance phase</td>
<td>0.95/0.00</td>
<td>moment of suspension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>step under</td>
<td>1.89/0.00</td>
<td>STEP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>training tree</td>
<td>0.00/3.56</td>
<td>training, TRAINING SCALE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>turning aid</td>
<td>0.00/1.28</td>
<td>aid (NPs), turn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>vertical flexion</td>
<td>0.00/0.82</td>
<td>lateral flexion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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### Table 31. Additional terms in the Polish subcorpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item no.</th>
<th>Additional term</th>
<th>NFR (the POS/the PTS)</th>
<th>Related term(s) in the term set</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ćwiczenie rozluźniające [relaxing exercise]</td>
<td>0.00/3.83</td>
<td>rozluźnienie [relaxation]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>długa ściana [long side]</td>
<td>1.10/9.95</td>
<td>ściana [arena side]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>faza rozprężania [warm up phase]</td>
<td>0.37/1.02</td>
<td>ROZPRĘŻONY [warmed up]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>klasyczne jeździectwo [classical horse riding]</td>
<td>1.10/0.00</td>
<td>JEŹDZIĘCTWO [horse riding]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>krótka ściana [short side]</td>
<td>0.74/3.83</td>
<td>ściana [arena side]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>krzyżowanie nóg [leg yielding]</td>
<td>2.57/0.00</td>
<td>NOGA [leg]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>miękka ręka [light hand]</td>
<td>1.84/1.02</td>
<td>REKA [hand aid]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>na jednym ślądzie [on one track]</td>
<td>0.00/2.04</td>
<td>SLAD [track]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>na drugim ślądzie [on the second track]</td>
<td>0.00/1.28</td>
<td>SLAD [track]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>naturalne jeździectwo, jeździectwo naturalne [natural horsemanship]</td>
<td>1.84/0.00</td>
<td>JEŹDZIĘCTWO [horse riding]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>niezależny dosiad [independent seat]</td>
<td>1.47/0.00</td>
<td>dosiad [seat]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>niskie ustawienie [low head position]</td>
<td>0.00/1.28</td>
<td>ustawienie wysokie [high head position]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>odpuszczać w potylicy [to relax at the poll]</td>
<td>0.00/1.02</td>
<td>potylica [poll]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>podłużne zgięcie [longitudinal bend]</td>
<td>0.37/1.02</td>
<td>zgięcie boczne [lateral bend]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>pomoc popędzająca [driving aid]</td>
<td>2.21/1.28</td>
<td>POMOC [aid]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>rozluźniony grzbiet [relaxed back]</td>
<td>0.00/3.57</td>
<td>grzbiet [horse’s back], GRZBIET SZTYWNY [stiff back]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>równowaga horyzontalna [horizontal balance]</td>
<td>1.10/0.00</td>
<td>równowaga [balance]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>równowaga pionowa [vertical balance]</td>
<td>1.84/0.00</td>
<td>równowaga [balance]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>ustepować w potylicy [to relax at the poll]</td>
<td>0.00/1.28</td>
<td>potylica [poll]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>wężyk podwójny [two-loop serpentine]</td>
<td>0.00/1.02</td>
<td>wężyk [serpentine]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>wężyk pojedynczy [one-loop serpentine]</td>
<td>0.00/1.28</td>
<td>wężyk [serpentine]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>wodza napięta [tightened rein]</td>
<td>2.21/1.02</td>
<td>wodza [rein], WODZA LUŹNA [loose rein]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>zamknąć rękę [close the hand]</td>
<td>1.84/0.00</td>
<td>REKA [hand aid]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>zebranie w stój [collection at the halt]</td>
<td>0.00/1.02</td>
<td>STÓJ [halt], zebranie [collection]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>zewnętrzna noga [outside leg]</td>
<td>2.94/9.19</td>
<td>NOGA [leg], NOGA Wewnętrzna [inside leg]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 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-
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 (luk, 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 (miękka ręka, 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 (łydka [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 stępie), six – walk types (e.g. step pośredni) and two – the stride at walk (całkowity wykrok w stępie, drobić w stępie). 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 stępie, zagalo powanie 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 kłusie*). 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 zewnętrzny 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 zewnętrzna 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 pomoc). 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, łydka [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, forehand]). 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 *łydka* [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.* *łydka aktywizująca*), leg aid actions/applications (*e.g.* *działanie lydek obustronne i jednoczesne*), the horse’s reaction to the aid (*e.g.* *bardzo czuły na łydki*) and specific exercises (*ustępowanie łydce, ustępowanie od łydki*); the term also has one term gap (*czuły na łydki*). However, only nine related terms exceed the frequency threshold and they all change forms. Only three of these – *łydka wewnętrzna, łydka zewnętrzna* and *ustępowanie od łydki* [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 *łydka* 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, step [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, potylica, 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 łydka, 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. Gruca (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.
References

Because there are men and horses. 2011. Saumur Cedex: Institut français du cheval et de l’équitation.


Jarmula, Alex and Wojciech Adamczyk. 1999b. Western – reining, cutting... Koń polski 12: 36-38.


Troszczyńska-Nakonieczna Wiesława. 2003. Pragmatyczne aspekty badań gatunków tekstów specialistycznych na potrzeby tłumaczeń i dydaktyki. In Piotr Mamet and Alicja...


Subject field references

Sources of English terms

Sources of Polish terms

The English corpus

Classical riding texts (the ECS)


Western riding texts (the EWS)


Exercises for control.


Rohlf, Karen. 2007. When experience moves beyond words, life begins to have meaning. Dressage, Naturally Newsletter 12: 5-6.


The Polish corpus

Original Polish texts (the POS)

Texts translated into Polish (the PTS)
Bell, Jaki and Andrew Day. 2007. 101 ćwiczeń ujeżdżeniowych dla konia i jeźdźca. Pages 5-9 and 11-13. Warszawa: MUZA S.A.
List of English terms

[foreign terms are underlined and marked as follows: F – French, G – German, I – Italian, P – Portuguese]

Diggle (2005):
obduction
above the bit
abrupt
accepting the bit
accuracy
acting hand
action
active
active elevation
adduction
age
air above the ground
a la brida [P]
a la gineta [P]
allures [F]
amble
anticipation
appui/appuy [F]
arena
arrest/arret [F]
arbitrary aid
artificial gait
auxiliary rein
backing
balance
balancé [F]
balletade
bandage
baroque
base of support
behind the bit
behind the leg
behind the movement
behind the vertical
bend
bending
between leg and hand
bilateral
biomechanics
bit
bit guard
blocking
body armouiring
boring on the bit
bracing the back
bradoon/bridon
bradoon rein
break gait
breed
bridle
bridle hand
bridle lameness
bridling
broke
broken neck
brushing
brushing boot
bucking
cadence
canter
canter on a long rein
capriole
carriage
carted
cavaletto [I]
centre line
centre of gravity
chair seat
Chambon
chambrière [F]
change in the air
change of direction
change of hand
change of lead
change of leg
change of rhythm
change the rein
chewing the bit
circle
classical
clean
collection
concave
conformation
connection
constant angle
contact
convex
corner
correction
counter-canter
counter-change of hand
counter-position
courbette
cramped
crookedness
cross canter
crotch seat
croupade
croup-high
croup to the wall
curb bit
curb rein
cut corners
daisy cutting
de Gogue [F]
dead to the leg
deep and round
depth of leg
depth work
demi-pirouette [F]
demi-volte [F]
depart
descendel d’encolure [F]
descendel de jambes [F]
descendel de main [F]
descendel de main et de jambes [F]
diagonal [arena line]
diagonal [horse leg pair]
diagonal aid
direct elevation
direct flexion
direct rein
direct rein of opposition
direct transition
dishing
disobedience
distraction
disunited
diving
double bridle
doux passage [F]
downhill’
dragging
draw rein
dress [noun: rider’s attire]
dress [verb]
dressage
dressage arena
dressage saddle
dressage whip
dresser [F]
dresseur [F]
drifting
driving aid
dry mouth
durchlässigkeit [G]
dead to the leg
deep and round
depth of leg
depth work
demi-pirouette [F]
demi-volte [F]
depart
descendel d’encolure [F]
fall out
falling over the outside shoulder
false bend
false canter
false extension
fatigue
feeling the hair
figure
figure of eight
first position
fitness
flapping
flat
flexibility
flexion
flexion in-hand
floating
flying change
footing
forehand
forging
fork seat
forward
four-time
free
free forward movement
free walk on a long rein
fresh
full bridle
full halt
full pass
gait
gait variant
gallop
galop [F]
giravolta [I]
give and re-take the reins
glove
go [noun: footing]
going short
go large
good hand
good mouth
grand passage [F]
grinding teeth
gripping
gymnastic training
habit
hackamore
hacking
half-halt
half-parade
half-pass
half-pirouette
half-volte
halt
hand
hard-mouthed
harmony
haunches
haunches in
haunches out
haute école [F]
head carriage
headshaker
head to the wall
high air
high school
hindquarters
holding back
holding of reins
hollow-backed
hollow side
hoof print
horsemanship
horsemastership
hovering trot
hurrying
impulsion
in front of the leg
in front of the vertical
inactive
inattentive
independent seat
indirect rein
indirect rein of opposition
in-hand
inside
inside hand
inside leg
insterburger [G]
insubordinate
interfering
ipsilateral
irregular
jogging
kicking out to the aid
l’effet d’ensemble [F]
lacing
lameness
lateral
lateral aid
lateral balance
lateral flexion
lateral movement
lazy
leading leg
leaning in
leaning on the bit
leaning on the wall
leaning out
left diagonal
left lead
left rein
leg aid
leg-yielding
lengthened stride
lengthening
length of stride
levade
level [adjective: balanced]
leverage [of the bit]
leverage [of the rider]
lift
light [aid application]
lightness [horse’s feature]
locomotion
long and low
longeing/lungeing
longitudinal
long-reining
loose
loose rein
loose seat
losgelassenheit [G]
low air
low and round
made mouth
manège [F]
martingale
medium
mézair [F]
mise en main [F]
moment of suspension
mouthing
mouth open
move away from the leg
movement
move off the leg
napping
natural aid
natural gait
nearside
neck-rein
nervousness
nodding
noseband
nose-diving
novice
nuchal apparatus
numnah
obedient
offside
on a long rein
one-sided
one-time change
on his toes
on the aids
on the bit
on the forehand
on the left rein
on the right rein
open rein
opening rein
opposite rein
outline
out of balance
outside
outside track
overbent
overcollected
overtracking
pace [=amble]
pace [=gait]
pace [=speed]
pace [=step]
pacing
parade
pas de deux [F]
pas de trois [F]
pas de deux [I]
pas de trois [I]
pas de deux [O]
pas de trois [O]
pas de quatre [F]
pas de quatre [I]
pas de quatre [O]
pas de dix [F]
pas de dix [I]
pas de dix [O]

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pace [=speed]
pace [=step]

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restraining aid
reversed pirouette
reversed volte
reward
rhythm
ride in
right diagonal
right lead
right rein
rising trot
rocking and rolling
rounded
rounding
rowel
running
running rein
‘running through the bit’
saddle cloth
saddle cover
saddlery
schaukel [G]
school [noun: arena]
school figure
school horse
schooling
schoolmaster
school movement
schwung [G]
seat
seat aid
seat saver
seesaw
self-carriage
serpentine
setting the jaw
shankmover
shoeing
shortened neck
shortening
short side
shoulder-fore
shoulder-in
shoulder-out
shying
side rein
side-saddle
simple change
sitting trot
size
slack
snaffle
sour
Spanish trot
Spanish walk
speed
spinning
spooking
spur
square halt
stiffness
stirrup
stirrup leather
straightening
straightness
strength
stretching
stretching the frame
stretching the topline
stride
strike off
stroking the horse’s neck
stubbornness
stud
stumble
submission
suppleness
supporting rein
supraspinous ligament
suspension
sustaining hand
swinging back
tack
tail carriage
tail swishing
taking hand
temperament
tempi change
tempo
tendon boot
tension
terre-à-terre [F]
three in one
three-quarter line
three-time
through [adjective from throughness]
throughness
thrust
ticklishness
timidity
timing of aids
tongue fault
tongue strap
topoline
track
tracking up
training
transition
travers
traverse [noun: full pass] [F]
traverse [noun: side-stepping] [F]
triangulation
tride [F]
trot
turn
turn on the centre
turn on the forehand
turn on the haunches
two-time
two-track
überstreichen [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 gait(s)]
- 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
balotada
banda
bat
biodro
budowa konia
charakter konia
chód boczny
chód podstawowy
ciąg
ciąg w galopie
cierpliwość
ciąg
czambon
czarna wodza
czterotakt
ćwierćwolta
dążność do ruchu naprzód
dodanie
dodanie w galopie
dodanie w kłusie
dosiad
dosiad niepoprawny
dosiad skrętny
dwutakt
działanie łydką aktywizującą
działanie łydką przesuwającą
działanie ręki
działanie ręki lekko
działanie ręki za mocne
efektowność
faza lotu
galop do tyłu
galop na trzech nogach
galop pośredni
galop roboczy
galop w miejscu
galop w trawersie
galop zebrany
głos
głowa
grzbiet
grzbiet długi
grzbiet fałujący
grzbiet pracujący
inochód
jazda po luku
jazda w terenie
jeźdnia
jeździc rekreacyjny
język
kadencja
kapriola
kara
kawecan
kieleczno
kląskanie językiem
kląb
klus anglezowany
klus hiszpański
klus pośredni
klus roboczy
klus skrócony
klus zebrany
kolejność kroków
kolejność stawiania nóg
koło
kontakt
kontrgalop
kon rekreacyjny
kon ujeżdżeniowy
koziolek
kręg
kręgosłup
krzyżowanie w galopie
kulawizna wędzidłowa
kurba
lekkość
lewada
linia prosta
łonga
łonżowanie
lotna zmiana nogi w galopie
łokieć
łopatkę do przodu
łopatkę do wewnątrz
łydka
łydka aktywizująca
łydka ograniczająca
łydka przesuwająca
łydka wewnętrzna
miękkość
mięśnie
mięśnie grzbietu
munschuk
nachrapnik angielski
nachrapnik hanoverski
nacisk łydki
nadpięcie
nagradzanie
narożnik
natura
naturalne skrzywienie
nieposłuszeństwo
nosi
obciążanie przedniej nogi
obciążenie zadu
obniżenie biodra
obszerne krok
oddziaływanie na konia
ogłowie wędzidłowe
opór
ostroga
parskanie
pasaż
pas do łonżowania
pchnięcie zadniej nogi
pełna parada
pezada
piaf
piaff do tyłu
piaff w miejscu
pierścień wędzidła
pilar
pinność
piruet w galopie
piruet w stępie
płynność
pochwała
“pod górę”
podnoszenie przedniej nogi
pomoc aktywizująca
pomocnik
pomoc wstrzymująca
postawienie absolutne
postawienie relatywne
pośladek
potylica
półparada
półpiruet
półwolta
praca nad zgięciem
praca w ręku
prostowanie
przejście ciężaru przez zad
przejmowanie ciężaru
przejeście
przekątna
przekątna para nóg
przemoc
przepuszczalność
przetrawienie
przesunięcie
psychika konia
punkt przejścia
psyk
renwers
ręka niespokojna
rozłusznienie
rozwój konia
równowaga
ruch do przodu
ruch do przodu w bok
ruch do przodu w dół
rzucenie wodzy
samoniesienie
siła
siła nośna
siła pchająca
skala wyszkolenia
skok szkolny
skrącenie skoków galopu
skrócenie
skrącenie wykroku
skrzynienie
skrzynienie w potylicy
smakołyk
spień
sprechynowanie zadem
staw
staw skokowy
step
step hispański
step pośredni
step zebrany
stopień zebrania
strach
strona łopatka
swoboda w ganaszach
swoboda w łopatkach
system dźwigni
sztywna łopatka
szyja
ściana
środek ciężkości
takt
talent
temperament
trawers
trójtakt
trzy czwarte piruetu
trzymanie wodzy
tułów
tułów odchyłony
tułów pochylony
udo
ukątowanie łopatki
ukątowanie zadniej nogi
uspokajanie
ustawienie
ustawienie głowy
ustawienie kozicy na szczycie
ustawienie w trawersie
ustawienie wysokie
ustępowanie od łdki
uszytywienie
uwaga
wada budowy
wewnętrzna strona oka
wężyk
więzadło karkowe
woda
wodza długa
wołta
wołta na kwadracie
wołta w galopie
wołta w trawersie
wpływ na konia
wydech
wyginnastykowanie
wyjeżdżanie narożnika
wypadanie łopatką
wypadanie w galopie
wypadanie zadem
wypinacz
wyraz oka
wyraz pyska
wyszkolenie podstawowe
wyższa szkoła
zaburzenie taktu
zad
zadem do wewnątrz
zadem na zewnątrz
zagalożowanie
załamanie w biodrze
załamanie ruchu przód
zatrzymanie
zaufanie
ząb
zebranie
zteń
zgięcie
zgięcie boczne
zmiana nogi w galopie co tempo
zwrot do ruchu naprzód
zwrot na przódzie
zwrot na zadzie
zwykła zmiana nogi w galopie
żucie
żucie z ręki

Baranowski (1989):
aksią
aksią pchającą zadu
amator
amazonka
amazonka cyrkowa
asymetria osi głównej
balans
barani skok
bardzo czuły na łydki
berajter
bez łączności
bez styczności
bić
brać na kiel
budzić
calkowity wykrok w stępie
chód
chwycić wodze
chwytać czanki
chwytać zębami
ciąg
ciąg po przekątnej
cofanie
ćwiczenie na długich wodzach
ćwiczenie pod jeźdźcem
ćwiczenie w pilarach
ćwiczenie w rękę
ćwiczenie w słupkach
"demi-arret" [F]
dobry stan
dodać
dodać tempo
dojęzdek
dosiadać
dosiad fotelowy
dosiad mięgki
dosiad normalny
dosiad poprawny
dosiad sportowy
dosiad szkolny
dosiad sztywny
dosiad widłowy
dotykać palcem
drobić w stępie
dróżka
działanie łdki obustronne
i jednocześnie
działanie łdki jednostronne
działanie łdki podtrzymujące
działanie łdki przesuwające
ekwijer
ekwitacja
ekwitacja klasyczna
elastyczny
falszowanie w galopie
figura osiem
forma
foulée
galop
galop ćwiczebn
galop na krzyż
galop nieprawidłowy
galop normalny
galop "ostry"
galopować
galop "równy"
galop skrócony
galop szkolny
galop "trial"
galop użytkowy
galop wyciągnięty
galop z fałszywej nogi
galop z lewej nogi
galop z Prawej nogi
galop z wewnętrznej nogi
galop z właściwej nogi
ganasowanie
głaskanie
głowa do ściany
głowa do świata
gra nóg
gra wodzy
grzyć
grzbiet bierny
grzbiet czynny
grzbiet naprężony
grzbiet rozprężony
grzbiet sztywny
grzbiet wklęsły
“gwiazdy”
impuls
instruktor konnej jazdy
jazda konna
jazda podstawowa
jazda polowa
jazda spacerowa
jazda szkoleniowa
jazda terenowa
jazda wyższą szkołą
jechać
jeździć na oklep
jeździć “po damsku”
jeździć po męsku
jeździć w damskim siodle
jeździec
jeździec cyrkowy
jeździec dżentelmen
jeździec kawalkator
jeździec początkujący
jeździec szkolny
jeździec wyszkolony
jeździec wytrawny
jeździec zaawansowany
jeździec zawodowy
jeździec znakomity
jeździeckie
jeździeckie sportowe
kantor
kapitan ekipy
karać
karność
kawalkator
kąsać
kierunek ruchu
klasa jeźdźca
klasyczny sposób trzymania wodzy
klus
klus ćwiczeniowy
klus normalny
klusować
klusować na lewej nodze
klusować na lewej przekątnej
klusować na prawej nodze
klusować na prawej przekątnej
klus podróźny
klus szeroki
klus szkolny
klus użytkowy
klus w miejscu
klus wyciągnięty
klus wysiadywany
kondycja
koniarz
koniusz nadworny
koniuszy przyboczny
koniuszy wielki
“kontrwodza”
kontrzmiana
koń wierzchowy
koń wyższej szkoły jazdy
kończyna
kopać
kora
kora w kruchach
kurbeta klasyczna
lansada
lekkość w ręku
leżeć na wodzach
“luzy”
luźnienie szczęki
łatwy do prowadzenia
łatwy w prowadzeniu
lopatą do wewnątrz
łyda bierna
łyda czynna
mance
mezer
miękkie w pysku
miłośnik koni
mistrz w siodle
mlasanie językiem
młodszy kawalkator
moment przechyłowy
moment wykroczy
moment zawieszenia
mur
nad wodzami
na łączności
na łączność
na pomocach
na wodzach zebranych
nagroda
napięcie krzyża
napór przesadny
naprostowanie kręgosłupa
nawierzchnia
nawrót
neoklasyczny sposób trzymania wodzy
nieczuły na łydki
nie odchodzący od koni
nie odchodzący od przedmiotów
nieposłuszny
nie przyjmujące wodzy
nieujężdżony
noga
noga podporowa
noga przednia
noga tylna
noga wewnętrzna
noga wykrocza
normalna zmiana nogi w galopie
normalny sposób trzymania wodzy
nowoczesny sposób trzymania wodzy
„obramowany”
oddąć łydkę
oddąć wodze
oddanie wodzy na kontakcie z pyskiem
odo bynych manierach
odruch
oporny
osadzić
osadzić na zadzie
os główną konia
os podłużną konia
osłenna
para
Parapet
pchnięcie ostrog
piana
piasek
piruet
piruet odwrócony
piruet zwykły
plac do konnej jazdy
po wolcie na wprost
pobudzić
podbiegać
podciąganie języka
podjezdek
podjeżdżać
podniesienie głowy
podniesienie szyi
podskok
podstawić tylne nogi
poklepać
położenie
pomoc
pomoc dodatkowa
pomoc jednostronna
pomoc przeciwległa
pomoc równoległa
pomocnik instruktora konnej jazdy
poniesć
pośluszewisto
postawa
postawa dowolna
postawa na wodzach
postawa na wodzach oddanych
postawa swobodna
pozycja
później
późnoróg w tył
późnioróg w tył
późnioróg zdem w tył
praca na dwóch śladach
prosty
prowadzenie
prowadzić na munsztuku
karność
kawalkator
kąsać
kierunek ruchu
klasa jeźdźca
klasyczny sposób trzymania wodzy
mur
nad wodzami
na łączności
na łączność
na pomocach
na wodzach zebranych
nagroda
napięcie krzyża
napór przesadny
naprostowanie kręgosłupa
nawierzchnia
nawrót
neoklasyczny sposób trzymania wodzy
nieczuły na łydki
nie odchodzący od koni
nie odchodzący od przedmiotów
nieposłuszny
nie przyjmujące wodzy
nieujężdżony
noga
noga podporowa
noga przednia
noga tylna
noga wewnętrzna
noga wykrocza
normalna zmiana nogi w galopie
normalny sposób trzymania wodzy
nowoczesny sposób trzymania wodzy
„obramowany”
oddąć łydkę
oddąć wodze
oddanie wodzy na kontakcie z pyskiem
odo bynych manierach
odruch
oporny
osadzić
osadzić na zadzie
os główną konia
os podłużną konia
osłenna
para
Parapet
pchnięcie ostrog
piana
piasek
piruet
piruet odwrócony
piruet zwykły
plac do konnej jazdy
po wolcie na wprost
pobudzić
podbiegać
podciąganie języka
podjezdek
podjeżdżać
podniesienie głowy
podniesienie szyi
podskok
podstawić tylne nogi
poklepać
położenie
pomoc
pomoc dodatkowa
pomoc jednostronna
pomoc przeciwległa
pomoc równoległa
pomocnik instruktora konnej jazdy
poniesć
pośluszewisto
postawa
postawa dowolna
postawa na wodzach
postawa na wodzach oddanych
postawa swobodna
pozycja
później
późnoróg w tył
późnioróg w tył
późnioróg zdem w tył
praca na dwóch śladach
prosty
prowadzenie
prowadzić na munsztuku
prowadzić na samym munsztuku
prowadzić oburącz
przed łydkami
przed wodzami
przegazany
przejść w galop
przekładać język na kiełzno
przerwać działanie łydki
przestraszyć się
przód
przyjęcie wędzidła
psys czuły
psys miękki
psys nieczuły
psys niespokojny
psys niewrażliwy
psys przyjemny
psys ruchliwy
psys surowy
psys świeży
psys twardy
psys wilgotny
psys wrażliwy
przegazowany
przestraszyć się
przójt w galop
przejść w galop
przegazowany
przebrać wodzę
reduktor
refleks
ręka
ręka spokojna
ręka stateczna
rotmistrz
rozbiegać się
rozbiegać się
rozdzierać wodzę
rozprężony
rozruch
ruszyć
ruszyć z miejsca
rytm
rytm miarowy
rytm walcowy
rzucany bielem
“sakada”
schowany za wodzę
serpentina
siad
skoczek szkolny
skok w galopie
skrócić wodzę
skrzywienie osi głównej
spłoszyć się
sport hipiczny
sport jeździecki
sport konny
sposób trzymania wodzy
sprężony
stan w miejscu
stan zaprawy
starofrancuski sposób trzymania wodzy
starszy kawalkator
starszy kawalkator szef
stawać dęba
step na długich wodzach
step na dwóch łańcuchach
step na kontakcie
step na wodzach
step na wodzach oddanych
step na wodzach rzuconych
step po dwóch łańcuchach
step roboczy
step dawnobodny
step szkolny
step w wodzach
step węgrowy
stosowanie wodzy
stój
strona lewa
strona prawa
strona wewnętrzna
strona wewnętrzna
strona wewnętrzna
strona wewnętrzna
strona zewnętrzna
strona zewnętrzna
strona zewnętrzna
sztuka jeździecka
sztuka jeździecka
sztuka jeźdźca
sztuka jeźdźca
sztywny
sztywny
sztywny
ścięgna dla jeźdźca
ślad
środek
świeży
takt jeźdźcowski
talent jeździecki
technika jeździecka
temperament dzielny
temperament energiczny
temperament flegmatyczny
temperament górący
temperament leniwy
temperament łagodny
temperament płochliwy
temperament spokojny
temperament trudny
tempo
trawersować
trener
troczyny
trudny do prowadzenia
“tuszować”
uciec
uczennica
uczeń
uderzenie bata
uderzyć
ujęźdźac
ujęźdźalnia kryta
ujęźdźalnia otwarta
ujęźdżony
uparty
ustawić konia
ustawienie konia na krzywej
ustawienie konia na wprost
ustawienie konia w zgięciu
ustępowanie ciągiem
ustępowanie łańcuchu do wewnętrz
ustępowanie lýdce
ustępowanie nóg
ustępowanie zadam do wewnętrz
uzdolnienie jeździeckie
uzycie wodzy
w łydkach
w rękę
w tył zwrot
w wodzach zebranych
wąż
“wibracja”
wierząć
wodza bierna
wodza czynna
wodza izolowana
wodza kierunkowa
wodza luźna
wodza nieczynna
wodza oddana
wodza oddzielnica
wodza oparta o szyję
wodza powstrzymująca
wodza prowadząca
wodza przeciwstawna
bezpośrednia
wodza “przeciwstawna pośrednia”
”, użyta przed kłebem
wodza “przeciwstawna pośrednia”
”, użyta za kłebem
wodza rzucana
wodza wewnętrzna
wodza zewnętrzna
wodza związać
“wodze bez łydek, łydki bez wodzy”
wodze spokojne
vodze stateczne
wodze w jednej łydce
wodze w obu rękach
wojskowy sposób trzymania wodzy
wpływu ciężaru jeźdźca
wpływu jeźdźca
wrażliwość na pomoce
wsiadać na koń
wyczerpany
wycucie jeźdźca
wydłużyć wodze
wykrok w kłusie
wywrócić wodze
wyrywać wodze z ręki
wyrucać język
wysoka lewada
wysoka szkoła jazdy
wytrzymujące działanie wodzy
wyższa szkoła jazdy
wzbraniające działanie wodzy
wzorowa reakcja
zaangażować zad
załapować z lewej nogi
za łydkami
“zamknięty” w ręku i w łydkach
zaprawa
zatrzymać
zatrzymanie w miejscu na wodzach w zebraniu
zatrzymanie w miejscu swobodne
zatrzymanie w zebraniu
zebrać konia
zebrać wodze
zespol nóg
zespol nóg bocznych
zespol nóg przekątnych
zgięcie boczne głowy
zgięcie boczne szyi
zgięcie głowy
zgięcie szyi
zgięcie szyi w potylicy
zgięcie wewnętrzne
zgięcie zewnętrzne
zgrzytać zębami
żyły stan
zmęczony
zmiana kierunku
zmiana kierunku odwrotna
zmiana kierunku przez środek ujeźdżalni
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 ujeźdżalnię
zmiana ręki odwrotna
zmienić chód
zmienić kierunek
zmienić nogę
zmienić rękę
zmienić tempo
zrównoważyć zad
zrównoważyć swobodne
zrównoważyć zad do muru
zrównoważyć zad do ściany
zebrać konia
zebrać wodze
zmienić chód
zmienić kierunek
zmienić nogę
zmienić rękę
zmienić tempo
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 poświęcono 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 niewystarczająco 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 pożyteczność z jednej strony opisowych badań językoznawczych przed praktycznymi pracami terminologiczno-leksykograficznymi, z drugiej zaś uwzględniania wiedzy pozajęzykowej i opisu pojęć w badaniach językoznawczych.