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Cost and Benefit Analysis of Fair Trade

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Abstract

Fair trade endeavours to provide higher level of finance for producers, sustainable long term buyer seller relationship, formation of effective producer organizations, improve community development and promote environmental friendly production methods. The fair trade process started with coffee. As a result, Coffee still has the highest share of quantity among all fair trade products in the market with highest number of involved producers and workers providing the guaranteed minimum price for coffee sold under fair trade label is supposed to reduce financial risk of farmers and provide better living standard for their workers. However, obtaining fair trade certificates are not free of charge from 2004 as producer should pay for application, initial certificate and also renewal of certificate. Payment of such fees can take away a substantial part of premium received by farmers. Other problem to notice is that fair trade buyers do not guarantee the procurement of whole production of certified producers. As a result, farmers will face a dilemma of whether or not to apply for fair trade certifications or continue renewal of their certificates. In other words, cost and benefits of receiving fair trade certificate is not completely clear for many producers. in its endeavour to tackle above mentioned problem , this paper will take a comparative approach to existing research materials on coffee production under FLC in Latin America to find answer to the question of what are costs and benefits of being a certified fair trade coffee producer?

Paper is divided into four main parts. After the introductory part, economics of fair trade certificates will be reviewed. Third part will provide analysis on cost and benefits of receiving fair trade certificate and last but not the least, fourth part will provide conclusive remarks on the discussion.

Keywords: fair trade, economy, development, cost benefit analysis, coffee.

1. Introduction

In today's life, it is common experience to face with fair trade products on the daily basis. A great number of products are distributed in global market carrying fair trade labels and promote idea of movement which in one hand provides standard products for consumers and on the other hand improves living standards of disadvantaged producers in underdeveloped societies. In doing so, fair trade endeavours to provide higher level of finance for producers, sustainable long term buyer seller relationship, formation of effective producer organizations, improve community development and promote environmental friendly production methods.[*] The fundamental idea behind friar trade is a certification system which requires all members of value chain to meet standards that are set in order to achieve above mentioned objectives. The fair trade label on product is sign of meeting standards by producer and informs the customer about social and environmental responsible production process of goods.

The fair trade process started with coffee.[†]As a result, Coffee still has the highest share of quantity among all fair trade products in the market with highest number of involved producers

[*] Dragusanu, R., Giovannucci, D., & Nunn, N. (2014). The economics of fair trade. The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 28(3), 217-236.
[†] Ibid

and workers.[*] After emergence of early initiatives of Fair Trade in the Netherland during late 1980's , idea of providing sufficient wages for coffee growers received warm welcome all around developed countries. In 1997, an umbrella organization was formed by national labelling initiatives under the title of Fair Trade Labelling Organization International (FLO). The Common Fair Trade Certification Mark was introduced respectively in 2002.[†]Currently, the organization is active in 132 countries.[‡]

As mentioned earlier, main objective of Fair Trade Certification is improving living standard of disadvantaged farmers and workers in developing and under developed nations .Therefore, Fair Trade Certificates pursue their objective in the format of particular requirements including:

- Prices: products would receive a guaranteed minimum price in addition to fair trade premium which are set separately for each product.
- Employees: While child labour is prohibited, employees enjoy the right of freedom of association, safety at work , and at least minimum legal wages.
- Institutional Structure: Farmers are obliged to make cooperatives where decision making process will be more democratic. Also, administration process should be transparent under jointly formed committees of workers and farmers.
- Environment: It is prohibited for certified cooperatives to use certain harmful chemicals. However, they are encouraged to agrochemicals with biological methods. They are supposed to provide environmental reports with summary of their impact on the environment.
- Access to credit: Upon receiving fair trade certificate by farmers, buyers will provide them with long term contract and advance finance (up to 60 % of production price).

Providing the guaranteed minimum price for coffee sold under fair trade label is supposed to reduce financial risk of farmers and provide better living standard for their workers. However, obtaining fair trade certificates are not free of charge from 2004 as producer should pay for application, initial certificate and also renewal of certificate. [§] Payment of such fees can take away a substantial part of premium received by farmers[**]. Other problem to notice is that fair trade buyers do not guarantee the procurement of whole production of certified producers[††]. As a result, farmers will face a dilemma of whether or not to apply for fair trade certifications or continue renewal of their certificates. In other words, cost and benefits of receiving fair trade certificate is not completely clear for many producers. in its endeavour to tackle above mentioned problem , this paper will take a comparative approach to existing research materials on coffee production under FLC in Latin America to find answer to the question of what are costs and benefits of being a certified fair trade coffee producer?

Paper is divided into four main parts. After the introductory part, economics of fair trade certificates will be reviewed. Third part will provide analysis on cost and benefits of receiving fair trade certificate and last but not the least, fourth part will provide conclusive remarks on the discussion.

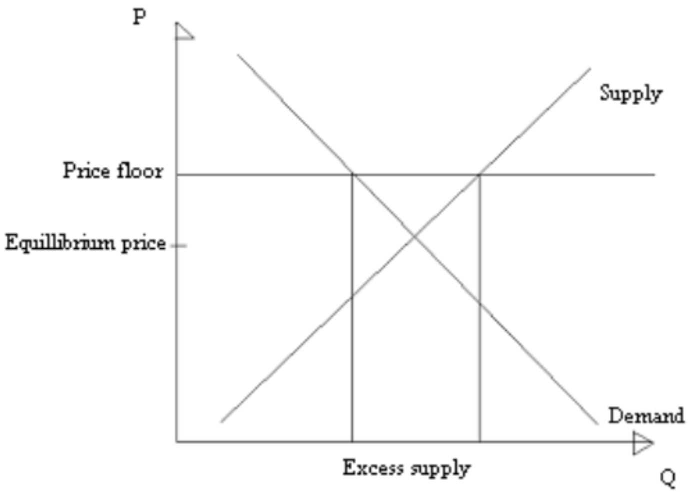
2. Results

Economics of Fair Trade Certification

A market has its equilibrium where the supply equals the demand. The lowest legal price a commodity can be sold at is called the price floor. In order to have an effective price floor, it must be set above the equilibrium price, otherwise it would be irrelevant since the market would not sell below the equilibrium price. The guarantee price (price floor) prevents the prices from being too

[*] Fairtrade International (2012). Monitoring the Scope and Benefits of Fair Trade, Fourth Edition, 2012, Mimeo.
[†] Website of Fair Trade Organization, http://www.fairtrade.net/ [visited on 20 November 2016]
[‡] Ibid
[§] According to FLO-CERT (2011). The current initial certification fee for an organization with less than 50 members is 1,430 Euros and the annual certification fee is 1,170 Euros. Producers also pay the administrative costs of a Follow Up Audit if one is required. The cost of this is 350 Euros per day plus travel costs.
[**] Saenz-Segura, Fernando and Guillermo Zuniga-Arias (2009). Assessment of the Effect of Fair Trade on Smallholder Producers in Costa Rica: A Comparative Study in the Coffee Sector. Ruerd Ruben (ed), The Impact of Fair Trade, pp. 117-135. Wageningen: Wageningen Academic Publishers.
[††] Dragusanu, R., Giovannucci, D., & Nunn, N. (2014), 10.

low, and farmers from changing crops in the field when the world market prices are fluctuating. Paying the guarantee price leads to a rising in the average price for coffee, and might encourage more producers to enter the coffee market.



Providing credible information to customer is a fundamental rational in Fair Trade practice. In some areas of the globe, customers are ready to pay higher price for product characteristics like applying environmental friendly method of production, not using child labour, and access to fair wage to producers and workers. Fair Trade Certificate is in fact providing a credible link between customers who are ready to pay more for products with above mentioned characteristics and producers ready to produce them. Therefore, Fair Trade Certificates increase market efficiency by creating market for products which could not be sold without their existence. Study of Podhorsky on environmental standards showed existence of voluntary certificate program for heterogeneous firms with no production externality will not reduce the customer welfare[*]. She showed that income rise is the main factor for firms to apply environmental standards in their production process. On the customer's side, despite the fact of bearing higher prices, they would be better off due to access to greater product variety.[†] However, this will raise the question whether or not customers really care about social and environmental friendly method of production in fair trade products. Some studies have approached the question of how much customers are really willing to pay for fair trade products. A survey of 258 individuals showed that 75 % of coffee buyers are eager to pay 15 % more for coffee with fair trade certification[‡].In a more recent study, in 26 American stores, surveyors placed fair trade labels on certified coffee bins in a random fashion. Later, they also varied the price of coffee.[§] Both situations resulted strong evidence showing higher demand for Fair Trade Coffee. Findings showed certified fair trade coffee sold 10 % more than other types where customers did not show price sensitivity to its higher price.[**] A logical conclusion would be two folded: first, consumers in developed countries value ethical products. Second, "fair trade labels convey credible information.[††]

Apart from cross sectional methods experimented in examining economic function of Fair Trade Certificates, other methods used like matching methods and panel studies show same result.[‡‡]

[*] Podhorsky, Andrea (2010). Environmental Labeling. Mimeo, York University.

[†] Podhorsky, Andrea (2013). Certification Programs and North-South Trade. Mimeo, York University

[‡] Hertel, Shareen, Lyle Scruggs, and C. Patrick Heidkamp (2009). Human Rights and Public Opinion: From Attitudes to Action. Political Science Quarterly, 124 (3): 443-459.

[§] Hainmueller, Jens, Michael J. Hiscox, and Sandra Sequeira (2011). Consumer Demand for the Fair Trade Label: Evidence from a Field Experiment. Mimeo, Harvard University.

[**] Ibid

[††] Dragusanu, R., Giovannucci, D., & Nunn, N. (2014). P. 14

[‡‡] Beuchelt, Tina D. and Manfred Zeller (2011). Profits and Poverty: Certification's Troubled Link for Nicaragua's Organic and Fair Trade Coffee Producers. Ecological Economics, 70: 1316-1324; Dragusanu,

Cost Benefit Analysis of the Fair Trade

Although, in theory the rationale behind Fair Trade is a description of win-win situation where both for buyers will be better off. But, for how long earning of benefit will continue? In another words, existing possibility for all producers to enter into free trade certification system will fade away the benefit of membership in some point. Number of certified producers will be increased up to the point that cost and income of being a certified Fair Trade coffee producer will become equal. De Janvry *et al* developed the model in which they analysed effect of free entry of producers in the Free Trade System and at the end concluded that free entry can result in death of the system.[*] However, greater entry level should not be approached only as a negative factor. Even if all financial benefits of membership in fair trade system fades way due to saturation of market with certified producers, still producer society is on the winning side. Higher number of certified producers means better working condition, more environmental friendly production systems in place, more long term business relations and more access to financial support for producers.

Effects of certificate on living condition of producers

As it mentioned before, foremost objective of Fair Trade is to improve the living standard of producers in developing and underdeveloped countries. Different mechanisms used in achieving this goal include: higher payments to farmers in order to create further financial stability, creation of long term relations between buyers and sellers, providing more facilitated access to credit for farmers, and finally offering a price floor which guarantees the minimum price offered to producers. While producers consider advanced credit as the most important advantage of fair trade (followed by price floor), some serious concerns question the effectivity of the plan. Studies of Raynolds on Fair Trade Certified producers in Peru and Mexico showed that main stream (bulk) buyers like Nestle, Starbucks and Costco are not interested in providing advance credit to producers. Generally, they sign a one year contract as required by FLO but, no other step will be taken towards creation of long term relation.[†] However, other studies do not support findings of Raynolds. [‡]

Second important factor in function of Fair Trade System is the introduction of Fair Trade price floor which provides safety net to producers in occasion of significant price fall in global market. Despite the fact that price floor guarantees selling the coffee in a predefined price, it is not possible for farmers to sell all licensed capacity with price floor set by Fair Trade buyers. Mendes et al, showed that in average about 60 percent of crop produced by certified producers is sold to fair trade buyers[§]. Other studies show that in global reduction of coffee price, sales rate to fair trade buyers would reduce.[**]Researchers claim that such reduction in amount of sales is due to free entry factor, but it is still unclear as drop might be result of increasing interest in buying more conventional coffee (which has lower price).

In conclusion, despite the fact that price floor is set to provide stability, licenced producers still face with risk of change in sales amount under fair trade system.

Environmental Impacts of Certification

Researchers have tried to identify effects of Fair Trade System on environment. Studies in Mexico show strong inclination of Licenced producers towards environmental friendly methods of

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Raluca, and Nathan Nunn. 2013. The Impact of Fair Trade Certification: Evidence from Coffee Producers in Costa Rica. Mimeo, Harvard University

[*] De Janvry, Alain, Craig McIntosh, and Elisabeth Sadoulet (2012). Fair Trade and Free Entry: Can a Disequilibrium Market Serve as a Development Tool? Mimeo, University of California, Berkeley

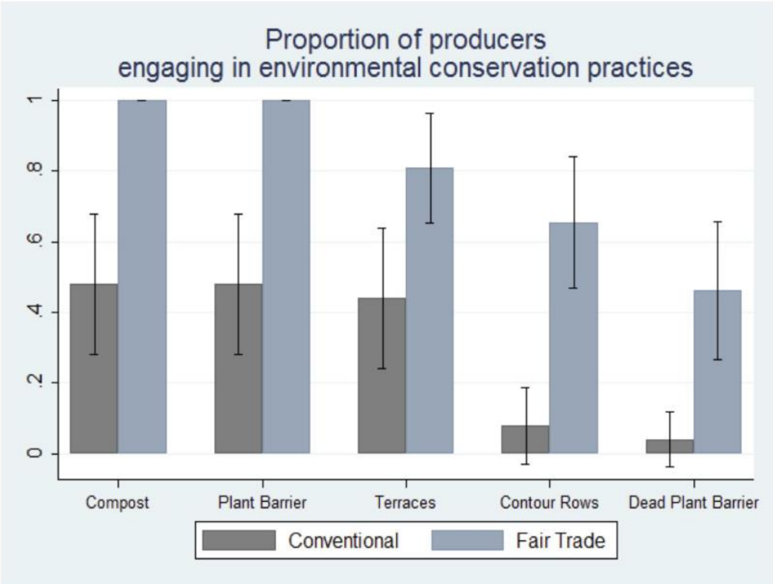
[†] Raynolds, Laura T., Douglas Murray, and Andrew Heller (2007). Regulating Sustainability in the Coffee Sector: A Comparative Analysis of Third-Party Environmental and Social Certification Initiatives. Agriculture and Human Values,24: 147-163.

[‡] Mendez, V. Ernesto, Christopher M. Bacon, Maryl Olson, Seth Petchers, Doribelm Herrador, Cecilia Carranza, Laura Trujillo, Carlos Guadarrama-Zugasti, Antonio Coron, and Angel Mendoza (2010). Effects of Fair Trade and Organic Certifications on Small-Scale Coffee Farmer Households in Central America and Mexico. Renewable Agriculture and Food Systems, 25(3): 236-251; Bacon, Christopher M, V. Ernesto Mendez, Maria Eugenia Flores Gomez, Douglas Stuart, and Sandro Raul Diaz Flores (2008). Are Sustainable Coffee Certifications Enough to Secure Farmer Livelihoods? The Millennium Development Goals and Nicaragua's Fair Trade Cooperatives. Globalizations, 5 (2): 259-274.

[§] Mendez et al (2010)

[**] de Janvry, Alain, Craig McIntosh, and Elisabeth Sadoulet (2012)

production in comparison with conventional producers.[*] Figure below illustrate the proportion of licenced producers in comparison with conventional producers in applying environmental friendly production techniques[†].



Another study on 177 framers in Nicaragua shows that Fair Trade Licenced Farmers are much more environmental friendly than conventional farmers. [‡]Where 68 % of licenced farmer were using ecological water purification systems, same methods were used by 40 % of conventional producers. [§]

In conclusion it is possible to mention that existing studies evidence success of Fair Trade in promotion of environmental friendly and sustainable development methods of production among licensed farmers.

Distribution of wealth in Fair Trade System

In general, farmers and their employees are counted together as beneficiaries of Fair Trade. However, distribution of profits between framers and hired workers is a very important issue in cost benefit analysis of fair trade system. The coffee industry is formed by small family size farms which hire seasonal workers which makes evidence collection of distribution of benefit among beneficiaries difficult. However, existing studies also shed light on this aspect of cost benefit analysis in Fair Trade system.

In an study of coffee growers in Nicaragua, resulted that despite payment of premium to all licenced coffee growing farms, no worker received either extra payment to customary minimum wage rate or any form of social benefit[**]. Other study in Costa Rica on the sample of 110000 workers from 2003 to 2010 reached the result that despite receiving higher payment by licenced farms , regular workers have not benefited from it at all. [††] Also studies in Mexico show that only a portion of benefit of Fair Trade received by farm has been passed to regular workers.[‡‡]

[*] Jaffee, Daniel (2009). Better, but not Great: The Social and Environmental Benefits and Limitations of Fair Trade for Indigenous Coffee Producers in Oaxaca, Mexico. Ruerd Ruben (ed), The Impact of Fair Trade, pp. 195-222. Wageningen: Wageningen Academic Publishers

[†] Differences in environmental practices between Fair Trade and conventional coffee producers in Oaxaca, Mexico. Averages (and 95 % confidence intervals) are reported for 25 Fair Trade farms and 26 conventional farms. Jaffee (2009), Chapter 9, Table 6.

[‡] Bacon, Christopher M, V. Ernesto Mendez, Maria Eugenia Flores Gomez, Douglas Stuart, and Sandro Raul Diaz Flores (2008). Are Sustainable Coffee Certifications Enough to Secure Farmer Livelihoods? The Millennium Development Goals and Nicaragua's Fair Trade Cooperatives. Globalizations, 5 (2): 259-274.

[§] Ibid

[**] Valkila, Jon and Anja Nygren (2009). Impacts of Fair Trade Certification on Coffee Farmers, Cooperatives, and Labourers in Nicaragua. *Agriculture and Human Values*, 27(3): 321-333.

[††] Dragusanu, Raluca, and Nathan Nunn (2013)

[‡‡] Jaffee (2009)

Another concern is regarding distribution of Fair Trade benefits among farmers in a cooperative. Despite the fact that empirical evidence on distribution methods used by farmers are limited but , some studies show instances of tension among farmers in fair trade certified cooperatives.[*] Evidences show concerns of cooperative members about performance of leaders in four Latin American countries.[†] In another study in Costa Rica, researcher defined a significant mistrust between members of cooperative due to past managerial problem. [‡]A study of 180 Fair Trade Certified coffee farmers in Peru revealed that 12 % of farmers have no idea about existence of premium payment and 77 % explained their concern about not receiving Fair Trade benefits.[§] Above mentioned concerns are confirmed by evidences taken from Fair Trade farms from Africa.[**]

3. Conclusion

In this paper, author tried to compare and contract costs and benefits of Fair Trade System applied to coffee farmers in Latin America based on existing empirical data available form scientific research on the subject matter. In conclusion, it is possible to say that empirical evidence shows that Fair Trade has achieved many of its objectives on supply and demand side of the market. Fair Trade Certificates provide reliable source of information for purchasers while producers enjoy extra premiums, available finance and other benefits of Fair Trade system. However, there are still ambiguities regarding the way system should function. Such ambiguities are particularly attributed to methods of dividing finances among beneficiaries to the system.

Despite existence of such ambiguities, still Fair Trade seems to be more beneficial method for promoting sustainable development in disadvantaged countries rather than direct transfer of money. Fair Trade is strongly recommended due to benefits it bring about including increasing motivation of producers, rewarding productive activities, improve environment and society as well as welfare of customers.

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[*] Mendez et al., 2010.

[†] Ibid

[‡] Saenz-Segura, Fernando and Guillermo Zuniga-Arias (2009). Assessment of the Effect of Fair Trade on Smallholder Producers in Costa Rica: A Comparative Study in theCoffee Sector, Ruerd Ruben (ed), The Impact of Fair Trade, pp. 117-135. Wageningen: Wageningen Academic Publishers.

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The Media Relations of the Russian LGBT-Movement after the Ban of "Gay Propaganda": Discursive Opportunities and Constrains

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Abstract

Homosexuality had long been silenced in the Russian political arena and mainstream media (Kondakov 2013), and thus, queer activists worked in a very limited public space. The situation had changed after the ban of so-called "gay propaganda" and the simultaneous campaign for "traditional values" in Russia (Wilkinson 2014). The rise of discussion around homosexuality, initiated by the Russian political elites, can be viewed as a discursive opportunity for queer activism (Persson 2015; Pronkina 2016). The current study examined the media relations of the Russian LGBT groups since the adoption of the "gay-propaganda" law. The predictions about discursive opportunities for the Russian LGBT movement were made with reliance to the Koopmans' (2004) theory and Seal's (2013) study of the feminist political protest in Russia. The mass survey of activists (N=132) was conducted for revealing the media strategies and claims of the Russian LGBT movement. It was found that the branch of politically mobilised LGBT activists tried to utilise the discursive opportunities for their protest in spite of the "gay-propaganda" ban in Russia. The rest of the activists followed conservative media strategies avoiding excessive publicity.

Keywords: social movement studies, Russian LGBT-movement, discursive opportunities, protest mediation, LGBT activism, media relations, queer visibility.

1. Introduction

The ban of "the propaganda of nontraditional sexual relations" drew attention to the violation of human rights in Russia as the law legitimised the arrests of LGBT public activists and penalties for the advocacy in the media (Johnson 2015). The new legislation was accompanied by the campaign for traditional family values that was launched by the conservative Russian politicians (Wilkinson 2014). According to the opinion polls, this campaign immensely influenced the public opinion in Russia as a negative attitude towards LGBTQI people grew by 15 % between 2013 and 2015 (Seckin 2015: 152). However, the Russian queer activism did not disappear under the oppressive legislation. On the contrary, more and more participants were involved in the annual street rally for LBGTQI rights in St Petersburg (Lukinmaa 2016: 50). The organisers claimed that the record number of participants had been reached in 2015, which perhaps led to a tighter policing and arrests in 2016 (Radio Liberty 2016). As street protests became more dangerous, other forms of LGBT activism were developing in Russia, including cyberactivism, hacktivism, protest art and semi-public events such as local queer festivals (Seckin 2015: 147, Lukinmaa 2016: 60).

The new regulation of NGOs contributed to the realignment and politicisation of the Russian LGBT movement. Since 2012, Russian NGOs were labelled "foreign agents" and, thereby, equated to political actors if they received any foreign funding (Johnson 2015). Several NGOs, which had been engaged in the HIV services and LGBT rights advocacy in Russia, were disbanded as they could not support themselves without the donations of foreign sponsors (Human Rights Watch 2016). At the same time, new politically mobilised groups emerged in reaction to the oppression of the Russian LGBT movement (Lapina 2014). The rising political awareness in the LGBT community was confirmed by Soboleva and Bakhmetjev (2015), who examined the responses of the community to the discriminatory policies in Russia. Presently, it is possible to speak of two branches within the Russian LGBT movement: the one adhering to the human rights advocacy, and the other allied with the liberal political opposition and acting as protesters (Lapina 2014).

The current study examined the media strategies of both branches. The predictions about activists' discursive strategies for contesting the homophobic frames of the Russian elites were derived from the theory of discursive opportunity structure (Koopmans 2004).

Discursive opportunities for LGBT movement in Russia

A discursive opportunity is defined as "the aspects of the public discourse that determine a message's chances of diffusion in the public sphere" (Koopmans & Olzak 2004: 202). The researchers argued that a social movement can benefit of or get damaged by the discursive structures when this movement have become visible in the mass media. The idea was not revolutionary, as a number of researchers investigated the role of mass media in the evolution of social movements. However, this theory is useful for interpreting the protest dynamics under "consonant" or "dissonant" media coverage, which can explain the success or failure of a movement (Koopmans 2004).

Fejes & Balogh (2013) discovered the common features in the development of feminist and queer movements in the context of post-socialist cultures in Eastern Europe. Russia also shared its cultural legacy with the post-socialist societies, where "homosexuality was deeply implicated in a cultural contest with the West" (Baer 2016: 4). However, the LGBT activists from the new EU member states of Eastern Europe experienced the support of the supranational legislation, which respected the civil rights of minorities. Russian LGBT groups had to work in the absence of such legislation and, in these latter days, under a tightening political pressure. Prevalent negative attitudes towards homosexuality and queerness in Russia were shaped by specific historical preconditions. Thus, the phenomenon of homosexuality was highly stigmatised and politisiced in the Soviet society. Healey (2001: 257) explained that early Soviet leaders constructed the heteronormative myth of "alternative modernity" in order to separate their country from "a decaying West and a depraved East."

The prosecution of homosexuals in the USSR began in 1930s, when the Soviet Commissar for Justice condemned homosexuality as a "product of a moral decay in the exploiting classes" (Kon 2003: 80). The short anti-homosexual campaign in the Soviet press in 1930s was followed by half a century of silencing (Kon 2003). According to Baer (2016), these preconditions made homosexuality a convenient symbol of the Western cultural imperialism in post-soviet Russia. "The almost complete invisibility of homosexuality in the Soviet society [...] has made any discursive deployment of homosexuality there today appear to be [...] an un-Soviet gesture", argued Baer (2016: 6). Moreover, Kondakov (2013) noticed that the argument of equality, which had been successfully advanced by Western LGBT activists, was unconvincing in such an intransigent and unequal society as Russian.

Reporting the ban of "gay propaganda", Russian media constructed narratives associated with conservatism, orthodox morality, and contestation with the West (Pronkina, 2016). Persson (2015: 271) identified three ways, in which Russian mainstream media framed the LGBT movement: 1) a threat to the nation's survival, 2) an attempt to "impose the minority's sex-radical norms onto the majority", and 3) a symptom of the Western moral decay. Still, Persson (2015) argued that dominant narratives could break down when they were contested by LGBT activists. Wilkinson (2014) also noticed that there is a room for the expression of Russian queer activists in independent media. Thus, Wilkinson (2014: 271) lately found that Russian liberal opposition and independent journalists contested the frames of the Russian political elites with the sympathetic coverage of the LGBT movement and personal stories.

The study is aimed to reveal whether Russian LGBT activists recognised the public debates on the "gay propaganda" as a discursive opportunity for their protest and how they organise their media relations after the adoption of the anti-propaganda law. It was assumed that there are at least two distinct media strategies developed by politically mobilised and apolitical branches within the LGBT movement (Lapina 2014). Three following hypotheses are to be tested in the current study:

H1. The Russian LGBT movement faced with the greater attention of journalists after the ban of "gay propaganda" in Russia.

H2. The politically active branch of the movement focused on public activism and sought to establish the contacts with both oppositional and mainstream media.

H3. The apolitical branch of the Russian LGBT movement focused on internal communications and avoided contacts with the mainstream media.

2. Method and Material

The method of a mass survey was used in the study. The online survey was spread among Russian LGBT activists with the assistance of 'Gay Russia' (Moscow) 'Coming Out' (St Petersburg), the 'Alliance of heterosexuals and LGBT for equality', hereinafter referred as 'the Alliance' (St Petersburg), and the 'Russian LGBT network', which unites 11 regional LGBT organisations. In the preparatory stage, three leaders of LGBT groups and the politician, who supports the movement, were interviewed in order to refine the survey. The interviewees Alexey Sergeev ('The Alliance'), Polina Andriyanova ('Coming Out'), Stetlana Zakharova ('The LBGT network') and Edward Murzin (the 'Parnas' party) participated in approx. 1-hour-long interviews and gave their detailed answers to the questions, which were later included in the survey.

The experts' commentary allowed for adding the plausible suggestions in open-ended questions, thus enhancing the validity and completion rate of the survey. 132 out of 137 returned questionnaires were complete and filled in by the target group of respondents. The survey demographics adequately represented the members of the Russian LGBT movement with 33 % of participants coming from Moscow, 19 % from St Petersburg and another 48 % from 17 other Russian cities. It was also revealed that 87 % of respondents belonged to LGBTQI community themselves, while 5 % had LGBTQI family members and 8 % joined without having personal or family connections with the community. The distribution by gender, age and the roles within the LBGT movement are presented below in Table 1. Lukinmaa (2015) pointed at the issues of self-identification in Russian LGBT groups, where members often did not see themselves as activists, even if participated in public events. Instead of referring to activism, the survey included the descriptions of various roles in the movement.

Table 1. The distribution by age, gender and roles in the LBGT movement

Gender Identity	Share, %	Age Group	Share, %	Participation in the Russian LGBT movement	Share, %
Male	40	17 y.o. and younger	6	Leaders, coordinators of LGBT groups	15
Female	42	18-25 y.o.	38	Members of LGBT groups, initiatives	18
Transgender	3	26-35 y.o.	41	Volunteers in LGBT groups, initiatives	20
Non-binary identity	14	36-45 y.o.	8	Members not involved with any group, but participating in LBGT events	29
Other	1	45-55 y.o.	7	Movement supporters	13
		56 y.o. and older	3	Members with undecided roles	5

The survey consisted of 25 questions, including 5 demographic questions, 13 closed questions with a Likert scale and 7 open-ended questions with suggested answers and the option to add original answers. The translated copy of questionnaire in English is available at GoogleDrive (2016). The validity of the questionnaire was enhanced through the preparatory interviews with the leaders of the movement. The question on the foundational claims of the LGBT activists revealed the respondents' preference for political or apolitical advocacy claims. Later the requirements of 'politically-inclined' and 'advocacy-inclined' activists were matched with their media strategies using the Pearson's R-coefficient. The activists' openness to media was measured by their selection of current and potential media partners (Q8-11), while the attitudes towards closed events, selective PR and the degree of concern for the "gay-propaganda" law were captured in Q7 and Q21 respectively. The responses to open-ended questions were coded manually in Excell spreadsheets.

Reliability tests were conducted to ensure the robustness of the analysis. First, the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was calculated for test items with a Likert scale. The alpha coefficients of the test items ranged between 0.75 and 0.85, which exceeded the minimum acceptable level of 0.7 (Gliem and Gliem, 2003). Second, the analysis of the dummy variables of age and region was used to compare the significance of correlations. The multicollinearity between three independent variables was also ruled out as it was confirmed there were no meaningful relationships between respondents' age and city with their (a)political protest claims.

3. Findings

In regard of the first hypothesis, it was found that the majority of respondents experienced the greater journalists' attention to their activism and private lives after the ban of "gay-propaganda". Particularly, 38 % of respondents agreed and 33 % strongly agreed that the media coverage of the LGBT movement increased, while only 8 % disagreed, 5 % strongly disagreed and remained 16 % noted no changes. The answers about journalists' interest to the private stories were similar: 17 % strongly agreed; 44 % agreed, 23 % noted no changes, 23 % disagreed and remained 3 % strongly disagreed. Some respondents had to partly (50 %) or completely (20 %) change their media strategies, whereas only 15 % followed the same strategy after the law adoption and the rest 16 % had not yet formulated such a strategy. Altogether, this evidence demonstrated that Russian LGBT groups faced with the greater publicity after the ban of "gay propaganda". Therefore, Hypothesis 1 can be accepted.

However, the reactions of LGBT groups to media attention differed noticeably. Table 2 shows the relationship between the branches of the LGBT movement and their communication strategies, as well as the results for the dummy variables. All correlations were calculated through the Pearson's R-coefficient, and the absolute values smaller than 0.1 were considered to be non-significant (N.s.). The activists' openness to all media had a strong negative correlation (-0.74) with the preference for apolitical advocacy and a moderate positive correlation (0.68) – with the preference for political activism. The advocacy orientation moderately correlated with the choice of closed events and the cooperation with a friendly press pool, while the political mobilisation had a moderate negative relationship with the same dependent variable.

The presented results allowed the researcher to partly accept H2 and H3 since the predicted relationships were identified, although not always as a strong correlation. As it was expected, the tests of the dummy variables were statistically insignificant in the majority of cases. However, an important result was registered when testing the impact of a location on the media preference. The periphery location had a weak negative correlation with the preference for global media that can be explained by the issue of connectivity. It is likely that activists from Moscow and St. Petersburg were better connected with foreign media than regional activists were.

Table 2. The Relationship Between Activists' Profile and Their Media Strategies

Variables	**N**	**Openness to all media**	**Preference to global media**	**Preference to local media**	**Preference for closed events and a press pool**	**Tendency to 'neglect' the propaganda law**
Advocacy claims (X)	78	-0.74	0.33	-0.22	0.68	-0.36
Political claims (Y)	54	0.68	-0.26	0.39	-0.51	0.59
Age (A)	132	N.s.	N.s.	-0.22	0.11	N.s.
Periphery location (P)	64	N.s.	-0.44	0.47	N.s.	N.s.

4. Limitations and Discussion

The notable limitation of the study is that the key calculations were made in two data arrays X and Y, both of which contained less than 100 units. Therefore, the study offers only preliminary conclusions about a causal relationship between the activists' claims and their media strategies. A broader survey with the Russian LGBT activists should be conducted in order to confirm these preliminary results. The accuracy of conclusions can be also improved by introducing 10-step scales for capturing the self-state importance of protesters' claims. The research also inherited common disadvantages of a mono-method quantitative study such as researcher's imposition and validity issues, which were partly removed through the preliminary interviews. The promising direction for future research on Russian LBGT activism is a mixed-method study combining the qualitative analysis of mediated claims with a survey.

Recognising these limitations, it is still possible to argue that the current general predictions about the discursive strategies of LGBT activists in Russia were valid. Few LGBT activists indeed seemed to view the outbreak of the public debates about sexuality as a discursive opportunity for advancing their demands. This viewpoint could have been inspired by the example of Pussy Riot, who successfully confronted the negative framing of their protest by Russian political elites and mainstream media (Seal 2013). Surprisingly, the public support for Pussy Riot had grown during the accusatory campaign in Russian mainstream media, and 12 % less people found the activists guilty of a disorderly conduct in the end of the trial (FOM 2012). This case proved that an aggressive campaign in state-controlled media may be inefficient if protesters manage to win the sympathy of independent Russian media and opinion leaders as well as to provoke the resonance in global news outlets and social media.

The media openness of political LGBT groups is reflected in the nature of their public activism, which became more symbolic and intentionally staged for the media coverage. Thus, Alexey Sergeev from the 'Alliance' explained in the interview that the group's recent street actions were aimed at drawing attention of both liberal and mainstream media in Russia. In 2016, the Alliance organised street actions with such images as a rainbow coffin, a homophobic operetta and the public readings of the Constitution in a kneeling position, which referred both to praying and (sexual) domination. The conducted survey registered the preferences for public events and cooperation with different media that were expressed by politically mobilised LGBT activists. This branch within the Russian LGBT movement also seemed to downplay the influence of the "gay-propaganda" law on the actual media coverage.

On the contrary, the other group of LGBT activists switched to a conservative media strategy, which was characterised by the higher preference for closed events and greater selectivity in the choice of media partners. In terms of demands, this group focused on human rights advocacy (e.g. equality and non-discrimination) and made no political claims. Polina Andriyanova from "Coming Out" explained that the group saw the fight for abolishing the propaganda law as unrealistic and preferred to work with internal communications in the LGBTQI community. The public actions of apolitical LGBT groups tended to be less "flashy" and took such forms as protest art (e.g. films, photography, art festivals, etc.), cyberactivisim and semi-public community events. The respondents, who expressed only human rights advocacy claims, looked for positive media coverage in friendly Russian or foreign media.

5. Conclusion

The dilemma faced by Russian LGBT activists after the "gay-propaganda" ban pointed at the ambiguity of media resonance as a discursive opportunity. Discussing the rise of the right-wing populism, Koopmans and Muis (2009) argued that only consonant, or supportive, coverage can contribute to the success of a previously marginalised movement. However, these conclusions were made in the context of the democratic political system, which was characterised by media pluralism and high trust in media. These predictions may be not confirmed in the conditions of a neo-authoritarian regime associated with media censorship and, consequently, low trust in media. In 2015, only 29% of Russians trusted state-owned TV channels (Deloitte 2015) and, therefore, their perception of socials movements became less predictable.

Due to widespread media skepticism, the seemingly marginal social movements, which receive dissonant coverage in the Russian mainstream media, may still gain the public support. The expressly negative coverage of Pussy Riot in Russian state-owned media could have contributed to the sympathy to their protest, which was reflected in the opinion polls (Seal 2013; FOM 2012). Similarly, the 'demonisation' of the LGBT movement in Russian mainstream media resulted in the support from some opposition politicians and independent media (Wilkinson 2014). Edward Murzin, a candidate at the 2016 Duma Elections, explained in the interview that he had publicly supported the LGBTQI community out of civil solidarity with the oppressed minority, even through the issue of LGBT rights had not been on his party's main agenda. The further analysis of the mediation of the Russian LGBT activism and public responses to it can contribute to the understanding of discursive opportunities in undemocratic societies with a mixed media system.

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Analysis of Neological Anglicisms used in Slovak from Aspects of Orthography and Frequency in the Slovak National Corpus

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Abstract

The aim of an author is to analyse new Anglicisms used in Slovak from the perspective of adapted orthography and frequency in the Slovak National Corpus (SNC). Significant for our research is the time of the first appearance of an English item in a target language (Slovak in our case). Our hypothesis is to prove that modern neological Anglicisms are considered new in source language as well. Combination of observation, description, explication, analysis and comparison and are the main research methods which are to be applied. Two versions of the SNC are compared: an older version, prim-6.0-public-all available for Slovak users since 2013, and a recent version, prim-7.0-public-all, available for the public since 2015. The aim of both electronic databases of enormous size is to collect all expressions emerging Slovak language. The SNC also provides the date of first emergence of an item and its source, too. The work with the British National Corpus and Online Etymology Dictionary was inevitable, too.

Keywords: anglicism, borrowing, frequency, neologism, source language, target language.

1. Introduction

According to *Online Etymology Dictionary*, the term *neologism* appeared in 1772 as a translation from French having reference to a "practice of innovation in language". The meaning referring to a new element, word, or expression in language is known from 1803 (Online Etymology Dictionary). The question is how long can an expression be considered new. It depends on several factors: on its frequency in communication and on language users´ perception (Arnold, 1973; Böhmerová, 2009; Galperin, 1977; Jesenská, 2014c).

Neologisms stand in the centre of research interest of many linguists (Arnold, 1973; Bednárová-Gibová, 2014; Böhmerová, 2009; Crystal, 2010a; Galperin, 1977; Jesenská, 2014a; Jesenská, 2014c; Jesenská, 2016; Katreniaková, 2002; Lančarič, 2016; Štulajterová, 2012; Timko, 2016).

Arnold asserts that a neologism is "any word or set expression, formed according to the productive structural patterns or borrowed from another language and felt by the speakers as something new" (Arnold, 1973:232). Its emergence in language is a result of dynamism and natural development of language, its users, i.e. society. They are common in newspaper vocabulary (Galperin, 1977) and other means of mass media communication. By means of neologisms usually internationalisms, publicistic expressions, terms, slang, and colloquialisms are borrowed according to Štulajterová (Štulajterová, 2012). Borrowings definitely help to enrich target languages. These are common and natural in all European languages, because "everyone borrows" as Crystal (Crystal, 2010a) says, though antagonism towards borrowing can reach various scale in target cultures (languages). He claims that (according to the etymologies of the *Oxford English Dictionary*) in the course of the past thousand years English itself has borrowed words from over 350 languages (Crystal, 2010a: 48), which is a high number. Crystal admits on non-English origin of many of these, however, as he says, nowadays they are "condemned as Anglicisms" which he demonstrates on examples, such as *computer* or *hamburger* (Crystal, 2010a).

It seems that the British or Americans are no longer the only owners of the English language as it spreads out among non-native speakers. For example, Euro-English spoken on the European continent fulfils a significant communicative role within the EU (Bednárová-Gibová, 2014: 76; Crystal, 2010a: 48-49; Crystal, 2010b).

It is believed that in English appear about 1,000 new words every year (Jesenská, 2015). Moreover, some estimation goes even further claiming over 20,000 new expressions enter English vocabulary every single year (Böhmerová, 2009). One way or the other, this fact must be reflected in the English classroom. I have been teaching English lexicology at Slovak university about 16 years. I have decided to focus on the recent neologisms in English because they are almost immediately after their coinage borrowed into European national languages, Slovak included. These borrowings are known as Anglicisms, i.e. English elements (in our case: single words/one-word expressions) in other languages (Crystal, 2010a, Jesenská, 2007; Katreniaková, 2002).

2. Results

Theoretical background: The notion of Anglicism

There is no agreement on definition of the term. Basically, there are two concepts of the notion. Some linguists do not problematize this phenomenon and define it as "a language element (word, expression, and/or syntactic structure) borrowed from English" (Mistrík et al., 1993:65). This is a traditional concept typical of structural (systemic) linguistics. Anglicism in this concept is understood very specifically and narrowly (e.g. Mistrík et al., 1993). This approach was common and understandable in the past for various reasons which we do not plan to specify due to the topic and length of this study.

However, we go further in characterising the term Anglicism, asserting that it is not only an English element taken into another language (i.e. target language), but it also is an element taken from Anglophone environment, e.g. *au pair* or *cybernetics*. Our attitude can be backed up by the fact that it is not "only" a source language, but the source culture, we take the borrowing from. This can be demonstrated on the example of *au pair* which is of French origin. Regardless its (French) origin it is borrowed into and used in target languages due to the fact English native speakers use it. Had not it been spoken in Anglophonic environment, highly likely it would not have been taken into other languages either (Jesenská, 2007; Jesenská, 2014b). In other words, Anglicism is understood in terms of Anglophonic etymology as well as a foreign word or hybrid expression used (spoken) in and taken from Anglophonic culture as a whole. Also other linguists prefer this non-traditional understanding of the notion (e.g. Crystal, 2010a; Štulajterová, 2005; Štulajterová 2012; Timko, 2016, and others).

The notion *Anglicism* fulfils the role of an umbrella term (hyperonym) covering Briticisms and Americanisms, both functioning as co-hyponyms in the terminologically hierarchical structure. Other specific sub-types of Anglicisms could be mentioned, too (e.g. Canadianisms or Australianisms). However, for the purpose of this study the standard broad term *Anglicism* is used because it is well-known and used in the field of linguistics.

Anglicisms in Slovak language

There are various aspects of examining this phenomenon. Anglicisms can be investigated from the points of structural linguistics, language contacts, cultivation and language management, etc. Many (predominantly) Slovak linguists have been examining the phenomenon of Anglicisms in the Slovak language from various aspects, e.g. Böhmerová, 2009; Dobrík, 2007; Jesenská, 2007; Jesenská, 2016; Katreniaková, 2002; Ološtiak, 2009; Štulajterová, 2005; Timko, 2016, just to name a few.

Specific classification based on phonetic, graphemic, morphological, and semantic adaptation of selected Anglicisms into Slovak language is discussed in the monograph by Dobrík (Dobrík, 2007). However, some authors focus on particular expressions only, such as Katreniaková (Katreniaková, 2002) who studied English nouns taking a suffix -ing with the emphasis on linguistic and extra-linguistic reasons of their borrowing and usage in Slovak language. Comparison of Anglicisms´ usage in Slovak serious and tabloid newspapers was examined by Jesenská (Jesenská, 2007). The background for research of Anglicisms in publicistic texts had history in Jesenská´s research of serious Slovak weekly *Domino forum* (Jesenská, 2004).

However, there are many other linguists investigating various aspects of English elements in the Slovak language. These were usually highly specific about this phenomenon. For example, Ološtiak (Ološtiak, 2009) focused on morphemic adaptation of English proper nouns used in Slovak.

It has to be mentioned that for the purpose of this paper Anglicisms are to be viewed in the context of structural linguistics. The theoretical background of this study is based on the most recent results of afore-mentioned predominantly structural linguists.

Research aims and methods

The aim of our research was to collect English neologisms borrowed in Slovak language after 2000, i.e. Anglicisms used in Slovak in the 21st century. The source language was meant to be English, while a target language was Slovak as the mother tongue of our university students. Our hypothesis was that all neological Anglicisms would be new in English as well. This presumption is based on our previous research which proved that Slovak borrows more expressions which are still considered new in the source language.

Phenomenon of Anglicisms is objectively noticed in the *Slovak National Corpus* (SNC 2013, SNC 2015) which served us as a significant source of information and research background for us.

There were more research methods chosen to be combined. First, it was the method of collection, observation, and description of neological items in the British National Corpus (BNC). Next, we found those Anglicisms in the Slovak National Corpus (SNC). Its older version, prim-6.0-public-all (2013), and later its recent version as well, prim-7.0-public-all (2015), were checked and examined in order to select particular Anglicisms and compare the way these new elements of language become a solid part of target language vocabulary. After comparison of the first appearance and frequency, we applied the method of qualitative analysis focusing on orthographic adaptation in the target language.

The main research aim was to collect and analyse neological Anglicisms used in Slovak language from the viewpoint of orthographic adaptation into a target language together with frequency of neological English borrowings as reflected in two versions of the Slovak National Corpus. The older version, titled prim-6.0-public-all, goes back to 2013. Recent version of the SNC, titled prim-7.0-public-all, was available since December 2015. We decided to compare outputs of either version.

Source of research

The Slovak National Corpus (SNC) is an electronic database collecting Slovak texts of various styles, genres, and fields. The Corpus covers texts from the year 1955 till modern contributions. There are more SNC versions focusing on various aspects of language. We have chosen two of them for the following reasons: considering size and texts, both versions are relevant, reliable, and available for the public.

SNC version prim-6.0-public-all covers all texts that are available for the public, including over 77 % publicistic texts, over 9 % belles lettres style, over 11 % technical texts, and over 1.4 % other texts). This older version provides 1 155 742 085 tokens and 881 084 173 words.

SNC version prim-7.0-public-all covers all texts that are available for the public, including over 65 % publicistic texts, over 15 % belles lettres style, over 9 % technical texts, and over 10 % other texts). This particular version provides 1 250 382 876 tokens and 971 799 239 words.

We have collected a small sample of neological Anglicisms borrowed into Slovak. All of them were expected to be perceived new in English and Slovak. However, our research did not utterly prove this hypothesis – some have been functioning in English for some time (e.g. *whistleblower*). But majority of examined items are considered new in both languages (e.g. *belfie, killfie, lelfie, pelfie, telfie* or *emoji*). We checked their first appearance in the BNC and/or in *Online Etymology Dictionary* (OED).

Alt-right (*alternative right*) appeared in English 2016 for the very first time, however, this fact has not been reflected (noticed) in the BNC yet. Its usage has been noticed in Anglophonic and Slovak print and electronic mass media ´only´. Logically, it is noticed in neither versions of the SNC. Its compound form, *alternative right*, has been known since 2008 from media.

Research results

Our results and findings are listed in the table below:

Table 1. 21st-century English neologisms and their frequency in Slovakia

English Neologism (the first appearance in English and/or in the BNC)	**Appearence in the SNC prim-6.0-public-all** (frequency; year)	**Appearence in the SNC prim-7.0-public-all** (frequency; year)
alt-right (-; 2016)	-	-
belfie (-; 2012)	-	-
Brexit (4198; 2012), *Brexiteer* (38, 2016)	- -	*brexit* (48; 2012) -
emoji (63; 2014)	-	-
Facebook (79, 178; 2004)	*facebook* (911; 2006)	*facebook* (22, 135; 2006) *fejsbuk* (48;2009) *fejs* (36; 2011)
glamping (338; beginning of the 21st C)	*glamping* (1; 2012)	*glamping* (7; 2012)
hashtag (1,076; used in social networks of twitter since 2007 (however, the 1st usage appears in late 1990s)	-	*hashtag* (41; 2011)
infotainment (14; 1983)	-	*infortainment* (1; 2000)
killfie (-;)	-	-
lelfies (-; beginning of the 21st C)	-	-
militainment (-;)	-	-
pelfie (-; beginning of the 21st C)	-	-
post-truth (29; 2016)	-	-
selfie (188; around 2002)	-	*selfie* (117; 2012)
urbex (-; around 2006)	*urbex* (9; 2010)	*urbex* (17; 2010)
telfie (-;beginning of the 21st C)	-	-
Twitter (81, 170; around 2006)	*twitter* (71;2007)	*twitter* (6,360;2007)
whistleblower (215; 1963)	*whistleblower* (5; 2002)	*whistleblower* (68;2002)
webinar (2,323; after 1990)	*webinár* (2; 2003)	*webinár* (9; 2003)

Explanation of the table 1: *orthographic form* in a target language (i.e. in Slovak); mark – refers to absence of an item in the SNC; numerals in brackets (x; x) refer to the frequency and the year of the first appearance/usage in the SNC.

Belfie, killfie, lelfie, pelfie, telfie – all five blends are motivated by the existence of *selfie*, derivative of *self* + diminutive suffix *-ie*. None of those neological blends appears in the BNC, OED or SNC. This may be understood as a sign of their novelty which is the reason why these were not included into the mentioned databases. They are all connected with electronic communication and presentation oneself on various kinds of social networks. Some are monosemantic (e.g. *belfie* or *lelfie*), while others are polysemous (*pelfie, telfie*). Their semantics is connected with a deliberate and intentional presentation (sharing) of parts of human body or other things (e.g. pets) on social networks. Out of these the most recent is *killfie* referring to a selfie taken in a dangerous situation, in other words, it is ´a selfie that kills´. It is needles to mention that all these expressions (selfie and killfie included) are to be found in Slovak mass media, be it print or electronic copies.

Blend *Brexit* is noticed in the BNC 4198x (2012), while its derivative, *Brexiteer*, has been reflected in 38 research results. Blend *Brexit* (British exit from the EU structures) was coined analogically to already known and widely used *Grexit* (Greek/Greece exit) earlier the same year. Early 21st century informal British expression, *Brexiteer*, was coined by means of suffixation, such as *Brexit* + *-eer*, referring to a person who is in favour of Brexit (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/). In fact, Slovak borrowed ´only´ *brexit* (SNC, 2015) leaving *Brexiteer* unnoticed. Anglicism *brexit* has immediately adapted Slovak lower case spelling and it goes without saying that morphemic adaptation occured as well due to the fact that Slovak is a West Slavic language which respects declination reflected in adding suffixes.

Emoji appears in the BNC and exploring its usage it was found that it is enormous: between 350,000 and 700,000 usages in total depending on researched pages. However, the BNC notices "only" 63 appearances. It has its origin in Japanese (coined around 1990s), combining expressions referring to ´picture´ and ´character´. However, Slovak language users prefer *emotikon* (English *emoticon*) to emoji which has not become very frequent yet.

Facebook is a noun coined in 1983 and spread among American university students (Online Etymology Dictionary). However, spelled with capital letter as a name for social network, dates only from 2004 in English (acc. to the BNC). In the SNC it dates from 2006 and its Slovak adapted version, *fejsbuk,* in 2009 and its Slovakized clipped form, *fejs*, appears two years later in 2011. This brings an evidence of orthographic adaptation of borrowed expressions which tend to use vernacular repertoire of Slovak graphemes. It this case it took a couple of years to develop.

Glamping (glamorous camping) is too new to appear in OED, but it was found in the BNC and in either version of the SNC. The expression is used in Slovak media ´only´ to explain a specific way of travelling and spending leisure time.

Hashtag is listed in the BNC and is listed as a term used in electronic communication since 2007. However, the expression was coined around 1990s in English. The older version of the SNC does not notice it, but the newer one collected over 40 usages since 2011.

Infotainment and *militainment* are two blends which are considered brand new in the Slovak language, however, these are not new in English. *Infotainment* has been found in 14 results in the BNC and according to the *OED* it emerged in English around 1983 by means of blending (or so-called lexical amalgamation/fusion) of *info* (taken from *information*) and *tainment* (taken from *entertainment*). Analogically, *militainment* was coined recently from *military* + *entertainment*. It still carries a sigh of novelty due to the fact that it has not been noticed in the BNC yet.

Post-truth together with expression such as *post-future* or *post-fact* refer to the situation after a significant situation when relevant facts are revealed that used to be untold before in order to influence particular situation (elections, referendum, etc.). *Post-truth* appeared in the BNC, but not in the OED. However, it became ´The Word of the Year 2016´ for Oxford dictionaries. More information can be found on webpage https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/word-of-the-year/word-of-the-year-2016.

Selfie is believed to appear around 2002 in English and can be found in the BNC, OED, and newer version of the SNC as well. According to the SNC it was borrowed into Slovak 10 years after its first coinage in English. It is massively used in either language. Moreover, the BNC claims that «its usage has increased 17,000 percent since this time last year; and it has been popularised by celebrities including Beyonce, Rihanna, Cheryl Cole and Justin Bieber» (BNC, 03/11/2016).

Urbex (*urban exploration*), quite surprisingly, can be found in both versions of the SNC, but not in the BNC or OED. However, it is believed to appear in 2006 for the very first time in English. In Slovak it appears 4 years later. In fact, this expression nor its derivatives (e.g. *urbexer*) have not yet appeared in Oxford dictionaries.

Twitter, according to OED, originates in the late 14th C in a verb *twiteren*. As a noun it is believed to be coined in early 19th C, but its modern usage referring to chattering on social networks appears around 2006 in English. It emerges in Slovak a year or two later. Its spelling (orthographic) and morphemic adaptations into Slovak are obvious (e.g. lower case spelling).

Whistle-blower is a noun that appears in 1963 according to the Online Etymology Dictionary. It is no longer considered a neologism in English. But it has been known over ten years in Slovak bearing narrow very specific meaning when referring to the information scandal. Its meaning is so specific that only insiders understand its semantics when used in Slovak. Usually, an equivalent translation into Slovak is preferred instead. Probably that is the main reason why it is still considered knew after all those years of existence in the target (Slovak) language.

Webinar is too recent to appear in OED, however, it appears in the BNC and both Slovak versions as well. Oxford dictionaries date its first appearance (usage) into 1990s explaining it as “a seminar conducted over the Internet“ (https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/webinar). From the point of word-formative processes it is classified as a blend of *(worldwide) web + (sem)inar*. Slovak has been using this Anglicism for about thirteen years and in the course of that time it has undergone the complete process of spelling and morphemic adaptations. Though the process of adaptation underwent, Slovak users still may perceive this expression new.

3. Conclusion

Anglicisms entering Slovak language predominantly come from a virtual (i.e. electronic) environment which is believed to be the most dynamic and effective means of communication at the moment. That is the main reason why the source of our research sample was searched and observed in this specific environment.

A sample of neological Anglicisms used in Slovak was collected and observed in order to be further analysed from the point of orthographic adaptation in Slovak. This phenomenon is connected with the first appearance of the expression in target language. It takes some time for any borrowed or newly coined expression to become adapted. In some cases it took two or more years. Our hypothesis about neological perception among the source language users was more or less confirmed. Majority of examined English expressions are still considered new in English (source language) and as such they were borrowed and are now perceived new in Slovak (target language). There were some exceptions noticed, but they represent only a small amount of examined items.

Appearance and the time of first emergence in a particular language were checked out in electronic databases, such as the British National Corpus and Slovak National Corpus. In the case of the SNC two versions (2013 and 2015) were compared due to time needed for borrowed items to adapt.

Our comparison has showed that newly borrowed items usually keep their original orthography, as is the case of words like *belfie, glamping, hashtag, lelfie, pelfie, selfie,* and *telfie*. As for proper names (*Facebook* or *Twitter*), they seem to lose their upper-case spelling in target language if the situation (high frequency and/or spelling rules of target languge) enables it (*facebook, twitter*). Spelling features typical of the target language are preferred where possible, e.g. *webinár*.

Considering the frequency of Anglicisms, it can be asserted that their usage arises. It can be demonstrated on an example of Anglicism *facebook* whose usage is reflected in the older SNC version (2013) as 911x while in the newer SNC version (2015) *facebook* appears 22,135x, not to mention its Slovakized adaptations. Similarly *twitter* emerges 71x in 2013-version while a two years later it notices 6,360x. Some Anglicisms do not appear in 2013-version, but in 2015-version their frequency is quite high, as in the case of *selfie* having 117 appearances.

The alphabetically listed Anglicisms presented in the table of the paper represent only a small sample of our larger ongoing research on neological Anglicisms used in Slovak.

The question is which expressions are going to stay within our language (be it source or target) and which are going to be forgotten soon. One thing is clear, electronic communication strongly influences the choice of language and visual (e.g. *emoji*) means. It can be assumed that social networks are going to stay with us for some time as well as their means of communication. However, they may modify in various ways, but only time will show how and into what extend.

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Parallel Support of Specialized and Foreign Language Competences as a Tool to Improve the Quality of Contemporary University Education

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Abstract

The aim of the article is to explain the relevance of parallel support of both specialized and foreign language competences in the process of university education. This ambition results from the output of the *KEGA 018TU Z-4/2014 Implementation of educational methods for enhancement of the education in field of Technical mechanics* research project that focused on the modernization of educational methods in order to improve the educational process in the area of selected specializations. Beside other tools, educational materials have been developed based on didactic principles supporting the acquisition of both specialized and foreign language competences. The first part of the article deals with the theoretical background applied in the process of developing the educational materials; the second part presents specific educational material developed as one of the project outcomes.

Keywords: specialized language, German as a foreign language, support of specialized and foreign language competences, contemporary university education

1. The text as an information providing tool

In the educational process, mediating knowledge is one of the core aims. The rate of achievement of this goal determines the success of the educational efforts of every teacher. Texts represent one of the most important parts of the information transfer process. Therefore, it is understandable that the text with all its specific characteristics determined by the didactic context is at the centre of interest when discussing mediating knowledge. Educational texts are characterized by a certain level of specialization, since mediated knowledge usually relates to a field of specialization, or at least shows some affinity with it. However, it is important to emphasize that the language used in actual scholarly texts and the (specialized) language of didactic texts cannot be put at the same level. The next part of the article therefore deals with the term *specialized language* from two viewpoints: a) overall view; b) didactic aspects.

Specialized language as a term is not clearly defined in linguistics. There are deviations between individual definitions despite similarities. One of the, so to speak, classic definitions reads as follows:

"*Specialized language – set of all language means used in a single field of expertise in order to facilitate communication among experts in the given field*" (Hoffmann 1987, 53) [translation from German].

According to a more recent definition by Schubert, specialized language needs to be distinguished from general language, however, they are mutually related and a clear boundary between them cannot be determined. Specialized language is understood as one of the language varieties. While formulating the definition, the author refers to his colleagues, e. g. Fluck (1996), Hoffmann (1976), Göpferich (1995), Kalverkämper (1996, 1998), Gardt (1998) or Roelcke (1999).

"A language pertaining to a language community is a total language that consists of different varieties. These varieties are not mutually exclusive -- they share the lexical and grammatical core within the total language. The individual varieties are used in certain fields of human communication. Varieties facilitating specialized communication are called specialized language" (Schubert 2007, 147) [translation from German].

Another important aspect of specialized language is its pragmatic aspect. In terms of the pragmatic approach, the language is closely interconnected with the context, specific situation and the response of the text producer on the linguistic level, i. e. the expert. Buhlmann a Fearns define specialized language as follows:

"The actual specialized language is always determined by a field of expertise, because it requires absolute clarity concerning concepts and statements. If it is used by a layman, the specialized language loses its direct relation to specialized thinking; concepts and statements lose a significant portion of their content and precision, especially in terms of their relation to the specialized system with which the layman is not acquainted" (Buhlmann, Fearns 1987, 12) [translated from German].

Based on the definitions cited above, it can be concluded that in defining the term *specialized language*, it is not sufficient to draw merely from the language means (lexical level); the essence of the specialized language can only be captured if elements such as the language user and specific situation are taken into consideration. Therefore, besides questions relating to the language level as such, it is also important to address further questions such as, who are the communicating parties? what is the communication subject? At this point, it is possible to refer to the vertically and horizontally arranged classification of the specialized language as developed by Hoffmann (1987)*.

The vertical arrangement deals with the question of communication participants. Hoffmann distinguished five levels of discourse. The highest level represents a discourse between scientists and it is characterized by the highest level of abstraction. It means that in such discourse, a large number of terms are used; their comprehension depends upon the participants' knowledge of the concepts they represent. This discourse level represents the specialized language in its typical form. It is usually described as exact, clear, logically arranged, highly abstract, neutral (in terms of stylistics), and incorporating use of terminology. The use of terminology is one of the basic characteristics of specialized language. The primary function of terminology is nominal; it is exact, clear, independent from the context, rational, it lacks modality and expressiveness, and the terms are a part of a system (Hoffmann, 1987). These attributes directly reflect in the characteristics of the specialized language. The lowest, 5th, level of Hoffmann's classification represents the communication between the material production representative, sales representative, and the customer. This discourse level is the most distant from the concept of specialized language. It is characterized by a low level of abstraction, use of natural language, and low usage of terminology.

The horizontal arrangement relates to the communication subject. Different scientific disciplines exist next to each other, i. e. this arrangement is determined by the relations across different scientific areas.

It is also important to deal with the term *general specialized language*. Hoffmann (1987, 62) defines it as a "*summary of all language means that occur in all specialized texts*." It includes all concepts with which all experts are more or less familiar (regardless of their field of expertise), because their use relates to science in general, therefore they can be used in almost all scientific fields. In terms of their use, the aspect of the vertical arrangement is more important than the aspect of their affiliation with a specialization. Examples include terms such as: *analysis*, *synthesis*, *production*, *elimination*, etc.

2. The position of specialized language in the educational process

The issue addressed in this chapter relates to the question of how the general characteristics of specialized language can be applied to the didactic texts, or the use of specialized language in the educational process. In terms of the vertical arrangement, this situation can be considered specific. It cannot be assigned to any of the levels proposed by Hoffmann. The relation between the *author of the coursebook* and the *student* is characterized by a difference in their knowledge bases; it is probably closest to the 5th discourse level (sales representative -- customer), in which the sales representative is the party possessing the knowledge which they want to mediate to their (uninformed or less informed) customer. However, the situation cannot be considered parallel to

*The five discourse levels according to Hoffmann (1976, 186): 1) scientist – scientist; 2) scientist (technician) – scientist (technician); 3) scientist (technician) – scientific and technical head of material production; 4) scientific and technical head of material production – foreman – skilled worker; 5) material production representative – sales representative – customer.

the educational process. The difference is that the course book author wants to mediate the information not only in a comprehensive, but also in a professional way. Students are supposed to comprehend the relevant connections within a specialized context, i.e. they should acquire knowledge in a complex and systematic way. However, this requirement does not apply to the customer (in terms of Hoffman's vertical arrangement of discourse levels, see Note No. 2). It is sufficient if the customer receives the amount of information relevant for them in their position. As can be seen, there is a clear qualitative difference between these situations. Even more differences result from this, relating for example to the way lexical means are employed. Since the contents of the course need to be explained at a certain level of specialization, the use of terminology is necessary. It draws this kind of discourse closer to the scientific pole. From this point of view, this situation can be assigned to the middle of the 5-level arrangement. Such communication is not entirely abstract as in case of a discourse between two scientists, yet on the other hand, it does not lack abstraction completely as a 5th level discourse. The terminology has a stable position in the educational process, however, it needs to be mediated in an adequate (not necessarily scientific) way so that the student with a limited knowledge base can comprehend it. Only if this step is successfully taken, can the terms be worked with and used in further communication within the educational process.

In terms of the horizontal arrangement, the situation is similar, i.e. didactic texts cannot be considered actual specialized texts. In the process of knowledge mediation, the distinction between specific fields is less important than the way specialized knowledge is mediated. Regardless of certain typical ways of representing information by means of abbreviations of symbols, e. g. in mathematics, chemistry or physics, no large distinctions can be found. It is much more important to emphasize the common basis resulting from the general scientific language.

More distinctions result from the medium used, i.e. whether communication is oral or written. This article focuses on written communication.

From the general point of view, the following can be concluded: Didactic texts cannot be classified as prototypical specialized texts. In comparison to specialized texts, the distinctions do not result merely from the language level, but also from the pragmatic relations (e. g. situation, language user). We believe that the pragmatic factors determine the primary distinction between the types of text and the distinctions on the linguistic level result from these as a secondary phenomenon. Didactic texts are close to prototypical specialized texts, however, they are characterized by certain specifications that should not be overlooked. Due to this fact, in terms of classification of didactic text into the system, the prototypical model seems appropriate; based on it, didactic text could be placed at its periphery. This results from the attributes that distinguish them from the prototypical concept of a specialized text.

3. Texts in the educational process and the processual aspects of knowledge mediation

Based on the above, it is clear that didactic texts hold a specific position within the system. In the educational process, they fulfil a specific function. The usual neutral, descriptive viewpoint is replaced with a perspective in which the educational process focusing on knowledge mediation and teaching is at the centre. The (didactic) specialized text serves as a tool to extend the competences of the learners. The tool is effective only if it is used properly. Therefore, didactics focus on working with text. A written text should serve as a tool to acquire knowledge that the reader processes mentally, therefore it is important to adequately capture the relation between the text structure and the methods for its processing to develop an efficient teaching strategy. We believe that the concepts that address both structure and function of the text are of key importance for mediating these processes. The structure reflects the material level of the text, i. e. how we perceive it (read or hear). The non-material level relates to the functional viewpoint which addresses the way in which the information (material) represented in the text is dealt with. This perspective also implies taking into consideration the cognitive approaches in linguistics. In the context of specialized language, the term **specialized communication** is often referred to. It is related to the development of the issue of specialized language. Specialized communication represents the dynamic, processual aspect of knowledge mediation. In this way, the focus shifts, i.e. system-oriented structuralist approaches are replaced with pragmatic aspects determined by a specific situation.

4. Pragmatic aspects

4.1. Pragmatic concepts

We have already addressed pragmatic concepts as the theoretical starting point for the research of different aspects of mediating information through language elsewhere (compare Tuhárska 2011, 68 ff.), therefore only a brief overview is included in this article. The term *pragmasyntax* incorporates the interconnection of the language with the knowledge structures of the language users. Schulze (2003) defines *pragmasyntax* as follows:

"*In the tradition of the cognitive typology as represented for example by the 'Grammar of Scenes and Scenarios' Model, pragmasyntax is understood as the area of linguistics knowledge which (besides other functions) determines the method of linguistic linearization of the perception of form (German: Gestalterfahrungen)"* [translated from German].

To put it simply, it is the way in which the three-dimensional perception of realities or mental concepts are represented linearly in the form of language. How do 3D realities transform into the linear form of linguistic expression?

The concepts that reflect the basic idea of pragmasyntax include the *Grammar of Scenes and Scenarios* (GSS) and *Attention-Information-Flow* (AIF) concepts. The GSS concept is based on the *Stage Metaphor* according to which real-life situations or mental concepts are perceived as an analogy to the stage; the actors and relations between them constitute a certain microcosmos, i. e. an analogy to the possible real form of the world. The question is how this image (or reflection) can be mediated through the means of language. The AIF concept is based on the idea that subjectively relevant perceptions are transferred into the form of language by the language users.

„The AIF can be defined as the paradigmatic architecture to linguistically construe a stimulus input of Word stimulus (experimental, memory-based or verbal). The Attention Flow represents the process of qualifying and segmenting an input event according to (sensation based and habitualized (or: entrenched)) cognitive patterns ('diairesis' in terms of GSS). … Information Flow is defined as the process of constructing a linguistic 'event-image' in terms of a presentational simulation of the stimulus input in accordance with the linguistic knowledge of a speaker" (Schulze 2004, 549).

4.2. The application of pragmatic concepts

In general, pragmatic concepts can be applied to the selection of content during the creation of educational materials. In the context of linguistics, the term *pragmatic* relates to the use of language in specific situations determined by extralingual factors, therefore it would be desirable to focus on the language as used in practice by incorporating language structures commonly used in the given (specialized) context into the educational process. However, based on the above mentioned specifications of mediating specialized knowledge in a foreign language in the process of university education, it is also important to take into consideration the didactic aspect that emphasizes the adequacy of the way specialized information is mediated. Creating educational materials in the context of specialized education in a foreign language cannot be perceived merely as adapting foreign specialized texts in their original form (despite the fact that it adds authenticity to the process). The creation of educational materials should be an outcome of an elaborate synthesis of multiple sources based on specific principles and goals; these sources should include authentic parallel texts from the relevant field of specialization in the foreign language, explanatory and translation dictionaries and also specialized literature from the given scientific area. Last but not least, the practical experience of experts in the field is also of key importance.

5. Contents of educational materials and relevant sources

In mediation of specialized content in a foreign language, parallel texts play an important role as a source of information. According to multiple sources (compare e. g. Wills (1996, 160), Göpferich (2000, 233), the term parallel text refers to texts in both source and target languages that share the same or similar topic, media and stylistic homogeneity, function, communication framework, rhetoric structure, and conditions of origin. The acquisition of an ideal way of working with foreign specialized texts, either on the level of perception or production, requires not only a good command of the terminology in both source and target languages, but also the way language means are used stylistically. An important source of knowledge facilitating the identification of such analogies are the parallel texts -- they serve as complex sources of information at the morphological and syntactical, lexical, and stylistic levels. Parallel texts allow examination of the researched phenomenon in a broader context which significantly increases the quality of language skills and prevents certain types of errors (e. g. negative transfer, word-to-word translation) that result from neglecting the contextual relationships.

Lexicographical publications are another important source. They include translation dictionaries that serve mainly for identification or verification of the relevant foreign language equivalent at the lexical level. Monolingual explanatory dictionaries provide characteristics of selected central terms from a given field; by verification of the equivalence of the given term in both the source and target languages and their intentional characteristics, it is possible to specify the level of their semantic equivalence, thus encouraging one's confidence in using the terms.

Pre-existing specialized publications covering the relevant area are also an important source, e. g. university course books, research studies, and monographs summarizing the current state of knowledge in the given field of specialization (compare e.g. Balke 2014, Bodnár – Minárik 2009). In the process of acquisition of specialized knowledge presented in a foreign language, the recipient can get acquainted not only with specialized facts at the contentual level and verify the professional validity of terms found elsewhere, they can also observe the way the specialized knowledge is presented at the language level, i. e. they can observe adequate formulations in the foreign language.

The practical experience of experts in the subject comprises a part of the synthesis of different sources of knowledge that should be reflected in the process of creation of educational materials and their content. These inputs represent the basis for the selection of suitable content which the graduate will more than likely meet with in their professional practice. Ďuricová (2008, 33) also points out the relevance of the interconnection of the educational process and practice in the context of translation studies: "*...it is necessary for the translation process to simulate the actual translation work in the educational process*."

However, in terms of technological progress and related possibilities, it is important to take into consideration that various types of media exist which can serve as valuable information sources useful both in the educational process and also in the context of mediating specialized knowledge in foreign languages. The specificities resulting from the variety of media in the context of the educational process have been addressed by Štefaňáková a Molnárová (2015).

The integration of a variety of different sources into the process of creation of specialized educational materials in a foreign language increases the complexity of the approach, potentially also increasing their quality. Here, the focus is on the **specialization** (its level is determined by the knowledge input regardless of the language of mediation), **specialized language** (i. e. the specificities of mediating specialized knowledge through a language), and last but not least, the **foreign language** (and its specificities).

The content of the educational materials should not only synthesize the above mentioned sources, but also take into consideration the parameters of the **target group**. The following can be concluded: Practically, it is required that during their university studies, students acquire specialized knowledge in a foreign language. Therefore, targeted parallel support of both specialized and foreign language competences seems necessary. In the context of established study fields in the current university environment, this goal is relevant for two target groups: students of other than philological study programmes focusing mainly on achieving specialized qualifications in a field other than linguistics, and students of philology and translation studies. However, this diversification is accompanied by the need to distinguish between the groups and take into consideration their specifications.

6. Didactic principles and methods in the process of creation of educational materials

The process of creation of educational materials focused on the intentional parallel support of specialized and foreign language competences should not be intuitive or random -- it should follow specific principles and take into consideration proper methods based on practical application of theory. Specialized literature provides a selection of multiple principles and methods that have proved suitable for knowledge mediation over time. They have been discussed in detail elsewhere (compare e. g. Tuhárska (2014a, 337ff.), Tuhárska (2014b, 198ff.), Tuhárska 2016a, 100ff.), therefore they will be only briefly summarized in the following Table 1 and subsequently characterized.

Table 1. Creation of educational materials: principles and methods

Principles	***Methods and factors***
1. Firm knowledge base	Harmony between content of specialized courses and foreign language course
2. Interconnection of specialized and foreign language competences	Emphasizing selected contents and (language) skills
3. Unity and diversity	Homogenous (unified) structure of educational materials as a whole vs. variation in the typology of exercises
4. Adequacy: foreign language competence of students and methodical approach	Motivation factor vs. difficulty level of educational material in a foreign language
5. Reinforcing acquired knowledge through tasks and exercises	Interactiveness of educational materials
6. From simple to complex	Receptive -- reproductive -- productive (creative) tasks and exercises
7. From known to unknown	Identical, similar, known -- different, new
8. The principle of balance	Language difficulty level -- level of specialization

The principle of a **firm knowledge base** draws from the idea that the goal of mediation of (not only) specialized information in any language is for the information to be understood, therefore the specialization forms the base, and the transformation of the information into the foreign language is considered its extension. Because of the primacy of the basic (specialized) competence, the taught specialized content needs to be harmonized with the foreign language courses. The principle implies the importance of the **interconnection between the specialized and foreign language competences** in terms of specific topics that are to be presented and developed in foreign language courses. The specialized knowledge component presented in the foreign language needs to be reduced in comparison to the total amount of specialized knowledge acquired during the studies in one's native language due to the disproportionate number of specialized and language courses in ordinary study programmes. **Unity and diversity** reflect in the unified overall structure of educational materials and the variety of their contents, tasks and exercises aiming to eliminate recurring and thus stereotypical (boring) contents. The **current foreign language skill of the target group** is also very important -- specialized contents must be mediated at an adequate difficulty level; underestimating the language skills of the learners tends to have a demotivating effect. By **incorporating an interactive component** into the educational materials, active acquisition of knowledge and skills is facilitated providing the learners with an opportunity to continuously train and reinforce the competences. The "**from simple to complex**" principle (compare Comenius 2007) is applied in the form of tasks and exercises with gradating difficulty from receptive through reproductive to productive and creative. The "**from unknown to known**" principle (compare Comenius 2007) is also well established; it is based on the transfer of acquired knowledge into new topics, e. g. the transfer of lexemes (their formatives) known from the common language into the area of specialized language -- through metaphorization they gain new meanings. The **principle of balance** is very important. Specialized texts employ rather complex means of expression which can result in decreased comprehension. Through didactization, better comprehensibility of texts can be achieved, but on the other hand, the precision of the mediated information can be decreased (compare Scheme 1). Therefore, well-balanced educational material presenting specialized knowledge in a foreign language is of key importance, i. e. the right correlation between the levels of specialization and comprehensibility that are effective for the given target group.

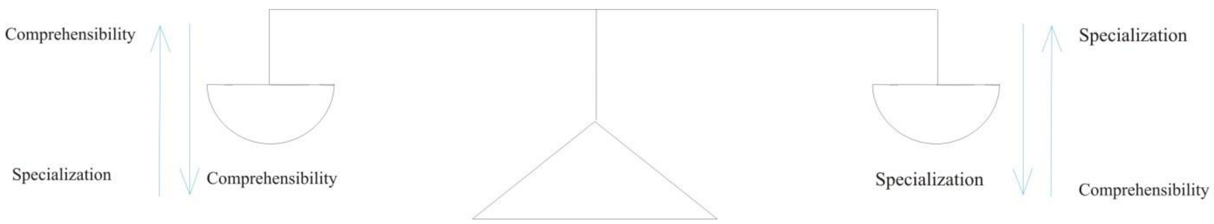

Fig. 1. Scheme 1

7. Publications addressing the above described context

Within the implementation of the *KEGA 018TU Z-4/2014 Implementation of educational methods for enhancement of the education in field of Technical mechanics* project, the aim was to apply the theoretical background presented in the previous part of this article in practice and create educational materials that complied with these principles (project outcome). In the course of the project, two publications were made. In 2015, an university course book named *Pružnosť a pevnosť v slovenčine a nemčine (Firmness and Flexibility in Slovak and German)* by Tuhárska – Minárik and in 2016, *Vybrané termíny z mechaniky telies v slovenčine a nemčine (Selected Terminology from Object Mechanics in Slovak and German)* were published.

The *Pružnosť a pevnosť v slovenčine a nemčine university course book* *is targeted not only at students of technical universities who are learning German, but also at students of translation studies who are studying German.* The goal of the educational materials is the intentional parallel support of both specialized and foreign language competences for the target group. The structure of the university course book closely follows the guidelines set out in theory. The content reflects the diversity of sources explained in this article. The texts were selected with the goal of acquainting the reader with the basic laws of firmness and flexibility as an area of specialization. The publication was created mainly in order to support the specialized competence with the language competence, i. e. to provide specialized texts dealing with the topic in both German and Slovak. This way, the student can acquire specialized knowledge in their mother language and also learn how these specifics are formulated in German at the same time. It is also important to develop the receptive and productive skills needed for communication in the given field of specialization (i. e. close reading, training strategies in written and, to some extent, also oral communication). The course book consists of eleven chapters with a unified structure that allows for quick orientation and easy manipulation with the texts. Each chapter consists of an introduction in both Slovak and German that defines the basic starting points and goals for the topic. Subsequently, the Slovak specialized part follows, i. e. texts mediating specialized knowledge. They are complemented and illustrated by solved examples and exercises that are to be solved. The students can use the summary and questions located at the end of the Slovak part of the chapter in order to check their progress. Thorough acquisition of specialized knowledge in Slovak is a precondition for their reproduction in the other (in this case, German) language. The Slovak part is followed by the German text that presents information on the same topic. The student can therefore compare the way the same specialized information is expressed in German and learn the vocabulary related to the given field of specialization. Language competence is further developed by tasks focusing on terminology and grammar. Through the specialized vocabulary from the individual chapters the students can exercise not only grammatical phenomena typical for specialized German texts (nominal style, attributes, subordinate sentences, etc.) and increase their language competence in terms of text production (e. g. describing charts, emphasizing language means) by using particular phrases offered in the chapters. The German text part ends with specialized vocabulary that summarizes the lexis in the given chapter that helps the reader with orientation in the text even if they use the course book individually. Here they can find a detailed overview of highly specified terminology that often cannot be found in specialized dictionaries. The final part of the university course book contains a key to the tasks in the text part thus providing feedback.

The **publication** *Vybrané termíny z mechaniky telies v slovenčine a nemčine* (*Selected Terminology From Object Mechanics in Slovak and German*) serves as a combined translation and explanatory dictionary that provides basic terminological and conceptual information from the field of object mechanics. It is an outcome of the above mentioned research project. The theoretical preconditions explained in the previous part of the article (e. g. heterogeneity of the information sources used reflected in the content of the course book, emphasizing reasonable interconnection between the specialized content and language competences at the appropriate level of difficulty, principle of balance) have been practically applied in order to prevent any unsystematic, intuitive process of creation of educational materials, thus providing a high quality project outcome. The publication contains a set of selected specialized terminology accompanied by brief definitions, typical properties, and internal division of the given term (if applicable). Foreign language competence is further supported by the section containing related terms and collocations that complement each term in its context. Information structured in this way is always presented in both Slovak and German languages. The mirror positioning of the respective texts also helps the reader get oriented. Here, an example of how a specialized term is provided in the publication can be found (*system of bodies*).

8. Conclusion

Effective mediating of specialized knowledge in a foreign language is nowadays considered a natural part of a contemporary university education, therefore it requires the availability of adequate educational materials. In the text form these are characterized by their specialized content and specific features related to the way such content is mediated using typical strategies. For the creation of quality materials, it is necessary to consider not only knowledge about text as a medium and specific features of the transfer of specialized information, but also to follow certain carefully selected and theoretically supported principles, thus avoiding random or intuitive approaches. In this article, one of the possible ways this task can be tackled was demonstrated based on the example of educational materials that were created in compliance with the relevant theoretical concepts, principles, and methods. Subsequently, the educational materials that were created using these principles and methods determined based on the theoretical background were presented as the outcome of the research project.

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