
Bibliography


Macedonian

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Introduction

Modern Macedonian (makedonski in Macedonian) is a South Slavic language (Slavic, Indo-European). It is not to be confused with Ancient Macedonian, an Indo-European language of uncertain (but not Slavic) affiliation, whose most famous speaker was Alexander the Great. Macedonian is closest to Bulgarian and Serbian.

Macedonian is descended from the dialects of Slavic speakers who settled in the Balkan peninsula during the 6th and 7th centuries C.E. The oldest attested Slavic language, Old Church Slavonic, was based on dialects spoken around Salonica, in what is today Greek Macedonia. As it came to be defined in the 19th century, geographic Macedonia is the region bounded by Mount Olympus, the Pindus range, Mounts Shar and Osogovo, the western Rhodopes, the lower course of the river Mesta (Greek Nestos), and the Aegean Sea. Many languages are spoken in this region, but it is the Slavic dialects to which the glossonym Macedonian is applied. The region was part of the Ottoman Empire from the late 15th century until 1912 and was partitioned among Greece, Serbia, and Bulgaria (with a western strip of villages going to Albania) by the Treaty of Bucharest in 1913. The modern Republic of Macedonia, in which Macedonian is the official language, corresponds roughly to the southern part of the territory ceded to Serbia plus the Strumica valley. The population is 2,022,547 (2002 census). Outside the Republic, Macedonian is spoken by ethnic minorities in Albania, Bulgaria, Greece, and Kosovo as well as by emigré communities elsewhere. Greece does not recognize the existence of its ethnic minorities, Bulgaria insists that all Macedonians are really Bulgarians, Albania refused to include questions about language and ethnicity in its last census (2001), and there has not been an uncontested statistical exercise in Kosovo since 1981, so official figures on Macedonian speakers outside the republic are unavailable; estimates range to 700,000.

History

Modern Macedonian literary activity began in the early 19th century among intellectuals attempting to write their Slavic vernacular instead of Church Slavonic. Two centers of Balkan Slavic literacy arose, one in what is now northeastern Bulgaria, the other in what is now southwestern Macedonia. In the early 19th century, all these intellectuals called their language Bulgarian, but a struggle emerged between those who favored northeast Bulgarian dialects and those who favored western Macedonian dialects as the basis for what would become the standard language. Northeast Bulgarian became the basis of standard Bulgarian, and Macedonian intellectuals began to work for a separate Macedonian literary language. The earliest known published statement of a separate Macedonian linguistic identity was by
Gjorgji Pulevski 1875, but evidence of the beginnings of separatism can be dated to a letter from the teacher Nikola Filipov of Bansko to the Bulgarian philologist Najden Gerov in 1848 expressing dissatisfaction with the use of eastern Bulgarian in literature and textbooks (Friedman, 2000: 183) and attacks in the Bulgarian-language press of the 1850’s on works using Macedonian dialects (Friedman, 2000: 180).

The first coherent plan for a Macedonian standard language was published by Krste Misirkov in 1903. After World War I, Macedonian was treated as a dialect of Serbian in Serbia and of Bulgarian in Bulgaria and was ruthlessly suppressed in Greece. Writers began publishing Macedonian works in Serbian and Bulgarian periodicals, where such pieces were treated as dialect literature, but some linguists outside the Balkans treated Macedonian as a separate language. On August 2, 1944, Macedonian became the official language of what was then the People’s Republic of Macedonia. Bulgaria recognized both the Macedonian language and its own Macedonian minority from 1946 to 1948. From 1948 to the 1960s, some Bulgarian linguists continued to recognize Macedonian as a separate Slavic language. When Macedonia declared independence from Yugoslavia in 1991, Bulgaria immediately recognized the state, but not its nationality or the language. In February 1999, the Bulgarian government officially recognized the Macedonian standard language.

Dialects

Macedonian dialects are divided by a major bundle of isoglosses running from northwest to southeast along the River Vardar, swerving southwest at the confluence of the Vardar and the Crna and continuing down the Crna and into Greece southeast of Florina (Lerin in Macedonian), then bifurcating north of Kastoria (Kostur in Macedonian) so that the remaining Macedonian-speaking villages in Greece and Albania form a transitional zone. The western region is characterized by a relatively homogeneous central area and five groups of peripheral dialects centered on towns around the western periphery. The eastern zone has six dialect groups with no regional center. Standard Macedonian is based on the west-central dialects, with elements from other dialects.

Orthography and Phonology

Macedonian is written in the Cyrillic alphabet, following the principle of one letter per sound, as in Serbian Cyrillic. Macedonian has three distinctive letters – Ɀ, ⱽ, ⱴ – representing the voiceless and voiced dorsopalatal stops and the voiced dental affricate, respectively. Macedonian Cyrillic Ɀ is, according to the standard (Koneski, 1967: 115), used to represent clear /l/ before consonants, before back vowels, and word-finally, where it can contrast with velar /l/ e.g., Ɀɛла [bela] ‘white’ F versus ɓɛла [bela] ‘trouble’. The contrast is neutralized before front vowels, where only clear /l/ is prescribed. Some educated speakers pronounce Ɀ as palatal [ژ], influenced by the Serbian pronunciation of this letter and the fact that the same reflex occurs in the Skopje town dialect. Standard Macedonian has a five-vowel system (a, e, i, o, u), and most dialects outside the west-central area also have schwa, but of different origins in various regions. There is no letter to represent schwa in Macedonian Cyrillic; when it is necessary to do so, an apostrophe is prescribed. The western Macedonian dialects and the standard are characterized by fixed antepenultimate stress, e.g., вodenичар ‘miller’, вodenичари ‘millers’, вodenичарите ‘the millers’.

Morphology, Syntax, and Lexicon

Macedonian has masculine, feminine, and neuter genders. Aside from plurals and pronouns, the only remnants of Slavic substantival inflection in Macedonian are the masculine and feminine vocative, which are becoming obsolete; oblique forms for masculine proper names and a few kinship terms and other masculine animates, all facultative; and a quantitative plural for inanimate nouns, which is used only sporadically, except in a few common expressions. Macedonian has a three-way opposition in the postposed definite article – т ‘neutral’, в ‘proximal’, н ‘distal’ – although these meanings can be based on speaker attitude as well as physical distance. The example in (1) is illustrative.

(1) raki-vće-to ke mu go
brandy-DIM-FUT him.DAT it-ACC
DEE.NEUT

dade-s na prijatel-ov od
give-2.sing.PRES to friend-DEF from
MasX

The article attaches to the end of the first nominal in the noun phrase, i.e., not adverbs:

(2) ne mnogu po-star-i-te deca
not much COMP-old-children
PL-DEF.PL
‘the children that are not much older’
edna od mnogu-te na-i zadač-i
one from many-DEF.PL our.PL problems-PL
‘one of our many problems’
The Macedonian verb has both aorist/imperfect and perfective/imperfective aspectual oppositions, but imperfective aorists are now obsolete. Perfective presents and imperfects occur only after one of eight modal particles, although perfective presents can also be used in negative questions. Macedonian also developed a new perfect series using the auxiliary ima ‘have’ and an invariant neuter verbal adjective. The synthetic pasts are marked for speaker confirmation, while the descendent of the Common Slavic perfect, using the old resultative participle in -l (no longer a true participle, since it cannot be used attributively), is not marked for speaker confirmation and is therefore used when the speaker cannot or will not vouch for the truth of the statement, e.g., because it was reported: Toj beše vo Moskva ‘He was in Moscow’ (I saw him or accept the fact as established). Toj bil vo Moskva ‘He was in Moscow’ (I heard it but was not there myself, do not vouch for it, or do not believe it [nuance depending on context]). The verbal l-form is also used in the inherited Slavic pluperfect (with the auxiliary ‘be’ in the imperfect) and the inherited conditional (after invariant modal particle bi). The new pluperfect is formed with the imperfect of ‘have’ and the neuter verbal adjective. The new conditional uses the invariant future marker ke plus the imperfect (perfective or imperfective) of the main verb. The bi-conditional tends to be used for hypothetical apodoses and the ke conditional for irrealis.

The following are distinctively Macedonian lexical items: saka ‘want, like, love’, bara ‘seek’, zborowa ‘speak’, zbor ‘word’, deka ‘that (relativizer)’, vaka ‘in this manner’, olku ‘this many’.

See also: Balkans as a Linguistic Area; Balto-Slavic Languages; Bulgarian; Church Slavonic; Clitics; Demonstratives; Dialect Chains; Diminutives and Augmentatives; Evidentiality in Grammar; Future Tense and Future Time Reference; Identity and Language; Language Change and Language Contact; Macedonia: Language Situation; Mood and Modality in Grammar; Old Church Slavonic; Perfectives, Imperfectives, and Progressives; Perfects, Resultatives, and Experientials; Standardization; Tense, Mood, Aspect: Overview; Tense; Word Stress.

Bibliography


Machine Readable Corpora

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Introduction

This article surveys the state of the art in corpus-aided translation research, teaching, and practice. The 1990s saw a surge of interest in these areas as corpora became more easily accessible, corpus linguistics established itself as a central approach to the study of language, and translation/interpreting gained prominence as core subjects in academic curricula and learned discussions.

The focus of this article is specifically on translation, and it distinguishes between descriptive (including theoretical) aspects (Descriptive Translation Studies, or DTS for short) and applied (didactic and professional) aspects (Applied Translation Studies, or ATS for short). In so doing, we follow, albeit very superficially, Holmes’s (1988) general taxonomy of translation studies.