

MORE ON INTRALINGUAL "FALSE COGNATES"

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„Prietenii perfizi” există în procesul traducerii, comunicării intralinguale și interlinguale în plan gramatical, lexical, lexical-gramatical, metasemiotic, intersemiotic, fonologic segmental, suprasegmental și suprasintactic, în cazul sinonimiei, omonimiei, paronimiei contextuale și stilistice. Structurile semantice ale lexemelor existente sunt în permanentă evoluție, servind drept sursă de dificultăți în comunicare. Majoritatea lexemelor posedă sute de seme folosite în diferite stiluri funcționale.

“False friends” or “false cognates” are analyzed in interlingual translations. The “deceptive cognates” present considerable difficulties in both intra-lingual and inter-lingual communication. “False cognates” are attested in case of homonymy, paronymy, acronymisation, metaphorical usage of words and phraseological units, polysemy, the permanent change of semantic structures, modification of graphical and sound forms in various functional styles; realization of different, even homonymous meanings on the level of suprasegmental and suprasyntactic phonology. There are many intralingual lexical and grammatical “false cognates” in the variants and dialects. The semantic structures of most lexemes in the period of globalization develop various senses in the colloquial and literary communication language, and specific terminological meanings in science and technology, politics, economy etc.

In a previous article we have mentioned the importance of suprasegmental phonology even in various syntactic structures. Using various phonological patterns we can realize various meanings including homonymous ones [2, p.21-26]. As to morphological grammatical “false cognates” we would like to give a more complete picture of the existing complex semantic relations in the field. Confronting the category of mood we think that the existing systems could be reinterpreted. Thus, the Romanian *condiționalul* and *optativul* are homonymous forms, though in grammar books they are given as one categorial form: *condiționalul* or *condițional-optativul*. Their categorial meanings can be expressed in Romanian by several grammatical forms, which are polyfunctional and formally belong to different moods. The sentence *If I had had time I would have come to help you yesterday* corresponds to - *Dacă aveam timp, veneam să te ajut ieri*; (*imperfectul modal* in both cases); *Dacă aș fi avut timp, aș fi venit să te ajut ieri*; (*optativ, condițional*); *Să fi avut timp, aș fi venit (veneam) să te ajut ieri* (*conjunctivul* in the secondary clause). The next case is *conjunctivul*, the criterion in singling it out as a separate mood serves the verbal form with the particle "să". The research demonstrates that this grammatical form is polyfunctional and can be used in various mood meanings: 1) Subjunctive I (or Old Subjunctive): *Long live democracy! Să trăiască democrația! I insist that he come. Eu insist ca el să vină*". *It is necessary that he be (come) here in time. E necesar ca el să vină aici la timp.* 2) Subjunctive II: *If I were you. Să fu în locul dumatiale... If I had had time yesterday... Să fi avut timp ieri...* 3) It substitutes the infinitive in Romanian – *They promised to help him. Ei au promis să-l ajute. To believe me capable of something like that! Să mă creadă capabil de așa ceva!* 4) It is used in combinations like: *Let's sit and talk. Sa ședem și să vorbim.* 5) After modal verbs: *Even a child could understand. Și un copil putea să înțeleagă.* 6) Future tense: *What shall I do? Ce să fac? He will come in time. El are să vină la timp (colloquial);* 7) To express supposition, including the meanings of suppositional mood (supposition, necessity, order, command, and insistence): *Might he have been here? Să fi fost el aici? Could I have lost it on my way home? Să-l fi pierdut în drum spre casă? I insist (order) that he should be present. Eu insist (ordon) ca el să fie prezent. It is necessary that he should be here. E necesar ca el să fie aici* [4, p.11-15]. Another example of polyfunctional polysemy and homonymy is the lexeme **should**. 1. Should+infinitive in the secondary clause of the type (*it is recommended (suggested, etc.) that...*, in object clauses after modally charged verbs like *to recommend, to suggest, to demand*; in subject clauses, etc. *Should* in this case is used in the suppositional mood (which is synonymous to subjunctive I in the second meaning): *The best thing the commission can do is to recommend that the Geneva conference should begin again with renewed energy.* 2. The conditional clause with *should* + infinitive: *Should the U.N. fail to produce an early settlement, are we then to wash our hands of the whole matter?* 3. Future in the past, 1st person: *I promised that I should*

come home in time. 4. The modal should in various meanings. Obligation: *He said that she should be there.* Emotional emphatic function; attitude towards the event, etc.: *It is strange that he should be there* [3, p.68-74]. There is a metalinguistic confusion in case of the terms *perfect* and *perfective*, which are treated differently by various linguists and this leads to confusion. The original meaning of the Latin term *perfect* was a finished action and formed an aspectual opposition with imperfect forms. Gradually the term *perfect* acquired an additional homonymous meaning of anteriority. A perfect form in English, depending on the context, and may express either a finished or an unfinished action. In Romanian *perfect* in the grammatical form of *perfectul simplu* expresses a finished action in the past. But *mai mult ca perfectul* and *viitorul anterior* clearly express anteriority! As far as *present perfect* it expresses an anterior action connected with the present moment: 1) directly connected but excluding the moment of speech: *I have lived in London for 10 years; Am locuit în Londra de zece ani;* 2) including the moment of speech: *Locuiesc în Londra de zece ani.* Present perfect inclusive is rendered into Romanian and Russian by means of present tense! 3) expresses an action in the past, included in a period of time connected with the present moment: (*I have visited London this year; Am vizitat Londra anul acesta; I have seen him this week; L-am văzut săptămâna aceasta*), *I have seen this film* (in my life experience). Thus, if there is no time marker we use the context: (*I have visited the USA three times; Am vizitat SUA de trei ori*) – in the meaning of up till now or in my life. If I want to tell you exactly when it happened I could say: *I visited the USA in 1979, 1989 and 1994; Am vizitat SUA în 1979, 1989 și 1994.* In this case in English we use past indefinite and in Romanian *perfectul compus*, expressing a simple past action! 4) Present perfect is used to express future anteriority in clauses of time and condition (*As soon as I have read the book I shall return it to you. And if I have read it by five o'clock, I'll give it to you today.* *Cum numai voi ajunge acasă voi începe să lucrez; As soon as I have got home I shall start working*). In this case the Romanian *perfectul compus* is used to express future anteriority and is limited to occasional colloquial usage. Thus, *perfectul compus* in Romanian is ambivalent and depending on the context it can express either an anterior action to the present moment or a simple past action! [3, p.133-142]. As to the usage of *past perfect* forms we come across grammatical homonymy as well. In the indicative, they are used to express an anterior action to a moment or action in the past: *When I came home he had already left.* In clauses of time and condition it expresses a future anterior action: *He said that he would return the book as soon as he had read it.* The same form is used in subjunctive II to express anterior actions in the past and future actions in the past: 1. Anteriority in the past: *He said he would have come earlier if he had known; El a spus că ar fi venit (venea) mai devreme dacă ar fi avut (să fi avut, dacă avea) timp;* 2. Subjunctive II and conditional: *If she had come in time yesterday you would have seen her; Dacă ea ar fi venit (să fi venit, dacă venea) la timp ieri, ai fi văzut-o (o vedeai);* In this case in both languages there is no grammatical anteriority expressed! 3. Conditional and Subjunctive II, future anteriority in the past: *I knew he would say that he would have come if he had known; Eu știam că el va spune că ar fi venit (venea) dacă ar fi știut (să fi știut).* 4. Subjunctive II, anteriority to a moment or action in the future from the present moment: *She thinks he will say that he would have come if he had known; Ea crede că el va spune că ar fi venit (venea) dacă ar fi știut (să fi știut, dacă știa)* [4, p.68-74]. The expression of both anteriority and passive voice is usually found in terminative verbs, while in the durative ones only the passive meaning is clearly seen. Sometimes this division is not clear-cut. In case of repeated actions of terminative verbs *perfectivity* may weaken or get lost and a durative meaning is taking over. The categorial function of a *past participle* depends on the context and on its semantic feature. There are many combinations of “to be” with the past participle presenting cases of homonymy. Combinations of the verb “to be + past participle” like in *The letter is written by Peter. Soon he will finish writing it,* (as a process) should be distinguished from *The letter is written* as a state, where “is written” is not a passive construction, but it defines the state of the letter, that it is written. There is no *perfectivity* in the latter case. Participle I and Gerund also present a case of homonymy.

Lexical “false cognates”. The factors accounting for semantic change may be subdivided into: extralinguistic and linguistic causes: generalization, specialization, melioration, pejoration, metaphorical usage, etc. Even a word of sound imitation origin like *crack* has developed a complex semantic structure with a rich variety of semes, synonymous to *breach, chink, cleft, crevice, fissure, fracture, flaw, deficiency, failing, unsoundness, fun, amusement, mischief, first-rate, first-class, pre-eminent, superexcellent, break, crush, solve, empty, drink, discuss; boast, brag, pop, plop, break-in, hit, make a sound, stop smb, open bottle, stop smb/smith, a joke, drug, sound, conversation, etc.* which present difficulties both to foreign and native

learners of English. Several hundred words and combinations, including idiomatic ones, with *crack* or its derived forms, exist in the language, including many technical terms: *to get cracking*, *crack down*, *crack on*, *the crack of dawn*, *cracker*, *cracking*, *crackpot*, etc. In some cases the presence of the sound and form of a crack can still be attested: *There was heard so loud a crack, as if heaven had split asunder. The ice cracked as I was walking across the river. After the earthquake there were many cracks in the walls and even on the roads He spoke in a voice cracking with emotions* (the voice changes in depth, volume, tone, range, etc.). In some cases *crack* is used metaphorically: *the crack of dawn*, *the crack of day*, etc. For example: *The cracks (faults) in the government's economic policy are already beginning to show. They had questioned him for a long time before he cracked* (tell some secrets, information). *They worked hard at the project and managed to crack all the problems* (find solution). *They managed to crack all the codes* (decodify). *Scientist managed to create a vaccine in order to crack the bird flu* (to stop the pandemic). *At the birthday party they cracked a bottle of wine and they also cracked some jokes* (open the bottle, drink the wine and tell jokes). *She hopes to have another crack at the world record this year* (attempt). *He's a person who enjoys a drink and a bit of crack* (conversation). More than 130 technical terminological units with *crack* are used mainly in the meaning of *splitting, breaking, narrow space opening, breach, chink, cleft, crevice, fissure, fracture*. *Crack* may be used in the meaning of: *flaw, deficiency, failing, unsoundness, cracking voice, attempt; drug, cocaine, booster, liar, braggart, firecracker, crusher, nutcracker, narrow space or opening, a sudden loud noise, a sharp blow that can be heard, expert and highly trained; accurate and excellent at smth*, etc. [1] *Crack* is used in phraseological units both in informal and formal speech: *get cracking* (informal speech) - to begin immediately and work quickly; *to be cracked up* - to be not as good as people say; *crack down* (on sb/sth) - to try harder to prevent an illegal activity; *crack on* (with smth) to work hard at smth to finish, pass or continue quickly; *crack up* - to become ill, either physically or mentally, because of pressure; to start laughing a lot; *crack smb up* - to make smb laugh a lot (crack troops, to be a crack shot). Compound words like *crackajack* (syn. remarkable, outstanding) are used in colloquial speech in a meaning quite distant from the central one. Conversion is also actively used: *Crackdown* (actions to restrict smbs activities) may be used as a verb to *crackdown* (to take measures to restrict smb's activities) [1].

Phraseological units are also a source of “false cognates”. 1. Homonymy of phraseological units and free word combinations: *give up* – as in *Give up smoking to live longer and healthier!* Compared with *To give books up to put them on the shelves*. 2. Homonymy of phraseological units: *Make up* – homonymy and polysemy: *You must make up* (compensate) *the time that you have wasted this afternoon, by working late tonight; These three articles make up* (compile, assemble) *the whole book. Her make up is unusual. Make up a story of your own. Let us make it up* (să ne împăcăm.), *This shop will make up a customer's own material. We need someone with experience of making up* (a formata pentru tipar) *a page. Can you make up these papers into parcels of about twenty each? The chemist is still making up* (carries out) *the doctor's order, and says it will be ready in half an hour*. See also: *make up* – a se linguși [1]. Analyzing the process of deformation of phraseological units we observe that the changed variants are quite different from the original variant. Phraseological units, including proverbs and sayings, are now actively changed in various functional styles for metasemiotic purposes. They are intentionally changed to produce a stylistic humorous impact on the reader, listener or TV viewer: *A bird in hand is worth two in the bush* – *Time was passing his bird in the bush no nearer the hand* [J. Galsworthy] – *He was to be approached with a sizable bird in hand* [Dreiser]. Each variant requires its context and specific interpretation. The equivalents of this expression is attested in other languages with occasional stylistic deformations: Romanian – *Nu da pasărea din mână pe cea de pe gard*; Russian – *Лучше синица в руке, чем журавль на небе*. English – *A bird in hand is worth*

two in the bush is changed in *Time was passing, his bird in the bush no nearer the hand*. Or: *He was to be approached with a sizable bird in hand*. An example of advertising beer on Russian TV in order to attract alcoholic drinkers' attention would use: *Лучше бутылка пива в руке, чем прекрасная девица на песке*. Romanian TV: *Pară mălăiață în cavitatea bucală a consumatorului* (deformation of: *Pară mălăiață în gura lui Nătăfleață*). Some other examples: *To be born with a silver spoon in one's mouth* (*They had sucked their silver spoon so long... now she is threatened with a spoon of bone*). *One may as well be hanged for a sheep as for a lamb* (*If he was to be hung by the law, by all means let it be for a sheep*) [J.Galsworthy]. *It is the last straw that breaks the camel's back*. (*He said public patience was a camel, on whose back the last atom that could be borne had already been laid. To cry over the spilt milk... (Try to make him feel that we admire him*

for spilling the milk... There is no help for spilt milk) [Trollope]. Idioms belong to the periphery of the language and the process of change of form and meaning is used to make speech more expressive and produce a stronger impact on the reader, listener or, especially, consumers, who are expected to be influenced and increase the profit of companies [6, p.62-63].

We can conclude that “false cognates” are expected to occur in interlingual translations. In fact we come across this phenomenon in both intralingual and interlingual communication on different levels: grammatical, lexical, lexical-grammatical, lexical-phonological, on semiotic, intersemiotic and metaseiotic planes, including cases of synonymy, homonymy, paronymy, etc. The following sociolinguistic factors should be taken into consideration in the research: the level of knowledge of the native language in case of intralingual interpretation; the level of knowledge of the foreign language speaker in case of interlanguage interpretation. Deceptive cognates can appear due to the development of polysemy, semantic change, modification of forms, graphical and sound forms in various functional styles.

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