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TITLES ASSOCIATED WITH POWER IN A CORPUS OF FICTIONAL PROSE IN ITALIAN (XIX-XXI CENTURY)

Abstract: This study investigates whether and how titles related to military ranks, religious roles, and nobiliary titles, representing power and privileges, have changed and distributed throughout the last two centuries in literary works in Italian. Furthermore, the study focusses on possible differences between prose originally written in Italian and translations. The initial hypotheses are that, with social changes, the idea of power evolved as well, thus 'traditional' power titles diminished over time, and that historical events caused differences in the representation of power in Italian and foreign literature. The study is based on a corpus of fictional prose written by Italian authors and translated into Italian from other languages between 1800 and 2005 (~8,000,000 words). The extraction is conducted using automatic methods: a list of words related to figures of power is created using WikiData, then items are found and counted in the corpus using ad hoc scripts. Although limits imposed by genres and topics in such a specific lexical extraction, which makes data too scarce to be statistically significant, observing trends partially confirms the initial hypotheses, as a generally descending tendency and small differences between the two sections of the corpus can be detected.

Key words: corpus analysis; automatic extraction of textual data; military ranks; religious ranks; nobiliary titles; prose; Italian; translations; diachronic analysis

1. Introduction

Power is often tied to specific words that are granted for varied reasons, as honor, merit, or hereditariness. They determine possessions, define hierarchies, allocate powers, give privileges and duties, and grant special statuses. Among these, there are military ranks, religious roles, and nobiliary titles, sometimes overlapping one another, which have determined the delimitation of social classes and marked the course of history. They have also shaped literary landscapes, being the protagonists of prose, plays, and legends since ancient times, often opposing the working classes and embodying historical changes. They can even be associated with specific literary genres, as war or crime novels for the armed forces;[1] fairy tales and epic fantasy for nobility; and religious allegorical fiction for religious figures.

[1] The representation of the military has also been used for propagandic reasons during critical historical periods, cf. Hooker 1996.

The relationship between history and literature is a well-established topic,[2] often debated as their connection is not direct, since historical facts "are matched and reshaped by literary form-giving", as Franco Moretti observes in his essay emblematically titled *The Bourgeoise between History and Literature* (2013: 13-14), which is also a good example of a study regarding the link connecting history, literature, and power. Their correlation has also been widely explored by scholars internationally and from different points of view. Among numerous studies, by way of example only, Posner (1989) focusses on the role of nobility in Renaissance and seventeenth-century literature and society while Saccone (1991) analyzes it in Tomasi di Lampedusa's works; Pleij (2002) observes how the representation of high and low classes changed in medieval times in Dutch literature; Librandi (2009) considers the link between language and the Catholic Church in Italy.

This study investigates whether and how titles related to military ranks, religious roles, and nobiliary titles changed and distributed throughout the last two centuries in literary works in Italian. The study is based on a corpus of fictional prose written by Italian authors and translated from other languages between 1800 and 2005 (~8,000,000 words). This two-hundred-year period is interesting because historical events determined profound changes that revolutionized society: does the representation of power and powerful figures reflect that change? A preliminary hypothesis is that figures of power that are being considered have been decreasing time, as society has evolved and has been relying on new representatives of power, such as politicians, tycoons, actors, influencers, etc. The second hypothesis is that the representation of power differs in native Italian prose and in translated works. This idea is assessed by comparing them to understand whether and how history shaped power inside and outside of Italy.

To reach the aim of this study, quantitative methods are used. First, titles related to military, religious, and nobiliary power are scraped by using automatic methods and tools. The corpus is later parsed to get a list of lemmas for the lexical extraction; then, trends in the use of power-related words in different time periods and original/translated works are explored and commented: each category is observed to analyze trends and identify changes.

A caveat must be kept in mind for this study, since its lexical analysis is very specific, occurrences of items may be few, and the distribution of genres is a considerable influence on the results. Indeed, as mentioned, religious, nobiliary, or military ranks often appear in specific genres, that may be more or less present in the corpus. Another factor are topics and settings. For instance, if the corpus had included *The Name of the Rose* by Umberto Eco, which is set in a monastery, religious ranks would have been more represented. However, data can at least give an insight on representation of power in literature.

[2] See Zanni Rosiello (2013) for an overview on the matter.

2. Tools and materials

For this study, quantitative methods are used on a corpus, which is the same used by Ondelli (2019),[3] that collects works of fictional prose, both literary and paraliterary, published in Italian between the XIX and the beginning of the XXI century, totalizing approximately 8,300,000 words distributed in 111 works. The corpus is the most complete available as it covers the whole time span taken into account and includes prose that can be ascribed to a diverse range of genres, which makes it a good starting point for this study. Furthermore, it contains two sections: one comprising texts by Italian authors and the other of similar size consisting foreign works translated into Italian.[4]

Moreover, each section is divided into four time periods: 1800-1899, 1900-1945, 1946-1975, and 1976-2005, that are determined by social and cultural factors that outline specific historical periods (cf. Ondelli, 2019: 100-101). The first period, the 19th century, is considered as one, to have enough material to analyze, given the difficulty to find texts of that century. Furthermore, Italy was still a socially and politically fragmented and poorly literate territory under the French linguistic and cultural dominance. The 1900s are divided into three phases: the period including the two world wars (1900-1945), when the French influences were gradually countered by fascist purism and wars radically changed the life of millions of people in Europe; the 1946-1975 period, which saw an economic boom, an improvement in literacy levels, and a better diffusion of the Italian language in Italy, followed by new linguistic debates; and the last period, also including the first five years of the 2000s (1976-2005), characterized by the progressive oralization of Italian in an increasing Anglicizing globalization context.

Details on the number of tokens in each part are illustrated in Table 1.

	1800-1899	1900-1945	1946-1975	1976-2005	Total
Italian	861,044	1,205,980	914,000	1,226,630	4,207,654
Translations	860,022	1,210,605	918,796	1,155,188	4,144,611
					8,352,265

Table 1: corpus composition

One of the problems that arose during this research work was the lack of an existing lexical list containing words representing religious, military, and nobiliary figures. To bridge this gap, an ad hoc list for the study was created. A first attempt was made by consulting online dictionaries and encyclopedias to try an automatic extraction of words relevant to this research, as they list and define countless lexemes; however, they proved to be of little use because of their lack of systematicity and

[3] I thank Stefano Ondelli for giving me permission to use the same corpus.

[4] Details on the composition and size of the corpus (translations and Italian works) can be found in Ondelli, 2019.

because they contain unstructured data. Indeed, although definitions of different lexemes may show some regularities, they are not consistent enough to automatically detect words describing figures of power: trying to create rules for automatic extraction would be extremely time-consuming, as would manually picking relevant entries.

Encyclopedias are also characterized by poor systematicity, and entries referring to power are scarcer than dictionaries. For example, by searching the Treccani encyclopedia, definitions for *arciduca* ('archduke'), *caporale* ('corporal'), or *cardinale* ('cardinal') can be found, but the same encyclopedia does not return results for *principessa* ('princess') or *caporalmaggiore* (a military rank corresponding to the English 'private'); in fact, it gives results concerning people in those roles rather than definitions of the same roles.

A solution to assemble a list for lexical extractions came from WikiData,[5] the database underlying the Wikimedia-related projects, including Wikipedia. WikiData has several valuable assets: in addition to being freely available through a public domain license, it contains structured data, i.e., organized by predefined fields, which facilitate automatically extracting information. Finally, WikiData is a multilingual database, and each entry is linked to its equivalent entries in all available translations. This may prove useful with a view to future research dealing with several languages.

The WikiData database contains sections concerning titles of power, which are used to categorize entries referring to people in Wikipedia. namely, said categories are 'Ecclesiastical occupations'[6], 'Catholic religious occupation'[7], 'Christian religious occupation'[8], and 'Episcopal function'[9], combined to create a list of religious positions,[10] 'Military ranks"[11], and 'Noble ranks'[12]. The items contained in the three categories were automatically extracted and used to populate a table.

To extract the items of the list from the corpus, it was lemmatized using *UDPipe* (Straka, Hajič, & Straková, 2016), a software capable of performing lemmatization, part-of-speech tagging, and syntactic analysis. This process was carried out with a focus on part-of-speech tagging and lemmatization. The former is needed to recognize nouns, thus avoiding results due to other part of speech, e.g., the words *canonico* and *generale* can be used as a noun ('canon' and 'general') and as an adjective ('canonical' and 'general'). In this case, only the first meaning

[5] A similar task, concerning different categories, was carried out by Sciumbata, Nadalutti & Tringali (2021).

[6] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Q11773926 (last consulted 12/9/2022).

[7] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Q63188808 (last consulted 12/9/2022).

[8] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Q63188683 (last consulted 12/9/2022).

[9] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Q21114371 (last consulted 12/9/2022).

[10] Indeed, unlike the other two, those three categories were rather incomplete from the perspective of this study: each one lacked important titles. For instance, *papa* ('pope'), *cardinale* ('cardinal'), *suora* ('religious sister'), and *frate* ('friar') were missing from 'Ecclesiastical occupations', but they are relevant in this study, which focusses on religious figures in works written in a country with a Catholic majority.

[11] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Property:P410 (last consulted: 12/9/2022).

[12] https://www.wikidata.org/wiki/Q355567 (last consulted: 12/9/2022(.

was considered. Lemmatizing is useful to get a 'clean' list of lemmas on which to perform the lexical extractions of the WikiData items and limit the issue due to the morphological complexity of the Italian language.[13] Indeed, each WikiData entry is a lemma in its singular masculine form (e.g., *principe*, 'prince'): trying to find that in a 'raw' corpus (i.e. not lemmatized) would miss all the plural forms (e.g. *principi*, 'princes'). Feminine forms may be harder to spot as the lemmatizing process is not consistent: plural feminine words may be sometimes lemmatized as their singular feminine, others as their singular masculine form.[14] However, here the extraction of feminine nouns is less problematic than in other studies, as WikiData already lists the feminine singular form of positions normally held by women, as *principessa* ('princess'), *suora* (religious sister) and *monaca* (nun), *badessa* ('abbess'), or *duchessa* ('duchess'), while the other can be assumed to be traditionally held by men, especially in the case of the military and ecclesiastical fields. Nevertheless, future studies may focus on the identification of 'unexpected' feminine words connected to power, denoting changes in the role of women.

Ad hoc Python scripts[15] were finally used to identify the words extracted from WikiData in the corpus and count their occurrences in each period. Lastly, possible false positives were purged from the resulting tables, as they have several meanings in Italian. It is the case of *signore*, which, as the English 'sir', is used either as a formal way to address a man or as a noble title; however, it is more probable to find it with the former meaning. The same happens with *padre* ('father'), which may be an issue if considered a religious rank, and *maestro*, listed as a noble rank, but more commonly used to indicate a teacher, a master, or a musical conductor. *Giudice*, listed among noble ranks, is more common with the meaning of 'judge', while *cancelliere* ('chancellor') is problematic as it can indicate several official titles, including ecclesiastical and governmental ones.[16] Therefore, they were purged from the list as well.

3. Results and discussion

The extraction process retrieved 36 items from the religious ranks category, with 1,402 occurrences; 49 military ranks, with 5,327 occurrences; and 33 items from the noble ranks category, with 9,435 occurrences in the whole corpus, totaling 118 items and 16,266 occurrences, representing 0.1947% of tokens.

[13] Other issues may depend on other features of the corpus, e.g., orthographic rules. Cf. Cortelazzo 2021.

[14] Cf. the explanation in Sciumbata et al. 2021.

[15] The scripts are the same used by Sciumbata et al. (2021) and can be found at https://github.com/flometis/ExSTRA (last consulted 10/10/2021). I thank Luca Tringali for his invaluable help in designing and creating the scripts.

[16] Other examples are *delfino* ('dolphin' rather than 'heir apparent'); *infante* ('child' rather than 'prince'); *rana* ('frog' rather than an absolute Hindu monarch); *finanziere* (nowadays indicating a revenue police officer, but in the past used more often to indicate a financial expert); *assistente* and *aiutante* ('adjutant') as military ranks, as they can have less specific meanings ('assistant' and 'helper' respectively); *vicario* ('vicar').

A first overview on the trends that can be observed in the corpus can be obtained by examining Figure 1, representing the relative frequencies of titles associated with power in each time segment of the corpus in translations (T) and works by native Italian authors (I).

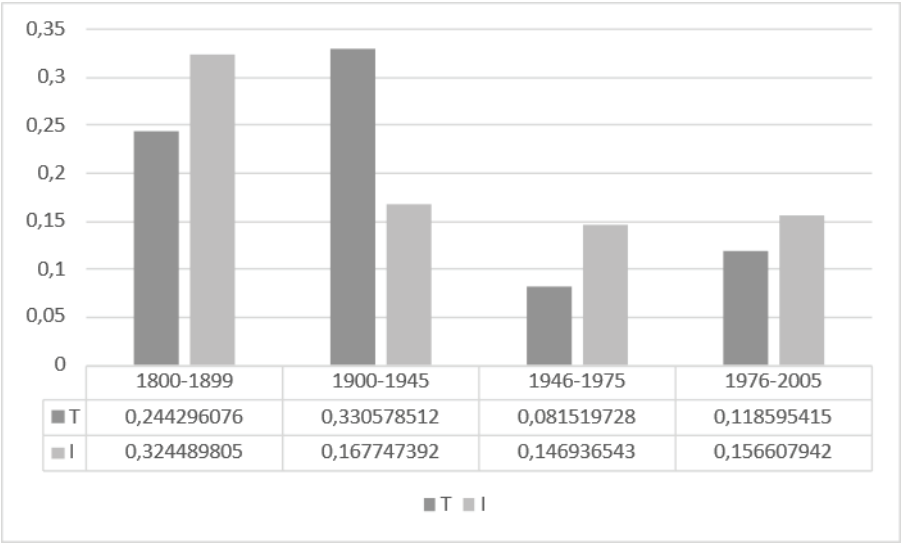

Figure 1: relative frequencies of titles associated with power for each period and divided by translated/Italian works

Note that, from now on, relative frequencies are very small, and figures generally show only tiny differences, that are not statistically significant, as suggested by p-values. The ANOVA[17] p-value of works by Italian authors in the four periods is 0.73, the one of translated works 0.86, thus suggesting that there is no statistical significance in the changes observed over time. When comparing the Italian and the translated sections, the t-test p-value totals 0.36. Results therefore indicate that data may be insufficient, possibly due to the specificity of the task and the corpus composition. Anyway, results are still worth looking at for an insight on figures of power and their trends.

In translations, titles associated with power fluctuate throughout time, peaking between 1900 and 1945, where they double compared to the previous period. The following one shows a steep decrease, whereas there is a slight increase in the last one. Prose by Italian writers shows a similar tendency, but with a peak in the first time segment, then noticeably decrease in the first half of the 20th century, a very small downward tendency in the following period and a minimal growth after. In Italian prose, powerful characters tend to appear more often than in translations in three out of four time segments, with the exception of the 1900-1945 one, where they appear more than twice as often, with a ratio mirroring that of the first period.

[17] Statistics are calculated using R.

In the following sections, each category will be discussed separately to understand its trends and differences between original and translated works.

3.1. Religious ranks

The first ten most frequent words related to religious ranks (Table 2) provide a first glimpse of the representation of religious power in the corpus.

Lemma	
suora (religious sister)	225
parroco (priest)	189
vescovo (bishop)	151
frate (friar)	105
papa (pope)	96
monaca (nun)	93
gesuita (jesuit)	80
curato (curate)	77
confessore (confessor)	58
canonico (canon)	57

Table 2: 10 most frequent religious ranks in the corpus

The most represented figures are religious sisters (*suora*), followed by priests (*parroco*): both represent the lowest ranks of the religious hierarchy. *Suora* appears in 23 texts of the corpus, with 75 occurrences in *Memorie di una ladra* written by Dacia Maraini in 1972. *Parroco* appears in 21 works, although 138 occurrences are concentrated in Tomizza's *La miglior vita* (1977), whose protagonist is a priest. In the top-10 list, there are two other words with similar meanings: *monaca* (in 28 works, appearing 20 times in Stendhal *The Abbess of Castro*), and *curato* (in 14 works, with 37 occurrences in Fogazzaro's *Piccolo mondo antico*). After all, even though religious power is usually in the hands of men, feminine religious characters appear quite often in the corpus.

To identify diachronic changes and observe differences between translated and Italian works, occurrences of religious ranks for each period and divided by translations and works originally written in Italian (I) can be observed in Table 5 (see the appendix), and their percentage on the number of tokens for each period is represented in Figure 2.

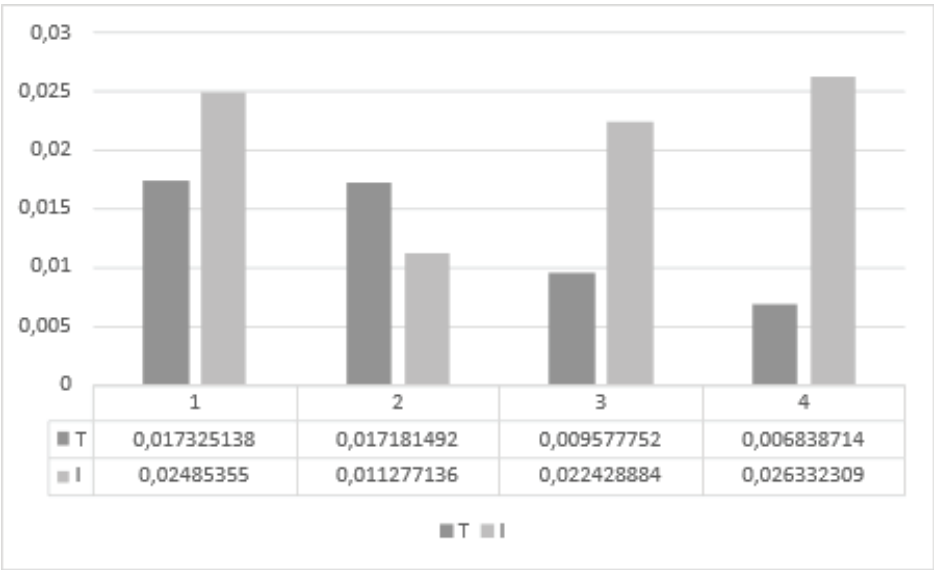

Figure 2: relative frequency of religious ranks for each period and divided by translated/Italian works

In the first two periods, translated works have the same number of religious titles, while in the following ones they tend to decrease. Italian writers, on the other hand, talk about religious ranks more often, with a decrease between 1900 and 1945, when religious titles are used more often in translations. In the following period, religious titles in Italian works grow considerably, peaking in most recent years.

Examining how religious ranks change through time, some ranks have been more or less steady (or at least they appear throughout the corpus), such as *suora, monaca, vescovo*, or *papa*. The last two show an increase in 1976-2005. Others have lost popularity, i.e., *canonico* and *curato,* often used in the 1800s in Italian and translated works, barely used in most recent years. Indeed, both have been losing popularity in the Italian language, as they are less common nowadays. *Frate* and *badessa* have very localized peaks, possibly due to the corpus composition and their frequency in individual texts.

3.2. Military ranks

As already shown, military ranks are the category with the most items found in the corpus. This is not coincidental, given that armies have very complex chains of command. Moreover, the corpus covers a period punctuated by numerous wars, including both world wars, which are told in many works. Furthermore, genre distribution is again a considerable influence, since several works composing the corpus can be labelled as war novels, while others belong to crime and mystery fiction.

Table 3 contains the 10 most frequent military ranks.

Lemma	Occurrences
soldato (soldier)	1210
capitano (captain)	871
generale (general)	868
ispettore (inspector/detective)	531
colonnello (colonel)	334
tenente (lieutenant)	252
sergente (sergeant)	218
maresciallo (marshal)	117
sottotenente (sub-lieutenant)	115

Table 3: 10 most frequent military ranks in the corpus

As for religious ones, the most frequent military rank is the lowest in the hierarchy, *soldato,* which appears in 69 texts. It is followed by several officers: *capitano* ranks second, appearing in 54 works, and *generale* in 68. Military ranks are therefore distributed more evenly compared to the religious ones, that tended to concentrate in fewer texts, as a result of the wars that have characterized the period under scrutiny.

By observing the distribution of *soldato* and other military ranks in the texts, it is easy to identify works in which war and the military world feature prominently, as in Malaparte's *La pelle* (1949) (where *soldato* appears 147 times), set in Naples in 1943, in which many characters are American soldiers. *Tempo di uccidere* (1947) by Ennio Flaiano (123 occurrences) tells the story of an Italian officer experiencing the Italian invasion of Ethiopia. Other works are historical novels set in ancient Roman times, as *Numa Pompilius* (originally published in 1794 and translated into Italian in the 1810s) by Jean-Pierre Claris de Florian, and *L'impero dei Draghi* (2005) by Valerio Massimo Manfredi.

The occurrences of military ranks for each period and for translated/Italian works are summarized in Table 6 (see the appendix) and represented in Figure 3.

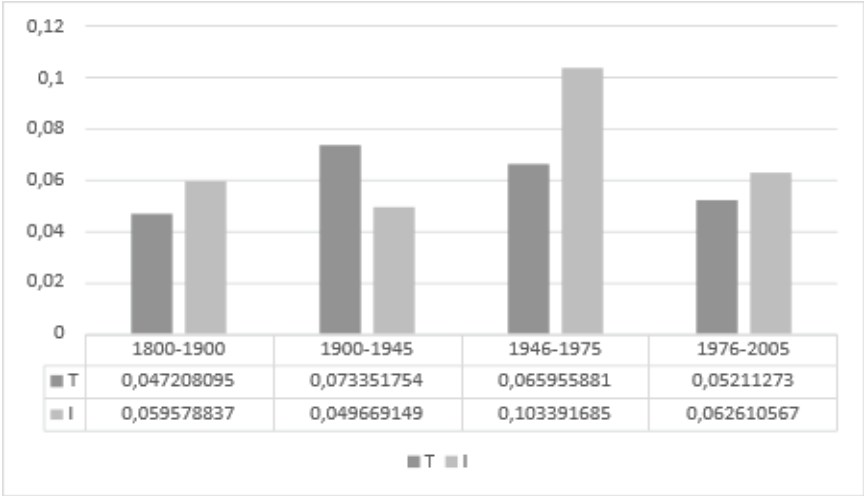

Figure 3: relative frequency of military ranks for each period and divided by translated/ Italian works

In translated works, military ranks concentrate between 1900 and 1945 and a decline in the second half of the corpus, while the pattern in Italian works is more consistent, stills showing a peak between 1946 and 1975, in the post-war era. As already observed for the whole corpus in general and religious ranks in particular, Italian writers tend again to mention figure of powers more often, except for the 1900-1945 segment.

S*oldato* appears consistently throughout the corpus, with its highest not coincidentally after World War II, where it almost triples compared to the previous segment in Italian works. A similar trend can be observed for *sergente*, *generale*, and *colonello,* with the last two growing in the latest period. *Marinaio* and *capitano* were instead more frequent in the first part of the corpus. An interesting case is *ispettore* (indicating both 'inspector' and 'detective', although not necessarily referring to a military rank): its frequency in translated works between 1946 and 1975 is linked to several novels belonging to the crime fiction, mystery, and thriller genres, such as *Blue City* by Millar (1950), *The King is Dead* by Ellary Queen (1951), two novels by Rex Stout featuring Nero Wolfe, a brilliant detective, etc.

3.3. Nobiliary titles

Nobles rank first in the number of occurrences and second for the number of items, being a very composite hierarchical system. The 10 most frequent words belonging to this group are listed in Table 4.

Lemma	Occurrences
principe (prince)	3177
re (king)	1066
cavaliere (knight)	928
marchese (marquess)	775
conte (count)	743
principessa (princess)	697
barone (baron)	558
duca (duke)	413
contessa (countess)	339
imperatore (empreror)	266

Table 4: 10 most frequent nobiliary titles in the corpus

While the most frequent military and religious ranks were the humblest, in the case of nobiliary titles the most mentioned ones are *principe* and *re*, the apex of the hierarchical pyramid in monarchies. 1977 occurrences of *principe* concentrate in *The Idiot* by Fyodor Dostoevsky, whose main character is a prince. *Re* is more frequent in Isabel Allende's *Kingdom of The Golden Dragon*. *Imperatore* ('emperor') also appears often in the corpus, 150 times in Manfredi's *L'impero dei Draghi*, suggesting again the relationship with topics and genres. Women are represented in two feminine titles that are among the most frequent noble titles in the corpus, both appearing very often in *Anna Karenina: contessa* 125 times and *principessa* 222.

The occurrences of noble ranks for each period and for translated/Italian works are summarized in Table 7 and represented in Figure 4.

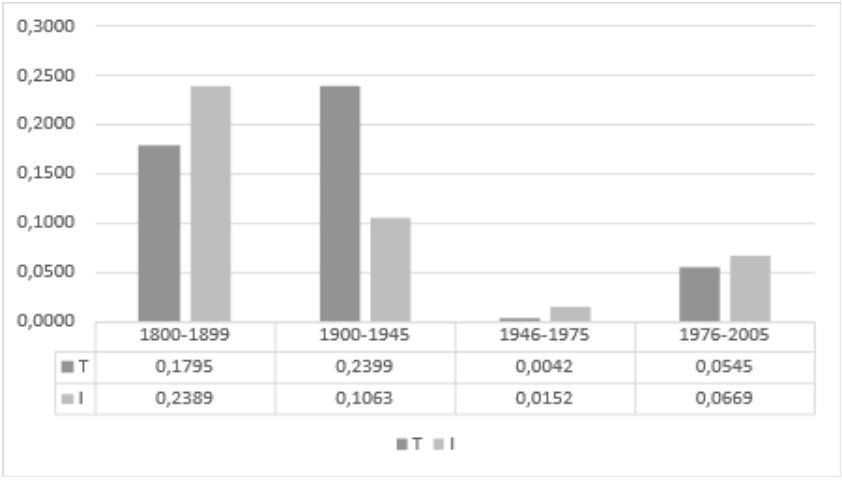

Figure 4: relative frequency of nobiliary titles for each period and divided by translated/Italian works

Both sections of the corpus show a similar trend, which is again mirrored in the first two periods. Indeed, noble titles in translations reach their highest point in the first 100 years, while the highest in Italian prose can be observed in the following period. However, both subcorpora see a considerable decrease in 1946-1975. This is not surprising in Italy, where nobility lost its status after 1946, with the end of the Italian monarchy. Finally, there is a grow in the last one, in which the percentage is nonetheless more than halved compared to 1900-1945. However, it is interesting to observe that nobles still form part of Italian literature to this day.

By analyzing how noble titles distribute in the sections of the corpus, it is possible to observe that some of them appear quite regularly, although with variations in the number of occurrences, as *principe* (with the exception of 1946-1975), *re*, and *regina*. Several titles show a high number of occurrences in specific periods, such as b*arone*, even more frequent than *principe* in Italian works of 1800-1899, *duca* reaching its highest in the same period, *principessa*, *contessa*, and *marchese* dramatically decreased in the following periods, suggesting again their loss of social relevance.

Lastly, although often limited to hapax legomena, thus appearing only once in the corpus or in each time segment, some titles are more tied to specific cultures, such as *boiardo, emiro, margravio, maharaja, sultano, visir, pascià,* and *atabeg*. Others are historical titles recalling more ancient times, as *faraone, imperatore romano*, and *satrapo*.

4. Conclusion and future research

Even with the limit imposed by genres and topics, the specificity of the lexical extraction carried out in this study, and the consequent small differences recorded, which proved to be not statistically significant, it is still possible to draw a picture of changes in the representation of religious, military, and noble ranks in a corpus of prose published between 1800 and 2005. Data can be used for an insight into social changes, history, and literature, and highlight differences in Italian works compared to foreign prose.

Overall, Italian prose and translations show some differences, although not statistically relevant. Furthermore, when putting all the three categories together, the initial hypothesis assuming that a decrease in power figures should be seen, is excluded by statistics and partially borne out when observing raw numbers. Indeed, it is true for Italian works, where there is a peak in the first period and a considerable difference between the first and the second one, followed by a gentle decline. However, a very small growth can be noted in recent years. Generally speaking, however, the tendency is declining when the first and the last period are compared, titles indicating power are more than halved, suggesting that the three power categories that are being considered may have lost their social role. This is also true for translations, showing a similar tendency: titles are quite high in the first period, peak in the second and decrease in the last two. However, most recent years show again a small increase compared to the previous one. Furthermore, in general, figures of power appear more often in Italian works than in translations, with an inverted ratio in 1900-1945.

When examining each category separately, unexpected tendencies are shown as well. For instance, religious titles surprisingly reach their highest point in 1976-2005 Italian works, disproving the initial hypothesis, while translations show a steady downward trend. Religious figures are therefore still popular in Italian literature, despite the weaker role of religion in the country. Regarding military ranks, translations and Italian prose show their highest in different moments, with the former between 1900 and 1945, corresponding to World War I and II, and the latter in the post-war era, between 1946 and 1975. Military ranks also show comparable levels in the first and last period. Finally, noble titles, the densest ones, fall in both translated and Italian works. After a considerable reduction in 1946-1975, they show again a grow in most recent years, although they do not go back to the levels recorded in the first two sections of the corpus, when nobility often implied having wealth, possessions, power, and social status.

Data, especially regarding military ranks and nobility and the differences between Italian and translated works, can be interpreted in the light of historical events that have marked the two centuries under analysis, including the course of the two world wars and the fortunes of the Italian monarchy (which ended in 1946), with the consequent decline of noble titles, that have lost their legal and social value.

Furthermore, interesting insights emerge from titles, how often they occur and how they change through the corpus. Concerning both military and religious ranks, the most frequent ones are the lowest in the hierarchical pyramid (soldiers, religious sisters, priests), that also represent the most numerous representatives of

each category, whereas the most frequent nobiliary titles in the corpus correspond to the apex of nobility (kings and princes). Moreover, specific titles are indicators of topics and genres, as mystery, crime or historical novels.

In conclusion, results can help identify some changes over time, that are not always predictable, and confirm that the representation of figures of power in Italian literature somewhat differs from the one coming from other countries. However, data are scarce and statistically insufficient, thus it is still hard to trace the history and relevance of changes for each word: more advanced statistical methods, possibly applied to a larger and more varied corpus, may prove useful in this regard to reconstruct a clear picture in the evolution of power figures (cf. Trevisani & Tuzzi 2013). Lastly, more light can be shed on the topic through a new comparison of 'traditional' and 'new' figures of power for a better insight of the new shape of social hierarchies.

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Appendix

	1800-1899		1900-1945		1946-1975		1976-2005	
	I	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**
abate (abbot)	3	20	12	3	1	2	7	
accolito (acolyte)			1			1		
arcivescovo (archbishop)	5	5	2	3			1	
badessa (abbess)	1			48	3		1	
canonico (canon)	19	26	8		1		3	
cappuccino (capuchin friar)	1	4	5		3	1	4	
cardinale (cardinal)	9	7	2	10	9	2	5	3
confessore (confessor)	25	7	7	5	9	3	1	1
consultore (consultor)				1				
curato (curate)	49	7	4	14	1		1	1
frate (friar)	11	9	17	3	11	52	1	1
frate carmelitano (carmelite friar)	1							
gesuita (jesuit)	2			9	7	5	55	2
inquisitore (inquisitor)		6	1	1			4	2
metropolita (metropolitan bishop)							1	
ministro di culto (minister of religion)				3	1			
monaca (nun)	21	9	9	22	17		2	13
monaco benedettino (benedictine monk)	3							
nunzio apostolico (apostolic nuncio)								1
padre provinciale (provincial superior)					1			
papa (pope)	7	8	2	15	7	17	36	4
parroco (parish priest)	13	10	6	5	11	2	140	2
patriarca (patriarch)	3	2	3	1			3	3
penitenziere (penitentiary)	1							
pievano (priest)		1						

prebendario (prebendary)		1						
prelato (prelate)	6	4	2	2	2			
priore (prior)		1					1	2
salesiano (salesian)							1	
seminarista (seminarist)			2	5	1		9	1
stilita (stylite)							1	
suora (religious sister)	29	5	37	18	108	1	8	19
terziario (tertiary)					1			
vescovo (bishop)	5	17	15	39	11	2	38	24
vicario generale (vicar general)			1	1				
grand total	**214**	**149**	**136**	**208**	**205**	**88**	**323**	**79**

Table 5: religious ranks by period and translated/Italian works

	1800-1899		**1900-1945**		**1946-1975**		**1976-2005**	
	I	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**
aiutante di campo (aide-de- camp)	1		1	10	5		2	5
alfiere (ensign)	1	2			5		1	1
allievo ufficiale (officer cadet)					1			
ammiraglio (admiral)			3				2	
appuntato (gefreiter)					2			
bombardiere (bombardier)					4	1	12	10
brigadiere (brigadier)	3	1	9		8		3	
capitano (captain)	178	103	256	107	59	52	70	46
capitano di fregata (frigate captain)			1					
capitano di mare (captain at sea)	1							
capitano di vascello (ship-of-the-line captain)	1							
caporale (corporal)	15	2	3	11	8			14
caposquadra (foreman)							1	3
caposquadrone (chef d'escadron)			1					
centurione (centurion)							39	
colonnello (coronel)	6	14	5	47	46	66	125	25

comandante di gruppo (group captain)								3
comandante generale (commandant-general)			1					
commodoro (commodore)								1
console (consul)	7	3	1			8	9	12
feldmaresciallo (field marshal)				2				14
generale (general)	33	55	13	459	59	27	138	84
generale di brigata (brigadier)		1						1
generale di divisione (divisional general)	1							1
grande ammiraglio (grand admiral)			1					
ispettore (inspector/ detective)	4	1		38	3	326	53	106
luogotenente (lieutenant)	24	31	27	13	13		4	
maestro di campo (mestre de camp)				1				
maggiore (major)	6	8	5	2	61	4	4	15
maresciallo (marshal)	4	5	1	49	37		18	3
marinaio (sailor)	83	21	85	9	27	15	44	9
nostromo (boatswain)	1							
optio (optio)							1	
primo tenente (senior lieutenant)							1	
recluta (recruit)	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	1
seniore (seniore)				1	2		3	
sergente (sergeant)	13	8	14	1	103	30	4	45
sergente capo (master sergeant)								1
sergente maggiore (senior master sergeant)				1	1			
soldato (soldier)	126	145	142	111	366	28	207	85
soldato scelto (private first class)							1	1

sottotenente (sub-lieutenant)		3		4	95		7	6
sottufficiale (non-commissioned officer)			1	2	2	1		
tenente (lieutenant)	4	1	25	14	37	47	14	110
tenente colonnello (lieutenant colonel)				2				
tribuno (tribune)			2	2			2	
tribuno militare (military tribune)							1	
viceammiraglio (vice admiral)		1						
grand total	**513**	**406**	**599**	**888**	**945**	**606**	**768**	**602**

Table 6: military ranks by period and translated/Italian works

	1800-1899		**1900-1945**		**1946-1975**		**1976-2005**	
	I	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**	**I**	**T**
arciduca (archduke)	1						1	
atabeg (atabeg)							1	
barone (baron)	443	44	32	6	13	1	13	6
boiardo (boyar)		1						
cavaliere (knight)	151	328	215	66	26	4	124	14
conte (count)	86	140	361	70	4	1	63	18
conte palatino (count palatine)							1	
contessa (countess)	68	86	22	133	6		20	4
duca (duke)	298	68	32		4		8	3
duchessa (duchess)	35	54	1		4	1	1	5
emiro (emir)					1		1	
faraone (pharaoh)					4		6	12
granduca (grand duke)		12		2	1			
hidalgo (hidalgo)	2		2		5			
imperatore (emperor)	22	10	8	28	9	3	180	6
imperatore romano (roman emperor)	1							1
maharaja (maharaja)						1		
marchese (marquess)	152	100	460	4			23	36
margravio (margrave)		1					1	
monarca (monarch)	1	4	1	9	1	3	3	25

pascià (pasha)		1						1
principe (prince)	433	151	68	2226	20	3	146	130
principe ereditario (crown prince)		1					1	5
principessa (princess)	283	76	14	288	14	1	10	11
principessa reale (princess royal)				2				
re (king)	53	369	36	54	55	14	166	319
regina (queen)	15	78	12	12	12	5	22	33
satrapo (satrap)	1							
sultano (sultan)	4	2					2	1
viceré (viceroy)	1	1	13		1			
visconte (viscount)	6	16		1			3	
visir (vizir)							15	
grand total	**2056**	**1543**	**1277**	**2901**	**180**	**37**	**811**	**630**

Table 7: nobiliary titles by period and translated/Italian works

Floriana Carlotta Sciumbata

ТИТУЛЕ ПОВЕЗАНЕ СА МОЋИ У КОРПУСУ ПРОЗНИХ КЊИЖЕВНИХ ДЕЛА НА ИТАЛИЈАНСКОМ ЈЕЗИКУ (XIX–XX ВЕК)

Ово истраживање разматра да ли су се и на који начин титуле које се односе на војне и црквене чинове, те племићке титуле, а које представљају речи традиционално повезане са моћи и привилегијама, промениле и дистрибуирале током последња два века у књижевним делима на италијанском језику. У раду се упоређују преводи и изворни текстови на италијанском. Уистину, моћ је често повезана са појединим титулама које се додељују из различитих разлога, као што су част, заслуга или наследност. Оне одређују право власништва, дефинишу хијерархије, распоређују моћ, додељују привилегије, као и дужности, и обезбеђују посебне статусе.

Полазне хипотезе су да се је, са друштвеним променама, идеја моћи такође развијала, па су стога и „традиционалне" титуле моћи изгубиле снагу током времена, као и да су историјски догађаји проузроковали разлике у представама моћи у италијанској и страној књижевности. Истраживање се ослања на корпус прозних дела написаних и преведених на друге језике између 1800. и 2005. године (~8.000.000 речи). Лексичка екстракција је вршена коришћењем аутоматских метода: листа речи које се односе на позиције моћи је састављена употребом сервиса WikiData, с обзиром на недостатак постојећих листи; затим, елементи листе проналажени су у корпусу путем ад хок скрипти. Упркос ограничењима које одређени жанрови и теме успостављају у тако специфичној лексичкој ек-

стракцији, што доводи до оскудних података који нису статистички значајни, подаци делимично потврђују првобитне хипотезе јер се може уочити уопштено силазни тренд, као и разлике између изворних и преведених текстова. Међутим, упркос веома малим разликама због специфичности теме, тенденције зависе од категорије која се анализира, као и од односа између превода и оригиналних дела на италијанском. На пример, разлике су мање међу преводима у већини случајева. Даље, црквени чинови показују раст у оригиналним делима на италијанском, док опадају код превода. Потребна је детаљнија анализа података, нарочито помоћу напредних статистичких метода, и вероватно на већем корпусу. Подаци ипак нуде увид који је користан за боље разумевање друштвених, историјских и књижевних околности.

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