

UNIVERSITY OF EASTERN FINLAND

PHILOSOPHICAL FACULTY

English Language and Translation

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ON ROCK CLIMBING TERMINOLOGY

A Pro Gradu Thesis

December 2017

<b>Tiedekunta – Faculty</b> <b>Philosophical faculty</b>		<b>Osasto – School</b> <b>School of Humanities</b>	
<b>Tekijät – Author</b> Nousiainen, Maria Teresa			
<b>Työn nimi – Title</b> <b>ON FINNISH AND ENGLISH ROCK CLIMBING TERMINOLOGY</b>			
<b>Pääaine – Main subject</b>	<b>Työn laji – Level</b>	<b>Päivämäärä – Date</b>	<b>Sivumäärä – Number of pages</b>
<b>English language and translation</b>	Pro gradu -tutkielma	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<b>1.12.2017</b>
	Sivuainetutkielma	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Kandidaatin tutkielma	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Aineopintojen tutkielma	<input type="checkbox"/>	
<b>Tiivistelmä – Abstract</b>			
<p>The aim of the present study is to examine both Finnish and English terminology of rock climbing and to compile a systematic, descriptive glossary. Unified naming principles as well as a thoroughly described terminology contribute to efficient communication within the special field of climbing. Communication is the key element in rock climbing because climbers need to understand each other flawlessly in demanding circumstances.</p> <p>The terminology work follows the traditional principles of the general theory of terminology and the methods of applied terminology. The theoretical background of the present study was adapted on the terminology course held by Dr Päivi Pasanen during the autumn term 2011.</p> <p>Some of the elementary concepts of rock climbing were collected into concept systems. The analysis of the English concept systems of rock climbing reveals that the English concepts are rather established. However, the number of different styles and techniques used in climbing add up to the complexity of constructing the concept systems. The result of the terminology work is the bilingual glossary of rock climbing which consists of 25 entries.</p> <p>The Finnish climbing terminology relies on the English one, because rock climbing as recreation was invented in the English speaking countries along with some Middle European countries, such as Germany and France. Furthermore, the Finnish concepts tend to have several synonyms, which indicates the need of harmonising the concepts. Hence, a normative terminology work is needed in the future to standardise the terminology of climbing.</p>			
<b>Avainsanat – Keywords</b> terminology, terminology work, rock climbing			

<b>Tiedekunta – Faculty</b> <b>Filosofinen tiedekunta</b>		<b>Osasto – School</b> <b>Humanistinen osasto</b>	
<b>Tekijät – Author</b> <b>Maria Nousiainen</b>			
<b>Työn nimi – Title</b> ON ROCK CLIMBING TERMINOLOGY			
<b>Pääaine – Main subject</b>	<b>Työn laji – Level</b>	<b>Päivämäärä – Date</b>	<b>Sivumäärä – Number of pages</b>
<b>Englannin kieli ja kääntäminen</b>	Pro gradu -tutkielma	x	<b>1.12.2017</b>
	Sivuainetutkielma		
	Kandidaatin tutkielma		
	Aineopintojen tutkielma		
			<b>36 + Liitteet sekä englannin- ja suomenkieliset tiivistelmät</b>
<b>Tiivistelmä – Abstract</b>			
<p>Tutkielman tarkoituksena on tutkia englannin- ja suomenkielistä kalliokiipeilytermistöä ja koota niihin perustuva kaksikielinen, deskriptiivinen kiipeilysanasto. Sanastotyön perustein koottu termistö edistää tehokasta viestintää kiipeilijöiden kesken. Kalliokiipeilyssä viestinnän on oltava aukotonta, sillä olosuhteet ovat usein vaativia.</p> <p>Perinteisen terminologian teoriaa ja metodeja on sovellettu tutkielmassa, jonka aihe ja viitekehys valikoituivat Päivi Pasasen ohjaamalla terminologiakurssilla 2011. Keskeisimmät kiipeilykäsitteet koottiin käsitejärjestelmiin ja niiden avulla termit määriteltiin ja koostettiin kaksikieliseksi kalliokiipeilysanastoksi, jossa on 25 tietuetta.</p> <p>Käsitejärjestelmiä tarkasteltaessa vaikuttaa siltä, että englanninkielinen kiipeilysanasto on melko vakiintunutta. Kiipeilytyylien ja -tekniikoiden suuri määrä kuitenkin monimutkaistaa käsitejärjestelmien kokoamista. Englannin kieli on vaikuttanut laajalti suomenkieliseen kiipeilysanastoon, koska nykyaikainen kalliokiipeily kehittyi harrastusmuodoksi juuri englanninkielisissä maissa Saksan ja Ranskan ohella. Lisäksi monilla sanastoon valituilla suomenkielisillä käsitteillä on useampia synonyymeja, mikä viittaisi siihen, että käsitteitä ja termejä olisi vielä yhdenmukaistettava normatiivisen terminologian perustein.</p>			
<b>Avainsanat – Keywords</b>			
terminologia, sanastotyö, kalliokiipeily			

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First and foremost, I would like to thank Riitta Jääskeläinen and Esa Penttilä for their guidance throughout the years. It has been a real climb up the hill but you have made it a lot easier. To Päivi Pasanen I am grateful for showing me the right path along the field of terminology. Anna Karhu and Michael Wilkinson among others, thank you for believing in us students. Moreover, Jenny Perma foundation has supported me in writing this thesis.

To my dear family and friends, this would not have been possible without your endless support. You made the climb worthwhile.

Finally, to my Mother, I owe this all to you.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this thesis is to present a systematic, descriptive Finnish-English glossary of rock climbing. The present study concentrates on the terminology of rock climbing that entails some of the styles and techniques of the sport.

Rock climbing as a sport has become more popular than ever because it can be practiced almost anywhere, and the level of difficulty depends both on the climber and the climbing area. According to Saku Korosuo (2017: 10), the number of climbers in Finland alone has increased from a few thousand to estimated 50,000 during the last decade. Compiling the terminology of rock climbing seemed to be of essence because of the increased popularity of the sport as well as the diversity of its vocabulary and use of synonyms in English but even more in Finnish.

Although some research has been made on the field of climbing in Finland (cf. Juutila and Rautava 2004), very little focus has been paid to the rather colloquial style of terms. Furthermore, Finnish concepts are to some extent derived from the English language due to the relatively short history of climbing in Finland but also the practicality of the English terms. The present study aims to define the most important concepts in the field of rock climbing and collect them into a descriptive glossary.

A climbing expert was consulted to create an adequate view of the field and to get an insight into the diversity of guide books concerning climbing. However, further investigation of the sport and its terminology is needed. This thesis only represents a small area of rock climbing vocabulary. Future studies could shed more light on the complexity of the sport and climbing in general. Furthermore, establishing a standardised terminology after thorough normative terminology work would be of essence to provide more valid information for beginning climbers or for example translators dealing with the special field of climbing.

The preparatory work began on a terminology course held by Dr Päivi Pasanen during the autumn term 2011. When deciding on the final report of the course, a friend of mine suggested that I would construct a glossary on climbing because the special field of climbing as a sport has a vocabulary and slang of its own. Most of the source material was collected and analysed during the course. The present thesis applies the main theories concerning terminology work. The Guide to Terminology by Heidi Suonuuti (2001) set the framework to the terminology work.

The history of terminology is discussed in Section 2. Furthermore, the terminological concepts are explained in Section 2. Section 3 then deals with the material and methods of this thesis. The concept systems that relate to rock climbing are explained in Section 4. The outcome of this study is discussed in Section 5. The result of the terminology work, a bilingual glossary along with its alphabetical indices, is included in the Appendices I–II. Since the glossary is both in English and in Finnish, the number of entries in the glossary is delimited to 25.

## 2. ABOUT TERMINOLOGY

### 2.1 Development of terminology as field of research

According to Cabré (1999:1), terminology is “a discipline concerned with the study and compilation of specialised terms”. The field has developed systematically, its principles, bases and methodology being in the focus of development. Terminology of today has its origins in the 1930s and has gained its scientific status during the years (cf. Cabré 1999: 1.).

The 19<sup>th</sup> century saw the rise of internationalising science, which led to a need of unified rules to form terms in the fast growing fields of science, such as botany and chemistry. At first, the scientists were the leading experts among terminology, but in the 20<sup>th</sup> century, also engineers and technicians have paid their interest in forming terminology. Not only was the naming of new concepts elementary but also finding a mutual agreement on the terms being used (Cabré 1999: 1–2).

It was not until the 1950s, when linguists and social scientists began to show their interest in terminological matters, for their focus had been on the principles governing human languages in general. A latter approach, however, proved that the terminological aspect could be used as a tool of communication (Cabré 1999: 2).

E. Wüster (1898–1977) and D. S. Lotte (1889–1950) are regarded as the forerunners of the field of terminology, them being the representatives and founders of the respective schools of terminology. Both Wüster and Lotte wrote the first theoretical texts on terminology during the 1930s and 1960s and thus developed the study of terminology by establishing systematic ways of forming terms (Cabré 1999: 5).

In the era of industrialism, education and written communication have been of essence, in contrast to the importance of oral communication in the rural period. The changes in the communicating methods required codifying language and creating standard registers. Many languages acquired the hierarchical system of the apt use of words, which also resulted in the realisation of the concept ‘standard language’ and dominant languages reasserted their status. Nowadays, it is taken into account that language standardisation should not take place at the expense of cultural diversity (Cabré 1999: 3– 4).

New concepts and conceptual fields that have emerged due to developing science and technology require coming up with new names, as well. Therefore, vocabularies have to be constantly updated and different ways of communicating need to be launched. Databases are



constructed for the rapidly increasing information in order to make the information easily accessible and multidimensional, and mass communication enables the spreading of terminology on a broad scale. Therefore, the relationships between standard and special languages are taken more efficiently into account (Cabré 1999: 4).

According to Cabré, standardisation may also be government-led, and therefore organisations are harnessed to contribute to terminological standardisation. The new technical and scientific vocabularies are borrowed from the languages of the nations that have the dominance over the respective sector of industry (Cabré 1999: 4).

In the 1960s and 1970s, the development of computer technology contributed to co-ordinating terminology processing and standardising terminology. Language planning became popular in the 1970s, and terminology was seen as the cornerstone of modernising languages. Processing terminological information became more fluent along with the personal computers. The ever-developing information technology has enabled the status the terminological work has nowadays along with the emerging international language industries (Cabré 1999: 6).

Some modern scholars, such as Kageura (2002) and Temmermann (2000), have criticised the traditional theories of terminology. The present study relies on the traditional terminology work because its aim is to start the defining and organising the terminology related to rock climbing. More on the critique can be read for instance on Mette Pesonen's (2012) Pro Gradu Thesis *Introduction to the Terminology of Fan Fiction*. The main principles of the traditional terminology work are explained in the next passages.

## **2.2 Terminological principles**

According to Tekniikan sanastokeskus (1989), general language is understood by everyone in a community. Its vocabulary and syntax have long traditions to which new vocabulary and its development adapt. Usually the words are so common that they are feasible and are easily understood from the surrounding context (TSK 1989: 11).

When more specific information is given, the expressions open up only to an expert of the field. Professional languages are formed because of a need to handle the concepts more precisely. Not only single words but also whole expressions distinguish special language from general language. The most distinguishing features are the expressions, namely terms that are related to concepts. Concepts are then specifically limited and defined, and they are not affected by the context (TSK 1989: 11).

The general principles of terminology work as well as the main concepts will be discussed in this section. In the present thesis, the Guide to Terminology by Suonuuti (2001) played an essential role, when defining the concepts of rock climbing. Suonuuti explains (2001: 12) that through terminology work, knowledge is placed in order and transferred from one place to another. Moreover, the analysis and structuring of concepts and their relations are the bases for terminology work. Suonuuti has assembled together terminological principles and working methods that are in line with the International Standards ISO 704, ISO 860 and ISO 10241 (ibid: 10).

According to Suonuuti (2001: 10), to realise a successful terminology work, the procedure includes a number of steps that may take place simultaneously. Accordingly, the steps are as follows:

1. finding the concepts
2. constructing concept systems
3. formulating definitions
4. selection and formation of terms that are often compiled into a vocabulary (ibid.).

### 2.3 Terminological concepts

According to Suonuuti (2001: 12), a **concept** is a unit of thought comprising the **characteristics** that best define an **object**. The characteristics of rock climbing, for instance, could be as follows: type of hobby or sport, requires a rock wall to climb upon (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 20). Furthermore, as Suonuuti points out (2001: 12), some of the objects are abstract such as the climbing code in rock climbing (cf. Graydon 1992: 15), which refers to the rules and ethics of climbers. Furthermore, according to Suonuuti (2001:12), there are also concrete objects, for they exist physically, such as rock and mountain in the context of the present thesis.

A **concept** is considered an individual concept when it is connected to only one object (e.g. in the world of climbing, Mont Blanc, a certain mountain in the French Alps), but when there are objects with common properties, they are called general concepts (any mountain). A **definition** is needed to be able to describe the **concept**. **Term** is then the literal form of describing the **concept** with one or more words or symbols (Suonuuti 2001: 12). In the present study, an example of term and its definition could be as follows:

### **rock climbing**

climbing on relatively low-lying natural walls (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 20).

According to Suonuuti (2001: 14), there are also **intensions** and **extensions** that define the concepts. The intension consists of all the **characteristics** that specify the concept. For instance, as mentioned before, the characteristics of rock climbing could be “sport or hobby” and “requires a rock wall to climb upon” (Koski and Arasola 2006: 20). The extension, for one, comprises of the objects that the concept covers (Suonuuti, 2001: 14). For instance, indoor climbing, sport climbing and technical climbing can be seen as the extensions of rock climbing (cf. Korosuo 2017: 11–12).

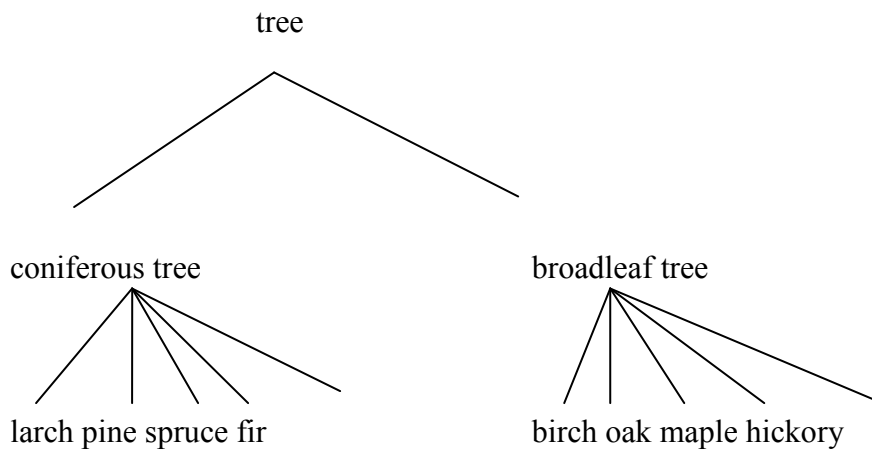
Concept systems as well as the concepts of definition and term are explained in the next sections.

## **2.4 Concept systems**

Concepts are always somehow related to one another (Suonuuti 2001: 14). Thus, they form **concept systems**. In terminology work, it is crucial to study the relations of the concepts and arrange them into concept systems in order to make sufficient definitions for the concepts (ibid.). The more modern terminology work however, prefers for instance associative models, such as mind maps and satellite models to the traditional diagrams, which can also be set as the ground for the terminology work (cf. Nuopponen and Pilke 2010). The present study focuses on the traditional diagrams to create an idea of the relations of the concepts.

According to Suonuuti (2001: 14–17), the types of relations that are most relevant in the concept systems are **generic**, **partitive** and **associative** relations. In practice, the concept systems are often combinations of those and are thus called **mixed concept systems**. The aforementioned concept systems are explained in the following passages. The examples of the concept systems are simplified versions of the ones described by Suonuuti (ibid.).

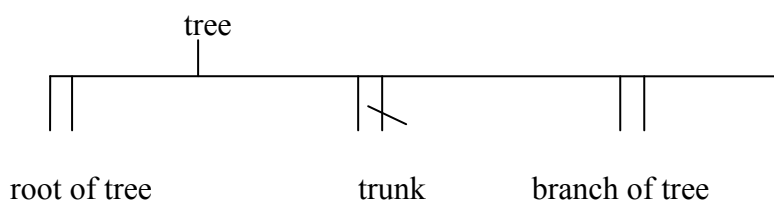
In the generic concept system, the superordinate concept is divided into subordinate concepts (see figure 1). It requires concepts having identical characteristics but the subordinate concept has at least one delimiting character that distinguishes it from the superordinate one. Moreover, the generic concept system has often many levels. (Suonuuti 2001: 15–16)



**Figure 1. Generic concept system of trees** (Suonuuti 2001: 15).

In Figure 1 by Suonuuti (2001: 15) the division of trees is based on anatomy but trees could be divided according to their species requirements or whether trees are deciduous or evergreen. Hence, concepts can be subdivided in several ways.

Some relations between concepts are considered partitive (Suonuuti 2001: 17). Partitive relations between the concepts are created when the superordinate concept can be seen as a part of the object as a whole, and the subordinate concepts are connected to that entity. Partitive relations are displayed with rake diagrams. The example of a partitive concept system by Suonuuti (2001: *ibid.*) is described in the Figure 2 below.



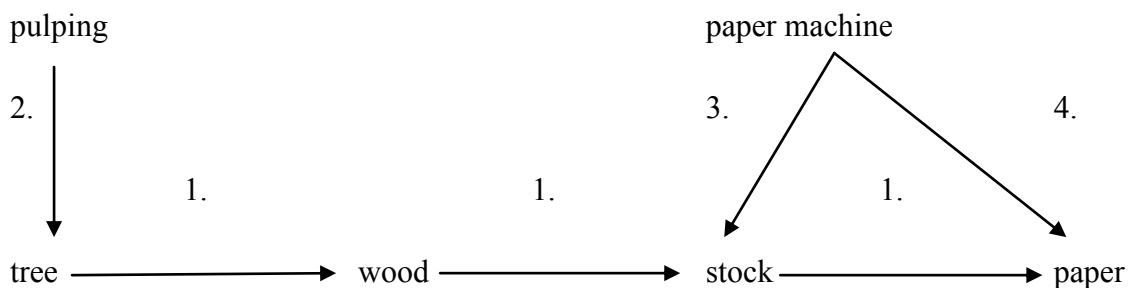
**Figure 2. Partitive concept system of a tree** (Suonuuti 2001: 17)

In Figure 2 (Suonuuti 2001: 17), the rake diagram represents parts of a tree. Trees usually have several branches, which are indicated with two lines close to one another. Furthermore, there may be concepts that are optional in the partitive relations, and they are indicated with crossing lines. For instance, the example in Figure 2 depicts the fact that trees may have several trunks (*ibid.*).

Suonuuti continues (2001: 18) that unlike generic relations, associative relations consist of a number of relations that are not considered hierarchical. Such relations are for instance:

1. **cause and effect**
2. **material** and product
3. **activity** and **actor**
4. **tool** and **function** (ibid.).

The associative concept system shows the relations of concepts with arrows. Furthermore, there can be several associative relations in one concept system (Suonuuti 2001: 18). Figure 3 below describes the associative relations of concepts related to papermaking.



**Figure 3. Associative concept system** (Suonuuti 2001: 19).

In Figure 3 (Suonuuti 2001: 19), associative relations of the papermaking process are as follows:

1. **origin** and **material**, i.e. turning tree into wood, wood into stock, and finally stock into paper
2. **process** and **material**, in which pulping is the process of reducing raw material into fibres
3. **apparatus** and **semi-product**, paper machine being the apparatus that suspends e.g. wood fibres that are the semi-product of the process
4. **apparatus** and **product**, i.e. the process results in the paper machine producing paper out of the fibres (ibid.).

The concept systems are followed when writing definitions. (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX). The following section describes the steps of formulating definitions.

## 2.5 Definition

Suonuuti (2001: 20) states that the **definition** of the concept gives the **concept** its distinguishing features from other concepts. When writing definitions, concepts need to be placed correctly. Hence, the necessary concepts and the relations among them have to be identified in order to write sufficient definitions (ibid: 19).

According to Suonuuti (2001: ANNEX), formulating definitions entails defining the concepts in general language as well as bearing the specific target group in mind. This requires using only words and terminology known to the target group, or terms that are defined elsewhere in the same vocabulary (ibid.).

On one hand, there are **intensional definitions** of the concepts in special-language vocabularies that describe the essential and delimiting characteristics of the concept (Suonuuti 2001: 20). To delimit the number of characteristics described in the definition, the intensional definition is based on its generic superordinate concept that already entails the basic characteristics, and it places the concept in its concept system among similar concepts. For example, according to Suonuuti, *trees* are placed among *plants*, or in the context of the present study, the subcategories *rock climbing* and *ice climbing* are placed among types of *mountain climbing*. Furthermore, the delimiting characteristics of the concept are also included in the definition. For instance, the characteristic of a *light-demanding tree* is that it prefers a sunny habitat, whereas a *tolerant tree* grows more likely in the shade (ibid.). In the present study, for example, the distinguishing characteristics of *rock climbing* and *indoor climbing* are that *rock climbing* is practiced on natural walls and *indoor climbing* on artificial indoor walls.

On the other hand, the definitions that list the objects covered by the concept are called **extensional definitions** (Suonuuti 2001: 21). For example *noble gas* is defined as “helium, neon, argon, krypton, xenon or radon” (ibid.). In the case of the present study *climbing* is “ice, rock, indoor climbing or a combination of these” (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 19–25). A thorough construction of the concept analysis is essential for it impacts on the definitions of the concepts (Suonuuti: 21).

Suonuuti states (2001: 21) that generic concept systems require the concepts to be defined by their nearest superordinate concepts. The delimiting characteristics are chosen to describe the relations of the concepts. For instance, the definition of *tree* is “tall *plant* with hard self-supporting trunk and branches that lives for many years”. Moreover, a *coniferous tree* is a “*tree* with needle-formed leaves and exposed or naked seeds” (ibid.).

In partitive concept systems then, phrases such as “part of” and “element in” indicate the concepts being parts of a bigger entity, whereas “product of” and “result of” label associative relations (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX).

One principle of defining the concepts, according to Suonuuti (2001: 23), is that the terms and definitions have to be interchangeable, requiring that the term can be replaced by its definition. Thus, the definition begins with a lower case letter, and the term is not mentioned at the beginning of the definition. Moreover the expressions “such as”, “one of”, “is called” are left out, as well (ibid: 36).

There are also deficient definitions that ought to be avoided. The most common of such definitions are circular, incomplete or negative definitions (Suonuuti 2001: 24). A circular definition can occur, when the concept is defined by itself either in the same definition or elsewhere in the concept system. An example of the concept being incorrectly repeated as the superordinate concept is as follows:

**tree height**

**tree height** measured from the ground surface to the top of a tree (ibid.)

According to Suonuuti (ibid.), the adequate definition of *tree height* would be the “distance between the ground surface and the top of a tree”.

A circular definition could also exist in the concept system if a concept is defined by another, and the other is then defined by the first concept (Suonuuti 2001: 25). An example of a circular definition in the concept system is described below.

**virgin forest**

forest constituted of a natural tree stand

**natural tree stand**

stand of trees grown in a virgin forest (ibid.)

The definition of *natural tree stand* should be corrected to “stand of trees grown without interference by man” (Suonuuti 2001: 25).

According to Suonuuti (2001: 25), along with circular definitions, negative definitions ought to be avoided, as well. Negative definitions should be used only when it is essential to pinpoint the characteristics a concept lacks, as in the definition of *non-food product*, which is as follows: “product that is not intended to be used as nourishment” (ibid.).

Moreover, incomplete definitions provide either too little or too much information, i.e. the definition is not precise enough. An example of an insufficient definition of *tree* would be “tall plant that lives for many years”, which excludes the notion of trees requiring self-supporting trunks. The characteristic of a self-supporting trunk distinguishes trees from other plants (Suonuuti 2001: 26).

According to Suonuuti (2001: ANNEX), selecting the terms is the next step of terminology work, and the process of term collection is explained next.

## 2.6 Term

According to Suonuuti (2001: 31), a term can be a single word (e.g. ‘pollution’), compound word (‘lighthouse’) or even a multiword expression (‘environmental review’). Usually, the terms are singular nouns (‘raw material’) but some plural nouns (‘interested parties’), verbs (‘reclaim’) and adjectives (‘biodegradable’) can be considered terms as well.

The relationships between terms and concepts vary depending on how many concepts the term is referring to. Furthermore, the term should follow the norms of the given language. The term is to show the characteristics of the concept but also to be concise and enable the use of its derivatives (Suonuuti 2001: 31).

Suonuuti (2001: 31) advises to evaluate and classify the terms, according to whether they are preferred, deprecated or obsolete. Abbreviations, for instance, should be considered admitted or deprecated. Because of the descriptive nature of the present study, the preferred or deprecated terms are indicated only, when their status is known. Furthermore, in terminology work, the term equivalents and assessing their equivalency is of essence (Suonuuti, 2001: ANNEX). However, the present study focuses only on pointing out the hierarchical questions and collecting the concepts.

Harmonisation of concepts or terms is a step towards standardising a special language (Suonuuti 2001: 32). By harmonising concepts, the differences among several concepts that are closely related to one another are eliminated. Therefore, the future studies in the field of climbing could focus on harmonisation as part of the normative study on climbing, as the present study merely focuses on the descriptive part of the terminology work. In the future, the normative terminology work of rock climbing could try to solve the harmonisation problems of the Finnish concept system in the light of the more recent studies by Nuopponen and Pilke (2010) or Temmermann (2000) and Kageura (2002), for instance.



The material and terminological methods used in this study are explained in the following section.

### 3 MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### 3.1 Research material

The scope of the present study was delimited to the collection of rock climbing concepts. According to Creasey et al. (1999: 8), rock climbing is one of the many forms of mountain climbing. Rock climbing itself entails quite a lot of different subcategories from which the concepts can be chosen.

According to Koski and Arasola (2006: 20), rock climbing takes place on natural rock walls outdoors. Climbing in Finland has been practiced since the 1950s, when Suomen Alppikerho (The Finnish Alpine Club) was founded in 1956 (Käyhkö: 2002, 10).

Rock climbing was mainly technical during the first active climbing years in Finland (Koski and Arasola 2006: 12). In technical climbing, rope ladders and other pieces of equipment are used as means of ascending. From the 1970s onwards, free climbing, i.e. using climbing equipment as protection only and not as an aid of climbing, has increased its popularity (ibid).

In the 1980s and even more in the 1990s, climbers in Finland also embarked on climbing indoors as well as competing in different categories, which resulted in constructing artificial climbing walls (Koski and Arasola 2006: 12). Bouldering, which is climbing without protection, has increased the popularity of climbing even more, because the type of sport is rather affordable and it can be practiced almost everywhere (Koski and Arasola 2006: 19).

Suonuuti (2001: 33–34) suggests that collecting and recording the relevant articles and vocabularies is elementary in the preparatory phase of the terminology work. The present study tries to illustrate the most up-to-date vocabulary, but mainly relying on literal sources. Further studies on rock climbing could entail Internet sources and magazines as well, in which case a use of a corpus tool might come in handy, to pick out the key concepts. When studying different sources, being critical is necessary to provide reliable data. One must evaluate thoroughly the reliability and relevance of the sources, especially the translated ones (ibid: 34).

Suonuuti advises (2001: 34) to evaluate all the sources used in the terminology work. Relevant sources to be used are regulations, textbooks, periodicals, dissertations, encyclopaedias and databases, for instance. The documentation needs to be analysed so that

the concepts belonging to the field can be identified. (ibid.) The sources used in this study are discussed in the next passages.

The climbing literature is diverse in the English speaking countries and in Middle Europe, where climbing originates from. Because climbing in general has a relatively long history in the United States, the present study relies mainly on American references, such as *Complete Rock Climber* by Michael Creasey et al. (1999) or *Learn Rock Climbing in a Weekend* by Kevin Walker (1991). Their glossaries have provided an extensive reference as far as the term collection is concerned. As climbing is constantly increasing its popularity in Finland (cf. Korosuo 2017), the number of climbing books written in Finnish are also on the rise. However, the terminology is yet to be standardised because now it leans heavily on the English language and there are also quite a lot of synonyms referring to one concept.

A quick search for climbing terminology at the TEPA term bank (2017) compiled by the Finnish Terminology Centre TSK, revealed that there are only few entries concerning the terminology of climbing and that they exist only in more large-scale terminologies such as the Finnish-Swedish terminology for sports.

Furthermore, the information is scarce in the printed Finnish sport literature I have found for the present study. For example, a dictionary of sports *Urheilusanakirja* (Raevuori 2005) has only a few entries on climbing and some of the definitions might require revising. For example, in Raevuori (2005) the term ‘boulderointi’, the Finnish equivalent for ‘bouldering’, is defined as follows: “sivusuuntaan tapahtuva kiipeily lähinnä matalilla kallioilla tai kivillä” (climbing that takes place horizontally and mainly on low-lying rocks or stones, translation mine). Based on the climbing literature found for this study, a more apt definition would be: “matalien reittien kiipeily ilman varmistusta” (climbing low-lying routes without equipment). The latter includes the notion of climbing upwards, which is the most common direction in climbing (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 19). Furthermore, it indicates the fact that bouldering takes place without any climbing device, such as ropes.

Moreover, in Raevuori (2005) there are several sport categories but a category “other forms of sport” covers miscellaneous sport categories, including climbing. It would be preferable that such a fast growing sport as climbing could now be seen as an established form of sport also in the Finnish sport literature. Thus, it would seem that an established, normative vocabulary of climbing is required.

One of the fundamental Finnish guidebooks specialised in indoor climbing is *Seinäkiipeily* by Koski and Arasola (2006). It is published by the Finnish Climbing Association and can be

regarded as an adequate source even though indoor climbing is only a subcategory of rock climbing. The book provides useful information about all the factors that climbing entails, lacking only a comprehensive, normative glossary of its own. Due to its professional nature, I have used the book as one of my primary sources of Finnish climbing terminology as far as the terminology collection is concerned.

*Suomen kalliikiipeilyreitit 2008* (Koski 2013) is a guidebook including the difficulty categorisation of the Finnish climbing routes and driving instructions to the climbing locations. Moreover, it has a multilingual list of climbing terms (Finnish-Swedish-English) for the climbers to be able to communicate onsite. Its purpose is merely to demonstrate the vocabulary used in communicating on climbing areas, so it does not define the concepts of climbing. I have used the list to crosscheck the equivalencies between the Finnish and English concepts as far as some climbing techniques are concerned.

Juutila and Rautava's Pro Gradu Thesis *Tietopaketti kiipeilystä. Kiipeilymuotojen esittely painottuen koululaisille soveltuviin kiipeilymuotoihin* (2004) provides information on different types of climbing, the main emphasis being on the climbing forms that are suitable for school children. A comprehensive glossary is attached to the thesis to ease the reading experience. Even though the Finnish climbing terminology is yet to be standardised, their glossary turned out to be a useful tool when compiling the most essential concepts of rock climbing.

The most recent book about climbing in Finland is *Suomalainen kiipeilyopas* (Korosuo 2017), and it is by far the most extensive guidebook of the sport in Finland. It focuses on the styles and techniques as well as the equipment needed in rock and ice climbing. Even though the glossary does not follow the norms of standardisation, it provides useful information about climbing terms, and the terms are categorised so that one can easily find specific information on the subject.

As the Finnish Climbing Association highlights in Koski and Arasola (2006), guidebooks alone can never replace the knowledge and skill sets acquired on actual climbing courses led by professional instructors. Furthermore, the vocabulary and slang used in the Finnish guidebooks are common to the more advanced climbers but a beginner of the sport might be confused by the odd terms, and they might even scare off the ones that have never come across with the sport before. Moreover, the Internet provides basic glossaries on various sites and forums related to climbing, but the definitions might need revising following the principles of normative terminology work.

Because the present study focuses mainly on term collection from printed sources by means of descriptive terminology work, a more thorough investigation of the information sources as well as interviews with the experts of climbing would be of essence in the future. The phases of the terminology work used in this study are described in the following section.

### **3.2 Phases of terminology work**

Suonuuti points out (2001: 33) that terminology work of high quality requires organised methods, and consulting a language specialist would be extremely beneficial for the project. The purpose of the present study is to realise a descriptive terminology work, that is, to list the core terminology of rock climbing. Thus, the present study is designed to help the experts of the field to build up a normative terminology in the future.

A target group has to be determined before setting out to the work itself, and evaluating the needs of the target group helps also in delimiting the subject field (Suonuuti 2001: 33). According to Dr Päivi Pasanen (2011), who is a specialist on the field of terminology work, the proper number of term entries in the glossary of a Pro Gradu thesis is 50, as far as the monolingual glossary is concerned. In the case of the present study, the number of entries is delimited to 25 because the glossary is to be bilingual. Since rock climbing is a relatively new sport in Finland (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 11), it is also interesting to compare the Finnish terminology with the English one and try to find out how English has affected the Finnish terminology.

Suonuuti (2001: 34–35) advises to identify and select the concepts that belong to the field in question. She suggests that the selection of the concepts can be conducted through the following criteria, which may help delimit from the abundance of the concepts: Is the concept specific to the subject in question or is it common to several subject fields? Is the concept borrowed from another subject field close the field in question or is the concept used in general language?

The vocabulary should consist mainly of the concepts that are specific to the subject field. The concepts that are borrowed from other fields or that are common to various areas should be added to the vocabulary with moderation. The general language concepts should be handled only in exceptional cases. Furthermore, the number of the concepts should not be too restricted at the beginning of the work (Suonuuti 2001: 34–35).

The selected concepts are then to be constructed into concept systems in the form of diagrams. When working in different languages, separate concept systems ought to be constructed simultaneously so that they can be systematically compared to each other. Each concept has a specific place in the concept system. It is advisable to start with the generic relations and only after that proceed to partitive and associative relations. Furthermore, terms, definitions and other additional information need to be collected (Suonuuti 2001: 35).

The concept systems are constructed to help the writing of the definitions. As far as the generic concept systems are concerned, the definitions are based on the nearest superordinate concept. Moreover, in partitive or associative concept systems, a general term is used. A definition should describe the distinguishing features of a concept (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX).

It is crucial that the definition provides enough information. An ideal definition is concise with the length of one sentence. The idea of the term is that it can be replaced by its definition in the text when needed. Should any additional information be added, it can be included as an indented note or example (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX).

If special terms are used in the definition, they need to be defined elsewhere in the terminology. Moreover, preferred terms should be used in concepts that have already been defined. When defining words, it is also important to take notice of the word class of the term and use a correspondent word class in the definition. For instance, a verb or verbal phrase should be used when defining a verb (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX).

In the context of the present study, there were some concepts of rock climbing techniques that did not have a Finnish equivalent. Therefore it was impossible to form terms out of them. For instance the technique of *chimneying* does not translate to Finnish. As far as the term formation is concerned, the literal translation of ‘chimneying’ would be ‘hormittaminen’ (translation mine), which is not standard Finnish. However, the concept of ‘chimney’, a large crack in the rock, is known in the Finnish climbing vocabulary as ‘hormi’, and the term could be formed by using the concept of ‘hormi’ in a compound word ‘hormitekniikka’ meaning a chimney technique. Even though a ‘chimney technique’ might sound valid because the noun corresponds at least to some extent with the English noun *chimneying*, it would seem that it is not used in the Finnish climbing literature, and the technique is explained by other means. Therefore, the Finnish concept had to be left open both in the concept system and in the glossary.

According to Suonuuti (2001: 33), the final steps of drafting the vocabulary are selecting the form and order of the terminology entries and making indices and introductory elements for

the vocabulary. After finalising the first draft of the terminology, a subject field specialist and native language speakers need to be consulted so that they could confirm that the definitions and terms are adequate (Suonuuti 2001: ANNEX). In this study, a climbing expert was needed to make the relations of complex climbing styles and techniques more rational in the concept systems.

The collection of rock climbing concepts from the literary sources is discussed in the following section. All in all five concept systems regarding rock climbing could be drawn, and the concept systems are also explained in Section 4.

## 4. CONCEPT SYSTEMS IN ROCK CLIMBING

### 4.1 Reading the concept systems

In the present thesis, English and Finnish rock climbing concepts were studied simultaneously to find out whether there were any concepts missing from the Finnish language. The found concepts were compiled in the bilingual concept systems to better illustrate the influence of the English language on Finnish rock climbing concepts. As Juutila and Rautava (2004: 6) point out in their Pro Gradu thesis, the influence of English is the follow-up of the fact that climbing as recreation started in the English speaking countries, and many of the Finnish climbing concepts are borrowed from English, or in some cases from French or German. It would seem that Finnish climbers have preferred loan words to translating the concepts into the Finnish language (*ibid.*).

The present study focuses on the concepts related to rock climbing, because of its popularity in Finland (*cf.* Korosuo 2017: 16), and its vocabulary is also used by the climbers practicing climbing in general. Furthermore, the scope of the study had to be delimited to rock climbing since some of the subtypes of climbing, such as ice climbing, entail more climbing techniques and equipment than rock climbing.

As Juutila and Rautava (2004: 65) point out, it is also debated whether some forms of climbing are just techniques of a certain climbing type, such as dry tooling, which is a mix of rock and ice climbing. Because of the differing viewpoints regarding these subtypes, the present thesis can only suggest relations between the types of climbing.

It was interesting to find out that many of the Finnish concepts have several synonyms. To serve also the beginners of the sport, I have preferred standard language to the more colloquial concepts because of the purely descriptive nature of the study. However, according to Haarala (1981:39) even the colloquial concepts may achieve the status of a preferred concept, if they are approved by the experts of the special field. Therefore, harmonisation of the terms and the concept systems would be in place in the future, meaning that further examination on the field and co-operation between the professionals of climbing and language are needed.

Along with the different forms of climbing, the concept systems in the present study also represent some of the factors involved in rock climbing. However, the techniques are so numerous that only the most common ones of them can be presented in this study. Moreover,



the chosen techniques are the ones that according to Korosuo (2017: 9) are used on Finnish climbing sites.

The diagrams in the concept systems are mainly tree diagrams, which depict the hierarchical relations of the concepts, i.e. generic relations of the concepts. A subordinate concept is described as a case of a superordinate concept and they are in line with the Guide to Terminology by Suonuuti (2001).

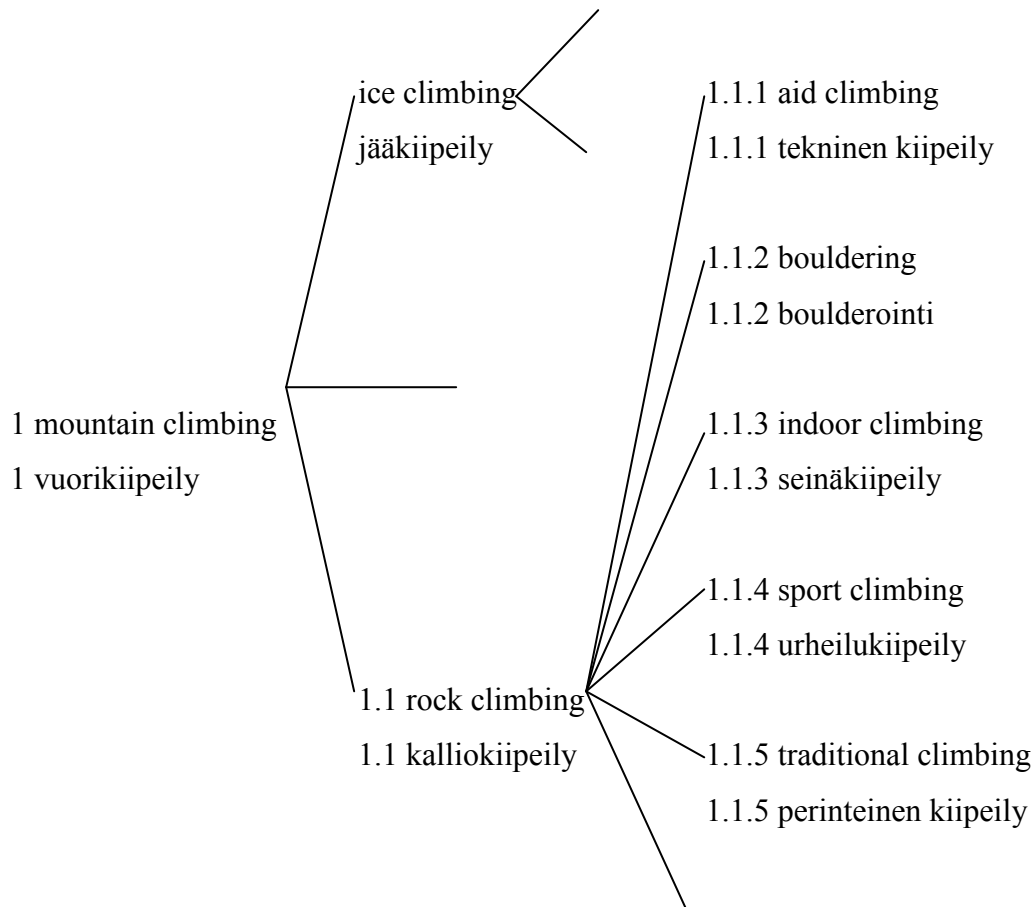
The preceding numbers refer to the term entries in the glossary. There are also concepts (e.g. 'climber') that are only depicted in the concept systems to point out the hierarchy of the concepts but are left out from the final glossary. Thus, they are not numbered in the concept systems. However, in the glossary the superordinate concepts are used to define their subordinate concepts. For instance, the concept of 'leader' is defined by its superordinate concept 'climber'. Furthermore, some English concepts do not have a Finnish equivalent and they are marked with a hyphen in the concept systems.

In some cases, the relations were so complex that it was impossible to construct extensive concept systems. For instance, the abundance of different climbing types and their overlapping nature made it difficult to form a permanent and flawless hierarchy among them. The number of climbing forms is limited to the most common ones that are practiced in Finland, and the extra lines in the concept systems depict the fact there are more climbing types than was possible to present in this study.

Along with the generic relations, associative relations could also be found, and they depict the functional relations of the concepts, since climbing is very dynamic a sport. The concept systems are explained as follows.

## 4.2 Forms of mountain climbing

### Concept system 1



**Figure 4: Concept system 1. Ice and rock climbing as types of mountain climbing**

The nature of the different climbing types is defined by the location and the style used in the certain type of climbing. In other words, many circumstances affect the categorisation, and since each climber climbs differently, it is impossible to try to cover all of the styles (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 92–93).

In the context of the present study, the English and Finnish concept systems of climbing types could be gathered into a bilingual concept system, as depicted in Figure 4. However, the classification in the Finnish concept system was not self-evident, because the literature used in this study had differing viewpoints as far as the categorisation was concerned. For example, Juutila and Rautava (2004: 64) divide the different climbing forms into four main categories namely *indoor*, *rock*, *ice* and *mountain climbing*, even though, they regard *indoor climbing* simply as a method of preparing for the actual climbing forms.

Käyhkö (2002: 10) for one, debates that climbing is divided into three categories in Finland due to the fact that there are no mountains in the country. He continues (ibid.) that *mountain climbing* is considered the fourth and probably the most demanding category of climbing, and that Finnish climbers practice it abroad. However, in Figure 4, the concept of *vuorikiipeily* (*mountain climbing* or *mountaineering*) is depicted as the superordinate concept for other subordinate concepts of climbing forms in Finnish as well, because there is a Finnish equivalent for the concept. Furthermore, as Creasey et al. points out (1999: 8), rock climbing “has grown out of the greater game of *mountaineering*” and can thus be regarded as the predecessor of other climbing forms. The subtypes of *mountain climbing* are explained in the next paragraphs.

The subtypes of *mountain climbing* in the present thesis are *rock climbing* and *ice climbing*, and therefore they are in a generic relation to their superordinate concept. Because *ice climbing* is a separate category of *mountain climbing*, this terminology focuses only on concepts related to *rock climbing*. There are also other subtypes of *mountain climbing* that are not represented in the present thesis, because they are usually practiced outside Finland. Thus an extra line was added in the Concept system 1 to depict those subtypes.

The delimiting characteristics of *ice climbing* are that it takes place either on ice or hard snow formations and requires special equipment along with the equipment used in *rock climbing* (cf. Koski and Arasola 2001: 23). As mentioned before, there are also climbing types that use the techniques or equipment of *ice climbing*. For instance, according to Korosuo (2017: 12), in drytooling, ice climbing equipment is used on solid rock, and mixed climbing is a style of climbing that combines both *ice* and *rock climbing*. It has been debated whether drytooling is simply a technique of climbing or a subcategory of *ice climbing* as such (cf. Juutila and Rautava 2004: 65). Since the nature of the present study is purely descriptive and focuses on *rock climbing* all together, the concept system leaves the subtypes of *ice climbing* open. The subtypes of *rock climbing* in Figure 4 are explained in the following passages.

According to Korosuo (2017: 11–13), *sport*, *aid* and *traditional climbing* are all types of *rock climbing* that are practiced in Finland. Furthermore, some specialists, such as Koski and Arasola (2006: 20) consider *rock climbing* to be the predecessor of *indoor climbing* as well, even though it is practiced on artificial walls. Therefore, in the present study, *rock climbing* is divided into *sport*, *indoor*, *aid* and *traditional climbing* let alone *bouldering*, which also takes place on rock formations or on indoor walls (Koski and Arasola 2006: 11). Hence, in Figure 4 *rock climbing* is depicted as the superordinate concept for the abovementioned subordinate concepts.

*Indoor climbing* has originated from *rock climbing* in the 1960s, and it takes place on hand-built walls (cf. Koski and Arasola 2002: 20). In *indoor climbing*, artificial holds simulating different forms of rock are attached to walls, and a rope is used as protection (ibid.). Its origins are in Germany, Great Britain and the United States. By the 1980s, *indoor climbing* had evolved from its early days so extensively that it also became a competitive sport (Koski and Arasola 2002: 12). The development of *indoor climbing* in Finland started in the 1990s (ibid: 13).

*Bouldering* is not only practiced outdoors but also on artificial climbing walls indoors. According to Koski and Arasola (2002: 19), the term *bouldering* is derived from the noun 'boulder' meaning a big rock or rockface, and the Finnish equivalent *boulderointi* as well as its derivatives are thus borrowed from English. Koski and Arasola also state that *bouldering* can be practiced almost anywhere. Neither ropes nor harness are needed in *bouldering* because it takes place on such low-lying routes that the risk of getting injured is minimal. A crash pad, which is a boulder mattress, is used underneath the climber to secure them, should they fall. *Bouldering* is not only a form of *rock climbing* but also a method of warming up, and it can be practiced to enhance motion co-ordination. Climbers also practice *bouldering* in order to improve their physics and specific climbing moves that are considered techniques of climbing. It is also regarded as a less risky form of climbing than for instance *indoor climbing* is (ibid.).

*Sport climbing* is one of the most popular types of *rock climbing* (cf. Korosuo 2017: 11). It is also more fast-paced than *rock climbing*, which is why it has increased its popularity over the past years (Käyhkö 2002: 10). In contrast to *traditional climbing*, the protective devices in *sport climbing* are anchored permanently into rock (Korosuo 2017: 11–12). *Sport climbing* routes are also shorter than in traditional *rock climbing*. Usually, the routes are only half the length of a rope, the normal length of a rope spanning up to 60 metres. According to Korosuo (ibid: 12), *sport climbing* may be physically demanding but it is also rather a safe form of climbing. With *sport climbing*, less equipment is needed and therefore it is also more affordable a sport.

*Rock climbing* can also be divided into *traditional climbing* and *aid climbing*, depending on whether or not the equipment is used as protection only or as an aid of ascending (cf. Korosuo 2017: 12). Therefore the concepts of *traditional* and *aid climbing* are also subordinate concepts of the concept of *rock climbing* in Concept system 1.

*Traditional climbing* is according to Creasey et al. (1999: 251), performed in a way that the protective devices are placed by the first climber called the *leader* and removed by the

*second*, who climbs after the leader. In some of the genres, the styles intertwine. For instance, in *ice climbing*, techniques from both *traditional* and *aid climbing* are used (Koski and Arasola 2006: 23).

In *traditional climbing*, the climber carries the equipment with them and wedges the devices into cracks while climbing. *Traditional climbing* leans on natural belays (e.g. nuts, wires and camming device) as a means of protection, whereas *aid climbing* is performed mainly on climbing ladders that are built onsite from ropes and other devices. Furthermore, in *aid climbing*, the bodyweight is put on the equipment rather than on the rockface itself.

N.B, the terminology of climbing equipment appears to have its origins mainly in other fields of sports or professions, so they will not be dealt with in the present study. Furthermore, the large number of the equipment was also a reason why they had to be excluded both from the concept systems and the final terminology of the present study.

As far as the selection of terminological data is concerned, the concept of *traditional climbing* translates into *traditionaalinen kiipeily* in the Finnish language (cf. Korosuo 2017: 12). Some Internet sources, such as the website of Oulu Climbing Association (2017), use even the concept of ‘perinteinen kiipeily’ to describe *traditional climbing*. The principles of terminology work advise to prefer the translated concepts, which is why *perinteinen kiipeily* is used in the Concept system 1. However, among climbers, the slang words ‘trädi’ and ‘trädikiipeily’ seem to be preferred to the standard language (cf. Korosuo 2017: 125).

Furthermore, *sport climbing* translates into *urheilukiipeily* in the Finnish language but the less formal *sporttikiipeily*, which derives from English, is also used among climbers (cf. Korosuo 2017: 11). Moreover, *bouldering* is either *boulderkiipeily* or *boulderointi* in Finnish, latter of which is widely used in the Finnish climbing literature (cf. Korosuo 2017 and Koski and Arasola 2006).

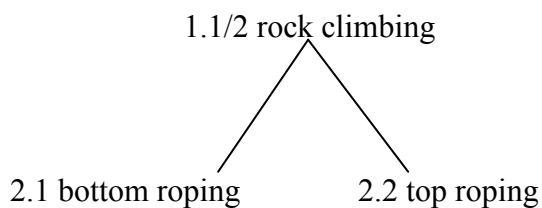
In the context of the present study the concepts translated into standard language are preferred, which is in line with the principles of terminology work (cf. Haarala 1981: 35–37), and therefore the concepts of *perinteinen kiipeily* and *urheilukiipeily* are used in the Concept system 1. *Boulderointi* as a derivative of *boulderkiipeily* is rather established among climbers. It is also shorter than the compound word *boulderkiipeily* which is preferable in terminology work (ibid: 37). Thus, *boulderointi* is preferred to *boulderkiipeily* in the present thesis as well.

Along with the different types of rock climbing, this study tries to illustrate the styles and techniques used in rock climbing in general. For instance, there are two different rope

climbing styles that are used unless the climber wants to climb without ropes all together. The rope climbing styles are explained in the next concept system.

### 4.3 Bottom and top roping as styles of rock climbing

#### Concept system 2



**Figure 5. Concept system 2. Rope climbing styles**

In Figure 5, *rock climbing* is divided into *bottom roping* and *top roping*, which are styles of *rock climbing*. Thus, the concept of *rock climbing* is depicted as the superordinate concept for *bottom roping* (i.e. *leading*) and *top roping*. In some circumstances, *rock climbing* is also practiced without ropes or other pieces of equipment (cf. Korosuo 2017: 227 and Creasey et al. 1999: 15), but this study focuses on rope climbing techniques due to the relatively small size of the study. *Bottom* and *top roping* are explained in the following passages.

Initially, *rock climbing* requires knowing how to use the basic equipment such as protection, how to tie knots to the climbing rope and how to act safely in *top* and *bottom rope climbing*. (Korosuo 2017: 9). Therefore, from the numerous styles and techniques of *rock climbing*, the present thesis concentrates on *bottom roping* and *top roping*.

According to Korosuo (2017: 227), *top* and *bottom roping* are styles of climbing with a rope as protection. In *top roping*, the rope is anchored beforehand on top of the route to protect the climber from falling all the way (cf. Koski and Arasola 2002: 78). Protection points are constructed on the way to the top to clip the rope (cf. Graydon, ed. 1992: 214–215 and Korosuo 2017: 125). *Top roping* is used especially when embarking on the sport or when the routes are short enough (Koski and Arasola 2006: 20).

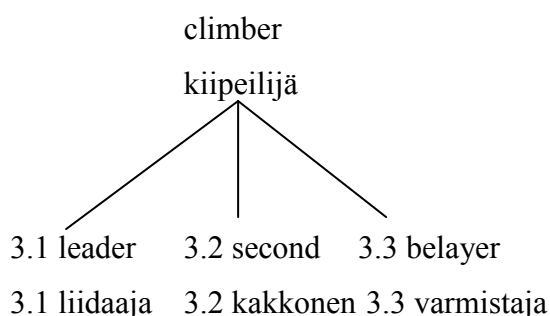
*Top roping* is performed either on shorter routes or on indoor climbing walls, whereas longer climbs have to be *bottom roped*, i.e. *led* (Korosuo 2017: 103). *Bottom roping* is more demanding than *top roping*, because the *leader* carries the rope with them and clips it to anchors and other protection points as they climb (Koski and Arasola 2006: 83). Korosuo (2017: 103) states that traditionally, the *climb* is said to be successfully completed only when it is *led*. He continues that belaying the *leader* in *bottom roping* is more demanding than in *top roping*. Thus, communication is the key especially in *bottom roping*, if the *leader* is at risk of falling. If the *leader* is about to fall, it is important to let the *belayer* know so that they can react to it (ibid.).

In the context of the present thesis, there were no contradictions between the English and Finnish concepts when constructing the concept system of rope climbing styles. The interesting aspect of the influence that English has on Finnish concepts appears, however, in the Concept system 2. Whereas *top roping* simply translates into *yläköysikiipeily*, the equivalent concepts of *bottom roping*, i.e. *leading*, in Finnish are either *alaköysikiipeily* or *liidaus*. *Liidaus* is a direct loan from English, and both translations of the concept are used in the climbing literature (cf. Korosuo 2017: 103).

The roles of a *climber* are important in both *top* and *bottom roping* as they are in *rock climbing* in general. Climbing roles are described in the following concept system.

#### 4.4 Climbing roles

##### Concept system 3



**Figure 6. Concept system 3. The roles of a climber**

A *climber* is the person climbing the climbing route. Depending on the role of a *climber* they are called either *leader*, *second* or *belayer* (cf. Creasey et al. 1999: 84–101). In Figure 6, the

roles of a *climber* are depicted in the generic concept system, the concept of *climber* being the superordinate concept for the concepts *leader*, *second* and *belayer*. Moreover, in Figure 6, the different roles of a *climber* are the characteristics that distinguish *leader*, *second* and *belayer* from each other. However, it would seem that the concept of *climber* is self-evident in the literature used in this study. Therefore, the concept of *climber* as such has been excluded from the final glossary, but its subconcepts have been defined by it. The concepts of climber roles are explained in the next paragraphs.

The person who climbs first is a *leader* (cf. Creasey et al. 1999: 96 and Barton 1995: 30). Korosuo (2017: 125) states that in *rock climbing*, the *leader* assembles the protective devices and clips the rope onto the wall, whereas in *sport climbing* the *leader* would clip the climbing rope to bolts that are assembled to the rock beforehand. When securely tied, the *leader* then belays the *second* up the *climb* (Creasey et al. 1999: 251). The *second* is the person, who climbs next and removes the protection when it is not needed anymore (ibid).

According to Creasey et al. (1999: 250), the climbing partner, who assists the *leader* either from the ground or from another protection point, is called a *belayer*. By using friction at the end of the rope, the *belayer* secures the *leader* and helps the *leader* to stay still and by releasing the friction, they give more rope when climbing further. Should there be only two *climbers* on a route, the *second* is also in charge of belaying. Furthermore, *climbers* are likely to change their roles at some point, where the *second* becomes the *leader* and vice versa (ibid: 250–251).

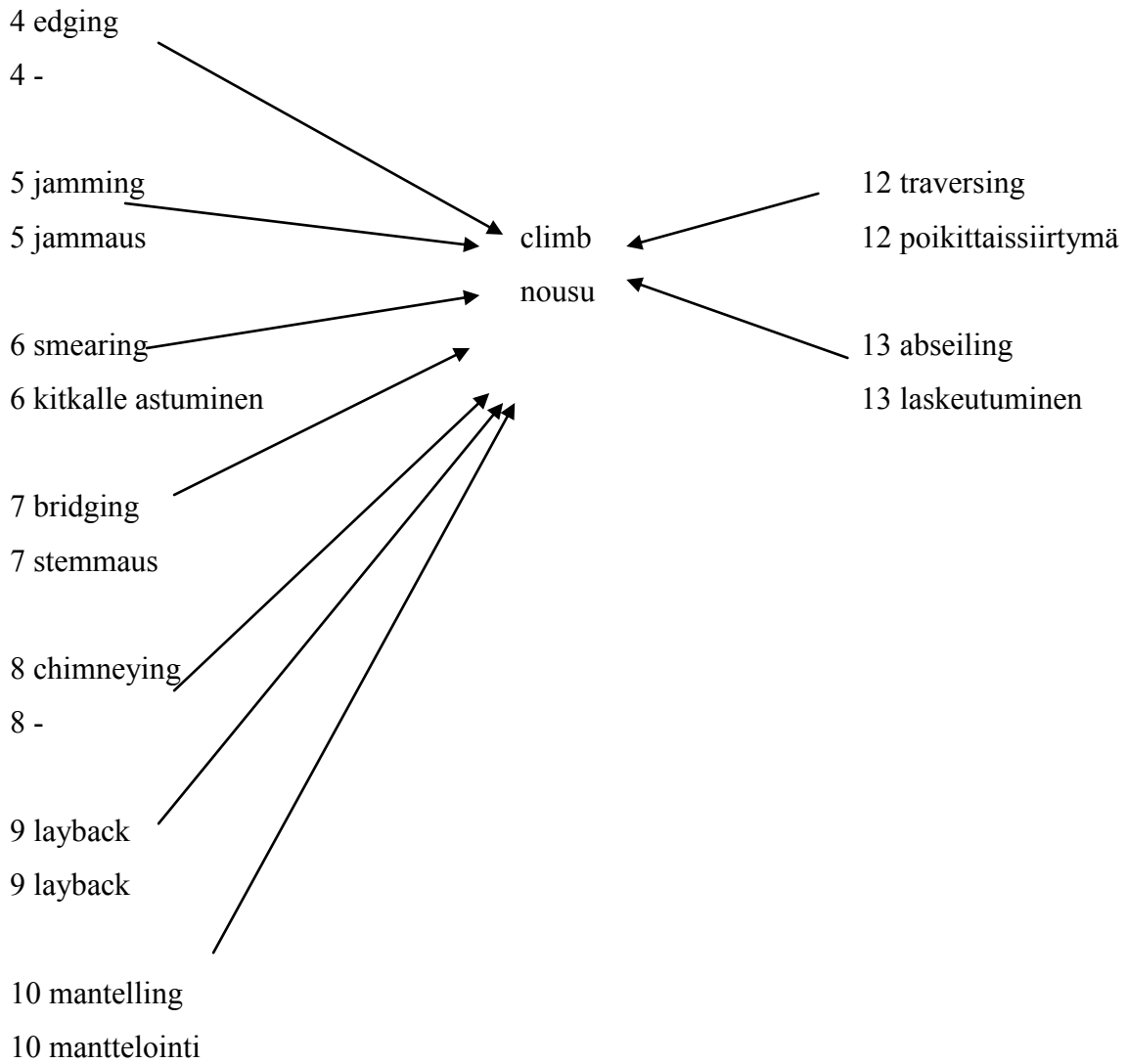
As far as the etymology of the climber's roles is concerned, out of the abovementioned concepts the Finnish concept *liidaaja* is the only one affected by the English language. The concept of *second*, then, has a rather colloquial equivalent in Finnish, which is *kakkonen*. The *belayer* is the only one of the concepts, which has a formal Finnish translation, namely *varmistaja*.

In the scope of the present thesis, *rock climbing* entails many factors that can be considered actions of the sport. Furthermore, they all contribute to a *climb*, which is the result of a successful series of actions. The factors of *rock climbing* are described in the next paragraphs.



## 4.5 Factors of rock climbing

### Concept system 4



**Figure 7: Concept system 4. Factors of rock climbing**

According to Koski and Arasola (2006: 83, 92), climbing is all about controlling one's own body in relation to the holds (i.e. specific forms in the rock) as well as to the position, strength and friction being used. The way the *climber* ascends from a hold to another is called a move (ibid: 93). Hands should be kept low to avoid over-stretching so that the moves would be as little demanding as possible. Moreover, the *climber's* main focus should be on foot techniques to decrease the strain on their hands. Furthermore, it has to be taken into consideration, whether there are big cracks to surpass or ledges in sight for resting (cf. Creasey et al. 1999: 41–48).

There are numerous ways of climbing rocks, walls or ice formations (cf. Korosuo 2017: 9). Hence, along with its subtypes or equipment being used, *rock climbing* can be categorised according to its styles and techniques, which makes categorisation of the concepts more complex. Because of the countless moves let alone other hand and foot techniques that can be practiced on rock walls, this study focuses only on a few of them.

As mentioned before, techniques can be seen as actions leading to a *climb*, and therefore in Figure 7, they are in associative relations with the concept of *climb*. The *climb* in turn is considered the result of *rock climbing* (cf. Korosuo 2017: 227).

According to Koski and Arasola (2006: 93), along with different techniques, climbing often entails *traversing* or even *abseiling* to finish the *climb*. Therefore, they can be seen as actions of *rock climbing*, and they are described in the Figure 7 as well. The techniques illustrated in the concept system in Figure 7 are the most common ones used in Finland (cf. Korosuo 2017: 9), and they are explained in the following passages.

In Figure 7, *edging*, *jamming* and *smearing* depict foot or hand techniques used in rock climbing. Moreover, *bridging*, *chimneying*, *layback* and *mantelling* represent other techniques that are used to surpass e.g. cracks or corners on rock (cf. Walker 1991, 60–65), and they also contribute to the *climb*.

According to Graydon (1992: 160), climbers step on most of the holds by using the techniques of *edging*, *jamming* or *smearing*. *Edging* is a foot technique, in which the side of the foot is placed over the hold (ibid.). Some holds, such as edges, are handy regardless of their size and can be used with both hands and feet (Creasey et al. 1999: 250).

Based on the literature used in this study, it would seem that the concept of *edging* is not translated into Finnish as such. However, the hold that is called edge (*lista*) is also known in the Finnish climbing vocabulary, and the technique of stepping on the edge is used by Finnish climbers as well (cf. Korosuo 2017: 54 and Koski and Arasola 2006: 101).

When climbing on cracks instead of actual holds, the climber jams, i.e. fills the crack with either their feet, fingers or their entire body depending on the size of a crack (cf. Walker 1991: 59). This technique is called *jamming* in English. Alas, the Finnish concept *jammaus* has its origins in English.

According to Walker (1991: 58), the climbing route may lack footholds all together. Therefore *smearing*, i.e. the technique of using the friction between the shoe sole and rock to create a foothold, is of essence (Creasey et al. 1999: 40). This type of foot technique is according to Korosuo (2017: 54), called *kitkalle astuminen* in Finnish (stepping on friction, translation mine) but it also has a slang words of its own, namely *smearaaminen* or *smearaus*, which originate from English. Haarala (1981: 35) advises that terminology work should favour translated terms instead of loan words. Loan words are more difficult to inflect than the translated ones (ibid.), which is also the case in the concepts *smearaaminen* and *smearaus*.

The other techniques described in Figure 7 are *bridging*, *layback* and *mantelling*. According to Walker (1991: 92), *bridging* is overcoming a corner or a wide gap with the help of the climber's own body, with feet pushed on the opposite walls. *Stemming* is a synonym for *bridging*, and it was found based on the Internet search made for the concept of *bridging* (cf. Corrigan 2016). The concept of *bridging* is preferred to *stemming* in the English literature used in this study. Furthermore, the concept of *bridging* does not translate into standard Finnish as such but the Finnish concept of *silta* (bridge) is used in this context (cf. Koski and Arasola 2006: 102). In Korosuo (2017: 54), *stemmaaminen* is used to refer to the same concept.

*Mantelling* is performed using both pull and push movement and getting one foot up to a wide hold, usually a ledge. Usually there are only few other holds nearby (Walker 1991: 93). The Finnish concept *manttelointi* is derived from the English mantelshelf.

Along with *jamming*, cracks can be surpassed by using the technique of *layback* (Korosuo 2017: 62). In *layback* the opposing force of pulling with the hands and pushing with the feet is used (Walker 1991: 93). It would seem that there is no Finnish equivalent to the concept of *layback*, which is why the English concept is also used in the Finnish climbing literature (cf. Korosuo 2017: 62).

Climbing is usually considered movement heading upwards, but it often involves *traversing* or even *abseiling*. In Figure 7, the concepts of *traversing* and *abseiling* are also depicted as action leading to a *climb*, and therefore they are in an associative relation to the concept of *climb*.

*Traversing* is moving horizontally (Koski and Arasola 2006: 93). The concept of *traversing* has several synonyms in Finnish, such as *poikittaissiirtymä* or *poikkikulku*, which would be the preferred terms in the frame of a normative terminology work (cf. Haarala 1981: 35). Furthermore, *poikkari*, *traverse* or *traverssi* are all Finnish synonyms for *traversing* but their meaning might confuse those who are not familiar with the climbing terms. Haarala states (1981: 35) that in terminology work, foreign words ought to be avoided, and translations, such as *poikittaissiirtymä* or *poikkikulku* in this study, are preferable when deciding on the terminology.

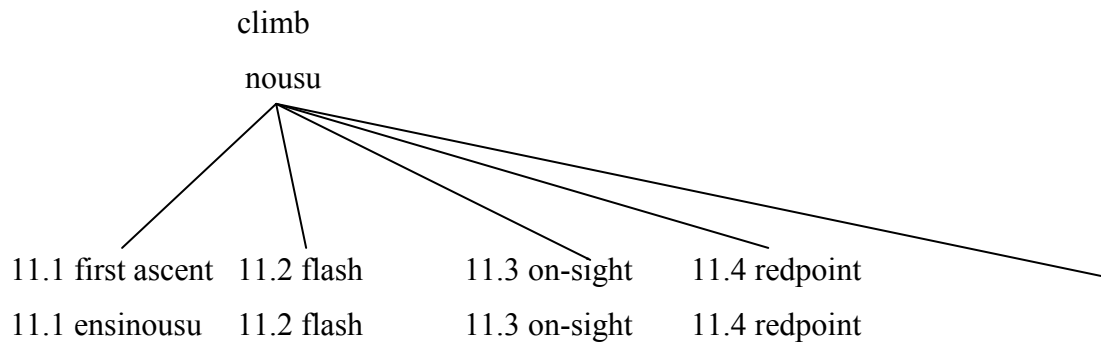
Sometimes, when trying to reach their goal, the *climber* may also be forced to *abseil* or *rappel*, which means moving downwards by using the friction of a rope (cf. Barton 1995: 86–87). *Abseiling* stems from a German word, whereas *rappelling* is an American English term and has its origins in French (Creasey et al. 1999: 250). The Finnish equivalent for *abseiling* is *laskeutuminen*. The descent itself is also a part of climbing, especially when coming down the route. Yet, it is not considered a form of climbing as such, even though some people climb for instance skyscrapers and other high objects only to descend from them (Koski and Arasola 2006: 25).

Creasey et al. (1999: 35) states that there is an infinite number of finger grip angles and arm positions used in climbing, but the beginner should acquaint themselves with at least the most usual types of holds. The future studies could list all of the most general holds along with moves that are used in climbing, because the slang used in Finnish is an interesting field to venture.

The different *climbs* can be categorised according to the methods that are used to finish the *climb*. Some of the most common *climbs* are explained in the next passages.

## 4.6 Types of climbs

### Concept system 5



**Figure 8. Concept system 5. Types of climbs**

When *rock climbing* is performed successfully, it is called a *climb*. As Korosuo (2017: 227) points out, there are different types of a *climb* and they depend on, whether or not the climber has information about the route beforehand. Furthermore, it is of essence, whether or not the *climb* is performed without resting on the belay or without falling from the lead (cf. Creasey et al. 1999: 17 and Korosuo 227). The aforementioned characteristics are the distinguishing features of the subconcepts of *climb*. Thus, in Figure 8 *first ascent*, *on-sight*, *redpoint* and *flash* are subordinate concepts of a *climb* and in a generic relation to their superordinate concept. The extra line was added to the concept system to demonstrate the types of *climbs* that are not explained in this study.

As far as the terminology collection is concerned, it would seem that there are no Finnish equivalents to the abovementioned types of *climbs*, because the English concepts are also used in the Finnish literature (cf. Korosuo 2017: 227).

It would seem that the concept of *climb* is not defined in the literature that the present study relies on. Therefore, I have excluded the term of *climb* from the glossary but it is used to define more specific concepts regarding the ways of climbing. The subordinate concepts of *climb* are explained in the next passages.

According to Korosuo (2017: 228), the *first ascent* or *first climb*, *ensinousu* in Finnish, is successful when the route is climbed free for the first time, after which the route is graded and named by the climber in question.

*Flash* is climbing in one push using prior knowledge of the route. *On-sight* is considered climbing in one go without falls or prior knowledge of the route, and *redpoint* then is practicing the moves of a *climb* before completing it without falling. Hence, *redpoint* requires several tries before the *climb* is completed (Creasey et al. 1999: 17).

Because the scope of this study had to be delimited to the most basic styles and techniques of *rock climbing*, many factors involved in the sport had to be excluded. For instance, the notion of falling would have to be taken into consideration as well. According to Koski and Arasola (2006: 88), everyone falls at some point of their climbing career, and therefore it is important to both assess the risks and even practice it beforehand.

Based on some Internet searches, there are slang words for falling from the lead in Finnish, such as ‘sturtsi’ and ‘räpsy’ (cf. Oulun kiipeilyseura 2017 [Oulu Climbing Association]). Therefore, further studying of the field would be in place in future studies, to see whether Finnish concepts for falling have equivalents in English and what is the etymology behind the abovementioned words that sound even a bit onomatopoeic to the ears of a layman.

## 5. CONCLUSION

When studying the diverse world of climbing, it soon became apparent that it would be difficult to grasp the entity within the scope of the present study. Furthermore, there are several perspectives of looking at climbing. Therefore, it was almost impossible to build flawless concept systems that would describe the relations between different subcategories of climbing as well as the styles of performing them.

Furthermore, because the subject area of climbing is so vast, the scope of the study had to be delimited to rock climbing. I wanted to focus on rock climbing in its simplest form, which can be practiced as little equipment as possible, and because it is a sport that is constantly increasing its popularity in Finland.

It was also interesting to try to find out how the English language has influenced Finnish climbing terminology. Descriptive concept systems in English and in Finnish could be constructed and compared to each other. Furthermore, in the present thesis, the English and Finnish concepts were compiled into bilingual concept systems of climbing forms and rock climbing factors.

Finding sufficient climbing terms among concepts that are used either in everyday language or in other subject fields was rather challenging. Furthermore, since the Finnish climbing terminology is yet to be standardised, the focus of this study was on collecting some of the basic terms. In the scope of the present study, the concepts to be harmonised could only be pointed out, and since the establishing of the terminology is a matter of the future, future studies and the use of language experts are likely to shed more light on the complex terminology of climbing.

Future studies could for instance focus on questions such as, whether there are some concepts in the field of mountain climbing missing in the Finnish concept system, since mountain climbing cannot be performed in Finland. More importantly, it could also be of interest to study, whether there could be a normative Finnish climbing vocabulary. The variation in the categorisation of the different subtypes of climbing as well as the loan words and slang used may prolong the process of harmonisation of concepts and terms.

The result of this descriptive terminology work, the Glossary of Rock Climbing along with its English and Finnish indices can be found in the Appendices I–II of this study.

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## APPENDIX I – ROCK CLIMBING GLOSSARY

### Terminography

According to Suonuuti (2001: 36), a terminography consists of the terms that are collected into a vocabulary, or a glossary as it is the case in this study. This rock climbing glossary consists of concepts that are closely related to each other, thus including the subcategories and techniques of rock climbing. An alphabetic index both in English and in Finnish are enclosed at the end of the vocabulary. The concepts are numbered in both the glossary and the diagrams. The entry describing abseiling is cited with explanations as follows:

13	Entry number. Some entries, such as rock climbing, have several numbers because they are depicted in more than one concept system.
<b>abseiling</b> /GB/, <b>rappelling</b> /AM/  <i>fi</i> laskeutuminen	English terms, the most preferred term is given first /GB/ British English, /AM/ American English  Finnish equivalent
descending down a rope with the use of friction	definition (begins with a lower case letter, no full stop) possible italics refer to a concept mentioned latter in the vocabulary
Climbers use this technique when they have reached their goal and the cliff is too steep to descend without protection. Abseiling is derived from a German word. (BB)	Indented notes supplementing the definition or giving information on the concept or grammar.
kiipeäminen alas köyden avulla	a Finnish equivalent or translation of the definition in case

	the term does not have a Finnish definition
Alas laskeudutaan köyden ja varmistusvälineiden tuottaman kitkan avulla, kun tavoite on saavutettu ja seinämä on liian jyrkkä laskeuduttavaksi ilman turvavälineitä.	Finnish equivalent notes supplementing the concept.
Sources: MC:1999, 250	The initials in the sources refer to the literature cited in the References of the study (see page 35).

Disclaimer: Due to the relatively small size of the vocabulary in question, the vocabulary represents only a small portion of the rich and varied terminology of rock climbing. It should not be regarded as a handbook for climbing because it is merely a study of the terminology. In any case, when embarking on the hobby, experts of climbing should be consulted.

Due to its short history in the Finnish sporting culture, there seems to be no official, standardised terminology for climbing in Finnish. Some of the Finnish terms do not have a translation of their own, such as *redpoint* or *flash*. In some cases, the English term does not seem to have a Finnish equivalent, such as *edging* or *chimneying*. Hence, the abovementioned English terms are listed also in the Finnish Index (see Appendix II) so that the Finnish reader would be able to locate them.

## Rock Climbing Glossary

1

### **mountain climbing; mountaineering**

*fi* vuorikiipeily

sport where peaks of steep rock walls are attempted to reach (MC)

Mountain climbing is a sport that has been practiced already for thousands of years. In mountain climbing high rockfaces of several hundred metres are reached, which requires good mental and physical abilities. At its best, mountain climbing entails all the subtypes of climbing. (MC)

urheilumuoto, jossa noustaan satoja metrejä korkeille kallioseinämille (K&A)

Sources: K&A: 2005, 25; MC: 1999, 8

1.1;2

**rock climbing**

*fi* kalliokiipeily

climbing on relatively low-lying natural walls (KW)

Rock climbing is a type of mountain climbing but it takes places on a smaller scale than mountain climbing, because it can be practiced on more low-lying lands. (KW) For instance, in Finland there are only larger rockfaces and hills instead of mountains. (K&A)

kiipeily luonnon muovaamalla, matalilla seinämällä (K&A)

Kalliokiipeilyä harjoitetaan vuoria matalammilla kallioilla. Turvallisinta kalliokiipeily on yläköysivarmistettuna, mikä vaatii varmistusten rakentamista ja kestävyuden arvioimista. (K&A)

Sources: K&A 2006: 20–21, KW: 1991, 6

1.1.1

**aid climbing**

*fi* tekninen kiipeily, tekno

climbing on belays (KW)

The artificial belays can be e.g. pitons, bolts, wedges or mechanical devices, such as chocks that function as an anchor in the rock. (KW)

kiipeily varmistusten varassa

Varmistusvälineiden määrä riippuu kiipeilyreitien vaativuudesta. Vaikeammilla reiteillä tarvitaan tikkaita ja hakoja. (SK)

Sources: KW:1991, 92; SK:2017, 183; 227

1.1.2

**bouldering**

*fi* boulderointi, boulderkiipeily

climbing without protection in a height from which it is reasonable to fall from (GH)

Bouldering takes place unroped on any climbing surface such as a small rockface or artificial climbing walls (GH). A crash pad is used underneath to avoid injuries in case of a fall. (K&A)

kiipeily siirtolohkareilla turvallisella korkeudella maasta ilman köysivarmistusta (K&A)

Kiipeilyseinillä tapahtuvaa boulderointia kutsutaan myös

sisäseinäboulderoinniksi. Boulderpatjaa käytetään putoamisen varalta. (K&A)

Sources: GH: 2000, 95; JJ:2004, 65, 73; K&A, 2006:19

### 1.1.3

#### **indoor climbing**

*fi* seinäkiipeily

climbing on artificial walls or rock gyms (GH)

kiipeily sille rakennetuissa tiloissa (K&A)

Sources: GH 2000: 12; K&A 2006: 19–20

### 1.1.4

#### **sport climbing**

*fi* urheilukiipeily, sporttikiipeily

rock climbing with fixed bolt protection (MC)

Sport climbing focuses on techniques and hard moves. Bolts are used as main protection and they are fixed in place beforehand. (MC)

kalliokiipeily pultein varmistetulla reitillä (SK)

Sporttikiipeilyssä pystytään keskittymään vaikeampiin liikkeisiin, kun varmistukset on kiinnitetty muutaman metrin välein reitille etukäteen.

Fyysisesti haastava mutta suhteellisen turvallinen laji, muistuttaa kiipeilyhallissa tapahtuvaa seinäkiipeilyä. (SK)

Sources: MC: 1999, 251; SK: 2017, 11–12

### 1.1.5

#### **traditional climbing; trad climbing**

*fi* perinteinen kiipeily, traditionaalinen kiipeily; trädikiipeily

climbing with natural protection (MC)

Protection on the route is placed by the first climber, *leader*. The *second* climber removes the protection during climbing, and ideally no traces of climbing are left in the rock. (MC)

kiipeily luonnollisin varmistuksin (SK)

Liidaaja kiinnittää varmistukset reitille, ja toisena tuleva kiipeilijä poistaa ne, joten kallioon ei pitäisi jäädä jälkiä kiipeilystä (SK)

Sources: MC:1999, 15; SK:2017, 227

## 2.1

**bottom roping, leading**

*fi* alaköysikiipeily, liidau

climbing with the rope dropping below the climber (KW)

*Belayer* holds the rope at the bottom so that the *leader* will not fall all the way, should an accident happen (MC). Furthermore, running belays may be placed for protection (KW).

kiipeily, jossa köysi kuljetetaan mukana (SK)

Alaköysikiipeilyssä kiipeilijän köysi varmistetaan alhaalta käsin, ja köysi kiinnitetään välivarmistuksiin reitin varrella. (SK)

Sources: KW: 92, MC: 250 SK: 227

## 2.2

**top roping**

*fi* yläköysikiipeily

securing the climber with a rope from above (MC)

Style entails the rope being anchored at the top of the climbing route. (MC)

kiipeily reitin yläosaan ankkuroidun köyden avulla

Köysi kulkee yleensä *varmistajasta* ankkurin kautta kiipeilijään. (SK)

Sources: MC: 1999, 251; SK: 2017, 227

## 3.1

**leader**

*fi* liidaaja, ykkönen

first climber (MC)

The leader places protection on the climbing route. (MC)

köysiryhmän ensimmäinen (J&R)

Köysikiipeilyssä ensimmäisenä kiipeävä kuljettaa köyttä mukanaan ja asettaa varmistukset reitille. (J&R)

Sources: MC:1999, 250; J&R:2004, 78

## 3.2

**second***fi* kakkonen

climber coming on the rope after the leader (MC)

The climber, who climbs after the leader, may belay the leader and remove the unnecessary protection. (MC)

liidaajan jälkeen tuleva kiipeilijä (SK)

Köysikiipeilyssä toisena kiipeävä irrottaa varmistusvälineet, kun niitä ei enää tarvita. Kakkosta varmistetaan ylhäältä käsin. (SK)

Sources: MC:1999, 251; SK:2017, 228

## 3.3

**belayer***fi* varmistaja

climber securing the leader (KW)

Usually the second climber is an inactive climber, who holds the rope so that the active climber will not fall all the way down in case of an accident (MC: 1999, 250). The rope is anchored with belay devices either to the rock or an artificial piece of equipment such as a chock to prevent the climber from falling (KW).

liidaajan kiipeilyn turvaava kiipeilijä (K&amp;A)

Köyden avulla varmistetaan liidaaja joko maasta tai toisesta varmistuspisteestä käsin. Köysi ankkuroidaan joko suoraan kallioon tai varmistusvälineeseen estämään putoamista.

Sources: MC:1999, 250; KW: 1991, 92; K&amp;A: 2006, 84

## 4

**edging***fi* -

using the side of a shoe to step on footholds (KW)

kengänsyrjän asettaminen listamaiselle kallionmuodolle (SK)

Sources: KW: 1991, 92; SK 2017,54

5

**jamming***fi* jammaus, jammi

style in which any part of the body can be put into a crack or hole to aid the ascent (MC)

The holds on indoor walls are often too small for jamming. (MC)

käden, jalan tai muun ruumiinosan kiilaaminen halkeamaan (SK)

Sisäseinien muodot ovat usein liian pieniä jammauksen muodostamiseen. (SK)

Sources: MC:1999, 250; SK: 2017, 99

6

**smearing***fi* kitkalle astuminen, smearaaminen

using friction to create a foothold (KW)

päkiän painaminen kalliota vasten kitkan muodostamiseksi (SK)

Sources: SK: 2017, 54; KW: 58

7

**bridging***fi* stemmaus

overcoming a corner or a wide gap with the help of a climber's own body (KW)

jalkojen painaminen isoja halkeamia tai kallion sisäkulmia vasten (SK)

Sources: KW: 1991, 92; SK: 2017, 54, 227

8

**chimneying***fi* -

climbing a wide crack by using the whole body (KW)

kiipeäminen suuressa halkeamassa painaen selkä ja jalkapohjat toista seinää ja kädet ja polvet toista seinää vasten (SK)

Sources: KW: 1991, 92; SK: 2017, 60



9

**layback***fi* layback

move using opposing force of pulling with the hands and pushing with the feet (KW)

käsien sivulle vetäminen halkeaman reunasta ja samanaikaisesti jalkojen vetäminen vastakkaiseen suuntaan (SK)

Sources: KW: 1991, 93, SK: 2017, 62

10

**mantelling***fi* manttelointi

move used to reach a ledge by changing a pull movement to a push (KW)

Mantelling is performed using both pull and push movement and getting one foot up to a wide hold, usually a ledge. Usually there are only few other holds nearby (KW).

tasanteelle kiipeäminen painamalla kämmenet kalliota vasten ja punnertamalla kädet suoriksi (SK)

Sources: KW: 1991, 93, SK: 2017, 62

11.1

**first ascent; first climb***fi* ensinusu

successful free climb after which the route is graded and named (BB)

reitin kiipeäminen vapaasti ennen muita kiipeäjiä (SK)

Reitin ensimmäisenä kiipeävä nimeää reitin ja arvioi sen vaikeusasteen

Sources: BB: 1995, 44; SK: 2017, 228

11.2

**flash***fi* flash

climbing in one push using prior knowledge of the route (MC)

reitin kiipeäminen ensimmäisellä yrityksellä etukäteistietoa hyväksikäyttäen (SK)

Sources MC:1999, 17; SK:2017, 227

11.3

**on-sight***fi* on-sight

climbing in one push without falls or prior knowledge of the route (MC)

reitin kiipeäminen ensimmäisellä yrityksellä ilman etukäteistietoa, putoamatta ja lepäämättä köyden tai varmistusten varassa (SK)

Sources MC:1999, 17; SK:2017, 227

11.4

**redpoint***fi* redpoint

practicing the moves of a climb before completing it without falling (MC)

reitit kiipeäminen putoamatta ja lepäämättä köyden tai varmistusten varassa (SK)

Sources MC:1999, 17; SK:2017, 227

12

**traversing***fi* poikkikulku, poikittaissiirtymä, poikkari, traverse, traverssi  
moving horizontally (MC)

The length of traversing may vary from a few moves to a full pitch, i.e., the length of a rope. (MC)

sivuttaissuunnassa tapahtuva kiipeily (SK)

Poikkikulku voi olla muutaman liikkeen tai jopa koko reitin pituinen. (MC)

Sources: MC:1999, 251; JJ:2004, 79; SK 2017, 228

13

**abseiling** /GB/, **rappelling** /AM/*fi* laskeutuminen

descending down a rope with the use of friction (MC)

Climbers use this technique when they have reached their goal and the cliff is too steep to descend without protection. Abseiling is derived from a German word. (BB)

kiipeäminen alas köyden avulla (K&amp;A)

Alas laskeudutaan köyden ja varmistusvälineiden tuottaman kitkan avulla, kun tavoite on saavutettu ja seinämä on liian jyrkkä laskeuduttavaksi ilman

turvavälineitä.

Sources: K&A 2006, 25; MC:1999, 250; BB:1995, 149

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