POLISH REFRESHER

RECOLLECTION OF THE BASICS AND SOME AFTERTHOUGHTS

*"As far as I am concerned, a skilled tongue
must express all that comes to the mind."*
Juliusz Słowacki

ABSTRACT

This chapter has been written as a practical reminder of important information about the Polish language. Often these might be cliché but hopefully, most of them will refresh slightly forgotten information or encourage the readers to study them further. The numerous examples from translations serve the purpose of reinforcement of the Polish language useful principles.

Standard — describes the linguistic system components that are considered to be the model and correct. It specifies whether a given linguistic form is correct or incorrect.

Usus — a method of using the linguistic system, its units, and the rules of connecting them that has been accepted in a given community.

System — a collection of the language components and their mutual relationships.

1   THE CULTURE OF POLISH LANGUAGE

We learn a language from someone else. First, from our parents. It is definitely helpful if our parents speak correctly and make sure that we use the correct grammar and syntax. However, they may also expect us to learn the language "somewhere down the line" and place the education on permanent hiatus. During our school education, we learn common Polish, even though Polish language teachers make every effort that we learn and appreciate the classic form, that we pursue our own style of expressing ourselves and, by doing so, create our identity. Other teachers educate us in the style used in their respective fields, so that we learn how to express ourselves with precision and use proper terminology.

It is good to remember that we learn our native language all our life. Ludwig Wittgenstein said that having the courage to question what is correct and what is used is a good thing. By knowing the difference between what is commonly used as the correct phrasing, and how it should be used, we expand our own linguistic capability, which in turn impacts how we experience the world.

The idea that "I know that I use the language correctly, because I get good grades" is thus flawed. If we consider ourselves to be a linguistic authority we no longer strive to change.

1.1   The Standard and the Usus in Translations

Sometimes it is difficult to say whether a particular phrasing is correct or not. That is why two registers were created: formal — more appropriate for communication in public, and casual/common, used in less official interactions. You should also keep in mind that standards may differ. Also, we can't always

say that particular phrasing is incorrect; sometimes it may be overused or there simply is a better alternative.

We differentiate a common usage and an established standard. The former comes from social acceptance, the latter is explicitly formulated by experts. For a translator or a technical writer it would be better if the Polish Language Council found it necessary to formulate a particular standard. Such a standard becomes a rule you can refer to when in doubt.

It is worthwhile keeping vigilant attitude towards your own work and to refer to a dictionary, or the Polish Language Council standards and its help center after finishing a translation. You may also want to consult the National Corpus of Polish, or ask a proofreader, or reviewer for assistance.

If the translator was more critical of his own work, we would not have to contend with the "*mapa drogowa*" abomination, being a translation of the term "*roadmap*" used by G.W. Bush. And there would be no such oddities like: "*Mapa drogowa wejścia Polski do strefy euro*","*Mapa drogowa błędów i zaniechań w sprawie Krzysztofa Olewnika*". After all, in Polish we have such alternatives as: "*plan*","*schemat*", *and* "*harmonogram*".

One must admit that a linguistic habit used commonly within a community becomes the basis of a language standard. Specific aspects — even mistakes — if commonplace in casual communication, after a time infiltrate the formal language.

1.2   Newspeak

1-for-1 translations are an issue in localization efforts. "*Newspeak*" is a concept introduced by George Orwell in his novel "*Nineteen Eighty-Four*". "Newspeak" has gone beyond the boundaries of literature and now describes the language created by translators using 1-for-1 translations that mean very little in the native language. "*Niebezpieczeństwo wystąpienia obrażeń w wyniku brakującej pokrywy*" (German: "*Verletzungsgefahr durch fehlende Abdeckungen*") — "as a result (of what?)… " — "w wyniku braku pokrywy".

1.3   Innovations

Innovations are new elements in the language system. Sometimes these are a result of lack of language user's awareness, not knowing the language rules, and sometimes due to deliberate action. They complement the language in the effort to name things, e.g., "dekomunizacja", "walentynki", "samochód", "tlen". These regulate and expand the language or make it more precise. These innovations are evaluated by the linguistic authorities. If an innovation is not approved, it becomes a linguistic error.

1.4   Linguistic Error Types

- Inflectional errors — use of incorrect inflection, or use of uninflected words, wrong gender of nouns, incorrect comparison of adjectives, incorrect gradation, no differentiation between the male and female forms of verbs, incorrect verb forms resulting from the use of different patterns.
- Syntax errors — incorrect concord or regimen, incorrect use of prepositions, mismatched syntax structures, incorrect use of participles, incorrect word order.
- Lexical errors — incorrect use of words, such as meaning errors, redundancy, incorrect synonyms, generalization, overuse of buzzwords, incorrect use or overuse of pronouns, pleonasm, phraseology errors.

- Stylistic errors — circumlocution, ambiguity, shorthands, mixing styles, poor vocabulary evidenced by overuse of pronouns, unnecessary embellishment, using words that negatively impact readability.

1.5   Where to Find Answers in Case of Doubts?

Simple: ask someone who knows for sure.

Apart from a friend who uses the language with ease, you may want to ask a language teacher, have the text verified by a reviewer, or refer to a dictionary yourself.

The PWN publishes basic dictionaries: *"Wielki słownik ortograficzny z zasadami pisowni i interpunkcji"*, *"Wielki słownik poprawnej polszczyzny"*, *"Wielki słownik wyrazów bliskoznacznych"*, *"Słownik języka polskiego"*, *"Wielki słownik wyrazów obcych"*, *"Wielki słownik paronimów, czyli wyrazów mylonych"*, *"Wielki słownik frazeologiczny z przysłowiami"*.

"Słownik gramatyczny języka polskiego" (by Zygmunt Saloni, Marcin Woliński, Robert Wołosz, Włodzimierz Gruszczyński, Danuta Skowrońska) is available in the form of a software application distributed on CDs. A book describing basic concepts described in the glossary is provided with the CD, such as inflection, as well as a user manual for the application.

"Uniwersalny słownik języka polskiego" is available at www.usjp.pwn.pl. You may also want to consult the Polish language corpus which includes examples of context for proper term use.

The www.poradnia.pwn.pl page provides access to a linguistic help forum where one can find answers to previously asked questions.

2   GRAMMAR REMINDER FOR TECHNICAL TRANSLATORS

2.1   Introduction

20th century saw the birth of various grammar concepts during the attempts to formalize different languages. This effort had a significant impact on modern IT. We will focus on traditional grammar concepts by Zenon Klemensiewicz that borrow many ideas from Latin.

2.2   Syntax and Phraseology

2.2.1   *Sentence Structure – Simple Sentence*

There are 5 sentence parts: subject, predicate, object, modifier, and adverbial. The primary clause are subject and predicate. The object, modifier, and adverbial are elements used in the reference to the subject or predicate.

- Subject

  Subject is the basic part of a sentence which, as a general concept, describes the person or object performing an action. There are a few types of subject:

  - Grammatical — noun in nominative case, personal pronoun in nominative case, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns.

  - Logical — noun in a case other than nominative or other parts of speech that function as a noun — an adjective, conjugated participle, cardinal numbers, ordinal numbers, infinitives.

- Implicit — based on the form of the predicate we can deduce the subject.

Note: A sentence without a subject is also possible.

■ Predicate

Predicate serves to describe the state of the subject or an action performed by it. There are following types of predicate:

- Simple — verb that may be applied to a person or object.

- Complex — comprised of a link (personal form of a verb: ˮbyćˮ, ˮstać sięˮ, ˮzostaćˮ, ˮrobić sięˮ, the particle ˮtoˮ), predicative expression (noun and personal pronouns in instrumental case, adjective and demonstrative pronoun in nominative case, passive and active participle, adjective as a noun, adpositional phrase, comparative phrase, pronouns, numeral, the infinitive).

- Elliptical — the predicate has no link, predicative expression replaces the predicate.

- Descriptive — set phrases are used as predicates such as *ˮwyjść za mążˮ*, *ˮbrać udziałˮ*, *ˮmieć czasˮ*, *ˮbyć pod rękąˮ*, *ˮbyć w pogotowiuˮ*, *ˮmieć się na bacznościˮ*, *ˮmieć na okuˮ*.

■ Attribute

Attributes can serve different functions:

- As an adjective — these are adjectives, adjective participles, adjective pronouns, numerals.

- As a noun — nouns in concord with the described word, nouns in regimen with the described word, modifier in genitive case.

- As a preposition — preposition clause.

- As an object — attached to nouns formed from verbs or adjectives with an object, they answer to questions of dependent cases such as genitive.

- As an adverb — attached to nouns formed from verbs that answer to questions of adverbials, adjectives, adjectival participles.

- As an addition — expanded descriptions for nouns that provide additional information.

■ Object

There are two types of object:

- Direct object — usually in accusative after transitive verbs, after changing active voice into passive voice the direct object becomes subject.

- Indirect object — after changing active voice into passive the indirect object remains unchanged.

■ Adverbials

There are following types of adverbials:

- Of place — these answer to the questions: *where, from where, where to, which way?*

- Of time — these answer to the questions: *when, how long, since when, until when, how often?*

- Of manner — these answer to the questions: *how, in what way?*

- Of degree — these describe strength and intensity of something.

- Of reason — these answer to the questions: *why, for what reason?*

- Of purpose — these answer to the questions: *what for, to what end?*

- Of measure — these answer to the questions: *how much?*

- Of consideration — these answer to the questions: *in what way, due to what?*

- Of condition — these answer to the questions: *under what condition, in what circumstances?*

- Of concession — these answer to the questions: *despite what?*

- Of situation — these answer to the questions: *in what situation?*

2.2.2 *Concord, Regimen, and Affiliation*

Associations in sentences:

- Logical:

  - Affiliation — functions between an invariable and the word it describes, the form of the second word does not change, for example *"czytam głośno"* (*"czytałam głośno", "czytałbym głośno", "czytają głośno"*).

- Grammatical:

  - Concord — the grammatical form of both words is the same, e.g. *"dobry kolega"* (*"dobrego kolegi", "dobremu koledze"*; both words coordinate each other's grammatical form).

  - Regimen — grammatical form of one word is dependent on the other, e.g. *"wrzask psów"* (*whose barking? ⎯ dogs'*; the first word decides on the grammatical form of the second one).

2.3 Sentence Arrangement

While there is definitely some freedom in the way you can arrange a sentence in Polish, still there are limitations you must observe.

The subject should be placed before the predicate. If the object in causative case has the same phrasing as in nominative case, it must be placed after the predicate to help differentiate it from the subject, which is usually in nominative case, e.g.: *Wilki zjadły tygrysy. Tygrysy zjadły wilki.*

The attribute must be placed besides the noun it is describing. Attribute as an adjective must be placed before the noun (*"mleczne cukierki"*), attribute as a noun must be placed after the noun (*"czekolada Jurka"*), the same as in case of an attribute as a preposition (*"cukierki z mleka"*), or an attribute describing permanent features (*"cukierki mleczne"*).

The object should be placed after the predicate, the direct object first followed by indirect objects in the order of cases, in which they were used as objects.

Adverbials of time and place may be positioned at the beginning, or end of a sentence.

You should never place monosyllabic inflectional forms of personal pronouns, or the reflexive pronoun *"go", "mi", "się"* at the beginning or the end of a sentence.

2.4 Active Voice, Passive Voice, and Middle Voice

If the object in causative case has the same form as in nominative case, e.g.: "*Wilki zjadły tygrysy.*" "*Tygrysy zjadły wilki.*", you can use the passive voice: "*Wilki zostały zjedzone przez tygrysy.*", "*Tygrysy zostały zjedzone przez wilki.*" That way the sentence is no longer ambiguous.

Keep in mind however, that overusing the passive voice makes the text more difficult to read.

2.5 Modal Verbs and Deontic Phrases

Based on the grammatical forms used in a sentence we can deduce the authors take on the subject manner. That is called modality. A piece of text may convey a statement, an assumption, a question, a demand, or an expression of emotions or desires.

In manuals you should definitely avoid the assumption modality. "*Chyba należy przeciąć czerwony kabel.*" As such, you should avoid: *podobno, na pewno, chyba.*

Manuals include phrases that are instructions of different severities — requests, suggestions, and, ultimately, orders. These phrases must follow specific categories. The conviction that the user needs to perform actions in a specific manner can be expressed using the deontic modality:

- Recommendations (commands): *powinien, trzeba, należy*.
- Prohibition: *nie wolno*.
- Permission: *wolno, można*.

2.6 Sentence without a Subject

Sentences that have no subject look like this: "*Wykonano obwolutę na książkę*" or "*Rozpoczęto procedurę odliczania*". These are useful when the source text, in particular English or German, uses passive voice. Most passive voice phrases may be replaced with a sentence without a subject, which in Polish sounds a lot more natural and is easier to understand.

2.7 Punctuation

Keep in mind during translation, that punctuation rules of the source language may be completely different from the rules of the target language. You should never copy the punctuation of the source text.

In Polish the placement of commas depends on the sentence structure, and not on pauses in the spoken language.

2.7.1 *Comma*

We use the comma to separate:

- All subordinate clauses.
- Coordinate clauses linked without conjunctions.
- Coordinate clauses linked using opposing conjunctions (*a, ale, lecz, jednak, jednakże, zaś, wszakże, owszem, natomiast, tylko, tylko że, jedynie, przecież, raczej, tymczasem, za to*).
- Coordinate clauses linked using resultative conjunctions (*więc, dlatego, toteż, to, zatem, wobec tego, skutkiem tego, wskutek tego*.
- Coordinate clauses linked using clarifying conjunctions (*czyli*, *to jest*, *to znaczy*, *innymi słowy*).
- Coordinate clauses linked using joining, disconnecting or excluding conjunctions (*i, bądź, tudzież, oraz, albo, lub, ni, ani, czy, zarazem*).
- However in the case that the conjunction *i* is equal to *toteż, więc* you can place a comma before it:

  Te dane są już nieaktualne, i trzeba będzie zdobyć nowe.

- If the conjunctions repeat in a sentence while performing the same function, place a comma before the repeated conjunction:

  Powyższa aplikacja nie działa ani w systemie Windows, ani w systemie Linux.

- If the same conjunction appears in a sentence, but its function is different, there is no need to use a comma.

- Don't use a comma before the conjunction **"czy"** used to link coordinate clauses of different meaning:

    Idziesz na piechotę czy jedziesz autobusem?

- If the conjunction *czy* introduces a coordinate clause, use a comma:

    Użytkownik powinien sprawdzić, czy urządzenie działa prawidłowo.

- Subordinate clauses incorporated into main clauses should always be separated using two commas, even if the next part of the sentence begins with a conjunction that usually is not separated using a comma:

    Należy zatem określić ilości, w odniesieniu do których nie złożono wniosków, i dodać je do ilości ustalonych dla następnego okresu.

- If the conjunctions are linked to other conjunctions, particles and adjectives, use a comma before the whole phrasing:

    chyba że, chyba żeby, ile że, jak gdyby, jako że, mimo że, pomimo to, pomimo że, tylko że, właśnie gdy, właśnie jak, właśnie kiedy, podczas gdy, zwłaszcza gdy, zwłaszcza jeżeli, zwłaszcza kiedy, zwłaszcza że

    Minimalna dozwolona wartość wynosi 20, chyba że w instrukcji użytkowania produktu określono inaczej.

- If the sentence contains correlated conjunctions (conjunctions consisting of two parts that are not right next to each other, but that are separated with other words), use a comma before the second part of the conjunction:

dopóty..., dopóki...	*ilekroć..., tylekroć...*
jeżeli..., to...	*nie tylko..., lecz także...*
o ile..., o tyle...	*wówczas..., gdy...*
wprawdzie..., ale...	*wprawdzie..., lecz...*
wprawdzie..., jednak...	*wprawdzie..., jednakże...*
wtedy..., kiedy...	*zarówno..., jak i...*

- Always separate adverbial participles that end with "*-ąc*","*-łszy*","*-wszy*" using a comma, even if these are accompanied with other phrasings:

    Reasumując, w tej wersji zostanie wyświetlony komunikat ostrzegawczy, jeśli ciśnienie będzie miało nieprawidłową wartość.

- If the adverbials that end with "*-ąc*","*-łszy*","*-wszy*", and their accompanying phrases are interposed, separate them using two commas:

    Użytkownik, wykonując czynności opisane w punktach 2–7, powinien zachować szczególną ostrożność.

- Don't use a *comma* before the comparative element introduce by conjunctions like *jak*, *jakby*, *jako*, *niż*, *niby*, *niby to*, *niczym*, *ni to*, *podobnie*, unless these are clearly appositions:

    Wartości są niższe niż te podane w tabeli powyżej.

- However use a comma in case, where such a phrasing becomes a subordinate clause in a compound sentence:

    Jest wyższy niż Piotr.

    Jest wyższy, niż myślałem.

Więcej niż cztery.

Więcej, niż przewidziano.

- Don't separate adverbials of a different nature, e.g. of time and place:

Szkolenie się odbędzie we Wrocławiu dnia 22 kwietnia 2006 r.

- Don't use a comma before *itd.*, *itp.*
- Don't use a comma to separate single adverbials of time, place, frequency, etc.
- Usually there is no need to use a comma after the following phrasings (used at the beginning of a sentence) *zgodnie z, bez względu na, niezależnie od, w świetle, stosownie do, w odniesieniu do, w związku z, w odróżnieniu od, wobec, na podstawie, na mocy, w następstwie, w wyniku, w przypadku [czegoś], ze względu na, na zasadzie odstępstwa od, co do*. This rule applies only if these phrasings are not followed by an interposition, or if they are not considered an apposition or interposition.
- Don't use a comma before or after a phrasing that begins with "w celu".
- Use a comma to separate equivalent attributes:

Nowy, lepszy model.

Jest to książka mądra, ciekawa, pouczająca.

- Don't use a comma to separate non-equivalent attributes, where the first attribute describes the connection of the described word and the second attribute:

Nowy lepszy model.

Dostałem piękne wieczne pióro.

Keep in mind that a comma may drastically change the meaning of the phrase, e.g.:

Paris, Texas. (Paris ─ Texas.)

Paint it black. (Paint it, black.)

2.7.2 *Period*

- A period signifies the end of a sentence. In a case like that it may be replaced by a question mark, an exclamation mark, or an ellipsis.
- Also you use a period after an abbreviation which consists of a first letter or the very first few letters of a word.
- Use a period after Arabic numerals. Do not use a period at the end of a chapter or a section title.
- Remember to place the period after the closing quotation mark:

Zapisz plik w folderze „Moje dokumenty".

- Use a period at the end of abbreviations such as *Wł., Wył.*, etc.
- A period is also used to separate digits in version codes, chapter numbers, and IP addresses*: 92.168.1.1, wersja 5.23, rozdział 1.3.12.*
- A period ends a statement that means a sentence or an elliptical sentence.
- Usually use a period after Arabic numerals. *w 2. osobie, lata 80., lata 90.*
- Don't use a period after Roman numerals: *XII Festiwal Muzyki Dawnej.*
- Don't use a period after a number signifying a date, if the month is spelled as a whole word, or using roman numbers: *16 kwietnia, 15 VIII 2011 r.*
- Don't use a period for hours: *w godz. 8─16.*
- If it is clear from the context, that the digit used is an ordinal number, there is no need to use a period: *Urządzenie należy do 3 klasy.*

- Use a period after quotation marks, even if the quote consists of an entire sentence. If the quote ends with an ellipsis, a question mark, or an exclamation mark, place that sign before the closing quotation mark and use a period after the quotation mark: *"…?"*.
- Always use a period after the closing quotation mark and not before it, even if an entire sentence is placed within quotation marks:

Należy sprawdzić poziom naładowania akumulatora. Jeżeli akumulator jest rozładowany, nie wolno włączać urządzenia. Po wykonaniu tej czynności należy włączyć urządzenie.

- If the abbreviation consists of a beginning of a word, use a period at the end: *godz., prof., ul., wł., wył.*
- If the abbreviation includes the last letter of the word, don't use a period: *mjr, dr*.
- If the abbreviation replaces a word in a case other than nominative, use a period: *Publikacja dr. Kowalskiego*.
- This rule does not apply in case of women titles, as the abbreviation includes the last letter: *Publikacja dr Kowalskiej*.
- Don't use a period at the end of acronyms. *PWN, PKO, WNT, PRL, USA, UW, SA*.
- Use a period at the end of a Polish multi-word name, where the second (or one of the next ones) word begins with a consonant: *cdn., itd., jw., pw., nd., pt., ww., ds.* The acronym *n.p.m.* is an exception to that rule.
- If the second word (or one of the next ones) is a multi-word name that begins with a vowel, use a period after each of the words: *m.in.*

2.7.3 Connector

Connector, or hyphen, is the shortest dash (-):

- Use the connector to link two equally important parts, e.g. *biało-czerwony*.
- In compound nouns and adjectives, where the first part is a numeral written in digits, the connector is used between both parts, however there is no need to specify the inflectional ending of the numeral, e.g. *"3-letni"* (it is best however to spell it *"trzyletni"*).
- If the sentence includes several compound adjectives, in which only the first part changes, the second part is omitted, e.g. *"4-, 5- i 6-letnie"*, or *"cztero-, pięcio-"* i *"sześcioletnie"*.
- Use the hyphen in multi-part surnames, e.g. *Bachleda-Curuś*.
- Use the hyphen in case of proper names linked with a prefix, e.g. *eks-Amerykanin*.
- Use the hyphen in ISBN numbers, zip codes, etc.
- Use the hyphen when inflecting acronyms: *GOPR, GOPR-u, GOPR-owi, GOPR-em*.
- Sometimes the hyphen is also used when inflecting words that include a slash, e.g. *Pan/i, próbki/-ek*.

2.7.4 Em dash, en dash

Em dash is the longest dash (—):

When to use an em dash:

- Em dash introduces a phrasing that explains or summarizes a thought:

Traktat z Lizbony wprowadził akty delegowane i akty wykonawcze — dwie kategorie aktów o charakterze nieustawodawczym.

- It is also used to replace a repeated phrasing:

W 1995 r. przeznaczono na ten cel 250 mln EUR, a w 1999 r. — 210 mln EUR.

- The em-dash is used to replace implicit verbs like *"jest"* or *"są"* before pronoun *"to"* that introduce the predicative:

  Wiedza — to potęga.

- It is used to more emphatically distinguish a part of a sentence to clarify the meaning:

  Musiało to być — o ile dobrze pamiętam — w roku 1970.

The en dash is the medium size dash: –

When to use the en dash:

- It is used to describe the *"from… to…"* relationship.
- Use the en dash to specify number ranges: *Lekarz przyjmuje w godz. 10–15, w dniach 11–12 lipca 2007 r*.
- The en dash is also used to describe space: *Pociąg relacji Warszawa–Kraków*.
- If the en dash is used to describe the *"from… to…"* relationship between elements that are non-uniform or compound, use a space before and after it: *15 października – 16 grudnia*.

2.7.5 *Space*

- Use a space after punctuation signs, not before them.
- Use a space before the unit signs, except for degrees and percentage:

  25 kg, 18 l, 220 V

  25%, 150°C

2.7.6 *Colon*

- Use a colon in a phrasing where to goal is to count out, list, quote, justify, present results, or explain.
- When the quote is comprised of two or more sentences, it should begin with a capital letter. If it is shorter, you can use a lower case.
- Use a colon where a general thought is followed with a list of details:

  Pewność prawna przyniesie korzyść wszystkim stronom: podmiotom gospodarczym, krajowym i unijnym organom administracji oraz konsumentom.

- When the phrase does not include such a general thought, there is no need to use a colon:

  Pewność prawna przyniesie korzyść podmiotom gospodarczym, krajowym i unijnym organom administracji oraz konsumentom.

- If the list includes two words or expressions linked with the conjunction *i*, there is no need to use a colon:

  W 2007 r. do Unii przystąpiły Rumunia i Bułgaria.

- If the sentence includes a sequential subject and the predicate in plural, use a colon before the list:

  Projekcje przewidują, że średnioroczna dynamika realnego PKB wyniesie w 2011 r. 1,5–2,3%, a w 2012 r. 0,6–2,8%, do czego przyczyniają się: stabilny popyt światowy, umocnienie się inwestycji, działania na rzecz przywrócenia prawidłowego funkcjonowania systemu finansowego i akomodacyjne nastawienie polityki pieniężnej.

- If the predicate is singular, there is no need to use a colon:

  Do konwencji przystąpiła Bułgaria, Dania i Rumunia.

■ Always use a comma before a list introduced by the word *jak, jak np.* and *takie jak*:

Plastikowe worki przemysłowe używane są do pakowania podstawowych produktów, takich jak surowce, nawozy, polimery, materiały budowlane, produkty ogrodnicze i rolne oraz pasze zwierzęce.

2.7.7 *Semicolon*

■ Semicolon is used to separate parts of a sentence more strongly than a comma, but to a lesser extent, than a period. Use a semicolon only to separate phrasings that are equivalent from a logical and syntactical standpoint:

Należy zatem wprowadzić dodatkowe środki zarządzania kryzysami; stosowanie tych środków powinno być możliwie najprostsze.

■ Semicolon is most often used in sentences that include extensive lists with several commas.

2.7.8 *Quotation Marks*

■ The basic form of a quotation mark in Polish are the ordinary Polish quotes: „…".
■ Angled (or German) quotation marks should be used as embedded quotation marks »…«.

„Komunikat »Backup error« oznacza błąd podczas tworzenia kopii zapasowej danych".

■ Use the period after the quotation marks.
■ Use the straight quotation marks only is special cases: "…".
■ Do not use a space after the opening quotation mark or before the closing one.

2.7.9 *Ellipsis*

■ Use the ellipsis to emphasize the expression, e.g. to pause a statement or express disappointment.
■ It can also be used to express the continuation of a thought, however in such cases it is best to use the acronym *"itd. "*:

Funkcje trygonometryczne: sinus, cosinus, tangens itd.

■ Do not use a space before the ellipsis.

2.7.10 *Number Notation*

■ The decimal fraction is separated from the integer by a comma: *123,456*.
■ Numbers comprising up to four digits are written without a space: *1234*.
■ Numbers comprising at least five digits are written with a space between every three digits: *12 345 678*.
■ Decimal fractions are written without a space: *12 345,67890*.
■ Mathematical symbols of arithmetic operations are written with spaces on both sides of the symbol:

1 + 2, 3 − 4, 5 ÷ 6

■ Mathematical symbols of relation are written with spaces on both sides of the symbol:

1 + 2 = 3, 5 > 4, x + y ≤ 7

■ Symbols used to represent the notions of positive and negative values are written without a space: *−10°C, +70°F*.
■ The percentage symbol is also written without a space: *75%*.