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## Table of Contents

**APPLIED LINGUISTICS (UDC 81'33)**

Meshcheryakova E.V., Loktyushina E.A. Meshcheryakova J.V. Intercultural communication in the course of English teachers' training ................................................................. 5

Khalina N.V., Voronin M.S., Valulina E.V. Spatial abilities as the basis of predication in social communications system .......................................................... 8

**URALIC LANGUAGES (UDC 811.51)**

Pozdeeva G.P., Sonina E.V. ‘Paired Noun + Verb’ constructions in Selkup dialects and northern Samoyed languages (Nganasan, Enets and Nenets dialects) ......................................................... 10

Psycholinguistics, Psychology of Language (UDC 81'23)

Kozlova G.A., Denisova V.V. Structure and peculiarities of geographic terminology .................. 13

Tjurkan Ye.A., Kurganova N.I. National world picture through the prism of socio-political discourse .......................................................... 15

**TEXT LINGUISTICS. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS (UDC 81'42)**

Menshakova N.N. Idiostylistic peculiarities of fabricated knowledge in the monograph “The Linguistics Wars” by R.A. Harris ......................................................... 20

Tameryan T.Yu., TsagoloVa V. A. Opposite metaphorical models in the German political discourse .......................................................... 22

Aleksandrova O.I., Zakharova E.V. Websites as part of Russian Islamic discourse ..................... 24

Trubnikova N.V., Ageeva V.V. Discourse analysis and the “History of Notions” of Reinhardt Koseleck in the adoption of the contemporary Western Historiography ..................... 27

Guskova S.V. Header complex in Russian newspapers: functions and types .......................... 31

Shustova I.N. The function of epithets in the American political discourse .......................... 33

**RUSSIAN LANGUAGE (UDC 811.161.1)**


Selemeneva O.A. Existential sentences as a means of representation of the “State of Nature” typical proposition in the Russian language ......................................................... 39

Yuzhakova Ju.A. Identity as a phenomenon and a category of the Russian language .......... 42

Sociolinguistics, Usage of Language (UDC 81'27)

Khalina N.V., Manskov S.A., Belousova V.S., Voronin M.S. Linguistic presumption as evaluation the adequacy of migrants’ language skills ......................................................... 44

Abramova E.I. Linguistic landscape as an object of sociolinguistics ..................................... 48

Chernova N.A., Mustafina J.N. The problem of encouraging educational activity as a way of investigating some interplay between sociocultural theory and second language acquisition ......................................................... 50

Dmitrieva L.M., Dmitrieva D.S. Linguocultural monitoring of the cross-border region: Altai viewed by Chinese students ......................................................... 52

Khalina N.V., Manskov S.A., Belousova V.S., Voronin S.M. Linguistic presumption as the basis of the validity of the human capital ......................................................... 54

**GERMAN LANGUAGE (HIGH GERMAN, STANDARD WRITTEN GERMAN) (UDC 811.112.2)**

Yushkova L.A., Neborskaya V.V. The role of prepositional particles with spatial meaning in the semantic of German colloquial verbal units ......................................................... 56

Pislov E.V. Lexical grammatical specificity of German Catholic prayers on the feasts of the Doctors of the Church ......................................................... 59

General questions relating to both linguistics and literature. Philology (UDC 80) .......................... 62

Valentinova O.I., Preobrazhenskiy S.Yu., Rybakov M.A. Methodological potential of systemology in the interpretation of language phenomena ......................................................... 62

Artamonova M.V. Reproducibility of language units: lingvuo-cognitive aspect ..................... 64

Khalina N.V. The internal activity of the Slavic linguistic culture ......................................................... 66

Yakovleva S.L., Kazantseva I.V., Shestakova O.B. Idioms containing the component BLACK / SCHWARZ
IN THE ENGLISH AND GERMAN LANGUAGES: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS ................................................................. 68

LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGES (UDC 81) ............................................................................................................. 70

BAZAROVA L. V., MAZAEVA T. V. THE PECULIARITIES OF LINGUISTIC MODES USAGE IN POLITICAL DISCOURSE
ON THE MATERIAL OF THE ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES .................................................................. 70

ELDZHIREKIEVA F. M. SYNONYMIC AND ANTONYMIC ROWS OF COLOR NAMING IN LEXICAL ENTRIES AND
MASS MEDIA .................................................................................................................................................. 72

BAKISHIYEVA F. S. A PLAY ON THE NAMES OF ANIMALS IN THE RUSSIAN AND AZERBAIJANI LANGUAGES ...... 74

CZECH LANGUAGE (UDC 811.162.3) .................................................................................................................. 76

Sergienko O. S. ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN EQUIVALENTS TO THE PROVERBS OF CZECH ACTIVE
PAREMIOLOGICAL FUND ................................................................................................................................... 76

TEXT LINGUISTICS. DISCOURSE ANALYSIS. TYPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS (UDC 81'4) .............................................. 78

SUVOROVA P. E., ZYUZINA I. A. AUTHORS' STRATEGIES IN THE ENGLISH TEXT (ON THE EXAMPLE OF THE
TRILOGY "LORD OF THE RINGS" BY J. R. R. TOLKIEN) ...................................................................................... 78

LENKOVA T. A. ROLE AND USE OF THE PHOTO-LEGEND IN RUSSIAN AND GERMAN MEDIA DISCOURSE ....... 81

SAVELEIEVA E. B., FILATOVA N. A., FILATOVA A. A. AUTHOR'S SPACE NOMINATIVE LOCALIZERS IN ANDRÉI
MAKINE'S NOVEL «LE TESTAMENT FRANÇAIS» ............................................................................................... 83

SOURCES OF LINGUISTICS AND PHILOLOGY. COLLECTIONS OF TEXTS (UDC 801.8) ........................................... 84

MIKHAILOVA M. YU. THE CATEGORY OF INEXPRESSIBLE IN THE NOVELS WITH ECPHRASIS .................. 84

TADZHIBOVA R. R. ON THE PROBLEM OF SEMANTIC AND WORD-FORMING DERIVATIONS IN MODERN ENGLISH
AND RUSSIAN ................................................................................................................................................... 87

SLAVIC / SLAVONIC LANGUAGES (UDC 811.16) ................................................................................................ 89

ZINOVIEVA E. I. QUANTATIVE SET COMPARISONS WITH COMPONENT MONEY IN MODERN RUSSIAN
LANGUAGE CONTRASTED WITH SLAVIC LANGUAGES .................................................................................. 89

SEMANTICS (UDC 81'37) ....................................................................................................................................... 93

GRIDINA T. A., USTINOVÁ T. V. THE POETIC LINGUISTIC NON-STANDARDNESS AND MEANING CONSTRUCTION:
SEMANTIC ASPECTS OF THE ASSOCIATIVE THEORY OF LINGUISTIC CREATIVITY ........................................ 93

KHUDINSHA E. A. THE FOUNDATION OF ENGLISH BASIC TERM ECONOMICS AND ITS DEVELOPMENT .......... 96

RASSADIN V. I. TURKIC-MONGOLIAN PARALLELS AS A PART OF A COMPLEX OF THE MONGOLIAN LANGUAGES
FISHERY TERMINOLOGY ................................................................................................................................ 98

THEORY OF SIGNS. THEORY OF TRANSLATION. STANDARDIZATION. USAGE. GEOGRAPHICAL LINGUISTICS (UDC 81'2) ...101

GLUKHOVA I. V. NON-STANDARD NAMES OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES IN CHELYABINSK ......................... 101

GENERAL STYLISTICS (UDC 81-38) .................................................................................................................... 103

PODDUBSKAYA O. N., LINEVA E. A., SAVELEIEVA E. B., YAKOVLEVA E. N. STYLISTIC FEATURES OF ADVERTISING TEXTS
OF INFORMATIVE AND COMPARATIVE TYPES .................................................................................................... 103

PRACTICAL KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGES (UDC 81'24) .................................................................................. 105

NELUNOVA E. D., ARTEMIEV L. T., DAVYDOVA E. M. INNOVATIVE ACTIVITY: EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS IN THE
CONTEXT OF COMPETENCE-BASED APPROACH ............................................................................................... 105

FOMIN M. M. THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL BASIS OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN BILINGUAL
(MULTILINGUAL) SETTING ................................................................................................................................ 108

BALYKHINA T. M., FEDORENKO A. D. THE EVOLUTION OF PEDAGOGICAL MOBILITY AND INNOVATION MOBILE
LINGUODIDACTICS (IN THE INFORMATION-EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT OF LEARNING RUSSIAN AS A
FOREIGN LANGUAGE) ..................................................................................................................................... 113

RHETORIC OF SPEECH. ART OR TECHNIQUE OF ORAL EXPRESSION (UDC 808.5) .................................................... 115

TIKHOMIROVA A. V., BOGATYREVA O. P., BOGATYREV A. A., ZHURAVLEVA T. A. KEY LINGUODIDACTIC STEPS AND
STAGES OF FL WORDING ACQUISITION ............................................................................................................... 115

DIACETLOGY. GEOGRAPHICAL LINGUISTICS. AREAL LANGUAGES (UDC 81'28) ................................................... 117

MALYKHINA T. M., PISAREVA L. E., PRAVEDNIKOVA T. V. HYDRONIMIC NAMING OF WATER BODIES OF POSEMYE.117

LITERATURE (UDC 82) ......................................................................................................................................... 120

ZYABKO O. D., MODINA G. I. TIME AND SPACE IN AGATHA CHRISTIE’S NOVEL “THE ROSE AND THE YEW TREE”
........................................................................................................................................................................ 120
This article deals with English teachers training for intercultural interaction on the basis of competence approach using modular training technology, relying on effective media communicative interaction. The research is based on the created and approved «Advanced English Guide» and «Advanced English» textbooks. It shows the principles of vocabulary selection, verbal tasks complex.

**Keywords:** intercultural communication, module education, practical course of English.

**Introduction**

Intercultural interaction is regarded as the most important phenomenon in language education. And, no matter how the standards of education have been changing in recent years, intercultural interaction and its manifestation in intercultural communication and foreign language communication will always occupy a leading position in educational programs, courses and disciplines aimed at English language training. These phenomena are the essence of language education, the meaning itself of mastering any language including English, they are always brought to the main objective — to teach to communicate in the language (Asimov, Shchukin, 1999, p. 192), to carry out intercultural communication (Ter-Minasova, 2008). Moreover, these phenomena traditionally come into all educational standards, curricula, requirements for the results of the development of basic educational programs.

**The problem**

Under cross-cultural interaction within this article, we understand the process of forming a new mapping of the world in the minds of future teachers of the English language through the fusion of two or more cultures in the implementation of cross-cultural communication in the process of training. On this basis, we can extract the problem, which certainly occurs when designing the system of training for future professional activity. What ways and means of forming this new world culture could be there? And what foreign language communication competence should be formed in the future English language teachers in order to achieve this goal?

The foreign language speaking implies communication in a foreign language in the space of a foreign linguistic culture, as well as the use of language to achieve specific communicative purposes. Now comes forward the problem of defining a set of competences needed to achieve the specific goals of intercultural interaction. While teaching English intercultural interaction has no global character either as 1) the interaction of the two cultures, or 2) the imposition of one culture to another, and so on, but a narrow specific character when different mappings of the world are intertwined in one individual to be trained.

The Volgograd region, where the study took place, is inhabited by people of more than 130 nationalities, so intercultural process is complicated when the students of the English language are bilingual. The process of language acquisition is often referred to as the process of the formation of a secondary language personality, but in these cases, students are already carriers of a number of cultures, so it comes to multicultural education (Sysoev, 2008).

**Theoretical Background**

At the English lessons in our university the process of cross-cultural interaction is based on mostly such topical approaches in real time as the competence, socio-cultural (Byram, 1997) and problematic. Accordingly, the practice sessions on English language speaking aim at developing competencies which meet modern standards, the ability to solve professional tasks and professional interaction problems, the ability to carry out the intercultural communication (Byram, 1997, 2008; Grishaeva, 2008). The first place is taken by such universal competences as linguistic, sociocultural, discourse and strategic etc.

At the same time we see the intersection of two processes — on the one hand, students learn foreign language culture of English-speaking countries, on the other hand, they are influenced by their native cultures (the culture of their mother tongues) in a multicultural region (Sugrobova, YY, Kochergina, LV, 2015 p. 8 — 9), i.e. the formation of multicultural language personalities is arising. … «The process of intercultural communication in the framework of a globalizing but multipolar world may increase the interaction between languages and cultures» (Protenko, Zhivokina, 2015, p. 6). And overcoming the language barriers is not sufficient to communicate well in a foreign language. It is necessary to overcome the barrier of culture, to learn to think in a different language, feel its structure, to use other foreign-language phrases, to use interpretation, not word-for-word translation.

How can we organize intercultural interaction in such an environment for teaching the subject "Practical course of the first foreign language"?

The solution of the problem

To solve this problem effectively within our university, we created the textbook «Advanced English Manual», the purpose of which is to form the respective competencies of the students, the formation of the language personality within the globalization of language education. The urgency of creating a textbook is justified by the necessity to create the language manuals designed to teach to create works of various genres, to help in the assimilation of normative, communicative and ethical aspects of speech and writing, mastering the basics of speech culture (Strecker, 2007).

In the classroom to practice verbal communication all students are involved in various kinds of foreign language activities, using case studies, problem solving, creating projects, problem learning activities in the form of teaching lessons fragments for schools, system of exercises for students to develop various kinds of speech activity and etc. And when using such strategies the efficiency of formation of intercultural communication competence is affected by various factors (Gololevva). Selecting discursive strategy makes it possible to arrange the nominative funds in relation to specific discursive conditions, thereby ensuring the result adaptability of speech-making activity (Grishaeva 2008, p. 13) to the different interaction situations at the English class.

A unified idea of combining these strategies is a command work (Williams, 2007) and autonomy (Holec, 1981) as a way of engaging in an independent self-employment through the use of interactive resources of the Internet space such as podcasts and modern messengers: Skype, Viber, Messenger, allowing closer the
real situation of language communication; Internet gaming communication conferences, electronic libraries containing linguistic and didactic English texts. This training system suggests to use the principle of equal access to information for cross-cultural communication, interpersonal communication in a foreign language, the command decision that allows to create the conditions for effective work of students in the English language class and in the performance of independent work, which is an integral part of the learning process language in the modern educational space.

... «Actually many languages are borrowing from English, Russian is no exception. But linguistic borrowing is not simply a capture of lexical items; as a result, a new word appears in another language environment with different pronunciation, different grammar categories and even meaning» (Protsenko, 2015, p. 4).

Practice and Result

Solving the challenge of building a new mapping of the world in the implementation of foreign language interaction in the class for practical English course was based on the use of modular training technology with the support of six modules for the fifth semester and the same number of modules for the sixth semester for the 3d year students. Each module includes two parts: 1) The main text with a task complex and 2) Cultural Matters section and subsections (Activity, Interpreting into English, Interpreting into Russian). Topics and content of the modules you can see in the Table number 1.

The present content is necessary for training teachers of a foreign language and is available for multilingual personalities, because in terms of intercultural communication these topics are relevant for various languages and cultures; therefore, we view them as international.

For example, let’s consider the first module in Term 6. The main reading text extract (4 pages) is taken from the novel “Kane and Abel” by Jeffrey Archer, lexis describes relations between parents and children, respectively, the main topic is «Children and their Parents». Activity is helped by 1) Mom’s Survival Tips, 2) Facing and solving the problems 3) Writing a puzzle story or a fairy-tale on the topic of the module. Russian-English interpretation texts are “D.S. Bruner for children, language and understanding” and English-Russian — «Mom Has the Last Word », «Father at Sea».

Each module includes topical and text vocabulary which contain words and word combinations, e.g. «A set of carefully worded questions», «the extent of the mutual hatred», «cut off without a penny», «to be close to flunking out», «to be put on academic probation», «a dropout», etc. The preference is given to (percentage of) informal lexis compared to formal.

Each module ends with team work project, and because students are future teachers of English, the formulation of the basic idea of the project, the distribution of roles, writing the story and etc. is their independent work and performed with minimal teacher assistance.

For example, the fifth semester modules include such interactive forms of activity (using of an active vocabulary and concordances as writing a personal letter to the world famous author, create their own version of contest on the books by one of the authors of the passages included in the modules of the fifth semester; creating the fragment broadcast scenario about the discussed problems, writing own version of the biography of one of the authors, writing their own short detective story or a biographic story about one of the writers in the selected genre (a detective, a biography, a fairy tale, a love story, a puzzle story, a poem and etc.). The textbooks, which were used for training, have been tested for more than 12 years in the Institute of Foreign Languages (Meshcheryakova, Andreyeva, Kakiicheva, 2011, 2015).

Below there is a fragment of a poem by Larissa Shubina, one of our students, now an English teacher at gymnasium 14, Volograd. She was a usual kind of girl

Demanding to a great degree
Like many people she preferred
To argue then agree

Not being pleased with coming morning
She wanted for each day to end
And all she did was always boring ...

... Except with pleasure every minute
Enjoy it to the full extent
Enjoy it, take it, use it, live it.
The way you never would forget ...

The above fragment colorfully illustrates the interaction of the Russian and the English-speaking culture, shows the possible inconsistency of these two languages. Obviously, Larissa has significantly increased the level of English proficiency, she shows her fluency in expressing her ideas and feelings in the form of varied genre, but the structural impact of the Russian language is also clearly seen, i.e., the next challenge would be her skills improving.

Conclusion

In this article we have attempted to show some ways to create conditions for the implementation of cross-cultural interaction in the practical course of English, to demonstrate what material and what means we use to form English language competence for teachers which is necessary to carry out cross-cultural interaction. We have created English language learning modules including teamwork, modern vocabulary of the English language, mainly informal, concordances.

The above study shows that at this stage of the research the tasks are successfully solved and we need to move on to the next step. No matter how fast we implement modern technology, such as modular training, the use of new authentic texts, the independent work increasing (in relation to the educational work within the students group), the use of teamwork, anyway, we have to improve our work constantly, to set new goals and objectives, because changes in the socio-cultural environment, the global educational space, language education and changing the mapping of the world as in social groups, and individual subjects also occur very rapidly.

References


The power of human intellectual abilities creates a special kind of special signs making, which is predication, or the use of signs as movable type to create sentences. These are the observations of evolutionist G. Romanes. “It would be too broad to say that it [the difference] appears at the language emergence, meaning the use of signs in communication, as we observed that the language, in the broadest sense, can be used by animals as well. Thus, the difference shall be seen not where the language or ability to use signs in communication appears, but where that special type of ability we understand by speech comes”. [Romanes 1905: 232].

Speach is a process, which, on the one hand, reproduces a special sign system — the ethnic language or a similar communication technology materialized in signs (the Latin language, American English and different hybrid languages), and on the other hand, it creates a phenomenon identical in its material properties (or a kind of matter), which ensures the discreteness of the space-time criterion.

In this case, N. Lumann’s concepts of language, communication and its meaning become relevant. The well-known German sociologist associates these concepts with the system boundaries, which, on the one hand, affect the system — environment communication, and, on the other hand, the concepts are determined in the process of this communication [Lumann 2004]. In this case, the social system functioning is identified with a living system functioning, which is autopoietic and interpreted as a network to produce its components. The autopoietic type of the network arrangement is the result of its functioning.

“We can still talk about spatial boundaries in living systems, i.e. autopoietic organization of molecules in space, — N. Lumann says, — as the boundaries here are represented by special organs of the system (cell membranes, skin of organisms), which perform specific functions of separation and selective mediation in metabolic processes [Lumann 2004: 77]. When considering the system in terms of meaning, the boundary matter fades, making the system free from spatial constraints, while giving a different, deeper form of the boundaries, which stimulates a special form of consciousness activity to externalize neurophysiological introspection of the organism. Such “boundaries transformation” feature is especially important to the social communication system, as N. Lumann believes, which boundary is reproduced in each communication act, because the communication is self-identified as a communication in its network of system operations, including no mental, chemical or neurophysiological components. We correlate the spatial ability with the social communication system ability to transform external boundary into internal boundary form.

The spatial ability is correlated with such abilities as restoration, preservation, and transformation of visual information in the spatial context [Lohman 1993; Halpern 2000]. In a narrower sense, spatial abilities are correlated with individual abilities to explore visual information, understand forms, shape and position of objects, to build mental representations of these forms, shapes and positions, and to manage the representations in mind [Carroll 1993].

Many researchers [McGee 1979; Burnett & Lane, 1980; Pellegrino et al., 1984; Gernonets & Battista, 1992] believe that the spatial ability includes two main components: spatial relations and spatial visualization. Spatial relations are described as the understanding of objects’ position according to a visual pattern [McGee 1979]. According to D’Oliveira [D’Oliveira, 2004], spatial relations correlate with an ability to solve simple naming tasks, or to identify represented variants of an object. Spatial visualization is described as the representation of names or their components in a 3D model [Burnett & Lane, 1980]. D. Lohman [Lohman 1988] distinguishes three main factors of spatial ability: spatial visualization, spatial orientation, and rapid alternation.

Spatial ability is discovered by spatial cognitive engineering, which deals with human perception of space, its conceptualization, and communication with the space. Obtained results are used in computer systems when making scripts, representing and modeling environment and involvement patterns, automatic selection of relevant information and development of corresponding principles of human-machine interaction. The main interaction scenarios include navigation and spatial communication in a more general form. Interesting what role the elements can play in building a communication bridge between human and machine.

Spatial information technologies cover all spheres of human life, from logging their activities in space and time, identifying their place in a Web-communication, to optimizing their personal activities in social media. Moreover, the design of internal information means is mostly determined by abilities and capacity of existing information technologies.

Spatial information technologies address the human-machine interaction issues basing on geographical concepts, and concepts borrowed from other subject domains, which, however, results in some discrepancies in transferring humain spatial competences to the machine semiotic system of spatial abilities.

Obviously, there is a need in designing built on cognition principles, when cognitive science results are used during the entire process of designing spatial information means including the use of appropriate cognitive models of system architectures, conceptual schemes, programming languages, and strategies of data analysis.

Models of spatial cognitive processes can help in designing special information technologies, as well as in discovering methods using which people could address different spatial issues. Researchers identify the following spatial tasks: 1) locating an object, 2) moving towards located object, 3) correlating one's position in space (location) with the position of another objet in space, 4) interacting with other people regarding the object location, 5) making a program of moving/relocating in space.

Spatial cognitive engineering means can be used in teaching a foreign language using databases. A teacher, using the databases as knowledge bases, manages actualizing of innate spatial abilities on the one hand, and, on the other hand, manages the forming of spatial abilities as a set of skills to design spatial relations, which is a system of principles to interact with the environment built on...
principles of either natural (direct), or formalized (indirect) communication.

Making transformations is based on the development a semantic model to interpret graphic expressions [Pospelov 1992], which include perceptual characteristics related to an imaged object. Perceptual characteristics correlate with 3D cognitive schemes and diagrams, which, in their turn, match with human imagination [Gallistel 1994]. B. Korbinsky [Korbinsky 1998] suggests taking such cognitive schemes and diagrams as worldviews of a certain abstraction level, which can be described and represented in a knowledge base as independent units represented in certain relations. We believe that relations between cognitive schemes and diagrams, represented visually and modeling communicative relations in both native and learned language, can be analyzed or verified by means of linguistic engineering, which is building ontologies.

Thus, the integrity of modern society is reached by its self-understanding as the boundary of the following world categories distinguished by K. Popper [Popper 2002]: physical, mental, and the world of abstracts objects [Khalina, Vnuchkova, Pushkareva, Serova, Benchuk, Chrebtova, Stolyarova, Zlobina 2011]. Proper, self-valid meanings are generated in a cloud of associative blurring, and the language of communication in the cloud is the brain language, or the language of consciousness.

According to N. Luhmann, social system boundaries are represented by specific languages or methods of coding different communications [Luhmann 2004], meaning that languages make the social system boundaries. Languages’ domain includes the differentia of discourse-based social organization; the perception and understanding of reality by a speaker starts changing where that imaginary demarcation line passes. Ways of communication coding contribute to accumulating so-called symbolic capital, introduced by P. Bourdieu, which is equal to virtual reality and hyperreality concepts [Bourdieu 2007].

We are generally focused on the concept of symbolic capital, understood by P. Bourdieu as a set of activity codes based on resources of any kind (economic, scientific, administrative resources).

The condition for achieving the goal, according to P. Bourdieu, lays in understanding established ideas through cognitive diagrams, symbolic transfigurations [Bourdieu 2007]. One with symbolic capital can bring a certain kind of order into reality, making “truth”, which includes experience of such abstractions as order, justice, and truthfulness. Symbolic capital, as the authors believe, can be seen as result of activity of the culture’s semiotic structures making up virtual reality, which imitates true reality.

N. Luhmann, appealing in his works created at the boundary of centuries to sociological approach in studying modern society, notices that modern society is a multi-contextual system, which allows for different descriptions of its complexity. According to his point of view, society can be defined as a system only in the context of “system / world around” scheme, meaning that the society system is another existing side of the “world around” at the same time, and, therefore, the “world around” is the society boundary.

References
10. Luman N. L. Obshhestvo kak social
The given paper addresses the paired noun/verb agreement issue in Samoyed languages. The work involves the application of external comparison based on the thorough analysis of ‘paired noun/verb’ construction agreement of Selkup dialects and Samoyed languages text data. The proposed external comparison and consistent syntax reconstruction of the above-mentioned constructions in Samoyed Languages made it possible to reveal syntactic correspondences and identify the fragments of ‘paired noun/verb’ agreement rules on the Proto-Selkup and Proto-Samoyed level.

Historical background

Selkup belongs to the Samoyed branch of the Uralic language family. The Samoyed group consists of two branches: Northern Samoyed branch and Southern Samoyed branch. Northern Samoyed branch includes Enets, Nyanagan, and Northern Samoyed languages. Southern Samoyed branch is presented by the extinct Motor, Koibal, Kamas, Karagas and Soyot languages and the only living unwritten language — Selkup.

The Selkup language and its dialects have been studied by the following scholars: Castrén 1855; Donner 1924; Prokof’ev 1935; Hajdi 1968; Dulson 1971; Janurik 1978; Morev 1978; Katz 1979; Khelmskill 1985; Bekker, Alikina, Bykonya, Ilyashenko 1995. The overview of research work devoted to Selkup dialect division showed that there exist different Selkup dialect classifications. Currently, various classifications of Selkup dialects exist. At the present time, most linguists adhere the ternary dialect division into Northern, Central and Southern groups of dialects by Janurik [12:104].

The Selkup dialect classification proposed in [6] has been taken as background for the study. This research is based on empirical field recording data from A. P. Dulson archive1 (Southern and Central dialects) and empirical field data from L. Varkovskaya archive2 (Northern Baikha dialect) and text materials of “ESD. Taz dialect” Volume 2 (1992) [5].

Research Methods

Though there exist numerous works analyzing the grammatical and morphological aspects of Selkup and Northern Samoyedic languages, the concept of number marking of paired nouns has not been investigated in detail. The Selkup ‘paired nouns/verb’ agreement studies are presented in the following research paper fragments or chapters: Northern dialects — “Essays on Selkup Dialects. Taz dialect” (1980) [2]; O Kazakevic (2005) [1]. Central and Southern Selkup dialects were studied by N Kuznetsova (1995) [3] in the chapter “Subject and predicate agreement in number and person in the Southern Selkup dialects” and all Selkup dialects — this issue was described by N P Maximova in “Category of number in Selkup” (1986) [4].

The Selkup language paired nouns belong to the collective noun class: top ‘foot/feet’, uT2 ‘hand/hands’, tol.Vi ‘ski/skis’, sari ‘eye/eyes’ etc., [4: 97]. According to above-mentioned linguists, this group of nouns has a specific grammatical feature. Due to this feature the SG marker may either point to a pair of identical objects or to a separate object.

It should be noted that the dual wasn’t used to denote the paired parts of the body and the name of the paired objects [1: 393]. To denote one item of the paired entity in Selkup dialects, a paired noun combination with the adjective form pal’ ‘half’ [2:168], [1:395] or with the cardinal numeral ukk2r ‘one’ was also used: tab2nan ok2r ha@ ‘his one eye’.

However, according to N. Maximova and N.Kuznetsova, the plurality of paired nouns denoting a pair of identical objects also takes place in the Selkup dialects: tanaN tob - Oa kand-B-ad2t 3SG.LOC2 foot-PL.NOM freeze-PRS-3PL.sub ‘Your legs froze’ (Ivan.)

Accordingly, the plural of these text examples is probably influenced by the Russian language.

The plurality of paired nouns is also used to refer to a separate set of several natural pairs:

- zu-Oa ha-nb-ad2t toLeOa zu-a man-PL.NOM come-PSTN-3PL.sub ski-PL-INS ‘peopleskied’ (Ivan.)

Furthermore, this type of nouns can be marked in dual, though, paired nouns in dual agreement occur very rarely, mainly in the Southern and Central dialects’ text recording:

- ude-R hand-DU.NOM ‘hands-two’

Based on the above-mentioned examples, N. Kuznetsova and N. Maksimova state that this type of nouns can have different types of agreement and provide text examples demonstrating possible different morphological number markers.

Findings and discussion

‘To reveal all possible ‘paired noun/verb’ strategies and define a succeeding strategy agreement choice, the empirical text data from A. P. Dulson archive (Southern and Central dialects); text materials of “ESD. Taz dialect” Volume 2 (1993) [5] and L. Varkovskaya field text recordings (Baikha subdialect) (1941) have been glossed and analyzed. All Selkup dialects findings are presented in [7], as well as in Table 1.

Introduction

The paper deals with the ‘paired noun/verb’ constructions in Selkup dialects and Northern Samoyed languages (Nyanagan, Enets and Nenets dialects). This paper presents the research and analysis results of constructions with nouns denoting paired items in Selkup dialects and Northern Samoyed languages, based on external comparison of agreement types and a paired noun number markers. The multi-level reconstruction permits to reveal the noun/verb agreement types for Proto-Samoyed level.

Keywords: paired noun, noun/verb agreement, Selkup dialects, and Northern Samoyedic languages.
Thus, for Proto-Selkup language two strategies have been reconstructed:
— a paired noun SG + a verb SG;
— a paired noun SG (non-subject position).

Consequently, a Proto Selkup noun, denoting a paired object was always used in the SG, regardless of case. The singular marking was also typical for a verb.

Our research has also contributed to the identification of those innovations that occurred in this type of construction from Proto Selkup to modern Selkup dialects.

The northern and central dialects are represented by two archaic strategies:
— a paired noun SG + verb SG;
— a paired noun SG (non-subject position).

In Ivaninko sub dialect, besides two preserved archaic strategies, the plural-marked noun and verb strategy is observed and two innovations appeared:
— a paired noun PL, regardless of case forms;
— a verb form PL (commonly used in the sub dialect only for noun in the appropriate number).

In Southern Ket dialect unlike Proto-Selkup the plural of paired objects appears regardless of case. It is noteworthy that this innovation is identical for Ivaninko sub dialect. However, in Ket and Tym dialects a verbal form remains archaic, i.e. SG.

For further investigation and verification of the archaic construction ‘a paired noun SG and a verb SG’, the Northern Samoyedic languages data were involved. The empirical existing data of Enets, Nganasan and Nenets language [8], [9], [10], [11], as well as text materials, provided by linguists, embracing Northern Samoyedic Languages fieldwork (M. Amelina — Nenets, A. Shluinsky — Enets, V. Gusev — Nanganas).

As a result of external comparison and data analysis, the following agreement- strategies have been reconstructed for Proto-Samoyedic language (Table 2).

Table 2 - External comparison of ‘paired noun + verb’ constructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a paired noun /a verb</th>
<th>Nganasan</th>
<th>Enets</th>
<th>Nenets</th>
<th>Proto-Selkup</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG/SG</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DU/DU</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DU/PL</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a paired noun SG (non-subject position)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a paired noun DU (non-subject position)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a paired noun PL (non-subject position)</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Selkup and Proto-Samoyed. Consistent syntax reconstruction allows demonstrating the possibilities to reveal one or another construction type even at the Proto-Language level.

References

The department of indigenous languages of Siberia Tomsk State Pedagogical University
2 Moscow State Lomonosov University, Research Computer Centre, Laboratory for Computational Lexicography
3 Linguistic field data were collected in Krasnoye settlement, Zapolyarny District, Nenets Autonomous Area, Arkhangelsk Oblast (04.03-22.03.2012)
4 The corpus of Forest Enets texts prepared in connection with the project ‘Documentation of Enets: digitization and analysis of legacy materials and fieldwork with the last speakers’ supported in 2008-2011 by the ‘Endangered languages documentation Programme’. The corpus consists of modern recordings made by the authors, M. Osvjanikova, N. Stoynova, and S. Trubetskoy in 2005-2010 in the village of Potapovo, as well as of legacy recordings of the previous generation of Enets speakers, kindly provided by the Dudinka branch of GRK ‘Noril’sk’, Tajmyr house of Folk Culture, D. Bolina, O. Dobzhanskaia, I. Sorkina, and A. Urmanchieva.
The article deals with the characteristic features of geographic terminology. Lexical and geographical peculiarities of toponyms are determined by geographic terms functioning. The analysis of a toponymic dictionary is performed.

**Keywords:** term, professional term, toponym, geographic terminology.

The universal scientific popular online encyclopedia “Encyclopedia Krugosvet” gives the following definition of terminology: “a set of terms of a certain branch of knowledge or production as well as a theory about terms formation, structure and functioning. The subject of the general theory of terminology consists of the study of formation and usage of special words, with the help of which human knowledge is accumulated and spread; the development of special words, with the help of which human knowledge is accumulated and sent; the improvement of existing terminological systems; the search of optimal ways of creating new terms and their systems; the search of universal features peculiar to terminologies of different fields” [10].

Along with F.P. Filin, we consider that “special terminology is the main source of vocabulary building of the literary language” [2]. In our opinion, this statement is difficult to deny because special lexicon not only enriches one’s vocabulary, but also makes the speech of native speakers brighter.

In the work “The Dictionary of the Russian Onomastics Terminology” N.V. Podolskaya writes that “a term is a word or a phrase from the special (scientific, technical, etc.) language, directly correlated to a scientific concept, serving for its exact expression (ideally)” [7].

The Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary edited by V.N. Yartseva characterizes the concept as follows: “A term (further T) is a word or a word combination denoting a concept of a special area of knowledge or activity. T. is a part of the general lexical system of a language, but only by means of a specific terminological system (terminology)” [5]. The author singles out specific traits of a term: “1) systematicity; 2) availability of a definition (for the majority of T.); 3) tendency to monosemy within the terminological field, i.e. a given science, discipline or scientific school (therefore such terms as “function” in mathematics, physiology and linguistics are called interdisciplinary homonyms); 4) lack of expression; 5) stylistic neutrality” [5].

According to O.S. Akhmanova, a term is “a word or a word combination of special (scientific, technical, etc.) language, created (accepted, borrowed, etc.) for exact expression of special concepts and designation of special objects” [1].

On the basis of the above mentioned material we can conclude that the majority of researchers consider a term to be a special word or a phrase which has a specific feature, namely, the defining function characteristic for scientific and professional language.

Alongside with general scientific terms there are also such special lexical units as professional terms. It is worth agreeing with M.I. Fomina that “in special lexicon the words and expressions used by groups of people, united by the nature of the activity (by profession), are called professional terms” [3]. The author considers that “professional terms are characterized by a big differentiation in designation of special concepts, tools and means of production, in the name of objects, actions which have names in usual speech” [3]. Further, the researcher gives examples, which are characteristic of certain fields of activity of a person; “according to the distinguished types of snowflakes in meteorology there are several names of the phenomenon: asterisk, needle, hedgehog, plate, fuz and column. In the hunting lexicon a lot of names of a fox (on color and breed) are known, for example, simple, red (or sivodushka), forest, pyralid, red-brown, etc. In the speech of carpenters and joiners a tool called carpenter’s plane can be expressed in one of the following words: strachok, nasrugh, gorbatch, medvedka, rabbott knife, etc.” [3].

According to O.A. Akhmanova, “a professional term is a word or expression peculiar to this or that group of professionals” [1]. V.N. Yartseva gives the following definition: “professional terms are the words and expressions peculiar to the speech of representatives of this or that profession or field of activity getting into the common-literate use (mainly into spoken language) and usually acting as colloquial and emotionally coloured equivalents of terms” [5].

A number of authors believe that professional terms are typically used in a special sphere and are assigned to a group of people integrated by a certain profession, i.e. unlike terms, professional terms have a limited sphere of use. M.I. Fomina fairly notices that “narrowly-professional words aren’t usually widely adopted. Most often they are used in spoken language, as professional terms are semi-official names (and it is one of their differences with terms) fixed in the language of representatives of this or that profession” [3]. The terminology of a specific branch of knowledge is tend to be considered as a system of terms of this science or industry associated with the system of concepts of the relevant branch of knowledge.

Geographical terminology represents unique lexical material, which is constantly updated and changed. According to E.M. Muzayev, “terms are the fundamentals of toponymy, they are a part
of difficult, compound place names which define the semantic content of toponyms. Terminology of the concrete area of knowledge can be considered as the system of terms of this science or branch of production correlated with the system of the concepts of the respective area of knowledge. In such names as Leningrad, Zailiysky, Ala Tau, Bash-bulak, Lovozero, Yudiyavr, Hamar-Daban, Rio Grande, Stara Planina, the main words define the names’ belonging to the geographical objects and by that reflect their nature, appear to be: grad (city), Ala Tau (type of mountains in Turkic-speaking areas), balak (channel), rio (river), planina (mountain, ridge)” [6].

It is pertinent here to mark out the value of geographical term understood by N.V. Podolskaya as “a word designating a certain geographical phenomenon. It originates from a geographical concept, for example, a river, a lake, a gulf, a valley, a cape, a village, etc.” [7].

It is difficult to imagine the modern world without geographical names. Geographical terms of various languages and times are the cornerstone of the majority of toponyms. Early Russian chronicles contain the interpretation of place names. They are of great interest among scientists, namely, among historians, geographers and linguists. According to A.V. Superanskaya, “the history of formation of place names reflects the development of human knowledge and evolution of a person’s relation to the outside world, both natural, created by an environment and social, formed as a result of interaction of various public institutes. Place names appear at the earliest stage of a society development because of the necessity to label surrounding objects, landscapes and grounds in the course of their development by a man, for the convenience of orientating and from the need to explain each other how to orientate” [8]. The science studying place names is called toponymy. D.N. Ushakov defines toponymy as “a set of place names in some country or district” [9].

Among geographical terms E.M. Murzayev distinguishes two categories: generic and specific. 1) “generic terms designate landscapes, large elements of a relief, hydrography, soil and plant cover, etc. Such terms generalize geographical phenomena and objects: river, lake, bog, mountain (mountains), ridge, height (taiga, tundra, steppe, desert). 2) specific terms characterize some more limited elements of environment, types of landscapes, but not their zone structure. The function of specific term is not generalization, but differentiation and definition of specific features of an object: urman, protein, loach, relka, crest, curia and counter” [6]. It should be noted, that in geographical terminology, there are common terms and professional terms (for example, the common term – “compass” and the professional term – “compass”).

Geographical terms are sometimes used so widely that it often leads to their reconsideration and the loss of initial special value. The revision of the attitude to this type of terms has occurred relatively recently as now geographical terminology has not only considerably expanded its volume, but has also actively begun to get into a household discourse.

It should be noted that geographical terminology, which is an integral part of lexical structure of a language, develops gradually throughout a long time under the influence of social, economic and historical factors. The language value and the importance of any kind of terminology, including geographical one, is defined by the degree of its integration in the language system and in a mental lexicon and depends on a number of factors which are the purpose of our further research.

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Introduction

National-cultural specificity of the world picture is one of the most topical research subjects in modern linguistics that reflects a general tendency of various sciences to make culture a central element of all theoretical constructions connected with the study of man [17, 204]. Yet, when being under discussion, the subject becomes more complicated as the term 'world picture' is rather vague and many-sided. Moreover, it is often used as a synonym to another term ‘world image’, though in our opinion, they differ.

World picture can be considered as a result of an individual and collective cognitive-discursive activity. One of the indispensable conditions of its functioning is the reflection or materialization in language. It is the so-called ‘surface layer’ of the world reflection which can be registered through pieces of knowledge represented in word or text (discourse) [10, 12-16].

World picture is a system of awareness, ideas, value judgements which is formed at a certain stage of the historical development of a linguacultural community. Therefore, national world pictures primarily form and function in nonidentity conditions that results in a variability of the world picture for different language and culture bearers. Thereupon, one of the main issues that needs to be clarified — how culture and medium influence the content and structure of knowledge. It is also important to notice that despite numerous works focused on a comparative study of some knowledge fragments and awareness images we cannot give a definite answer what a real mechanism of influence on the part of culture on the specificity of knowledge and awareness is.

A study of the national-cultural specificity of the world representation should include a comparative research analysis on various levels of knowledge functioning that makes it important to identify the parameters of the world picture and its key fragments (or segments).

World picture as a systemic phenomenon

First of all, world picture can be characterized through such parameters as a systemic order and definite structure. Thus, knowledge acquired and shared by the community is most likely to be systemically organized. That fact can be supported by neurophysiological data concerning ‘semantic memory’, or ‘semantic thesaurus’. Semantic thesaurus is viewed as ‘arranged knowledge about words and other symbols, their meanings and relations between them possessed by an individual’ [16, 399]. The idea of preserving knowledge through systemically arranged thematic groups has been suggested by M. Devitt and K. Sterelny [2], T. Givón [4], S.D. Kalsnelson [6], V.F. Petreno [14, 111], etc. As for the semantic structuring of knowledge in the individual and collective awareness, it reveals itself through distinguishing certain layers and pieces of knowledge, or through a system of concepts.

Second, the structuredness of experience and knowledge gives evidence to a hierarchical order in the knowledge arrangement: either group or individual experience cannot but be structurally organized (see, for example [12]; [1, 18]; [18]). It allows us to surmise that different knowledge layers in the structure of the national sphere of concepts are of an unequal value.

We suggest that it should be possible to distinguish a core in the national world picture — the part that is formed owing to the reflection by key concepts the most essential information of a certain culture. Being vitally important for the members of a linguacultural community, this information is regularly reproduced in the social discourse and fixed in the linguistic awareness. Key concepts of culture make up the most significant fragments of the cumulative experience and knowledge developed by a linguo-social group during a certain period of time. Hence, distinguishing key concepts of culture as well as a comparative analysis of their content can be considered as one of the methods to identify a specificity in national world pictures.

Carrying out comparative research with special reference to social-political discourse poses a task of modelling some units that would be able to represent world picture. Despite our avowing the fact of the existing controversy between scholars which concerns a basic unit of storing knowledge, we may suppose concept to be acknowledged the main structural unit of the world picture. As for the term ‘concept’, it has been used in Linguistics since the 90-s but still has not acquired a unified interpretation: it is defined as a "quantum of knowledge", an informative operative memory unit, a part of the mental lexicon belonging to the conceptual system and the language of the brain, a unit of individual knowledge and awareness [8, 90], an "operative unit of awareness" [5], a cell of...
culture in the mental world of the human being [15]. The notion of concept often reveals through senses developed by man in the process of his/her thinking which reflect experience, knowledge, and results of all human activities while cognizing the world through “knowledge quaanta” [5, 71].

The aspect of interrelation between concept and language does not show a unanimity in the interpretation also, but we adhere to the opinion of concept as a hierarchically structured and systemized unit of knowledge characterized by a certain set of semantic features which cannot be distinguished but only through language (see also: [3]).

Going back to the national world picture, it is important to mention its dynamic in time nature as a result of being formed in the course of a cognitive discursive activity of individuals and society. What influences the dynamics of world picture still provokes vehement discussions. Thus, S.V. Lurie claims that “shift in the world picture and adjacent traditional knowledge takes place if an existing world picture loses its adaptive characteristics, or a society changes its value dominants” [13, 597].

At the same time, taking into consideration one of the conspicuous features of world picture, namely, that it is originally based on values, we ought to dwell on the importance of values for culture and man in general. As is known, a value orientation determines a person's behaviour in his/her everyday contacts with the environment. Values followed by an individual are responsible for a cognitive-discursive specificity of all the activity of a person and his/her community as well. Due to this, the processes of meaning-making take their course in accord with the accepted in a certain culture norms. Thus, distinguishing and analyzing value dominants ought to be recognized as a parameter of significance when describing national-cultural specificity of the world picture. A logical conclusion that follows leads us to recognizing a direct link between the dynamics of the world picture and its value orientations: under the influence of its value specificity every world picture will show differences reflected in its structure as well as in the content of particular concepts.

Any drastic social changes, such as revolutions, global cataclysms and challenges, cause world picture transformations. Whereas the world picture itself can be interpreted as a result of social cognitive-discursive practices, any turn in the vector of social and political discourse will reflect a change (or shift) in the structure and content of the world picture.

Thus, owing to the increase of the communication and information constituent in modern society, a special role belongs to social and political discourse as a specific sphere where information is accumulated and functions. At the same time, the number of research dwelling on the national-cultural specificity of the world picture through the prism of social and political discourse can hardly be recognized as numerous. That fact evidently can be explained by a lack of valid methods and principles of analysis rested upon well-balanced theoretical foundations as well. Hence, we make it our immediate aim to work out an algorithm of modelling functional basics of the world picture representation as well as to develop a set of experimental procedures which would help to determine its structural parameters.

As for this paper, we would like to dwell on some principles of modelling world picture with special reference to the newspaper discourse of Canada. The applied analysis was based on several procedures:

1. distinguishing key concepts following the criterion of seasonal data sampling;
2. modelling a cognitive and field structure of concepts belonging to the social-political discourse of Canada on the basis of monthly and seasonal data;
3. identifying semantic dominants in the national world picture of Canada.

The material of the research has been selected from an independent Canadian newspaper “Le Devoir” for three summer months of 2015. The newspaper is a daily edition (issued every day, except Sundays), published in French in Montreal, the Province of Quebec. For the aforementioned period 79 online issues have been processed that has resulted in selecting 1780 articles for the analysis.

**Semantic and structural parameters of the world picture**

At the first stage of the research the key concepts of the Canadian newspaper discourse have been distinguished. The required data were collected while analyzing the newspaper daily columns, namely: Politics of Canada, Politics of Quebec, Economy, Society, Environment, Culture, Sport. The corresponding key concepts have been distinguished on the basis of the quantity criterion (see table 1) with 10 percent of all the content for the period as the lower limit for each key concept.

**Table 1 - The key concepts of the Canadian newspaper discourse**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Newspaper columns</th>
<th>The number of articles</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>June</td>
<td>July</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Politics of Quebec</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Politics of Canada</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>Environment</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Society</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>660</td>
<td>514</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we may conclude according to the material of the table, the key concepts of the Canadian newspaper discourse (summer data) cover the following fields:

- Politics of Canada (521 articles)
- Economy (376 articles)
- Politics of Quebec (275 articles)
- Society (235 articles)

These concepts can be considered the so-called ‘peaks’ of the national social and political discourse. In other words, for the given period these concepts show as detailed a representation as possible in the public awareness of the Canadian dwellers (in the Province of Quebec) and make up a core of the sphere of concepts in the newspaper discourse. Other units, such as Environment, Culture, and Sport, which were not referred to the key ones, can be marked as basic concepts.
The next step of the analysis had a target to specify further peculiarities of the world picture functioning, namely: to describe a cognitive and field structure of the concepts. As for the basic procedure applied at this stage of data processing, it was a content-analysis expanded with some methods of psycholinguistics (see: [9]; [10]; [11]). The following methods have been applied to model a cognitive structure of the concepts:

- distinguishing a topical issue for an article with its further modelling into a cognitive feature;
- arranging cognitive features as cognitive layers;
- ranking cognitive layers in accord with their content;
- modelling a concept cognitive structure on the basis of monthly data;
- modelling a concept cognitive structure on the basis of seasonal data;
- modelling a concept field structure.

Ranking semantic layers has been made in terms of the topical frequency of the articles, or semantic features (see tab. 2).

Table 2 - The cognitive structure of the concept Society
(in relation to the materials of the column “Actualités en société », June 2015; 77 entries)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personalia</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethic issues: native people</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and science</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social issues</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settlements improvement</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwellers' bold initiatives</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidents/accidents</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town/city security</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical issues</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration of justice</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural cataclysms, ecology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following the results of the seasonal summary data sampling (for June-August of 2015) it has become possible to construct an overall cognitive structure of the concept SOCIETY (see tab. 3). As is seen from the table, it differs somewhat from its initial variant: a new cognitive layer Economy has appeared. Besides, the hierarchy of the levels has been changed too (see tab. 3).

Table 3 - The cognitive structure of the concept Society
(in relation to the materials of the column “Actualités en société”, June-August 2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personalia</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incidents/accidents</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethic issues: native people</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social issues</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture and science</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Town/city security</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethical issues, life style</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dwellers' bold initiatives</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Settlements improvement</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural cataclysms, ecology</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration of justice</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is just the concept cognitive structure that has been used as a basis for a comparative analysis targeting at distinguishing national-cultural specificity of the world picture through the prism of the Canadian social-political discourse. For the purpose of further modelling the structure of the concept, we ought to differentiate a core and periphery zone: thus, a core is to include all the layers ranking no fewer than 10 percent of the total content, a near-core zone is made up by layers with 5 percent as the lower limit of the content. Layers ranking as fewer than 5 percent of the total content are classified as a periphery. So, the field structure of the concept can be represented as follows (see tab. 4):
As appears from table 4, the concept society has a systematized and hierarchically arranged structure with a core, and two lower ranked zones — a near-core part and a periphery with a certain number of semantic layers (see the table).

The next procedure – modelling the concept semantic structure – has been based on the semantic analysis of the cognitive features and permitted to detail the content of the concept. Arranging the semantic features in accord with the quantity criterion has revealed the following semantic structure of the concept being described (see a fragment of the cognitive structure — the arrangement of features within the layer “Human rights” in tab. 5):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nr</th>
<th>Semantic features</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Human rights</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>Human rights defenders’ support</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1.1</td>
<td>The protection of Saudi blogger Raif Badawi and his wife</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2.</td>
<td>The protection of the human rights of women: spousal assault</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3.</td>
<td>The protection of the rights of sexual minorities</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4.</td>
<td>The protection of the rights of working people: protests against a rigid economic policy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5.</td>
<td>The protection of the rights of the Haitian refugees</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

At the final stage of the research the distinguishing of semantic dominants within the world picture has been made with the help of further procedures:

- modelling a semantic structure of the concept using monthly selected data;
- distinguishing the three most frequent semantic features for each concept for every season of the year (a three-month period);
- determining semantic dominants of the Canadian social-political discourse for every season of the year (a three-month period).

The application of all the research procedures to the analysis of the Canadian social-political discourse has made it possible to distinguish the following semantic layers (for all the concepts — Politics of Canada, Politics of Quebec, Economy, Society, Environment, Culture, Sport — claimed as being under analysis):

**The economic development of Canada** (223 features)
**Political parties struggle** (175 features)
**Personality and his/her role in the life of the country** (157 features)

**Culture and environment preservation** (123 features)

**Conclusion**

National world picture emerging in the course of interrelations and communication in the society, sensitively responds to social and political changes and absorbs all the typological peculiarities of its culture that results in:

- a specific mapping and architecture of the sphere of concepts reflected in social-political discourse;
- a peculiar cognitive and semantic structure of concepts;
- a specific arrangement of the semantic dominants in social-political discourse.

Represented in the paper methods of studying a national-cultural specificity of the public awareness include several ways and procedures aimed at reconstructing structural parameters of the world picture as a cohesion of a horizontal (key concepts) and vertical (the semantic structure of a concept) aspects.

Such an approach, when applied to the study of social-political discourse, permits to differentiate key and basic concepts in it, to determine the topicality of public phenomena in the public
awareness, and to find out what semantic dominants are considered as prevalent for the public awareness of the representatives of a society — bearers of a certain culture and language.

The principles of modelling a cognitive and semantic structure of the concept as well as distinguishing its semantic dominants can be successfully applied in the Humanities while studying the public awareness.

References

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Меньшакова Н.Н.
Пермский государственный национальный исследовательский университет

ИДЕОСТИЛИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ РЕПРЕЗЕНТАЦИИ ФАНТАЗИЙНОГО ЗНАНИЯ В МОНОГРАФИИ Р.А. ХАРРИСА “THE LINGUISTICS WARS”

Abstract

The author studies the means of representation of fabricated knowledge in scientific linguistic text and analyses the peculiarities of its employment by R.A. Harris in his monograph “The Linguistics Wars”. The use of metaphorical and non-metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge in a particular scientific text serves the conceptual and communicative objectives set by the author. It is also viewed as a peculiarity of his individual style.

Keywords: fabricated knowledge, conceptual sphere, metaphor, scientific text.
Научный текст.

Introduction

Science is traditionally associated with objective knowledge. But besides objective knowledge science may also transfer fabricated knowledge which is regarded as a product of imagination of a researcher.

Fabricated knowledge in scientific text is a means of conceptualizing new information or new scientific theories or a device for reasoning or persuasion in argumentation of researchers. It is inherent to scientific research in general and may successfully function in both natural sciences and in the humanities (Меньшакова 2015: 24).

The ability of a researcher to use his imagination in his study is individual. A form of representation of fabricated knowledge in scientific texts depends on the individual style of a researcher.

Methods

The main methods of analysis of fabricated knowledge in scientific texts are contextual, cognitive, logical, definitional, lexicological, and interpretation. Contextual, cognitive and logical analyses and interpretation help to reveal contexts where fabricated knowledge is represented. Logical type of analysis is used to correlate contexts of fabricated knowledge with either rational or irrational part of the model of fabricated knowledge (see below). Definitional, cognitive and logical analyses elicit referential relations within contexts of fabricated knowledge. It allows referring these contexts to rational or irrational part of the model of fabricated knowledge. In this research I consider metaphors as the most widely used means of representation of fabricated knowledge. Analysis of metaphors on the basis of a signifying descriptor helps to characterize and interpret the ideas of the author of the text.

Modelling of Fabricated Knowledge

I view fabricated knowledge as an abstract category specific for human cognition. Research into this category allowed formalizing it (Меньшакова 2009). The formalization of the category was based on definitional, semantic, contextual and conceptual types of analyses of linguistic units representing the rational and the irrational in the English language. The category of fantastical knowledge thus has two parts that are in some sense opposite to each other – the rational part and the irrational part.

The rational part of the category includes five groups of concepts, that represent the sphere of fantasy and imagination not bound by the laws of nature:
1. Model (abstraction, idealization);
2. Potential (hypothesis, prediction, possibility, prescience, intuition);
3. Analogy (identification, similarity);
4. Interpretation;
5. Mental / thought experiment.

The irrational part of the category includes four groups of concepts that show the peculiarities of theoretical procedures applied in scientific texts:
1. Myth (legend, fiction, tale, story);
2. Dream (daydream, reverie, vision);
3. Delusion (falsehood, falsity, fraud, illusion, lie, mirage);
4. Fantasy (fancy, figment, enigma, ideality, mystery, unreality).

Analysis of the text

The aim of this study is to analyse peculiarities of the individual style of R.A. Harris represented in his monograph “The Linguistic Wars”. This analysis helps reveal the main conceptual spheres of a scientific (linguistic) text which are born thanks to the author’s creative imagination and represent fabricated knowledge. In this monograph the author considers the processes that took place in the 60-70s in the sphere of linguistics, namely the conflict between Structuralism and Generative Linguistics. The author interprets the linguistic conflict employing the images of war, battle, opposition of the good and the evil.

The analysis showed that fabricated knowledge is employed in the text in such conceptual spheres as language, linguistics, researcher, scientific work, science, scientific theory, knowledge, world, and mind. The most developed spheres in the monograph are the spheres language and linguistics as they represent the main theme of the study. Language and linguistics are depicted as elements of war. This idea is clearly expressed in the title of the monograph – “The Linguistic Wars”. Thus, language is seen as the object and the main reason for the conflict, and the sphere of linguistic is the battlefield. The conceptual sphere research represents the author’s view of scholars as warriors – leaders, allies or novices. The spheres scientific work, science and scientific theory are represented as means and tools of war. The spheres knowledge, world, and mind are not connected by one and the same creative image but they represent the author’s vision of these spheres as spheres filled with erroneous or fictional, mythical data.

Dwelling on these spheres the author uses mostly metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge.

The analysis of the metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge in the monograph was based on the method of description applied in the Descriptive Theory of Metaphor (Баранов 2004; Баранов, Караулов 1994; Меньшакова 2002). The scope of signifying descriptors in the monograph is wide. The best described spheres are language and linguistics. In the sphere language the main signifying descriptors are the following:
Signifying descriptor | Example from the text
--- | ---
SPATIAL OBJECT | “the acoustic dimensions of linguistic sound” (Harris 1993: 5)
STRUCTURAL OBJECT | “linguistic clusters the size of phrases and sentences” (Harris 1993: 30)
VIRTUAL OBJECT | “a ... billiard—ball model of language” (Harris 1993: 56)
LIVING CREATURE | “red—blooded transitive verbs” (Harris 1993: 124)
NATURAL WORLD | “the English sentence is full of plums for the syntactic picking, ripe and inviting” (Harris 1993: 30)
POWER | “to rob from the transformation and give to the kernel” (Harris 1993: 86)
ROAD | “language is a path running from sound to meaning” (Harris 1993: 12)
FOOD | “semantics was a carrot, attracting a good deal of attention” (Harris 1993: 232)
WORLD | “murky regions of intonational meaning” (Harris 1993: 172)
ACTIVE SUBJECT | “the model efficiently handles what is left” (Harris 1993: 87)
MYSTERY | “meaning ... was the pot of gold at the end of the transformational rainbow” (Harris 1993: 133)
TOOL | “Language is ... the chisel” (Harris 1993: 3)

In the sphere linguistics there are seven signifying descriptors:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signifying descriptor</th>
<th>Example from the text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WAR</td>
<td>“generative semantics serves as ... the honourable massacre” (Harris 1993: 248)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RELIGION</td>
<td>“linguistics is the Promised Land” (Harris 1993: 101)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTIVITY</td>
<td>transformational-generative grammar was chemistry, everything else in linguistics was alchemy” (Harris 1993: 69)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYSTERY</td>
<td>“a linguistic night of the living dead, grammar-zombies lurching from longhouse to longhouse” (Harris 1993: 53)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPATIAL OBJECT</td>
<td>“to patch the hole [in linguistics]” (Harris 1993: 144)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACTIVE SUBJECT</td>
<td>“Bloomfieldian semantics ... had sinned in two interrelated and horrid ways” (Harris 1993: 64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIVING CREATURE</td>
<td>“Chomsky’s proposal struck squarely at the kidneys of generative semantics” (Harris 1993: 140)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPOCH</td>
<td>“The linguistic calendar” (Harris 1993: 54)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BUILDING</td>
<td>“the architecture of Bloomfieldianism” (Harris 1993: 33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROAD</td>
<td>“the path [in generative semantics] taken by four horsemen” (Harris 1993: 220)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOOD</td>
<td>“[Linguistics] brings home the epistemic bacon” (Harris 1993: 11)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDICINE</td>
<td>“[Generative semantics provides] panaceas ... to cure any ills” (Harris 1993: 217)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The author makes the most use of fantastical knowledge in these spheres to create a persuasive system of images to realize his cognitive and communicative intention.

Non-metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge are used mainly in the spheres knowledge and world. The analysis of non-metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge in the monograph showed that these are mainly non-referential utterances, i.e. formal expressions that contain a verbal sign that has no real referent. E.g. “Now how, in Manitou’s name, is a linguist to apply these notions to an utterance” (Harris 1993: 29); “Abstraction is unthinkable in the world of totally unique objects, such a world is itself unthinkable” (Harris 1993: 12). The fact that formal utterances may represent secondary or, in my terms, fabricated knowledge was stated by M.Turner and G.Fauconnier in their study “Conceptual Integration and Formal Expression” (1995). In “The Linguistic Wars” non-metaphorical means of representation of fabricated knowledge are used to explain a model of new knowledge in a more vivid way, to describe erroneous knowledge in science, to reflect a mythical view of the object under study (Menshakova 2015: 25).

**Conclusion**

The analysis of means of representation of fabricated knowledge in the monograph “The Linguistic Wars” allowed characterizing it as highly creative. The author widely employs both means of representation of fabricated knowledge – metaphorical and non-metaphorical, though metaphorical means prevails. Fantastical interpretation of such conceptual spheres as linguistics, scientific work, science, scientific theory, and mind is realized only via metaphors. The only sphere where non-metaphorical means of representation of knowledge prevails is the sphere knowledge. The system of images created with the help of fabricated knowledge reflects the main objective of the author set at writing the monograph and may be considered as a trait of his individual style.

**References**

Political metaphorology as the theory and practice of research metaphors in political communication emerged in the process of interaction between the two leading branches of modern linguistics — metaphorology and political linguistics. Currently, the political metaphor is leading the way of thinking and reasoning tool having a strong pragmatic effect (Chudinov, 2012, p. 85).

The research of metaphorization process as a way of thinking and reasoning tool in political communication is based on understanding a metaphor as a means of description of the political picture of the world (Chudinov, 2012, p. 85).

From the 1980s the cognitive theory of metaphor is applied to the basic terms of political discourse (Chilton, 2006, p. 63-65). Metaphor in political discourse has been studied as a thinking model in the frame of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff 1990; Chilton 2004; Beer and de Landsheer 2004; Charteris-Black 2005). The metaphor is based on the demonstration of similarity or analogy. Formulation of the metaphorical model is based on stereotyped images of specific organizing experience and knowledge of the world in every ethnic culture (Lakoff & Johnson, 1990; Tameryan 2015).

Metaphors have also been a research interest in the field of political communication research (Mio 1997; Abadi 2001; Drulák 2005).

Previous research has shown that metaphors increase in news discourse during critical periods, such as a war or an election (Vertessen and de Landsheer 2008).

Political metaphor study is undertaken by the American (Abadi 2001; Beer 2004; Charteris-Black 2005), the Russian (Chudinov 2012; Budaev 2008), the German (Drommel 1978; Scheihauer 2007) scientists.

The study of the role of metaphor in the German political discourse is a new research problem (Tameryan and Tsagolova 2014; Tameryan 2015; Tsagolova 2015).

Our discourse analysis is based on the 166 text fragments from the German political magazines "Der Spiegel" and "Focus" which verbalize the assessment of A. Merkel's activity during the third period of her chancellorship — from September 2015 till February 2016. It covers such global political events as war in Ukraine, war in Syria, the influx of refugees from Muslim countries to Germany and discord between the Western countries and the EU countries.

Discourse analysis of the texts of the mentioned period allowed to define that the fragment of the metaphorical field of sociopolitical conceptual approach "Kanzlerin Angela Merkel “Chancellor Angela Merkel” is structured by 8 binary metaphorical constructions. Each binary metaphorical structure is formed by two components, one of which carries a positive connotation (PM), the other a negative one (NM).

The binary metaphorical couple Angela Merkel — die mächtigste Frau der Welt “Angela Merkel — the world's most powerful woman” and Angela Merkel — angeblich mächtigste Frau der Welt “Angela Merkel — allegedly the world's most powerful woman”, is represented by the metaphor of supreme power and the antimeposter of supreme authority. The positive component describes Merkel's contribution to the world politics and her achievements in the field of international settlement, while the negative component reflects Merkel's condoning to the influx of refugees from Muslim countries, which causes discord between the parties.

The opposite metaphorical pair is represented by the positively marked cognitive model A. M. — Retterin der europäischen Idee “AM — a savior of the European idea” (protectionist metaphor), which is by opposed to the four negatively marked variative models: 1) A. M. — Zerstörerin der europäischen Idee “AM — a destroyer of the European idea” (metaphor for destruction); 2) A. M. — die größte Bedrohung für Europa “AM — the biggest threat to Europe” (military metaphor); 3) A. M. — ein Hemmnis für den Aufschwung in Europa “AM — an obstacle to the development of Europe” (obstructive metaphor) and 4) A. M. — Volkssverräterin “AM — a traitor of the people” (military metaphor).

The binary metaphorical couple A. M. — Retterin der europäischen Idee “AM — a savior of the European idea” and A. M. — Zerstörerin der europäischen Idee “AM — a destroyer of the European idea” estimates Merkel's policy towards Greece, due to the economic collapse in the country ambivalently. The negative components (NM2, NM3) reflects unfavorable for the EU countries economic actions undertaken by A. Merkel. The variative model (NM4) expresses dissatisfaction with the the German citizens by Angela Merkel's policy towards the influx of refugees.

The metaphorical construction below represents the ambivalent evaluation of Merkel's policy towards Greece. The positive component of the model is verbalized by the model A. M. — die letzte Hoffnung Griechenlands “AM — the last hope of Greece” (psychological metaphor), and negative — model A. M. — die Hauptschuldige “AM — the main culprit” (criminal metaphor). The positive component describes Merkel's growing popularity in Greece caused by the provision of credit The negative component reflects the attitude towards Merkel before granting a loan during the period of austerity.

The metaphors of war and peace are reflected in the binary metaphorical construction represented by two positive models (PM1, PM2): A. M. — Friedensengel “AM — a peace angel” (biblical metaphor) and A. M. — die Reisende in Sachen Frieden “AM — a traveler with a peaceful mission” (tourist metaphor), which is opposed to the negative cognitive metaphorical model (NM1) A. M. — Kriegskanzlerin “AM — a war chancellor” (military metaphor). The positively marked model objectifies Merkel's peace support in Europe. The negatively marked model describes the refusal to take military action in the fight against terrorism.
The next binary metaphorical structure is represented by the positively marked cognitive model A. M. — ein Vorbild “AM — an example to follow” (standard metaphor), which is opposed to a negative model labeled A. M. — nicht als Vorbild “AM — an example not to be followed” (antimetaphor of reference). The positive component objectifies leadership qualities of Chancellor. The negative component emphasizes the lack of interest to support women’s rights, which is explained by the masculine features in her image.

The binary metaphorical structure below represents two positively estimated variative models (PM1, PM2): A. M. — Deutschland-Therapeutin “AM — a therapist of Germany” (medical metaphor), and A.M. — erfolgreiche Krisenmanagerin “AM — a successful crisis manager” (the metaphor of management), which are opposed to the negatively marked metaphorical model (NM1) A.M. — die Person, die Deutschland ruiniert “AM — a person who destroys Germany” (the metaphor of destruction). Positively marked models (PM1, PM2) describe A. Merkel as a prospective and strategically successful politician. The negative cognitive component expresses displeasure of the Germans due to the European refugee crisis in Germany.

The following contrastive metaphorical structure is represented by two positively marked components (PM1, PM2) A. M. — Bindeglied zwischen den Kontinenten “AM — a link between the continents” (mediation metaphor), and A.M. — als Vermittlerin zu Russland “AM — an intermediary between Russia and the West” (mediation metaphor), which is opposed to the model A.M. — wie eine Art Gesandte Obamas “AM — a kind of Obama’s messenger” (the metaphor of mediation). The positive evaluation components objectified Merkel’s diplomatic skills as a mediator. The negative evaluation component objectifies the fact that Merkel is the conductor of Obama’s policy in Europe.

The last opposite metaphorical pair described is structured by the positively marked model A.M. — Politprof “AM — a politprof” (the metaphor of management) and the negatively marked model A. M. — wie ein Schulmädchen “AM — as a schoolgirl” (school metaphor). The positive component describes Merkel as an intelligent and subtle politician, while the negative one rejects the existence of these qualities.

Thus, 8 binary metaphorical structures being analyzed, two of which involve ambivalent assessments of Merkel’s policy to resolve the crisis in Greece.

So we come to the conclusion that discourse analysis revealed that these models represent Angela Merkel as an authoritative world politician, a peacemaker, a mediator and a talented strategist.

The positively marked components of metaphorical constractures verbalized the socio-personal concept Kanzerlin Angela Merkel “Chancellor Angela Merkel” were explicated by the metaphor protection (22), psychological metaphor (17), Bible metaphor (10), the metaphor of tourism (11), medical metaphor (4), the metaphor of standard (7) and the metaphor of management (24).

The positively marked models form the conceptual vector of creation, adjustment, reflecting Angela Merkel’s contribution to the regulation of the situation in Europe.

The negatively marked components metaphorical constructions are represented by school metaphor (2) and the metaphor of obstruction (8), the criminal metaphor (13), the metaphors of destruction (17), the antimeaphor of supreme power (27) and the antimeaphor of standard (5).

At the same time, the positive assessment prevails.

The negative estimation models form the cognitive vector of ruin and destruction, stressing the effects Angela Merkel’s policy of globalism and multiculturalism in Germany and the EU countries; ignorance of feminism views; implementation of Obama’s aggressive policy.

References
The Russian-language Islamic discourse is one of various types of religious communication which is implemented in the language sphere of the polyethnic Muslim community.

The communication within the limits of the Islamic discourse can be carried out in different languages: the appeal to Allah can be realised only in the sacred Arabic language, the communication between the representatives of different Muslim communities can be carried out in the national language, mass communication within the boundaries of the country is implemented in Russian, which is the uniting component for all the Muslims of Russia. The texts in Russian, somehow connected with Islam and meant for the general public, are of great interest as their analysis helps set up discursive aims and tasks, the discursive situation as well as the particularities of Islamic ideology in the Russian Islamic community.


There are many reasons why Muslim communities widely use websites. Firstly, these means of mass communication is getting universally available and can cover the wide audience, which is in line with one of the main aims of the religious discourse that is initiating to the Faith.

Secondly, technical parameters and structurization of the site make it possible not only to contain a great volume of information but also simultaneously realise all kinds of communication characteristic of the religious discourse including phatic, informative, ritual, fascinative etc.

Thirdly, the given resource allows the simultaneous use of written and sounding texts, various kinds of graphs, photographs and video-data, which broadens the opportunities of communicators.

Islamic sites are not homogeneous in their content. They can include general information about Islam, holy texts or their fragments and their interpretation; reports, scientific articles, speeches of secular and religious figures on Islam; texts or video-tapes of sermons; news line giving coverage of the events connected with the Islamic world; the information about the Islamic organisation running the site (about its structure, figures and activity); the ritual information (the time of quintuple Mohammedan prayer, the calendar of the Muslim holidays etc.); advertisements (more often on the news sites) etc.

One of such sites is muslim.ru set up by Russia’s Muftis Council. The content of the site underpins the integration of Islam in the social life, that is in the intentions and aims of the given discursive situation are different from that of personal or group communication of Muslims, let alone hypercommunication. Those involved in the communication are, on the one hand, the agents, that is, religious Muslim figures; the mediators of the communication — journalists, administrators, editors of the site, and on the other hand the addressees who are mainly Muslims interested in the activities of the Council, the news in the Islamic world, the policy of the Islamic countries.

In the religious discourse Almighty Allah is an indispensable participant. In the situation under study which presupposes indirect communication (on the site muslim.ru) the invisible presence of God is confirmed by the discursive formulas, e.g. (In the name of Allah, gracious and merciful) which opens the site.

The given type of communication is supported by the religious attribution. The possibility of the visualisation allows to use various images and muslim symbols: the pictures of the crescent which is the symbol of Islam, the usage in graphs of the green colour, the colour of Islam (symbolising the birth of life, nature, freedom, garden of Eden), abstracts from the Koran, written in the Arabic ligature. These graphic means somehow replace the prototype communication. Besides, the format of the site given the opportunity of combining written and oral forms of the discourse, for example, the written address of the mufti or the imam to believers and the video-tape of their sermon in the mosque.

It should be noted that the main aim of the religious communication, that is the initiating to the God and the transfer of the mystic experience, is put in the back-ground. The discussion of the religious basics of Islam goes beyond the framework of the discursive situation, e.g. The given heading ‘The Pillars of Islam’ [http://muslim.ru/articles/290/1 does not contain theological texts but is informative: ‘At the XII International Contest Of The Koran Readers’, ‘The Diary Of A Pilgrim’, ‘Hadj As Seen By A Russian Citizen’, ‘The Position Of Islam In The Intimidation Of Peaceful People’ etc.

The content of the site and the used language means underline the instituunitality of communication and interacting with the values of the political discourse, or rather at the legitimisation of political power.

Multiple ties with the political discourse can be found on the surface of the formal linguistic component of the analysed type of communication, e.g. The existence of Russian acronyms CMP (Russia’s Mufties Council) ДУМРФ (The Spiritual Administration of Russia's Muslims), in combinability of lexical units belonging to different styles: the Chairman of the spiritual administration; the press service of spiritual administration; the liquidation of Primorski Krai Kazyate; the structural reform of the regional Spiritual Administration of Muslims, the image of Islam, the shortage of
those who committed this terrible murder are inhuman monsters, the punishment of the Almighty. Creator shall overtake anyone who has lifted his hand against a man, who has encroached upon an innocent human life. Those who have committed this evil deed will not get away from being called to account by the Almighty. Those who committed this crime and those who ordered it must have a deserved penalty. We absolutely denounce any acts of terror and pray to the most High God to take the guiltless souls of those who died and to save those who were wounded and injured.

The Holy Koran says that «Those who seek gain in Evil, they are Companions of the Fire, (in the Gehenna) shall they abide (For ever)»

Indeed we belong to Allah, and indeed to him we will return. May the Almighty grant His mercy and pardon to the deceased and award them with a deserved place in the Eternal World. We pray for peace on the Turkish land.»

There are different stylistic devices in the text which are characteristic, on the one hand, of the religious discourse: high-flown and evaluative vocabulary — spiritual, mercy, to grant, to award, to encroach, evil deed, penalty shall overtake, innocent victims, to denounced, terrible murder, inhuman monster; religious lexicon (used in the Russian Orthodox Church texts as well) — to pray, the Gehenna, Almighty, Creator, the Eternal World; arabisms, which mark the Islamic sub-discourse — mufti, sheikh, the Most High Allah, Koran, Islam; the reference to the Holy text — the citation from the Koran translated into Russian but given without a traditional reference to the ayat (verse) or sura of the Holy Book; discursive forms — May the Almighty grant His mercy and pardon to the deceased; on the other hand, there are language devices typical of the political discourse: official and business vocabulary — the Chairman of the Council, President, to pay the penalty, acts of terror; the official names of the states — the Turkish Republic, the Russian Federation; the names of the political figures — R.T. Erdogan; the syntactical structures of the political text — «the Chairman of the Council addressed the President», «addressed his condolences to the Turkish peoples we ‘we inclusive etc.»

It’s interesting to note that there is a grammar mistake in the text, that is absence of agreement of the preposition with the case form of the noun — в связи с гибелью — which makes it possible to assume that Russian is not a native tongue of the author but a second language.

The texts of the site are diverse both in content and language devices but their subject matter is common: state and Islam relations and their single aim is the consolidation of the Muslim community of Russia.

The site www.oneslam.ru has a different content and discursive aims. The main objective of the site is to make a choice between Christianity and Islam and, at the same time, the possibility of peaceful coexistence of Christians and Muslims. The site contains a lot of articles which give arguments in favour of Islam and the continuity of Christian values. The main heading of the site is a translation of the citation from the Koran: Say ye: «We believe In God, and the revelation given to us, and to Abraham, Isma'il, Isaac, Jacob, And the Tribes, and that given to Moses and Jesus, and that given to (all) Prophets from their Lord: We make no difference Between one and another of them And we bow to God (in Islam).»

The usage of the translation of the quotation into Russian without Arabisms, which mark the relativity to Islam (God, not Allah; Abraham, not Ibrahim; Jesus not Isa etc.) shows to a certain similarity of some basic Christian and Muslim values and conveys to the addressee the general tone of the communicative situation. Actually there are no Muslim symbols on the site: either the crescent, or the Arabic ligature, or the green colour associated with Islam. The site sections include articles, targeted at an intuitive and/or 'reflective layman' who is by chance involved in the religious communication, or at those who are conscious of their first steps in the area of the religious communication [1]. The target audience of this communicative situation is the Russian speaking Christians who 'are questioning' their belief, thus the main aim of the given texts of Islamic discourse is appealtative, argumentative, regulative, which can be proved by the analysis of the content component of the texts.

The site incorporates sections and articles corresponding to the aims of the discursive situation and the basic concepts of Islam and Christianity. The articles include comparative analysis: «Islam is for Russian's too», «Why did Islam supersede Christianity and Judaism?», «The comparative analysis of Torah and Koran», «The Bible and the Koran: comparative analysis», «The woman in Islam and in the world of Judaism and Christianity», etc.; critical analysis: «The contradiction in the Gospel describing the events after Jesus's death», «Merciless distortion of the Biblical texts», «Jesus was married as it was proved be the researchers», «Prophet Isa and pious Mariam bear the omen of the Almighty», etc.; arguments for religious accommodation: «The way of Islamic expansion is prophet Mohammad's line towards compromises», «Mohammad introduces his brother Jesus to the mankind», «The Prophet's respect for Christians and Jews», «Christianity is an unalienable part of the Islmaic Civilization», «The first Christian and Jews who said that Prophet Mohammad is the truth», etc., persuasive argumentation: «The truth about Prophet Mohammad for Non-Muslims», «Arguments about the authorship of the Koran», «Does the Koran call for the murder of the unfaithful?», «Concoctions around Islam», «Islam is not like this! And what is it like?», «40 answers to the critics of Islam», etc.

Each article of the site can be commented on (the discussion of some articles has as many as 200 comments), which represents a new communicative situation as new participants, who are not always Muslims, get involved in the communication [http://oneslam.ru/?p=5032&comments, 29.06.2015].

The subject matter remains religious but the sub-discourse changes according to the article on the site. The commentaries of the site users sometimes turns into the religious dispute, which, without any doubt, involves different discursive tactics and strategies. The quotations from the Bible and the Koran are used as irrefutable arguments, which on the whole is characteristic of the religious discourse due to its dogmatic nature. The appeal to the intuition and emotions of the addressee is used as a communicative strategy, which makes it easier to form the ideas, values and estimations transmitted by the agent. The use of positive and negative expressions, evaluative nouns and evaluative turns of the religious discourse is a means of exerting influence and transmitting mystic experience. At that, in the polemical statements of the participants of the communication one can find words typical of the inferior style or even the taboed expressions, which goes beyond the framework of the discourse and shows its connection with another one, that is of everyday speech.

The value orientation of Islam at the spiritual and physical purity of a believer through performing necessary rituals involves elements of everyday discourse into communication. Thus, on the
Muslim sites one can see the advertisements of the halal goods, the watches showing the time of the prayer, electronic pens reading the Koran, etc., or one can read about various everyday problems discussed in the form of a dialogue, e.g. Whether a woman can shape her eyebrows, whether one can be injected with the medicine containing spirit, etc. Thus, the site http://muslimfashion.ru discusses not only the Muslim postulates but also the way the Muslim woman should look, what clothes she should wear and what make-up she should use.

Sites of this kind can use combinations of lexical units belonging to different styles, which stresses the intertextuality. For example, on the site http://muslimfashion.ru there are such word combinations as 1) 'Miss Muslim of the Universe', where one can see the broadening of the phraseological unit Miss Universe meaning the winner of the beauty contest on the international level. This phraseological unit got a new component so that the Western word Miss agrees with the Oriental word Muslim; 2) 'Islamic feminist', that is a Muslim woman advocating the movement for full equality of women in their rights with men, which goes contrary to the main principles of Islam; 3) With humour about hijab – the word combination in which derisive (though with a positive connotation) words go together with those words which express ritual, high-flown and chaste notions.

The inseparable link of the Muslim religion with all aspects of human life, the penetration of Islam into every sphere of human activity are the reason for diversity and multitude of the texts combined in the Islamic discourse. Vividly expressed intertextuality and interdiscoursivity make it different from other religious sub-discourses. At the same time, the role of the Russian language as an extra means of uniting all Muslims, which is caused by extralinguistic social and political reasons, contributes to getting the Muslim and Christian discourses somehow closer.

The existence of a great number of sites, covering the problems of Islam, to a certain extent, makes easier the work of the researcher of the Islamic discourse, though communication in the Internet is not the main form of Muslims' intercourse. It is only a component of 'supersubdiscourse'. Nevertheless, it gives an opportunity to study such problems as the genre and stylistic diversity of the Islamic discourse, its specific peculiarities as compared with other religious sub-discourses; the patterns of constructing and semantic and syntactical structures of Islamic (and non-Islamic) texts, discursive formulas, the interaction of culturogenic texts in the Russian language variant.

References
DISCUSSION ANALYSIS AND THE "HISTORY OF NOTIONS" OF REINHARDT KOSELLECK IN THE ADOPTION OF THE CONTEMPORARY WESTERN HISTORIOGRAPHY

Abstract

The article is devoted to the modern Western historiography reflection on historical semantics and modes of historical time, raised in the works of the German researcher Reinhard Koselleck. His historical epistemology, locating between a "space experience" and a "horizon of expectations" of living generations is seen as a breaking deadlock each of a “linguistic turn” and a traditional historical description. This approach makes possible to combine the analysis of historical experience with its discursive description. The authors examine the impact of theoretical and methodological foundations of Koselleck's historical semantics on contemporary German specific historical research. On the example of Russian studies in Germany in 2000-2015s, the authors consider the internationalization of "the history of notions", and the development of conceptual-historical approach in the context of new subject fields of historical scholarship.

Keywords: discourse, basic concept, horizon of expectations, German hermeneutic tradition, conceptual history, history of notions, epistemology, historical semantics, temporal layers.

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Researches of modernity inverted the traditional values of the religious consciousness were reflected by other European authors’ research. Hence, Francois Hartog in his monograph "Modes of historicity. Presentism and time experiences" created a prospect of different historicity modes rotation — i.e. special types of time connection, describing each of the periods. In antique times the present was inspired by the experience of the past, and after the French Revolution the historicity of the New Age was led upon the project of the future, whereas in context in the last decade of XX century historicity regime defining feature became the dominance of active short-term social memory and the phenomenon of the present. Time itself becomes an object of consumption and sale, circulated by numerous anniversary celebrations, "the years of national heritage". From the perspective of other ages this relationship is currently characterized by the author as a total presentism filled with artificially cultivated "sense of duty" rather than with natural perception of time connection [8].

"Time" and “Modernity” and forms of their reflection in historical discourse

Thus, the "modernity", as a period that covers the 18th-21st centuries, is characterized by break of relations of the past in terms of experience, traditions and beginnings, and a kind of obsession with the future in the form of expectations, scheduling, predictions and utopias. According to Helge Jordheim, English-speaking world takes Koselleck theory as a one-sided concept, providing a sense of modernity. However, his theory does not focus on proofs about the present, because it contains few characteristics of modern era, except the reference to technological and industrial advancement in parallel with the labor division issue in terms of increasing role of machine-assisted production. Koselleck work was aimed at creating a theory that would cover all kinds of historical time and forms of its reflection, which are formed into coordinate system of historical events and semantic representations of them.

Under the Koselleck editorship the topic of historical semantics was published in German under the title "The History of the basic concepts". These series were published with several authors’ assistance from 1957 to 1992. The series included 7 volumes and 119 articles. Koselleck being a disciple of the Haydener and Gadamer historicity tradition differs from them in particular forms of language, expressing concepts and specific historical events that caused their appearance. Koselleck has specific pragmatic and contextual distinction between "words" and "concepts". The word can be a concept if it absorbs a set of historical events, a number of theoretical and historical issues, "which was given in a very concept or idea and could be experienced only within it" [1]. The concept is constantly connected with the experience of certain time; it fully absorbs and reflects the experience of contemporary generations, becoming a referent of "historical reality." "The concept is close to the word, but it is at the same time more than a word," it is not a narrow linguistic expression, "probably, it is a matter of epistemic, although this sphere cannot be separated from the language completely".

Another ideological Koselleck’s contribution was the theory of historical time, which, according to the author, should undergo some changes in order to reflect the historical specifics in connection with other social sciences. Koselleck expresses the intention to "denaturalize" or "dismantle" the notion of time as the natural historical chronology and create a theory of historical time, where time itself would be the result of historical research [9, 161].

All the experts on Koselleck writings noted that his ideas about modes of historical time are not systematically integrated, and can be modified according to the stances of his past articles. Olsen claimed that there were two lines in Koselleck’s research from which it became possible to trace his time ideas on history. The first one is historical authors’ representation idea of time and the end of time (the Heidegger tradition). The second trend originates from Gadamer and Koyre and their anticipation and driving the natural cyclical manifestations, such as sunrise or sunset, the circle of the seasons, Koselleck transforms "time" in the historic "times", paying attention to the certain boundaries of the human experience, such as "progress, decline, acceleration or delay, "not yet" and "no more", "too early" and "too late", “duration” and “situation” [9, 161].

For the first time Koselleck touched the topic of time in the 1970s, than he started to develop it in 1980-1990., later in 2000 he published the collection of articles under the specific title “The Layers of Time”. In these articles, Koselleck stated that all the historical examples based on different methods of historical experience generalization can be grouped into three branches. First level illustrates "the irreversibility of events", expressed by the idea of "before" and "after" in the definition of historical sequences. The second level is the phenomenon of "events frequency", from the two events point of view, which are almost the same, as well as from the point of view of this events constellation or category. In relation to the typological repeated events Koselleck uses the expression "the simultaneity of non-simultaneous," supposing that the historical succession may have the same natural historical chronology, with a completely different time organization, for example, when the utopian ideology project their political and social ideals into the future. The third type of historical experience is "long-term system changes" (e.g. the fall of the Roman Empire). Eventually, three levels of historical experience correspond to the Koselleck’s three historical time models.

In fact Koselleck, reproduce the famous Fernand Braudel concept of the three historical durations. The first layer is composed by the events that people usually experience during their unique personal destiny. The second — "average layer" — is also comprised of the individual events with rather clichéd frequency, what is explained by historians as a certain historical laws. The third time level is based on the biological laws of nature and leads beyond the historical boundaries ("quasi-immobile" Braudel’s history) [1].

Koselleck did not try to create a sort of comprehensive time methodology, he was more likely to offer "something like a toolbar of consistent assumptions, which shows the history writings sense and how it can be applied." and did not illustrate practical examples of historical writings, which could be implemented as an instruction manual [10, 233].

"The history of notions" and "the linguistic turn"

Koselleck’s concept rejects the idea of petrified forms in history. Neither historical periodization nor linguistics dominates in this concept. In Koselleck concept, language is always closely connected with the experience. There can be no independent language, which does not refer to individual and collective experiences, and these experiences are always endowed with temporal structures. Thus, the time penetrates the language and dets it in motion [2, 264].

Contemporary Western historiography derives from Koselleck’s transactions some arguments for discussions with the adherents of the so-called "linguistic turn". The founder of the literary criticism approach to history, Hayden White considered historical as a great advantage of Koselleck’s work, he did not an effort to promote Koselleck’s works in the English-speaking world. Koselleck in his turn had also appreciated the American scholar’s ideas, he wrote a praiseful forward to the German edition of a famous "Tropics of discourse". Moreover Koselleck found some similarities between German hermenneutical tradition and White’s concept, expressed by the concentration focus on linguistic aspects of the historical experience representation. At the same time Koselleck marked a significant difference with respect to the White’s judgment: his interest in the historical writing metaphorical language does not leave room to social reality. Koselleck considered that the sources of historian and the special methods of their elaboration let him exercise his right of "veto" on the false or misleading past time representations and criticized White because he ignored the scientific nature of professional historiographic criticism, which was the best means to distinguish real historical scholarship from fiction.

The collection of articles, under the editorship of Carsten Dutt and Reinhard Laube, combined interdisciplinary conference papers on Reinhardt Koselleck’s intellectual legacy [11]. Thirteen scientists, representatives of various scientific fields, analyzed Koselleck specific contribution in the “linguistic turn”, the debates on the relationship between absolutism and the Enlightenment, the culture of memory and theoretical approaches to historical time, focusing on certain aspects of the sophisticated reflection of the German scientist. Thus, Daniel Ute, with the help of Goethe interpretation, completed by Koselleck, explains his method of integrating different experience dimension in historical explanation, which is contrary to the model of initial theoretical construction artificial filling with historical factual knowledge. Niclas Olsen points out the specifics of the postwar German intellectual history, in which the idea of Koselleck’s secular eschatology and his concept
of a multiple historical time clearly resonate with the Karl Löwith research. Reinhard Laube presented personal Koselleck’s library, which helped to understand the essence of his historical method. Other biographical recollections can be found in work by Jan-Friedrich Missfelder, who published biographical recollections of intellectual dispute between Koselleck and Habermas. Hans Erich Boecker focuses on Koselleck’s approach to Enlightenment and the philosophy of Hobbes, largely inspired by Karl Schmitt. Dialogue between Koselleck and Gadamer is the subject of Dominik Kaegi and Alexandre Escudier work analysis. Gerd van Heuvel on the example of the philosophy of Leibniz enters into controversy with Koselleck, adding up arguments that apocalyptic mode of thinking stepped aside to the line progress in the very beginning of seventeenth century.

Research of notions in modern Russian studies

In modern international Russian studies over the last decade, Reinhard Koselleck’s “history of notions” has become one of the leading trends. German Russian studies of 2000-2015 include the theoretical reflection of “conceptual history” on the basis of Russian history as well as direct references on Reinhard Koselleck’s epistemological statements [21], [22], [23], [24]. These practices of application of the “history of notions” to historical and discourse analysis are concerned with research projects of German Historical Institute in Moscow that aim at the popularization and internationalization of historical semantics, German traditions of hermeneutics and “history of notions”.

Research in this field focuses on the genesis of certain concepts in the Russian history of language and ideas [12], [13]. The subject area include wide rank of notions from political (totalitarianism, genocide, democracy, “glasnost” ) [14], [15] and socio-cultural (person, fatherland, generation, West and East) [16], [17], [18] until the formulation of a question “Is “Russia” a basic historical Concept?” [19], [20]. In contrast to the Anglo-American Russian studies, German Russian studies is “the two-way street” due to the long historical traditions of scientific and cultural interaction and mutual influence. German Russian studies are carried out in the close collaboration with Russian research centres. Many talented German specialists on Russian history are of Russian origin [17], [14], [19], so they combine perfect factual knowledge of Russian historical and cultural specifics with new theoretical approaches and methodological initiatives.

N. Plotnikov, German researcher from the Ruhr University, carried out the historical reflection connected with a basic concept of “person” as a key point in Russian history of ideas. He stated that the thematic emphasis of Russian “history of person and personality” differs from the western conceptual tradition in which juridical and moral descriptions are central [17]. The “otherness” of Russian historical discussion about “individual” and “personality” is studied as an interesting semantic issue. According to the author, Russian discourse of “a person” appeared in the discourse of “Slavophiles” and “Westernizers” in 1830-1840s, under the influence of German Idealism and Romanticism. Therefore, contemporary western interpretations of personality based on theological and natural-law explanations of “person” are absent in Russian cultural and historical discourse. Russian understanding of “person” is in semantic field of “unique individual” rather than “autonomous man”. So, “persons” are outstanding men and “the personality” is not an obligatory attribute of every man. The author invites the readers to discuss the development of the notion “person” in Russian socio-cultural tradition as well as German-Russian intellectual and cultural transfer in 19th and 20th centuries.

Kristian Petrov, Sweden historian from the Goteborg University, studies the Soviet history from the conceptual point of view [14]. He revised sovietological studies of 1980s and 1990s focused on how the political key concepts were conditioned by a specific context and how they were able to unleash new opportunities and limitations. On the basis of wide historiographical review the author defined the concepts that disappeared in historical and cultural discourse. Moreover, K. Petrov highlighted concepts which died with their own context. On the historical example of the concepts of “perestroika”, “glasnost”, “socialist pluralism”, “revolution” and many other, the author identified the category of so-called instrumental concepts and their key characteristics: mimery of the instrumental concept to the similar common notion, and the inner contradiction of instrumental concept caused by historical conditions of emergence and its purpose.

Conclusion

To come up, it is necessary to note that the Reinhard Koselleck’s “conceptual history” creates a logically provable methodological balance of different and formally conflicting “historian’s craft” conditions. Neither periodization nor linguistic compulsion dominates in this context. Language is always associated with human experience, and the experience always takes the form of temporal structures. Koselleck’s epistemological proposals actively resonate in the development of modern Western historiography.

References

The article analyzes the header structure of Russian newspapers to identify the functions that they perform, as well as specifying types of headers.

**Keywords:** mass-media, journalistic text, header complex, function headers.

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**Abstract**

"Name" of the journalistic text and the headline of a news story, in particular, largely determine the readers’ interest in the article itself. Attention to headlines has increased greatly in the modern world, since media consumption is arranged in such a way that a headline is the first thing a reader sees and sometimes it remains the only one. In case, the reader finds it interesting he gets acquainted with the text of the publication. This is largely due to mosaic perception of information by modern society. That is why it is very important for a journalist to seriously treat not only the facts and arrangement of his/her thoughts but also to select headlines very carefully, which is a very creative task.

While preparing this article we analyzed headlines in Russian newspapers issued in 2001-2015., chosen by means of continuous sampling. The amount of researched material comprises more than 600 headlines.

It should be noted that by definition of Lazareva E. "Headline Complex (headline set) is a subsystem of an intra-textual system comprising elements outside the text. Headline set includes headlines, rubrics, cross headings, leads, insertions (text in text), and ads. These are so-called advanced elements, united by the common feature – being closely related to the main text in terms of content, in terms of structural speech they retain some independence and are separate from the text" [2: 158].

Seemingly there are no problems in defining "headline". Generally speaking, it is a "name" of the text, the content of which corresponds to this text. However, there is a broader concept of this notion, characteristic of journalistic works – "headline complex", which implies natural combination of the headline itself and cross heading, header and lead to the material (if there is any). It is important to note that a headline and a headline complex perform different functions. Thus, the main headline functions include informative, advertising (expressive advertising) [2: 159], graphic and highlighting functions, integrative, composition, fixing, text-forming. Headline complex has a broader range of functions. If it includes the cross heading, it allows to avoid overloading the headline and focus only on the most important aspects of the topic and issues discussed in the article, at that informative and advertising functions of the headline complex are emphasized.

As part of this study, we will focus on the types of headline structures in Russian newspapers, categorized according to different features.

1. Types of headlines based on the form of construction. As stated by Kolesnichenko A., headlines based on form can be divided into two types – nominative and predicative [1].

Nominative (or simple) headline is, as a rule, an incomplete sentence, phrase consisting of two nouns or a noun and an adjective. Nominative headline usually contains an assessment of the news and is accompanied by a cross heading – an expanded sentence, giving the essence of the article. Most often all nominative headlines are verbless (Kirimova T. Night fun // Tambov Meridian of March 19, 2003. p. 6; Kostikov B. Pride, greed, anger // Arguments and Facts 2008. № 12. p. 5; Pomomareva I., Bogdanov V. Road Conflict // Russian Newspaper of February 3, 2006. p. 2; Farsov A. Migratory Death // Tambov Life of January 21, 2006, p. 2).

Predicative (or complicated) headline is a complete simple or complex sentence. Predicative headline can be followed by a cross heading or act independently. As a rule, it is used in short news in the structure of the newspaper while nominative one is used for larger materials. Apart from that predicative headlines are to a greater extent characteristic of Internet materials than nominative ones (Gromova S. Cafes Come out to Streets // Evening Novosibirsk 2015. № 18. p. 2.; Moscow Declared War on Petrol Mafia // Russian Newspaper of February 27, 2003. p. 1, 3; Tseidric A. Jam Got to the Underworld // Petrovsky Courier [Saint Petersburg]. 2015. № 16. p. 2).

Complex headline or "headline complex" is a combination of words or a simple sentence, supplemented by a cross heading; or a complex sentence with a cross heading; or a headline with a number of cross headings (Abramova E. Cottage – Expensive Dream (cross heading: "Crisis Can Cure Suburban Housing Market") // Regional Newspaper [Sverdlovsk region] 2015. March 26, № 52. p. 2; Shimin E. Spending Last Penny on Mortgage (cross heading: "About the Third of New Settlers Buy Housing on Credit") // Tser Gazette 2015. July 1.7. № 27. p. 1, 5).

2. Types of headlines by content and lexical-semantic features.

Headline-news, headline-message, headline-chronicle. A headline reports information previously unknown to the audience. It can record events dynamics, report information in retrospective, as in a headline-chronicle (Boyarinova A. First Monument to Heroes-Motorists Opened // Evening Moscow. 2015. September 3. № 159.p. 2).

Headline-summary allows the reporter to avoid direct estimation, but at the same time comment on the event. Such headline sounds calm and narrative, "unbiased", sometimes slightly ironic or playful (Ershov Y. War Doesn’t Solve Problems // Russian Newspaper, 2002. September 7, p. 7).

Headline-fact statement. It reports about already committed acts, made decisions (Egypt Hit by the Strongest Colds In Last 122 Years // As-Salam [Dagestan] January 1, 2014. № 1. p. 2).

Headlines that contain both the problem and its solution. Typically, the problem is stated in the first part of the headline, while the second one offers a solution; or it is reported that the problem has been solved; or specified how exactly it has been solved (Nemtsov A. Compromise as Reconciliation Recipe // Municipal Herald – Nizhniaya Salda [Sverdlovsk region] 2015. March 26. № 13. p. 6).

Evaluation of something, someone’s actions. It expresses approval or disapproval of someone else’s actions, qualitative properties of something (Popov S. Corruption as Seen by Yakutians // Yakutia. 2015. May 15. № 52. p. 6).

Headline-instruction, headline-advice. It gives suggestions on how to solve a problem, come to the right, desired result(Vychuzhanina V. How to Overcome Fear // Petrovsky Courier [Saint Petersburg]. 2015. May 27. № 18.p. 4).
Headline promising benefits. Just as headline-advice, it promises “benefits” to the reader, but with a tangible result:[Martynenko K. Aging with Benefits // Evening Novosibirsk. 2015. № 17. p. 4].

Headline-specific offer. It shows ways of achieving a desired result and is characterized by emotional, strong-willed emphasis: [Yudkevich M. Deputy Offered Not to Treat “F” for Free of Charge // Evening Kazan 2015. May 14. № 54. p. 1-3].


Headline-contradiction. It includes ways of opposing the enemy or the character of the article disagree with. It includes ways of opposing the enemy or to nobody in particular. They are characterized by inverted commas (Kostenko I. Dare to Give Birth? // Tambov Meridian. 2007. August 7. p. 5).

Headline-advertising. The object of advertising can be either a product or service. (Exhibition “Hello, Summer!” Invites Everyone // Petrovsky Courier [Saint Petersburg]. 2015. May 27. № 18.p. 4].


Headlines-dialoge phrase. Citation is an effective way to attract attention to the headline, especially when a well-known person is quoted (Ohanjanyan V. Sergei Sobyanin: “We Returned Moscow to its Citizens” // Evening Moscow 2015. September 3 № № 34-35. p. 3).

Using proper names. It is used to draw attention to the headline, which is a particularly effective way when these are names of famous personalities (Gorbachev Repeated his Anti-alcohol Campaign // Evening Kazan. 2015. May 16. № 55.p. 2). Headline with numbers. The usage of numerals in the headline helps to attract more attention to it (Melnikova E. 34 000 Rubles for Lack of Smile // Tambov Meridian 2007. № 14. p. 6).

Headline-demand. Demands can be addressed to specific people or to nobody in particular. They are characterized by a high degree of expressiveness (Give Me Complaints Book! // Evening Novosibirsk. 2015. May 22. № 18. p. 6).


Headline with ellipsis. Such headlines create expectation effect, forcing the reader to think, they create emotional tension; sometimes they show the author's abruptness (Kostikov V. He Loves Me, He Loves Me Not... // Arguments and Facts 2007. № 26.p. 8; Fedorova L. Free from...Children // Tambov Life. 2006. May 17. p. 5).

Language game in the headline complex: — use of precedent forms in headlines is an effective way to attract reader’s attention. By “precedent text” we mean “conscious or unconscious, accurate or modified quotes or other references to more or less known texts that had been previously written and now included into a newer text” [3]. Such precedent texts in the Russian language include: the names of literary and journalistic texts, various works of art; “catch phrases” and quotations from literary works or other well-known texts, movies, cartoons, songs, advertising; actual statements of historical personalities or words attributed to them. Examples of these can be found in the following headlines: (Averbukh V. Semenyuk N. Khabarovsk Against the “Lord of the RINGS” // Russian Newspaper. 2002. February 13. p. 2; Kit N. Dead Souls // Tambov Meridian. 2003. April 29. p. 4; Pavlov K. Living and Dead // Amur Gazette [Khabarovsk region]. 2015. May 18-24. №№ 34-35. p. 3);

—change of a set expression. It is a popular method used in headlines. The author takes a well-known quotation, proverb or idiom, where a word or combination of words is replaced by the one that sounds similar but is related to the text. Thus, we get a phrase that combines the meaning of the text it entitles and its assessment, presented by the initial set expression, its stylistics (e.g., Baluanyak N. Alexander stop // St. Petersburg Gazette. 2015. № 82. p. 5; Dylevskii A. Walking on Water // Tver Gazette. 2015. July 1-7. № 27.p. 14; Frekov M. Three Sisters // St. Petersburg Gazette. 2015. May 12. № 82. p. 6).


3. Types of headlines according to intended emotional impact on the audience.


Intimate headlines (Sex is Good for Health // Petrovsky Courier [Saint Petersburg]. 2015. May 20. № 17.p. 4).

4. Types of headlines by expressivity. Headlines can be completely neutral in their emotional background or they can show obvious expressiveness. Let us denote possible types of expressive headlines.

Headline-exclamation. Exclamations are used as an expression of direct, surprise or indignation at something, at the actions of someone (Bahkalkevova K. I Won't Let My Kids Go to the Circus! // Arguments and Facts. 2003. № 6. p. 14).

Praise to someone, something, headline-recognition/credit. The object of praise, no matter if it is a person or a thing is not mentioned directly (Malyshev D. Congrats on N // Evening Moskow. 2015. August 7. № 18. p. 6).

Headline-comment. As a rule, the audience is encouraged to perform specific actions afterwards. The motto nature of such headlines is the heritage of the Soviet period (Abduaiev I. Don’t Sell Expired Food! // As-Salam [Dagestan]. 2014 January 1. № 1. p. 8).

Headline-question. The question is addressed to both the audience as a whole, which contributes to the creation of emotional pressure, or to its particular members (Zuycev A. Did Belaruse Announce Oil War to Russia? // Komsomolskaya Pravda. January 9, 2007. p. 2).

The use of slang. Slang is emphatic in its character and in headline combinations it can become particularly expressive (Blednova E. Stalls “Bombed” By Children // Tambov Meridian. February 13, 2007. p. 2).

It is obvious that in today’s Russian newspapers there are many types of headline constructions. It enables a journalist to use well-chosen headlines that will draw attention to them and, consequently, to the publication itself.

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Воронежский государственный педагогический университет

ФУНКЦИЯ ЭПИТЕТОВ В АМЕРИКАНСКОМ ПОЛИТИЧЕСКОМ ДИСКУРСЕ

Аннотация

Статья посвящена изучению аксиологических возможностей политических эпитетов. В политическом дискурсе эпитеты служат не только средством оценки, но и помогают манипулировать общественным сознанием. Большинство политических эпитетов имеет негативную коннотацию. Список политических эпитетов пополняется, потому что новые оценочные словосочетания появляются в каждой исторический период и ассоциируются с политикой и политическими лидераами того или иного времени.

Ключевые слова: политические эпитеты, аксиологические возможности, экспрессивные словосочетания, регулятивная функция, средства оценки, оценочная политическая лексика, коннотация, языки политики, политический дискурс.

Shustova I.N.
Voronezh State Pedagogical University
THE FUNCTION OF EPITHETS IN THE AMERICAN POLITICAL DISCOURSE

Abstract

The article is devoted to the study of axiological possibilities of political epithets. In political discourse, epithets serve not only as a means of assessment, but they also help to manipulate public consciousness. Most political epithets have negative connotation. The list of political epithets is widening because new evaluative word combinations appear in each historical period and are associated with the politics and political leaders of this or that time.

Keywords: political epithets, axiologial possibilities, expressive word combinations, regulative function, means of assessment, evaluative political lexis, connotation, language of politics, political discourse.

Почта авторов / Author Email: irina.philatova@mail.ru

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anguage and power are always interconnected. And in modern society they have become inseparable. People rule and are ruled with the help of the language. Under the influence of words people make decisions and change their minds, start and avert wars. The language of politics has its own peculiarities. In political discourse, as many investigators mark, values prevail over the facts; the assessment and influence dominate over the information as well as the emotional prevails over the rational (Edelman M., 1964; Shakhovskiy V.I., 1998; Sheygal E.I., 2000).

E.I.Sheygal states that "political language is mainly incentive, aimed to influence, stimulate and inspirit the addressee" (2, p.46).

Contemporary scientists reveal several functions of language: the communicative, the inspirational, the phatic, the emotive/expressive, and the regulative. All of them are represented in political discourse. But, the regulative function is considered to be the most important function. Because it meets the main aim of political discourse, that is to manipulate the public consciousness.

Ideologically loaded words, axiologial lexis and political cliches assist to accomplish the language manipulation. The subject of the present article is epithet. So, our task is to study the axiologial peculiarities of epithets appearing and functioning in the language of politics.

Since epithets are widely used in political discourse, they serve not only as a powerful means of assessment but they also perform the regulative function, imposing on the recipient the ideological and axiologial views of the addressee concerning the object of assessment, and ultimately, making him change his mind in favour of the manipulator.

A number of attributive words and evaluative word combinations, appearing frequently in political discourse, entered the list of political epithets and pejorative political slangoans (http://www.academickids.com), which comprises about 140 language units. Structurally, most political epithets are simple or compound. Phrase or sentence epithets are rarely used in political discourse.

It is necessary to mention that most attributive words marked as political epithets have negative connotation of various degree of pejorativity from slightly ironic to derogatory and, sometimes, even obscene. Moreover, some epithets that are considered to be antonyms both have negative connotation. For example:

\textit{Hawkish} — Term used for those who favour the resolution of political problems through war, rather than through negotiation or appeasement.

\textit{Dovish} — Term used to describe people who favour negotiation or appeasement as the solution to political problems rather than war (http://www.academickids.com).

In political context if the first is interpreted as intolerant and aggressive (that means bad), the second is perceived as an indecisive coward (that is also bad).

In politics cowardice is considered to be one of the most terrible “sins”. And weak indecisive politicians are ridiculed and endowed with various offensive epithets. Especially pacifists are in disgrace. For example:

\textit{Peacenik} — Originating in the U.S. it is applied to advocates of U.S. withdrawal from the Vietnam War, to pacifists in general, and later to advocates of Western rapprochement with the Soviet Union during the Cold War, for instance through arms control. (http://www.academickids.com).

Another evaluative word combination with negative connotation first appeared in public speech of A. Schwarzenegger in 2004, but due to its expressiveness, it became rather popular, and even entered the list of political epithets.

\textit{Girli men} – U.S.: Term used by California gubernatorial candidate Arnold Schwarzenegger to describe his political opponents as “Economic Girli Men.” This term was first popularized by faux bodybuilders Hans & Franz on Saturday Night Live (http://www.academickids.com).

… I say: “Don’t be economical girli men!” The U.S. economy remains the envy of the world (Ugrad-u8S Schwarz’s speech.htm Aug. 31, 2004).

Regarding the structure of the epithets “peacenik” and “girli men”, both words are formed according to the rules of evaluative word building. That is a suffix is added to the basic noun to create a new expressive unit. Due to diminutive suffix –ie (in the word girli + men) and suffix –nik which is not typical of English language (peacenik) the epithets gain negative connotation, figuratively presenting weak sides of the object of assessment.

Studying the list of political epithets we noticed that a number of language units contain the word “neo”. It is the variant of the adjective “new”. But if the word new usually has positive connotation, neo implies the recovery of the old and not very good experience.

\textit{Neo} — Something new about something old; a revival or a new variant of an older ideology (3, p.374).

The second part of such word combinations is always the name of a political trend.

\textit{Neo-confederate} — U.S.: Sometimes used as a disparaging term for persons who look favorably upon the American South or southern culture. Accurately used for groups and persons that advocate certain positions associated with the Confederate States of America (http://www.academickids.com).

\textit{Neo-liberal, Neoliberalism} — These terms are used pejoratively referring to neoliberal economics or those who advocate it, when used by those who oppose it. However, some political commentators use the term “neoliberal” to refer to a person — usually a political figure — who takes a liberal position on social issues (such as abortion and gay rights) but agrees with the conservatives on economic issues (such as taxation). It is not intended as an insult when used in this context. (http://www.academickids.com).
Many linguists agree that “sometimes it is difficult to draw a clear line of demarcation between epithet and logical attribute” (1, p.158).

Concerning political epithets, we have noticed that in most cases, while characterizing a political figure from the positive side, the journalists, in order to look objective and impartial, often use trite epithets devoid of emotional colour which are seen more like logical attributes. Still, a certain degree of evaluation is present in such word combinations. For example: a pragmatic New Democrat, a liberal north-easterner (The Economist, June 28th, 2003, p.58); a religious conservative, a conservative Republican (The Economist, July 22nd, 2006, p.51).

Sometimes they add emotional colour to produce positive effect: a charismatic black man (The Economist, February 9th, 2008, p.23); the straight-talking Republican (The Economist, June 28th, 2003, p.58).

When the object of assessment should look in unfavourable light, they usually use evaluative word combinations with negative connotation, sometimes ironic tone and very expressive, contextually conditioned epithets. For example: a disgraced Republican lobbyist, an undistinguished state senator (The Economist, July 22nd, 2006, p.51); blow-dried mediocrity, vulnerable Democrats (The Economist, June 28th, 2003, p.58).

Metaphorical epithets with the ironic connotation also produce negative effect. For example: a golden boy of the religious right, the right hand of God (The Economist, July 22nd, 2006, p.51); hardcore Democrats (The Economist, June 28th, 2003, p.58).

The tendency to use epithets as means of assessment prevails in the American political discourse. The emerging of the term “political epithet” proves that this notion evolves and attracts the attention of modern linguists. Due to their axiological possibilities and connotative peculiarities epithets effectively perform the regulative function of political language. Some bright epithets have become a part of the political vocabulary that can be found in special dictionaries of political lexis (girlie men, yellow dog Democrat, cheese-eating surrender monkeys). Most political epithets, appearing in a certain historical period, are associated with the politics of the government and political leaders of that time (Iron Lady, Voodoo Economics). Evaluative word combinations in historical context speak volumes about the views of their contemporaries. Political epithets also reflect the values of the society and the attitudes of people towards the political and social events.

References

The reviewed monograph is devoted to the studying of default in the Russian language. The structure of this phenomenon is described in detail, its functional characteristic is given in this work. The author pays special attention to the description of split-level language means of expression of default in the Russian language.

According to the author – professor Elena Pavlovna Ivanova – this monograph will be useful "to students of philological specialties, linguists, and also a wide range of the persons who are interested in a problem of functioning of the category of default in the Russian language" (1, page 2).

The research of default has deep potential due to the functional infinity. Default as the language phenomenon can be used in the most various situations: "to interest, tell so that not to offend, embellish, create to the addressee conditions for cooperation, to mislead, deceive, make the speech convincing, not causing objection" (1, page 5). The purpose of the monograph "Semantics of Default and Means of Its Expression in the Russian language" is to try to generalize various ways to hold back; to keep back, reveal problems of using default in speech. And the undoubted dignity of the author of this work is multidimensional approach to studying of the phenomenon of default in Russian.

The monograph consists of introduction, three chapters, the conclusion and the application.

Chapter 1 is devoted to the complex description of semantics of default in Russian. A general idea about the called phenomenon from the point of view of different scientists is given. In our opinion, the fact that definition of value of the term "default" is given through a prism of various positions, different spheres of studying the language (the Russian poetics, studying of a structure of the text, pragmalinguistics, semasiology etc.) is very successful. Opinions of the leading foreign and Russian linguists, such as S. Vidlak, A. Kvyatkovskiy, G. Paul, O. B. Akimova O. S. Akhmanova, V. V. Vinogradov, A. A. Volkov, I. R. Galperin, V. I. Gusev, B. A. Larin, D.E. Rosenthal, M. A. Shelyakin, etc. are given.

Having compared opinions of scientists, E. P. Ivanov comes to a conclusion that the most suitable point of view on default is O. B. Akimova's position. In the works of this researcher "the value of default corresponds to language values of uncertainty and ambiguity. O. B. Akimova assumes that binary language value of knowness- unknownness is the cornerstone of semantics of definiteness-uncertainty. And semantics of knowing-unknownness is presented in the form of a graded scale, with private values, such as inaccuracy, approximateness, uncertainty, unknownness-interrogation, unknowness-hypothetical character, generality, knownness" (1, page 7).

However in the aspect of studying default this idea of knowness-unknownness concept is too wide. E. P. Ivanov logically comes to a conclusion that "language value of default in the Russian language is private in relation to semantics of uncertainty. In other words, the functional and semantic category of uncertainty is a basic value for semantics of default" (1, page 8).

Professor E. P. Ivanov compares the default phenomenon with adjacent concepts as that apopiosis, sense lacuna, ellipsis, Aesopic speech, covert sense, veiling of a reference, silence, euphemia, lie, misinformation etc. In the monograph default transference in the Russian language is revealed in detail. The complex analysis of all means according to various levels of language is given. Thus, E. P. Ivanov provides the analysis of the following language means of expression of default: paralinguistic, lexical, phraseological, syntactic, graphic, and also the meaning silence. This classification of expressive means of semantics of default follows from the earlier stated information in which default was considered from the different points of view and it was compared with other language phenomena.

The undoubted advantage of chapter 1 is the striking comprehensiveness of studying of the researched phenomenon, the completeness of information presentation which is combined with laconism and aphoristic nature of a statement.

Chapter 2 deepens studying of means of expression of semantics of default. E. P. Ivanov stops on features of the use of pronouns for disclosure of value of the studied phenomenon. According to professor E. P. Ivanov, "high abstractness of pronominal value does a pronoun by specialized means of expression of semantics of default, by enciphering of information, unpleasant for interlocutors" (1, page 73 – 74). The peculiarity of the chapter is its structure connected with the gradual characteristic and the description practically of each category of pronouns.

The valuable moment of this chapter is the fact that the role of pronouns for expression of semantics of default is considered both on the example of colloquial, and on the example of literary speech.

Important sense meaning in this chapter has the subsection connected with the characteristic of literary speech. The analysis of the Russian novels of XIX-XX centuries has shown interesting results concerning the use of a graphic transference of default. Use of italics or a discharge for default marking was the frequency phenomenon. "Graphic allocation at the same time signals about a specific use of a lexeme. <...> Graphically noted pronouns, among them mainly – personal and demonstrative pronouns are served as
productive means of euphemistic use "(1, page 154). This way of emphasis of a pronoun as transmission of default becomes conceptually significant for creativity of "L. N. Tolstoy, F. M. Dostoyevsky, L. Leonov. Traditional font allocation isn't peculiar to the writers of ornamental prose, that it is connected both with a creative manner of the writing, and with ideological and literar intentions of the author" (1, page 154).

Chapter 3 deepens studying the means of expression of semantics of default much more. It is devoted to a special role of indefinite pronouns. E. P. Ivanyan connects semantic features of manifestation of default by means of indefinite pronouns with their specific affixes. Professor E. P. Ivanyan builds their description according to E. V. Paducheva's classification.

Thus, in this chapter the position that "different affixes of the Russian indefinite pronouns predetermine this or that text function serving a definite purpose speaking in the act of communication, correlated to semantics of default is claimed. <...> However in the analysis of functions of indefinite pronouns with different affixes it is impossible to speak about an unambiguous ratio of an affix of indefinite pronouns and function for expression of semantics of default. So, the component of a hint is transferred not only by pronouns with an affix which — but also such indefinite pronouns as somebody, someone, some, one" (1, page 156).

Summarizing everything, we will emphasize the main, from our point of view, advantages of the reviewed monograph.

First, it is a comprehensive approach to the studied material. This work is fine synthesis of all existing approaches to understanding of default. Moreover, the deepest author's analysis of the phenomenon of default through a prism of different views is carried out. The only full concept forming comprehensive idea of default that brings, undoubtedly, a big contribution to the development of the theory of default, taboo words and euphemisation is created.

Secondly, the deep analysis of the language material at different levels of the language is carried out. Also the role of a separate word in the text, and a role of a concrete affix in detection of semantics of default is analysed. Besides, also extra language material has undergone research, in particular the specific role of graphic allocation of words in a context as means of expression of semantics of default is revealed.

Thirdly, undoubted logicality of results presentation of the conducted research is given. The whole monograph is constructed on continuous and gradual deepening of studying of a phenomenon of default. Since acquaintance to already available concepts containing general idea about default and finishing with scrupulous detection of features of a separate language unit.

And, at last, fourthly, impressive scale of language material coverage. Language examples from various sources and even from various spheres of the language use are presented in the monograph. From informal conversation, newspapers and magazines to literary texts of the Russian novels.

This monograph lets know the reader that not only the word is capable to transfer information, thoughts, feelings, but also lack of the word, i.e. default, becomes the significant phenomenon in the course of speech communication.

References

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electronic literature is considered to be the kind of literary discourse, which is located in the Internet space and organized on the principles of the Internet. We suppose that two main varieties of electronic literature are: 1) in a broad sense, (electronic literature) a kind of literary discourse, which has electronic and written texture; 2) in a narrow sense, (net literature) a kind of electronic literary discourse, built on the principles of interactivity, multimedia and hypertextuality.

Aesthetics of electronic literature (in a narrow sense) results from the intersection of two loci of different ontological nature – real and virtual. Virtual locus is a special multilinear sign-oriented and symbolic communication space formed by a stable set of specific extralinguistic conditions and factors of communication which are derived from technical communication systems. In the communication space there are implementation and transformation of existing forms, types and codes of communication and genesis, consolidation and distribution of innovative methods of communication also become possible [Usacheva 2013: 26]. Thus, according to its ontological nature the virtual locus is a secondary sociocultural environment of communication.

During “immersion” in the virtual locus comes transformation of a number of aesthetic properties of creative writing and its product (the text). The source of this transformation is, on the one hand, peculiarities of the virtual environment, and on the other hand, creative intentions of the subject-creator and the subject-recipient. This process can be considered as a process of discursive transformation and its result is a specific electronic literary discourse (net literature) combining features of literary discourse and Internet discourse which shows its diffuse nature [Basova 2015: 24].

Thus, the reference to the phenomenon of net literature is appropriate from a position of primary / secondary genres that is innate in the nature of the Internet environment.

In this case it is interesting to turn our attention to the theory of genres that includes consideration of Internet communication genres as secondary in relation to those formed in the “pre-Internet” communicative environment. It is important to note that the problem of genre secondariness is broader than the problem of the status of Internet genres. For example, it affects the relationship of diachronic secondariness (speech / rhetorical genre etc.) and the relationship of synchronic secondariness (simple / complex, or synthetic genre etc.). It is suggested that “various types of secondariness are appropriate for language and speech in general” and thus can be studied as exemplified in the genre structure of other types of discourse [Rogacheva 2011: 38].

Genre division of discourse, including literary discourse, appears to be its universal characteristic that was revealed first in M. Bakhtin’s major works relying on the recurrent idea of dialogism as not only a feature of a single word, utterance or even a statement, but also a property of a character as a subject [Rozhdestvenskaya, 2015].
debate that started in the comments has become the part of the text. In this case we can speak about the discursive transformation of the novel under the influence of the genre of the Internet blog and also several speech subgenres: the post belonging to the author and comments made by blog readers.

The discursive transformation affected also a smaller genre form – a diary, which transformed into a net literature genre of the online diary under the influence of Internet discourse. Literariness, or artistry as a property of the discourse is inherent to various online diaries to a variable degree, but there are almost indisputable examples. Among them comes the online diary of a popular writer called Slava Se – it is a pen name of Latvian author Vyacheslav Soldatkenov writing in Russian. In 2010 he won the “Imhonet” award in the category “Favorite journalists”, which shows not only the author's popularity, but also the appreciation of the literary aspects of his net writing.

In “Rutilnet” we can see examples of more complicated interaction of literary and Internet genres. Let us refer to the forum of verbal role-playing games http://www.prik1.ru. This platform gives to users the opportunity to take part in creation of various literary works. There are many topics at the forum, and each of them develops its own narrative line. Each work is created in a particular literary style, but it is possible to determine their general prototypical literary genre – the novel. The development of the game plot is based on interactivity, i.e. involvement of multiple independent, but united by a common topic and the communication conditions authors that somehow resembles the adaptation of the epic. Thereby some recognizable features of the drama layered on the genre characteristics of the novel, Thus, the genre named “verbal role-playing game” acts as a secondary genre form in relation to the primary literary genres – the novel and the play. At the same time the impact of the genre of the Internet blog can be traced here. It acts for this net literature genre as the primary genre form.

The analyzed examples show different models of discursive transformation of primary net literature genres into secondary ones. The source of transformation and genre-making locus is the Internet sphere as ontologically secondary area of social communication. At the same time there is complication of transformational models as not only the classic literary genres, but most Internet genres become the primary genre form for the net literature genres.

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Existential sentences as a means of representation of the “state of nature” typical proposition in the Russian language

Abstract

The article is devoted to the analysis of the multifunctionality property of existential sentences in the Russian language. The author believes that the structural scheme “There + be + Noun(object/person)+Adverbial modifier of Place (AMPace)” that forms the basis of existential sentences, serves not only as a specialized sign of the “existence of the object” proposition, but also as an unspecialized sign of the “state of nature” proposition. This becomes possible due to the constitutive components of the scheme being filled with specific lexical content in course of its speech realization. Thus, when functioning in a “state of nature” typical proposition, the component that formally occupies the “subject/object of the existence” position is verbalized through lexemes having a seme denoting “state” and is seen as a predicate, the other component bearing the “focus of existence” meaning is viewed as a locative subject. Changing the signified of “There + be + Noun(object/person)+AMPace” structural scheme (“existence of the object” into the “state of nature”) leads to correcting this structural scheme nomination (from “There + be + Noun(object/person) + AMPace” to “There + be + Noun(state of nature) + AMPace”). Utterances produced according to “There + be + Noun(state of nature) + AMPace” structural scheme are diverse and can be further classified into several subgroups based on the type of the manifestation of the state of nature.

Keywords: existential sentences, multifunctionality, state of nature, a structural scheme, meaning.

Introduction to the problem

Defining the linguistic status of the ontological category of existentiality and the possibilities of recording it by means of a language as a semiotic system has been a relevant scientific topic both in Russian and foreign linguistics for a long time. Such scholars as N.D. Arutyunova, E. Benveniste, V.B. Borschev, L. Babby, V.G. Gak, G.A. Zolotova, O. Jespersen, M.V. Malinovich, N.K. Onipenko, E.V. Paducheva, B. Partee, H.V. Patroeva, O.N. Seliverstova, E.N. Shiryaev make up only a part of a long list of those who explored the category of existentiality. Treated as an objective reality that exists irrespective of the human consciousness and closely connected with the man’s concepts about all micro- and macrocosms, the category of existence finds its expression in predicates, phrases, sentences, and texts. As existence refers to asserting the fact of something or someone’s being present in the space-time continuum, these are the existential sentences that become most commonly studied signs of such situations, viewed as opposed to other semantic-structural sentence types (those of characterization, procedural meaning and others).

Relevant Scholarship

In scientific literature the category of existence and existential sentences as a means of their representation are studied from different aspects. So, the semantic structure of existential sentences is analyzed through the prism of correlating the sentence content with the type of the extralinguistic situation; in this way we focus on and actualize the description of the logical and syntactic relations that reflect our ways of thinking about the world and are determined by the internal language structure [2], [3]. There are comparative studies of existential and genitive, existential, and characterizing types of sentences [10], [12]. The category of existentiality and its linguistic representation in different languages (such as in English, Bulgarian, Danish, Icelandic, Spanish, German, Russian, Thai, Swedish and other) are studied, too [4], [11], [13], [14]. Studying the text-forming function of existential sentences is also relevant [5], [6]. Due to cognitive syntax study development a new perspective of studying the linguistic status of existence through the prism of a concept – the main cognitive linguistics category – is now being developed [7], [9].

Despite the fact that existential semantics and the means of its expression have been the research focus of attention both of Russian and foreign linguists for many years, still there has not appeared any unified approach to the category of existence. For this reason, the following list of research trends can be considered important and up-to-date: defining a full set of the distinctive features that can enable us to distinguish existential sentences from other types of clauses: studying word-level, phrase-level, sentence-level, and text-level means of verbalizing the onomasiological category of existence; applying a complex analysis method to the study of existential sentences while paying special attention to the multifunctionality and universality of such clauses; identifying the peculiarities of existential sentences in prose and poetry; defining the idioethic peculiarities of conceptualizing existence-related situations by the linguistic means.

The Hypothesis and its Correspondence to Research Design

The objective of our research is to study the multifunctionality property of existential sentences. The current hypothesis is that “There + be + Noun(object/person) + AMPace” structural scheme of existential sentences can be used not only for referring to mental images of “the existence of the object” extralinguistic situations but also for denoting some other extralinguistic phenomena, among them the one denoting “the state of nature”.

Method and research materials

The research materials are made up of prosaic and poetic texts of some Russian writers of the 19th-20th centuries. In course of the research the author has studied more than 1200 examples of existential sentences.

The author and used a descriptive analytical method and that of the contextual analysis for doing the research as they are best suited for working with such types of texts.

Results and Discussion

There exist a large number of syntactic structures in different languages but they are not all used equally by the speakers. According to N.D. Arutyunova, existential sentences are “a favorite form of communication” in the Russian language [1], [229]. For example: В доме был роскошный папин кофр на колесиках, именовавшийся по-военному „отремонтированным чемоданом”...
In speech, the studied "There+be+Noun (object/person)+AMPlace" structural scheme can denote not only the phenomenon of an object’s or person’s existence. Let's compare the following examples: —Жара. 2-й летний. <…> Над городом — марево зной (Tolstoy, Peter Pervyi [Peter the Great]); 4В сердце много грусти и любви (Bunin. noch pochalan, kak mecht' moi [The night is sad, just like my dreams…]; A бутут дни — уснет и печаль, 15/1 засияет сон воспоминани… (Bunin, Spokoiyi vzor, podobnyi vzoru lani [A quiet look, the one a fallow deer has…]). The first, the second and the third examples denote “nature — state of nature” extralinguistic situations, the fourth one denotes “an alive creature — the creature’s psychological state” situation, the last one — “the subject — the subject’s cognitive activity” situation. The form, which is “There+be +Noun(object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme, remains the same whereas its meaning changes. Thus, existential sentences reveal their multifunctionality property and represent different typical propositions.

We consider the “state of nature” typical proposition as a mental image of the complex of similar situations of extralinguistic reality that is as a result of a categorizing activity of the human consciousness. In other words, the “state of nature” typical proposition is a mental concept and a special type of a concept that is represented in a language by a complex of several structural schemes. These schemes do not constitute a single homogeneous group if analyzed according to the principle of the scheme’s intentional/unintentional usage for the verbalization of the studied proposition. We wrote about it in [8] in detail. “There+be +Noun(object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme is an unexceptional one, which means it is not specifically marked as a scheme for representing “the state of nature” typical proposition (in fact, it is marked as a specialized one for representing “the existence of an object” typical proposition). Still, it is frequently used in speech for performing namely this particular function. The results we obtained while describing verbalization of meaning of “the state of nature” typical proposition made us refer to “There+be+Noun(object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme as a “There+be+Noun (state of nature)+AMPlace” scheme, which emphasizes its meaning changes. For example: Такая дивная тишина стоит в степи! (Verbitskaya. Klyuchi schastya [The keys to happiness]); Волны курьёзные сиявят тучкой стоят зной, и заманчивой поляною струился марево (Ertel. Zapiski Stepanyaka [Stepnyak’s notes]) (the given examples feature states of nature).

"There+be+Noun (state of nature)+AMPlace" structural scheme preserves the three constituents (the locus of existence, the object of existence and the sign of existence; “there” is not a component but an introductory word in corresponding English clauses) characteristic of “There+be+Noun (object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme. They, however, change their functions. Thus, the “locus of existence” component is viewed as a predicate in the “There+be+Noun(state of nature) +AMPlace” scheme as all the lexemes found in this position contain the same denoting “state”. These lexemes denote:

1) some “generalized” state of the atmosphere such as неистовство, искрение, град, ливень (windy, rain) which is specified by the accompanying attributes: Надо иди и дышите свежим воздухом. Прекрасная погода (Gladilin. Prognos na zavtra [Forecast for tomorrow]);
2) different “types” of the generalized notion of “bad weather” such as буря, вьюга, гроза, ураган (storm, snowstorm, thunderstorm, hurricane): Мне казалось, буря еще сильнее… (Pushkin. Kapitanskaya dochka [The Captain’s daughter]);
3) the states of nature that cause human discomfort but do not have any serious consequences in comparison with the states described in the second group. They include: дождь, гроза, заморозки, засуха, зной, мороз, морось (sleetiness, heat, light morning fogs in mid-autumn or mid-spring, drought, torrent weather, heat haze, frost, cold); …Солнце горяло, в воздухе стоятизой… (Leskov. Gora [Mountain]);
4) seasonal, day and night-related states of nature such as эпак, свежие, суховеи, тума, тьма (the dark, freshness, twilight, silence, darkness, calm): Три часа, а уже совсем сумерки от тумана и дождя (Bunin. Neizvestnyy drug [An Unknown friend]).

The semantics of the predicate determines the meaning of the sentences constructed according to “There+be+Noun(state of nature)+AMPlace” structural scheme. By the way the state of nature is revealed in the sentences, the clauses can be classified into several subgroups having the meanings of:

- “the state of nature associated with the absence or presence of light”: Мрак (Tolstoy. Noch [The Night]);
- “the state of nature associated with some natural object’s or meteorological space’s being filled/not being filled with something”: Был юдхута, жаркий Бутуум… (Trifonov. Obmen [The Exchange]);
- “the state of nature associated with the movement of some objects or lack of any movement”: Ветер улегся, и больше замирь (Radzinsky. Artemova zamanka [ Artemov’s braid]);
- “the state of nature associated with the change of the objects situation": Про бурение вол, что смешалось долгим затишем, а потом началось встревоживающее пород погод (Belavin. Doronin. Zemnaya chasha [The Earth bowl]);
- “the state of nature associated with a temperature change”: Жара (Makanin. Kavkazskiy plenny [A Caucasian captive]);
- “the state of nature demonstrated by the presence/absence of the sounds”: Та же глубокая тишина и мир знат и на полях… (Goncharov. Oblomov [Oblomov]);

- a complex state of nature: Началась пурга (Ertel. Zapiski Stepanyaka [Stepnyak’s notes]). The sentences of this group have such lexemes as буря, буран, вьюга, метель, несчастье, оптения, ураган, шторм, норма, гроза, морось, блеск, апофеоз (a storm, a snowstorm, a blizzard, bad weather, thaw, windstorm) and others. We cannot produce any more state-differentiating criteria as such states of nature can be characterized as combining various features, i.e. we can observe simultaneous presence of various conditions such as sounds, absence of light, temperature rises and falls, and air movement. Such states of nature will be called complex ones. Among them are: буря (a snowstorm), буря (a storm), вьюга (a blizzard), ураган (a windstorm) and other. We cannot produce any more state-differentiating criteria as such states of nature can be characterized as combining various features, i.e. we can observe simultaneous presence of various conditions such as sounds, absence of light, temperature rises and falls, and air movement. Such states of nature will be called complex ones. Among them are: буря (a snowstorm), буря (a storm), вьюга (a blizzard), ураган (a windstorm) and others. We cannot produce any more state-differentiating criteria as such states of nature can be characterized as combining various features, i.e. we can observe simultaneous presence of various conditions such as sounds, absence of light, temperature rises and falls, and air movement.
existence but as a locative subject. It is represented by spatial adverbs or prepositional-nominal forms, for example: С ночи неувидашь, посвяшая здесь туман... (Astaw’ ev. Tsar-ryba [The king fish]); В море был шум... (Bunin. Nadezhdha [The hope]).

The third (be) component establishes the relationship between the subject and the predicate and functions as a copula. It is represented by verbs having the semantics of existence, for example, the verb быть (to be) (В воздухе была тишина (Trifonov. Oprokinuti dom [An upside down house])); verbs that have lost their primary meaning and in the found examples function in the meaning of “to exist” (Мостки заплывное несчастье, и в поле все равно делают было нежного (Markov. Strogov [The Strogovs])); verbs having semes denoting beginning, continuing, and ending in their semantic structures (На другой денникашя шторм... (Koval. Krasnaya sosna [The red pine])); lexicalized verbs having both an existential meaning that is their primary meaning and a characterizing meaning which functions as a secondary one (Буевал буран, не было у тёмного мирця земли, ни неба... (Lipatov. Derevensky detektiv [The village detective])).

“There+be+Noun (state of nature)+AMPlace” structural scheme is the basis both for two-part sentences and one-part nominal sentences. From the cognitive point of view, the one-part nominal sentences with the meaning of “the state of nature” do not represent any new structural scheme of a simple sentence because they do not have any new typical proposition. The one-part nominal sentences fulfill a certain stylistic function by creating the effect of the reader’s presence in a certain place at a certain time [3], [7].

**Conclusion**

“There+be+Noun(object/person)+AMPlace” scheme exists in several European languages but it is namely in the Russian language that it “has proved to be very significant for the syntax formation” [1, 237]. Existential sentences have had a significant influence on studying such linguistic areas as the development of the locative subject nomination, the ambiguity of “the subject” interpretation, sentences with an actualized subject-predicate complex that is made up of a lexically significant verb and a non-referent noun.

In course of the study we have come to a number of conclusions that confirmed our current hypothesis. Firstly, “There+be+Noun (object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme can represent not only the “existence of the object” typical proposition but also the “state of nature” one. Secondly, using this scheme for verbalizing the “state of nature” typical proposition becomes possible due to the specific content of its constituent components, primarily due to “the object of existence” component which is verbalized by the nouns in the nominative case that have a same denoting “state” in their semantic structure. This makes it possible for us to classify the specified component as a predicate. Thirdly, “There+be+Noun (object/person)+AMPlace” structural scheme is given a different name – “There+be+Noun(state of nature)+AMPlace” – when representing the “state of nature” typical proposition; it is viewed as an unspecified sign of the specified proposition representation. Fourthly, the semantics of the predicate leads to distinguishing several groups of sentences following “There+be+Noun(state of nature)+AMPlace” pattern. Clauses having the meaning of a complex state of nature are the most productive group.

**References**

Identity

Linguists often use the notion of “identity”. It is used either in relation to structural peculiarities of constructions or in relation to semantics. In most cases, linguistic units have one identical (i.e. equivalent, similar, resembling) distinctive feature: category, grammatical or lexical meaning, structural component, syntactic function. If within one unit we come across functional, structural, and semantic equivalence, we can speak about the linguistic category of identity. Modern science requires more than explication of the term, it calls for a detailed study of constituting phenomena, their interrelationships and interpenetration, their semantic and structural peculiarities, the means of their realization and actualization. The subject of our research is, on the one hand, special “markers” of identity, and, on the other hand, syntactic constructions in which the category of identity is realized.

Keywords: identity, linguistic categories, syntax, signs of identity.

It’s common for people to compare and relate facts of the world around, events, situations, properties of objects, or the changes that happen to them. The comparison is performed by means of language and is reflected in speech. The conclusion about the identity, i.e. equivalence of objects, characteristics, actions, circumstances is necessary and important for the evaluation of real situations, world cognition, and man’s orientation in it. The notion of “identity” is very important not only in the Russian linguistic picture of the world, because it corresponds to three stages of object cognition: singling out, identification, and classification. N.D. Artunova formulates the nature of identity as a linguistic phenomenon: “The Russian language tries to somehow formally differentiate names that are part of sentences of identity from each other, reveal their communicative inequality” [Artunova 1976: 318].

The interpretation of the word “identity” in Russian lexicography is rather ambiguous. We have different approaches to this notion. From Aristotle on, many researchers assume that only singular things, which are “one in number”, possess identity. The opposite approach can be found in the Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language by D.N. Ushakov, where identity is defined as “a state when two or more objects or phenomena under comparison appear to be the same, quite similar, or absolutely alike” [Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian Language 2000: 724]. Thus, two major kinds of identity are defined: the identity of the object in relation to itself and the identity between different objects. The condition of identity is matching of concepts of one kind and “scope” (in the functional and/or logical sense), i.e. their semantic, categorical, and generic correlativity. Contrariwise, the conclusion about identity is impossible in case of modal context, reported speech, when a name is used without a referent, when mutual substitution of the names of the subject and the object tells on the content and understanding of the utterance, and when identification is based on the class to which the object belongs.

Identification as a logical operation can perform two functions: explanatory, when the first component is not informative for the addresser; and specifying, when the first component contains sufficient information, but with the lack of knowledge about certain equivalence, the information turns out to be imprecise.

Many Russian linguists resorted to the notion of “identity” when analyzing language processes. V.V. Vinogradov was the first to point out the categorical meaning of identity in his work “The Russian Language: Grammatical Studies on the Word.” This meaning was noted, among other, in the particle же: “The postpositive identifying particle же seems to link to demonstrative particles in such combination as там же, туда же, там же, тогда же, etc. It links to pronominal words by means of aglutination” [Vinogradov 1947: 668]. The distinguished Russian scholar did not only define the notion, but showed the means by which it is formed. The next stage in the definition of the category of identity was description of language forms aimed at expressing the meaning of identity. A.A. Shakhmatov introduced the term “sentences of identity” to characterize two-member uncoordinated sentences like “Несмотря – отец русской истории” [Shakhmatov 2001: 150]. These are special constructions characterizing the subject by means of identifying it through somebody or something, equating it to somebody or something, referring it to the known, to a class of coordinated/homogeneous objects or phenomena [Russian Grammar 1980: 279]. The categorical meaning of identity has been interpreted in the “Dictionary of Linguistic Terms” by O.S. Akhmanova: “Functional identity, belonging to the same invariant, the unity of different specific representations of the invariant based on belonging” [Akhmanova, 476]. We come across the term “the category of identity” in P.A. Lekant’s article “The Problem of the Category of Identity in the Russian Language” [Lekant 2001: 5].

We believe that the list of formal indicators, or “markers of identity” (the term introduced by P.A. Lekant), and constructions of identity should be extended. To the means of forming identity we should refer the linking word есть, the pronoun это and some conjunctive combinations: только и … что, если… то, что… если не, никто… как, что… так только. The criteria for singling out constructions of identity should be the following: 1) binary structure; 2) the meaning of similarity or invariability of identified/equivalent components; 3) present (or implied) formal indicators of identity. The formal indicators of identity characterize syntactic units of all levels: simple sentences, complicated sentences, composite sentences, texts. Among the syntactic units we can single out simple not complicated sentences with homogeneous objects, attributes, adverbial modifiers; complicated sentences with two-member explanatory constructions, where the explanatory component is identical to the component that is explained; pseudo-comparative sentences, where the structural and semantic identity serves to foreground a component of an utterance; complex sentence with attributive subordinate clauses that are semantically identical to subjects or predicatives of the main clauses expressed by pronouns; supra-phrasal units with semantically or structurally identical components.

Analyzing various approaches to the classification of identity types, we attempt to create an ordered binary scheme. This principle of classification is used by A.M. Peshkovsky, who maintains that in explanatory sentences of identity “a speaker focuses on the
meaning of a separate word making linguistic self-observations in the process of speech production… According to the speaker, they denote the everlasting equality of a word and its true sense. These are ideal sentences of identity ” [Peshkovsky 1956: 271-272]. Thus, speaking about “pure”, “complete”, “ideal”, “not complicated” identity which, we believe, denotes self-identity, we should also speak about “partial” and “complicated” identity, which has been and still is a debatable issue. Sentences with complicated identity are widely spread. Two unequal images acquire certain points of contact, certain identical details. Having points of contact these unequal images correlate, which can serve as a proof of their identity and equality.

To interpret the term identity in a more profound way, we should assess the similarities and differences between identical and similar (though not identical) terms. The analysis of dictionary entries explains why these concepts overlap. The dictionary by D.N. Ushakov defines the word “identical” as “similar, alike, resembling”, which shows that we can use the word “identical” to denote both things that are absolutely alike and things that have resembling features. The dictionary edited by A.P. Eugeneyeva maintains that identity is complete sameness of objects and phenomena or correspondence of one thing to another [Dictionary of the Russian Language, V.4. – P.373]. N.D. Arutunova believes that the fact that explanatory dictionaries provide ambiguous definitions for the concepts of identity, similarity, and resemblance can be accounted for by the fact that “these words function in various spheres: denotative (existential), significative (intentional), material, and ideal. The concepts of identity and similarity can refer both to objects and to their characteristics (in a wide sense). In the first case these concepts cannot be treated synonymously, while in the second case they can be used as synonymous terms [Arutunov 1998: 297]. Thus, a special research is required to assess the differences and similarities of the concepts of identity, similarity, and resemblance. Another important issue is the semantic scope of the concepts of identity and identification. The two concepts should be treated as a process and its result. Logically correlating some objects, one compares, identifies, opposes, explains, and so on. The identity of correlated objects acquires significance. Logical identity presupposes that a subject, object, action or characteristic is self-identical. Grammatical identity covers a larger scope of meanings, it relies on linguistic markers, such as category and grammatical peculiarities. Identification is more general than logical identity, for the former includes various stages, such as assessing the reasons for identity and concluding whether the compared objects are identical or not.

Thus, logical identity is implemented in speech as a general linguistic category by means of various linguistic means.

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Халина Н.В.1, Мансков С.А.2, Белоусова В.С.3, Воронин М.С.4

1,2,3,4 Алтайский государственный университет

LINGUISTIC PREJUSSION AS EVALUATION THE ADEQUACY OF MIGRANTS’ LANGUAGE SKILLS

Abstract

The paper considers linguistic presumption as a way to assess language skills, and consequently, the validity of the human capital of the Russian migrants.

Keywords: sociology of language, engineering, language economics.

Почта авторов / Author Email: nkhalina@yandex.ru, dozent2@yandex.ru, lebelo@bk.ru, ermiroit@gmail.com

The migrants’ human capital adjusted by social presumptions of the host society shall meet the linguistic presumption requirements, which assesses the adequacy of individual language skills.

The authors of this study introduce the term “linguistic presumption” when “evaluating the quality of individual language skills and modeling his or her individual verbal behavior. The concept of linguistic presumption correlates with linguistic concepts of semantic presumption, pragmatic presumption, and the presumption of textuality. The concept of presumption allows for general description of the sentence adequacy requirements without giving an unambiguous definition of its adequacy. The presumption of textuality shall be understood as the readiness, need of a speaker to imagine something understood as a statement, a direct and observable phenomenon” (Khalina et all; Paducheva, 1977; Gasparov, 1996).

Linguistic presumption assessing the adequacy of migrants’ language skills assumes the following: 1) ability to see implicit components in the word meaning, syntactic structures and linear intonation structures; 2) skills to correlate meanings in a certain text, and with each other in this text; 3) skills to identify semantically adequate sentences; 4) ability to choose syntactic and grammatical structures to ensure the correlation of different communicative and information environments.

“Linguistic presumption is a universal regulation tool fixed in the human linguistic consciousness on its upper level to correlate with real communications and based on the human capital – language skills – of an individual. Linguistic presumptions make the basis of social behavior when using a second language; they are the foundation to build representation schemes of a social subject on” (Khalina et all).

Modern society is now experiencing the transformation of “human capitals” in the information flow environment. The dichotomy of linguistic performance and linguistic competence, or the language used and language potential is gradually losing its relevance since the opposition of native – foreign language becomes less relevant since replaced with the dichotomy of native language – linguistic skills. In this regard, the problem of human capital validity and the vitality of cultural semantics become relevant. Thus, the validity of human capital and ethnic vitality go under the concept of linguistic presumption.

The dialog-based sign systems, which are the tests for migrants, provide for the linguistic presumption assessment.

The major process in the information society is the process of encoding / decoding information messages. The decoding process is also a way of individual adaptation in the society and the institutionalization of the society itself. In this regard, such traditional linguistic questions as knowledge transmission and storing by means of natural human languages become relevant. National language here appears as a semiotic object, and the knowledge of rules for its usage gives the access to the meanings and concepts to ensure the integrity of its speakers’ mentality, so-called “spiritual bonds”. This knowledge, being a result of the intuitive comprehension of the things essence, can be called ethical knowledge (Kasavin, 2008).

High linguistic competence of the society members becomes important in this context, as well as language teaching methods and learning outcomes testing.

Since the beginning of 2015, all migrants in Russia must pass an exam, including the Russian language test. We suppose that the test, a sample of which is publicly available in the Internet, being an assessing tool for linguistic qualification, considers concepts relevant to modern Russian society, the image of immigrants and their place in semantic environment of modern Russian society.

As we believe, the achievements of knowledge management method could help us in the explication of this information, since it is focused on the linguistic aspect of knowledge extraction.

The structure of knowledge (information) contained in texts offered to migrants during the test, can be discovered by means of linguistic engineering (Khalina et al., 2013), which is a process of building anthology of a subject area where the anthology is represented by a hierarchically arranged set of terms marking concepts and their assemblies relevant to the society.

Built anthology makes it possible to form the following understanding of a migrant linguistic presumption: a) required degree of the language skills adequacy of a migrant as an economics discourse agent; b) suggested degree of the human capital validity implemented by a migrant’s communication behavior in the cultural semantics.

In this study we analyze a text taken from a complex test developed for migrants to obtain Russian citizenship. We aim at discovering concepts (or knowledge) relevant to modern Russian society, which shall be acquired by migrants to successfully integrate into the society system. In this case the human capital is identified with the system of concepts (or knowledge) operated by an individual going through the test.

Our method to work with the text includes several stages (Khalina et al., 2013).

At the first stage of ontology building, we analyze the text for the frequency of its lexical units use. We suppose that the most frequently used lexical units mark the multiplicities in the text outlines, and indicate greater importance of some concepts compared to other concepts implemented in lexical units. Thus, our study is focused on the meaning (concept), and considers not the wordforms, but lexemes (table 1).
Lexical units given in the table represent the node elements of semantic space found in the text offered to migrants during the test. Lexical units are used in the next stages of anthology building. At the same time, each of these units is a carrier of meaning important when adopting the examinee into new information environment. It is interesting that there are no such units among listed in the table above pointing to the examinee. On the one hand, it could happen because the examinee (subject) is not yet integrated into the new semantic environment and cultural semantics, and on the other hand, it could signify the absence of opportunity to integrate different cultural semantics of the host country and the integration subject.

At the next stage of the study, we defined and compared the concepts (dictionary and contextual definitions) of the most frequent lexical units. We grouped lexical units as shown below basing on the identity of semes included in the lexical meaning and their correlation with the same proposition:

1. Lexemes describing examination: test, answer, checklist, task, date, name, surname.
2. Lexemes describing job: work, employer, perform.
3. Lexemes describing the time: date, day, minute, time.
4. Lexemes describing space: place.
5. Lexemes describing the country / state: country, Russia, USSR.

Separate groups include lexemes can (describes the situation of availability or choice), and appropriate (describes a situation or its part as subjected to an established order).

First two stages of the study allow discovering the most frequent lexical units, carrying concepts important to Russian society and grouping them in larger units, which makes it possible to talk about complete systems of concepts connected with propositions that represent real situations built in semantic space of the text.

The first stages of forming the linguistic presumption in migrants’ human capital define the skills to discover implicit components in the word meaning, syntactic structures, and skills to correlate concepts with a certain text and with each other in this text. Then comes checking the ability to differentiate semantically adequate sentences and skills to choose syntactic and grammatical structures that insures the correlation of different communication and information environments.

At the next stage, we set relations between units that make the semantic nodes of ontology we build. The connection between units is provided by the general context. Thus, for example, if the units work and appropriate appear together only in one context, their connection strength is equal to unity. Connections between the units are graphically illustrated. It allows demonstrating the topological correlation of a unit with other units in the ontology, and the importance of units to the system as a whole.

The results achieved are given in pics. ## 1 and 2.
At the interpretation stage of ontology formed, we consider it necessary to point the following parameters. First, what semantic groups the lexical units of ontology are arranged in. Second, the number of lexical units in one semantic group: we suppose that the more important a fragment of the semantic space is, the more different units are used to describe it. Third, the strength of connections between semantic groups.

We have 7 semantic groups in the texts developed for migrants. The most detailed of them, multiple in lexical units included, is a group related to the test situation. The test developers are focused on the examinee (examinee), aiming to ensure a maximum degree of understanding the questions. It explains the presence of examinee in the text, despite the fact that we find no lexical units in the text directly or indirectly pointing the examinee. This is the only semantic group, which has connections with all other groups. At the same time, the text fragments formed by the units of this group can be factored out as a metatext element being a guideline to enter the main text semantics. It is worth to note that this is the only group, which lexeme appropriate has its single connection with, meaning that the concept of appropriate is understood here as the degree of compliance with the guidelines and rules declared in the metatext.

The second large group includes lexemes describing time. Together with the group describing place, they set the main coordinate axis, which are the time and space. The concept of time is represented by more units (day, century, minute), rather than space, which is limited by the trinity of lexemes Country – USSR – Russia. In addition to this, semantic group describing place has connections with the group work, actualizing the meaning of a work place, a place of work.

The requirements for linguistic competence of examinees are explicated in the lexemes group describing messages in natural language. This group includes two lexical units: topic and advertisement. Linguistic skills of a migrant in this way are assessed.
by the ability to code and decode short information messages related to advertisements.

The knowledge of foreign languages (including Russian as foreign) is one of conditions for successful professional socialization in the market economy conditions (Khalina, 2012). Russian Federation as a customer in the market paradigm has the right to set requirements to people applying for its citizenship. The compulsory examination in Russian, history and legislation allows, on the one hand, assessing the competitiveness of new citizens in the labor market, and on the other hand, makes it possible to socialize them in existing semantic environment.

The analysis of this semantic environment, studying it by means of ontological engineering methods, made it possible to assess the place of citizenship candidates in the environment. Becoming a citizen of the Russian Federation, which is the successor of traditions and values of the Russian Empire and USSR, immigrants get employment opportunities. Along with this, the requirements to linguistic competence of examinees are not that high and limited by the ability to understand advertisements. Thus, declaring its need in highly skilled labor force, the Russian Federation encourages the inflow of immigrants with low level of the Russian language proficiency, who are not able to compete in the labor market. At the same time, no successful integration into the semantic environment of modern Russian society is guaranteed to them; the success depends on inappropriate usage of examinees’ intellectual resources.

Thus, in modern conditions, when the economic development is defined not only by the character of economic interactions, but also by the communication quality, it is reasonable to assume that N. Chomsky’s dichotomy of linguistic competence and linguistic performance, relevant in assessing communication processes, becomes invalid. The category of linguistic presumption becomes more relevant when describing modern environment of cultural and economic communications. The category represents, on the one hand, the adequacy of language skills of the economics discourse agents, and on the other hand, it demonstrates the validity of human capital, including cultural semantics represented in the communication behavior of migrants.

References
Linguistic landscape (LL) is a relatively new branch of sociolinguistics which emerged due to an increasing interest in multilingualism, language ecology, globalization tendencies where languages interact in creating the global environment. Studies in LL are based on research into linguistics, sociology, law, economics, psychology, etc. Simultaneously research into and analysis of LL serve as a diagnosis of the state of social, cultural, political and economic structures of society.

Traditionally LL is defined as an amount of languages presented in written form on a certain territory, in other words, it is "the use of language in its written form in the public sphere [3, 22]." The LL of a given territory is made up of "the language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on governmental buildings" [5, 25]. The definition implies that LL includes administrative signs (public signs of regional, national or municipal levels) and both private (signs on shops, banks, billboards, means of transport) and spontaneous signs (graffiti, café menu boards), which reflect the multilingual character of a territory [5, 27].

E. Shohamy gives a broader definition of LL, including multiple contextual factors specifying the role of the language in space. According to the scholar, LL is a tool of recontextualization of a language policy concerning public space and man in the social-communicative system. Nowadays LL in multiple works is defined as a construct which beside language elements includes images, sounds, movement, music, smells, graffiti, clothes, food, buildings, history, as well as people involved in the space and interacting with and within LL in different ways [7, 154].

LL is a heterogeneous and multi-layered system in a given territory. It includes signs from different social and language levels occupying particular places in the hierarchy of the territory and interacting as elements interrelating with each other, completing each other and differing from each other in the aspect of planning (official) or randomness (graffiti, wall inscriptions). To classify the signs the following parameters are to be considered: the author of the sign, the addressee (pedestrian, driver), a social situation, the way the signs reflects the space [6, 3].

The historical phenomenon conditioned by social changes in the structure and hierarchy of communities and languages. Research into LL was promoted by the appearance and development of new technologies presenting texts in space, by increasing globalization, migration processes and international contacts. Thus, multilingual European states promote signs with texts in minority languages. The main tendency reflecting changes in the LL of post-soviet Russia is the increase in signs in English, French, Japanese and other languages.

There are two sides involved in creating LL as subjects. On the one hand, they are those who actively create LL or make and install elements of LL. On the other hand, there are people who read texts as components of LL, decode, oppose and discuss them in real and virtual communication, destroy or ignore them. The subjects are individuals or large and small social groups.

Research into LL as a semiotic space involves studying its components which attract attention. The recently introduced term "visuality" is defined as an ability to attract attention both to the meaning of the sign delivered by the language and to its visual aspects such as typography, layout, semiotic spacing, colour, spatial and kinetic arrangements [7, 154].

One of the aspects of LL which is of great importance in the modern world is multilingualism that is the use of different languages within a given territory. The types of interrelations between the languages within the LL of a given administrative territory are the following:

1) an official language and a language with a high international status (Russian and English, French, Japanese etc.);
2) an official language of a state and a regional official language or a local language (Russian and Tatar in Kazan);
3) an official language and a language with a high status in a particular domain (Italian in music) or a language of a big immigrant diaspora (Hindi in London);
4) a combination of different types.

The appearance of English-language public signs in the countries where English does not have any official status reflects language globalization trends, spread of brand names and involvement in the global market. The increase in the number of public signs in minority languages speaks about the growth of their status, tendencies in changing attitudes to them. The use of a particular language in LL is conditioned by different factors, among which E. Shohamy mentions a rational choice, representation, private and collective identities, power, rights, globalization and multilingualism [7, 153]. The comparative analysis of administrative and private signs provides a clear picture of a relative status of different linguistic codes in a given territory.

LL performs several functions: informative, symbolic [5, 25], cultural, historical, educational, social etc.

The informative function is viewed as providing information of the linguistic diversity of a specified area and the level of the area involvement in globalization processes. Thus English plays a significant part in the names of cafes, restaurants, night clubs, as well as in graffiti and private signage in Russia. When international events are held in a Russian city English becomes an official language in signage, catering spheres etc. Secondly, signs in minority languages define geographical and administrative borders of the minority language areas. For example, the use of the bilingual Sami-Finnish signs in the north of Finland is defined by the law of 1990 [4, 114].

The symbolic function is connected with the status of the language, the demographic and institutional power of the ethnic group [5, 27]. This function has to do primarily with signs on administrative buildings. Thus the use of Gaelic in the south-east of Scotland which is not a traditional Gaelic-language area is a tribute to one of the historical languages of Scotland. Tourists coming by car to Edinburgh from England see the sign Welcome to Scotland / Faite gu Alba on the English-Scottish borderline.

The role of bilingual signs in cultural legacy is not to be underestimated [3, 88]. The British Ordnance Survey defines the use and graphics of Gaelic and Welsh signs basing on the importance of preserving Gaelic and Welsh cultures and providing the rights of minority communities in Scotland and Wales. Local authorities decide on the order of English / Celtic texts on signs [2, 11].

The European Charter for Regional and Minority languages justifies the use or adoption of traditional and correct forms of
place-names in regional or minority languages which is done in respect of the language users [1, 8]. The challenging point here is which place name, English or Celtic, is original and which element was translated or borrowed. This problem is caused by historical changes in linguistic borders. The status of a place name often depends on the status of the language. It results in ignoring attitude to Celtic-language signs.

Educationally speaking, signs in minority languages or any other languages but official ones teach elements of another language to viewers and can motivate them to study the cultures and the languages.

The social function is connected with the local and national identities and it reveals the attitude of social groups to the problem of signage. The choice of the language indicates social problems and interethnic relations in society. Those who support only-English signs in Great Britain argue that bilingual signs are not safe as they distract drivers from driving. Opposition to bilingual signs in Great Britain also leads to vandalism like destruction English texts on signs in traditional Celtic areas.

The psychological function of LL is described through the attitude the subjects of LL experience at the vision of elements of LL and describe them as (un)pleasant, beautiful, ugly, (in)correct, etc. For example, a guidebook invites tourist to visit Skye and enjoy the beauty of Gaelic signs. Another example to illustrate the function is that it has become common to produce and buy clothes, souvenirs with texts.

To sum up, language communities use LL as a means of communication and interaction with globalization processes in the modern world. LL reflects social, political, cultural, economic and language phenomena in modern society.

References
THE PROBLEM OF INCREASING THE ACTIVITY OF THE INTERPLAY BETWEEN SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY AND SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Abstract

The purpose of the article is to outline the core concepts of a subject intention, molding and development, being also important to understanding Vygotsky’s view of cognitive development who clearly suggests that it is inseparably linked with speech intellectual activity and because of it is reality reflection as if refracted in the light of linguistic meaning. As a result, communicative collaboration with adults or peers that are more skilled contributes to the development of self-regulation, that is, the capacity for independent problem solving and self-directed activity. Using sociocultural theory and its tenets as a framework, we would see a highly interactive language classroom, where the students’ zone of proximal development is identified through such strategies as “portfolios”, and “dialogue journals”.

Keywords: cognitive activity, SLA – second language acquisition, sociocultural domain, zone of proximal development, self-development, linguistically unlimited task, metacognitive strategy.

Chernova N.A.1, Mustafina J.N.2

1-2Naberezhnochelnsk Institute of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University

THE PURPOSE OF THE ARTICLE IS TO OUTLINE THE CORE CONCEPTS OF A SUBJECT INTENTION, MOLDING AND DEVELOPMENT, BEING ALSO IMPORTANT TO UNDERSTANDING VYGOTSKY’S VIEW OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT WHO CLEARLY SUGGESTS THAT IT IS INSEPARABLY LINKED WITH SPEECH INTELLIGENT ACTIVITY AND BECAUSE OF IT IS REALITY REFLECTION AS IF REFRACTED IN THE LIGHT OF LINGUISTIC MEANING. AS A RESULT, COMMUNICATIVE COLLABORATION WITH ADULTS OR PEERS THAT ARE MORE SKILLED CONTRIBUTES TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF SELF-REGULATION, THAT IS, THE CAPACITY FOR INDEPENDENT PROBLEM SOLVING AND SELF-DIRECTED ACTIVITY. USING SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY AND ITS TENETS AS A FRAMEWORK, WE WOULD SEE A HIGHLY INTERACTIVE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM, WHERE THE STUDENTS’ ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT IS IDENTIFIED THROUGH SUCH STRATEGIES AS “PORTFOLIOS”, AND “DIALOGUE JOURNALS”.

KEYWORDS: COGNITIVE ACTIVITY, SLA – SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION, SOCIOCULTURAL DOMAIN, ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT, SELF-DEVELOPMENT, LINGUISTICALLY UNLIMITED TASK, METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY.

ПОЧТА АВТОРОВ / AUTHOR EMAIL: natal Cherni@gmail.com, muss jane@mail.ru

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are the forms of instructional conversations and not the “contextualized” exercises of the textbook. Chernova’s Textbook allows the teacher to talk to the class as a co-participant in the interaction. The content presents all necessary language material and teaching techniques to conduct a pattern where the teacher responds to comments of one student, poses questions of another, and, allows for student self-selected turns [3]. To illustrate the theoretical background to the problem of ESL acquisition in practice, some experimental data received in ESL classroom are presented. The first group of learners was called “Metacognitive with Verbalization” (MV). The strategy of presenting some new material in this group comprises problem-solving talks with the help of an instructional dialogue, which is triggered through the externalization on the part of the student and the tolerant and persevering responses on the part of the teacher. The second group of learners was called “Metacognitive without Verbalization” (M). In this case, instructional conversations were omitted. The third group of learners was called “Traditional” (T) i.e. the students and the teacher fulfill vocabulary practice exercises, complete textbook exercises and answer questions. The received data show that rapid progress in SLA is being made only when the teacher and the students departed from the traditional forms of contextualized language practice.

From a pedagogical perspective, the position argued in this article offers additional reasons for encouraging students to take part in a collaborative dialogue. It might be particularly useful for learning strategic processes as well as grammatical aspects of language. The whole process of second language learning is not presented as the acquisition of a new set of grammatical, lexical, and phonological forms but as the participation in the symbolically mediated lifeworld of another culture. Communicative collaboration with adults or peers that are more skilled contributes to the development of self-regulation, that is, the capacity for independent problem solving and self-directed activity. The following model of ESL classes is offered:

This teaching methodology is more flexible and means developing a sensitivity to students’ current abilities. It let learners, with support from the teacher and other learners, assume control of their own participatory activities.

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The globalization of the human society has caused problems connected with forming the linguistic picture of the world of an individual as a speaker of a certain language from one side and as a participant of a foreign-language dialogue in the united communication space from the other. In such a foreign-language context the linguistic self of a speaker of a certain language should be directed at understanding both their national and cultural identity and comparing standards, values and behaviour stereotypes of their own cultural commonness with the standards and rules of others. Russian-Chinese relationships in the political, cultural and educational, trade and economic and other spheres are becoming stronger and developing. The communication necessary for successful communication involves not only understanding on the language level but also perceiving the cultural and country realia, values and behaviour models typical of representatives of the other country and culture.

Studying the Russian language and culture, certainly, has an influence on forming conceptual ideas about the country of the language studied, gained in the classroom and during the stay in the country, forms the system of conceptual ideas which significantly differ from the national one.

This study is an attempt to systematize the data received during the free associative experiment in order to further investigate the conceptual data about Altai Krai among Chinese students studying on the investigated territory.

In this case the associative experiment is the initial method for explicating the language consciousness of Chinese speakers in order to recreate their conceptual ideas about Altai because “the associative field approximates to the reflection of some mental images and structures” [1], which means it can show the content in the national mental image of certain cultural realia.

The research of the language consciousness, according to Z.Popova and I.Sternin, means that their psychologically real content reveals itself in the process of studying language units and language structures: in what real, psychologically authentic number of semantic components this or that meaning exists in the nation consciousness, is kept in its language memory, how definite notion components, forming the word semantics, are related to each other, what the real notion connections of words and structures in the language memory of an individual are [2].

Thus we can speak about investigating the language consciousness with the help of associative experiments. As a result of analyzing such experiments we can identify the consciousness system which belongs to the collective unconscious of this society or ethnic group. Each stimulus word refers to a certain associative field representing “a fragment of the world image of this or that ethnic group, reflected in the consciousness of an average person belonging to a certain culture, their motives, evaluations, and, as a result, of their cultural stereotypes” [3].

This associative experiment involved 72 Chinese students aged from 18 to 25 and attending Barnaul institutes of higher education. 12 students have stayed in Altai Krai for 6 months, 40 – for 18 months, and 20 of them have been studying on this territory from 2 to 3 years. The students were offered a questionnaire with stimulus words, related to Altai realia, among which there were Altai and Barnaul, as well as a task to remember the first 5 associations to the stimulus word. More than 180 reactions to the stimulus were received from the respondents.

During the result processing it was revealed that the results which are the most common evaluation characteristics of stimulus-words and the most common emotional experience of the words are of greatest importance.

The result analysis has shown that the greatest number are evaluation associations, besides all of them have a positive connotation. This can be explained by the deep reverence for Russia and the fear to offend the interlocutor by giving a rude answer, this is why the desire of Chinese students to appeal to others and establish contacts reveals itself in praising the foreign cultural realia. This is why the flexibility typical of Chinese people in terms of evaluation or commenting the foreign culture reveals itself in realizing such reactions as beautiful (Altai – 60, Barnaul – 46), clean/dirty (Altai – 18/6, Barnaul – 22/4), rich (Altai – 22, Barnaul – 8), kind/good (Altai – 14, Barnaul – 20), interesting (Altai – 8, Barnaul – 14). There were also several reactions cool to the stimulus Altai, and also all right to the stimulus Barnaul.

As for other characteristics, Chinese students mostly outline the parameters of proximity-remoteness from a certain point, the population, age and the dimensional characteristics of an object. Such characteristics are necessary for characterizing any Chinese city by the Chinese. From the point of view of proximity/remoteness the respondents’ replies were different: Altai 8(near)/6(far), Barnaul 4(near)/4(far). Speaking about the number of people, all respondents noted that the population on the investigated territory is small (8).

The age parameter in this case means all reactions connected with the city’s history, its roots and the modern state. We have a number of variations: old (Altai – 20, Barnaul – 14), modern (Altai – 28, Barnaul – 0), famous/popular (Altai – 6/14, Barnaul – 0/6), and also certain reactions to Barnaul: long history and ancient, which means the terms are used spontaneously due to the lack of knowledge and the desire to appeal to the interlocutor, characterising the city from a good side because age is of great importance in China. The reactions characterising the size of an object are the most common but do not show any general tendency because the respondents’ opinions are divided equally: big (Altai – 44, Barnaul – 36), small/little (Altai – 18/4, Barnaul – 6/16).

Most Chinese students have come to Altai Krai from the north-east of China, where the climate is similar to the Siberian one, but many respondents mentioned cold (24+14), the abundance of snow (8+10) and regular weather change (4) as basic characteristics of the local weather.
There are also definite groups of reactions related to food and the most recognized objects. The first group includes such replies as milk, yoghurt, ice-cream and expensive meat, and also tasteless dishes (8). Such reaction can be explained by the fact that dairy products are not popular in China and are not sold in ordinary food shops while Altai Krai is famous for its developed agriculture. The dissatisfaction with the local food is the result of unpopularity of the food which is considered basic for the Russian cuisine: bread, milk and potatoes.

The group of the mentioned objects without certain replies includes hypermarket (20/10), the mountains and the Altai Mountains (16), the forest (the territory of the university skiing lodge) (6+6+woodlands), Mariya (18), Altai State University (2/10), Altai State Technical University (4), the Ob (4). All mentioned reactions are the result of the most memorable excursions, trips and daily strolls, which can help us judge about the peculiarities of space perception by the foreigners.

Besides all this a certain peculiarity has been identified which means a systematic substitution of one word by another. We bear in mind the fact that Chinese students mostly associate the words Altai and Barnaul, considering them synonyms according to the principle they identify Siberia and Novosibirsk.

Summarizing the main ideas, we can say that all respondents, belonging to a different culture, automatically project the most important peculiarities while structuring the new cultural reality. The constant comparison with Chinese values can be traced in all reactions which means appropriate differences in the pictures of the world and corresponding application of the same parameters while characterizing a worldview different from the usual one. We can get the initial idea about the general laws and the specific way Chinese students become familiar with the realia of Altai Krai with the help of the language. Such information gives us an opportunity to see ourselves, our culture and our fellow citizens as viewed by the representatives of a different nation, and also notice possible intersection points of the two nations. For that reason it becomes necessary to take the national and cultural diversity of the studied object into consideration, which defines the orientation of the analysis in the sphere of intercultural communication.

References

The article introduces the concept of a linguistic presumption – linguistic category of evaluation and measurement language skills of a person and validity of human capital in the system of modern economic and cultural communication.

Keywords: sociology of language, engineering, language economics.

The concept of linguistic presumption correlates with linguistic concepts of semantic presumption, pragmatic presumption [Paducheva 1977], and the presumption of textuality [Gasparov 1996].

E.V. Paducheva believes that it is more natural to consider the presumption as the meaning of the sentence in linguistics, and the correlation between presumption and the sentence, which includes this presumption, shall be identified as an objective fact of the sentence semantic structure independent of the speaker, listener and the general situation of the speech. The judgments of different speakers on the validity of the same presumption can be different, and that is why the same sentence can be meaningful to one speaker, and meaningless to another. The concept of presumption allows for general description of the sentence adequacy requirements without giving an unambiguous definition of its adequacy.

According to E.V. Paducheva, the concept of presumption is directly related to the identification of hidden (implicit) components in the meaning of language units (words, grammatical categories, syntactic structures, linear and intonation structures); identification of syntactically abnormal sentences, explanation of sources for abnormal word combinations, mechanisms of indirect understanding of abnormal word combinations (when it comes to metaphors, etc.); the prediction of the sentence behavior when changing its modality.

B.M. Gasparov [Gasparov 2004] notes that the presumption of textuality of a text message means that the speaker has no clear understanding of a text and its semantic borders. The presumption of textuality shall be understood as the readiness, need of a speaker to imagine something understood as a statement, a direct and observable phenomenon.

Linguistic presumption is a universal regulation tool fixed in the human linguistic consciousness on its upper level to correlate with real communications and based on the human capital – language skills – of an individual. Linguistic presumptions make the basis of social behavior when using a second language; they are the foundation to build representation schemes of a social subject. As a conceptual derivative of the notion of linguistic presumptions we have defined the concept of social presumption.

Social presumptions have a significant impact on human behavior and social consciousness, they are assumption-statement units to take questions of human thoughts, actions, relations between individuals in society.

When determining the nature of the social presumption phenomenon, Y.A. Chistyakova [Chistyakova 2004] relies on the integrated knowledge of social norms, peculiarities of their forming and existence, including the rules of law and actually existing element represented by legal presumptions. The unbreakable bond of social norms is in close connection with the people’s world perception, and it is expressed through social presumptions representing one of the most important regulators of social relations, acting at the level of human consciousness and supported by universal human experience.

As we believe, social presumptions in the context of economics discourse are related to the concept of “human capital” associated with the language skills, the quality of which determines the income and living standards of society members.

The concept of human capital became popular in the 1960s in social spheres, where the development of personality takes place in (education, health care, and information spheres), and in the migration sphere, which “transforms” the receiving country.

As we believe, the part of K. Marx’ capital theory, which describes organic capital, particularly the variable capital, finds its representation in the human capital concept. K. Marx introduces the term “organic composition of the capital”, which is understood as the correlation between the constant and variable capital (C: V), the growth of organic part of the capital contributes to reduction in profit margins. Part of the capital embodied in the means of production without changing its value during production process called constant capital and marked as “C”, meaning “constants” (lat.).

There is also a part of the capital advanced for the labor force, which changes the value size during the production process. This part of the capital is not only systematically reproduces its value, but also constantly provides surplus value. “Cof the constant value is part of the capital, which is always becoming variable. For this reason I call it variable part of the capital or, in short, variable capital (marked as letter “V”), stands for “variables” (lat.).” [Marks 2002]. The division of the capital into constant and variable is important as it clearly shows that the surplus value is created not by the whole capital but only by its variable part.

In the light of K. Marx’ theory of surplus value, language skills shall be considered as a kind of variable capital, which not only reproduces itself, but also provides surplus value represented by the meaning assemblies with an impact on the social infrastructure design and information flows density.
According to B.R.Chiswick, language skills meet three requirements of the human capital: productivity, production costs relative to products, and the degree of implementation into personality [Chiswick 2008] B.R. Chiswick considers language skills as the human capital related to the use of limited resources in modern economic conditions. Language skills as a form of the human capital actualization correlate with investments made to bring income in future. The income can be in the form of high earnings, lower cost of consumer goods and services, important political events, etc.

Language skills are considered by the economics of language, which formation process features several generations [Grin 2003]. Empirical works of late 1960s represent the first generation of research. In these works, the language is represented as an ethnic attribute referring a person to a particular group and having an influence on the personal and socio-economic status, especially on incomes.

The second generation of research takes place in 1970 – 1980s and deals with understanding the language nature as human capital, making it possible to consider different prospects of the language, especially in connection with the economics of education developed in the 1960s. Language skills are considered as a source of economic advantage.

The third generation of research launched by F. Veylankur studies the language functions as determinants in receiving earned income. Languages are described not only as identification elements or potentially valuable communication skills, but also as a number of linguistic attributes adopted by individuals and together affecting the socioeconomic status of actors.

D.I. McCloskey [McCloskey] notes that Adam Smith emphasized the power of speech, but unfortunately, the followers of the researcher did not pay enough attention to his note. Adam Smith determines the importance of understanding and using the theory of meaning in the framework of human economic existence, which is synonymous, from the philological point of view, to the surplus value theory in its part describing the dependence of income on the quantity of value of capital consumption.

Adam Smith in his study The Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations says that the value added by workers to the material value splits into two parts: one part goes as payment to workers, and another one goes to the profit of their employer for the whole capital he advanced in the form of materials and wages [Smith 2009]. In the meaning theory important are the following income characteristics: the income depends on the quantity of value of entrepreneur’s venture capital. In this regard, the capital consumption is the knowledge, which quantity of value is defined by the system of meanings the capital is represented by in the intellectual property market, and the meaning theory taken by an individual as basic to support his or her cognitive structure viability.

The profit an individual gets in the communication system, in this case, depends on the meaning theory, which an individual is guided by when developing communications and ensuring the viability of its cognitive structures. The viability of a human, and the anticipated profit, which he or she can get, is defined by the system of conceptused to model his or her living environment.

References
THE ROLE OF PREPOSITIONAL PARTICLES WITH SPATIAL MEANING IN THE SEMANTIC OF GERMAN COLLOQUIAL VERBAL UNITS

The purpose of this article is to analyze the role and place of German preverbal units with adverbial character under verbalization of the conceptual category “space”. The article presents the results of semantic and functional specificity (peculiarities) of German preverbal particle units - studies based on the corpus of colloquial German with word-formative and cognitive analysis involved. Reference to etymology and semantics of the preverbal particle reveals cognitive and semantic potentiality of units. The author suggests the system of meanings of preverbal articles formed around the space invariant either directly or indirectly determined by its existence. The study differentiates the main word-formative patterns of verbal units including the above mentioned particle: verbal units with locative and verbal units with aggressive meaning. Thus, the author analyses the specificity and regularity (patterns) of preverbal particle semantics depending on the semantics of the producing verb within the framework of the detected models.

Keywords: German word-formation, colloquial vocabulary, verbal units, adverbial particles, spatial relations.

Introduction

The term “preverbal units of prepositional character” combines the units with the syncretic character which, in form and semantics, correlates with independent particles and prepositions, however, being a part of verbal units they do have the function of prefix (they specify and modify the meaning of the productive verb) and the abstract charter.

The system of German preverbal units of prepositional character is characterized by the common semantic features. The interaction of structural-semantic and functional characteristics of the German preverbal units with prepositional character can be clearly shown by the example of the separately taken component units. The analysis was conducted on the German colloquial words. The main methods which were used are vocabulary definitions, the method of component analysis, the method of word-formation analysis and the method of conceptual analysis.

Brief characteristic of the German preverbal units in structural-semantic and cognitive aspects

The semantic resemblance of the German preverbal units as the components of the verbal units can be traced at the level of etymological research. The following regularity should be marked out:

- Preverbal units of prepositional character correlate with structure and semantics with homonymous prepositions which originally have spatial meaning and rooted in Old High German. After some time the spatial meaning of these prepositions and adverbs was metaphorized which led to the appearing of temporal and modal meanings. The same process took place with preverbal prepositional particles.
- From the cognitive point of view prepositional particles of spatial meaning as well as similar prepositions express archetypal symbols – “essence “ <…> “ which have the same or very similar meanings for the majority if not for the whole humanity” [5:98] and are able to actualize the idea of certain spatial relations in the minds of German speaking people. Moreover, verbalization of spatial relations, verbal units with prepositional particles of spatial semantics are regularly used to express other metaphoric ideas such as association of time with space that can become topical in derivative meanings of most preverbal prepositional particles. This property is explained from one side (linguistically) by their common semantics and from another (conceptually) by the fact that the system of spatial relations becomes a model for representing and sorting a number of notions related to other systems such as “time”, “emotions, feelings, psychological condition”, “acquisition and deprivation”, etc. [4:396]. The idea about essence related to various concept systems that make prepositional particles topical as first components of verbal units, can be seen in preverbal particles semantics and this calls for their heuristic semantics.
- Another regularity which is common for all German prepositional particles is that the meaning structure of the preverbal particle saves the spatial invariant together with a considerably ramified system of derived meanings.
- Under marked metaphor (seldomly used metonymic) meanings of derivatives in the semantics of preverbal particles one can find the similarity of the mechanisms of metaphoric and metonymic transformations: during the formation of derivative meanings, the meaning of movement or being in the space transfers from specific field into abstract one. Further analysis and shifting the meaning from abstract to spatial leads to the meaning transformation in the field of emotions.
- Intensifying meaning is typical in general for all preverbal components as the word-formation elements of colloquial speech and has augmentative character, i.e. points to quantitative indication change. First of all, preverbal particles have augmentative function joining the stem of the verbs with the same semes “acquisition”, “deprivation” or “repeating action”. So called “sine doubling” breaks the rule of interword valency and intensifies the lexeme emotionality.
The analyzed preverbal particle aus-semantically and nominally corresponds with the preposition aus and the adverb aus, which mean the movement outside from inside. Semantic similarity of the analyzed preverbal component and its homonymous part of speech, particularly of the adverb, can be historically explained by the fact that unlike East German and North German languages, the preposition aus and the adverb aus (abh., mhd. üs, mnd. üt) since 8th century have been in use simultaneously. In Low German variant the preposition aus in independent use has gradually been substituted for homonymous adverb that with time takes the role of the detachable verbal units component while keeping its meanings system [3]. For example, the adverb aus has main meaning “to stop, to finish” which is not typical for the preposition aus, but can be found among the meanings realized by this preverbal component. As a result of semantic concretization, the “switch off” appeared. In these meanings aus has imperative connotation. Other meanings of the adverb aus are coherent and reflect an abstract idea about the movement outside while focusing on the initial point of the movement: “to start movement from somewhere” (von etw. aus), according to somebody’s opinion (a person as an initial point of movement — thought) (von mir aus) [2:170].

Apart from the spatial meaning of the preposition aus, it has figurative meanings which are based on the abstract idea of the movement from the closed space that is interpreted as an initial point of the movement or its source: in this way such meanings as “origin of time and space” (er kommt aus Hamburg; ein Werk aus dem Jahr 1750), “disturbance or change of condition” (aus dem Schlaf; aus dem Gleichgewicht). In another figurative meaning “because of something” the preposition aus means inner reason for an action, condition or feeling which is the reason for an action (aus Angst). Under the source one can comprehend the material used for making a thing, previous condition or state which resulted in the development of the situation (aus der Raupe entwickeln Schmetterlinge) [2:170].

The main meaning of the preverbal particle aus as well as of the similar preposition in the German vocabulary is the locative meaning “movement outside from inside”. The idea about movement going from a point that limits the object correlates with the idea of the abstract movement toward spacious zone and getting rid of the things that disturb and keeps the object in its physical and psychical manifestation (auspusten — 1. blow out; 2. breathe out (pusten; ausblähen; coll. breathe)).

The characteristic features of the semantics of the preverbal particle aus-in the structure of the colloquial verbal units

Considering the word formation of the colloquial verbal vocabulary, metaphoric idea about the movement “from closed space outside” is realized in the following meanings of the preverbal particle aus:

- The meaning “moving away from somewhere or releasing the object from somewhere by moving away” (auskramen — 1. take out (something from somewhere); 2. to empty, to release (from something); 3. to give away secrets (syn., coll. kramen — to rummage (in searching of smth)). This meaning can be specified through last semes “cleaning, devastation” or “creation, production of smth”. In this sense as the addition to the verbal unit comes the object at the devastation, cleansing or creation of which the action is directed (auskläumen — make out, create (through long reflection and ideas) (n.g. kläumen — to reflect, to ponder over smth)).
- The meaning “extension, enlarge in size” (ausleiten — 1. to strain, to give away) is based on the idea of directed movement from initial point.
- The meaning “spreading”, “movement in different directions” which is supplemented by the semes “chaotic condition”, “miscordination” (ausstolten, sich — to be tired of running about, to roughhouse (tollen — to go wild, to make noise)).
- The meaning “release, separation, excluding from certain amount or quantity” (ausreagieren — to sort, separates from, to sort out (rangieren — 1. to order trains, to sort (carriges); 2. to stand in order; 3. to line up)).
- The meaning “absence” basing on the idea that metonymic interpretation of the meaning “movement outside” implicates the idea of being outside the closed area, absence from the room (ausbleiben — to be absent, to make smb wait for smth).

- The meaning “finishing of a process, activity” which is based on the associations of the room emptying after the object’s movement outside (auskurieren — to cure. (kurieren — to cure)).
- The meaning “abolition, elimination, liquidation” (ausmachen — 1. to switch on, to switch off; 2. to extinguish) is implicated by the finishing process idea.
- The meaning “full provision, supply of the object by smth”. Perhaps, the inner sense “action completion, finishing of the movement period” which accompanies the main meaning of the preverbal component aus-, is the basis for new meaning formation (auskleisten — 1. to glue over; 2. to glue (kleisten — coll. to glue)).

It should be mentioned that playing the role of the component of the colloquial verbal units, the particle aus- realizes specific spatial sense rather infrequently.

The role of the prepositional particle aus- in the formation of the general word formative semantics of the colloquial verbal units

The analysis of the word formative meaning of the German colloquial verbal units with the component aus- makes it possible to conclude that according to this criterion one can single out two main models: verbal units with locative meaning and verbal units with egressive meaning among which can be found units with augmentative meaning. At the same time, the term locative word formative meaning should be understood rather widely because the cases of metaphorization of the meaning of movement in the space outside from inside in word forming of the colloquial verbal units can be found rather often.

Verbal units with locative meaning

This group includes rather few verbal units with the movement in the space meaning, their word formative meaning corresponds with the wording “moving outside from inside in the way that is defined by the verbal stem”. Spatial meaning can be both direct and figurative, abstract. (ausrängieren). In the meaning of such verbal units there is a sense “one time action” (3): auslutschen — to suck dry (lutschen — to suck, to suck out), auskramen — 1. to take out (smth from somewhere); 2. to empty, to free (from smth); 3. to give away (syn. coll. kramen — to rummage, in search of smth).

An independent subgroup includes verbal units in the meaning of which the result is expressed more than in the units mentioned above. Their word formative meaning can be described by the wording “to get smth by producing”. The derive stem in this case means the result of producing — getting smth, acquiring smth (3): ausbekommen — 1. to get out with difficulty; 2. (coll.) to eat up; 3. (coll.) to read up (bekommen — to get), auskriegen — 1. to get out with difficulty; 2. (coll.) to eat up; 3. (coll.) to read up (kriegen — coll. to get).

Verbal units with egressive meaning

In the basis of the resultative meaning of the units of this group there are metaphorized spatial senses that make the core of the semantics of the preverbal particle aus-. In some cases they are not strongly presented but in egressive senses they dominate clearly. Resultative meaning in this case can collocate with the meaning “full coverage of the object by an activity which is expressed by the stem”: ausbuhnen — “hiss off”, to express dissatisfaction, indignation towards the speaker with disapproving shouts (syn. coll. buhen).

In the model with egressive meaning one can speak about the subgroup of verbal units in the word formative meanings of which the effectiveness combines with vividly expressed abstract spatialness of the semantics (ausquetschen, austrompeten, etc.). In this subgroup there is the dominance of the lexemes which are formed from the verbs meaning the processes of speaking and sounding; buhen, posauen, ratschen, sülzen, trompeten, knipsen, quatschen, heulen. Preverbal particle inside these units has an intensifying function and realizes the sense “full process finishing”. In the structure of such verbal units the meaning of the component aus- are more often understood as “open expression of thoughts, emotions, feelings” and stipulates the component combination with a range of lexemes which name the specific way of expression: ausposaußen / austrompeten, — (coll.) to give away a secret, ausratschen — (s.-u., coll.) to give away, ausquetschen — 1. to give away; 2. to unburden one’s heart, to unburden oneself.

The area of state and movement in the space is one of the basic conceptual things in any national world picture, and the associations, which connect certain state or movement of the object in the space and relevant abstract idea, are similar [1; 5].
Nevertheless, cultural – historical conditions under which the nation development was going on, leave a kind of imprint on the comprehension and interpretation of the such basic things as “limit” or “space”. The German idea about space has been formed under the condition of life in rather small territory. A great role was played by the historic division inside this area and the presence of the separate small life areas that were usually highly populated. German world picture is characterized by the polarity of outer and inner space. Althaus H.-J. and Mog P. write about exact and full delimitation of the inner area from the outer world that is specific for German national mind. The expression of the German settled way of life (Selbhaftigkeit) and the desire to delimit their world keeping the stability they see in the organizing of the social public life; in particular in having ramified strictly organized system of social support, formal and informal public groups and organizations (Vereine), which unite the society providing its stability and safety [1:55]. The movement outside from the closed area can be estimated negatively. During this process the closure breaks, that which means breaking of orderliness and organization of this area. Then the one who leaves this area loses safety and stability.

Perhaps, this can explain, to some degree the presence of negative sense of some verbal units with aus-. Particle aus- has a disapproving connotation. For example, inside lexeme ausfliegen — 1. to lead associas way of life, 2. to get mad, to fly into a rage; 3. to be overjoyed, (flippen — 1. skip, jump; 2. to dance self-forgetfully).

Word formative meaning of such model is expressed by the syntagma: «to bring the action expressed by the derivative stem till highest point of its expression». Preverbal component adds the sense of intensity in the meaning of the unit. Derivative stem also means the action characterized by strong emotional condition in such way that additional emotional state for such lexemes is brought by interword sense doubling.

Conclusion

Therefore, it can be concluded that in spite of the meaningful abstractness and semantics vagueness, German preverbal particles of the prepositional character are ploysemous. The meaning system of the preverbal particles is based on the spatial invariant and some particle meanings are based on metaphoric semes which directly or indirectly (through other derivative meanings) correlate with spatial invariant.

In conclusion it should be pointed that the study of the semantics of the German preverbal particles from the point of their cognitive potential and taking into account their word formative role in the structure of the verbal units, makes it possible to single out and describe the content of the expressed spatial relations as well as contributes to the research of the problem of their morphemic and word formative status.

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LEXICAL GRAMMATICAL SPECIFICITY OF GERMAN CATHOLIC PRAYERS ON THE FEASTS OF THE DOCTORS OF THE CHURCH

Abstract

Through the example of the German language, the paper analyzes a special type of Catholic liturgical text – the Priestly Prayer during the Liturgy of Hours (oration) on the Feasts of the Doctors of the Church. The study views the prayer as a type of text and describes its socio cultural specificity. The present article analyzes the prayers on the Feasts of the Doctors of the Church for lexical grammatical models (addressings, predications, pleadings and conclusions) and the most typical compositional, grammatical, and lexical features and stylistic devices (intertextual borrowings, metaphors, metonymies, antithesis, and syntactic parallelism); and traces how they create the originality of this type of prayers.

Keywords: prayer, oration, Book of Hours, composition, lexical grammatical variation.

Introduction

The prayer, as a special genre and type of text, has traditionally been an object of investigation in theology (liturgical, pastoral, and moral). In 1970s in Germany, a series of studies investigate the prayer within the framework of theology and religious studies (Hartmann, 1973, p. 109-110; Neuhuizer, 1980, p. 243-245). Beginning from 1980s linguistic studies start investigating the prayer as a linguistic, cultural, poetic and hymnographic compositional phenomenon (Hartmann 1985; Schermann 1987; Werlen 1988) and as a speech act (Schaeffler 1989). As a rule, these studies views the prayer as an element of liturgical cycle and one of its main components (Berger, 2003, p. 801-802). Another approach is to investigate the prayer as a type of religious text and examine its possible transformations (Greule, 2012, p. 87-150; Sokolova & Plisov 2014; Голубева 2016). Detailed investigation on different types and kinds of prayers is a current issue for Germanic studies and it is awaiting for its complex description. The objectives of the present paper are: (1) to describe socio cultural specificities of German Catholic priestly prayers on the Feasts of Doctors of the Church during the Liturgy of the Hours and (2) to list and analyze their lexical grammatical and compositional characteristics.

Structural specificity of the oration

Prayers belong to Euchologian liturgical texts. Most often, the pleading prayer, as a special type of prayer, is opposed to the prayer of praise and the prayer of gratitude. Meanwhile, some scholars believe this opposition has limitations because, for example, the Lord’s Prayer is a confessional prayer but it also contains praising and pleading intentions (Cullmann, 1994, p. 31-40). Priestly prayers (orations) have a very structure. These prayers are pronounced to finish a certain part of the service, for example, the reading from the Gospel. They can also be pronounced as a final blessing to finish the service. The oration begins with the greetings to the congregation and an invitation to pray. Most often, the prayer itself begins with addressing God the Father but sometimes it begins with addressing God the Son. The final part begins with the pleading where the name of Jesus Christ, the Medium in the prayer is mentioned: Per Dominum nostrum Iesum Christum. While in the Eastern liturgies orations are wordy and solemn in style, the Roman orations are brief, plain, and precise both in a form and the content. Stylistically they are marked by antitheses and use phrase structures with an accurate meter.

The present study

The material for the present study is 20 priestly prayers from the Book of Hours of Roman Catholic church for the German dioceses (Die Feier des Stundengebetes für die katholischen Bistümer des deutschen Sprachgebiets (2007, p. 737-981)). The texts of orations pronounced during the Liturgy of the Hours exhibit strict rules of composition and structure. All the selected prayers belong to one thematic group – they are pronounces during the Liturgy of Hours on the Feasts of Doctors of the Church (doctor ecclesiae).

In the prayer the indicative addressing, Gott, that often goes without any attributes, is detached to the relative predication that characterizes God the Father expressing praise and gratitude and introducing the basis for the further pleading. The pleading, in its turn, can sometimes be divided into the pleading itself (epiclesis) and the predication, which formulates the expected consequences of the pleading (anamnesis). The conclusion, in Roman tradition, does not have an elevated style to praise God but, nevertheless, it fulfills the praising function.

![Table 1 – Example of composition of oration](image-url)

The initial addressing to God aims at expressing categories of personalization and appellation that are dominating in perception of God as a personality. Attitude to God is expressed by the addressing with high personalities, absolutely ameliorative estimation that has several lexical grammatical models: 1) noun: Gott; 2) personal pronoun: Du; 3) noun with attribute in agreement: heiliger Gott; 4) noun with apposition (sometimes using addressing pronoun in 2nd person, singular) Gott, du Hirt deines Volkes; 5) noun with subordinate relative clause: Gott, du Stärke aller, die auf dich vertrauen.
From the models above, the most frequent models are: noun with attribute in agreement and noun with apposition. Attributes often contain epithets that are important for their theological meaning. In Biblical tradition, they also function as euphemistic epithets for the tabooed name of God: ewiger, heiliger, göttiger Gott. Briefness and limited variability of the addressing can be explained by the fact that the priestly prayers under analysis are pronounced during the Hours and not in the liturgy and they are designed for everyday services.

The structural base for the anamnesis is various. Meanwhile, the composition these prayers imposes its own strict rules for predications because the prayer is short. The predication of the analyzed prayers can be:

1) a simple extended sentence: du hast deine Kirche durch die fromme Gelehrsamkeit des heiligen Beda erleuchtet;
2) a complex sentence with subordinate clause: durch deine Gnade ist der heilige Bischof Cyrill von Alexandrien erschrocken eingetreten für den Glauben, daß Maria deinen ewigen Sohn geboren hat;
3) the predication containing two independent sentences: wir begeben den Gedächtnistag des heiligen Dukon Ephrām. Erfüllt vom Heiligen Geist, hat er in Hymnen und Liedern deine Größe besungen.

Linguistically the preference is given to the structures enumerated above. There are no simple non-extended sentences. The pleading and the predication of the addresser are closely connected in meaning.

The content of the predication of the addresser is not homogeneous. It may contain facts from the Holy story, allusions to them and references to special merits of the Saint and his impact in dogmatic teaching: durch deine Gnade ist der heilige Bischof Cyrill von Alexandrien erschrocken eingetreten für den Glauben, daß Maria deinen ewigen Sohn geboren hat; it may express dogmatic points: auch wir bekennen sie als wohre Gottesmutter; it may represent the religious experience of the believers: du bist deinem Volk gnädig; it may anticipate the anamnesis and explain why it is possible to plea to God for certain things: du schenkest der Kirche zu allen Zeiten Menschen, die durch ihren Glauben und ihre Liebe ein Vorbild sind.

Among the stylistic devices the strongest preference lies on metaphors, epithets, metonymies and syntactic parallelism. Usage of these tropes and figures, on the one hand, is aimed at making the text figurative and, consequently, more expressive. On the other hand, it fulfills an important architectonic function – ensures a precise composition of the prayer (Eroms, 2008, p. 188). Some scholars believe that stylistic specificity of the texts of prayers also fulfills another very important function – to sound indirectly in expressing believers’ desire for salvation (Luibl, 1993, p. 112).

The epiclesis contains one or several pleadings and it is intended to fulfill one of the main functions of a prayer – pleading. The analyzed pleading parts of priestly prayers are marked by stylistic diversity. Thematic representation of most of the pleading fragments means to explicitly express the main noms and values of the religious life. Almost all the prayers contain pleadings connected to supermoral (defining a person’s behavior towards God) and moral (defining a person’s behavior towards other people) values. The fact that there are no pleadings containing utilitarian values can be explained by the specificity of communicative situation when the priest pleads to God for things that are important for the whole church that is understood as the congregation of the believers. Moreover, this prayer is pronounced in a public worship, not in a private one. This defines its thematic specificity.

Structural semantic specificity of the pleading will be characterized by:

1) the usage of the imperative in 2nd person, singular: Öffne auch unser Herz für dein Wort, damit wir darin die Quelle des Lebens finden; Belehre uns durch sein Wort und ermutige uns durch sein Vorbild;
2) The multicomponent structure of a pleading – as a rule, epiclesis has 1-2 pleadings, that are closely connected;
— if epiclesis has only one pleading, it will contain several subordinate clauses: Gib uns ein Herz, das dich in allem und über alles liebt, damit wir den Reichtum deiner Verheißungen erlangen, der alles übersteigt, was wir erschaffen;
— if the sentence is not overloaded with subordinate clauses, it will have the complex construction with zu-phrase: Gib uns die Kraft dieses Gebot treu zu befolgen, damit wir das ewige Leben erlangen;
3) The absence of simple sentences in the epiclesis and the subordinate clauses of purpose with conjunctions daß and damit: Erleuchte auch uns durch deinen Geist, damit wir unsere Aufgaben erkennen und sie in deiner Kraft erfüllen.

Among the 20 prayers analyzed for the study, there is only one instance when a pleading is not expressed by the imperative but by the optative. The optative structure shows that the speaker is sure that God would fulfill what the pleading is asking for. The usage of the optative is a distinctive grammatical specificity on many texts belonging to the religious style.

As a rule, all the components of a pleading will be included in one sentence. Meanwhile, cases of division of the components of a pleading between separate sentences are also possible, for example: Pflanze in unser Herz, die Liebe zu deinem Namen ein. Binde uns immer mehr an dich, damit in uns wächst, was gut und heilig ist. Wache über uns und erhalte, was du gewirkt hast.

The pleading can be expressed by different verbs but half of the prayers use the verb geben: Gib uns … It is interesting that this verb introduces only one pleading in the prayer and, as a rule, this pleading contains several subordinate clauses. It is also worth mentioning that most of the pleadings are aimed at receiving certain qualities, conditions or things from God. As a rule, believers either do not have these qualities, conditions or things, or what they have is not enough (gib uns ..., erwecke ..., lehre ..., stärke ...).

In the prayers of this group there are no pleadings to God for salvation from sinful states, immoral qualities, etc. or for restriction from getting into these states (nimm ... weg, schätze uns von ..., erhalte). This is typical for the liturgical texts in general, especially to the texts of the Liturgy of Hours. The final part of priestly prayers (conclusion, doxology) is homogeneous and is most often expressed by the words Darum bitten wir durch Jesus Christus.

Discussion

The detailed analysis of priestly prayers from the Book of Hours pronounced during the German Catholic service shows the specificity of this text, which, in particular, is expressed by its strict composition structure (the addressing – the predication of the addressing – the pleading – the conclusion). The addressing to God is marked by absolute ameliorative estimation of the addresser and is limited to several lexical grammatical models. Other parts of orations also follow established models but, at the same time, their content is marked by variability. Their content can contain intertextual references (for example, to the facts from the Holy Story), express dogmatic fundamentals and represent religious experience of the believers. The texts of prayers also contain certain degree of lexical and grammatical variability. Among the most salient stylistic devices, we should name the usage of syntactic parallelism that insures clarity and rhythm of the verse.

Conclusions

Comparative analyses of content-structural characteristics of prayers of different ordinances of the German Catholic service and the analyses of prayers of different confessional belongings would allow (1) singling out typical characteristics of the prayer as a type of text and (2) stating socio cultural specificity of the prayer in Christian discourse in the German tradition and culture.

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Валентинова О.И.1, Преображенский С.Ю.2, Рыбаков М.А.3

1,2,3Российский университет дружбы народов

METHODOLOGICAL POTENTIAL OF SYSTEMOLOGY IN THE INTERPRETATION OF LANGUAGE PHENOMENA

Annotation

В статье представлен анализ возможности использования системологического подхода в решении общих и частных проблем современной лингвистики. Как показало исследование, лингвистическая теория Г. П. Мельникова, основанная на принципе системности, обладает высоким объяснительным потенциалом в области общих проблем лингвистической теории и типологии (выработка единого основ исследования языков разных уровней, познание причин исторического изменения языка, установление связей между типом языка и условиями его существования) и применительно к частным проблемам, например, объяснительному анализу уровневой структуры семитских языков, раскрытию специфики фонологии и морфологии русских диалектов.

Ключевые слова: лингвистическая теория, методология, принцип системности, структура языка, тип языка.

Valentinova O.I.1, Preobrazhenskiy S.Yu.2, Rybakov M.A.3

1,2,3Peoples’ Friendship University of Russia

METHODOLOGICAL POTENTIAL OF SYSTEMOLOGY IN THE INTERPRETATION OF LANGUAGE PHENOMENA

Abstract

The article presents the analysis of possibilities of using systemological approach in solving general and particular problems of modern linguistics. As the study showed, the linguistic theory of G. P. Mel’nikov, based on the principle of the systematic approach, has high explanatory potential in the field of general problems of linguistic theory and typology (development of a common framework of analysis of phenomena at different levels, knowing of the causes of historical changes of language, relations between language type and conditions of its existence) and for particular problems, for example, an explanatory analysis of the level structure of the Semitic languages, the disclosure of the specifics of the phonology and morphology of Russian dialects.

Keywords: linguistic theory, methodology, system principle, the structure of language, the type of language.

Почта авторов / Author Email: preobrag@mail.ru, verbum-palabra@yandex.ru, ovalentinova@yandex.ru

Introduction

G. P. Mel’nikov’s system linguistics which, according to scientific ambitions of its author, claimed methodological priority in linguistics in general and linguistic typology in particular, at present cannot be estimated as an epistemic marginality. But at the time when scientists previously considered leaders embodying genuine linguistic progress, proclaimed linguistics a “theoretically exhausted” field of knowledge (cf: «Once (in 1989) I asked the outstanding linguist Igor Mel’chuk, what was happening to his science. He answered (manifesting no pleasure), that some sciences were theoretically exhausted, including linguistics» (Smirnov 1995), G. P. Mel’nikov’s systemology could fill the seeming void. Symptomatically, at those critical 1990ies the concept of “dynamic” typology by A. Ye. Kirbik was published; his monograph (Kirbik 1992) contains references to Yu. P. Rozhdestvenskii’s «Typology of word» (Rozhdestvenskii 1969) which to a large degree reflects G. P. Mel’nikov’s theoretical views. Thus, G. P. Mel’nikov’s theory cannot be regarded as completely forgotten and ignored by the scientific «mainstream». In those years, critical for Russian linguistics, G. P. Mel’nikov acquired allies, such as the phonologist E. F. Kirov, typologist A. A. Kretov, Russian syntax researcher M. Yu. Fedosyuk. Presently, judging by the activeness of publishers and internet portals, the Russian linguistic community has regained a certain interest for the scientific heritage of the systemologist. Possibly, the scholars are mainly attracted by the explanatory and prognostic potential of «system linguistics». G. P. Mel’nikov used to test his guesses and ideas in the student audience; that helped manifest the bright and original persuasiveness of the illustrative analogies, which sometimes disappeared in the few monographs by G. P. Mel’nikov, the fact that made editors complain: «This circumstance (limited volume. – authors of the article) must have denied the author the opportunity to use his original manner of presenting his ideas, the manner for which he is famous among the audience at conferences, congresses, seminars and lectures, where he illustrates each of his propositions by demonstrative pictures and examples from various scientific fields, branches of technology, from social and everyday situations» (Kosarev 1978). The authors of the present paper once comprised that very student audience of G. P. Mel’nikov and their object as they see it is actualizing some of the scientist’s speculations which remain in their memories, which have never been published as completed texts, but fully realize the explanatory and prognostic potential of his «system linguistics».

Universal character of the system method

G. P. Mel’nikov characterized the typological structure of Semito-Hamitic languages in several relatively small scientific articles: «Interdependence of tiers in languages of Semitic system» (Mel’nikov 1965) and «Relation of Semito-Hamitic languages to Indo-European and Ibero-Caucasian languages from the position of system linguistics» (Mel’nikov 1977). But later he often repeated the topic in his oral reports. For instance, there exists a record of his lecture of 1987, addressed to a wide audience. About a year before delivering the mentioned lecture, G. P. Mel’nikov had illustrated some principles of the “Semitic language system”, namely, the following one: «…we have two types of signs; one type expresses actions and is basic in all respects, other signs are modifiers of those basic ones. So, if we trace the development of the Semitic language system and compare it to the Indo-European system, we shall see that in the Indo-European systems the basic roots sometimes concern action, and such roots often prevail, but there is plenty of other roots (not verbal); as for Semitic languages, there a process took place of throwing away roots not naming action; they were either forgotten or reinterpreted, as the result, only words naming actions remained» (Mel’nikov 1977: 139). This illustration appears to have had an independent meaning, as it stated isomorphism of semiotic systems of different substantial nature (verbal and visual) performing similar communicative function in the language community where one of the Semito-Hamitic languages was used. G. P. Mel’nikov analyzed the visual system of the ancient Egyptian fresco. The first thing to note was the contradictory combination of visual statics and semiotic dynamics: for any human figure, there was an obligatory angle canon (shoulders horizontal, both feet stiff in pace, both hands shown, on the face in profile the eye shown in face). In such a way, the pictures of people-doers are verbalized, turned into visualized «verbs» – different positions of hands and feet are semantic specifiers of an iconic sign of what is the figure doing – shooting, going, running, carrying water etc. As for the areas of relative freedom in the frescos, they are similar to vocal modifiers: in Semitic languages, firstly, the changing vocal structure of the root consisting of three unchanging consonants, specifies the meaning or conveys a grammar category. In the horizontal picture placed on a wall, the most stable elements are the most standardized large figures, which can also be compared – besides the comparison to the stable consonant base of a Semitic root – to the verbal-attributive predicate of the Semitic sentence. As for the more variable from the point of view of the visual canon elements of the picture, on this level of comparison they will be akin to nominal modifiers of the message.

According to G. P. Mel’nikov’s conception, changes in the size of a language community, in the degree of its homogeneity or non-homogeneity, in the frequency and character of communication depending on the conditions and way of life of the native speakers, for instance, nomadic or settled, causes internal reconstruction of language leading to change of language type. The explanatory
Mel’nikov had always argued the interdependence of language levels, showing by way of examples their being organic parts (subsystems) and having their own functions within the whole supersystem, i.e. language. He did not reject the well-known level model of language, but considered it one of the aspects of the system model which structural linguistic never attempted to build. Following F. de Saussure, they considered language «in itself and for itself», never turning to its external functions and conditions of existence. This autonomy principle was applied by structural linguists to investigating separate levels. As for typological classifications, they, if taken into account at all, were regarded as completely independent from one another.

In his work of 2000, «System typology of languages: synthesis of morphological and phased classifications of languages» G. P. Mel’nikov, as it is clear from the title, synthesized the synchronous and diachronic aspects of typological classification and thus put an end to the generally accepted and fruitless opposing of «morphological classification» to «phased classification by stage». It has become clear that linguistic typology cannot be only synchronic, and historic linguistics cannot be only descriptive and local. Also the interrelation of morphological and syntactic structures of languages was shown in the light of Mel’nikov’s initial idea that both structures of the external form of language are generated by its internal form; the latter is «the essence of the language system manifesting itself through numerous observable projections, including “morphological” and “phased” classifications of language types» (Mel’nikov 2000: 52).

Change of such parameters as the size of a language community and the degree of continuity of the social experience leads to the change of language type in the direction: incorporating language (in morphological and syntactic aspects non-distinctive of these levels) — incorporating ergative language (in morphological aspect incorporation is partial, the object of an utterance is singled out) — agglutinative ergative language (terminative and attributive angle) — agglutinative nominative language (the subject is singled out) — inflective nominative language (the subject come out to the foreground, all parts of the sentence tend to morphological formalization, eventivity is the main trait of the nominative angle) — isolating nominative language (parts of the sentence are devoid of morphological formalization, the situation is depicted in an outline, in a general contour).

Conclusion

G. P. Mel’nikov has proved that syntactic and morphological classifications, although they consider different dimensions of language, are parts of one system and are not absolutely independent: incorporating language cannot be nominative, inflective and isolating languages cannot be ergative. At the same time, there is no direct system of correspondences here: firstly, there are three morphological types that can be syntactically nominative; secondly, an agglutinative language can be both ergative and nominative. This is natural for G. P. Mel’nikov conception, because two classifications based on external forms of different levels, are explained not only through one another, but mostly through a deeper notion of the internal form of the language. Incorporation, for instance, is directed on a detailed description of a situation, not if a dynamic event including subject and object of action. The tendency of language to create a certain image, called by G. P. Mel’nikov the determinant of a language, depends not on the formal structures of the language but on the typical informational need of the participants of communication. Moreover, it is the factor inducing the language to fix some formal structures as canonical.

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В статье представлены лингвистическая и когнитивная концепция воспроизводимости как способности говорящего извлекать из памяти и употреблять в готовом виде не только слова, но и синтаксические конструкции. Воспроизводимость языковых единиц рассматривается как особое свойство быть постоянным, исторически закрепленным языковым знаком, отражающим действительность, свойство повторяться как одна и те же единицы в разнообразных текстах. В статье выделены интеграционные и дифференциальные признаки категории воспроизводимости и категории устойчивости, а также рассматриваются когнитивная обусловленность воспроизводимости, дающая возможность для воспроизведения в речи не только изолированных, но и коммуникативных единиц.

Ключевые слова: воспроизводимость, идiomатичность, фразеологизм, прецедентная языковая единица, когнитивная лингвистика.

Артамонова М.В.

Владимирский государственный университет имени Александра Григорьевича и Николая Григорьевича Столетовых

ВОСПРОИЗВОДИМОСТЬ ЯЗЫКОВЫХ ЕДИНИЦ: ЛИНГВО-КОГНИТИВНЫЙ АСПЕКТ

Abstract

The article speaks on the linguistic and cognitive concepts of reproducibility as of the speaker’s ability to retrieve from memory and apply not only words but syntactic constructions. Reproducibility is seen as a special ability to be a stable, historically fixed language unit, reflecting the reality; an ability to be reproduced as one and the same unit in various texts. The article speaks on the integral and distinguishing characteristics of the categories of reproducibility and stability; it dwells on cognitive conditionality of reproducibility, which gives an opportunity to reproduce not only notional units but units of communication.

Keywords: reproducibility, idiomaticity, phraseological unit, precedential language unit, cognitive linguistics.

According to Smirnitsky, it is an important property of word-forms, within which categorial forms can be distinguished and which are part of grammatical category structure, that they are reproducible in speech thus contributing to the reproducibility of grammatical categories as solid units at the grammatical level [Смирницкий 1956].

The term ‘reproducibility’ is most widely used in the phraseological conception, according to which reproducibility is seen as functional repeatability of units, their ability to be retrieved from memory ready to be used, which is opposed to the free choice and combination of language units in speech. However, reproducibility is not exclusively a property of phraseological units since it characterizes language units at other levels.

It should be admitted that reproducibility – as ability to be a permanent, historically fixed language sign reflecting reality; to be repeated as one and the same unit in different texts; to be retrieved from the language arsenal as a ready-to-use item – is a most common property of phraseological units, distinguishing them from collocations and bringing them closer to the word. Above all else, this feature unites all phraseological units.

The features of stability and reproducibility are characteristic of phraseological units. The named features make the base for classifications of phraseological units. Stability refers to the ability of a phraseological unit to be reproduced in speech as a ready form, with frequent replication of a particular word combination leading to a certain type of dependence between them, which then gets fixed, for instance, in dictionaries and reference books and later is realized in speech again. That is not only the changeability of units but particular properties of inner, structural features, conditioning the character of reproducibility.

However, in linguistic literature, no differentiation is traced between reproducibility and stability of the phraseological unit; and sometimes reproducibility is explained through the stability of a unit.

International scholars have made attempts to define the category of reproducibility and to identify reproducible units; however, linguists never seemed to differentiate between the factors which condition lexical, phraseological and grammatical reproducibility whose concept was easily mixed with that of idiomaticity. So, researchers of English phraseology, describing idiomaticity features either as a speech anomaly breaking either the laws of grammar or the laws of logic [Smith 1925], or as “use of...
common words and word forms to mean something unusual” [Ball 1958], found no system in the typology of language unit reproducibility factors in the English language, with only a few features common for both idiomaticity and reproducibility: e.g., the regular character of use; deviation from the strict grammar rules in reference to the use of forms; ability of phrases to be used metaphorically; secondary variations of word order, causing change in the meaning, etc.

Among Russian linguists, Victor V. Vinogradov was the one to research reproducibility and to state that “the very fact of stability and semantic limitation of phraseological units shows that in reality they are used as ready phraseological units, which are reproducible, not constructed anew, in the speech process” [Виноградов 1947: 160]. It should be noted, though, that stability, seen as ability to be used “ready-made”, refers not only to phraseological units but to words of any structure, as well as to some types of items intermediate between collocations and phraseological units or compound words, which are ready signs.

Nikolay M. Shansky followed V. Vinogradov, supposing that phrases belong to ready-made language units, are reproduced in speech due to tradition and possess a definite lexical composition with a known meaning and grammatical construction. Shansky does not differentiate between stability and reproducibility, believing that “unlike collocations, phraseological units should be seen as stable combinations of words, which are reproducible, holistic in their meaning and stable in their composition and structure” [Шанский 1996: 26]. No differentiation in reference to the terms ‘stability’ and ‘reproducibility’ is observed in the works of V. Arkhangel’sky, S. Gavrilin, Y. Gvozdarev, who see stability as a category necessarily correlating with reproducibility.

V. Zhukov reveals a different understanding of the correlation between stability and reproducibility, stating that these two categories are not equal: “Stability oscillates reproducibility, with represents regular repetition, renewal of this or that unit in speech. Among the readily reproduced units there should be named those of various complexity, i.e. non-homogeneous: phraseological units, phraseological combinations, compound terms and notions, proverbs and sayings, etc. On the contrary, stability … implies semantic indivisibility of the components and thus characterizes the real ‘semantic structure complexity’ of homogeneous language units and phraseological units” [Жуков 1986: 9-10]. Consequently, “all language units that are stable are reproducible, while not all reproducible ‘extra-word’ items possess stability” [Ibid: 5-7].

Hence, one can conclude that stability and reproducibility are oscillant but not identical. All language units that are stable are reproducible, while not all reproducible items are stable, and not only stable combinations (phrases) with desemantized components but full syntactic constructions can be reproduced.

Russian researchers of syntax often address the issue of syntactic constructions reproducibility (V. Vinogradov, L. Roizenson, S. Terr-Minasova, N. Gvishiany, R. Kobrin, A. Averbukh, M. Zadorozhnyi, V. Kipriyanov, E. Kubrakova, Y. Fomenko, N. Yudina, K. Sigal, etc.). One should remember that syntactic constructions themselves are not reproducible, while their formal-structural and semantic schemes are reproducible and realized in the processes of formation of constructions, i.e. combinations of particular words belonging to particular grammatical classes. Hence, one can refer to syntactic reproducibility as a property of the construction gained through “realization of a structural scheme (model) … in a particular lexical combination in a particular cultural-historical period of the language functioning” [Цура 2010: 29].

Each model is used by any listener and any speaker an unlimited number of times – a property correlating with the reproducibility of language units. Every time, the sentence is composed of new words in particular grammatical forms according to the communicative intention of the speaker, but this freedom of lexical, morphological and other variation of the sentence leads to the situation when it is hard to define the status of the produced or reproduced construction, and only proper consideration of all linguistic and extra-linguistic features of reproducibility, as well as experimental data on the unit’s functioning, may, as it seems to us, define this status.

Besides proper linguistic basis, reproducibility is conditioned cognitively. The cognitive conception of reproducibility (Y. Karaulov, V. Krasnykh, D. Gudkove, I. Zakharenko) links it with the concept of precedence and precedential phenomena: precedential notions, precedential texts and precedential utterings. The precedential phenomenon is well-known to all speakers of the same language since they know about its existence and possess a common nationally-deterministic invariant of its perception. In other words, behind the precedential phenomenon “there is always some vision of it, common and obligatory for all the speakers of the same national-cultural mentality, or an invariant of its perception” [Брилюва, Вольская, etc. 2004: 16]. According to Y. Karaulov, a reproducible unit is a unit tending to possess some invariant character, i.e. “a stable image, a stereotype…, a continual verbal symbol, able to unfold into a whole segment of the ‘picture of the world’, which is expressed by a word, a morpheme, a root, a phrase” [Karaulov 1987: 181]. According to Y. Karaulov, there is a special group of extra-linguistic textual phenomena, possessing reproducibility – the so-called precedential texts [Karaulov 2002]. Those are texts that are well-known within a certain speech community, due to which they are continually addressed, referred to and quoted. However, their reproducibility does not make them language units since in that case “all well-known poems, jokes and prayers should be included into the lexical and phraseological composition of the language” [Телия 1996: 75].

Hence, it can be concluded that the cognitive definition of precedential phenomena disaccords with the definition of reproducible units in phraseology due to its methodology and its subject, but, most important, as we see it, is the fact that both concepts, while being single-aspect in the choice and analysis of reproducible units, still study units that differ in their semantics, structure, language status and functioning; that belong to both the corpora of linguistically free and linguistically non-free units, which proves the fact of reproducibility and stability categories being not identical, as well as the fact that the list of reproducible units cannot be limited to phraseological units only.

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The internal activity of the Slavic culture as an Autonomous system due to the activity of an internal lingual consciousness, which consists in the conceptualization of world’s relations in the ontological model of lexical meaning. Within the stated model, in accordance with the concept of M.N. Janceneckoj, fixed the place of the word in the ontology language, in the various types of lexical and thematic paradigms, conveying the representation of a person about the ontology of the world. "In representation of ontological model in lexical meaning, the word appears as a classification unit, reflecting the location called phenomena (object) in ontological picture of the material and spiritual world" [Janceneckoj 1991 : 30].

Ontological model of lexical meaning is the basis of the mental possession of language, which was spoken in the nineteenth century H.P. Gilyarov-Platonov [Gilyarov-Platonov 1904]. According to him, the mental possession of language summed up the modern form of existence of words and their history, it gets you closer to understanding the forms of existence and law, followed by the speech of the person, which consists of a system of sounds and associated perceptions – impressions of the soul.

The ontological model of lexical meaning as the underlying structure of Slavic syntax of thought reproduces the features of Slavic reflexive thoughts. According to Aristotle [Aristotle 1939], reflexive thought, dividing and connecting, is a proposition. In Slavic culture, the reflexive thought is the result of the reactivity of individual sections of the continuum of Slavic lexico-semantic system, which is characterized by a permanent change in the length of the continuum and the replacement of some members by others, as well as the redistribution of functions.

The length of the continuum and its variability is specified in a particular period of development of ethnos by the procedure of conceptualization. The conceptualization is presented as the logic of the transition from the description of facts (epistemes, units of knowledge) to their generalization. In the process of conceptualizing a new concept is formed, its "manifestation" occurs. In the case of the study of Slavic reflexive thoughts we must speak about the metaphysical process of formation of word meaning as some linguistic content, inherent in Slavic language Union. Metahistories requires commitment to one conception, defining the shape of the history [Tosh 2000]. As such conception in contemporary artistic Slavic culture we can consider the realization (materialization) of the system design philosophy of spiritual matter. The construction of matter, the properties of which are reducible to the ratio of the primary forces, is defined as the total deduction of the dynamic process. The dynamic process is based on general and original forces of attraction and repulsion. These forces combine in lexemes which in ontological theory of the language of P. A. Florensky [Florensky 1999], S. N. Bulgakov [Bulgakov 1998] and A. F. Losev [Losev, 1993] are regarded as names. "Name" represent the most meaningful and "smart" appearance of things, thoughts thickening, in which concentrated all the problems and all the power inherent in the word.

Thus, the basic unit, which provides communication within the borders of the Slavic language Union, recognized the name as a sign, a symbol of the thickening, the concentration of spiritual and material substance of thing that simulate reality and lexical meaning. Pavel Florensky created his theory of the Trinity of the word, according to which, the layering, it "triple" sence similar to the device of the human body:

"Indeed, not only Scripture, but also every good word has three locating layers, and each layer may be subject to special interpretation. … The assimilation of a reading or listening takes place simultaneously on three different floors: as sound, together with appropriately, as a concept, and, finally, how tumultuous the idea, incessantly swaying in time and in divers manners hinting about fullness over the time. Each of these rows is generated by special spiritual activities: thinking psychological, dramatic and, as it is called sometimes, logic (we would like to think, from λόγος), or the sensualness, intellect, mind. These three spiritual functions correspond to what

In the theory of the Trinity of the word by O. Paul Florensky develops the idea of the Trinity of the word, understood in the context of Scripture [Ioffe 2007].

According to Kabbalistic and Alexandrian hermeneutics (mainly Philo-Jew), and every place and the word of Scripture has the meaning, first, sensory-literall, and secondly, the abstract and edifying, and, third, perfect- mystical, or mysterious [Florensky 1999].

Ontological model of the lexical meaning of the Slavic word, reflecting in the Trinity of word the Slavic reflexive thought and the ability to instant conceptualization of relations, has not only "spatial" (synchronous-diachronic) scan – within the system of one of the Slavic languages, but also "temporary" (real-virtual) – within the system of several Slavic languages.

The latter is related to such a property of the Slavic lexical-semantic continuum as recurrence of lexical cycles, involving the return of the lexico-semantic variants or the continuum at transition to the next stage of its deployment in one, two or more steps back. Recurrence is a necessary and indispensable condition for long-term preservation of balance in the linguistic system [Makowski 1980].

"The existence of several lexical-semantic subsystems makes possible a kind of "protective" duplication of lexical-semantic realities that prevent the violation or destruction of material composition and system of language organization " [Makowski 1980 : 24]. Recurrence of Slavic language systems (Slavonic languages) forms the basis for the formation of the historical model of time.

In accordance with the historical model of time, according to B. A. Uspensky, semiotic status of the events (present events) due to the fact that they are considered as reasons – as they determine, according to our notions, on the further succession of events" [Uspensky 2002 : 27-28]. The formation of the historical model of time suggests a return (in the strategy design and build a new culture) to the period of close interaction between Slavic and German thesauri. According to V. V. Martynov (Martynov 1963),
this interaction was continuous from V century BC to V century ad, the Probability of Slavic-Germanic lexical interpenetration of ancient times associated with the probability of the Vistula-Odrotov localization of the urheimat of the Slavs (the Western part) that in axiological terms for Russia in the XVIII century means locating the optimum form of connection and order – "the tribe". Is the definition of The status of symbolic system the "Russian people" is defined in genus and species stratification of ethnic groups and parameterization of culture.

Specific features genus and species stratification of ethnic groups can be used as a potential semiotic processes, or the potential possibilities for A. I. Greimas and J. Kurt (Greimas, Kurt 1980) ideology. The ideological compass of Peter the great determined the two formats of ideology, two types of recurrently of Slavic language system – two repères (from FR. repère — the label, sign, reference point) around which can self-organize Russian linguistic discourse: Germany and the land that goes to the Nord and the expectation seems to be that the land is part of America. Lexical and semantic borrowings from German culture contributed to the syntactic organization of the Slavic and Russian values, speaking (if we rely on the concept of Greimas-Kurt) as content of models, which are seen as potential possibilities of semiotic processes.

The attractiveness of the U.S. lincolndale zone was determined by the need of knowledge of the principles of semiotic division of collective semantic world (universe), the development of abilities to organize the values in a taxonomy, virtual in nature and belong to the level of deep semiotic structures. The specialness of America is also that it is the territory of the blending of semiotic systems of the Indo-European language Union (Romance and Germanic languages) and ancient tongues (utterances) of Indian tribes. Prospects for improving the cognitive abilities of the Russians were, therefore, in view of interaction between the inner form of the Russian language as an element of the Slavic language Union and deep form of language consciousness responsible for adequate presentation of Slavic reflexive thoughts.

Throughout its history of existence of Russian literary language was a singular system that performs a function the controlling mechanism that determines the semantics of the symbolic behavior of human groups, its use for sustaining their livelihoods.

Them. Kant once said: arguing about the nature of French, English, Spanish, Italian and German peoples that "Russia is not yet what you need for a specific notion of natural inclinations, is ready to develop" [Kant 1999 : 1504]. These were the observations of the philosopher for Russia the beginning of the XVIII century., testifying to the lack of language contents, confirming the existence of the national spirit. The national spirit of Russia may be seen as Logos, which reflects the level of understanding of the meaning of existence and its linguistic construction.

**References**

IDIOMS CONTAINING THE COMPONENT BLACK / SCHWARZ IN THE ENGLISH AND GERMAN LANGUAGES: COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Abstract

The article presents a comparative analysis of English and German idiomatic expressions containing the component of colour in their structure. It has been revealed that black dominates in the English linguistic idiomatic view of the world. The core centre of the focal colours in the German culture is also black / schwarz. General and specific features of black / schwarz as a part of national linguistic views of the world of the English and German languages are considered in the article.

Keywords: idiom, colour, linguistic idiomatic view of the world of the English and German languages, black / schwarz / черный.

Introduction

Idioms containing a colour component in their structure are represented in both phraseological funds of the English and German languages. Colour has a unique meaning for different languages and cultures, as in the process of the reality categorization peoples often perceived colours differently.

The objective of the research

Our earlier research results show the predominance of black in the idiomatic view of the world of the English language [6, 14], the same is true for the German one [7, 14]. Due to this fact the objective of the present paper is to find out a degree of similarity in meaning “invariants”, forms of the idioms and connotations in both phraseological funds.

Material and research method

For the present research, idioms were chosen with the help of continuous sampling method from monolingual dictionaries in both languages [9-13]. On the whole, 390 units were found: 250 in English and 185 in German. Black/schwarz belongs to focal colours [2, 8]. It is of great significance for both cultures reflecting real as well as cultural views of the world [3, 4, 5].

Results and discussion

Black / schwarz is a macrocolour, 23% of all idioms with colour components from 250 English belong to black and 21% from 185 German units belong to the same colour. Thus, black and schwarz are situated in the core of the idiomatic view of the world of both English and German languages.

First of all, idioms having similar meaning invariant and the same inner form in both languages were discovered: black is associated with something illegal – black market, der schwarze Markt (German) – the illegal buying and selling, at high prices, of goods which are scarce, strictly regulated or in great demand. Black box, der Blackbox (German) – a flight recorder in an aircraft. Actually, this device is usually of the orange or the red colour, as it allows finding it in the wreckage easier. Black hole, Schwarzes Loch (German) – in the direct meaning it is a region in space, believed to be formed when a large star has collapsed at the end of its life, with such a strong gravitational pull that not even light waves can escape from it. But metaphorically, it is used to denote any place, region or thing in which something (items, people, etc) are irretrievably lost. Black widow, die Schwarze Witwe (German) – any of various venomous spiders, the female of which commonly eats the male after mating.

The Black Death and der Schwarze Tod (German) were used to denote plague. Black is a token of mourning: black-robed, eine Frau in Schwarz (German) – a woman in black dress. The colour is also associated with sorrow, sadness, something negative or unpleasant: to paint smth. in black colours, etw. schwarz malen (German).

Black is used to denote something secret which can be used against other people: a list of suspects or the excluded from the list – black list and die schwarze Liste (German). One more identical idiom of biblical origin means a member of a family or a group disapproved by the others: black sheep and das schwarze Schaf (German).

In both cultures black is connected with dark forces, sorcery and necromancy: black magic in English and die schwarze Kunst in German. It supposedly invokes the power of the devil to perform evil. In the German language another meaning of this unit istigraphy.

Idioms with the component black are reflected in the idiomatic names of natural recourses: black gold for oil and schwarze Diamanten (German) – black diamonds for coal in German. Black money, das Schwargeld (German) – ‘dirty’ money – is any money on which tax is not paid to the government. The process of transferring this money is called laundering. Black coffee or tea, Schwarzer Kaffee (German) – means coffee or tea without added milk. To blackball, die schwarze Kugel ziehen (German) means: 1) to vote against (a candidate for membership of something), originally by pulling a black ball in the ballot box; 2) in English, it has an additional meaning – to refuse to see or speak to someone. Black PR, schwarze PR (German) – a smear campaign. Black humour, schwarzer Humor (German) is a humorous way of looking at or treating something that is serious or sad.

To the second group belong idioms having similar meaning invariants but different inner form. Black and blue (colloq) of a person or of a person’s skin: covered in bruises; ein blaues Auge (German) – a bruise, (literally, a blue eye); mit einem blauen Auge davonkommen – to get off with a bruise only. Black economy – shadow economy, in German – Parallelwirtschaft (parallel economy). Black ice, Blitzeis (German), (literally, sparkling ice) – a thin transparent layer of ice that forms on road surfaces, making driving hazardous. Currency black market, Winkelbank (German) – literally, a bank on the corner. A black soul, eine dunkle Seele (German) – literally, a dark soul.

In the English language black is connected with blackmailing: to put the black on smb. (colloq) – to use threats to make someone do something. The colour is also associated with evil forces: black mess – a blasphemous ceremony parodying the Christian mess, in which Satan is worshipped rather than God. In the German language it is connected with the Catholic church and the Party of Christian Democrats: schwarz sein (literally, be black). The Holy Week in German is called die Schwarze Woche (literally, the Black Week). In English, black comedy is wicked or sinister, grim or macabre.

Phraseological units not similar in meaning along with specific expressive means used to form the meaning metaphorically belong to the third group. In the English language we can find the following ones: Black Maria (colloq) – a police van for transporting prisoners; the Black Country – the industrialized West Midlands region of England; blackleg – a person who refuses to take part in a strike, or
who works in a striker’s place during a strike; black spot – an area where an adverse social condition is prevalent: an unemployment black spot. Black and white – either good or bad, right or wrong, etc., with no compromise. The verb to blacken has the meaning of damaging or ruining someone’s reputation or good name. A black shirt was a member of the Italian Fascist Party before and during World War II. Black Friday is the Friday after Thanksgiving, when shops reduce the price of goods in order to attract customers who want to start their Christmas shopping. Black knight is a company or person that tries to buy a company whose owners do not want to sell to them. A day when something sad, unpleasant or disastrous happens to somebody is a black day. An angry or a disapproving expression on somebody’s face is a black look. When something shows no signs of hope or improvement it looks black.

In the German language these idioms include: der Schwarze Mann (literally, the black man) – a scarecrow; der schwarze Peter (black Peter) – a scapegoat; ins Schwarze treffen – to score the bull’s-eye. Schwarze Ware (a black product) – a commodity from the black market; schwarz arbeiten – to work illegally; die schwarze Reaktion (black reaction) – forces of reaction.

In some cases black loses its negative connotation and has a positive one: to be in the black is the credit side of an account, the state of not being in debt, eg to a bank; to be profitable; in den schwarzen Zahlen sein (German) – to work gaining profit (literally, to be in black figures); schwarze Zahlen schreiben (German) – to gain profit (literally, to write black figures). It is connected with the fact that debts in financial documents were given in red and profit – in black.

Conclusion
According to the degree of similarity in meaning “invariants” and forms of the idioms three groups of units with the component black/schwarz in their structure were found: 1) idioms having similar meaning invariant and the same inner form; 2) idioms having similar meaning invariants but different inner form; 3) idioms not similar in meaning along with specific expressive means used to form the meaning metaphorically. A significant part of idioms do not have analogues in other languages.

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Problems of proper translated compliance of political texts with Russian-English and English-Russian language pairs require taking into consideration political communication, which is characterized by the existence of such components as political situation, author’s aim, specificity of text perception by addressee and others. For achieving an aim, the author uses some special linguistic modes. In some linguistic theories there are problems which complicate the translation process: linguistic, psycholinguistic, lingual sociocultural, didactic.

In the process that is concerned with linguistic problems there should be noticed the breach of some rules about referential and pragmatic meanings from one language into another, that is the discrepancy of language signs in lexical and stylistic levels: e.g. pre-election gathering in open space. The translator, who hasn’t managed to decode and interpret the meaning of the word “open space” will use the linguistic mode – omission: pre-election meeting. Similar mistakes influence a text structure and the translation quality. Lingual sociocultural problem can also lead to a low-quality, irrelevant to original translation because of misunderstanding of some realities and traditions, moral values of people: The Senate may vote on the governor’s confirmation during the lame-duck session. In this case the collocation “lame-duck” should be translated descriptively as it represents the reality demanding an explanation.

There can also be used some recurrent constructions, i.e. special type of set idiomatic expressions, characterized by innovation, and also by their situational and chronological relation to actual event. The construction one-armed advisors, in its literal translation, has the meaning “single-handed counselors (with one hand only)”. But the given example proves the contrary of this construction: Just give me one-armed advisors. Don’t give me any more people who tell me “on the one hand, on the other hand”. Only deflation of political discourse events can make us realize that the fact is not in advisors’ reluctance to bear responsibility for resolving problems.

Phraseological units can be regarded as a special type of set expressions, connected with social and political life of the country in political discourse of contemporary English: kid-gloves policy as “moderate, safe policy”; running mate – Am. “a candidate for vice-president post”; divide the House – Parl. “to conduct a roll-call vote”. Their functioning in speeches of politicians is determined by the basic requirements of political discourse: expressiveness and implicitness. Thus, linguistic socio-cultural problems as well as linguistic ones in their full sense are defined as the source of possible difficulties which a translator has to solve by taking those decisions that minimize potential problems.

Another case that is considered to be the most effective means to influence addressee is semantic repetition. Most researchers, such as V.U. Kazakova, L.G. Nevskaya, F.D. Pervozvzhikova, A.A. Potebnya, G.G. Polishchuk and other scientists addressed to the problem of semantic repetition, having revealed its types, characteristics and functioning.

Semantic repetition plays an important role in political discourse functioning, the main of which is suggestive function, or a function of persuasion, influence. Its importance is linked to the intensifying-disjunctive, actualized effect that occurs with any repetition of language units, and special parts of the content. Semantic (meaningful/substantial) repetition has different implementation. Firstly, it is realized in tautological repetitions that occur with repeated usage of the same linguistic units: morphemes, words, phrases or sentences. Secondly, semantic repetition emerges with the usage of phrases, sentences or foreseeable parts of the textual linguistic units, having semantic community in terms of expression, realized in the phenomena of semantic equivalence.

From this point, there can be presented an analysis of inaugural speeches of Vladimir Putin (2000 and 2004) in order to see the dynamics of political discourse genre organization. In the microsegments of underlining the importance and solemnity of the moment there can be presented references to the recent history and the delineation of Vladimir Putin’s responsibilities as president. But it is possible to see clearly defined discursive segments in the speech of V.Putin (in 2004), typical of the texts of this genre.

The main strategy, as well as in any text of ritual genre, is the strategy of forming emotional spirit of the recipient, which is also characterized by tactics of unity and solidarity and tactics of value orientation of the recipient. Tactics of unity and solidarity in V. Putin’s speech is realized primarily through the repetition of 1st person singular and plural pronouns. It is interesting to note the particular usage of pronouns in every inaugural speech of Vladimir Putin. Let’s compare his speech in 2000: “we” in different grammatical cases – 14 times, “our” – 7, “I” – 12, “my” – 1, and 7 cases of sentences with the verb in 1st person plural (e.g. Can assure, Want to thank). The president’s speech in 2004: “we” is used 14 times, “our” – 5, “I” – 5, “my” – 1 and 6 sentences, which imply the subject ‘I’. Predominance of plural pronouns and sharp reduction in the usage of pronoun ‘I’ in the nominative case is noticeable in his later speech (compare, in 2000 – 9 cases, in 2004 – 1). Moreover, in the text of his inaugural speech in 2004 the pronoun “we” is amplified with words that convey in its meaning the sense of unity (we are together, we are with you).

In realization the strategy of forming emotional spirit of the recipient, the tactics of recipient’s value orientation can play an important role, which is implemented primarily through lexical tautological repetition of key words, denoting nation-wide values (democracy, free, development), phrasal tautological repetition (democratic government, political stability), root tautological repetition (development – to develop, success – successful, the economy – economic), semantic repetition (growth – development,
success – prosperity). But the most important value that the Russian president often names is Russia itself – in the text of both speeches it occurs 19 times, moreover, other nominations for Russia are used: The Russian Federation, the Russian State – 2 times, the Motherland – 3 times, our Homeland, our state. V. Putin declares the great significance of the Russian state for him, saying that he must fulfill the covenant of his predecessor, Boris Yeltsin, "Take care of Russia", it is his main presidential duty. Thus, repetition of concepts, denoting the value dominants, emphasizes the fundamental idea of his inaugural speech in general.

In Putin’s speech there is also realized the informational-interpretive strategy, and it belongs to the group of strategies that retain the power. Realizing this strategy, the politician not only impartially delivers the information but picks up the necessary aspects and expresses his attitude, thus affecting the addressee. Realization of informational-interpretive strategies is not typical of the ritual genre and in Putin’s inaugural speech it is only characterized by tactics of explanation (1) and emphasizing positive information (2). Compare his speech in 2000: In fact, the first time in the history of our country, in the Russian history ever, the supreme power in the country is passed in the most democratic, the simplest way, by the people’s will, legally and peacefully (2). In realization of tactics (2) there can be involved lexical tautological repetition of keywords of microsegments (for the first time, Russia, democratic), anaphoric lexical (most democratic, the simplest way) and phrasal tautological repetition (ever...), and also other non-repeated text elements with positive semantics (legally and peacefully), which also emphasize the main idea of the passage.

In the inaugural speech of the Russian president there is also implemented the agitation strategy, which is characterized by tactics of appeal and promises. Let’s compare realization of the tactics of promise: (1) I understand that I take great responsibility and know that the head of the government in Russia had always been and will always be a man who answers for everything. (2) The president’s responsibility to keep the country safe and serve the nation faithfully will remain sacred for me.

The promise is always aimed at the future, that is why the realization of tactics of promise is associated with the verbs in the future tense, and verbs occurred in the structure of the repetitions.

Explicit expressions are not common for inaugural speech of the Russian president, for the purpose of realizing the tactics of appeal (e.g. traditional form of appeal and the usage of verbs in imperative mood). There used some other forms of realization, the ones that include the appeal to the Russian people in implicit form: (1) Each of us has his own experience, his own views, but we must be together, we will do a lot jointly. (2) We shall cherish our achievements, keep and develop the democracy. The tactics of appeal is realized here with the help of synonymous verbs must, shall or the noun duty. But they don’t apply only to the addressee, but to the president himself or all the Russian citizens along with the president (We shall).

Thus, it can be concluded that there can be used different linguistic modes in political discourse. But the peculiarities of the Russian political discourse consist in the realization of separate tactics. This way the tactics of considering the addressee’s set of values is notable for lexical fullness. Lexical realization of the most significant concepts varies according to intentions of the author, genre and linguistic-cultural peculiarities. In addition, in realization of different tactics in the speech of V. Putin, the repetitions take the most important place either in terms of quantity or typology: lexical, phrasal, root, tautological and semantic repetitions, and syntactical parallelism. As a result of long-term political and economic instability in Russia, there was formed the everlasting distrust towards the government that politicians must get over. This has a great impact on realization of some tactics. Functional analysis of the semantic repetition in the Russian president’s speech revealed the linguistic features that characterize political discourse in general, irrespective of its genre differentiation.

References
The article discovers the functioning peculiarities of color naming in linguistics in terms of paradigmatic connections presence. The variety of such connections is rather wide but only synonymic and antonymic are discussed in the article through the example of color namings "white" and "black". The article is aimed to introduce the comparative plan of basic color naming using in lexical entries and mass media. To attain this aim the analysis of last decade's modern mass media is held. The author concludes that using synonymic and antonymic variations in color naming stands in stark contrast with lexical entries' examples.

Keywords: color naming, paradigmatic connections, mass media, lexical entries, synonymic and antonymic rows.

Abstract

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on the language level: for example, blue, red, green, and so on, but
they should be considered antonyms, since there is a scale of gradual
transition from white to black. On the text level, in the context,
almost all adjectives can become antonyms. This occurs most often
when colour naming options are used in one way or another in
contrasted meaning.

In general, dictionaries of antonymous colour naming provide
only one pair — “white” — “black”; we can also identify the
transitional “gray” colour, which unites the existing terms, shades
and tones of “white” and “black.” As part of the study on colour
naming we can trace the change of the antonymous row based on the
texts of the media and the materials of modern press.

The analysis of media texts containing contrasted options showed
that while lexical entries define one antonymous pair, online
publications contain not only “white” — “black” pair, but also
“white” — “red”, “white” — “green” and many others. Moreover,
colour naming is opposed not only based on the category of
belonging to light or dark tones, but also based on semantic grounds,
thus, they can be arranged both in paired antonyms and in three-fold
antonyms (“blue” — “white” — “red”, “white” — “yellow” — “red”, etc.)

The biggest semantic branch is comprised of the antonymic pair of
“black” — “white,” which is opposed in terms of “permitted” —
“forbidden”, skin tone belonging, “righteousness” — “wrongfulness”.
Let us provide some relevant examples: “In the summer of 2015 the
Ministry of Culture of Ukraine has issued white and black lists of
Russian and foreign artists based on their relation to Kyiv”
[«Lenta.ru» 28/03/16].

Thus, antonymous pair of “black and white” is represented by a
number of opposing semantic components, where the colour term
“gray” is used as a transitional one along with a compound “black
and white”. Note that the last example is also quite often used in
media, emphasizing the intermediacy (transition, uncertainty of a
situation), for example:

“It cannot be a black and white situation — to cut down or not
to cut down [production]. There are a lot of transitional
opportunities,” says Horsnell («Vedomosti»), 11/20/14.

To summarize, it should be noted that the functioning of colour
terms in the materials of lexical entries and online editions of media
is different. It is reflected in the realisation of synonymous and
antonymous ties. While dictionary synonymous variants are
common and have a set of different shades and tones, media texts
use only those ones that are clear and common. Analysis of
antonymous colour naming showed that dictionaries provide only
one counterposed pair — “white” — “black”, while in the media such
pairs are presented better and contrasted not only in terms of colour,
but also in terms of semantic attributes. In general, the study of
the representation of synonymous and antonymous ties in a paradigm
based on colour naming still continues. This is due to the fact that
their potential is not fully clarified, and, consequently, human
knowledge of the lexicon designating colour, is incomplete.

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The primary purpose of the present article is to analyze the play on the names of domestic animals (a cow and a bull) in the Russian and Azerbaijani languages. In the context of this study, it should be noted that the historically Russian and Azerbaijani Turks were able to observe the same animals, which determined the associative play on equivalent signs. The tendencies of this play depended on the cognitions relevant for these ethnic groups. In this context, the comparison of both known and conventional nominations is essential as far as both the treatment of the relevant animals and associative plays on their names constitute semantic and cognitive standards. The differences in these standards are of importance for a contrastive analysis.

The concept of “корова” (a cow) holds a special place in the consciousness of the Russian people. The main cognitive peculiarity of this concept should apparently be considered the feature of “feeding.” The cow is a nourisher. The image of this animal which nourished the younger generation is widely represented in Russian folklore. The SAD gives two meanings of the word корова. The first one is the main connotative meaning, and the second is figurative. The second meaning is labeled ascolgial and colloquial. The definition of the first one is also of special interest. Thus, the SAD indicates that a cow is “a large domestic dairy animal, a female of a bull” (3, 2, 106). Defining adjectives here are “large”, “dairy”, and “domestic”. In addition, the category of “size” is as important as of the “milk production”, and the fact that it is a “domestic animal”. For example, the feature of “a female” does not seem so important, because it is read against the background of “dairy”. The second figurative meaning is defined as follows: “a fat clumsy and stupid woman” (3, 2, 106). The symbol of imagery here is the “size of the animal”. It is interesting to note that the cow may be small, and there are even smaller breeds of cows. Nevertheless, in the consciousness of the Russian people the cow becomes the symbol of a large and massive creature. As for playing upon the “intellectual abilities” of the cow, a decisive role is apparently played by its eyes, usually large, naive, and expressionless. An important feature that allows creating various associations is also the slowness of this animal, and its bellowing. All this makes the basis for the creation of not only such metaphors as “fat and clumsy” but also “stupid”. In the process of the formation of figurative meanings based on the concept of “cow”, there is a technique identical to the metaphorical playing. Thus, a symbol of “clumsiness” is quite peripheral in the structure of the main notative meaning. Not a single reference book on lexicography gives this feature along with such attributes as “domestic”, “dairy”, “meat”, and “female”. The feature of “clumsiness” is not an actual distinctive characteristic of an animal. Nevertheless, it is this feature which forms the basis of playing. As a result, it is moved from the periphery to the center. It is understood that the crucial role of this feature is provided by playing upon the meanings. In the entry of the SAD there are some phraseological units with the component корова. These are such expressions as дошь корова (milk cow), будто корова языком слипнут (literally “as though licked off by a cow” – disappeared quickly and completely), идет как корова седло (literally “be like putting a saddle on a cow” – look ridiculous), сидит как корове седло (look ridiculous) (3, 2, 106). In the structure of all these expressions, the concept of “cow” realizes some cognitive features, important for the Russian consciousness. Thus, in the first one it is “to do milking”, where the cow is a symbol of continuing benefits and food. The second expression represents a common occurrence when the cow is instantly licking something. Finally, the third and fourth expressions are built on the contrast of a cow as a symbol of clumsiness and a saddle as an attribute of such a beautiful animal like a horse. The GAD highlights this metaphor not as a single meaning, but as a colloquial metaphorical use according to the main nominative meaning (4, 5, 1448). In addition, it also gives the expression бодлянкорова (a butting cow).

J. Tresidder notes that the cow is an ancient symbol of maternal nourishment, and even an image of cosmic generative powers (5, 161). The entry gives a number of cow’s symbolic features. It is characteristic that they are all positive. It states, “The cow’s quiet, patient rhythms of life presented an image of holiness so complete that it became India’s most sacred animal” (5, 162). In our opinion, it is this quiet and patient nature which caused the association with stupidity in the Russian consciousness. In other words, all of these features are interrelated and form the basis for opposing connotations. In the Dictionary of Youth Slang, there are two homonyms of the word корова. The first is directly and associatively related with the nominative meaning: “Корова (a cow), юный: Девушка (a girl). By analogy with теляк (a chick) in the same meaning” (2, 308). The second is “jocular: A pop group "Corona". I am young. 1997. № 38” (2, 309). According to this dictionary, the diminutive form of the word корова is also used upon – коровка (a small cow). For example, “Коровка. 1. Homosexual: A passive lesbian. 2. Jocular: A car "Volkswagen"” (2, 309). The Dictionary of Russian Foul Language, in our opinion, wrongfully records the word корова in its widespread figurative meaning, as far as the definition does not add anything new to the known materials on the literary language. For example, “a fat and clumsy woman” (1, 175). The dictionary notes that this metaphor is also known in other Slavic languages. There are also two set expressions presented: гнусная корова (literally “a silly cow”) and пьяная корова (literally “a drunken cow”) (1, 175). The first does not differ much from the literary language as far as the literary language dictionaries define “the intellectual imperfection” of a clumsy woman, called a cow. The second is also not of interest in terms of combinatorics, because a well-known metaphorical meaning of the word корова is enhanced by the word пьяный, characterized by an ordinary nominative meaning. In the Azerbaijani language, the equivalent inak is recorded in the Explanatory Dictionary of the Azerbaijani Language in two meanings. The first is defined as the main nominative meaning. The second one is figurative, which includes such factors as “fat”,...
"clumsy", "cowardly", "dull", "woman" (6, 2, 550). One could emphasize the complete coincidence with the Russian language, except for such a feature as "cowardly". Therefore, the factor "cowardice" functions as a labeled feature in metaphorical terms if we compare the words корова и инок. This entry provides the only phraseological unit with the component инок in the Azerbaijani language. It is the expression инок кими сағаң, fully equivalent to the Russian idiom (literally "to milk somebody like a cow" – milk somebody/something for something; to get as much money or as many advantages as you can from a situation). Thus, the analysis allows to emphasize the equivalence of playing upon the concept of "cow" and corresponding linguistic signs in the Russian and Azerbaijani languages. In the consciousness of the Russian people the wordкорова is correlated with the word бык (a bull), which certainly has a logical-substantive motivation. The SAD defines only the main nominative meaning of the word бык. Two meanings are given, but the second is also of a special nature, "a name of the subfamily of large ruminant mammals" (3, 1, 129). No figurative meaning is provided here, although it is well known that in the Russian colloquial language the word бык is widely used in the meaning of "a strong, stout and healthy man". The SAD records the adjective быковатый (literally "bullish" – морозе), indicating the transformation of the symbol of the "bull" in the Russian consciousness: "a sullen, looking askance person" (3, 1, 129).

The SAD gives two expressions with this component: брать бык за рога (take the bull by the horns) and дровор как бык (as healthy as a bull; as strong as a bull). The first is a phraseological unit, wherein the component бык is a counterword. Not the word бык is played on here, but the relevant situation where the bull is etymologically and symbolically associated with the "problem". The second expression is a simile, and the word бык is unchanged here. The main nomination is the word дровор(healthy) here, indicating the actual quality on an explicit level. To show the extent of quality, the word бык is used here, the referent of which acts as a symbol of health in the Russian consciousness. In the GAD, the word бык is given in three meanings – in the main nominative and two special meanings. The second meaning is technical (bridge pier), and the third one is zoological (водной бык – the Eurasian bittmen, a wading bird of the heron family) (4, 1, 718). However, in the first meaning there are provided the following similes: укром как бык (stomach as a bull) and дровор как бык (as healthy as a bull; as strong as a bull), and the phraseological unit брать бык за рога (take the bull by the horns). It should also be noted that after these similes the standard expression "et cetera" is indicated. However, it remains unclear what other comparisons are meant by this adverb. There is also provided the expression смотреть быком (literally "to look at something like a bull") which means to look sullenly, to look askance. The entry also gives the word бычок (a bull calf) in the expressions глядят бычком – to look shyly at бычком – to drink without stopping, and breathing through the nose at the same time; по бычачки, по бычку – to look askance, sullenly. The word быкноватый is labeled as colloquial and is explained as "grin". The field meanings of this word are "unsociable, shy, and clumsy". For example, children could behave in such a way, they could "быкноваться" which means that they are stubborn, shy, or afraid (4, 1, 719). Thus, there is a whole range of negative emotions here. One can identify such semantic factors as "fear", "discontent", "shyness", "frown", "sullenness", "strength", "health", "obstinance", "savagery" and some others at a more detailed analysis. However, the labeled features are sufficient for us to present a motivational strategy of playing upon the word бык in the Russian language. The Dictionary of Youth Slang gives six meanings of the word бык. The first meaning is defined as "an ugly and stupid young person" and is labeled as derogatory. The second is a "person who has grown rich". The third is an "extortioner, a person who collects tribute from street vendors". The fourth one is "a racketeer". The fifth is a "bartender". The sixth meaning is "Bulls are representatives of youth gangs, similar to trust fund babies (2, 72). Somewhat unexpected is the meaning of "a bartender", all the other meanings having the same feature of "brute force" as their motive. However, in the meaning of "a bartender" one can suggest the following association: "a person who takes control behind the bar – hence, the owner, the one who possesses strength". In the Azerbaijani Language, the lexical equivalent of the word бык is the lexeme өкüz. In the Explanatory Dictionary of the Azerbaijani Language, this word is represented in two meanings. The first is the main nominative meaning, and the second is figurative. The figurative meaning is defined as "a very big, clumsy and bulky man". The widely used interpretation of this word is also provided in the entry: "a very rude and stupid person" (6, 3, 546). The dictionary gives the phraseological unit өкүздү бүйүү гүйөдөрдү where the bull acts a symbol of some difficult business. Literally, the expression means "the greatest bull is still in the barn". In general, we can say that the Russian word бык and the Azerbaijani өкüz correlate on the basic directions of reframing and playing. However, in this case, this linguistic sign is more widely played upon in the Russian language than in Azerbaijani. For example, the association with the "frown" look or look "askance" is completely absent in the Azerbaijani language. Azerbaijani do not say өкүз кимин баштоо (literally "to look at something like a bull"). The metaphors correlate according to such features as "clumsiness", "rudeness", "strength", and "insensibility". Although dictionaries do not indicate it but in the Azerbaijani language the concept of "bull" reveals a cognitive feature of "obstinance". Therefore, in general the playing strategies coincide.

The conducted analysis suggests that in the context of the identical basic strategies of word playing (or their slight differences) the development of linguistic signs in the Russian language is much more intensive than in Azerbaijani. Another significant specificity of their development is the prevalence of negative connotations.

References
This article describes the concept of proverbial equivalent, and such equivalents for the Czech proverbs of active paremiological fund are found in Russian and English languages.

Keywords: paremiology, proverb, active paremiological fund, proverbial parallel, equivalence, proverbial equivalent, English language, Czech language, Russian language.

Abstract

Proverbs have always been studied by different scientists – folklorists, ethnographers, theorists of literature and, finally, linguists. Prof. Valerij M. Mokienko notes in the Introduction to The Big Dictionary of Russian Proverbs, that while in the XXth century the main purpose of studying proverbs was to get to know “the spirit of nation”, today there is more attention to purely linguistic characteristics of these units – their usage in spoken and written language, interaction with folkloric fund of other nations, problems of translation into other languages (Mokienko V.M., Nikitina T.G., Nikolaeva E.K., 2010, p. 4).

The aim of this research is to find equivalents in Russian and English language to the proverbs of Czech active paremiological fund or paremiological minimum and to analyze the level of their equivalence.

The idea of a paremiological minimum as a minimum number of proverbs known by the language-speakers was introduced by Russian folklorist G. Permjakov in the 1970s. His studies became the basis for many dictionaries of commonly used proverbs, for instance, Russian-Bulgarian dictionary of proverbs by S. Vlakhov and multi-language dictionary by M. Kotova. The theory of paremiological minimum has generated a lot of research in paremiology and paremiography (works by D. Bittnerova, R. Blatna, F. Cermak, P. Durco, M. Hanzen, H. Haas, P. Grzybek, G. Kapchits, M. Yu. Kotova, W. Mieder, V.M. Mokienko, L. Petrova, F. Schindler and others) and continues to inspire linguists all over the world.

Some scientists however doubt the justification of using the enquire method introduced by G. Permjakov to determine the paremiological minimum. Among them is Czech phraseologist F. Cermak. He used an alternative approach that became possible thanks to the existence of the Czech National Corpus (CNC), which allowed to study the actual usage of proverbs, even though it is not the spoken language that is reflected in the Corpus, but mostly written language. The biggest advantage of this method is a possibility to see, document and study full variability of proverbs (Cermák, 2003, p. 18). Let us not forget, however, that the enquire method also provides opportunities to find out all possible variants of proverb endings. As a result, Cermak offers his version of a paremiological minimum – a list of 100 Czech proverbs on the decreasing frequency scale from 89 to 10 (Čermák, 2003).

It is obvious though that both of the above described methods should be combined to determine the most up-to-date paremiological minimum. The enquire results should be checked against the National Corpus, as in the first case the aim of research is the knowledge of proverbs, and in the second case – their usage in written language.

The corpus of most frequently used and well-known Czech proverbs has not been yet analyzed for proverbial parallels in Russian and English languages. Neither Czech-Russian nor Czech-English dictionary of proverbs exists which complicates translation of Czech proverbs. We have taken advantage of the most successful attempts of determining Czech paremiological minimum, and combined the following four lists:

- Proverbs from Dr. F. Schindler’s Das Sprichwort im heutigen Tschechischen. Empirische Untersuchung und semantische Beschreibung (1993) with recognition percentage of 90 and higher – 102 units;
- Czech proverbs – parallels to the proverbs of Russian paremiological minimum of G. Permjakov picked by M.Yu. Kotova and presented in her Doctor’s Thesis (Kotova, 2004, p. 456-540), continued by more than 90 participants of a survey – 103 units;
- Dr. F. Cermak’s list of 100 Czech proverbs presented in his study Paremiological Minimum of Czech: The Corpus Evidence (2003) – 100 units.

Following a comparative analysis of these four sources we formed a list of 142 proverbs putting aside the 47 proverbs that occurred only in one of those sources. This list should reflect the most up-to-date Czech active paremiological fund.

The next step was to find proverbial parallels in Russian and English languages for the 142 Czech proverbs selected for our research. The following paremiological dictionaries became the sources for these parallels: Mudrosovi národa slovanského v příslovích (Čelakovský, 2000), Russian-Slavonic Dictionary of Proverbs (Kotova, 2000), Slovník české frredoze a idiomatic: Výrazy věněně (Cermák, 2009), NT’s Dictionary of Proverbs and Clichés (NTC, 1993), The Oxford Dictionary of English Proverbs (Oxford, 1979), The Big Dictionary of Russian Proverbs (Mokienko V.M., Nikitina T.G., Nikolaeva E.K., 2010), Proverbs of Russian People (Dal’, 1957), the article by F. Cermak Paremiological Minimum of Czech: The Corpus Evidence (Čermák, 2003), as well as Internet sources and proverbs from our own paremiological vocabulary.

If we apply A. Shvetser’s levels of equivalence (Shvetser, 1988, p. 76-92) to the translation of proverbs, and combine it with classification of idiom translation methods defined by V. Komissarov, A. Kunin, S. Vlakhov and S. Florin, then it is logical to talk about the following types of parallels: full equivalent, relative equivalent, analogue, phraseological analogue, contextual analogue, calque (loan translation) and translation by paraphrase.

A ‘full equivalent’ is a foreign proverb that coincides with a proverb in the target language in semantics, vocabulary, grammatical structure, figurative and pragmatic meaning, as well as in stylistics. In case that such a proverb is used as frequently in target language as the original proverb, then such full equivalent would satisfy all levels of equivalence defined by A. Shvetser – on pragmatic, semantic and syntactic levels (Shvetser, 1988, p. 76-92).

We suggest to consider equivalence to be “full” even when the only difference between analyzed proverbs is their word order or some minor grammatical discrepancies caused by grammar structure
of the target language. Some linguists call such cases relative or partial equivalence. Let us not forget however about such a characteristic feature of almost every proverb as variability. This does not allow us to apply very strict rules to full equivalence in case of proverbs.

We found full equivalents in both Russian and English for 29 analyzed Czech proverbs. Here are a few examples:

Co múží udělat dnes, neodkládej na závtra, to, čmáno se dělá za sedmého – Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today. 

Сегодня мокрый день, лучше делать завтра – Never put off till tomorrow what you can do today.

Člověk mini a bůh měni – Человек преобладает, а Бог располагает – Man proposes, God disposes; jablko / ovoce nepřílež daleko od stromu – Яблоко от яблони недалеко падает – The apple doesn’t fall far from the tree.

Kdo se sněje naprosto ten se sněje nejvíc – Хорошо смеется тот, кто смеется последний – He laughs best who laughs last; Kaj železo, dokud je žádou – Ку́й жезло, пока горячо – Strike the iron while it is hot; Mluví stříbro, měřit zlato – Слово – сержи.mo, монеты – Золото. Сребро – Speech is silver, silence is golden; Ne sahám chlebem živ je člověk – Не хлебом единым жив человек – Man doesn’t live by bread alone; Oko za oco, zub za zub – Око за око, зуб за зуб – An eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth; Touhou se stěbla chytá – Уповающий и за колючку взятым – A drowning man will clutch at a straw.

Most of these proverbs are of international character loaned from Latin (Times change; Man proposes, God disposes; Strike the iron while it is hot; A barking dog never bites and other), the Bible (Search and you shall find; He that diggeth a pit shall fall into it; Man doesn’t live by bread alone and other) and literary sources (He laughs best who laughs last; If the mountain will not come to Mohammed, then Mohammed must go to the mountain; Much ado about nothing).

An interesting fact is that there are more full equivalents for the language pair Czech – Hungarian than for Czech – English, probably due to genetic relatedness of Russian and Czech. For example, there is a full equivalent in Russian for Czech proverb Dlouhé vlasy, krátký roztok – Волос длиннее, вода короче while in English no proverbial parallel has been detected. Overall, we found full equivalents only in Russian for 17 Czech proverbs and only in English for 8 Czech proverbs.

S. Vlakhov and S. Florin in their studies also talked about ‘relative equivalents’ (e.g. Vlakhov S., Florin S., 1980). Compared to the original proverb, relative equivalents have slight lexical, grammatical or lexicogrammatical differences, and at the same time, they still satisfy all levels of equivalence. For this reason a relative equivalent is often as adequate for translation purposes as a full equivalent. We found such relative equivalents in Russian for 36 Czech proverbs and in English for 44 proverbs. Here are a few examples:

Káděj (je) svého štěstí/soudu strážítm – Век своего счастья человека – Every man is the architect of his own fortune.

In this group of relative equivalents only one component of each proverb varies: strážce (constructor) – kúšpej (blacksmith) – architect, which does not affect the semantics – ‘your own decisions and your own actions determine what your life will be like’.

Nekyj zajec v pytli – Копа в мешке не покупают – Don’t buy a pig in a poke.

These proverbs warn against accepting an offering or a deal without examining it first, but the Czech buy a ‘hair in a poke’, the Russian ‘a cat in a poke’, and the English – ‘a pig’.

Když se dva perua, třetí se smíje – Когда двое дерутся, третий радуется – Two dogs fight for a bone, and a third runs away with it.

The above proverbs state ‘when two people quarrel, a third person benefits from it’. The English parallel contains an image of a ‘dog’ while the Czech original as well as its Russian relevant equivalent are of a more neutral character.

So when a proverb has a full or a relevant equivalent in the target language it makes it much easier to reach an adequate translation, in most cases, however, it is only possible to find an ‘analogue’ or a non-cognate proverb, as F. Cermak puts it (Cermak, 2003, p. 29). It is a proverb of a very similar meaning but a different form, based on a different image (Kotova, 2003, p. 92). Such analogues can differ from the original proverb in lexical and grammatical structure and even in stylistics. It is still possible to use analogues for translation purposes, especially when a proverb analogue does not contain explicit national features. But it is not the subject of this research.

It is worth mentioning that those Czech proverbs that have equivalents in Russian and English – full or relevant – are among the most recognized and actively used. The majority of most frequently used Czech proverbs lack any specific national features or cultural elements, which would be difficult to translate. Most of these proverbs are of international character, and exist in many world languages in one form or another.

In conclusion, we would like to point out that we see perspective development of this topic in further research of the Czech paremiological minimum by checking all the extracted proverbs against the most current data of Czech National Corpus and Internet sources, as well as with the help of a new paremiological experiment among Czech language speakers. Our further goal is to create a multilingual Czech-Russian-English dictionary of proverbs based on the most recognized and actively used Czech proverbs that is proving proverbs of the paremiological minimum.

References

Introduction

One of the challenges of artistic world view description is the study of the prose system, containing the realities to which the author refers and the determination of image means that reflect the specifics of the author's personal style[1].

This work attempts to study the author's text from the standpoint of interconnection of voice messages. Introduced by T. Van Dijk and V. Kintsch for the scientific use the term "textual strategies" directs the linguists to study the cognitive processes of creating the text according to the author's plan and intention. Joint strategies" directs the linguists to study the cognitive processes of creating the text according to the author's plan and intention. Joint strategies" directs the linguists to study the cognitive processes of creating the text according to the author's plan and intention.

Theoretical Background of study

The basic principle of the strategic approach is in selection and fixation of the information most relevant to the implementation of a pragmatic task. Using the idea of a strategic approach to the textual information, the authors of the study following Van Dijk accentuate "the situation model". The concept of strategy on the textual and contextual levels is used for considering internal and external information links.

In the works of J. R. R. Tolkien researchers considered the image of nature, as well as other images that are the components of artistic world view, as a rule, from the point of view of genre specificity. The space-time model of artistic world view was interpreted depending on it [3][4].

Strategy for space-time picture of the world

The objective of this research includes the analysis of the author's world view and the creation of spatial image of the world, which is implemented in the form of the landscape[6].

The image of nature — an important component of the artistic world view. Studying of context-variable text division units reveals the features of realities that are accessed by the author, and the specifics of the author's world-modeling.

Landscape in the time continuum of "Lord of the Rings" is formed by the visual picture of the world and is determined by the author's strategy.

Visualization of landscape images is made by the statement of the objects presence in a certain spatial juxtaposition. In the descriptions of temporal situation the author captures the distinctive features of the interim period, but the most important — the creation of an individual background for various plot developments. The landscape in a particular temporal situation is less a visual image but an image that helps to realize the basic idea of the trilogy "Lord of the Rings": confrontation and struggle between good and evil.

Author's strategy in creating a visual image of the landscape is determined by the two items. First: to create a certain visual impression by means of activation a visual representation of the described picture (at the same time the auxiliary information of this strategy conveys the atmosphere of what is happening). Second item: to transfer the information of associative (psychological) type. In unmarked, from the point of view of mythology, landscape descriptions there are depicted forest, mountain, river, that are in the field of view of the characters[7]. In another description of the landscape it is as follows: The trees quivered and bent as if a gust had struck them[8].

In unmarked, from the point of view of mythology, landscape description[9] there are depicted forest, mountain, river, that are in the field of view of the characters: forest of Fangorn, its... eaves, its... slopes, head of... Methedras, peak of the Misty Mountains, the Entwash, its stream, its banks[10].

The visual image would be incomplete without the following color naming and verbs: dark, shadowy, faded, blue, glimmered, grey, white, creating a palette from dark shades to light tones.

The second example[11], which also describes the forest, shows, at first sight, a strategy of creating a visual image of the scene (landscape). Meanwhile, according to the mythopoetic tradition, properties of living beings are ascribed to the forest: comparative clause "as if" used in the considered sentence indicates...
that the trees do not serve as an object influenced by wind, but respond to the cry of angry “masters” — ents that announced the beginning of the war against the representatives of evil.

The first description approaches under the strategy of creating a visual image of the scene (landscape), while the second represents the strategy of describing the atmosphere of what is happening through underlining events according to similarity. The second strategy is found in the trilogy more rarely than the second one and more often is represented by a temporal situation descriptions.

In contrast to the use of unmarked, from the point of view of mythology, landscape descriptions, the strategy of formation of the "mythological spatial points" visual image of the trilogy is no less important than the formation of the atmosphere of what is happening in those cases where the author seeks to achieve the effect, important for the work as a whole.

The objectification of fundamental oppositions in myth acts for this effect (light — dark, warm — cold, good — evil, etc.) as well as the construction of semantic-axiological coordinate grid within which a space-time is built.

Describing the elven forest (Lothlorien)[2] [V.1, p.341], which represents a special region not only spatially but also temporally, the author introduces the linguistic markers that contain some “time”. In this landscape description the following comparison can be considered as the marked one: … a sword of grass as green as Springtime in the Elder Days. Unlike the description of Mordor, which is depicted as a dark, cold country bright sun shines over Lothlorien, and color terms of bright spectrum play an important role in the formation of visual image of the enchanted forest: green, snowy white, pale gold, golden, white and palest green, blue, and also the verbs gleamed, glimmered, glowed. Thus, Mordor and Lothlorien as the outermost parts of opposition light — dark, warm — cold possess the expressed axiological marking (bright spectrum is marked as positive, darkness — negative) are combined with the corresponding poles of the opposition life — death.

In the descriptions of the temporal situation[13] there are depicted pre-dawn hours, are given the temperature characteristics of air and mist (cold…chill), noun “twilight” and color term “grey” are used, which serve as an implicit indicators of temporal specifier. Heroes are in the center of depiction.

The associative background of another description of temporal situation[14] is actualized through the depiction of light from the setting sun of natural realities, like the mountains, the sky, the river and the valley. There is an assimilation of sunlight with fire (a great burning … fire glowed …), which can be interpreted ambivalent: fire and light — death.

Frame red and its term blood are associated. Color term red also cause the association with war and anger.

Following the description of temporal situation we read about victory of good characters in the battle for Gondor: And in that hour the great Battle of the field of Gondor was over; and not one living foe was left within the circuit of the Rammas. Thus, the color terms are used not only to indicate the color, but to create an impression of the atmosphere of what is happening.

Author's strategy of information transmission of associative type in the trilogy is directed less on the description of natural realities or atmospheric phenomena, but on formation of ideas about the atmosphere in which the action develops, the relation of positive and negative characters to the nature and of nature towards them, about the emotional state of the character, etc.

Let us characterize the three basic strategies of this plan.

The first is used to transfer the atmosphere of what is happening (including the underlining of events according to its similarity). The second strategy is related to the mythological and axiological relatedness of characters and nature. Space and time model is based on the unity of the sacred “relation” of characters to the nature and of the sacred “perception”, the appropriate “relation” of nature to the heroes. The third strategy represents the emotional state of the character.

Description of the landscape and temporal situation reproduces the atmosphere of what is happening. In one of the episodes[15] the river, wind and trees are depicted. Acoustic characteristics of the river and wind actualizes the psychological atmosphere of the situation: Boromir is succumbed to the temptation of the One Ring, and is going to take it away from the main Guardian — Frodo Baggins. Framing description of the declarative sentences convey the atmosphere of what is happening through the contrast image of characters actions — silence of Boromir (there is also a contrast with the background sound of descriptive context) — trembling of Frodo.

Other episode[16] describes the wind that causes associations with movement, speed, changes, and mountains. Description of wind, burst into the Théoden palace implements the strategy if transmission of atmosphere of what is happening, changes in internality and externality of the King: deceived by the magician Saruman the White, Théoden lost heart, but another magician – Gandalf the Grey broke the spell of Saruman and returned to King his virility of spirit and hardihood.

A popular Tolkien technique is to use description of sunset to transmit the atmosphere of what is happening — the upcoming battle — by underlining events according to similarity[17].

Description of temporal situation and scene of action (landscape), implementing the strategy of transferring the atmosphere of what is happening, quantitatively hold in the trilogy second place and are going behind the contexts that contribute to the formation of appropriate visual image. Typical descriptions illustrate the strategy of showing indirect features of the character[18] [19].

It should be mentioned that sometimes the visuals image (landscape) and temporal situation (showing the positively and negatively marked components of archetypal items), which we have labeled in our study, to the first group of strategies, in the context of the whole trilogy can also be seen as implementing the strategy of indirect characteristics of the character.

It should be emphasized the syncretism of the strategies allocated by us: description of landscape and temporal situation is able to simultaneously perform several functions, and depending on the context they are distributed in order of importance, and ensure the implementation of a whole group of different strategies. For example[21][22] In these contexts, a visual image of the locus of Elrond’s Earth (place of residence of the positive hero) and Mordor (in the trilogy — the geographical center of evil) is created. In the descriptions positively and negatively labeled components of archetypal opposition light — dark, warm — cold, life — death are used, which indirectly indicate the axiological characteristics of the owners of these territories in the context of the core concept of the trilogy with nature is evidenced not only by projecting “the relation” of heroes to the nature, but also the projection of nature “relation” on the representatives of good and evil, which respectively express the following opposition: life — death. Green and long grew the grass on Snowman’ Home, but ever black and bare was the ground where the beast was burned[23].

Let us note that in this particular strategy transmission elements that are important for the understanding of original ideas of the opposition created by the Creator of flora and negative characters are present. The following mixed context (story + signals of descriptive information) shows the hill where dead orcs are buried and it is stressed that grass will not grow there[24].

Sometimes to show the indirect features of the character, the strategy of using description of landscape and temporal situation approaches to the strategy of transmission of what is happening. This happens in the event when the description of the atmosphere of what is happening conforms to the features of character as a representative of the forces of good and evil. The use of such context describes as well as an atmosphere of event (which, as a rule is depicted in the narrative context, forgoing the description) and the character itself.

There is a problem of differentiation of strategies describing landscape and temporal situation. The complexity of identifying prominent examples of indirect characteristics of the characters in the trilogy “The Lord of the Rings” is that they tend to approach with the strategies of creating the visual image, or transmission of the main idea of the work, or describing the atmosphere of what is happening, realizing them at the same time, with varying degrees of accentuation.

The strategy of representation of the character's emotional state is aimed at creating a visual image of the landscape and temporal
situation, but differs from it by the fact that the received image conveys additional information about the status of your character in the given situation.

For example, there are depicted weather conditions on Weathertop mountain near after hobbit Frodo was injured by Nazgul blade just when the pass it. In the context, forging the description the dynamics of changes in the state of hero is described [25]. The hero and the weather conditions are shown as preserving the connection with the events in the past, and the description of temporal situation corresponds to the emotional state at a given time. Landscape image can be used for indirect description of the inner state of the character by means of his perception of reality as, for example, in the following context: The others halted started; but cry fell as if muffled by a heavy curtain. There was no echo or answer though the wood seemed to become more crowded and more watchful than before [26].

The perception of the forest surrounding characters, trees of which have properties of living beings (... the wood seemed to become more crowded and more watchful than before...), reflects the psychological state of the characters; the feeling of hostility of the forest in which they can not even hear the echo of cry of the frightened hobbit Pippin. The strategy of using this description approaches the strategy of indirect characteristics of the character, because nature is shown hostile towards the characters, that caused a negative emotional reaction of hobbit (Pippin’s cry), at the same time indirectly and generally characterizes the personality of the characters.

A striking example in which the description of the typical natural reality is combined with the image of the character portrait, is the episode where the visual image of flowers, twisting the head of the broken statue of the king is created [27]. From the strategy of creating the visual image, the considered example differs the fact that picture of the person of the king is created separately from its relatedness to the representatives of the forces of good (the strategy of indirect characteristics). However, the purpose of the author in this case was not only the characteristic of the long-dead king, but the transfer of information that is important in terms of understanding the whole text: evil is not always going to win. Statement of the main hero, following the description, confirms that: «They cannot conquer forever! » – said Frodo.

The study of the function of description the scene of action (landscape) and temporal situation in Tolkien's trilogy allows you to show author's strategies focused on the formation of a model of artistic picture of the world.

Description of the landscape and temporal situations in the studied work is carried out within the following simultaneously implemented strategies: 1) creation of a visual image; 2) transmission of information of associative type; 3) the use of description of the landscape and temporal situation to implement and disclose the basic idea of the works.

The strategy of creation a visual image is aimed at visualization of the described landscape and temporal situation. Transfer of descriptive information can be regarded as the leading element of this strategy, and activation of associative (psychological) information – as the subordinate. In this strategy, there is an element of the transmission of main idea of the work, as described natural realities are part of the semantic structure of the whole trilogy.

Thus, different strategies of using descriptions are implemented simultaneously and we can talk about the degree of its accentuation in the context.

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Роль и употребление фото-легенды в российском и германском медиадискурсе

Аннотация

Статья посвящена одной из самых популярных тем лингвистики последних двухдцати лет – медиалингвистике, и в частности, исследованию роли подписи в креолизованном публицистическом тексте. Автор предлагает попытка сравнить отношение к способам использования фото-легенды в российской и германской прессе. Отнесенные к истории журналистика широко использует фотоархивы, считая возможным предлагать к абсолютно разным контекстам одно и то же фото. В этом случае, на наш взгляд, открывается широкое поле возможностей манипулирования общественным мнением. Немецкие журналисты относятся к обсуждаемой нами проблематике более щепетильно, полагая, что фото должно подходить одному единственному материалу, являясь, таким образом, гарантией его актуальности и однозначности. По нашему мнению, правомерность использования фото-легенды в том или ином контексте зависит от многих факторов: на пример, таких как заказчик материала, тип печатного органа, полиция редакции, подготовленность и информированность целевого аудитории и многих других. Одно остаётся ясным – вопрос о роли фото-легенды и её использовании открывает и требует дальнейшего исследования.

Ключевые слова: креолизованный текст, фото-легенда, информативная и манипулятивная функция.

Lenkova T.A.

Рязанский государственный университет имени С. А. Есенина

ROLE AND USE OF THE PHOTO-LEGEND IN RUSSIAN AND GERMAN MEDIA DISCOURSE

Abstract

The article is devoted to one of the most interesting themes of modern linguistics – media-linguistics. The author has researched the function and the role of the photo-legend. In the article we try to present the difference in the opinion of Russian and German scientists about how journalists can use the photo-legend and how they can not do it. The Russian Journalists often use the photo archives offering to the absolutely different contexts one and the same illustration. This way to our mind the editors and the journalists of papers have to many possibilities for manipulation of the public opinion, this way is dangerous and very subjective. The German journalists deal with this theme much more serious, they are sure that the photo and the photo-legend must concern to only one article, it is a guarantee of authentic and synonymous. The author is of opinion the competence of the photo-legend use depends on many different aspects, for example, on the client of the article, on the paper, on the readers. We are sure that the subject of the photo-legend, its role, function and use will be researched in future.

Keywords: creolized texts, photo-legend, informative and manipulative function.

Почта авторов / Author Email: talenk@yandex.ru

As repeatedly was mentioned in scientific literature in mass media public style we have a tendency of transition from verbal composing parts of the creolized texts to extralinguistic, visual (Lenkova, 2011).

The journalist should take care about the photo has immediate relation to the article. Some attractive commentaries for the illustrations serve to this aim. J. Häusermann calls them "photo-legend". The Russian media-linguistics also deals with photo-commentaries but we must say that the opinions of the Russian and the German scientists to the problem are very different.

First of all we try to research what do the German journalists and scientists think about it (Häusermann Jürg, 2011). They call the coherent, connecting function of the photo-commentary as a main, leading function. The first part of the micro text has an explanation of the photo and the second part interests the readers in the whole article. The photo contains only one part of information often. But sometimes the combination "photo + photo-commentary" makes up a strong competition to the article.

The main models of the photo-commentaries:
- a solitary sentence – name + an explanation of a detail;
- a name + a text quotation;
- a name + an additional information from the text.

Best of all the first model works because it is more conclusive.

To be successful photo-commentaries must be not only rich in content but good formulated. J. Häusermann thinks that all photos practically need photo-commentaries. In case the photo legend is absent, the headline of the article is perceived as a commentary. It is important to remember that the reporter should avoid contradictions between the photo, the photo-legend and the headline. Any illustration must be irreplaceable, it must approach only to one article, the same concerns to the photo-legend.

The photo-legend answers the questions of the illustration. The first question about the people on the photo, they must be named, the readers want to understand what do they do and where they are. The people in a concrete situation are more attractive than skillfully but artificially in a photo-studio creating articles. The photo must be without fail dated, have a strong connection to the article.

In German journalism, in both regional and local, the names of direct participants of events very often omitted, substituted for a common noun of type "passerby", "the observer". According to Häusermann, if the names still would be called, would have more respect from the readership. Each photo illustrates in ideal only one part of information and the photo-legend calls this part.

It happens that for various reasons the people in the photo are absent altogether. This may be classified information or journalistic ethics forbids to show the participants of the event. In this case, the connection between the photo and the theme is carried by objects with an indirect relevance to the topic. Symbolic photo that is indirectly related to the text, as a rule, are not welcome. The reader may be difficult to detect metaphorical relationship, as it is often not clear what exactly the object is metaphorical. In addition, symbolic photos often illustrate not so much the news.

What must be in the photo-legend? They say that one good illustration is worth a thousand words, but in journalism is highly desirable. It would be better to do one sentence. Therefore, the statement should be limited so it has acquired the most accurate and current value. This happens only when they write about is shown in the photo. Comments and other subjective associations are unnecessary.

The photo above it is clear immediately, but illustrates something minor, are quite common. Then they usually begin to contradict the title. In the photo legend attempts to remove this contradiction, thus it becomes long, with many unnecessary details. The title performs several important functions: it explains to the reader the meaning of the message embedded in the picture, depicted decode and gives the only true interpretation of the photos. The image is perceived simultaneously on the emotional and unconscious level, he the audience tend to believe more than the word.
The role of the signature in the structure of a creolized text, according to E. E. Anisimova, ambiguous, in this respect can be distinguished three groups of texts:
1. Creolized texts, composed of image and caption (or set of images).
2. Creolized texts, not including the signature. Such texts consist of verbal text and an attached image without an accompanying signature.
3. Creolized texts consisting of verbal text, images and signatures. These types of texts are most prevalent in modern communications, signed to ensure its pragmatic impact on the reader.

Category of modality is one of the major text categories, and certainly inherent in creolized texts. In creolized texts modality are not only the traditional linguistic tools, but also extra-linguistic, that is, iconic of the insert. The role of iconic means in modal characteristics is not straightforward. Some iconic funds can act as their own media to a specific modality, for example, motive in prohibiting road signs. E. E. Anisimova suggests that "graphs, tables, diagrams, scientific illustrations, reflects the results of the rational mental activity of the people, are the bearers of objective modality". According to E. E. Anisimova iconic means in virtue of its semantic vagueness compared to verbal means need to end in the word help. Depending on the language context of the same iconic sign can be purchased in different modality.

Summarizing all the above, we can conclude that Russian and German researchers are unanimous when talking about the theoretical aspects of the study of the caption, for example, its meaning and functions in journalistic creolized text. When we start talking about practical application, the views radically diverge. Our journalism widely uses the photo archives, trying to offer to completely different contexts one and the same photo. In this case, in our opinion, opens a wide field of possibilities of manipulation of public opinion.

German journalists are discussing issues more carefully, believing that photos should fit one single material, being thus a guarantee of its authenticity and uniqueness.

In our opinion, the legality of using photos of the legend in a particular key depends on many factors, such as the customer material, the type of organ, policy revision, training and awareness of the target audience and many others. One thing remains clear – the question of the role of photo-legend and its use is open and requires further research.

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Ит is quite difficult to clearly identify the genre of André Makine's novel "The French Testament" ("Le Testament français") (Makine, 1995); however, this work refers to personalized narrative as it includes the facts of the author's personal biography, the inner and outer worlds of his creative personality. Literary text, the one containing autobiographical motives, in particular, is the reflection of human attempts to find their place in the universe of their own values which is rendered with the help of linguistic means. In a fictional autobiographical story, the space of the speaker's narrative life is the main element of the author's event field. "It happens because of the introduction of time and space coordinates into the work, determined solely by the subjective approach to the depiction of events having personal significance" (Vakhnenko, 2007, p. 7).

In this regard, language means of deictic character are considered to represent information signals which define the nature and functioning of the system indicators in André Makine's ego-writing.

The deictic predestination of linguistic units derives from the context, which forms the space of the narrating subject, one of the most important components of the author's discourse. The use of lexical means in deictic function ensures the establishment of relations, both in terms of time and space, between the author of subjective writing and characters (Ryzhova, Savelieva, 2014).

Obviously, the space of such narrative is perceived as "given and as such a man cannot imagine himself beyond the limits of", and to build relations with this space a person needs a minimum set of two such a man cannot imagine himself beyond the limits of, and to build characters (Ryzhova, Savelieva, 2014).

Thus, the usage of various nominative localizers for the creation of a spatial universe of the work is connected with the autobiographical story/novel structuring, which allows fixing the coordinates of space the lives of the author-narrator and characters pass in. The author's discourse brings together diverse spatial spheres into a coherent whole. Thereby, the function of spatial orientation and uniting the text into a whole is actualized in the texture of the writing discourse practice.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the retrospective nature of the narrative concerning memories and biographies of adressants is significantly different in terms of discursive space special organisation of "self-depictive text" (Bakhtin, 1979, p.132).

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Mихайлова М.Ю.

Самарский государственный социально-педагогический университет

БЫТОВАНИЕ КАТЕГОРИИ НЕВЫРАЗИМОГО В РОМАНАХ С ЭКФРАСИСОМ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается бытование функционально-семантической категории невыразимого в зарубежных романах, содержащих экфрасис; определены репрезентанты невыразимого в экфрасисе; показано кластерное бытование невыразимого с семантиками непостижимого, неознаменованного в стенах, содержащих экфрасис. В романах серьезной литературы семантика невыразимого представлена полнее и многогранные, связана с наущенными проблемами назначения искусства; в бесстрастистике невыразимое в экфрасисе представлено единичное, преимущественно при помощи редкого репрезентанта сокровенное.

Ключевые слова: функционально-семантическая категория, семантика невыразимого, экфрасис, охxmoron, анализ художественного текста, quality и mass литература.

Михайлова М.Ю.

Samara State University of social Sciences and Education

THE CATEGORY OF INEXPRESSIBLE IN THE NOVELS WITH ECPhRASIS

Abstract

Functional and semantic category of inexpressible in the foreign novels containing ecphrasis is analysed in the article; the representatives of inexpressible in ecphrasis are defined; the cluster existence of inexpressible is shown with the semantics of incomprehensible, hidden in the scenes containing ecphrasis. Semantics of inexpressible is presented in novels of serious literature more completely and is more diverse, it is connected with burning problems of a human being, art; in fiction inexpressible in ecphrasis is presented isolated, mainly by means of a rare representative of intimate.

Keywords: functional and semantic category, semantics of inexpressible, ecphrasis, oxymoron, stylistic analysis and interpretation of a text, quality and mass literature.

Почта авторов / Author Email: 89277631381@yandex.ru

Introduction

Inexpressible as the functional and semantic category is an independent meaning in language and the speech; the language units representing this category are presented at the different levels of language, for example: inexpressible, not said, to express inexpressible, there are no words and so on. For category of inexpressible the category of denial as it – "the category having own formal means of expression – "a negative formant" (a particle not and its grammatical analogs) is basic" (Kalinina, 2010: 247).

Linguists have defined traditional spheres of representatives of inexpressible: the field of theology, philosophy, the sphere of so-called bi-worldness (man or the character interior world, the other world), see (Syrtisa, 2009; Mikhailova, 2015). The features of language universality are peculiar to semantics of inexpressible. Considering the aforesaid, we have assumed that the category of inexpressible has to be anyway presented in the texts containing ecphrasis.

Literary critics define ecphrasis as the verbal description method of work of the fine arts in the text. In linguistics they speak about allusion (literally – a hint), allusions on the well-known picture are possible. Allusions correspond to a reminiscence (literally – a remembering), an element of literary system, based on a motive of earlier known works. The image of one work in another, the text in the text is investigated by the theory of intertextuality. However the above-mentioned linguistic terms, and also the theory of intertextuality are focused on other tasks, than studying verbal expression of visual artifacts in the text. Meanwhile this issue is resolved by the developing literary theory of ecphrasis. This theory has an independent conceptual framework, methodology and various classifications ecphrasis now that does convenient application of this theory in studying of specifics of the text with ecphrasis in linguistic aspect. In fiction the description of this or that picture is, as a rule, substantially loaded, description of a picture is a peculiar insert, some kind of plot in a plot.

The analysis of the Russian literature containing ecphrasis which is carried out by us regarding representation of category of inexpressible has revealed positive results. A peculiar confirmation told was the collection of scientific articles prepared in the wake of the Russia's first scientific conference devoted to ecphrasis with the name "It is inexpressibly expressible": ecphrasis and problems of representation of visual in the text". Researchers of ecphrasis have defined the sphere of inexpressible as Knowledge of God, interfaced the use of semantics of inexpressible with the use of apothecary. So, D. V. Tokarev has noticed that "ecphrasis as "bridge" between inexpressible and expressible; to pass on him, and diversely, conferees tried" (Tokarev, 2013: 22).

The purpose of the research is to characterize the category of inexpressible in the foreign novels containing picturesque ecphrasis (the description of a picture). As material for research we have selected four novels in which the description of a picture plays a plot forming role. These are O. Wilde's novels "The Picture of Dorian Gray" (1890, England); A. Perez-Reverto "A Flemish board" (1990, Spain); J. Moyes "The girlfriend whom you had dumped" (2012, England), D. Tart "The Goldfinch" (2013, the USA).

As the analysis has shown, these works contain the examples of category of inexpressible. In general, the representatives of inexpressible in the novels containing ecphrasis isn't so frequent as in poetical texts of romantics, however they are placed mainly in obligatory scenes. The representatives of inexpressible don't always present in the scenes which are actually containing ecphrasis, however where they contain, semantics of inexpressible touches the problems which deal with the meaning of life, purpose of art, fear of death that organize a semantic link to ecphrasis in the novel. See examples from O. Wilde:

[Dorian’s characteristic whose age is reflected not on the face but on the portrait] (...) and for most people his frank good nature and affability is charming, almost childish smile of unspeakable charm its beautiful unfading youth were a sufficient refutation erected on it slander so these people called the rumors going about Dorian;

In fact, it was music that had first brought him and Dorian Gray together—music and that indefinable attraction that Dorian seemed to be able to exercise whenever he wished — and, indeed, exercised often without being conscious of it.
The analysis of the texts containing ecphrasis has shown that the category of inexpressible is reflected in many novels by a representative intimate which is rare for semantics of inexpressible. One of the meanings of this word – "stored at heart, not stated, treasured" (The dictionary of the Russian language, v. 3: 188) – this value also statizes semantics of inexpressible. See the example of judgment "by contradiction":

For me beauty – a miracle from miracles. (...) Only futile, narrow persons don’t judge by appearance. The original secret of life is concluded in visible, but not in intimate ... So the character whose name is Henry, the analog of Goethe’s Mephistopheles, Dorian’s tempter claims.

Intimate – the rare example of the category of inexpressible – is presented in novels with ecphrasis both as quality and mass literature, see examples from mass literature:

[The restorer Julia is clearing the ancient picture] Little by little, in process of disappearance of the grown old varnish, the Flemish board has begun to find magic of the initial paints again (...) The miracle revived under Julia’s fingers, and she beheld this process with respectful respect as though on her eyes the most intimate secret of art and life was gradually revealed (A. Perez-Revert. Flemish board).

Compare also:

From a cloth in the peeled-off gilded frame the young girl provocatively looked at it. A thick golden and red hair was scattered on shoulders, the pride bend of the lips opened in a hint on a smile obviously spoke about something intimate. About something sensual (J. Moyes. The girl you left behind).

In general, semantics of inexpressible presented in the novels of mass literature containing ecphrasis is single. As our previous researches have shown the cluster existing is peculiar to semantics of inexpressible in the description of figures that is as a part of similar meanings of semantics of hidden, incomprehensible. The meanings of inexpressible, incomprehensible, hidden, possessing the general origin, being based on a grammatical basis of category of denial, possess similar means of expression, are quite often presented in texts as the synonyms specifying the different parts of "bi-worldness" (Mikhailova, 2015: p. 963-966; Mikhailova, 2015: 19-21), for example:

[Dorian’s dreams] Perhaps, his life will include big love and will clear it, and will keep of the new sins which are born in the soul and a body – that unknown, sins still described by nobody to which mystery gives them an arful charm.

Inexpressible is presented in one text segment with the example of semantics of the unknown. The representative described by nobody increases mystery of the text. As O. Wilde noticed in the letter to the editor of Scots Observer (1890):

“Each man sees his own sin in Dorian Gray — what Dorian Gray’s sins are no one knows. He who finds them has brought them.” (O. Wilde http://oscar-wilde.ru/pisma/pismo83.html).

Compare the example with semantics of incomprehensible in ecphrasis:

Was there some subtle affinity between the chemical atoms that shaped themselves intoform and colour on the canvas and the soul that was within him?

- "Then why won’t you exhibit his portrait?" (...)"
- "Because I have loved so many of them, Dorian."

Example with semantics of hidden in ecphrasis:

[Recognition of the artist Basil about a picture and creativity to Dorian] And even if you weren’t near, you invisibly were present at my imagination when I created.

New manner in painting (...) The soul of the nature living in the dense woods, wandering in a clean field, until then hidden and silent, suddenly, as the Dryad, appeared to the artist without any fear (...).

Inexpressible is presented in turning points of a plot or in a didactic component in the novel of serious literature of D. Tartt:

[The life of the main character has changed after the difficulties connected with the destiny of the well-known picture “Goldfinch”] And besides there is a lot more everything. Shock and light. In total far more sharply, far more brightly, and I as if closely would approach to something inexpressible. In magazines onboard – the coded messages. Power board ... In total – index signs which specify somewhere else.

Example of a combination of semantics of incomprehensible, with semantics of inexpressible:

(...) any Disney’s princess knows the answer to it: “Be yourself. Follow what the heart dictates ”. Only, please, explain to me here that. And what if you have such heart which can’t be trusted?. What if the heart for any incomprehensible reasons brings you – quite deliberately, in a cloud of inexpressible shine – far away from health, family life (...) in dazzling heat of death, self-damage, trouble?

See the example of a cluster existing of semantics of inexpressible and incomprehensible, and representative of semantics of incomprehensible – occasional:

[Reflections about the picture «Goldfinch»] And I hope that in it some highest truth about sufferings is hidden, at least, in my understanding – though I have understood long ago that only that truth which I don’t understand are important for me and I won’t be able to understand. All mysterious, ambiguous, inexplicable.

In general, the existing of representative of inexpressible in a combination to the adjacent language phenomena is a characteristic of foreign novels in which ecphrasis carries out plot-formation function. Besides above-named, the category of inexpressible is combined with semantics of default. On the periphery semantic fields of default and inexpressible are crossed as they possess the general component “lack of verbalization” meaning, see (Ivanyan, 2015). See the example from D. Tartt’s novel in which it is shown how the addiction of the character to drugs isn’t called (is held back):

(...) slipped – in increasing frequency – an ominous type of the tables and calculations, I for some reason thought that if someone opens a notebook and sees them, then will understand nothing though in practice everything was transparent:

1-8 Dec. 320,5 mg
9-15 Dec. 202,5 mg
16-22 Dec. 171,5 mg
23-30 Dec. 420,5 mg

... creeps away on daily records, appears above all the secret seen only to me: blossoms in the dark, never being called by the name.

In D. Tartt’s novel ecphrasis is the verbal description of a picture – has conceptual value, the purpose of a small masterpiece of Fabritius “Goldfinch” in the novel is to become a light source which will light life, and also problems and troubles of the described characters. Ecphrasis, according to the remark of D. N. Tokarev, is the bridge between two worlds, real and spiritual. Two worlds don’t connect, but are in difficult relationship which is possible for transferring only by a series of denials (by means of literary apophatism). All representatives of adjacent semantics of inexpressible, incomprehensible, hidden are that, in fact, (there are no words, it is impossible to express, express inexpressible, to comprehend incomprehensible, etc.). It is natural that semantics of inexpressible, incomprehensible, hidden among means contain intertextual oxymorons to express inexpressible, to comprehend incomprehensible, to behold hidden and so forth.

Oxymoron as speech method paralogous as it is based on violation of the logical law of non contradiction. According to this law, the judgment and its denial can’t be at the same time true in relation to the same object (Ivin, Nikiforov, 1997: 7-8). The category of inexpressible is also paralogous; its representatives are paralogous, e.g.: There are no words as I love you! But such statement is also words! In ecphrasis by means of the oxymoron in the novel of D. Tartt the anti-nomic relations of reality and thought reveal:

[About a goldfinch in a picture] He is there, in the air washed by light, in brush dabs which Fabritius has allowed us to see close that we have considered, what it is actually – the flashes of color worked manually that it was visible how brush bristle lays down (...) turn to transubstantiation when paint, remaining paint becomes suddenly both a feather, and a bone. This is that place where the reality clashes with an ideal where the joke becomes gravity, and all serious – a joke. A magic point in which both any idea, and its contrast is right.

I stood and watched how he looked at the picture. On his face it has been written such suffering that it was impossible to express in words.
Summing up the results of research, we will notice that the analysis of four works is insufficient to speak about the revealed regularity, however it is possible to speak about the revealed tendency. Semantics of inexpressible possesses lines of language universality. Representatives of the category of inexpressible are presented in the novels of mass of literature containing ecphrasis is single, are transferred by means of the rare mean – intimate. In the novels of quality literature containing ecphrasis semantics of inexpressible is applied in the scenes containing important questions of human life, life and death, purpose of art; representatives of inexpressible are low-frequent, but are presented in key scenes of the novel. Inexpressible is often presented in such novels by a cluster in total with semantics of incomprehensible, hidden. The category of inexpressible is crossed with adjacent semantics, in particular, with semantics of default.

References
The article considers the problem of semantic derivation in modern English and Russian on the bases of borrowed words. There also are examined the processes following the process of semantic derivation, as well as the questions of disputable cases of derivation are raised, i.e. the problem of so called “false derivation”. The term “semantic derivation” has appeared relatively late, but the interest to the process of formation of the meaning of the word had existed long ago. A number of linguists try to distinguish between lingual and extra-lingual reasons of semantic derivation, and represent all the changes as a result of derivation by different classifications, taking into account the meaning and the form of the word. Many linguists believe that metaphor is one of the most wide-spread types of semantic derivation.

Anthropocentricity of the metaphor is recognized by many linguists. Metaphor began to be treated as the key to understanding of bases and processes of forming not only national specific vision of the world, but also its universal image. It should be noted that modern research in theory of metaphor are aimed at setting some general laws of formation of figurative meanings, displayed in a lexical and semantic system of the language.

Keywords: semantic derivation, metaphor, borrowings, secondary nomination of a word’s meaning.

Tadzhibiova R.R.
Dagestan State University

ON THE PROBLEM OF SEMANTIC AND WORD-FORMING DERIVATIONS IN MODERN ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN

Abstract

As we know, many linguists believe that metaphor is one of the most wide-spread types of semantic derivation. Anthropocentricity of the metaphor is recognized by many linguists. So, J. Lakoff and M. Johnson, for example, in their popular work about metaphor, state, that the processes of a man’s thinking are mostly metaphorical, i.e. conceptual system of a man is structured and determined with the help of metaphor [Lakoff, Johnson 1980: 90]. Others suppose that metaphor is “a component of a man’s conscience” [Teliya 1999: 89].

N.D. Arutyunova, in her turn, claims that metaphor began to be treated as the key to understanding of bases and processes of forming not only national specific vision of the world, but also its universal image [Arutyunova 2003: 39]. We should also note that modern research of metaphor are aimed at setting some general laws of development of the process of formation of figurative meanings, which can be seen in a lexical and semantic system of the language.

The term “semantic derivation” has appeared relatively late, but the interest to the process of formation of the meaning of the word had existed long ago.

What can be called realization of semantic derivation? Here we face the problem of identity as we consider the meaning only of one and the same word. While dealing with a word in one language of a certain synchronic level, we don’t face much difficulty for analyses. Much more difficult it becomes while dealing with diachronic identity within the same language. Here we can see some certain problems, but if a word remained (physically) its identity brings no difficulty. Much more difficulties one can have while analyzing two meanings of the same word in relative languages.

Let’s consider, for example, a case of polysemy, i.e. the evident semantic relations between two meanings of a word in a certain language, say, semantic derivation: ‘a woman’ ↔ ‘a wife’, represented in French by lexe me femme, in German by Frau, etc.

Or, for example, «a diachronic shift», i.e. the change of the meaning, for example, the same semantic derivation which we see in a Russian word чоловек “wife”.

In fact, it would be more exact to speak of not a semantic transformation, but of loss of meaning as in, for example, modern Russian lexeme “wife” lost its meaning of “woman”. However, as we know, an old meaning never is lost completely, it may appear, say, in word-forming (cf. womanish, women-loving, women-hating, woman-like — all these words correlate with the meaning of “a woman”, but not “a wife”). So, we can state that there is no an exact border between synchronic and diachronic derivation.

Sometimes we can face such a phenomenon: one word has two certain meanings in case of relative languages (so called “false friends of an interpreter”), for example: ‘to hope’ ↔ ‘to wait’ based on French verb espérer ‘to hope’ and Spanish verb esperar ‘to wait’;

Or, for example, another pair of meanings: ‘to hear’ ↔ ‘to understand’ borrowed from French verb entendre ‘to hear’ and Spanish verb entender ‘to understand’.

In Russian there exists a specific problem of so called church Slavic etymologic doublet like a head (a leader) — a head (part of a body), part (a country) — part (some edge), which we sometimes tend to consider the same word. Then, we should ask, what can’t be called semantic derivation?

As the relations of semantic derivation are set within one word (or between the words based on the same source), they cannot be called cases of semantic derivation, as they originate from different sources, thus these are cases of homonymy.

In Russian we have such cases when some prefixes seem to be formed as semantic derivatives, but of course, are not such. For example, some cases of polysemy, exactly, polysemy of prefixes’ formations like in залечить (to heal the wound) and залечить (to do harm by treatment) [Zaliznyak 1995]).

However, even among those levels, which we surely include into semantic derivation, we can differentiate nuclear and peripheral zones.

As it is known, apart from semantic derivation the development of the English language during all its history was done by the two ways: first of all, due to word-forming means taking place in the language, and, secondly, due to borrowings from other languages. However, not all the borrowings come into English in a “pure” state. We mean the borrowings with semantic and word-forming derivation. In case of semantic derivation the borrowed stem of the word develops one or more new meanings, depending on the extra-linguistic environment it appears in. In case of word-forming
derivation root morphemes and affixes join each other due to some special linguistic models.

For example, let’s consider a case of semantic derivation of a lexeme poison based on a borrowed stem, which has such meanings in English as: 1.a. ‘a drink made with a special purpose, a medicine’ (1377); 2.a ‘a substance intruding an organism by any way, crushing living functions and doing great harm to one’s health; used in small portions with the aim of quick influencing living functions of an organism’ (1387); 2.b. (coll) ‘alcohol drink’ (1805) [OED 2004: 1057].

As we see, the last meaning was developed much later, than the first two meanings. As both of the lexical-semantic variants – poison ‘medicine’ and poison ‘poison’ – appeared in the English language almost simultaneously (see their first fixation in the language), we can learn which of them is prior only by turning to the donor-language — French — in which this word has the following meanings: 1. ‘a drink’ (~ XI c); 2.1. ‘a substance which ruins the vitally important functions of an organism if gets into it’ (1130); 2.2 ‘a drink with addition of some certain substances’ (~1130); 1.3. ‘a fluid food product, a drink, not toxic in small portions, but influencing the organism and its functions badly for the long time’ (~1695); 1.4. ‘a drink of a very low quality’ (1665); 1.5 ‘a chemical catalyst’ (1962) [GLFF 2000: 4417].

Thus, in spite of the fact that the meaning of “poison” is fixed in English much later, this very meaning becomes the main meaning and on its bases there was developed the next meaning “a medicine”, and much time later, in American English there appeared the meaning of “alcohol drink” as a result of the metaphor based on the comparison of its influencing the living being [OED 2004: 1057]. While speaking of the borrowings with word-forming derivation, let’s consider the lexeme bouse, bowse (1). At first the verb bouse, bowse was borrowed in English from old Holland with the meaning ‘to drink, to drink very much, usu. for a toast for friendship or for pleasure, or just to drink alcohol’ (1300) [OED 2004: 1027]. Later on from a borrowed verb there was formed by conversion a noun bouse, bowse (1) with the meaning (coll) ‘a drink, liqueur; first dating has a meaning “a bowl for drinking” (1300) [OED 2004: 1027].

In 1786 for the first time was fixed the second meaning of this word “drunkard, or a state of being drunk” (1786) [OED 2004: 1027]. Here we can see that the development of the second meaning is made by metonymic transformation by the model “an object” => “action by this object”. On the example of the lexeme bouse we can observe a number of word-forming derivations: 1. Borrowing a verb into the English language; 2. Formation of a noun form a verb by means of conversion (word-forming derivation); 3. Development of the second meaning of a noun by means of metonymic transformation (semantic derivation).

As one more example of a word-forming derivation we can consider the word reboil with the meaning ‘a wine, fermented for the second time’ (1460) [OED 2004: 223]. The lexeme was formed by means of conversion from the verb to reboil with the meanings 1. ‘to ferment for the second time (about wine)’, 2. ‘to boil again’ [OED 2004: 223], and this word in its turn, was borrowed from old French rebouillir. It is remarkable that this word was earlier borrowed into French from Latin (rebelli-re Lat ‘to boil’. During assimilation a French suffix was lost. A new noun with the meaning ‘a wine, fermented for the second time’ appeared only in English.

In spite of the fact that borrowings appear in the language due to some extra-linguistic factors, assimilation of the word, following later, as well as a “life” of the word, i.e. its frequent use, mostly depend on internal lingual factors.

References
Introductory Remarks

The geographic group of set comparisons that describe the amount of money is located at the intersection of two ideographic fields—the field of quantifying evaluation and the field of "wealth/poverty". The quantitative phraseology of the Russian language has always been the object of research in Russian linguistics, among other things it has been contrasted with other Slavic languages (e.g. Grineva 1994, Ivashko 1976, Kravtsova 1980 et al.). The verbalization of such concepts as "wealth" and "poverty" in phraseology of Russian and other languages has been the object of numerous researches, a great number of theses and scientific articles, however, the vast majority of such studies is focused on the comparison of Russian as opposed to Germanic and Romance languages (the works of Klementeva 2008, Kutsy 2003, Makeyeva 2009, Pomarevna 2010, Sheshina 2008 et al.).

Phraseological fields "wealth/poverty" and ideographic group of "having a lot/little" money are presented very well in Slavic languages. For example, in Serbian: имати пуне унуке пара – have pockets full of money, латна кока – the golden hen,лежата на парама – lie on money, не зна шта ће са парама – does not know what to do with money, имати пара за бацање– have the money to waste, јави ширу – to be penniless, јави ширу на парама – to be "lean" on money (short of money), нема ни кучета ни мачета – to have neither a puppy nor a kitten, нема песа за шта да удео кога – a dog has nothing to bite, гака орно миши – naked (poor) as a church mouse (Otasevich 2012). In the Czech language there are such idioms as: mitoteklou šťofoli – have a tight purse, mohyl peseni džádž – can cobble the road with money, nevědět co se peněží – not to know what to do with money, ten si peníze snad tiskne – if he prints money, topí se v penězích – to sink in money etc. (Čermák 1983; Mokienko, Wurm, 2002). The Ukrainian description of the amount of money contains such quantitative idioms as без грошей – without limits; купи не купи – pigs would not eat; хоча лопатою гори (греби, загреблі) – you can lift them with a shovel; асі кисять – swarms with it; до біса – a helluva lot; як маку – as much as there is poppy; якщо: морсько – as much as there is sand; хоч гребля гами – can build up a dam with it, як кіт наплакав – cat’s crying; як уоката сліз – cat’s tears; краля в морі – a drop in the ocean. In the Polish language: złoty dzecz (golden rain), strumień złota (ray of gold), wielkie (duże) pieniędzy (with money), pieniędzy oknem waza (drzewiarni i oknani płynę) – money are climbing through the windows (floating through doors and windows) etc. (Krzyżanowski 1969-1972, Doroszewski 1973, Scorupka 1967).

This research encompasses only one class of phraseology – set comparisons (hereinafter – SC) which describe the amount of money a person has and which can be found in all Slavic languages.

The purpose of this article is to identify the system of images-standards of set comparisons in the modern Russian language contrasted with their Slavic correspondences, distinguishing universal and national-specific objects of comparisons, and describing trends in the use of set comparisons related to money in the modern Russian language.

We analyse the usage of certain SC in the Russian language, adhering to the following algorithm: 1) the structure of ideographic group "amount of money someone has" according to the lexicographical sources; 2) functioning of SC in the contexts of contemporary fiction, periodicals and the Internet; 3) reflection of SC in the consciousness of modern Russian language speakers; 4) comparison of SC standards of the Russian language to their analogues in other Slavic languages.

Study data is based on dictionaries of set comparisons in the Russian language by Ogoltsen V., Mokienko V., Mokienko V., Nikitina N. and Lebedeva L., materials of the "Russian National Corpus" (hereinafter – RNC), Internet forums and sites, the results of survey of the Russian language speakers.

Dictionaries of set comparisons in the Russian language record the following units that are of interest to us: денег у кого какраз – he has as much money as there is dirt; денег у кого как щепок – he has as much money as there are chips; деньги – ненавоз: сегодня нет, а завтра – hoy – money is no manure; today you're short, tomorrow – got a lot. Moreover, part of the units used to describe both a large or small amount of something and to talk about money: много у кого чем у дурка махорки – some have as much as a fool tobacco; чем у кого тылылак – cat's tears.

Materials taken from RNC and the Internet allow us to extend this ideographic group due to such quantitative SC like денег какмусора – as much money as there is rubbish, денег как дров – as much money as there is wood, денег как у дурка фантиков – he has as much money as a fool wrappers, денег как у латыша – he has as little money as a Latvian.

A survey was conducted to determine the representation of the ideographic group of SC in linguistic consciousness of Russians. We questioned 100 people aged 18-83 (40 of them – students of the
The survey results run as follows (the number in brackets indicates the number of identical reactions, each informant provided several expressions):

A) About a large amount of money: one has as much as гризы (42) – as there is dirt (42), как у дурака фантиков (14) – as a fool wrappers (14), как у олигарха (10) – as a magnate, как у Абрамовича (4) – as Abramovich (Russian businessman and investor), как у Рокфеллера (4) – as Rockefeller (4), как у миллиона (4) – as a millionaire (4), как блок, как у собак блок (4) – as there are fleas, as a dog has fleas (4), как у дурака махорки (2) – as a fool tobacco, как снег зимой (2) – as there is snow in winter (2), как у сутана – as the sultan, как у царя мажор – as an oil tycoon, как у Киева – as Koshchei (in Russian folklore it is a bony, emaciated old man, rich and wicked, who knows the secret of eternal life), как у богача – as a rich man, как у банкира – as a banker, как у дядюшки Слэма – as uncle Sam, как у Скурушка – as Scrooge, как у Филиппа Кириллова – as Philip Kirkorov (popular Russian pop singer of Bulgarian-Armenian origin), как дермы – as a crap, как в армейском сене – as there are seeds in a watermelon, как у Чубаева – as Chubais (a Russian politician and businessman who was responsible for privatization in Russia as an influential member of Boris Yeltsin's administration in the early 1990s), как у банке – as a bank, как у мусора – as a tax collector, как у министра – as a minister, как гора – as a mountain, как в вольнике – as there is water in the well, как свина – as there is hay.

B) About a small amount of money: someone has as little money как накапал (43) – there are cat's tears (43), у ничего (13) – as a beggar (13), у нищего (as a beggar, as a hood), как у посланного гоздраника (4) – as the poorest pauper (4), как у большого (4) – as a homeless person (4), вода в руке (as there is water in a hand, как у кого мило – as there is goat's milk, как у птицы – as a bird has, как у птицы (у него хрен да душа (у птицы она сгнила)) – as a Latvian or even a less – his bills are always a mess (as Latvian blokhe – he is always broke), как у братьев мира – as poor as most people, как у погорельца – as a fire victim, как-то – as there is truth, как у студента – as poor as a student, как волос у лысого на голове – as there is hair on a bald head.

Russian Set Comparisons Contrasted with Other Slavic Languages

The criteria that define a set comparison include the following: the expression is recorded in the dictionary; it is repeated more than three times in respondent's surveys; the survey results run as follows (the number in brackets indicates the number of identical reactions, each informant provided several expressions).

Thus, we can consider the following 13 units to be set comparisons in the modern Russian language: денег у кого как гризы – he has as much money as there is dirt; денег у кого как щепок – he has as much money as there are chips; денег – не навоз: сегодня нет, а завтра – воз – money is no manure: today you're short, tomorrow – got a lot; как у дурака махорки – as a fool tobacco; денег как у дурака фантиков – he has as much money as a fool wrappers; денег как мусора – as much money as there is rubbish; денег как вони – as much money as there is wood; денег как у лысых – he has as little money as a lazy man; как у мусора – as a homeless.

However, it should be noted that these comparisons are of varying frequency, not identical in their popularity in modern language. For example, colloquial disrespectful SC денег у кого как гризы – he has as much money as there is dirt is used to describe 'a disproportionately large amount of money someone possesses' (Mokienko 2003: 91; Mokienko, Nikitina, 2008: 155; Lebedeva 2013: 283) is the most frequent. Its analogue in Serbian има као блату is used not only to talk about money, it has a wider co-occurrence. SC денег у кого как щепок гробарь – he has as much money as there are chips is recorded in the dictionary as a rare expression (Mokienko 2003: 502; Mokienko, Nikitina, 2008: 769). This comparison is used in other Slavic languages, for example in Czech – peněž u koho jako říšek.

Playful Siberian proverb Деньги – не навоз: сегодня нет, а завтра – воз – money is like manure: today you're short, tomorrow – got a lot (for example, www.tagvari.ru). Manure is used as a standard CS that indicates a large amount of money in the Slavic languages: in Czech mít peněž jako hnoje.

Dictionary records the vernacular ironic SC много у кого чего как у дурака махорки – some have as much as a fool tobacco 'about an amount of something a person possesses received unexpectedly for nothing and without effort' (Mokienko, Nikitina, 2008: 183). Zimin V. and Spirin A. explain the origin of this SC the following way: "A fool often gets tobacco for his eccentricities, so he has a lot" (Zimin, Spirin 1996: 250). This expression is very common on forums and sites in the Internet, but only in relation to money.

A quantitative colloquial SC how much (that) how he nакапал – cat's tears is used to talk 'about a pitifully small amount of something' (Mokienko 2003: 191; Mokienko, Nikitina 2008: 298) and is widely used in the Internet in relation to money. Let us have a look at the frequency of its equivalents in other Slavic languages: Ukrainian – як кім напакал, Polish jak (co) kot napakal, Grinyova A. notes that "some Russian and Polish expressions which have the structure of comparatives appeared because of a certain action/feature associated with a small animal or an insect. Set of components that describe these animals is somewhat wider than in Polish" (Grinev 1994: 105). In Polish: jak (co) pies napakal (dog's tears), jak wiesz nakasza (what a louse has coughed). The symbolism of lice is related to the fact that the basis of this comparison is plurality, which creates a correlation between these insects and similar small objects, including money (coins) (Slavic Antiquities II: 447, 492; I: 447-448). Kuznetsova I. draws the following parallel in Slavic languages: in Lemko dialect of the Ukrainian language: мати нині як циган уш (as much money as lice on a gypsy); Czech у тме je o peněž jako и зebračka o vět (I deal with money like a beggar with lice) (Kuznetsova, 2005: 120). The responses of the Russian respondents have shown comparisons of money with fleas, for example как блок, как у собакаблох – I deal as much money as there are fleas, as a dog has fleas, this expression is used to describe a large amount of money.

Analyzing possible versions of the expression origin как кот напакал – cat's tears, Mokienko V. concludes that phraseological imagery can be seen as litotes (expressive understatement), based on the impossibility of cat's 'crying'. The scientist says that the origin of categorical expressiveness of phraseological units is often rooted in the oymonorn "impossibility formula," characteristic of national figurative thinking (Mokienko 2006). SC денег как кот напакал – cat's tears is one of the most frequent in the modern Russian language and has received a humorous extension – денег как кот напакал, a проблем касло напакал – I have as little money as cat’s tears and as many problems as elephant’s shit nobody clears. In this case we observe the explication of comparison through the expansion of context (see Mokienko 1989).

SC денег как кот напакал – he has as much money as a fool wrappers is not recorded in dictionaries of set comparisons of the Russian language, but its frequency on forums and Internet sites is high, it was also found in the responses of informants. The imagery lying in the basis of this comparison is caused by a proverb concept of a fool according to Kovshova M. (Kovshova 1999: 166). A fool is happy about absolutely everything. "Everything has its value for a fool, although it might be incomprehensible to others, but things that are bright, unusual, different are of special value for him, because the fool himself is different" (ibid, 167). So, bright candy wrappers have value for a fool, he collects them in large quantities.

Quantitative SC денег как мусора – as much money as there is rubbish, денег как вони – as much money as there is wood are less...
commonly used in relation to money. Compare to Czech mit peněz jako směti, Polish ma pieniędzy jak śmieci.

SC denek как у запашка – he has as little money as a Latvian is a truncation of a saying with an euphemistic replacement of a component: Денек как у запашка – только хрен да душа – as little money as a Latvian has – his bills are always a mess (Denekах у запашка – нет в кармане (за душою) ни гроша (ни ишии) – rich like a Latvian bloke – he is always broke). The saying probably reflects poor financial situation of Latvians before the revolution, though perhaps it simply rhymed well. Apart from the forums, the saying is found in modern poetry: ‘Как у запашка – хрен да душа, и в кармане нет ни гроша… Тут как не критик, нам не по пути, жизнь со мной не так хороша...’ – ‘I am rich like a Latvian bloke – he is always broke...Whatever you do, we are different, too, living with me is no joke...’ (Gottesman 2011). Compare it with the transformation (omitting the money component with euphemistic replacement) in the materials of RNC: “Now you don't defend Marxism, you protect a monarchy you've made up yourself or something else, and once again you're the aristoi, and I am like a Latvian bloke ... poor ... like all folks” (Vladimir Kornilov. Demobilization (1969-1971)). Implication of the sayings into SC is a "progressive encoding of the original image of a phraseological unit" (Mokienko 1989: 131). Rhyme that might have generated it plays an important role in its explication.

SC denek как у нищего – has as little money as a beggar is not recorded in dictionaries of set comparisons of the Russian language. It appeared in colloquial speech, apparently, due to association with the SC беден как нищий – poor like a beggar. Similarly SC denek как у Рокфеллера – has as much money as Rockefeller appeared due to association with the SC богат как Рокфеллер – rich like Rockefeller. The standard of a contemporary who has a lot of money in the linguistic consciousness of native speakers of Russian is Roman Abramovich, that is how SC denek как у Абрамовича – as much money as Abramovich has appeared. Compare to Czech SC mit peněz jako Rothschild.

The emergence of such realia as бошье (the Russian police acronym for Of No Fixed Abode) – the homeless person led to the occurrence and frequent usage of SC denek как у бомжа – has as little money as a homeless person in the modern Russian language.

Slavic languages use various expressions as standards to talk about a large amount of money, for example: hay (see similar units in responses of the Russian informants), straw, pun and ice in Polish — та піeniędzy jak siana (sieczki), та піeniędzy jak sioło, jak lodow, sawdust, hedge rose and ship in Serbian — има ка плове, пун ка штепе (without the pun, these SC, except the last one, have a broad compatibility and are used not only in relation to money); shit, peel, cloth, change, clay, bits of iron, splinters in the Czech language – mit peněz jako sraček (fj jak štopěk / jako hradě / jako babek), mit peněz jako hliny, mit peněz jako želez, mit peněz jako třísek.

As right pointed by Mokienko V. "syncrretism of inferiority and multiplicity concepts is one of the semantic universals of a quantitative field" (Mokienko 2005: 7).

Kuznetsova I. sees mythological roots in SC of Slavic languages that represent the correlation 'wool (hair, feathers) – wealth': Ukrainian гройш як у жаба пір’я (волосся) – as much money as there are feathers on a frog (hair), Lenko dialect пияк як наддоно вулякса; Czech má peněz jako (so) žaba chlůpř (vlasí, péří), Serbian/Croatian: пун новаца као жаба дланка, pun para ka žaba dlaka – ‘to be poor, to have nothing at all’ (Kuznetso, 2005: 118). This class of SC has no equivalents in the Russian language, despite the fact that the model itself – ironic denial of the existence of something through an assertion of something non-existent – is used in the Russian language, compare как волось у бабки на колене as much as there is hair on the woman’s knee; у волось ума as much as there is hair in the woman’s head, что волосье на носе as there is hair on the egg and the like. It is also single reactions in the questionnaires of native Russian speakers – денек как волос у мыши на голове as much money as there is hair on a bald head. Compare to the responses of Serbian informants: има пара ка кате нова косе (like hair on a bald head) – 6 responses (out of ten people).

Analysis of Occasional Comparisons in Respondents' Answers

The results of the survey show that occasional (individual answers of the respondents) comparisons can be grouped into themed series, according to stereotypes existing in the minds of native speakers of Russian. So, judging by the reactions received, a lot of money can belong to members of certain professions or people involved in certain activity: oil magnates, bankers, ministers, tax collectors; comparison standards can be grouped according to social status: Sultan, millionaire, rich man have a lot of money, pauper, the poorest beggar, a student, a victims of fire have little money, according to the criterion of ethnicity Americans have a lot of money (as much as Uncle Sam), Russians have little money (like most people), compare to SC about a Latvian.

New proper names that are used as standard in SC of the modern Russian language are also of great interest: names of real people, our contemporaries: in addition to Abramovich, the responses contain the names of Philip Kirkorov, Chubais and the names of mythological characters: Koschei and Scrooge. Koschei is a rich and greedy character of Russian fairy tales. Scrooge originates from the American cartoon "DuckTales" about Uncle Scrooge (McDuck), a multi-billionaire and businessman who has three nephews, the ducklings. The animated series was popular in Russia in the 90s. This trend is common for all Slavic languages. The survey of the Serbian language speakers showed they also use proper names as standard SC in everyday speech to describe large amounts of money: има пара ка как Рокфелер, ка Ознис (the names of Rockefeller and Greek millionaire Onassis), ка Михоцик (Mišković is a modern Serbian oligarch), ка брата Карић (Karić brothers are oligarchs from 90s).

Conclusion

SC describing the amount of money in the modern Russian language show the following trend: units that indicate a large amount of money make up the largest subgroup. SC как денег у кого как грязи – he has as much money as there is dirt, как удурка фантион – he has as much money as a fool wrappers, как кот наплакал – cat’s tears, как у нищего – as a beggar are actively used. The emergence of new SC not recorded in dictionaries is caused by the emergence of new realia – денег как убомжа – as little money as a homeless person has, как у Абрамовича – as much money as Abramovich has. Some SC exist due to the truncation of a proverb: денег как у запашка – as little money as a Latvian has. Individual units receive humorous rhymed expansion in speech: денег как вот наплакал, а проблем, как слон наплакал – as much money as there is dirt, денег как мусор – as much money as there is rubbish. Some Russian SC have no equivalent in Slavic languages, in particular those ones that indicate a complete lack of money and, for example, SC referring to body hair (on a palm, on a frog). Comparisons in the Serbian language are also of great interest – full as the ship, as a hedge rose. Imagery is based on common cognitive foundation of native speakers – it is assumed that there are a lot of flowers on a hedge rose, many passengers on a ship. Similarities in SC of the ideographic group we considered CSS can be explained by common names in realia, historically formed economic (peasant) lifestyle, genetic kinship of the Slavic languages. Differences in the selected images-standards are associated with socio-political factors (proper names of specific individuals), the presence of rhyme in a particular language (e.g. навоз-воз manure-cart (rhyme in Russian), как у запашка – хрен да душа (в кармане ни ишии) – as a Latvian bloke — he is always broke), by various mythological context.

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THE POETIC LINGUISTIC NON-STANDARDNESS AND MEANING CONSTRUCTION: SEMANTIC ASPECTS OF THE ASSOCIATIVE THEORY OF LINGUISTIC CREATIVITY

Gridina T.A., Ustinova T.V.

Abstract

The paper focuses on the role of verbal associations in non-conventional meaning construction. The Associative Theory of Linguistic Creativity is put forward as an attempt to explain the dynamic process of meaning construction in cases of deliberate language nonconformity in poetry. Linguistic creativity of the poet is regarded as de-canonicalized speech practice, i.e., the deliberate violation of language norm and convention aimed at producing some pragmatic effects. The poet’s lingua-creative innovations and modifications are described in this paper as prompts for the reader’s novel and unique conceptualization. The reader’s construction of meaning of the poet’s linguistic non-standardness is analyzed as re-processing of formal and semantic aspects of linguistic units and modeling of specific associative context of word functioning. Transformations of the word’s associative potential as the prime mover of verbal routine transfigurations are analyzed with regard to the semantic contribution of coresense and consense properties of linguistic units. To illustrate linguistic and conceptual associative transformations, the authors inspect the meaning construction of nonce-words in Lyn Hejinian’s poems. It is demonstrated how the reader processes schematic and detailed conceptual content employing the mechanism of associative contrast. The complicated relations between non-standard linguistic form, its semantic subject matter and conceptual content are explained from the perspective of associative shifting which broadens the semantic potential of the word and results in developing a sophisticated network of unique conceptual packets of new, emergent meaning.

Keywords: meaning construction, linguistic non-standardness, the associative potential, verbal associative context.

Introduction: Linguistic creativity as deliberate linguistic non-standardness

Although linguistic creativity is studied in multitude of forms and in a wide array of humanities and social sciences, the phenomenon is not clearly definable. The notion of linguistic creativity embraces the aspects of linguistic productivity, novelty, unexpectedness and deliberate nonconformity as manifestation of the language user’s creative thinking. Traditionally following Chomskyan viewpoint, theories of linguistic creativity highlight the productive potential as an essential property of language in which the speaker’s creativity resides: “it (language) provides the means for expressing indefinitely many thoughts and for reacting appropriately in an indefinite range of new situations” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 6). The general understanding of linguistic creativity as “the use of language and discourse in specific ways to foreground personalized expressive meanings beyond the literal proposition-based information” (Maynard, 2007, p. 4) provides the research framework for analyzing a broad range of instances including speech play (Sherzer, 2002), humorous and ironic creativity (Coulson, 2001; Ritchie, 2005), discursive creativity (Maynard, 2007), conceptual and linguistic creativity in children (Cacciari et al., 1997), etc.

The current paper regards linguistic creativity as de-canonicalized speech practice, i.e. the deliberate violation of language norm and usus aimed at producing some pragmatic effects. Numerous examples of linguistic nonconformity can be derived from experimental avant-garde poetry, whose semantic complexity is grounded in the poet’s desire to find new expressive means by deviating from an accepted linguistic convention. Russian linguistic poetics has long followed traditions of language non-standardness research rooted in the works of Russian Formalists (e.g. Jakobson, 1981) describing Futurists’ language experimenting in terms of creative intentionality and metalinguistic reflection.

The focus of the current study is on analyzing the dynamic process of meaning construction for cases of deliberate language nonconformity in poetry, e.g. poetic nonce-words, foregrounded semantic syncretism, lexical combinatoriality violations, morphological deviations, etc. The poet’s lingua-creative innovations and modifications are described in this paper as prompts for the reader’s novel and unique conceptualization.

Theoretical Background of the Study: Non-conventional meaning construction

Current cognitive semantic theories approach human communication as the process relying on two important components of cognitive network: the meaning construction system and the meaning prompting system (Kecskes, 2008, p. 386). “Linguistic forms prompt for the construction of meanings. The problem is that they do not have a one-to-one relationship. Meaning is incomparably richer that the form of language” (Kecskes, 2008, p. 386). There are several currently developing theories describing conceptual nature of lexical meaning and the process of linguistic construal: the Conceptual Integration theory (Fauconnier and Turner, 2002), the theory of Lexical Concepts and Cognitive Models (Evans 2010), the Dynamic Model of Meaning (Kecskes, 2008).
These works differ in how they account for the nature of conceptual structures and processes proposed for language; but they attempt to explain how the conceptual system and linguistic system interact in producing meaning. The general premise behind these semantic theories is that the dynamic process of meaning construction is regarded “an online mental activity whereby speech participants create meaning in every communicative act on the basis of underspecified linguistic units” (Radden et al., 2007, p. 3). The poet’s creative modifications enhance underspecification of linguistic units, which manifests itself in different ways, e.g. as implicitness, indeterminacy, incompatibility (Radden et al., 2007, p. 5-9) and triggers non-conventional meaning production in the reader’s perceiving mind. To derive the novel unique meaning prompted by language poetic trans-forms, in processing poetic underspecification the reader relies on (1) the core coded meanings of linguistic units and items, i.e. e. conventionally fixed semantic attributes of the unit’s givenness in the context (“coresense” (Kecskes, 2008, p. 393-395)), or the variations of coded meanings, most frequently and ready-made retrievable for the given language user (“salient meanings” (Giora, 1997)); and (2) contextual meaning values of linguistic units in an actual situational context “consense” (Kecskes, 2008, p. 395-396). How are coresense and consense properties of linguistic units converted into mental representations meaningful for the reader processing the poet’s non-standard verbalizing? We argue that non-conventional meaning construction in poetry reading resides on the mechanism of association shifts at the levels of internal and external semantic relations of linguistic units. Depending on the type of the poet’s language modification, various syntagmatic, paradigmatic and epidigmatic relations of lexemes, grammemes, morphemes, phonemes and graphemes are re-processed by the reader. This re-processing results in forming a new, unusual way of conceptualizing objects meant by the poet.

The associative theory of linguistic creativity and its application for analyzing the non-conventional meaning construction

The associative theory of creativity (Mednick, 1962) states that creative people have flatter associative hierarchies and can more fluently retrieve associative elements for combining them to form creative ideas. The current updates of the theory highlight that creativity is related to a more effective way of accessing associative memory (Benedek and Neubauer, 2013). It was also shown that creativity is related to higher evaluation of concept relatedness (Rossman and Fink, 2010) and relies on highly adaptive executive functioning (Szücs and Neubauer, 2013). In the situation of foregrounded poetic underspecification while the reader takes place under loosely predetermined conditions: uncommonness of language expression governs generation of uncommon conceptual associations; underspecification of linguistic units and multiplicity/obcurity of the poetic text organization aggravate association divergence.

The associative theory of language play (Gridina, 1996) argues that meaning construction in producing and comprehending instances of deliberate verbal modifications and manipulations appears to be the process of modeling specific associative context of word functioning. The key concept of this theory is the notion of ‘the associative potential of the word’ – the theoretical construct, which is due to explain the variety of associative shifts in verbal foregrounding (Gridina, 1996, p. 33). The notion of the associative potential originates from the idea that every aspect of formal and semantic word structure bears the potential for speech actualization of non-contextual and contextual associations. The associative potential of the word comprises the areas of (1) non-contextual associative relations, i.e. e. conventional intra-verbals associations (pairing of form and content) inside the semantic structure of one linguistic unit (links ‘signifier ——signified’) and inter-verbals associations between two or more units in lexically fixed combinations (Hejinian, 2013). The associative potential as the prime mover of verbal routine transfigurations are analyzed with regard to (1) the semantic contribution of coresense and consense properties of linguistic units; (2) access to the conceptual content provided by non-conventionally formed or used linguistic units; (3) semantic super-compositionality and emergency in poetic speech processing.

As far as the semantic input generated by coresense and consense is concerned, the prompts for conceptualization provided by the poet’s language innovations are ambiguous, so the reader has more freedom of choice in imposing his / her personal interpretation on potentially meaningful stimuli. Poetry is lingua-centric discourse. It highlights impulses, latencies, potentialities within the linguistic system and upgrades normative procedures of linguistic code functioning in speech communication. Thus, the reader’s attention is always focused on the unusual language forms in poetry. Being a unique instantiation of a lexical concept any usage of a given linguistic form prompts for unique conceptualization (Evans, 2010).

Linguistic content associated with language forms relates to specific areas of conceptual content. According to Kecskes, coresense is the word’s meaning value independent of any situational context impact (Kecskes, 2012). “Coresense is abstracted from prior contextual occurrences of a word. It is neither conceptual nor lexical, but the interface between the two linguistic and conceptual levels” (Kecskes, 2012, p. 393). Coresense contributes to structuring conceptual content by outlining the most accessible knowledge areas.

As far as poetic trans-forms are concerned, their non-standard word-specific semantic properties trigger a variety of associative shifts of linguistic creativity draws on double nature of verbal association: its reference to meaningful relationships coined by linguistic system itself and meaningful relationships within conceptual knowledge framework (Gridina, 1996, p. 36).

In the situation of foregrounded poetic underspecification while construing the meaning of poetic trans-forms, the reader takes into account coresense properties of linguistic units. Graded salience hypothesis (Giora, 2003) claims the priority of salient meanings in speech processing, i. e. most familiar, frequent, predictable meanings coded in the mental lexicon of the individual. The associative stereotypes of word perception are broken in non-conventional meaning construction. Salient meanings implement shifts in linguistic associations designing the ground for unusual meaningful connections in the conceptual system. Some poet’s linguistic trans-forms can be semanticized without any situational context. The rich conceptual content of such creative innovations is mostly form-dependent. On the other hand, contextual interpretation provides necessary specifications of coresense. Contextual associative shifts organize a broader conceptual network of meaningful knots prompted by the linguistic form, which enhances the semantic potential of the poet’s innovations.

For the purpose of understanding contextual associative transformations, let us consider the meaning construction of poetic nonce-words. In Lyn Hejinian’s “The Guard” (Hejinian, 19842) and “Redo” (Hejinian, 19841) there are a number of novel language forms defined by means of affixation (un- + root + -like): uncarlike, unstationlike, unrumorlike, unsurflike, unrecipelike. Constructing the meaning of these innovations, the reader processes conceptual content of two types: (1) the schematic content associated with the morphemes un- (‘negative’, ‘opposite’, ‘a reversal of state’) and -
like (‘resembling or similar to’); (2) the rich, detailed content semantic structure of the poet’s creative innovations provides the necessary architecture for the novel conceptual representation.

Here the lexico-conceptual composition as the meaning construction operation employs the mechanisms of associative contrast. The meanings of morphemes -car-, -station-, -rumor-, etc. salient for each reading individual are reprocessed by means of disanalogy. For example, the lexical concept [RUMOR] activates cognitive models STORY IN GENERAL CIRCULATION and UNCERTAINTY. Intra-linguistic associations stimulate selection of aspects within the semantic structure of the morpheme -rumor- suitable for antithesizing (‘unlike rumor’). For different readers the set of such aspects is unique depending on their individual thesaurus and individual differences in language ability, e. g. ‘evidence’, ‘certainty’, ‘quietness’, ‘truth’, ‘silence’, etc. Thus, the novel form unrumorlike provides new conceptual content through activating the cognitive model and ascribing it a range of attributes relating to the qualities of being ‘dissimilar to rumor’. The association shifts arising in the given situational context specify the message:

of Vailland, so undying in disorder is order.
Windows closed on wind in rows.
Night lights, unrumorlike, the reserve
for events. All day our postures were the same (L. Hejinian ‘The Guard’).

The connotations constituting the periphery of semantic structures of the words night, light, reserve, events (e. g. night – ‘refraining from activity; obscurity’; light – ‘turn on; guide’; reserve – ‘safety; future’; event – ‘outcome’) generate unusual conflx of conceptual associations. Under such contextual conditions attributes of the cognitive model UNRUMORLIKE relating to ‘temporal stillness’ and ‘potentiality’ are being accessed.

It is important to note that the meaning of the nonce-word and the situational context are co-constructed simultaneously: attributes of the activated cognitive model are specified while processing the context; cognitive model specification evokes new understanding of the context. The associative contrast as the mechanism of the associative potential transformation appears to be context forming in this poem: the reader re-processesgradable and complementary antonymous relations conveyed by denotational or connotational sememes: dying (death) vs. undying (life); disorder vs. order; night (dark) vs. light; reserve (sustained activity) vs. event (action, experience).

From the cognitive viewpoint, transformations of the word’s associative potential affect the non-conventional meaning construction in the following ways:

Divergent thinking of the reader generating a wide range of solutions in resolving linguistic underspecification and poetic ambiguity is stimulated.

The associative shifts broaden the semantic potential of the word (i.e. the cognitive models profile potentially accessible via the lexical concept) by means of (a) supplying new attributes to the cognitive models of knowledge representation and (b) utilizing remote associations between the activated cognitive models. This semantic extension results in developing a sophisticated network of unique conceptual packets of new, emergent meaning.

The reader acquires novel linguistic knowledge recognizing diversity of language categories, relations and acceptable means of verbalizing and novel ontological knowledge since linguistic nonstandardness causes defamiliarization of objects and phenomena signified, increases the difficulty of their perception and results in unusual mental representations.

**Conclusion**

The associative theory of linguistic creativity presents an approach to studying deliberate linguistic nonstandardness via transformations of associative perception stereotypes. Such approach calls attention to the associative strategy of producing and comprehending deliberate language innovations and deviations. An associative strategy of linguistic creativity demands from the addressee to combine divergent aspects of old/assimilated knowledge on the associative basis into new associative systems meeting conditions of non-standard language functioning. We argue that lingua-creative meaning construction is determined by two dialectically operating factors: foregrounding of stereotypic parameters pre-designed by the language system and actualized contravention of language system and usus stereotypes. The language user producing or comprehending deliberate linguistic anomalies is semantically flexible enough to grasp the paradox between linguistic normativity and potential possibilities of norm violating and to construct the novel meaning making use of this paradox. Processive creativity of the reader interpreting multi-meaningful poetic utterance is directed by (1) linguistic mechanisms used by the poet for de-canorizing linguistic units’ form and function and (2) constructive principles of the poet’s modeling of the verbal associative context (associative juxtaposition, associative imitation associative inference, associative clash, etc.).

These assumptions have meaningful implications for theoretical frameworks of lingua-creative cognition. By examining complex sense-making in the poetry reader’s interpretative activity, there are many opportunities to investigate the non-conventional meaning construction as a creative thinking process. The associative theory of linguistic creativity puts into new perspective the analysis of complicated relations between non-standard linguistic form, its semantic subject matter and conceptual content. The theory gives adequate explanation to verbal association shifts prompting for novel conceptual associations resulting in unique mental representations.

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The process of the science different fields forming had begun before the written language appeared. The general- use vocabulary was used by practically all sciences and after when every science had stood out for a separate field the science language started to transform. Every science began to isolate the terms of its own field of knowledge; the specialization of their meanings was taking place. First the special words appeared in every field of sciences and the special meanings of these words began to isolate the words and word combinations of the definite sciences. The isolated words may be called as the basic words, because they founded the base of every science. “The basic terms appeared they were borrowed through the origin from the terminology or from the field of the vocabulary lying in its foundation, so they were the basis for its development” [1, p.63]. The basic terms pass the main knowledge or ideas which characterize the definite field. Nowadays it is very important to know these basic terms they help to understand the primary meanings of many words.

Thanks to Greek borrowings determining the idea of economy, the basic term economy took place. Many nationalities kept houses and simultaneously they taught to the rules of products, things, tools production economy, etc. The process of standing out of the lexical unit economy as the isolated term with its specific meaning had lasted for very long. The term economy continues to surprise us by the width and multifacety of its meanings beginning with the ancient people and is going to advance in its meanings. This term began to be used actively by the Greek scientist Aristotle who considered that “economy is the household activity which is in harmony with nature from which the acquisition is abruptly differed managing not by the high purposes of human being but by the tendency to the boundless gain forming the purpose in itself” [4, p. 174]. The lexical unit economy existed in Greek before Aristotle and its name of special Xenophon composition where “the reasonable household and agriculture rules are examined in the form of dialogue” [7, p.19]. The modern term economics to which the term economy had preceded takes place from old Greek oikonomia. Its first root oikos—means a house, a famous family, …[2, p.575], the second root by different versions “nom- means a law or nem— means to regulate”[11, p. 515]. The science about the house or the art of household managing means in literal meaning oikonomia. One more translation of this term also exists – domostroi: just this Russian name received the very early treatise “Oikonomia” by the famous Greek thinker Xenophon (V-IV cc. BC) who “gives the visual picture of “economy” in Old Greek presentation” [3, p.13]. The research of the term economy has shown from the etymological point of view that this term came from the lexical unit “economie in 1440 which means management of a household, influenced in its formation by earlier economique(s) before 1393; but ultimately borrowed through Middle French economie and directly from Latin oeconomia, from Greek oikonomia (oikos— a house + nomos management)” [15, p.230]. The lexical unit economics appeared in 1586 in the meaning of the “art of managing a household perhaps from earlier Middle English sticknome, n-s, as in physics: but generally considered to be formed in English from Middle French economique + English –x. The sense of the science of managing the resources of a country, etc., is first recorded in 1792 [15, p.230].

So, economics meant as before the art of managing household till 17th century but the attention was much focused on the problem of the royal economy. ‘The art of managing such economy can’t help varying from the economy of the private household and it caused the appearance of the new term the political economy at the beginning of the 17th century” [12, p.51]. In the economical literature this term was lead by Antoine de Montchrestien (1575-1621) and in 1615 he published the book named “Treatise of political economy”. In 1792 this term was firstly marked in the meaning of the science of the country resources managing. In 1970s of XIX-th century the radical changes came in the economical science and the science even changed its name beginning with A. Marshall and in English-speaking countries political economy began to be named economics [5, p.176].The economy had at that period the independent science as a branch of economical science and opened the laws of business and the methods of keep housing on the macro- and micro- levels.

In modern Oxford Economy Dictionary the following definitions of term economy and economics are given:

“economy 1) a country’s money supply, trade and industry;
2) the control and management of money resources , etc, of an organization, a society, a country;
3) the act of saving money, time, resources” [16, p. 147].

“economics 1. a) the study of the processes involved in the production, distribution and consumption of goods, esp. in relation to cost;
b) the application of this to a particular activity, industry, etc;
2. he financial conditions of a country” [16, p. 147].

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THE FOUNDATION OF ENGLISH BASIC TERM ECONOMICS AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Abstract

The article shows the peculiarities of the English basic economical term origin “economics”, the dynamics of this term development. The lexical unit “economics” was based by the borrowing from Greek and Latin languages and began to be used actively in the meaning of the management of the household and modified to the term “economics” (the main modern economical science component).

Keywords: basic term, etymological research, lexical unit, dynamics development, term origin.

Ноча авторов / Author Email: hudelena@mail.ru
According to Economic Dictionary *economics* "is the study of the production, distribution and consumption of wealth in a human society" [14, p.122].

These definitions show that the terms *economy* and *economics* have the same ideas of household managing and housekeeping. These terms had developed according to the society development and all acts and actions which had happened in the society came to the appearance of the lexical units and terms for the economical science. They helped the society to isolate this science and to define its terms. The terms in the economical science changed all the time. It is the usual process for every science to define the terms for understanding its processes and actions. The basic terms *economy* and *economics* appeared.

So, the basic English term *economy* meant “the managing of household” in 1440, in 1586 – “the art of household”, in 1792 – “the science of managing the resources of a country, etc.” [12, p.53].

In the 19th century *economics* was called “market economy” [9, p.61]. The terminological combination *market economy* means “an economy in which a substantial proportion of economic decisions are taken by the use of markets” [13, p.290]. In the middle of the XXth century in the economical science “two parts were isolated: *microeconomics* and *macroeconomics*” [10, p.12]. “Microeconomics is the part of economics in which small parts of an economy are studied, for example, particular goods, business, etc.” [17, p.893]. And also it “examines how production and consumption are organized, what is produced and who benefits” [14, p.135]. The form *micro-* is mainly used for scientific terms and ideas development, in the meaning of “small, very small” [15, p.475]. This form is used for the development of the economical science direction *microeconomics* (from Greek “*micros* - oikonomike”) [8, p.123]. Another direction of the economical science *macroeconomics* “studies national economies and determination of national income” [14, p.255]. The form *macro-* means “big, very big and relates to the whole of something, rather than its parts” [17, p.850]. This form is borrowed from Greek (*makro*) *macros* in the meaning of “large, long” [15, p.449].

English basic term *economics* had undergone the changes during the history of the economical science development. Being borrowed from Greek and Latin, from the words *oikonomia* and *oikonomas* the term *economy* had modified to *economics* as the art of household managing in 1586. “The further economical processes and events which had happened before helped to find one more English term *political economy* which was first determined in 1792 as a science of country’s resources managing. This term existed not so long and in 1970-s of the XIXth century the changes in the economical science happened, it changed its name” [12, p.54].

In the economical science the term *economics* established again in the meaning of the “science which studies the production, distribution and consumption of the wealth in the human society and as the main component of modern economical science, the use of which lets decide more effectively the basic questions of society economical development” [6, p.10]. Based on the menuce conception the *economy* was called lately the *market economy*, where the main proportion of the economical decisions is accepted with the use of markets.

In the middle of the XXth century two main directions were appeared in the economy. They are known as *microeconomics* and *macroeconomics*.

So, based on the history of the lexical unit origin and development we may say that any lexical unit turning out in the definite sphere of use can modify its meaning. The examined English basic term *economics* had undergone numerous changes in its meanings during the period which was represented above. And thanks to the impetuous human development may modify further changing its meanings.

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This article concerns the mongolian languages fishery terminology analysis carried out to identify the turkic-mongolian parallels relating to the names and aquatic means of transport, objects of fishery, ways and methods of fishing and the fishing tackles in its structure. The analysis is based on the Halkha-Mongolian, Buryat, Kalmyk languages, and the old Mongolian written language. Turkic material was mostly taken from the old Turkic dictionary, which is a compilation of lexicon from the old Turkish writing artifacts. Comparative study of the Mongolian and the old Turkic languages allowed to reveal insignificant number of the turkic-mongolian parallels concerning both names of fishes, names of fishing tackles and aquatic means of transport.

**Keywords:** mongolian languages, turkic languages, aquatic means of transport, names of fish, names of fishing ways, names of fishing tools, complex of fishing terminology.

**Рассадин В.И.**
Kalmyk State University

**TURKIC-MONGOLIAN PARALLELS AS A PART OF A COMPLEX OF THE MONGOLIAN LANGUAGES FISHERY TERMINOLOGY**

As is well-known, Turkic and Mongolian ethnic groups have resided in Central Asia in close vicinity and contacted with each other since ancient times. The Turkic ethnic group historically inhabited in the middle of the living area, covering the south of steppe areas and treed mountains and foothills of the north while the Mongolian ethnic group lived in the eastern part of the region in forest-steppe and mountainous areas. The geography of the place predetermined ways of doing business, providing for people's survival needs. Nomad dairy cattle breeding was widely practiced in the steppe regions, although the Turkic tribes also used hunting and fishing. The Mongolian tribes did not originally practice nomad dairy cattle breeding and were primarily engaged only in hunting and fishing. Later, after the Mongolian tribes came in closer contact with the Turkic tribes and mastered the middle part of Central Asia, they adopted the habit of nomad dairy cattle breeding while maintaining their traditional skills of hunting and fishing.

In this article, we would like to look at Mongolian terms related to the fish industry in more detail to identify Turkish-Mongolian parallels if there are any. We used all available dictionaries of ancient Turkic and Mongolian languages to perform this research, namely: "Unabridged Academic Mongolian-Russian Dictionary" in 4 volumes [2001-2002], «Buryat-Russian Dictionary» in 2 volumes [2010], «Kalmyk-Russian Dictionary» [1977], «Kalmyk-German Dictionary» by Gustaf Ramstedt [1935], «Mongolian-English Dictionary» by Ferdinand Lessing [1960], «Old Turkic Dictionary» [1969].

The fish industry vocabulary includes the names of means of transportation used on water, objects of fisheries, fishing methods, and fishing techniques.

Before the invention of boats in ancient times, raft had been the only means of transportation used while fishing, and it was called назээ in all Mongolian languages (neuter gender: Kхalkha Mong., Kalmyk назээ, Steppe-Mong. сал, Buryat hal). The same word can be found in Turkic languages: Turk. sal which means "raft made of wineskins" is widespread in all Turkic languages as evidenced by "The Comparative Historical Grammar of Turkic Languages. Dictionary" [2001: 537], which also provides its Turkic prototype *sa:zgan. This word form allows us to draw a very distinct Turkish-Mongolian parallel.

As for the fishing object names, it should be noted that Turkic and Mongolian ethnic groups each developed its own system of fish names, because both tribes practiced it independently. It can be clearly seen when we compare these terms. Thus, fish in the Mongolian language has the following names: Kхalkha Mong. нээл, Kalmyk нээл хадаан, Steppe-Mong. нээл сумин. In Turkic languages, both in ancient and modern versions, there is only one word denoting fish балык as evidenced by "The Comparative Historical Grammar of Turkic Languages. Dictionary" [2001: 177]. Although, these are completely different terms in their origin, we can find traces of the Turkish term penetration in some Mongol languages and dialects. Thus, in Alarо-Унгиск Бuryat language dialect there is a word балас which means "minnow" [Budaev 1978: 179], the same word can be found in Nizhneudinsk Buryat language dialect — балас "minnow" [Rassadin 1988: 70; 1999: 128] while in the Kalmyk language there is the term көп бола translated as "carp." The same Turkic word can be traced in the Oka Buryat language dialect in the word form—баласчан which stands for "small fish, minnow," as well as in Darkhat dialect of the Mongolian language in the form баласчан "small grayling.” The prototype of both Buryat баласчан and Darkhat баласчан is *балиусун, which dates back to its protoform *балиусун. The development of this word and its adaptation to Turkic language happened the following way: Turk. балас "fish" + Mongolian derivational affix -sum with inserted vowel -u > *балиусун > балиусун > балиусун > балиусун [Rassadin 1996: 146].

There is a Turkic parallel in the form of Tuvan көп дарын, Тофалар, Сойот,UGHIR-Tsaaat and Uighur-Урынкай көп дарын "grayling" to such Mongolian words as: Kхalkha Mong. хадаан, Бuryat хадаан, хадаран, Steppe-Mong. көп дарын "grayling", Kalmykкөпдө "roach (fish)."

The obvious Turkic borrowing in the Kalmyk language is the word сазн "carp", which is widely represented in Turkic languages in the form of сазн and сазан "carp" as evidenced by "The Comparative and Historical Grammar of Turkic Languages. Dictionary" [2001: 179], which provides the protoform of this Turkic word in the form of *цээсүн. The Turkic word for perch албага is to some extent typologically similar to Kхalkha Mongolian word for perch алуу, Buryataлаана, Steppe-Mong. алууна formed with the help of the Mongolian word-forming affix —уна from Turkic-Mongolian adjective ала "pied, striped," which describes the appearance of perch well as it is a barred fish. The Turkic name for perchалбага (the word presumably means "striped bull" because of the hump in the front part of the perch's body as its characteristic feature) is also
formed from the same Turkic-Mongolian adjective ала meaning "pied, striped." This word form can be found in many Turkic languages as evidenced by "The Comparative Historical Grammar of Turkic Languages." Dictionary [2001: 178], which dates back to its Turkic protoform *alaubuga. 

Turkic parables also include Khalkha Mong. май засаг, Kalmyk майд* Old Mongolian май "herring," comparable with the Turkic word май "fat, lard, butter" widely represented in Turkic languages, as evidenced by "The Etymological Dictionary of Turkic Languages" [2003: 13-14]. One of the main features of herring is its fat, which helps to justify the comparison. Therefore, the Turks call herring май бялгү meaning "fatty fish, fat fish." These are probably all Turkic-Mongolian correspondences in the names of fish we managed to find as the main names of fish that have commercial value developed separately both in Turkic and Mongolian languages. The names of fish suggest that the two ethnic groups were engaged in fishing independently of each other. Thus, in the Khalkha Mongolian language there are such names as хамсы (Buryat хамсы, Stepp-Mong. гиме) *таут, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *түрбүт, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *гөлөм, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat нун, Stepp-Mong. нуа) *ордо, нун (Buryat ну
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Тhe name of a business enterprise is becoming a factor contributing to its competitive ability in the market. As a result, unusual names highlighting the distinction of an object have appeared. The point is quite obvious. A name has to attract attention of a target audience to a company in order to create and strengthen the positive image in recipient’s mind. For this reason, the process of commercial designation or language designation of the enterprises which are aimed at profit or promotion of their products and services is not spontaneous. It tends to follow patterns existing in communicative awareness and not to contradict language laws. According to numerous researches (M.V. Kitaigorodskay, E.V. Kraksilnikova, L.Z. Podberezkina, T.V. Simashko), an emotional component in designation is increasing because of the need in new techniques to attract target audience and provide successful enterprise operation. It raises the question whether non-standard names always convey a communicative intention and receive the expected interpretation by a receiver. The purpose of this research is to reveal the conditions of communicative effectiveness of non-standard names. We used the method of continuous sampling to choose the material for our study. Here are the groups of non-standard names or nomination units according to a formal criterion: foreign nominations written in a foreign language («Айбис», «Берлога», «Васаби», «Винторогий парк»), foreign nominations written in Russian («СантехБомба» (a heating company), «Санта-Клара» (a dentist office), «Санта-Клаус» (a grocery shop); neologisms: «Айсберг» (a dental clinic), «Белая Гараж» (a garage); names with a negative meaning from a particular extra linguistic context, so these names are not connected with the kind of products or services provided by the company and give the wrong idea about its activity. For example, «Аббитурент» (a travel agency), «Айберберг» (a dental clinic), «Белая лошадь» (a cafe), «Больгарский дом» (a restaurant), «Виндс» (a gift shop), «Восток-Сервис» (a tailor’s workshop), «Гаряч» (a cafe), «Дельта-Челябинск» (a private security agency), «Зеленое яблоко» (a dentist office), «Зимушка» (a travel agency), «Мастер» (a travel agency), «Мечта» (a grain store), «Милениум» (a grocery store), «Министр» (an auto shop), «Мулень Руж» (a hairdresser), «Подольская» (a design studio), «Талсман» (a construction and repair company), «Танго» (a beauty centre), «Эллис» (a vet clinic); names with an implicit meaning, which is, the words that can be found in explanatory dictionaries but unfamiliar to most of people: «Гамбургус» (a restaurant), «Инфинити» (an estate agency), «Иллюзия» (a beauty salon), «Авиньион» (a restaurant), «Паспарту» (a picture framing studio); names with a negative connotation: «Град» (a grocery shop), «Жирный кот» (a cafe), «Маклер» (an estate agency), «Мильная опера» (an art-studio), «Нарисс» (a beauty salon), «Оборка» (a confectionery), «Пьяный страсус» (a bar), «Суассин» (a travel agency), «Фарб» (a grocery shop), «Египетская» (a bridal shop); words acquiring a negative meaning from a particular extra linguistic context, so these names are unlikely to cause a positive respond from a customer: «Богатырь» (a clothing store), «Большой люк» (a clothing store), «Большой размер» (a clothing store), «Голфа» (an estate agency), «Гуливер» (a clothing store), «Космонавт» (a travel agency), «Медя» (a dentist office), «Мода для полных» (a clothing store), «Сантехбомба» (a gas equipment store), Штитис (an art gallery), «Экспресс-мебель» (a furniture plant); unreasonable spelling of a foreign word in Cyrillic with or without taking into consideration its pronunciation: «Васабо» (a restaurant), «Хэллфриш» (an advertising agency), «Эллис» (an advertising agency); breach of ethical norms as a result of the chosen name: «Алле пойле» (a shopping and entertainment centre), «Гагарин-парк» (a shopping centre), «Орлёнок» (a grocery shop); neologisms: «Кальянная» (a hookah bar), «Пивоторг» (a beer bar), «Рукулевочка» (a drapery),
«Тепландия» (a manufacturing company), «Стекландия» (a plant producing doors and window); names of famous people, fictional characters and Biblical images: «Ермак» (a restaurant), «Капитан Флинт» (a beer bar), «Далила» (a beauty salon); nominations including a name, a patronymic or a surname of the owner: «Высоцкий Консалтинг Челябинск» (a recruiting agency), «Евгений» (a grocery shop), «Зинаида Карловна» (a bakery), «Лидия» (a dance school), «У Михайлыча» (a grocery shop), «Светлана» (an estate agency), «Черкасов» (a furniture plant), «Юнусов & К» (a furniture plant).

We also found out that unusual pronunciation of non-informative names very often appeals to customers: «Азалия» (a flower shop), «Baby Boots» (a shoe shop), «Bambini» (a children’s shop), «Cat&Dog» (a pet shop), «Дельфин» (a fishing shop), «Диамант» (a pawnshop), «Синтагма» (a catering company), «Созвездие» (a photo shop), «Фазенда» (a garden supply shop).

M.V. Kitaigorodskaya defined abnormalities of the content as unmotivated names because they do not cause associations with the object of nomination. Their choice is influenced by local traditions, fashion or nominator’s wish. Such names as «Василек» (a grocery shop), «Город ОК» (a café), «Гуси-лебеди» (an event agency), «Звездный дождь» (an event agency), «Куба» (a shopping and entertaining centre) have a positive connotation. There are also nominations related to local geographical names: «AKFA-Челябинск» (a logistical company), «Каменный пояс» (an art gallery), «Малахитовая шкатулка» (a coffee house), «Огни Урала» (a hairdresser), «Урал» (a tailor’s shop), «Уралтон» (a record shop), «Челябинтма» (a manufacturing company).

Though abnormalities of the form and the content occur quite often, they have not become a trend. In fact, nominators try to adjust the name of their enterprise to a particular pragmatic context where this nominative unit is functioning: «Ваш бухгалтер» (an outsourcing company), «Академия здоровья» (a medical centre), «Асан» (a yoga studio), «Барбос» (a pet shop), «Диалог» (a language learning centre), «Табет» (an oriental medicine centre), «Труд» (an employment agency). The purpose is obvious – the name of an enterprise has to be in line with its functions: to inform, to affect the recipient’s emotions and attract potential customers, to distinguish the enterprise against similar ones. In order to avoid conveying the wrong implicatures the nominator should forecast the associations which can appear in a recipient’s mind as well as take into consideration the age and social status of their target audience. We are normally prepared to accept deviations from usual linguistic behaviour provided they are justified, for instance, on the basis of poetic creativity or humour, and interpretable. Thus, what can justify the use of non-standard names is only if they create a positive image.

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Подубская О.Н.1,2,3,4, Линева Е.А.1,2, Савельева Е.Б.1,4, Яковлева Э.Н.1,2,3,4

1,2,3,4Государственный гуманитарно-технологический университет

СТИЛИСТИЧЕСКИЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ РЕКЛАМНЫХ ТЕКСТОВ ИНФОРМИРУЮЩЕГО И СРАВНИТЕЛЬНОГО ТИПОВ

Аннотация

Актуальность данной статьи состоит в том, что сегодня влияние рекламы сказывается не только на сфере потребительского рынка, политической и культурной жизни общества, но и на употреблении языка и развитии его системы. С появлением рекламы сложился особый стилистический облик текстов, сформировавшийся на основе возрастающих традиций реклам на русском языке и под активным влиянием энергичной и напористой европейской рекламы. Цель данного исследования изучить стилистические особенности информирующего и сравнительного рекламного текста. Объектом исследования являются русскоязычные рекламные тексты печатных средств массовой информации и телевидения. В заключение статьи был сделан вывод о том, какими группами языковых средств представлены стилистические приемы информирующих и сравнительных рекламных текстов. Анализ стилистических особенностей современного информирующего и сравнительного рекламного текста может представлять интерес для специалистов в области теоретических исследований современной рекламы.

Ключевые слова: стилистические средства, рекламный текст, информирующий рекламный текст, сравнительный рекламный текст.

Poddubskaya O.N.1,2,3,4, Lineva E.A.1,2, Savelieva E.B.1,4, Yakovleva E.N.1,2,3,4

1,2,3,4State Humanitarian Technological University

STYLISTIC FEATURES OF ADVERTISING TEXTS OF INFORMATIVE AND COMPARATIVE TYPES

Abstract

The relevance of this article is related to the fact that nowadays advertising has a very strong impact both on the consumer market, political and cultural life of society, and on the language and its development as a system. Advertising has given rise to the development of a special set of stylistic features of a text, formed under the influence of reviving advertising traditions in the Russian language and under the active impact of energetic and pushy European advertising. The purpose of this study is to explore stylistic features of informative and comparative advertising texts. The object of research is Russian-language advertising in printed media and on television. In the end of the article we made conclusions about groups of language means used for different stylistic devices in informative and comparative advertising texts. Analysis of stylistic features of modern informative and comparative advertising texts can be of great interest to specialists in the field of theoretical studies of modern advertising.

Keywords: stylistic means, advertising text, informative advertising text, comparative advertising text.

Почта автора / Author Email: ealineva@mail.ru

The main task of advertising is to draw attention to the product and to interest a potential customer; that is why it is necessary to use stylistic expressive means in an advertising text.

The first researcher who started studying the stylistics of advertising texts was Kostomarov V., who formulated a general stylistic norm in this area of language functioning – "expressiveness – standard" (Kostomarov, 1994, p. 3.) which became one of the main principles in the study of expressive means of advertising language. At present, advertising is subordinated to this principle, moreover, it produces its own measures of expressiveness and standard, distinguishing it from other mass-communication and regulating its generic and stylistic diversity (Kostomarov, 1994, p. 3).

It can be affirmed that advertising both stimulates trade and gives rise to new communicative functions of the language, which results in the development of modern types of advertising texts (Lutz, 1999, p. 27), which are, from the point of view of their main goals and objectives, stimulating, persuasive, promoting image, comparative, informing and trademark; in each case the peculiarities of an advertised product determine the selection of linguistic means.

Since the scope of this article does not allow us to consider stylistic features of all types of advertising texts, we will focus on advertising that informs the buyer about goods or compares different goods, i.e. we will consider stylistic features of informative and comparative advertising texts.

Informative advertising message is intended to provide the consumer with information about a product or a service in a concise and accessible form. In correlation "expressiveness – standard" standard will be always favoured, which implies the focus on the content of the text rather than the originality of its form, i.e., according to the author the consumer should be interested in specific facts about an advertised product; confirmation or persuasion are not required.

Let us consider an example. "Whiskas Immuno is an innovative product with useful lactobacillus that improve digestion, stimulate the immune system and help to protect the body of the cat from infections" (Advertising of food for cats) ("Lisa", 2015, p. 58). In this case, there are almost no stylistic features aimed to create a particular effect; the expressivity of the text is minimal and is mainly represented by epithets "innovative", "useful".

When comparing the following advertising texts of informative type we have concluded that many of them contain elliptical sentences. This technique allows conveying information more efficiently without the use of other expressive means.

"All kinds of medical services for children and adults. Attendance at home and at country house." (Advertising services) ("All for You", 2015, p. 2). "Large variety of men's and women's clothing and headwear from mink, mouton, seal and wild fur of deluxe class"). (Clothing advertising) ("All for You", 2015, p. 2). "Rest, treatment, excursions: Moscow region, Crimea, the Black Sea. River cruises ") ("Quarter – Sergiev Posad", 2015, p. 3). However, it should be noted that statements in the last example are grammatical with destroyed syntax of the text which makes it more dynamic and concise.

Here are a few more examples of conscious violation of syntax rules in advertising texts, "Shutters, loggia glazing, finishing the inner side of the window. Free of charge: con"

Informative advertising texts contain a direct description of the object: "Lisma – affordable tea." (Tea advertising) (Advertising on Channel One, Russia 1, TV Center, NTV, TNT, STS). "Galstena – reliable protection for your liver and gall bladder." (Medicine advertising) (Advertising on Channel One, Russia 1, TV Center, NTV, TNT, STS).

Another peculiarity of informative advertising texts is frequent use of borrowed and foreign words. These are exactly the words that draw consumer's attention. For example, advertising services, "Concrete plant" Technogroup", Solution from the manufacturer. Delivery by mixers ") ("Quarter – Sergiev Posad", 2015, p. 3). "Record Service". Delivery and installation of washing machines ") ("Quarter – Sergiev Posad", 2015, p. 3).

Another feature is the use of original product names, this way Russian words sound foreign, for example, "Stolph" furniture in branded shops of the city!" ("Quarter – Sergiev Posad", 2015, p. 3).
Technical terms are also often used in informative advertising, especially when a text is addressed to an interested group of people, "Legna Kitchen Unit – Russian-Italian holding company for the production of kitchen furniture of European quality" ("All for You", 2015, p. 34.). "Moscow regional mortgage program-co-investment contract" ("All for You", 2015, p. 32). "LLCCartographer": plane surveying, delimitation plan, selection statement ("All for You", 2015, p. 31).

Although informative advertising texts tend to be standard to a greater extent, their effectiveness is achieved largely through the use of expressive stylistic means of the language in the headline. Let us have a look at specific examples.

Pun: "That is the secret of vitamin F?" (Vitamin and mineral complex advertising) ("World News", 2015, p. 34.).

Hyperbole: "Your skin is perfect!" (Hand cream advertisement) ("Lisa", 2015, p. 14.).

Metaphor: "Extinguish your heartburn" (Medicine advertising) ("World News", 2015, p. 28.).

Anathesis: "Nothing superfluous and plenty of opportunities" (Advertisement of microwave "Vitek") (Advertising on Channel One, Russia 1, TV Center, NTV, TNT, STS).

Rhetorical question: "Autumn! Time to get sick?" (Advertisement of medicine against flu) ("Lisa", 2015, p. 32.).

Thus, analyzing stylistic features of informative advertising texts, we can distinguish the following distinctive features: agrammatical statement; usage of borrowed and foreign words; elliptical sentences and, in general, low level of expressiveness, mainly represented by puns, metaphors, anathesis and rhetorical questions.

Next, let us consider stylistic features of comparative advertising texts aimed, first and foremost, at singling out the advantages of a certain product compared to the competing one. This comparison can be explicit when the merits of the product are obvious, or hidden, when the author of the text creates the illusion of superiority.

In this regard, authors often use hyperbole when creating such texts: "We can do what the others cannot!" ("New Mirror", 2015, p. 12). "Performance and division like never before" (Advertising house cleaning services) (Advertising on Channel One, Russia 1, TV Center, NTV, TNT, STS).

The use of anathesis is another effective means: "Quality is even higher than you think. Prices are even lower than you think" ("New Mirror", 2015, p. 11) Nature creates wrinkles. Science gives us the opportunity to get rid of them. (Advertisement of medicine "VitaSkin") ("Lisa", 2015, p. 36).

Our communication language is not English, it is international banking." (Banking advertising) ("New mirror", 2015, p. 12) "Say no to pain and yes to smile" (Dental services advertising) ("World News", 2015, p. 18) "Where one sees the reason to turn away, we see an opportunity to help patients with acne" (Advertising of medical services) ("Lisa", 2015, p. 16).

The structure of the following advertising text appears to be interesting and effective, based on the use of anathesis, anaphora and epiphrasis:

"Most people are silent about daily problems... But we are not. Most people believe that daily traffic jams are quite normal... But we do not.

Almost everyone got used to the number of road accidents... But we did not. " (Advertisement of road safety police) (Advertising on Channel One, Russia 1, TV Center, NTV, TNT, STS).

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Nelunova E.D.1, Artemiev I.T.2, Davydova E.M.3
1,2,3 Institute of Foreign Philology and regional Studies

INNOVATIVE ACTIVITY: EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS IN THE CONTEXT OF COMPETENCE-BASED APPROACH

The article revises the innovative activity as innovation - improvement of teaching foreign languages based on application of network technologies. Whereas the process of modernization proceeds according to requirements of Federal State Educational Standards, in the solution of problems of integration of electronic training and formation of common cultural competences of students.

Keywords: common cultural competences, LMS MOODLE, pedagogical innovatics, innovative activity, competence-based approach.

Nelunova E.D.1, Artemiev I.T.2, Davydova E.M.3

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P edagogical innovations methodology is a system of knowledge and activities related to the foundations and structure of pedagogical innovations creation, development and application doctrine. Teacher's innovations comprise ideas, methods, means, technologies and systems; something new, specially designed, researched, elaborately developed or accidentally discovered, new pedagogical knowledge, technology, methods, techniques.

Another system concept is innovative activity – a set of measures taken to ensure the innovation process at a given level of education, as well as the process itself. The main functions of innovation include the change of pedagogical process components: meaning, objectives, educational content, forms, methods, technologies, training tools, management systems, etc.

The innovation process is a set of procedures and means that turn the teacher discovery or idea into a social one, including educational innovation [8]. According to Khutorskiy A., educational innovation refers to the doctrine of pedagogical innovations creation, the use and application of new methods, technologies and means in practice, considered as an improvement, which means changing a known technique and its adaptation to new conditions of training activities and efficiency promotion in terms of new rules establishment for the use of known pedagogical tools to solve traditional problems in foreign language learning. In this perspective, methodological foundations of innovation activity in the teaching of foreign languages are presented in accordance with the concepts of innovation and its levels.

Let us consider the competence-based approach to education as an innovation in the learning process. In order to determine the essence of competence-based approach in education, let us analyse the concept of "competence". This word has derived from Latin and means a scope of issues a person is well aware of and has knowledge and experience related to them. According to Khutorskiy A., a person competent in a specific field has appropriate knowledge and skills enabling him/her to reasonably judge this field and effectively act in it.

In the book "Modernization Strategy of Basic Education" published by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation they formulated fundamental principles of competence-based approach in education, the pivotal notion of which is competence. It was emphasized that this concept is broader than the concept of knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA). The authors describe “competence” as a concept that combines intellectual and scientific components of education, continuing to expand it in the following areas:

— the concept of competence includes not only cognitive, operational and technological components, but also motivational, ethical, social and behavioral ones; it includes learning outcomes (knowledge and skills), the system of value orientations, habits, etc.;
— competence refers to the ability to mobilize acquired knowledge, skills, experience and ways of behaving in a particular situation, specific activity;
— the concept of competence implies content interpretation of education, formed on the basis of the result ("standard outcome");
— competencies are formed both during the learning process at school and under the influence of the environment;
— competence as an independent cognitive activity, based on the adoption of different ways of acquiring knowledge from a variety of sources, including extra-curricular ones;
— competence in the field of civil and social activities (performing the roles of citizens, voters, consumers);
— competence in the social field and employment, including the ability to analyse the situation on labor market, assess their own professional skills, understand the rules and ethics of relationships, self-organisation skills;
— competence in the household sphere, including aspects of health, family life, etc.;
— competence in the field of cultural and leisure activities, including the choice of ways and means of free time use, that can culturally and spiritually enrich the personality [6].

In 2003 Khutorskiy A. published his monograph "Didactic Heuristics. Theory and Technology of Training ", which focuses on the original scientific-pedagogical concept of heuristic learning. Students are invited to discover knowledge, compare it with cultural and historical analogies, building an individual trajectory of education, while the process of key competencies forming still continues [9].

The monograph by Smolyaninova O. "Competence-Based Approach in Teacher's Training in the Context of Using Media" published in 2006 in Krasnoyarsk makes an attempt to understand current models of competence-based approach application in higher education. The content of the book is based on the Russian and international experience concerning the modernization of education in the framework of competence-based approach and is founded on theoretical and practical studies, carried out by the author in 2000-2006. [7].
The same year another monograph by Vostrikov A. “Fundamentals of Competence-Based Approach Theory and Technology in High-Class School: Author's Model” was published. The book discloses the theory and technology of competence-based approach to educational process in grammar schools. It discloses the mechanisms for the implementation of this approach in productive textbooks and in the productive didactic cycle based on the examples of creative tasks system [2].

In his article “Problems and Prospects of Competence-Based Approach Implementation in Education” Bermus A. proposes measures that can be taken for the implementation of competence-based approach into practice, relevant to the overall objectives of the Russian education modernization [1]. Kaverina I. in her article «Implementation of Competence-Based Approach in Secondary School Classroom» states that in our changing world, the education system should generate such new qualities of a graduate as initiative, innovation, mobility, flexibility, dynamism. [4].

Based on the analysis of the abovementioned works the researchers identify three principles that underlie competence-based approach:

The first principle runs as follows: basic knowledge and relevant skills and ways of learning should be at the heart of education. To achieve this, students have to master basic learning tools, namely, reading, writing and mathematical literacy.

The second principle: the content of education must be comprised of really important and necessary, but not secondary knowledge. The education system should be academic in nature and focus on the basic branches of science. The attention of school should be focused on what has been tested by time and what comprises the basis of education.

The third principle is the principle of humane treatment of the individual. Another feature of the competence-based approach is that it involves simultaneous acquisition of knowledge and skills. Therefore, the system of teaching methods is built anew, since it is based on the structure of relevant competence and the function it performs in education [9].

The statement of Zimnyaia A. that competence is interpreted as something based on knowledge, intellectually and personally predetermined experience of social and professional human life, fully complies with the requirements for the implementation of the terms of main educational bachelor programs based on FSES (Federal State Education Standards). One of them is the widespread use of active and interactive forms of conducting a lesson in the educational process in order to form and develop professional skills of students.

Below there is an example of new (network) technologies and methods application in foreign language teaching for improvement and modernization in order to adapt existing techniques to the new environment of learning activity. Considered technologies (multimedia, network, etc.) require the change of methods and ways of traditional teaching and improvement of the overall educational process. Thus, new conditions of educational activity are created, where the key thing is not just the knowledge of a foreign language, but also the metasubject background knowledge and skills used to solve current problems relying on universal learning activities.

The use of computer technology in the teaching of foreign languages can provide access to necessary information resources and create a new educational space, activate teaching and cognitive activity of students, improve learning efficiency and interest in all aspects of language teaching including cultural study.

In this regard, it is important to pay special attention to e-learning environment called Moodle, which has become one of the most popular platforms around the world within the last five years and is considered to be the best. According to statistics provided by the Moodle official website, today there are 1416 units of the system in the Russian Federation, 519 of them are installed on private computers. In the same time all over the world, there are nearly 69 thousand registered sites on the Moodle platform in 235 countries [Official site of the e-learning environment Moodle]. The word Moodle is an acronym for Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment.

Moodle system is a software package for creating distance learning courses and web-sites. For greater reliability we provide a list of its main advantages, including basic didactic ones:

- the system is designed with regard to the achievements of modern pedagogy, with an emphasis on the interaction between students (discussion);
- its design is modular and can be easily modified;
- plugged language packages can help to achieve complete localization (the system currently supports 43 languages);
- students can edit their accounts, add photos and change numerous personal data and details;
- there is a rich set of component-modules for courses — Chat, Poll, Forum, Glossary, Workbook, Lesson, Test, Profile, Scorm, Survey, Wiki, Seminar, Resources (in the form of text or web pages, or in the form of a directory) and many others.

While preparing and conducting classes in Moodle system a teacher uses a set of module-components for courses. Varying combinations of different elements of the course, the teacher organizes the process study in a way that makes forms of education consistent with the objectives and tasks of specific occupations. Let us look at them in more detail:

1) glossary — allows you to organize work with terms; new entries can be created by both teachers and students. Terms listed in the glossary are highlighted in all course materials and can be hyperlinked to relevant articles of the glossary. The system allows you to create a glossary of the course, as well as the global glossary available to participants of all courses;

2) resource — any materials for self-study, study, discussion: text, illustration, web-page, audio or video files, etc. To create web-pages there is an embedded visual editor that allows a teacher who does not know HTML markup to easily create web-pages with formatting, images, tables;

3) task — a kind of student activity, the result of which is usually the creation and uploading to the server of a file in any format or the creation of text directly in the Moodle system. A teacher can quickly check files and texts uploaded by a student, comment on them and, if necessary, suggest modifying them in some areas. If a teacher deems it necessary, (s)he can open links to the files provided by course participants and make these works the subject of discussion in the forum. Such a scheme is very convenient, for example, for creative courses. If this is allowed by a teacher, each student can submit files repeatedly — after they have been checked. This allows a teacher to quickly adjust the work of a learner, to achieve complete fulfillment of educational problems. All text files created in the system and uploaded to the server by students are stored in portfolio;

4) forum is aimed for academic discussion of issues and for communication. Forums can be used to upload files by students — in this case, you can build educational discussions around these files, enable students to peer-assess each other's work. When adding a new forum a teacher has the opportunity to choose its type: usual forum with a discussion of one theme, common forum available for everyone or forum with one discussion thread for each user. Messages from the forum can, if the teacher decides to, be automatically sent by e-mail to students within 30 minutes after they are added (during this time a message can be edited or deleted). All student forum messages are stored in the portfolio. Moodle supports a very useful function of text collective editing ("Wiki" element of the course);

5) lecture — allows you to organize step by step study of educational material. An array of materials can be divided into didactic units, at the end of each, there is a quiz to check your comprehension. The system adjusted by a teacher will ensure that the student will be transferred to the next level of study or to return to the previous one based on the results of monitoring. This element of the course is convenient because it allows the evaluation of student's work in automatic mode: the teacher only defines the parameters for the evaluation system, after which the system automatically displays the total of each student for a lecture and records the same.

6) tests — can contain different types of questions: closed ones in the form of questions (multiple choice), random questions, numeric, with yes/no answers; with short answers, with an attached response, tasks to find correspondences and others. Test questions are stored in a database and can be reused in the same or different courses. Students can get several tries to pass the test. It is possible to set a time limit to finish the test. A teacher can give a mark on the results of the test or just show correct answers to the test.
It must be emphasized that using e-learning environment Moodle allows you to study at your own pace, providing freedom of interaction between teacher and student, and it also creates favorable conditions for creative self-learning.

One of the main tasks a teacher faces is proper organization of educational process. When developing a curriculum a teacher should:

1) form a teaching course base: identify the main and additional educational materials, and electronic resources both for classroom and extracurricular work;

2) determine which types of speech activity and exercises will be done in the classroom, and which by students on their own. In particular, when studying a foreign language it is necessary to give exercises for independent work during extracurricular time, because, on the one hand, they are time-consuming to be done at the lesson and on the other – students of senior courses have learning skills which formed well enough and the ability to work with different types of exercises. These include imitative, substitution exercises, transformation tasks, expansion (contraction) of the sentences, selection of analogues, filling the gaps, designing phrases on the basis of structural elements and others. Students perform exercises on the Moodle platform independently, which helps the teacher to moderate learning process in a timely manner, give advice concerning tasks, as well as track and monitor independent activities of students. Work in the classroom involves communicative activities mainly, so students mostly work with speech exercises to develop productive skills, speaking ones in particular. Speech exercises include question-answer, drills, role-plays, retelling, dramatization, description, discussion, oral stories;

3) assessment and self-assessment of students. Moodle e-learning environment can be a motivating factor itself, allowing you to make educational process available to everyone, to logically transform tasks, expansion (contraction) of the sentences, basis of structural elements and others. Students perform exercises on the Moodle platform independently, which helps the teacher to moderate learning process in a timely manner, give advice concerning tasks, as well as track and monitor independent activities of students. Work in the classroom involves communicative activities mainly, so students mostly work with speech exercises to develop productive skills, speaking ones in particular. Speech exercises include question-answer, drills, role-plays, retelling, dramatization, description, discussion, oral stories;

Summarising everything that has been said we can claim with a high degree of certainty that Moodle platform is a modern comfortable learning electronic environment that focuses on students needs and enhances their intrinsic motivation as a primary way of organizing teaching and as a form of communication between a teacher and a student, close to partnership. The use of virtual learning platform Moodle in foreign language teaching contributes to the efficiency of the process and is, of course, very promising for the formation of students’ competencies related to the use of a foreign language in their future careers.

Thus, the competence-based approach is an approach that implements the activity-based approach to education where learning process is focused on practical results. This does not imply the refusal from knowledge needed as a basis for action. Therefore, the notion of “competence” appeared in training and education theory and means the ability to mobilize acquired knowledge, skills, experience and ways of behaving in a particular situation, specific activity, i.e. in teaching foreign languages.

The above mentioned universal learning activities of students are executed in entirely new on-line conditions – in the educational environment of a network technology. Didactic capabilities of the system allow the teacher and the students to be active participants of Moodle educational platform that will eventually lead to the modernization of educational process as a whole.

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The first issue is the influence of bilingualism on intellect. This issue is analyzed from psychological point of view. The second problem is the influence of the first and second languages on the third language learning (threelinguism problem). Threelinguistic multicultural situation in different parts of the world demands urgent deep analysis of such a complicated phenomenon as multilingualism, language consciousness.

Lean Hinton, associate professor of linguistics and director of the Survey of California and other Indian languages at U. C. Berkeley, underlines that keeping the language alive is very important nowadays.

Our supposition was that the effective teaching of the third language (English), besides Russian and Yakut language, which are studied by Yakut learners, is possible on the basis of all round analysis of bilingualism and multilingualism, development of language consciousness, perfecting native language skills. At the same time in the model of teaching of the third language there may be realized a purposeful transition from the initial stage of thought formation and formulation to the highest stage of operational activity- lingua- comparative analysis into consideration of sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic factors.

The aim of our investigation is predetermined by setting up and solving the following theoretical and practical objective: 1) carrying out of a complex interdisciplinary analysis of multilingualism; 2) realization of an experimental model of the third language teaching in the conditions of multilingualism within the framework of socio-psycholinguistic approach to multilingualism; 3) elaborating lingua comparative analysis in English, Russian and Yakut languages in the context of communicative-activity approach to lingua comparative analysis; 4) realization of theoretical analysis on the basis of comparative and constructive linguistics; 5) implementation of a complex interdisciplinary approach to the interference problem and basing the three-staged strategy of overcoming interference within the framework of the experimental model of the third language teaching; 6) implementation of the psycholinguistic analysis of speech- production and speech perception, revealing the peculiarities of “the world- picture” formation of the learners in the multicultural environment; 7) testing the model of the third language teaching in the multilingual (bilingual) setting.

Scientific novelty (newness) of our research may be defined this way: a) for the first time multilingualism is presented as a multilateral problem (phenomenon) in the investigation of which each discipline reveals its own specific aspect- a new concept of multilingualism; b) for the first time multilevel, multilateral lingua comparative analysis on the operational-activity basis is carried out. As a subject of this analysis are regarded means and ways of thought formation in the target language. The analysis also combines the aspect- level principle of analysis with the operational-activity one. This factor may be taken into consideration when teaching the native language; c) an experimental model of the third language teaching in bilingual environment has been elaborated and tested in practice, in which thought formation and formulation in the third language are being carried in comparison with the native tongue in respect of its skill perfection; d) the model of question may be realized in different variants: on the one hand it may be used not only it comes to the conclusion; e) as a result of intellectual (conceptual) basis of thinking we can state there is a special base of thinking of a human being. Any national language is a result of human being practical activity. Coming from existing reality any national language puts its own contribution to the development of a human being intellect and develops the intellect and his communicative activity, develops “the language picture” of the world, according to the peculiarities of a human being experience. On the basis of this language picture one develops the national language. In case of natural bilingualism one witnesses two equal language systems (when one functions, the other stops. When the second functions, the first stops). But in artificial bilingualism this mechanism functions only in case, where there are no empty spaces. According to Karlinsky, mixing the elements of the languages takes place when there are empty spaces in the linguistic speech activity-when there are no necessary language means for some special reasons (lack of experience in speech activity in the bilingual or multilingual setting).

Researchers: J. Ronja (1913); Leo V. Sherba (1947); S. Ervin and Ch. Osgood (1954); U. Lambert, J. Gavelka, S. Krosbe (1958); V. Vainrach (1953); I. A. Zimmayya, I. I. Kitrosskaya (1970) and others.

My work with the problem of bilingualism began when I arrived at the Yakutsk university in Siberia in 1974. Besides basic teaching and research duties I began to write articles dealing with teaching methods of English in bilingual multicultural setting. Investigations of bilingualism, carried out by V. Penfield and L. Roberts (1964) had proved that the most suitable age period for starting bilingual education is the period from 5-10 years. A. I. Yatsikevichyst recommends totake into consideration the process of thinking in the native language, which are used by the children of ethnic groups in learning foreign languages in bilingual and multilingual setting. As for the problem of “separate” and “joined” localization of speech mechanisms of the first, the second and even the third languages, A. I. Yatsikevichyst stresses that according to his investigation, information is fixed, in general, in the universal code but not a particular language code. But the particular language codes may become also means of fixation, besides other codes (language codes). There are different points of view on this problem. It would be reasonable to try to inform the readers that, first of all, we will pay our attention to the issues dealing with the character of bilingualism’s influence on intellect.

Zimmayya and I. I. Kitrosskaya put a hypothesis, according to which the semantic field of a bilingual person is single, (not separate) and new notions don’t separate the meaning of the
semantic field of a bilingual person but unites and enriches and gives new possibilities to express one’s thought.

I. N. Yorelov puts forward the notion of functional base of speech- non-verbal information system of learning the existing reality. According to E. I. Isenina, this notion correlates with the notion “semantic field”, proposed by N. I. Zhikhin as a specific one, connecting the blocks of intellect and language. K. James, appealing to the investigations of Brin, Baum, Peters, Richi, considers, that there should be fixed basic component of grammar of any living language (E. I. Isenina: Saratov, 1986. P. 77).

I. N. Yorelov, on the basis of his own investigations of the basic data of different authors, comes to the conclusion: 1) as a result of intellectual (conceptual) basis of thinking we can state that there is a speak base of thinking of a human being. Any national language is a result. Coming from existing reality any national language puts its own contribution to the development of a human being intellect and develops the intellect and his communicative activity, develops “the language picture” of the world, according to the peculiarities of a human being experience. On the basis of this language picture one develops the national language. In case of natural bilingualism one witnesses two equal language systems (when one functions the other stops. When the second functions, the first stops). But in articulate bilingualism this mechanism functions only in case, where there are no empty spaces in the linguistics (speech activity- when there are no necessary language means for some social reasons, lack of experience in speech activity in bilingual or multilingual setting).

In Doctor Fomin’s monograph “Teaching foreign languages in multilingual (bilingual) setting”, published in Moscow in 1998, the author presented the analysis of this issue. One should stress the importance of psychological approach in investigation of the influence of bilingualism on intellect. The first issue is how bilingualism influences the intellect. The first item in this field is the problem of “separate” or “joined” localization of two or more speech mechanisms in the learner’s memory. This problem had been discussed mainly in the context of psychological approach to bilingualism.

According to our analysis, the debates on this problem had been centered around the theories, put forward by different researchers: J. Ronja (1913), Leo V. Sherba (1947).

Literature Review

Suzanne Romaine in her monograph “Bilingualism” (Malden, Massachusetts, USA, 1995), analyzed the types of bilingualism (p. 78-85). The author pays much attention to types of bilingualism, taking into consideration Ervin and Osgood, Weinreich’s two coordinate types of bilingualism, and puts more emphasis on the context in which the languages are learned and how they are used.

According to Suzanne, Ervin and Osgood (1954) later ………. Weinreich’s two coordinate types into one, and put more emphasis on the context in which the languages were learned and how they were used. They suggested, for example, that learning another language in a traditional school setting, in which a word from the second language is typically associated with the meaning in the native language, results in compound relation between the first and second language. They also attached more importance to the lexicon, while for Weinreich all levels of language were involved. In my monograph “Teaching foreign languages” (Moscow 1998) I put forward the classification of bilingualism, put forward by scholars of different countries, taking into consideration the different approaches: linguistics, psychological, sociological, didactic approaches to the problem of bilingualism (multilingualism). (Mikhail Fomin. “Teaching foreign languages in multilingual (bilingual) setting”. Moscow: “Mir Knigi”, 1998). My approach is based on the use of lingua comparative analysis of the learning material in teaching of foreign languages in multilingual- bilingual setting. In my approach multilingualism is regarded as a complicated interdisciplinary complex problem (history, development, contemporary bilingualism in bilateral multilingual setting) to M. M. Mikhailov (1969) in ancient history it appeared as the necessity of the second cult- language and goes back to ancient international relations.

In our days multilingualism is retaining a particular importance, according to Robert Lado’s investigation “Linguistics beyond culture boundaries” (1957). In Russia this problem is one of the most important problems nowadays. Teaching Foreign languages in bilingual and multilingual setting is one of the most important problems of education in Russia, since Russia is a multilingual multicultural country.

In my research much attention is focused on bilingual, bicultural family, where we realized the principle “one person- one language”, according to Jack Ronja approach (France) and taking into consideration the experiments with bilingual families, conducted by our department in 2014 in Yakutsk (Siberia). We take into consideration the experiments, conducted with bilingual families (N. Imedadze, P. Koler, W. Lambert, J. Havelka, C. Crosby).

Methods and Data

Based on the theoretical analysis of literary and statistical sources, the use of the chart of observation of bilingual families, interviews, analysis of situations in bilingual families, the results of our investigations were published in 2010 in the city of Yakutsk, Siberia. The current study deals with theoretical and practical aspects of teaching foreign languages in bilingual (multilingual) setting.

J. Ronja in his investigation “Le development du language observe chez un fant bimore”, published in Champion- Paris, 1913 underlines that “Bilingualism is a topic which has been studied from many perspectives (see Romaine 1989 edition).

In our investigation, we present theoretical basis of teaching Foreign Languages in bilingual and multilingual setting. This approach is based on the multidisciplinary analysis of multilingualism from the socio psycholinguistic point of view. The problem of interference is a point of the topical interest. We put forward our own model- The Activity model of teaching foreign languages based on the lingua- comparative analysis. Bilingual and Multilingual setting is a point of a topical interest. We take into consideration the terms: “second language learning and Bilingualism”, “Compound- coordinate bilingualism”, “bilingualism and information processing”, “The effect of bilingualism on intelligence”, and other terms dealing with the influence of language acquisition context on bilingualism. We take into consideration the importance of bilingualism study in its social context. Our knowledge of bilingualism is based on complex fieldwork in a bilingual community.

Suzanne Romaine (1989) underlines that “Languages and language varieties are always in completion, and at times in conflict. Choice a particular language is symbolic of various social and political divisions”.

In the Sakha republic in Siberia the dominant language is Russian. But at the same time the Sakha language is also official language and the native population speaks the Sakha language mostly to keep its cultural traditions alive to continue to develop folklore, literature, art, theatre, and epic songs. There are journals, newspapers, which are published in the Sakha language and radio programs are in the language of the native people.

Our approach of the Study of Bilingualism is based on the concept of Mikhail Fomin who regards Bilingualism as a Subject of interdisciplinary analysis: from psychological, linguistic, didactical sociolinguistic points of view.

According to Mackey (1968: 583) bilingualism has interdisciplinary nature. He was sure that bilingualism (multilingualism) cannot be described within the science of linguistics: “We must go beyond. In a discipline as large and special as specialized as modern linguistics, it is perhaps inevitable that the study of various aspects of bilingualism has been par celled out among various subdiscipline”.

Our own approach is called “Multilingualism as a subject of socio psycholinguistics and psychological analysis” considers the phenomenon of multilingualism as a subject of interdisciplinary analysis. (Fomin M. M. “ Teaching Foreign Languages in multilingual and multicultural setting”. Moscow: “Mir Knigi”, 1998. 215 p.). From this point of view we describe this phenomenon from different points of view to design the model of teaching foreign languages in bilingual multilingual setting.

Suzanne Romaine giving descriptions and definitions of Bilingualism underlines, that: “Bilingualism has often been defined and described in terms of categories, scales and dichotomies such as ideal v. partial bilingual, which are related to factors such as proficiency, function etc. at one end the spectrum of definitions of bilingualism would be one which, like Bloomfield (1933: 56), would specify native like control two languages as the criterion for bilingualism. By contrast, Haugen (1953: 7) draws attention to the other end, when he observes that bilingualism begins when the
speaker of one language can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language. Diebold (1964), however, gives what might be called a minimal definition of bilingualism when he uses the term “incipient bilingualism” to characterize the initial stages of contact between two languages. In doing so, he leaves open the question of the absolute minimal proficiency, required in order to be bilingual and allows for the fact that a person may be bilingual to some degree, yet not be able to produce complete meaningful utterances. A person might, for example, have no productive control over a language, but be able to understand utterances in it. In such instances linguists generally speak of “passive” or receptive bilingualism. Hockett (1958: 16) uses the term semi-bilingualism.

While allowing for passive bilingualism, Diebold’s definition does not have the disadvantage that practically everyone in the United States, Britain or Canada, and no doubt most other countries, would have to be classified as incipient bilinguals because probably everyone knows a few words in another language.

Our own observations show that in Yakutsk, the capital city of the Sakha republic, there are Russian people who understand the Sakha speech, but are not able to speak Sakha. About 30% of the inhabitants of the city can understand conversational Sakha in their ordinary everyday life. This phenomenon somehow helps to minimize possible misunderstanding in intercultural communication.

According to Suzanne Romaine, bilingualism is defined and described in terms of categories, scales and dichotomies such as ideal vs. partial bilingual, coordinate vs. compound bilingual etc. which are related to factors such as proficiency, function etc. at one end of the spectrum of definitions of bilingualism would be one which, like Bloomfield (1933: 56) would specify ‘native-like control of two languages’ as the criterion for bilingualism.

By contrast Haugen (1953: 56) draws attention to the other end, when he observes that bilingualism begins when the speaker of one language can produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language. Diebold (1964), as Suzanne Romaine, underlines, gives a minimal definition of bilingualism when he uses the term ‘incipient bilingualism’ to characterize the initial stages of contact between two languages.

In my monograph, published in Moscow in 1998, I paid much attention to Ronja J. experiment, and recommended his method for bilingual families in the Sakha Republic in Siberia (the city of Yakutsk). Now many families use the method of J. Ronja successfully. The students of the North-Eastern Federal University conduct research in this field. They presented their research articles in the online site collection of articles of our Scientific School “Self development of a personality in bilingual, multilingual setting”.


Psychological and psycholinguistical typology (E. M. Vereshagin, V. V. Belyaev, E. M. Vereshagin, N. V. Imedadze, I. A. Zimmnya).

In general the presented analysis is the first attempt of the general survey of the theoretical and practical issues of the problem of psycholinguistical typology of bilingualism (multilingualism).

In Greece in the middle ages philosophers introduced the terms “macrocosm” and “microcosm”. The latter means a man. In our research the child is regarded as a creator of himself. As for bilingual child one can say that he is the creator of his own personality. The mechanisms of bilingualism are similar, according to W. Lambert, J. Epstein, R. Kar and other researchers.

Code-switching can also be used to specify an addressee as the recipient of the message, according to Suzanne Romaine (1989). According to Irene Zimmnya, thought is regarded as the subject of speech activity, speech is a way of expressing the thought, language material is regarded as the means of expressing the thought. In our research of bilingual families we used the age classification put forward by Irene Zimmnya. According to I. Zimmnya, the first period of the child’s development includes the period from 1. 5 — 2 years till the age 4. The second period covers 4 — 7 — 8 years; the third period covers from 7 — 8 till 11 — 12 years; the fourth period takes the period from 11 — 12. Our observation has proved that Irene Zimmnya’s point of view is the most suitable for the investigation of bilingual families.

In her analysis of approaches of the study of bilingualism Suzanne Romaine underlines that Chomsky’s aim was to make the characterization of what he calls ‘competence’ or knowledge of rules of grammar, the central concern of linguistic theory (Suzanne Romaine, Bilingualism, 1989).

According to Fishman (1980), diglossia differs from bilingualism in that diglossia represents an enduring social arrangement. Y. Desheriev distinguishes 2 types of bilingualism: 10 contact-type bilingualism; 2) non-contact type of bilingualism (this type usually occurs in the far areas from the dominant bilingual community).

Speaking about bilingual families in Yakutsk we should bear in mind that the dominant population in Yakutsk are the Russians. Nevertheless, the Sakha population of Yakutsk keeps its native tongue successfully thanks to their strong mentality and respect for the ancestors and literacy in Yakut, local radio and TV and newspapers, journals in Yakut.

Leanne Hinton (1994) underlines that the continued existence of almost fifty native Californian languages with their alternate rollicking and beautiful linguistic creativity as characterized in the essays, is an indication of great cultural strength of California Indian communities. The same is true about the Sakha language in Yakutia, Russia. During our investigation of the bilingual families in Yakutsk we came to the conclusion that bilingual families in Yakutia are well-being, keeping their native languages. The static data is very impressive. Nevertheless, the enthusiasm of parents is very important. Radio, TV programs help the population to stick to the traditions of bilingualism.

Leanne Hinton in her book “Flutes of fire”: “Still people have a tenacious loyalty to their languages. Although no one is learning the California languages natively anymore, there are many young people around the state who are trying to learn them as second languages. If these communities and individual efforts succeed, the California languages may be around much longer than predicted. To paraphrase Mark Twain reports of their death might be greatly exaggerated.

In analyzing the processes taking place in different steps of bilingual continuum and processes aimed at bilingualization from the early stages we should take into consideration the point of view of E. I. Ngenevitskaya (1998, 1987). According to her, the child acquires the language not by means of imitation, but by means of analytical activity, singling out the rules, making up conclusions on the basis of his own experience, observations of the elders’ speech. The point of view put forward by E. I. Ngenevitskaya is confirmed by the results of the foreign scholars’ investigation of bilingualism.

In the analysis of cognitive preconditions put forward by D. Slovin (1984) cognitive preconditions of development of speech grammar connected with the meaning of utterances. The development of speech grammar connected with the meaning and form of utterances. As we declared at the beginning of the paragraph, the development of cognitive processes and linguistic development of a child go side by side. The child must find linguistic means for expressing his own thoughts and intentions (D. Slovin, 1984).

Putting forward the question: “What helps the child to acquire language means necessary for bilingual communication?” (D. Slovin, 1984) the author draws his conclusion that: 1) new forms first serve for expressing old function, but new functions first expressed by the old (known) forms (which correlates with starting levels of bilingualism, according to I. A. Zimmnya, where formation of thought is realized by means of the native language, but formulation- by means of the native language); 2) the development of cognitive processes causes the appearance of semantic intentions, for which demand new means of expressing one’s intentions. According to I. A. Zimmnya, formation of thought is realized by means of the native language; 3) one can formulate a very strong psycholinguistic universal: the speed and sequence of semantic relation, expressed by means of the language means remain independent from the language specifics, attained in this
In the realization of logico — contrastive strategy by means of symbolic-lexical charts the term “proto-language” and its rules of functioning discovered by E. I. Isenina — meaningful semantic system means of communication and joint object-activity of the child with his mother, having social meaning and character, serving for communication and in expressing feelings and images of the world and human being correlating the level of the child’s development in a society. The investigation carried out by Leo Vygotsky, A. P. Luria, A. A. Leontiev, I. A. Ziminaya, T. A. Akhutina, T. N. Naumova and others, the object-scheme-code and special semantic zone connected with blocks of intellect and language (N. I. Zhinkin, I. N. Gorelov, A. N. Leontiev, and A. A. Lentyev); problem of subjective semantics (E. Y. Artemyeva and others) analyzing the problem of psychological meaning and sense in prespeech communication, E. I. Isenina noted that the psychological meaning is not correlated with linguistic meaning. According to A. N. Leontiev, psychological meaning is regarded as an ideal form existing in the material world is a personal sense as a relation of the person to the surrounding world, subjective — personal motivation.

For our investigation of Bilingualism the problem of bilingualism’s influence on intellect is one of the primary issues. There are different points of view on this problem. In my monograph “Teaching foreign languages in multilingual (bilingual) setting”, published in Moscow in 1998 (M. Fomin, 1998) I presented the following analysis of this problem: in the framework of this issue one should stress the importance of the influence of bilingualism influence on intellect.

It would seem reasonable to try to inform readers that first of all we will draw our attention to the issue dealing with the character of bilingualism’s influence on intellect.

The first issue is how bilingualism influences on intellect. The first item in this field is the problem of “separate” or “joined” existence, localization of two or more speech mechanisms in the learners’ memory. This problem has been discussed mainly in the context of the psychological approach to bilingualism.

According to our analysis, on this problem debates centered around the theories put forward by different bilingual multicultural situation in different parts of the world, demanding urgent deep analysis of such a complicated phenomenon as multilingualism, language consciousness.

Jeanne Hinton, associate professor of linguistics and director of the Survey of California and other Indian languages at U. C. Berkeley, underlines that keeping the languages alive is very important nowadays.

The subject of our investigation in Yakuts university is multilingualism, bilingualism. In the framework of our investigation we examine very carefully the nature, manifestations of multilingualism, its different sides, aspects.

Our supposition was that the effective teaching of the third language (English, besides Russian and Yakut languages, which are studied by Yakut learners), is possible on the basis of all-round analysis of bilingualism and multilingualism, development of language consciousness, perfecting native language skills. At the same time in the model of teaching of the third language there may be realized a purposeful transition from the initial stage of thought formation and formulation to the highest stage of operational activity-lingua-comparative analysis taking into consideration sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic factors.

The aim of our investigation predetermined by setting up and solving the following theoretical and practical objectives:

1. Carrying out a complex interdisciplinary analysis of multilingualism;
2. Basing an experimental model of the third language teaching in the conditions of multilingualism within the framework of socio psycholinguistic approach to multilingualism;
3. Elaborating lingua-comparative analysis of the English, Russian and Yakut languages in the context of communicative-activity approach to lingua-comparative analysis;
4. Realization of the theoretical analysis of the bases of comparative and contrastive linguistics;
5. Implementation of a complex interdisciplinary approach to the interference problem and basing the three staged strategy of overcoming interference within the framework of the experimental model of the third language teaching;
6. Implementation of the psycholinguistic analysis of speech production and speech perception, revealing the peculiarities of the ‘world-picture’ formation process of learners in the multicultural environment;
7. Testing the model of the third language teaching in the multilingual (bilingual) setting;
8. Scientific novelty (newness) of our research may be defined this way:
   a. for the first time multilingualism is presented as a multilateral problem (phenomenon) in the investigation of which each discipline reveals its own specific aspect, a new concept of multilingualism;
   b. for the first time multilevel, multilateral lingua-comparative analysis on the operational-activity basis is carried out. As a subject of this analysis are regarded means and ways of thought formation and thought formulation in target language. The analysis also combines the aspect-level principle of analysis with the operational-activity one. This factor may be taken into consideration when teaching the native language;
   c. an experimental model of the third language teaching in bilingual environment has been elaborated and tested in practice, in which thought formation and formulation in the third language are being carried in comparison with native tongue in respect of its skill perfection.

J. Ronja in his investigation “Le développement du langue observé chez un enfant bilingue” published in Champion-Paris, 1913, underlines that “bilingualism is a topic question which has been studied from many perspectives” (see Romaine 1989 edition).

In our investigation we present theoretical basis of teaching foreign languages in bilingual and multilingual setting. This approach is based on the multidisciplinary analysis of multilingualism from the socio psycholinguistic point of view. The problem of interference is a point of the topical interest. We put forward our own model-activity model of teaching foreign languages based on the lingua-comparative analysis. Bilingual and multilingual setting is a point of a topical interest. We take into consideration the terms: “Second language learning and bilingualism”, “compound-coordinate bilingualism” “bilingualism and information processing”, “the effect of bilingualism on intelligence” and other terms dealing with the influence of language acquisition context of bilingualism. We take into consideration the importance of bilingual study in its social context. Our knowledge of bilingualism is based on complex fieldwork in a bilingual community.

Suzanne Romaine (1989) underlines that “Languages and language varieties in a community, they are rarely equal in status. Languages and language varieties are always in completion, and at times in conflict. Choice of a particular language is symbolic of various social and political decisions”.

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Professional activities, in Vol. H. Pedagogical, confront man certain requirements: it must be professionally competent, socially adapted, active and etc. Working in a constantly changing environment, the teacher must be prepared for possible changes. From our point of view, this state can be designated as "educational mobility."

Psychologically dictionary term mobility refers to the concept of motion. It can be, literally, the physical movement of the stimulus, object or organism; or it may be, metaphorically, through the movement of the sphere, which can be social, professional or even informative[1].

The term "professional mobility" psychologically Kovalev's dictionary is defined as the ability and willingness of the individual rather quickly and successfully acquire new equipment and technology, to acquire the missing knowledge and skills to ensure the effectiveness of the new career-oriented activities[2].

Mobility is the concept of interdisciplinary. This quality is linked by researchers with the flexibility and mobility of motivation, conscious change stereotypes and ductility. For successful implementation in the modern world a person must have the psychological flexibility, the ability to make choices and to exercise creativity, i.e. to be mobile. To do this, a person needs the awareness of their internal orientations[3].

Before you realize the existing potential of mobility, it is necessary to form it. Formed personal mobility allows you to choose the path of other types of mobility, without prejudice to the person for the purposes of effective self-improvement.

To work in the new information and educational environment need a qualitatively different approach to teacher training. More recently, the teacher needed only assured basic computer skills. Staying in such positions, we ignore the already formed philosophy of evolution of electronic devices, digital, info- and telecommunication technologies consists in the fact that every professional has authoring tools, allowing to solve basic professional tasks independently anywhere in the world. Consequently, the training of the teachers should be done with the installation of the acquisition they are not common, and professionally-oriented knowledge and skills of using information and communication technologies in the practice of teaching foreign languages. New qualities necessary for the simple reason that in the growing online world hardware information and technology, including educational, quickly become obsolete without prompt updating and creation of a modern teacher can not effectively control the adjustable-governmental process, even more so to predict and influencing them[4]. Thus, the most urgent on the agenda is the issue of training teachers of mobile network.

The rapid growth in the use of mobile and handheld information technology — devices such as PDAs PDA (Personal Digital Assistants[5]), smartphones[6], laptops, and tablet PCs in teaching and learning has become an important part of the information of the learning environment, including foreign languages. Computers and the Internet have become essential educational tools, technology has become more portable, accessible, effective and easy to use, it is significantly expanding its information-educational learning environment, and its property of mobility makes it available in any place where there is Internet access.

Thus, we can speak of a science and formation of a new term "Mobile linguodidactics" — learning a foreign language with the help of mobile and portable information technology is not dependent on geographical and temporal factors.

The introduction of tablet PCs in the pedagogical process now allows the use of mobile Internet access with equal, if not greater functionality than the desktop.

Most mobile devices are useful in education, management, organization and teaching for practitioners, as well as technical-support tools of learning for students.

Mobile Linguodidactics has several major advantages:

- students can interact with each other and with the teacher, and not to hide behind the large monitors [7];
- it is easy to place in the audience more mobile devices than several desktop computers;
- pocket or tablet PCs (PDAs) and electronic books more easily and take up less space than files, papers and books, and even laptops. Recognition by a stylus or the touch screen is more clear than with the keyboard and mouse. Built-in mobile and portable devices microphone and a dynamics allows speech recognition technology and listening, that is-is an essential aspect of linguistics as a whole;
- there is the possibility of changing tasks and working together; students and teachers can send the text via e-mail, cut, copy and paste, transfer devices within the group, to work with each other using the infrared function of a PDA or a wireless network, for example, Bluetooth or Wi-Fi;
- mobile and portable devices can be used anywhere, anytime, including at home, on the train, in hotels — it is invaluable for work-based training;
- new technical devices such as mobile phones, gadgets, gaming devices, etc., attracting students — young people who may have lost interest in education.

However, you must consider the existing deficiencies and mobile linguodidaktiks:
- small screens of mobile PDAs limit the amount and type of information that can be displayed;
- there is limited storage capacity for mobile phones, smartphones and PDAs;
- batteries should work regularly, and data may be lost if it is not done correctly;
- they can be less reliable than desktops (although the tablet PC begin to solve this problem).

Difficult to work with graphics applications, especially in mobile phones.

- the market is changing rapidly, especially for mobile phones and smartphones, which leads to rapid obsolescence;
- thought may be reduced if a large number of users using wireless networks.

Obviously, to use the new features of mobile linguistics in the information-educational environment necessary organizational, research and methodological work on the introduction of modern strategies, forms and methods of mobile learning in the educational process.

From the above we can draw the following conclusion — the future of mobile linguodidactics requires joint efforts of mobile manufacturers, mobile service providers, mobile application developers, as well as subjects of the educational environment (teachers and students).

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Rhetoric of speech. Art or technique of oral expression (UDC 808.5)

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Tikhomirova A.V.¹, Bogatyreva O.P.², Bogatyrev A.A.³, Zhuravleva T.A.⁴
¹Institute of pedagogical education, Tver state university, ²Tver state university, ³Institute of pedagogical education, Tver state university

KEY LINGUODIDACTIC STEPS AND STAGES OF FL WORDING ACQUISITION

Abstract

The communicator-based linguodidactic approach implies thorough attention to FL acquisition stages and corresponding methodological implications for FL courses design elaboration. The article provides a step-by-step linguodidactic scheme of FL wording skills acquisition learning and teaching activities, including 5 steps of preparedness from the first encounter with a new FL word or expression and its primary semantization to revalorization.

Keywords: linguodidactics, communicator, EFL communicative competence acquisition, communicative preparedness, typology, FL wording, semantization, validation, valorization, revalorization.

Почта авторов / Author Email: innova86@mail.ru, bogatyrevaolga4@gmail.com, bogatyria1967@gmail.com, aspirantsha@mail.ru

1. Introduction

Communicator as the subject of discourse as language in action is the central notion of linguodidactics [3, 3]. Since SL/FL communicator formation is a complex task, based on manifold and multifaceted speech skills synthesis [4, 6 etc.], there arises the necessity for developing a special step-by-step methodology of FL proper wording for communicative purposes acquisition.

2. Stages, types and steps of FL wording skills acquisition

2.0. The first learner’s encounter with a new foreign word may occur both in a FL speech or in a dictionary. The evasiveness or indeterminacy of meaning is acutely felt when these two instances of interpretation are separated: Is a word ‘funny’ positive or negative epithet? So the first necessary step in a new foreign word acquisition is its primary semantization, including the basic mental representation of alliance of meaning and form in the new foreign word.

2.1. Semantization

This first step in a new foreign word acquisition may be stipulated both by observing its occurrence in the text (or saying) or by looking up the new word or expression in a dictionary. In semantization these two instances of learning should interact, shedding light one on another in FL learner’s attempt to make both ends meet, concerning actual meaning of the word in use and its virtual meaning in language, both provided through translation or interpretative analysis as well. The learning tool priority in learning new words and expressions yet belongs to the native language of the learner. Somehow, these most necessary procedures seldom guarantee proper use of a new word or expression by the learner in another speech context. The handicap comes about due to the power of some hidden rules (default and implicit, taken for granted by native speakers and causing certain immediate inferences in communication), concerning the authenticity of wording application in both written text or spoken discourse. So the distinction between meaning in communication context and dictionary meaning of the same word or expression may turn out to be even more sophisticated than that of ‘language usage’ for language system rules versus ‘language in use’ as one for communication [10, 8].

2.2. Validation

Another source of FL acquisition difficulty is disparity of language and discourse experience of the learner in regard to the actual level of communicative competence in native and foreign language acquisition. So the native language competence as means of overcoming the handicap may be handicapped as well. And here we reach the second necessary step in a new foreign word acquisition – its validation. The latter is based widely on grammaticality (i.e. acceptability of wording from the point of view of grammar) of meaningful utterance construction.

One needs practice for proper wording competence acquisition in FL learning. But language usage may come to clashes with “language in use”. The handicap comes into now, when the main source of validation lies in authentic speaking / writing practice, not fully disclosed as an instance of a rationally formulated single rule. Here the learner is likely to confront the problem of limitations, imposed on native language as a source of translation and interpreting a strange one and on a universal meta-language as based on clear categories and strict rules of deduction. This both linguistic and meta-linguistic handicap situation may partly be alleviated by exemplification of proper use of the wording in instances of authentic discourse [1]. The pedagogical accent on positive support is a must have for validation level of FL wording competence formation. The predominant traits of words in use from the point of view of validation process correspond to communication models 1 to 5 on the 10 major communicative competence types / scales list [9, 51-52].

2.3. Valorization

Since there is “no denotation without connotation” [1 etc.] another challenge, a non-native speaker confronts in acquiring FL communicative competence, is the problem of adequate word choice between two or more synonymous expressions. So here comes the third necessary step forward in FL acquisition. This one we call valorization, since it concerns both significance and value of the proper wording in providing successful and efficient interpersonal communication.

The acceptability and the appropriateness of wording is commanded now not only by grammar of language system, but also by the grammar of meaningful utterances exchange between conversation participants. Here the learner is expected to face the variety of word choice to make an acceptable and effective task-solving speech move. By now the learner is encouraged by many instances of successful FL wording application. Yet the main discoveries are up to the learner to make. Those are based widely on reflectivity (i.e. reflective ability) of the learner and special case reflection [2]. The latter may be referred to the ‘adequate synthesis’ and the ‘cognition’ level of comprehension as part of communicator skills development levels model, proposed by G. Boguine [4, 15, 32 etc.].

Now there is much to find out about proper word escort for the interpersonal communication in certain situation and context. It’s just high time now to draw the line between “Sorry”, “Excuse me”, “I beg your pardon”, “I must apologize for...” instead of unified Russian “Prostite / Izvinite”. Valorization may be a matter of
speaking in context, but it may also be a matter of learning conventional conversational pragmatic acts [5, 570], having so much to do with indirect speech acts and default social interpretation conventions. Somehow, the priority in communicative skills acquisition now belongs to target language differentiated wording use rather than to learner’s native language wording experience. The FL use is now viewed as constructed by language – that is not just “viewed” through another language forms.

The valorization step in FL acquisition allows the acquired words and speaking / listening (writing and reading) skills function as tool of conversation, acquiring new knowledge and better understanding.

2.4. Revalorization

The revalorization step in FL speaking skills acquisition embraces instances of reassessment of communicative skills within frame of growing art of conversing in FL. Here the word play is welcome to take part in a special conversational interplay, concerning mastering voluntary construction / deconstruction of interpersonally shared reality and its meanings. This step forward in FL acquisition is voluntary and creative par excellence. Yet there are still more rules and strategies to uncover in order to convey effective social interaction within frame of task-solving goal-seeking communication activity. Revalorization is especially important in case of indeterminacy of communicative situation [cf. 8]. Decoding of intricate role playing communicators’ masques is on the agenda. The interplay of wording (in different styles) and communicator’s masques choosing and changing implies revalorization of language tools and conversation strategies.

Revalorization of language tools, conversation rules a rhetoric structures is a part of rethinking speaker’s strategies and tactics in speech constructing and speech message construing. For example, small talk intro or irony may be viewed as a way of breaking the rules (or say – Gricean principle of Cooperation), but in a sense it may also be regarded as a sort of a rule, organizing conversation in the way it will keep going (e.g. in English interpersonal Business Communication Culture unlike German Business Communication Culture). Revalorization also concerns shift in genre of speaking (or writing), since the balance of style and genre matters in making the text effective for the target audience. Code-switching strategies as well as various meta-communicative interventions and comments, meta-communicative and meta-cognitive disambiguation, explications and amendments pertain to revalorization of language tools and interpersonal meanings by the speaker. Revalorization takes place when one reconsiders the hierarchy and contribution of play of parts in meaning construction of the text as a whole piece of communication. These tasks correspond vastly to models of communication and communicative competence 6 to 9 [9, 53].

3. Conclusion

As part of the presented FL wording and communicative competence acquisition steps and stages each step imposes a new frame of optimum methodological design of FL learning activity – as based on analogy, on exemplification, on variety of choice or on voluntariness in proper communication strategy initiative. FL acquisition stages 1-3 are best controlled by testing techniques, while stages 3-4 – by quest-solving tasks / quests [6; 7 etc.]. This stages and steps scheme is intended to provide ground for methodological FL course design elaboration.

References

The authors show that Russian folk dialects are the basis for the formation of hydronymy. Dialectal and etymological dictionaries offer several versions of interpretations of the individual categories. To establish the truth accurate knowledge of the realities associated with the studied hydro objects is required. The article made the first attempt of distribution of the Posemy hydronymy into groups with different motivational characteristics.

**Keywords:** hydronymy, hydronyms, hydro objects, naming, etymology, motivational characteristics.

**Почта авторов / Author Email:** etnolingv@mail.ru

The size, shape and configuration of the channel of hydro objects.

**Banskay** – rechtisha, village Banishi, Lgovsky district. Perhaps, from banka – ‘submerged shoal’ [Dal I: 46], according to the river channel with underwater shoals, which were used to cross the river.

**Vet** – river (right tributary of the Seva), it originates in the village Vet of Kmotovtsky district, from vetka – ‘arm of the river’. **Volchik** – brook (left tributary of the Seim), it originates in the plot of land of Bunino of Solnevtsky district, from vest – ‘arm of the river’. **Vilna** – river (left tributary of the Rogyozna), it originates in the village of Shulinka of Oktyabrsky district, according to the configuration of the channel, in the meaning of ‘winding’.

**Vorobsha** – river (right tributary of the Psel), it originates in the village Rastvorovo, Sudzahnsky district; at the confluence the channel is divided into two arms: the right arm flows on the territory of Sudzahnsky district and the left arm-on the territory of Belovsky district, apparently, from vorob’ in the meaning of ‘ravínka, rassokha’, according to the configuration of the channel.

**Volzhok** – brook (left tributary of the Krepna), it originates in the channel Vilnya, Volchik brook.

In the dictionary of hydronyms there are 740 hydronyms and 500 variants of the names to which linguistic review, etymological reference are given.

It is known that hydronyms are a kind of synchronic and diachronic, cultural, historical and linguistic indices. The study of hydronyms, constituting a unique and extremely rich lexical category in the language system, is of great theoretical and practical importance. The names of hydronymic objects are embodiments of not only linguistic but also geographical, historical and cultural information that becomes an important auxiliary tool in solving many problems of related sciences. Hydronyms are extremely resistant. The names of rivers, streams, sources of rivers are known for centuries, and even millennia. This makes hyronym extremely interesting for a historian, linguist and geographer, because it allows to look at the distant past, about which written sources are silent. Russian folk dialects are the basis for the formation of hydronymy. Many of the names of hydronyms cannot be explained from the point of view of modern Russian language. Dialectal and etymological dictionaries offer several versions of interpretations of the individual categories. To establish the truth accurate knowledge of the realities associated with the studied hydronimic objects is required. In this article we will confine ourselves to the information reflected in the “Hydronymic dictionary of Posemye”, and try to distribute hydronyms into groups according to the following motivational features: 1) size, shape and configuration of the channel of hydro object; 2) relief features of the area.

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The authors show that Russian folk dialects are the basis for the formation of hydronymy. Dialectal and etymological dictionaries offer several versions of interpretations of the individual categories. To establish the truth accurate knowledge of the realities associated with the studied hydro objects is required. The article made the first attempt of distribution of the Posemy hydronymy into groups with different motivational characteristics.

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Ruslan Churkin

Relief features of the area

Volochny – brook (left tributary the Vinogrobal), it originates in the gulley Volochney, Kursky district, from volok – ‘water parting are between the upstream of two rivers’ [Murzaeva 1959: 58].

Guznomoya – brook (right tributary the Podmostisha), it originates in the plot of land of Gorodishenka, Zolotukhinsky district, from dial. guznom, guzno, guziyr – ‘hollow glade or meadow, vast flat cavity’ [Sreznevsky II: 106; Dal II:293].

Zuevka and Knayzhay, Soltsevsky district; communicates with the Sazhenka brook (right tributary of the Psel), it originates in the plot of land of Gorodishenka, Zolotukhinsky district, from dial. Zuevka – brook (right tributary of the Kosorzh), it originates in the gulley Mordvinov, Schigrovsky district, from maliy – ‘small, short, slight [Sreznevsky II: 106; Dal II:293].

Molotysh – river (left tributary of the Svapa), it originates in the village Molotiysh, Fatezhsky district, from mol and tysh – ‘mound, shaft, dam, boating, barrier beach’ [Dal II: 340, 344], the second part of the word tysh ‘milestone to denote road’ [Mashatkov 1931: 211] or ‘mark, milestone’ the same as tyshka. In Kursk dialect sityshka is generally referred to any object appearing on the surface of the soil: rocks, stumps, etc. Apparently, according to the features of the banks and countryside, which is scattered with big rocks sticking out on the surface and exposed out of the water [Kudryavtsev 1889: 183-184].

Parotchky – brook (right tributary of the Rechitsa), it originates to the south of the village Fitzh, Lgovsky district, from dial. Pocht – ‘meadow, flowing into the field with two arms’, according to the configuration of the channel in a metaphorical meaning. Pristen – brook (l. tributary of the Obisty), it originates in the gulley Pristen, to the south-east of the village Kozino, Rylsky district, from pristen – ‘steep bank of the river, bank cliffs’ [Murzaeva 1959: 182], according to the features of the banks.

Sotvenka – right arm of the Seim between the village Mala Zuevka and Kurzychny, Soltshevsky district; communicates with main channel of the Seim only during floods, from dial. Sazhen – ‘dam pond, zagorod’. Sukhorebrik – brook (left tributary of the Tuskar), it originates in the gulley of Sukhorebra, Zolotukhinsky district, from Kur. Sukhorebrik – ‘deep gulley on the bottom of which flows a stream, formed by the gradual deepening of the ravine by spring waters and coming out on the surface of ground waters’. Such gullies are older than the streams flowing there. Trubchach – brook (right tributary of the White Nemedia), it originates in the plot of land of Osnim-Trubchach on the east outskirts of Zheleznogorsky district, from truba – ‘narrow creek, river channel’. Trubchazh-brok (right tributary of the Borys Dol), it originates in the plot of land of Trubezh, Obyonsky district, from truba – ‘narrow creek, river channel’. Uznik – brook (right tributary of the Vablya), it originates in the plot of land of Otreznoye, to the north of the village Uznik, Konishhevsky district, from geographical term wzen – ‘small river’ [Murzaeva 1959: 160-161].

Dumish, Dumishy – brook (right tributary of the Beryozka), it originates in the gulley Dumish, Duvatky, in the plot of land of Dumish, Duvatky, Sovetsky district, from dial. Duma – ‘hollow glade or meadow, vast flat cavity’ [Dal I: 519].

Zhirovaya – brook (left tributary of the Beryozaya), it originates to the north of the village Fatevka, Dmitrievsky district, is correlated with diazhirovishche – ‘swampy place’ [Mashatkov 1931: 23], according to the features of the area. Kamysly – river (right tributary of the Svapa), it originates in the gulley Korchiy, to the north of the village Kamysly, Dmitrievsky district. Perhaps, from Tyrs. Kam, kum – ‘sand’ and sulaw – ‘place, rich in water, where several rivers flow’ [Radlov, II: 686: IV: 772].

Lapuga – brook (left tributary of the Obista), it originates on the western edge of the Rylsky district, possibly from dial. Lapa – ‘rut’ [Kulikovsky 1898: 48], according to the relief of the area: it is high here and has deep hollows, ravines and dips [Kudryavtsev 1892: 254].

Krepnetes – brook (left tributary of the Krepna), it originates to the north of the village Novaya Ivanovka, Sudzhanovsky district, from krepy – ‘wild places’ [Dal II: 207].

Mokva – brook (right tributary of the Seim), it originates to the north of the village Pervaya Mokva, Kursky district, from ancient Russian moknuti [Sreznevsky II: 164], according to marshy and low place of the Seim. Mochovoy – brook (right tributary of the Savinets), it originates in the plot of land of Dubrava to the south of the village of Besobrasovo (formerly village Mochovaya) Chereparinskoy district, from mch – ‘place overgrown with moss’ [Sreznevsky II: 213-214; Dal II: 352] according to the features of the area. Muchita – brook (left tributary of the Snagost), it originates in the hollow to the north-west of the village Sergeevka, Glushkovsky district, from muchi – ‘deep hollow’ [Murzaeva 1959: 150], according to the features of the area. Plosky – brook (left tributary of the Seim), it originates in the plot of land of Verch Plosky, Solntsevsky district, from plosky – ‘flat, not high’ [Dal III: 127], according to the features of the surrounding area. Polevoy – brook (right tributary of the Rzhavets), it originates in the plot of land of Morkostny, Zolotukhinsky district, from pole – ‘open space, meadow, field’ [Sreznevsky II: 1125-1126], ‘bare space’. Polyanka – brook (right tributary of the Tim), it originates in the plot of land of Pozhar, Cheremisinsovoy district, from polyanna – ‘an open place in the forest, shrubs, meadow on flood plain’ [Murzaeva 1959: 179-180].

Popadnya – brook (right tributary of the Lochnya), it originates in the gulley Srednaya Popadya to the south-west of the village Lochnya, Sudzhanovsky district, from dial. Popadya – ‘extensive deep ravine with steep walls’, according to the features of the area. Raspadnya – brook (right tributary of the Snagost), it originates to the north-west of the village Lyubimovka, Korenevsky district, from the geographical term raspodok – ‘small creek, waterless valley’ [Murzaeva 1959: 189], according to the relief of the area. Raschovets – river (left tributary of the Kshen), it originates to the west of the village Rachovets, in the plot of land of Rachovets, Sovetsky district, from roch – ‘rock, stony’, and roch – ‘place, where several rivers flow’ or ‘place, where several rivers are situated’. Rovniy – brook (right tributary of the Snaova), it originates to the south-west of the village Ryno Boleto, Ponorovsky district, from rovnii – ‘plain’, according to the features of the area. Rozhynya – brook (right tributary of the Belichka), it originates in the gulley Ugolny, Konishhevsky district, from rog – ‘gulley’, according to the relief of the area. Rysnov – river (right tributary of the Cher), it originates in Oryol region, to the south of the village Ignatievo, from dial. Rysnov – ‘swampy’, according to the features of the area. Strelisha – brook (right tributary of the Nesnuka), it originates in the plot of land of Strelisha, Khromutovsky district, from ancient Russian strelisha – ‘sharp cape at the confluence of two rivers’. Sula – brook (right tributary of the Nemcha), it originates in the gulley Solonets, to the west of the village Sul, Sudzhanovsky district, from Turk.Sulau – ‘place rich in water, where several rivers flow’ [Radlov IV: 772].

Sukhodol – brook (left tributary of the Holchyi), it originates in the gulley Sukhodol, Fateshsky district, from sukholdol – ‘dry draw with a wide bottom’, according to the relief of the area. Uslanka – river (right tributary of the Psel), it originates to the south of the plot of land of VerchynyUslan, Obayansky district, from the dial. Uslan – ‘downhill or uphill, sloping height’ [Dal IV: 512], according to the relief of the area. Uspert – brook (right tributary of the Uspert), it originates to the east of the village Novaya Ivanovka, Dmitrievsky district, apparently from sporty – ‘compressed’, Uspert originates in the ravine, its flow is blocked by crumbling sand and marl. Shigor – river (right tributary of the Kosorzhya), it originates to the south of the village Prigorodnoye, Schigrovsky district, from local geographical term schiger – ‘forestless crests of dry interbalka paps’, according to the features of the area: the area in Schigrovsky district is crossed, gullies and ravines occupy about 14.000 hectares. Buses – brook (left tributary of the Svapa), it originates to the south
of the village Stary Busets, Zheleznogorsky district, from dial. Buza – ‘swamp, bog’ [Dal I: 137]

Thus, the study of regional hydronymy and, particularly, hydronymy of Posemye helps to penetrate more deeply into the semantics and etymology of many words of toponymic system. A variety of the meanings of hydronyms speaks about their complex historical path. Further study of hydronyms as a reflection of the language world picture will be able to show the perception of reality that was developed in the earlier periods of the language development in society.

References
Agatha Christie who is well known as an author of detective novels that have become classical, wrote also novels of a different genre. Under the pseudonym Mary Westmacott, she published six novels: “Giant’s Bread”, “Unfinished Portrait”, “Absent in the Spring”, “Daughter is a daughter”, “The Burden” and “The Rose and the Yew Tree”. Researchers of A. Christie’s works suspect that these non-detective novels were dictated by personal experience of the writer and they rank these works to the psychological prose.

The novel “The Rose and the Yew Tree” was written in 1947, published in November of 1948, and became the fourth novel, published under the name Mary Westmacott. Exploring the “Autobiography” of the writer, written at the end of her life, we found a mention about that novel: “A few years later I wrote another book of Mary Westmacott – called The Rose and the Yew Tree. It is one I can always read with great pleasure, though it was not an imperative, like Absent in the Spring. But there again, the idea behind the book had been with me a long time – in fact since 1929. Just a sketchy picture, that I knew would come to life one day” [1, 499].

The story is based on the development of two biographical lines — the story of John Gabriel, the vainglorious man from a working class who has achieved success and occupied a high position in society, and the tragic story of Isabella, a noble and beautiful woman, belonging to an ancient noble family. She saves John Gabriel by losing her own life. A third character — Hugh Norreys, tells the whole story.

The novel apparently has nothing in common with the well-known works of the writer, but it has a mystery — magic of the human soul, that is also important in A. Christie’s detective novels. The object of artistic representation in this work are the personalities of the characters and their interactions. The main theme of the novel passing through the fate of all the central characters is a topic of choice. It is associated with the motifs of time, love and hatred, good and evil, nobleness and meanness. In the centre of work is the personality of the main character Isabella, her emotional world, her life perception.

The poetics of the novel is rich in artistic techniques — there are allusions to the works of literature, pictorial and musical art, motifs of life and death, love and hate, symbolic images. The space-time organization of the artistic world of the novel is very interesting and unique.

John Gabriel and Isabella belong to different “worlds” by their birth and upbringing, they have different moral values, and at the beginning of the novel have different life perspectives. This is not just a love story; it is the story of human’s search of his own path.

The actions take place in the small English town St. Loo in Cornwall during the Second World War. St. Loo is located on the Atlantic coast, it may be divided into three different worlds: a fishing village which is located there for centuries and reminds the Flemish landscape, a modern resort part of the town with fashionable hotels, the ancient castle of St. Loo which stretched far away from the rare villas and mansions; and behind these three worlds there is an old church at the very top of the mountain.

The art space of the novel is organized by these three worlds, each of which belongs to one of the main characters: a country house where the narrator Hugh Norreys lives, the St. Loo castle where Isabella lives standing next to it and the modern part of the city — the home of John Gabriel. The modern part of the town with all its business centres and shops is located on the plain valley and the castle is located on the hill at the foot of the medieval church.

Hugh Norreys, a former schoolteacher and an officer, now bedridden, moved with his brother’s family to St. Loo, where the main events of the book take place. The narrator becomes a powerless witness of the circumstances of the political struggle and love story, Unable to leave the house, Hugh Norreys becomes an observer. He describes himself with the words: “My role was clear. I was the looker-on” [2, 548]. Everything Hugh Norreys had in his life stayed in the past: a military service, a work as a schoolteacher, the woman he loved. When he moved to St. Loo he did not have any reasons to live, at some point, he was even ready to commit a suicide. He lives only in his memories, his time is past, his space is limited by the walls of his house and the garden from where he could watch the castle of St. Loo. However, his subjective space is aesthetic — it includes flowers, books, music and Isabella who embodies in the novel the ideal of beauty and nobility became his friend.

John Gabriel is a young and active politician, striving to get the power in any way. Being born in a working class family, he bears a huge dislike and disgust to the upper class and the ranks. John Gabriel yearned power so much that he agreed to participate in the elections as a candidate from the conservative party that he hated most of all. This person has no relationships with his family, he lives alone, and he has no morality and eternal values. One of the characters, captain Carslake, says about him: “To tell you the truth, I've no idea ... He does not come from anywhere exactly — if you know what I mean” [2, 555]. However, through all his faults, John Gabriel knows how to behave in society, he is a good conversationalist, and he has a certain charm and a sort of power over women. In public he always plays the role of the hero, noble and honest, but only staying alone with Hugh Norreys, he allows himself to behave as he wants and shows his true feelings; he does not see any danger in a helpless mutilated Hugh and shares with him his secrets. So, after saving child right in front of the citizens’ eyes he said to Hugh: “I’ve been going around all keyed up looking for something in that line to turn up. Children are the best for sob stuff purposes” [2, 566].

John’s attitude to Isabella is the same as his attitude to the social class to which she belongs. Despite the impression he makes on others, this man cannot belong to any idea or serve people, his only wishes and purposes are power, career and money. He has no any connections with the past, he is educated but bereaved of any
sense of aesthetic sensitivity and beauty, he is unspiritual. John’s love to power, vanity, indifference to poor people, hatred to noble and rich ones deprive his subjective space of the harmony.

The Gabriel’s monologue about the fresco “The Triumph of Death” in the cathedral Campo Santo in Pisa is very important for understanding his nature:

“This is my way to see life. In the cathedral Campo Santo in Pisa is very important for understanding his nature: "Heaven and Hell and Purgatory and all the rest of it. Hell is rather jolly, little devils pushing you down with pitchforks. My God, those women! They do not know about Hell, they do not know about damned — they do not know anything! They just sit there, smiling smugly: God, I would like to tear them down from their trees and their state of beatitude and pitch them down into the flames! Hold them there withrithing; make them feel, make them suffer! “ [2, 587].

This episode reflects John’s attitude to Isabella, for him she is just as incomprehensible as the angels are, as good and nobleness are. The mural is a metaphor to the space of Isabella and John. He feels hatred to everything that transcends him, he wants to crush it, to ruin to humiliate, and all that he does to Isabella enticing, tempting and taking her away from St. Loo.

Special for John Gabriel Agatha Christie creates a fictional faceless city Zagrade where he took Isabella, this dirty featureless grim city in the ruined post-war Slovakia suits to impersonal and destroying Gabriel. He is looking to the future and does not have any noble desires, he belongs to the present time, his space is full of different people, but mostly, they are the wrong people, and his goal is to have power over them. Without the strong connections with the past this man cannot serve to people, he does not even belong to the party, which elected him. He does not belong to himself. In his space, there is no beauty and nobility and the only literature hero he associates himself with is Iago:

“I understand Iago! If I ever produced Shakespeare, I’d go to town on Iago. Imagine to yourself what it’s like to be born a coward — to lie and cheat and get away with it — to love money so much that you wake up and eat and sleep and kiss your wife with money foremost in your brain” [2, 626].

He aims to make a political career, to achieve some success, but this is an outward success and a spiritual degradation. He seems to be a hero, but he defends Isabella at the moment of a mortal danger, and it is Isabella who saves John’s life protecting him from the bullets by her own body.

Isabella appears as a beautiful and fairy medieval Lady, aloof and mysterious, but at the same time natural as the nature itself. Her life was predetermine and even – she graduated from the high school and lived in the family castle waiting for her cousin Rupert when she returned from the War. Isabella has repeatedly been compared to Shakespeare’s Fortinbras, sneaky John to Iago and Hugh to Hamlet. A triangle outlined between these characters corresponds to time and space organization of the novel – three different characters belong to different worlds and different time. However, the most important is the contrast between worlds of John and Isabella. In the novel “The Rose and the Yew Tree” Agatha Christie shows unconventional view on Victorian opposition of the men’s and women’s spaces, according to which the world of a man is open and active and the world of the woman is usually limited by the space of her house and family, it’s closed and contemplative. In the novel the man detached from family values and eternal ideals, has a limited and closed space. However, the world of the woman closely connected with the past, with the traditions, the culture and the art, is open and even unlimited.

There is not just a contrast of John’s and Isabella’s chronotopes and not only the opposition of the “men’s world” and the “women’s world”, but also the contrast between vile and noble, temporal and eternal, which brings to Agatha Christie’s psychological novel philosophical implications.

An old English castle and a garden do not limit Isabella’s art space; it also includes the allusions to works of visual and verbal art (caryatids of Acropolis, Shakespeare’s “Hamlet”, medieval stained-glass artworks and murals). The thing she owns show her connection with the past. Even the prayer that she got as a wedding present from John Gabriel (he didn’t know what it was and called it “some Catholic Thing”) appeared to be a medieval, just as if it was meant to belong to her, but accidentally caught into the hands of this man.

Her relationships with this ancient ancestral castle is so strong that when she leaves it, everything changes, and the castle ruins and people start to rebuild it, as if only Isabella maintained the life in this place. Her time is past with which she is strongly connected but infused with the eternal values and spirituality her time turns to be an eternity. Even in a shabby and gloomy room in a faceless Zagrade, where Hugh Norreys found her, he mentioned that she was still the same Isabella he knew, she has not changed:

“She looked exactly as she had looked when she left St. Loo Castle. Her dress, actually, was shabby. But it had cut and style, and thought old, she wore it with ease and distinction. Her hair was still in its long shimmering page-boy bob. Her face was beautiful, calm and grave. She and the room had, I felt, nothing to do with each other. She was here, in the midst of it, exactly as she might have been in the midst of a desert, or on the deck of a ship. It was not her home. It was a place where she happened, just at the moment, to be” [2, 650]. Surrounded by dishonest people in miserable conditions she still was the same Isabella: “In the middle of it, sitting with her feet tucked up under her, and embroidering a piece of silk, was Isabella… She sat there smiling quietly, the same remote Acropolis Maiden smile” [2, 654].

Isabella’s space and time are out of physical quantities. An eternity to which she belongs, a sense of beauty, generosity and dignity – are constant in her soul, and wherever she is, these qualities cannot be taken away. Even in the disgusting place and conditions where Gabriel put her she somehow saved her inner fairy world, and did it naturally. Being physically in the place that was so much contrasting to the place where she grew up, she kept herself the same clean and noble lady that she always was. There, in Zagrade, she found an old piece of an old silk and embroidered her favorite deep red roses from the St. Loo castle’s garden as a symbol of a place to which her soul belonged.

Her time is present where she lives in and the past with which she has very strong connection, but the eternal values she follows (goodness, love, loyalty), and which Gabriel denies, ascribe her to eternity. Iago, in a delicate way shows the contrast between her characters using the allusions to Shakespeare’s tragedies. Noble Isabella is compared to Fortinbras, sneaky John to Iago and Hugh to Hamlet. A triangle outlined between these characters corresponds to time and space organization of the novel – three different characters belong to different worlds and different time. However, the most important is the contrast between worlds of John and Isabella. In the novel “The Rose and the Yew Tree” Agatha Christie shows unconventional view on Victorian opposition of the men’s and women’s spaces, according to which the world of a man is open and active and the world of the woman is usually limited by the space of her house and family, it’s closed and contemplative. In the novel the man detached from family values and eternal ideals, has a limited and closed space. However, the world of the woman closely connected with the past, with the traditions, the culture and the art, is open and even unlimited.

References