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Applied linguistics (UDC 81`33)

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**ДИНАМИКА МЕТАФОРИЧЕСКОГО МОДЕЛИРОВАНИЯ КОНЦЕПТА «ТЕРРОРИЗМ» В
МАССМЕДИЙНОМ ДИСКУРСЕ США***Аннотация*

Актуальность работы определяется важностью для современного языкознания проблемы динамической изменчивости содержания концепта, потребностью в определении характера связи между концептом и дискурсом, выявлении зависимости содержания и средств вербализации концепта от типа и вида дискурса. Предмет исследования – динамические характеристики вербализации социально маркированного концепта в массмедийном дискурсе США. Цель исследования – установить динамику структурирования и экспликации знания о терроризме в массмедийном дискурсе. Для достижения поставленной цели в исследовании выдвигаются следующие задачи: установить корпус языковых единиц, вербализующих концепт «терроризм» в массмедийном дискурсе США; выявить динамику экспликации концепта «терроризм» в массмедийном дискурсе США на примере метафорического моделирования. Практическая значимость исследования состоит в возможности применения его основных положений и результатов в вузовском преподавании курсов общего языкознания, стилистики, лингвокультурологии, спецкурсов по когнитивной лингвистике, теории концептуальной метафоры, дискурсологии, а также в лексикографической практике.

Ключевые слова: метафорическое моделирование, динамика, массмедийный дискурс, терроризм.

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**DYNAMICS OF METAPHORIC MODELLING OF THE CONCEPT OF TERRORISM IN AMERICAN MASS
MEDIA DISCOURSE***Abstract*

The topicality of the research in modern linguistics is defined by the importance of studying the problem of the dynamic nature of the concept content, the need to define the connection type between the concept and discourse as well as to reveal the dependence of the concept content and verbalization means from the type of discourse. The subject of the research is dynamic properties of the verbalization of a socially marked concept in American mass media discourse. The aim is to define the dynamics of structuring and explicating the knowledge about terrorism in mass media discourse. To reach the aim the following tasks are set: to determine the corpus of linguistic units which serve as verbalizers of the concept of terrorism in American mass media discourse; to define the dynamics of the verbal representation of the concept of terrorism in American mass media discourse as exemplified by metaphoric modelling. The practical applicability of the research consists in the possibility of using its main points and results in such academic courses as general linguistics, stylistics, cultural linguistics, special courses in cognitive linguistics, theory of conceptual metaphor, discourse study and in lexicographic practice.

Keywords: metaphoric modelling, dynamics, mass media discourse, terrorism.

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Introduction

Terrorism can be referred to supranational (global) concepts that have certain social and cultural significance and are dominant in people's mind at given periods of time. The functioning peculiarities of such concepts account for their unstable changeable content while a number of conceptual features remain permanent. The current research focuses on the verbal dynamics of the concept of terrorism in one of the fastest developing institutional discourse types — mass media discourse.

The study material is presented with a corpus of verbal representations of the concept of terrorism found in articles published in leading American periodicals since 1991 to the present time. The scientific merit of the research stems from its contribution to cognitive-discursive linguistic theory: the achieved results allow to further scientific insight in conceptualization peculiarities of any given reality fragment, in representation regularities and verbalization dynamics of one of the global concepts in modern information and cultural field.

Method

Alongside the general scientific methods of observation, analysis, synthesis, generalization and systematization the research relies on a range of modern linguistic methods and techniques: conceptual analysis method, component and textual analysis of linguistic units, modelling method.

Modelling method is one of the crucial methods for completing the main project tasks. Usual metaphorization is described by two-parameter semantic models including characteristics and directions which motivate the shift of naming, or the types of metaphorical shift. Analysis of a metaphoric model requires the description of the source sphere (donor zone) and target sphere (recipient zone), as well as their internal structure. A metaphoric model is constructed of frames which are descriptions of typed situation, frames consist of slots.

Discussion

Concept-generating abilities of discourse are determined by its nature: discourse usually develops around some generalized everyday notion, as a result a certain semantic context is created. The latter includes information about the subjects of verbal thinking, objects, circumstances and spatiotemporal data. «Basic structural discourse elements are: (a) events, their participants, performative data and (b) non-events (circumstances accompanying the events, background information, event evaluation, information correlating the discourse with the event)» [3, P. 203]. Thus, discourse represents an entire world.

Mass media has a unique ability to generate intense information and meaning flows and to control them. Being included in the process of producing meanings, images and metaphors as well as the process of producing mass

information (content), collective consciousness and mass audience, mass media exert rough influence over the nature of collective consciousness, its dominant intentions and peculiarities of its content forms.

The current research views mass media discourse as a fragment of cultural scene, collective consciousness and communication presented by modern mass media. Mass media discourse is deemed as «a process of reproducing and objectivizing in mass media socially dominant perception principles and interpreting devised meanings as well as a socially regulatory mechanism directing collective consciousness by means of creating and replicating in mass media socially relevant meanings and judgements» [8, P. 20].

From the point of view of cognitive semantics that is one of the leading research lines in modern linguistics, information about the surrounding reality is stored in shape of certain mental structures (knowledge patterns), also known as concepts, that are fragments of cultural (social) memory reflecting unique human experience of interaction with the world around and comprehending it. The role of a concept as «an operative content storage memory unit» is «explaining the psychic resources of our consciousness and the informational structure that reflects human knowledge and experience» [6, P. 90]. Concept feature space is formed as a result of comprehending one's diverse experience and reconstructed by means of construing meanings and interpreting speech contexts which reveal concept existence.

The history of any society has periods when one or the other cultural phenomenon due to a number of reasons gets particular significance and, consequently, extra semantic and language development. Due to that it reveals (or obtains) new features; this process leads to enrichment of the concept feature field and, thus, its nominative field, which can be defined as «a totality of language means representing a concept at a certain stage of social development» [9, P. 66].

An important concept feature that accounts for its significance is “nominative density” regarded as «detailing of the represented reality fragment, multiple variable nomination and complex shades of meaning of the denotata» [4, P. 112].

Mass media concept is focused on the current social context alongside the openness to time and space paradigms, but only to the extent which they can be requested by the present. A mass media concept combines social memory (history), current social context, accompanying ideology, relevant style as «language taste of the epoch» [5], social engineering and social forecasting and also the cultural experience of social reflection and experiencing. Mass media concept is «performed as a quick mass media technology of social perception and social-cognitive management (cognitive pronency and opponency) as well as a mechanism of semantic derivation – social consolidation of new lexeme meanings not typical for the linguistic world image, and semantic modulation (changing semantic or stylistic emotional nuances of a word)» [1, P.12].

The present stage of linguistic research is characterized by a great interest towards metaphor. The theory of conceptual metaphor first appeared in G. Lakoff and M. Johnson's work «Metaphors we live by» [7]. This theory postulated that metaphor is a language phenomenon that reflects the process of world perception. We employ the approach developed by the cognitive linguistics that treats metaphor as a part of everyday speech that affects the ways in which we perceive, think, and act. Reality itself is defined by metaphor, and as metaphors vary from culture to culture, so do the realities they define. There is an extensive, and mostly

unconscious, system of metaphors that we use automatically and unreflectively to understand complexities and abstractions.

To speak about metaphoric modelling specialists use such terms as «archetype» or «metaphoric archetype» [12], «conceptual metaphor», «basic metaphors» [7], «metaphoric model» [2], «regular polysemy theory» [11], «metaphoric field» [10], etc. Metaphoric model is made of frames that are descriptions of a typed situation. Frames consist of slots presenting some unity of data relevant for the described reality fragment. Apart from the structure, productivity and frequency as well as pragmatic potential should be drawn attention to when describing a metaphoric model.

Results

Within the scope of this research the concept of terrorism is described from the point of view of cognitive linguistics as a key concept of modern American mass media. It reflects the movement of dominant meanings and the nature of their representation in the context of collective consciousness changing under the influence of internal and external factors.

A characteristic feature of mass media texts is a great number of metaphoric images representing the concept of terrorism. The texts can be characterized by plurality of narrators and points of view, ethical, emotional and other kinds of appreciation, communicative strategies and tactics as well as moral principles. Let's examine metaphoric models and the constituent frames and slots that have been the most productive ones in American mass media discourse from 1991 up to the present time with an emphasis on their dynamic potential.

Anthropocentric metaphor is the leading – the most frequent and diverse – in American mass media discourse. It's quite anticipated since people tend to learn new phenomena by comparing them to the already known and understood, and nothing is studied and explored more that the human body, way of life, etc. Apart from the anthropocentric metaphor of terrorism the following models are clearly defined: “Terrorism is an animal”, “Terrorism is a natural phenomenon”, “Terrorism is a mechanism”, “Terrorism is a sport”, “Terrorism is a performance”.

The subsphere “Human being” has given rise to a great number of political metaphors with the conceptual field “terrorism”. It is without any doubt the basic one. Let's make an overview of the most productive frames and slots shaping this model.

Terrorism and terror being pitifully a part of modern life worldwide, are very often paralleled to human body and its separate parts, systems and organs. It refers to both terrorist organizations such as, for instance, Al-Qaeda, HAMAS, Hizballah, etc. and political leaders using terrorist methods for fighting their enemies.

The frame named «Human body» encompasses such slots as «Physiological organs and body parts», «Illness», «Conditions posing dangers for human body»:

«Perhaps the most unsettling possibility is that the hand behind the blast will never reveal itself and never be discovered by anyone else» (“Tower Terror”/ “Time”, 08.03.1993).

«In any case, turning the U.S. into a police state in order to prevent terrorism would be not only morally repugnant but probably ineffective; in many countries dictatorial repression has bred, not stifled, terrorism» (“New York Post: The Terror Within”/ “Time”, 05.07.1993).

Another quite productive frame is «Human work activities». Within this frame terrorist activity is metaphorically compared to a work flow the participants of

which should have certain qualifications. Terrorists just like "wage labourers" can have different status – of a permanent «employee» or an independent «contractor»:

«The new attackers are sometimes called free-lance terrorists, and some truly are» ('New York City: The Terror Within'/'Time', 05.07.1993).

The images of natural disasters, destructive and frightening natural phenomena are used rather frequently as part of «Terrorism is a natural phenomenon» model. The war on terrorism is a suffocating fog, terrorist attacks are a horrifying hurricane, violence is a fearful and disorienting fog blanket. The given model comprises such frames as «Inanimate nature» (slots «Weather events», «Natural disasters»), «Landscape elements»:

«Peres also had praise for the PLO for its anti-terrorist efforts: "We have to encourage the winds of peace to retract the shadows of danger."» («Clinton Signs Anti-Terrorism Accord'/'Time', 30.04.1996).

Such phenomenon as terrorism can hardly leave anyone indifferent and performance as a source domain provides perfect conditions for implementing the emotive function of metaphor. The metaphoric model «Terrorist act is a spectator show» is presented with such frames and slots as «Performance as such», «Theatre performance», «Spectator sports»:

«In public and behind the scenes, the stakes are rising in the waiting game between terrorists and the law» («Law Forces Make Quiet Countermoves Against Terrorism'/'Time', 23.09.1999).

Military metaphor is also of key importance. It is one of the most productive and is presented with such frames as «War fighting tactics», «Combatants», «Battle outcome», «Army service», «Weapons»:

«But aren't intelligence agencies reluctant to expose such "assets," in a trial, which tends to render them useless in the ongoing battle with the terrorist organizations they'd come out of, or had infiltrated?» («Why Trials Matter in the War Against Terrorism'/'Time', 05.02.2001).

«Millionaire fugitive Osama bin Laden is the CEO of a far-flung "business" whose goal is a holy war to kill Americans, prosecutors said in closing arguments of the embassy-terror trial» («Feds: Bin Laden CEO of terror inc.'/'New York Post', 02.05.2001).

Further, we are presenting the results of the metaphoric modelling of the terrorism concept for the period starting with 2001 and up to the present time.

The anthropocentric metaphor as well as the models «Terrorism is a natural phenomenon» and «Terrorism is a spectator show» continue to manifest powerful expansion potential. Thus, as it becomes crucial to identify people and organisations investing into terrorism, the slot "Donor" gains considerable currency:

«Unlike other major terrorist organizations such as al-Qaeda, which are primarily reliant on wealthy donors, ISIS gets most of its funding not from the illegal market sale of oil, as well as from ransoms and extortion» ['Time', "Treasury Department's Anti-Terrorism Chief Says Cutting Off ISIS Funds Of High Importance", 23.10.2014].

Hereafter we will focus on the models and their constituent frames and slots that previously hadn't been frequently used but gained currency after the events of September 11, 2001.

First of all, the increase of the zoomorphic metaphor frequency is noted. It is presented with the following frames and slots: «Animals and birds», «Predators», «Animal breeding and farming», «Fish», «Insects». Within the scope

of this model terrorists are made metaphorically equivalent to animals and their actions, and, consequently, are viewed as animal behaviour.

Politicians using war as the only way of dealing with conflicts are named "hawks". This name emphasizes their aggressive belligerent frame of mind and "predator" habits. Some terrorist leaders are labelled "spiders in the web" which points out such features as scheming and cruelty.

Due to the cruelty, destructive power, spontaneity and unpredictability of terrorist acts, terrorists are metaphorically compared to the animal world by means of using such verbs as "to hatch" and "to breed":

«The situation will breed a new generation of suicide bombers» («The next wave'/'Time', 24.06.2002.).

The metaphor given below was presented in a brief commentary to the article narrating about a successful campaign that resulted in the detention of a close ally of a terrorist leader. The former is called "a big fish". The function is to define leaders in the terrorist world:

«Al-Qaeda's elusive terrorists have to be captured one by one. The inside story of how a big fish got snared» («Al-Qaeda now'/'Time', 3.06.2002.).

The viewed period is characterized by actualization of the mechanistic metaphor including the following rather productive frames and constituent slots: «Mechanism», «Mechanism parts», «Mechanism disassembly», «Mechanism performance standards»:

«While still aiming to "defeat al-Qaeda," we're now trying only to "reverse the Taliban's momentum and deny it the ability to overthrow the government» ('Time', "Obama Shrinks the War on Terrorism", 07.12.2009).

If terrorism is a mechanism, the aim of the adverse party is to dismantle it, to turn it off, stop functioning. Within this context a terrorist is perceived as a component part, unit, a nut in a well-organized terrorist mechanism ("a nut in a terrorist machine").

Due to the American administration policy in the period from 2001 to 2009 aimed at supporting military campaigns in Afghanistan and Iraq the US budget deficit continued to increase. Political opponents criticized the president for the unjustifiable expenses and the financial burden for the public coffers, especially the finances spent on military campaigns. That, in its turn, led to the increase in the potential of the metaphoric model «Terrorism is a business» which views terrorism as a company having «employees» with their «job duties» ("pool of employees"). The war on terrorism is paralleled to a financially unprofitable enterprise:

«Obama's effort to downsize the war on terrorism is partly a function of personality and mostly a function of circumstance» ['Time', "Obama Shrinks the War on Terrorism", 07.12.2009].

«It is also important to consider that the argument that terrorists are often middle class and well educated because terrorist groups are capable of selecting their preferred operatives from a large pool of recruits depends on the context» ['Time', "Don't Dismiss Poverty's Role in Terrorism Yet", 04.02.2015].

It is to be noted that the frequency of the military metaphor has dropped. It can be explained by the policy of the state and the attitude of the citizens to the initiated and long-running military campaign in Iraq. It is common knowledge that a considerable part of the country population criticized the presidential decision to start the war in Iraq, there were a series of protests. Probably due to the negative public response to the US policies journalists purposefully

avoid military images in connection with terrorism in order to reduce, or at least not to trigger, excess tension.

Generally, we may note the tendency to focus on the causes – mostly those of social and educational nature – of terrorist activity in modern society. Journalists try to uncover the motives behind this phenomenon by analyzing the factors such as poverty, mental illnesses, etc. contributing to the increase in the frequency and scale of terrorist activity.

Conclusion

Mass media discourse being not very conservative, contacting everyday and poetic discourse actively prefers the frame format of terrorism knowledge. Frame allows to reflect in its content the evaluations, judgements and points of view of different personalities. It finally leads to the expansion of the concept discursive representations and broadening its content scope.

The dynamics of the structure and the content of the concept of terrorism depends on the political events in the world and are brought about by the changes in the nature and methods applied by criminals for terrorist attacks. Mass media discourse is quite sensitive to such changes. This sensibility manifests itself in fast growth of certain lexical units and functioning of various metaphors.

The research of the concept of terrorism in US mass media discourse allows to discover the vectors of the spiritual insight of the modern society into the given notion. Terrorism is considered to be one of the most significant and dynamic concepts in US modern worldview. The indications of the accuracy of this statement are multiple cognitive features of the concept alongside its high nominative density.

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СОВРЕМЕННЫЕ ЦИФРОВЫЕ ТЕХНОЛОГИИ И ИННОВАЦИИ В ИНТЕЛЛЕКТУАЛЬНОЙ СФЕРЕ ЧЕЛОВЕКА**Аннотация**

Современные цифровые технологии не только “изменяют язык” (Дэвид Кристалл), но и оказывают влияние на интеллектуальную сферу человека, побуждая его совершать множество не свойственных для него ранее операций. В данной статье рассматриваются наиболее существенные инновации в интеллекте человека, которые порождаются новыми информационными технологиями. Эти инновации включают, по мнению ведущих специалистов в области современных компьютерных технологий, такие операции, как многозадачность, “серендинность”, коннективность, гипермодальность, визуальность и киберсемиотическая конвергентность объективной и виртуальной реальности. Статья основана на исследованиях, в первую очередь, следующих ученых: Лари Розен, Джей Дэвид Болтер, Стивен Даунз, Джей Лемке, Гюнтер Кресс, Сёрен Бриер и др. В их работах особо отмечается значительное влияние цифровых технологий и интернет-коммуникации на все стороны жизни общества, на внутренний психологический и интеллектуальный мир человека, на профессиональную и образовательную деятельность, а также подчеркивается важность соответствующих исследований и недостаточное использование преимуществ интернет-коммуникации и цифровых технологий в научной, просветительской, образовательной, общественной и культурной деятельности. Особое внимание в статье уделено тенденции к визуализации в глобальных информационных потоках и ее роли в обработке информации и трансфере знаний. В статье подчеркивается также, что влияние современных цифровых технологий на все стороны жизни человека, включая интеллектуальную деятельность, нуждается в дальнейшем углубленном исследовании.

Ключевые слова: инновации в работе интеллекта человека, киберсемиотика, трансфер знаний.

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CONTEMPORARY DIGITAL TECHNOLOGIES AND INNOVATIONS IN HUMAN INTELLIGENCE**Abstract**

New digital technologies not only “change language” (David Cristal), but also “upgrade” human intelligence making it perform new and uncommon operations. The present paper is an analysis and a survey of most prominent innovations in human intelligence, which are instigated by the latest digital information technologies. These innovations include, according to the point of view of outstanding specialists in contemporary digital technologies, such operations as multitasking, serendipity, connectivity, hypermodality, visuality, and cybersemiotic convergence of objective and virtual reality. The paper is based on the data presented in the publications of such outstanding “digital” specialists as Larry Rosen, Jay David Bolter, Steven Downes, Jay Lemke, Gunther Kress, Soren Brier, etc. In their works they particularly stress the impact of digital technologies and internet communication on all spheres of human activities, their role in the inner psychological and mental states, in professional and educational domain, as well as the importance of their investigation and a gap between the intensive development of digital technologies and their insufficient usage in scientific, didactic, social and cultural life. Special attention in the paper focuses on the tendency towards visualization in the global information flows and its role in information processing and knowledge transfer. The paper particularly stresses the fact that the impact of contemporary digital technologies on all spheres of human activities, including the intellectual one, needs further and profound investigation.

Keywords: innovations in human intelligence, cybersemiotics, knowledge transfer.

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Introduction

Digital/ information technologies not only promote automatic information retrieval and processing, as well as human language, but also introduce various kinds of innovations into almost all spheres of contemporary human activities. Besides, digital technologies promote all kinds of knowledge transfer and its integration, instigate creative and intellectual human activities, generate new digital culture, communication and education, give rise to various convergent socio-technical interfaces, etc. Of particular importance and interest are those new mental/ intellectual operations, states and processes that are provoked in the human mind by contemporary technological innovations.

Methods of investigation

Digital technologies make human intelligence and cognitive system function in a new info-intellectual space – the cyberspace. Its impact is being traced in various investigations directly and indirectly connected with cognitive studies. The identification, qualification and systematization of the relevant data are the main principles of investigation undertaken in the present study. It shows that digital technologists consider the following innovations in human intelligence, provoked by digital technologies, most important and perspective: 1) multitasking [54]; 2) serendipity [17]; 3) connectivity (of hypertext and thus of human consciousness, cognition, intelligence, science, education, etc.) [26]; 4) hypermodality (of displaying, processing, retrieving and combining information of different types/ modes in digital systems and thus in the human mind)

[40]; 5) the tendency to viscosity of information flows in contemporary cyberspace and in the style of information processing in the human mind [16]; [63]; 6) cybersemiotic convergence/ transfer of the objective and virtual reality into the “mixed” reality and thus the emergence of the ability of the human mind to operate in the new “augmented” information sphere [17]; [18]; [19]. These new operations, states, processes and tendencies closely interact, have a dynamic, heuristic and cognitive character, have their “traditional precursors” and reflect innovations in the human intelligence, provoked and promoted by modern digital technologies.

Results and discussion

Multitasking. Multitasking is a term introduced in its present meaning and discussed in detail by Larry Rosen, computer psychologist Number One in the world. His experiments and data testify to the effect that: 1) The younger generation is eager to use all kinds of digital targets and in most cases – at the same time, *simultaneously*. 2) They listen to the music *while* chatting with their friends and browsing the net, editing their new photos, doing their homework, etc. 3) Multitasking is provoked by *multimedia* character of digital technologies, and thus promotes a new intellectual “habit” of *combining* adjacent mental activities and fulfill them simultaneously.

Larry Rosen stresses that “The stark reality is that today’s kids just can’t do one task without wanting to do a bunch of other things at the same time. It’s a way of life for them. The natural inclination to multitask in these young kids probably has many sources, including the cool, dazzling, multifunctional new devices that permit and encourage multitasking... Cell phones, laptops, iPods, and other portable computing devices are spreading at an incredible rate. Some of these devices that started out as single-purpose machines, such as the cell phone, are being turned into general-purpose computing devices that allow users to perform a variety of functions, sometimes simultaneously. The cell phone evolved into a smartphone and is now literally a portable computer. Psychology has shown that certain physical and mental behaviors can be encouraged by physical objects. Modern technological devices... automatically encourage multitasking by their users. Just take a look at any computer screen and you will rarely see just one open window. Right now, for example, I have my word processor open along with my email, instant messenger, and six web browser windows [54, p. 76-77].

It is quite illuminating that the first published use of the word “multitask” appeared in an IBM paper (dated 1965) describing the capabilities of the IBM System [45], and the first (and the only) world-known “multitasking” person (in the history of mankind) was Caesar. At present it is obvious that multitasking provokes a new cognitive style of acquiring and applying knowledge and experience by using innovative digital technologies [48] which give rise to all other intellectual innovations in the human mind, *serendipity* being one of them.

Serendipity. Serendipity is a complex heuristic process which was detected by an outstanding computeriser Jay Bolter, who came to the conclusion that new computer technologies give rise to innovative mental processes and operations which the user has to accomplish in order to fulfill his information processing tasks. Jay Bolter’s most famous words in this connection are the following: “Digital culture is a browsing culture; for better or worse, serendipity is a fundamental feature” [17, p. 38]. Contemporary browsers evolve very quickly and become more and more user

friendly: they facilitate all kinds of information retrieval and processing in various modes and “directions”, thus making the human—computer interface more convenient and thought provoking. Now browsing is becoming a new type of breathtaking journey with quite unexpected ways of getting to the point of destination because it is *accompanied* by getting “adjacent” types of (more or less) relevant knowledge and experience.

The notion “serendipity” has derivatives *serendipitous*, *serendipitously* and *serendipitor*. It is used in various communicative situations and is quite matter-of-fact because its new meaning is closely connected with its traditional ones (dating back to 1754): **1.** The faculty of making fortunate discoveries by accident; **2.** The fact or occurrence of such discoveries; **3.** An instance of making such a discovery [56]. Cf. “good luck in making unexpected and fortunate discoveries, (hyperonym) good luck, fluke, good fortune” [57]; “the faculty or phenomenon of finding valuable or agreeable things not looked for: *Serendipity seemed to follow the lucky winner where ever he went*” [58].

In the 20th century, the word *serendipity* was sometimes used by researchers to attract attention to “unintentional” scientific discoveries (for more detail, see [21]; [11]; [55]). Now it is used in a more “subject-matter” manner. In 2010, ISMAR, an international academic conference on Mixed and Augmented Reality (Seoul), selected three artworks for the related exhibition; one of them was *Serendipitor*, by Mark Shepard. It was an alternative GPS navigation software application for mobile phones that determines a route to a destination that the user has not previously taken, designed to facilitate finding something by looking for something else. *Serendipitor* was developed during Mark Shepard’s Summer Session 2010 at V2_Lab and was part of his broader project Sentient City Survival Kit. [32]. (By the way, analogously, the word “justification” was first registered in 1551 (for detail, see [47, p. 134]), but at present it is used mostly for naming a text formatting task in a computer).

At present, the intellectual state of “serendipity” is also called “browsering” and is adjacent to another one, *connectivity*.

Connectivity. “At its heart, connectivism is the thesis that knowledge is distributed across a network of connections, and therefore that learning consists of the ability to construct and traverse those networks”... thus, “our knowledge is literally the set of connections between neurons in the brain (or between bits in a computer, or between people in a society...)” [26, p. 85, 16].

At present, connectivity is considered to be a most characteristic and prominent feature in internet communication [27, p. 25]. It is displayed by hypertextual links and exposes connections of various types not only in digital technologies and texts, with the help of which it makes all types and pieces of information interconnected with each other, but also shows cognitive links between everything that has to do with the intellectual sphere of the human mind [13]; [28]. These are consciousness, cognition, science, knowledge and information processing, education, creativity, communication, behaviour and action [39]; [14]. Their “connectivity” gives rise to a number of new cognitive perspectives in science and education, e.g. *connective knowledge*, *networked knowledge*, *knowledge management*, etc. [20]. Hypertextual links connect every text with all adjacent texts and thus make it a “super-text” with quite new, unexpected, creative and cognitively charged characteristics. Thus, evolving digital technologies provoke new creative abilities and “habits” in the human mind and transfer the

cognitive into the intellectual [6]; [8]. In particular, hypertextual links, along with multimodal way of information retrieval, give rise to quite new, *hypermodal* way of information and knowledge representation and processing [25].

Hypermodality. “Hypermodality is the conflation of multimodality and hypertextuality. Not only do we have linkages among text units of various scales, but we have linkages among text units, visual elements, and sound units... In hypermedia, there are more kinds of connection than those provided for in print genres” [40, p. 301].

Hypermodality of information and knowledge representation, perception, processing, transfer, disseminating, displaying, retrieving, etc. in digital communication means using and combining various modal (semiotic, visual, multimedia) resources for navigation, information layout and their combination in order to make the way to information and knowledge shorter, easier, more direct and even language independent [40; 41]. Consider the new “computer” meanings of such symbols as “plus” (*to enlarge*), “minus” (*to diminish*), “crossing” (*to close a file*). Increasing hypermodality of information processing in digital communication is aimed, on the whole, at making information retrieval more creative and user friendly [64]; [1]; [3]; [5]. J. Lemke «cites the “hypermodality” of digital text to result in its creation by both the ‘user’ and the ‘reader’, making it ‘far less predictable’ for the designer» [40, p. 300].

Zhang and O’Halloran [64], in their turn, show how the analysis of a range of hypermodal and semiotic resources such as colour, links, and the representation of social actors on University webpages “reveal the way that marketisation has changed over the past decade, shifting away from a more corporate type branding into more personalised relationships... In our societies semiotic resources are continually used in new and fresh ways, and as is the nature of communication, these will be harnessed by different kinds of interests to disseminate discourses that serve strategic ideological purposes. These discourses will always have a fundamentally multi-semiotic nature, and while people may feel their power in different ways, these may be experienced as fun, play, leisure, and simply as part of the almost invisible micro details of our sociality” [44, p. 354], as well as intellectuality.

In other words, combining information of different types/modes and modalities in digital systems makes the human mind more “semiotically and hypermodally oriented” and easily operate with new meanings of mathematical, graphic and all other “visual” symbols, icons, pictures, figures and their combinations and blendings. All these are extensively used for various and important information processing goals: to provide a many-faceted access to information, to propose various navigation stiles in detecting it, to switch from verbal to non-verbal, visual form in presenting it, etc. [33]. Kress and Van Leeuwen define hypertimodal texts as “making meaning in multiple articulations” [36, p. 4]. Where the elements give the composition a whole meaning *visual* grammar can be applied [43, p. 130].

Visuality. The tendency to visuality of information flows in contemporary cyberspace and in the style of information processing in the human mind [16] was triggered and fostered by rapid and absolutely unexpected revolutionary development of digital video cameras which are now installed almost everywhere. Thus, the global information flow is changing its character: it becomes much more video-oriented than text-oriented [63]. Cf.:

“The video surveillance industry is undergoing strong growth in demand worldwide... which evolve into **intelligent**, integrated and «networked» systems. Current market needs imply that users must access video, audio and data surveillance networks which are not just stationary. They must be fully mobile and portable in nature. They must provide real- or near-real-time sensory inputs, collected from mobile vehicles and stationary locations. Such inputs must be aggregated at a central location in real-time with the goal of providing a **cognitive reaction** to a condition or event. These networks enable real-time **monitoring** and require **integration** with analytics and sensor data **analysis** and the ability to «push» information to mobile users for the purposes of reaction and **response**... to video streams” [51] (*Bold is added – N. R.*).

In this connection, many scholars believe that we are now faced with a new cognitive revolution that is gaining ground in information perception, dissemination, and processing [29]; [35]; [36]; [37]; [34]; [7]. Cf. «The sheer volume of new technologies devoted to the transfer, transmission, and production of graphics and visual imagery would appear to have given rise to a new cognitive field... because electronic images are “a new form of visibility”» [31].

Thus, we are becoming more visually oriented in cognition and communication, and much more engaged in decoding, transcoding and deverbilization of verbal information and verbalization of visual information, etc. [42]; [65], cf. “The tension between verbal and visual representation seems more important than ever... We are living in a space, a cyberspace, with a specific new culture where visualisation as a form of communication is becoming predominant” [16, p. xii].

This particular tendency to visuality in the contemporary digital and thus general culture is exceptionally important for education and training, cf. “Visual communication is the sort of culture that stimulates the right hemisphere in a special way... If new experiences imply new developments while the plasticity of the brain enables them, educators must be aware of their role because the brains of today’s children are being structured in language patterns antagonistic to the values and goals of formal education” [38, p. 234–235]. As a whole, “Human versatility, creativity and search for novelty have not been inhibited but rather instigated by the electronic technologies. Teachers have to think very seriously of... profiting as much as they can from the learning facilities offered by the new technologies” [24, p. 242]; “The use of pictures is a quick and efficient technique for committing words to memory” [61, p. 102].

Thus, educators must be also aware “of the existence of different forms of representation and of their implications in the different information processing styles: different forms of representation or the use of more than one form of representation may lead to better results in terms of the rapidity and the efficiency of comprehension of the contents and in terms of expressing our thoughts” [16, p. 76]; cf. [60]; [52]. Moreover, “The children... are better prepared for dealing with computing concepts, the virtual reality world of cyberspace, the internet and hypertext than their parents are because they have acquired a repertoire of social practices that link computerbased artefacts to the structure of self” [59, p. 221–222]; [23]. That is why «The new generation... possesses a “new literacy”, as “computency” or “computent” and may feel more receptive to new kinds of educational methods. This may mean that the ability to read print and the possession of background knowledge that makes reading

meaningful are necessary but not sufficient for today's young... Besides, "computency" requires the connection of the technology to a constellation of cultural associations» [59, p. 229].

In general, all these tendencies show that our cognitive system and communication become more and more deverbilized and semiotically, hypermodally and visually oriented. For example, the simple "verbal"/ discursive idea of "very much" can be expressed in the following "semiotic" way: Gooooooooooooooooo [cf. 62]. "Few (if any) linguistic anthropologists would argue with the idea that linguistic practice draws on diverse material and embodied resources. Nevertheless, close attention to the role of visual semiosis in communicative ecologies is not as common a part of our analyses as might be expected... explicit and sustained attention to multimodal integration remains a frontier for our field... as well as ...kinds of tools that are necessary to account for the multiple ways in which visual forms interact with other linguistic modalities" [4, p. 352], as well as with one another, particularly in the case when there is a *cybersemiotic convergence* of the objective and virtual reality.

Cybersemiotic convergence/ transfer of the objective and virtual reality. The cybersemiotic convergence/ transfer of the objective and virtual reality into the "mixed" (blended/ mediated/ enhanced/ augmented) reality and thus the emergence of the ability of the human mind to operate in the new "augmented" information sphere [17] is "visual innovation" number one in today's cyberspace. "Augmented reality (AR) is a live direct or indirect view of a physical, real-world environment whose elements are augmented (or supplemented) by computer-generated sensory input such as sound, video, graphics or GPS data. It is related to a more general concept called mediated reality, in which a view of reality is modified by a computer. As a result, the technology functions by enhancing one's current perception of reality. By contrast, virtual reality replaces the real world with a simulated one.... With the help of advanced AR technology (e.g. adding computer vision and object recognition) the information about the surrounding real world of the user becomes interactive and digitally manipulable" [12].

Augmented ("mixed") reality is a new type of visual information. It integrates objective and virtual reality, surpasses the boundaries of human perception, promotes imagination and makes the human mind function in an innovative way. The technology itself is becoming wildly used in various professional, educational and other fields, particularly in training, fulfilling difficult tasks that need "the third/ artificial" eye, etc. Many specialists are sure that digital

technologies and the systems of augmented reality are making human mind more flexible and effective [22].

A Mixed/ Augmented Reality (AR) environment "enhances the users' perception and improves the intuitive interaction with the real world. Virtual Reality (VR) technology completely immerses a user inside a synthetic environment. While immersed, the user cannot see the real world around him. In contrast, AR allows him to see the real world with **superimposed**, virtual objects. Therefore, AR **supplements** the real world rather than completely replacing it. In most cases, a VR environment includes a very complex technical installation and thus its technology is mostly used for expensive training simulations (e.g. flight simulators, ship simulators, etc.). One of the main goals of AR is to reduce costs and to use cheaper hardware with the goal to achieve the same results. ... Of course, we will find more possible AR applications and we believe that it is just a starting point to get new ways of using this fascinating technology" [30] (*Bold is added* – N. R.).

Conclusions and implications

Digital communication and technology are an absolutely new and a most creative sphere of human activities. Its impact on human mind, consciousness, cognition, communication, behaviour and social interaction [46], [2] is particularly important because it helps realize that human intelligence is evolving so that to meet the challenges of virtual reality and its blending with objective reality. Thus we are making a step "from augmented reality" to "augmented human" [49]: this is a transition from technological "human—computer interaction" to intellectual "human—computer integration".

Multimedia, browsing, hyperlinks, digitally processed visual information, augmented reality and, as a whole, a cybersemiotic character of digital technologies cannot but make human mind operate in quite new and "intelligence-promoting" circumstances. These not only enhance mental operations that we have to fulfill, but also give an impetus to all spheres of human activities.

As far as human intelligence is concerned, it becomes obvious that digital technologies make it more flexible, active, open and effective. (For more particulars and detail about the influence of digital technologies on human language, mind, behaviour, culture and social life, briefly outlined here, see [15]; [50]; [4]; [9]; [10]; [53]). It thus also becomes obvious that the impact of contemporary digital technologies on all spheres of human activities, including the intellectual one, needs further, profound and complex investigation.

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ПРОЕКТНОЕ ОБУЧЕНИЕ НА ЗАНЯТИЯХ ПО ИЗУЧЕНИЮ ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ ДЛЯ КОРЕЙСКИХ СТУДЕНТОВ*Аннотация*

Корейские студенты и бразильские учителя в процессе изучения иностранных языков переживают множество культурных потрясений, поскольку культура обучения и изучения в каждой стране отличаются по своей сути. Учитель ожидает, что ученик возьмет на себя роль главного героя в процессе обучения, а ученик ожидает, что учитель станет основным источником знаний, которые они надеются получить. Оба участника учебно-педагогической ситуации считают, что виноват другой, когда он не хочет брать на себя основную роль, поэтому неудовлетворенные ожидания порождают разочарование. Чтобы не допустить ухудшения взаимоотношений учеников с учителями, необходимо разработать определенную стратегию. В данном исследовании установлено, что применение хорошо спланированных и описанных проектов с использованием структуры «подготовка-презентация-дебаты» помогает привести иностранных учителей и корейских учеников к единой точке, где оправдываются ожидания обеих сторон.

Ключевые слова: корейские студенты, культура обучения, культура изучения, проектное обучение.

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PROJECT-BASED LEARNING IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSES FOR KOREAN STUDENTS*Abstract*

Korean students and Brazilian professors in a foreign language classroom are bound for many culture shocks as the learning cultures and teaching cultures of each country differ in their cores. Teachers expect students to assume a protagonist role in their learning process and students expect teachers to be the primary source of the knowledge they hope to obtain. As both agents of the teaching-learning situation believe their counterpart is at fault when not assuming a primary role, unmet expectations give room to frustration. To avoid students from drifting further apart in the necessary relationship with teachers, some strategies need to be developed. In this study, I found that assigning well planned and clarified projects with a preparation-presentation-debate structure helps bringing foreign teachers and Korean students classroom cultures to a gathering point where expectations can finally meet.

Keywords: Korean students, learning culture, teaching culture, project-based learning.

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Introduction

Previous researchers have stated that Korean students have a tendency to be quiet and passive in the classroom [1, 2], and this is considered to be a positive trait for many East Asian students [2]. In Korea, students are accustomed to teacher-centered classes and assume a passive recipient role during lessons [3]. For foreign language teachers, this is often a challenge, especially when it comes to speaking activities and oral proficiency assessment.

That is the case for Brazilian language teachers working in South Korea. From language institute training workshops to university courses in Brazil, and other South American countries, teachers are often encouraged to conduct student-centered classes, as Baghin-Spinelli [4] and Torres [5] stated. Avoiding unnecessary interventions is also important, as excessive teacher interference during classroom activities undermines students' protagonism in their learning process.

The Brazilian language teachers usually expect students to engage and assume a primary role in their learning process. On the other hand, Korean students expect teachers to provide knowledge and tell them what they are supposed to memorize for the exams because they are used to learning by listening, reading, observing and imitating [3]. When two different agents of the teaching-learning situation expect their counterpart to take the primary role, frustration can build up very easily on both sides.

Since the Brazilian teaching culture and the Korean learning culture differ in a profound manner, this work aims to demonstrate how projects can be a tool for teachers and students to meet their expectations.

Project-based learning

Project-based learning (PBL), according to Moss and Van Duzen [6], is an instructional approach in which students

are given problems to solve or products to develop. A panoramic work on PBL was done by Krajcik and Blumenfeld [7], and the authors cite Dewey's work as one of the most important for the development of PBL approach. Dewey studied action, interaction and experiences in the classroom [8] and found that students benefit from activities that emulate real-world situations.

In this study, projects are classroom activities based on PBL approach with the objective of emulating a Portuguese language immersion context for Korean students. While projects in this study are based on the principles of the PBL approach, PBL was not the predominant approach for the language course. That means projects were not the only work students were graded for, other assessment methods were also used, such as oral exams and written exams, for instance.

In well-planned projects, students are given a clear objective to achieve, a standard structure to develop and clear criteria based on which they will be assessed. Projects have proven, in this study, to meet both teachers' and students' expectations.

On the teacher's side, projects like selling a travel package, enrolling in political elections or interviewing someone for a talk-show, lead the student to engage in the learning process. Additionally, there is spontaneity and real-world emulation, so the teacher can assess more accurately if the students are indeed acquiring the desired level of proficiency.

On the students' side, they will be given an opportunity to express themselves in the target-language without focusing solely on given grammar structures and yet they have a comfortable amount of instructions to follow. In this study, it was found that the instructions I gave and the structure I

provided allowed them to proceed more confidently in the activity.

Discussion

This study was conducted with eleven students in an Intermediate Portuguese conversation class in a South Korean university. Students were assigned two projects: Project 1 followed a preparation-presentation-voting structure with a rigid template and Project 2 followed a preparation-presentation-debate structure, without any template, only topic suggestions.

Before both projects, I clarified the assessment criteria and the activity purpose to them. I also assured them that I was not grading them exclusively based on grammar accuracy, but I was also grading their preparation process and their performance when answering questions.

A fundamental requirement for their presentation was that it had to be easy for the class to understand what they were saying. That is because many students in previous experiences either wrote or copied a speech with unnecessarily complex structures and misused vocabulary in hopes they would score higher. However, they did not master these structures and words, so their scores were in fact lower than those of students who preferred structures they were better acquainted with.

Project 1 was assigned shortly after the class studied tourism and travel vocabulary, so they were given a group task of putting together a travel package to any Brazilian city and trying to sell it to their classmates. They had a template to rely on and extensive instructions to follow. They were required to look for roundtrip plane tickets, hotel rooms based on customer reviews and at least three touristic sites. They also had to explain why these specific touristic sites were worth visiting.

All the research for the preparation process had to be done in the target language using websites in Portuguese. Therefore, screenshots had to be included in the presentation as proof that they did their research in the target language instead of using their mother tongue and then translating it into Portuguese. This was important because translation is a tool that Korean students extensively rely on and, as Florea [1] notes, this is a great impairment to fluent oral communication. In the end of the presentations, everyone voted for the travel package they thought was the most interesting and that they would want to buy.

Project 2 was assigned as a general review exercise and I asked them to choose any topic about Korean culture and society that they would like to show and explain to a Brazilian audience. I wrote five topics as examples on the board. Then, I asked them to choose whether they wanted to do the project individually or in groups, and they decided to do it individually. This choice is related to Torres's [5] findings that Korean students tend to be reluctant when asked to work in pairs or groups.

Korean culture and society was the theme for Project 2 for primarily two reasons. First, I wanted them to feel confident accomplishing the task even when they had no strict template to follow and a very flexible presentation structure to work with. Second, it is something they realistically may need to do if they work for a Korean company in Brazil – and that is what their university degree is supposed to prepare them for.

In Project 2, presentations had to be short to avoid excessive memorization of written text on the preparation stage and allow for more debate time at the end. Time given to presentation was 2 to 5 minutes, whereas for the debate it was 5 to 7 minutes.

These projects were developed based on Dewey's views on experiences and actions in the classroom and its applications to foreign language teaching [8]. Thus, memorization was kept to a minimum in these exercises, since it contradicts the very point of a conversation class. Also, it creates an over-simulated environment that would be too far from a real-world emulation idealized by Dewey [7].

Results

In both projects, during students' presentations, their focus was on providing their peers with the information in a clear manner to achieve the task objective. That significantly diminished excessive attention to grammar structures and allowed the teacher to better diagnose students' mistakes and prepare a review lesson to help them overcome these mistakes. It also gave them the opportunity to practice many structures they had learned but not often found the chance to use in a conversation.

At the end of each presentation, there was a debate in which all students were required to ask questions to the presenter about the topic they had just been exposed to. That helped engage the whole group in the activity.

Asking questions was part of the project's requirements and students were graded for asking questions to their peers. For this reason, the debate was not seen so much as a disrespectful behavior as it normally would among Korean classmates. Cho and Torres expose how Korean students may see questions in the classroom as disrespect [3], [5]. So, at the debate stage, repeated clarification was needed for students not to feel offended. That is because, despite being knowingly very respectful, Korean students are normally highly competitive and could possibly misinterpret each other's questions. Because students who presented the project had already done considerable research on their topic, they were usually keen to show that they knew the answer to the questions asked by other students, so they replied confidently.

In the final exam, the first questions were inquiries about the project. I asked them what they thought was positive and negative about the experience and which project they felt more engaged with and why. From their responses, I found that giving them choices (date of presentation, topic, group) before the projects showed them that I respected their opinions. Consequently, they stated that they felt more comfortable to express themselves to me and to others whenever I asked them questions during lessons, debates and even the final oral exam.

Specifically about which project they believed was more successful, eight out of ten students replied that they preferred the Project 2. Some of them said it was because they enjoyed doing research about something they were more intimate with and were interested in, which was Korean society and culture.

One of the students said he preferred Project 2 because he did not have to work with a peer, and his answer concur with Torres's findings [5]. Another student said she did not like Project 1 because she did not want to travel to Brazil, so "there was no point in doing it", which shows that students need to relate and interact with what they are learning [7].

A Korean student who had studied abroad most of his life said he preferred Project 2 because he could "do whatever I wanted" and that he appreciated having autonomy to study in the university environment. Knowing that he studied in different South American countries during most of his primary school education, his response shows an interesting contrast between his mindset and his classmates'.

The three students who preferred Project 1 demonstrate that teachers need to take the diversity of students' learning cultures and styles into account when planning activities for an apparently homogeneous group.

Conclusion

Developing projects was a bridge between my Korean students and me, their Brazilian professor, because we could explore aspects of both my teaching culture and students' learning culture. During preparation, students had the opportunity of writing and memorizing some information, which in part kept them in their comfort zone regarding their learning culture. It also helped minimize their fear of making mistakes, which is a known issue to Torres and Cho [3, 5].

Projects were found on this study to be an effective way for students to be empowered by the opportunity of making choices and to perceive their progress in the language more genuinely. That is because they need to use various structures and vocabulary, often in an unplanned manner. Students are given an objective which is not purely language related and, by thinking about how to accomplish their task, their attention is shifted from drilling and memorizing a specific structure or a vocabulary list to the context in which they need these language resources for.

There are a few key aspects for a teacher to keep in mind when assigning and conducting a project in the classroom.

Choosing a comfortable and familiar topic to students' reality helps motivate students to complete the given task and engage in the debate. It is also a powerful tool to promote critical thinking.

Furthermore, minimizing teacher intervention during presentation and debate also helps empowering students at the latter stage of the activity, however mediation is necessary to avoid conflict and animosity. In addition, teacher's provocative short questions, when carefully formulated to not make students uncomfortable, are very effective in upholding the discussion during the debate.

As a language teacher for ten years now, I believe the debate is the high point of this project due to its necessary spontaneity. Students need to produce unplanned sentences when answering unpredicted questions about the work they developed.

This study also concluded that literature review of work done by other foreign [1], [5] and Korean professors [3] about Korean students' behavior is very helpful for teachers to prepare themselves to develop projects in their classrooms. Nevertheless, attention should always be paid to the fast and constant changes in Korean society and Korean students' diversity of experiences.

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ВОСТОЧНОСЛАВЯНСКОМ И АНГЛИЙСКОМ ФОЛЬКЛОРЕ***Аннотация*

Статья посвящена рассмотрению особенностей функционирования фольклорных примет и суеверий, связанных со встречами с этнически чужим или человеком другой веры, в наивном сознании носителей восточнославянской и английской лингвокультуры. Актуальность и новизна исследования детерминирована малоизученностью данной темы как в отечественной, так и зарубежной фольклористике. На основе привлечения широкого корпуса источников и материалов полевых исследований автор приходит к выводу, что данные приметы являются языковым способом репрезентации запрета, разрешения, предостережения, совета и т.д. в ситуациях, используемых носителями народной традиции для построения своего поведения с иноэтническими соседями.

Ключевые слова: фольклор, примета, поверье, этнически чужой.

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**SIGNS, PRESAGES AND BELIEFS ASSOCIATED WITH MEETING FOREIGNERS IN EASTERN SLAVIC
AND ENGLISH FOLKLORE***Abstract*

The article lays bare the peculiarities of the functioning of folkloric signs, presages and beliefs connected with meeting with an ethnic stranger or a person of another faith, in the naive consciousness of the Eastern Slavic and English linguoculture representatives. The urgency and novelty of the research is determined by the lack of knowledge of this topic both in Russian and foreign folk life studies. Based on the involvement of a wide range of sources and field research materials, the author comes to the conclusion that the analyzed signs are a linguistic declaration of taboos, permissions, warnings, advice, etc. in situations used by the tradition-bearers to establish proper relationship with their foreign neighbors.

Keywords: folklore, sign, belief, ethnic stranger.

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Introduction

Folklore is a small area of research in the humanities and it is fairly unique in every country or region. At the same time no branch of study, academic or popular, penetrates as deeply into human's intuitive life or mirrors his contemplative self as clearly as folklore. Folklore depicts and lays bare man's myriad fears and anxieties, while at the same time in full counterpoint it reveals his whimsy, his visions, and his flights of fancy that ennoble and exalt.

W.R. Bascom defines folklore as myth, legends, folktales, proverbs, riddles, verse and a variety of other forms of artistic expression whose medium is the spoken word [6, P. 333]. S. Thompson draws attention that folklore is a kind of tradition, something handed down from one person to another and preserved either by memory or practice rather than written record [17, P. 4]. A well-known folklorist A.M. Espinosa points out that folklore, or popular knowledge, is the accumulated store of what mankind has experienced, learned, and practiced across the ages as popular and traditional knowledge, as distinguished from so-called scientific knowledge [11, P. 4]. A. Dundes describes folklore as a reflective «mirror» of culture. At an ideational level, the aggregate of folk wisdom in speech, proverbs, and riddles signifies «folk ideas» that constitute a «worldview», or cultural outlook [10, P. 17-18].

As previously mentioned folklore is presented in different forms. One of them is signs, omens and presages. The aim of this paper is to explore the peculiarities and possible sources of English and Eastern Slavic omen lore associated with foreigners and people of different faith. The reason why this paper focuses on omen lore is that signs and omens are verbal formulas representing one of the oldest forms of belief. They begin to predict person's future before his birth, accompany him during his entire life-time and even related to

the events after his death. Besides omenalism is one of the most viable forms of religion which immensely influences the consciousness of the bearers of a particular culture. According to M.A. Kul'kova, alongside with proverbs and sayings signs and omens are a special kind of folk art, the most striking examples of folk thought, the original linguistic embodiment of archaic culture and national traditions [3, P. 3].

Methodology

To compare and visualize the area of foreigners-related omen lore in Great Britain and Eastern Slavic countries we use the materials of our field research conducted in 2013-2016 in Belarus, western parts of Ukraine and south-western regions of Russia and materials from books published by British folklore researchers and amateurs in XIX — XX centuries. The survey of the collected data was done using the following methods and approaches: *ethnolinguistic analysis of linguistic units (vocabulary and phraseology) and folklore texts (myths, legends, and beliefs), that reflect the archaic notions of "foreigners / ethnic strangers"; structural and typological analysis of folklore texts.*

There has been no consistent or thorough effort to trace the origin of the presented omens and signs; as such a study would be endless and beyond the purpose of this paper. Only occasionally have comments been made as to the possible ancestry of certain of the signs. It is of interest to remember that Eastern Slavic and English omens, signs and presages are of inconceivable age and have been influenced by neighboring nations, so it is not possible to analyze individual signs or superstitions.

Discussion

The study of signs, omens, portents observed in the physical and social worlds indicting the will of supernatural agents and the course of the future events, is undoubtedly

important in Slavic and English cultures. The first written statement for a concept of sign, anyhow, comes from cuneiform texts of ancient Mesopotamia in the third millennium B.C. At that time a sign was described as a will or a judicial decision of the gods, who gave "a verdict against the interested parties on the basis of the elements in the omen" [9, P. 3]. Nowadays a sign is understood as a fairly broad concept. It is defined as a stable link between two phenomena of objective reality, one of which is understood as a sign, and the second as its interpretation, usually in the form of a prediction about the future. Sign in popular and traditional belief is a natural event thought to presage a future event [15, P. 121]. G. Bennett considers sign to be an external omen and token signifying future events [7, P. 126]. Typologically, signs are closely related to other forms and types of predictions – presages, dreams, omens, fortune-telling, beliefs, and superstitions.

J. Kupcevičová points out that sometimes it is very difficult to distinguish a sign from a proverb, as they may have a similar content, based on the principle of "elementary" observance [12, P. 35]: rus. Если жид тебе дал, то весь век ему должен будешь; ukr. Лях тоді добрий, як спить, а пробудіцца, то біда. Ити до ляхів – не їсти пирогів; bel. Прыйшлы паляки: ані хліба, ні табаки; eng. Never trust an Indian. Where the Turk's horse once threads the grass never grows. But despite the impossibility of a clear delineation of these two folklore genres, the proverbs like that rus. Кому чего, а цыгану – сало. Русак до читання, хохол до співання; bel. Мудзёр лях на шкодзе; ukr. Москаль як ворона, та хитріший чорта. eng. Scratch a Russian and you will find a Tartar have regard neither to signs nor tokens.

In our study we stick to such features of the sign whose ultimate constituent is common, stereotype and stable form of expression, since many of the surveyed foreigners-related signs are deeply connected with ritual actions, customs, and traditions.

Results

Foreigners-related signs bulk large in the folklore which has survived in England, Belarus, Ukraine and Russia. Their number indicates the importance of ethno-cultural contacts in the border areas of the countries. A naïve consciousness is always experiencing something "foreign", "strange" as dangerous, sinful, magically harmful, and threatening. For instance, in England in XV-XVIII centuries Spain and Italy were considered to be countries in which black art was most flourishing and most skilful sorcerers and magicians came from there. Besides, a representative of another ethnic group is perceived as an archetypal embodiment of evil and otherworldly forces [13]. In Germany and Holland England itself was regarded as native country of witches and night hags. All over the north of Europe Russians, Finns and Lapps are still accounted wizards by other nations. The similar beliefs are specified in the proverbs as well: rus. Бог создал Адама, а черт – молдавана; Первого черемиса леший родил; ukr. Бог сотворив цана, а чорт – кацана; eng. Wild Scotland is the favourite sojourn of the devil. Scots are like witches, do but whet your pen, scratch till the blood come, they'll not hurt you then.

To a large extent it can be explained by the fact that in numerous folk legends the Devil is a "progenitor" of this or that nation. In the narratives of Medieval England, dedicated to concluding a pact with the Devil, the central figure is a pagan, Jew or Muslim who lead a faithful Christian to an unforgivable sin, offering services of a mediator in

establishing contact with the Devil that will provide him with wealth, love, or power.

In effect, the fear of foreigners being overwhelmed and dominated is explicit in signs connected with a meeting with a foreigner or a person of a different faith, both in reality and in a dream. In particular, in Western Belorussia they believe that rain and hail should be expected if gypsies enter the village against the wind, but if they enter downwind the area will suffer from a prolonged drought [4, P. 133].

Hutsuls and Belarusians think of as a bad omen to meet a Jew on the way to hunting or fishing. Unlike the Slavic peoples, in Latgale meeting a Jew early in the morning means to be successful in all endeavors. Noteworthy in this respect is the Latgalian idiom *Žeida laime* (Jewish happiness) denoting unexpected good luck or fortune [16].

In addition, in Belarusian Polesie it is bad luck to meet a Gypsy, while dreaming of a Gypsy is a signal that a person will be deceived soon. Compare, rus. Цыгану без обману дня не прожить; Цыган ищет того, как бы обмануть кого [2]; ukr. Циган хитрістю жити хитрюється. Обдури, як циган на ярмарку [5]. At the same time, Belarusians have a reasonable to naïve consciousness' point of view explanation of why a person dreams of Gypsies: Галодным цыганы сняцца. Спаць, не павячэраўшы – цыганы будуць сніцца. In Bryansk region of Russia, a Gypsy in a dream is a harbinger of a drought or severe frost, depending on if a person dreams of him in summer or in winter. In Great Britain to dream of a Gypsy means that a person has the desire for more freedom and for living with no routine or schedule. Compare, Lincoln. dial. to gypsy – to wander about from place to place for the sake of change or pleasure [18, P. 620].

According to K. Nath, environment, race, clan etc. are artificial division and they cannot take away man from his intrinsic friendliness [14, P. 117]. Hence, the interpretation of the image of an ethnic stranger is ambivalent both in English and Eastern Slavic folklore. There is a significant layer of signs, tokens and rituals about the necessity of interaction with ethnic strangers for good luck, gaining abundance and prosperity, etc. Thus, a Gypsy or Jew, a symbolic messenger of well-being in the coming year, is still welcomed for the "polaznik" (first foot) ritual, widely common among the Slavs of the Carpathian area. In this regard, we can point to the ethnic label of New Year in Hutsul dialects *Циганська слава* and ukr. dial. *цыганить* – to urge.

In Transcarpathian Ukraine on Christmas morning hosts invited a Jew to their homes, saying *За полазника поть до мене*. Entering the house, the Jew just uttered *Дай Боже!* Then he was given a glass of vodka, two tods of wheat, beans or peas [1, P. 195]. It was a bad omen if someone came into the house before the polaznik, so there was the following banning proverb: *На Введення: перший полáz, до хатине лазь; на Різдво: другий полáz, до хати не лазь; на Благовіщення: третій полáz, до хати не лазь* [1, P. 234]. Nowadays this ritual has survived only in some villages of Svalyava and Velikoberezhniansky areas. Furthermore, in Podolia Orthodox Ukrainian youth entertain the idea of meeting a catholic priest (ksiądz) and asking him for blessing when singing carols on Christmas Eve, while in English-speaking countries to meet a priest the first thing on New Year's Day means that a person will die within a year.

There is a long tradition of fortune telling especially for non-married girls in every country, some of which are closely referred to meeting a foreigner or person of another race. For example, on Christmas night, at twelve o'clock the oldest person in the house go and walk around a peach-tree,

saying, *Low for a foreigner, bark for a near one, crow for a farmer, screech, tree, screech, if I'm to die first* [8, P. 49]. Girls of Ohio rural area determine the coming husband by repeating the following words, touching each button of the coat or dress: *Rich man, poor man, beggar man, thief, doctor, lawyer, Indian chief* [8, P. 42]. In London it was a rather popular belief among girls of low- and middle-class society that if you count 500 coloured people (Asians, Indians, Blacks), the nearest gentleman you meet will marry you. Besides, in England sporting men have a belief that if they meet a blind Afro-American and moreover can rub the wool on his head, they will have better luck with the bookmaker.

The remnants of the presented foreigner-related beliefs and signs left to us are but faint reminders of the elaborate rites of the past. They indicate something fundamental in human nature; that is, an instinct for self-protection and a desire to be aware of the future.

Conclusion

Signs, tokens and presages related to meeting foreigners are a specific folklore genre. Its key features are that by foregrounding taboos, permissions, warnings, admonitions, advice, etc., they are used by Slavic- and English-speakers to build healthy and correct relationships with the representatives of other ethnic groups and faiths. Despite the fact that many signs and beliefs function only in certain areas of the analyzed countries, they anchor the most crucial interethnic and inter-confessional contacts, creating a robust framework for assessing ethnic strangers. English and Slavic signs associated with meeting foreigners trace back to the *mythical world—outlook*, historical events and *Christian church teachings*.

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КОНЦЕПТ «РОССИЯ» ЧЕРЕЗ ПРИЗМУ ЭТНОЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО И ЭТИМОЛОГИЧЕСКОГО АНАЛИЗА

Аннотация

Знание этимологии может помочь понять не только значение слова, но и лучше понять процесс эволюции языка, в котором, как известно, отражается весь ход истории. Кроме того, изучение этимологии языка позволяет идентифицировать слова, первоначально русские, обозначающие традиционные русские предметы. Авторы рассматривают концепт «Россия» как одно из важнейших понятий, объединяющих многие аспекты языковой картины мира: оплодотворяющую влагу, воду, свет («солнца лик»), цвет, род и развитие жизни, мир и бел-свет, общность народов, родимую землю и государство.

Ключевые слова: концепт, макроэтимология, языковая картина мира, ментальность, праязык, археология языка.

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THE CONCEPT OF "RUSSIA" THROUGH ETHNO-LINGUISTIC AND ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

Abstract

Etymology can help understand word meanings as well as the process of language evolution. This process is a reflection of the entire history course. In addition, the study of language etymology makes it possible to identify words originally Russian denoting traditional Russian subjects. The authors deal with the concept of "Russia" as one of the most important concepts, integrating many aspects of linguistic world image: fertilizing moisture, water, light ("the face of the sun"), colour, rod (gender) and life development, the world and the white light, the community of peoples, Rodimaya zemlya (native land) and the State.

Keywords: concept, macroetymology, linguistic world image, mentality, protolanguage, language archaeology.

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Introduction

Different scholars study linguistic world image from different perspectives and they become more aware of the fact that language reflects the real world surrounding us as well as social self-awareness, mentality, life style, traditions, customs and value systems [16, P. 14]. The way every nation sees this world is reflected in their native language. The language facts can help restore its history, philosophy, and psychology. Word meanings which make up linguistic world image reflect extralinguistic reality, the most important aspects of it. Cognitive processes help people develop their skills to learn and understand the world, in other words, to construct meanings and concepts about the objects of cognition. Information about possible and real things in the world composes meaning or concept [8, P. 102].

Technical, formalistic approach to language phenomena makes it impossible to understand the meaning of different language concepts. Therefore the most important aim of our conceptual study is to develop ideas connected with concept as a key, information, linguistic and cultural unit. The analysis of this unit is based on context, logical, mental connections which are stipulated by culture.

One of the most important concepts incorporating different aspects of linguistic world image is the concept of "Russia".

The first mention of the people called *rus* (*rusy*, *rosy*) can be found in European written sources in the 19th century. These facts were partly taken from the ancient manuscripts, testifying to wide settlement called *rusi* (*rosi*) from the North Sea to the Azov Sea.

In one of the well-known fundamental works N.M. Karamzin, a highly respected Russian historian, wrote about "wild people plunged into the depth of ignorance", who didn't leave their own historical monuments. He meant the tribes which inhabited the most part of Europe and Asia; which later became Russian [5, P. 31]. The reasons why the

identity of ancient Russian culture was denied and the historical existence of the Russian people was recognized only in the beginning of the 9th century AD (the 4th–6th centuries in some sources) were apparently generated by influence of the official government and the church, both of which were equally satisfied with the history dated back to the Ruriks' power and adoption of Christianity. Thus, so far, even in university and school textbooks there is a widely held opinion that up to the 9th century "Russian people seemed to stay out of history, as if they did not exist and when they appeared on the historical arena (as if from nowhere), they just took the ideology, culture and state and legal traditions developed before them and without them" [3, P. 25].

However, there always has been another point of view in Russian science. Many scholars and experts in culture studies have tried to bring the Russian people into European history, to trace their connections with all ancient peoples of Eurasia, the North and the South. In the early 18th century two works devoted to ancient Russian history appeared: the first volume of "History of Russia" by V.N. Tatishchev and "Ancient Russian history ..." by M.V. Lomonosov. Two Russian scholars independently of each other said that the Russian roots went into the depths of thousands of years and these roots are closely connected with the ethnic groups that inhabited the north of Eurasia since ancient times and were known under different names to ancient and other authors [15, P. 96].

Methods

Descriptive, comparative-historical, historical and comparative methods have been employed to analyze the text in this study.

Discussion

First, it is necessary to look into the matter of linguistic world image in the works of different linguists, historians and experts in culture studies and then to present our ideas of the concept.

The Bible which incorporates the ancient ideas about the world, about the former unity of languages says: "There was one language and one dialect on the whole earth". In linguistics history there are works of Alfred Trombetti, Holger Petersen who wrote about the original unity of languages. Thus, the Italian philologist put forward the idea of monogenesis of languages and the Danish scholar tried to trace the relations of Indo-European, Semito-Hamitic, Uralian, Altai and other languages.

Like in many sciences "the effect of ignoring" impoverished linguistics but inspite of the "highest censorship" it continued to grow. Thus, there appeared a theory of Nostratic (Pedersen's term, Soviet linguists called it "Siberia-European"). The scholars supporting this theory said that the idea of protolanguage was based on a comparative analysis of large language families. Particularly, a scrupulous analysis of the Indo-European family in the 20th century proved that people belonging to this family have a common origin and protolanguage. V.N. Demin writes that ancestor people ("pranarod"), protolanguage and their common original homeland do not refer only to Indo-Europeans, but to all, without exception ethnic groups, inhabiting the Earth in the past and in the present" [3, P. 36]. The authors of the article, in addition to this judgment, are greatly impressed by the view of the scholars that modern linguistics deliberately limits itself systematizing languages, identifying connections of languages within families, and making "a research field beyond traditional boundaries a forbidden area". Emphasizing the achievements of etymologists in language origin, it must be said that "most of them do not tend to look far deeper. Indo-European linguistics goes back to the language of the sacred Vedic texts and Sanskrit. Relations of different language families are studied very timidly and without solid historical base. Traditional microetymology which is guided by closely related language links is replaced by macroetymology proceeding from the ancient language community. For macroetymology traditional morphological and phonetic dogmatism does not play a great role, and it allows lexical and morphological modifications unfamiliar to microetymology". The macro direction makes it possible to climb the "mound" and see the area from a bird's eye view, that is, "to distract from minor features, small details, and rising up, take a look at the modern vocabulary from the height of the millennium" [3, P. 44].

Results

Lexical meanings of many modern Russian words as well as words of other languages date back to a common protolanguage. So, what is the concept of "Russia" if it is a part of the overall linguistic world image not just the history of Russian culture and language?

The first thing to look at is Sanskrit which is presented fairly by ancient written monuments. *Rusa* in ancient Indian language is a word to denote light: *rusa* – light, clear, *rus* – light, shine [3, P. 43]. The word *rusy* rooted in Sanskrit nowadays has the same lexical meaning light. [3, P. 43–44]. Interpretation of the meaning of the name *Rus* in this way is not new. N.M. Karamzin's opponent, Russian historian and ethnographer Z.Ya. Dolenga-Khodakovsky, denying normanian origin of the word *Rus*, wrote that "in all Slavic dialects it has means only *rusy* (blond) and that a blond braid which all its sons had, as well as *Rusa Kosa* i *Rusi Warkocz* [koca] which Polish kmets (farmers) had, are equally famous" [4, P. 284]. In addition to this argument, he cited the fact that the Slavs called many rivers and mountains as *rusy* (blond). V.I. Dahl in the interpretation of the word *rus* is also close to this point of view: "Rus is the world, light and white

world" He especially singles out the word *svetorusje*, meaning "Russian land, the earth"; "white, free light, free world in Russia" [2, P. 570].

As we have already noted the root *ros* has the original meaning of *svetly* (light) and, most likely, the names of the rivers do not reflect the name of the location or the name of the inhabitants living there (but it does not also exclude such an association). First of all, the property of water *svetlaya*, *prozrachnaya* (bright, transparent) is reflected in the river's name. In this regard, the word *rosa* comes under notice. In Slavic mythology and folklore it means pure transparent reviver, giving fertility to fields (in Taoist mythology *rosa* is a drink of immortal, in Christianity it is a symbol of the God's good deeds, of the Holy Spirit gifts which revive the withered soul). [9, P. 440].

Rosa was considered to be the conductor of God's will, a mediator in the conversation with the Heaven. *Rosa* is also compared to the life-giving body fluids (mainly blood). In all archaic cultures with myths about predecessors of the world (demiurge) – the Heaven and the Earth – an idea of fertilization, irrigation of the land by heavenly seed is reflected. In this connection the earth sources of water (dew, streams, rivers, lakes) endowed with the ability to grant fertility and productivity are heavenly seeds. According to the popular calendar it was believed that on the day of Luke (May 5) pregnant witches spread white linen on *rosny* grass and did circle dances. If a woman could not have a child, she went to the forest glade above which a warm spring vapour rose, undressed and joined quietly the dancing. And then she tore away a flap from trodden linen, came home, wiped herself with the flap and soon she became pregnant. On that day ancient Slavs celebrated the feast called *Rozhanitsi*. They personified spring and summer blooming of nature and thought that this period was for summer fertility, when harvest became ripe and heavy [11, P. 151]. And the embodiment of masculinity, the ancestor of life, a form of the Most High, the father and the mother of all the gods, the god of Slavic-Russian mythology, who embodies the male hypostasis, was *Rod*:

Rod is the creator of the Universe.

Rod blows life into people.

Rod is the god of the sky and the rain.

Rod is connected with earth water: *rodniki*, *rodisha* (springs).

Rod is connected with fire.

Rod is associated with *ogmenoje rodstvo* (underground hell).

Rod is connected with red colour: *rdyanoy*, *rodry* (flamy).

Rod is connected with *rodia* (ball lightning).

Rod is correlated with Oziris, Sabaoth, Baal, with Jesus Christ (indirectly).

To give birth to children the pagan god Rod must throw from the sky *grudiye rosnoye*, i.e. dew drops, *gradnye grudy* – balls of hail [10, P. 12].

Ros is the daughter of Don, *rusalka* (a mermaid) (Don is the son of Dan and Ra, so the Volga-Don was called Ros or the river Rasa) [13, P. 522]. She gave birth to Dazhbog (the God of Sun, giving God, bearer of all goods) from Perun (the God of Thunderstorms, lightning and thunder). *Ros* is the spirit of the river *Ros* (the Volga), the ancestor of the Russian people (through Dazhbog). So, the Eastern Slavs are the sons of Dazhbog and "Russians", i.e. the descendants of *Ros* [13, P. 522]. *Rusalki* (mermaids) were deities of fields irrigation, i.e. rains or damp morning mists. They were depicted in the form of sirens, beautiful bird-maidens with wings. Ros is not

only drops of cool mist on the ground and plants, but also mist itself. There is a well-known saying: “*Poka solntze vzoydet – rosa ochi vvest* (While the grass grows the horse starves)”. The idea of *rusalka* (mermaids) is associated with this morning moisture which is very important for the crops ripening.

Rusali were celebrated at the beginning and at the end of winter Christmastime (on the eve of Christmas and Epiphany), framing the annual spell of nature and fate by prayers for water, essential condition of future harvest. The main celebration in honor of *rusalki* (mermaids) was a *rusali* (mermaid) week, which fell on June 19–24 and ended with the Kupala holiday [10, P. 67].

Water in the form of *rosy* (dew) is a personification of feminine in nature, a *rozhdniye*, *vozroshdeniye*, *orosheniye* symbol, a sign of purity and purification. And here why not to recollect the poem by A.A. Fet “Good and evil”:

And how in a small *rosinka* (dewdrop)

You recognize the face of the sun,

So you can find the whole universe

In the sacred depths.

Rusy in Slavic-Vedic tradition are the descendants of Rosi and Dazhbog, who settled all over the world. And because of that, ethnonyms and toponyms with the root *rus* are so common throughout Eurasia. A.I. Asov writes, that “in the broadest sense of the word *rusy* means all the nations of the white race according to the Slavic-Vedic tradition”. The Scandinavians consider the name *rus* to be their own, and ancient Etruscan-Pelask who became ancestors of many Western European nations and especially ancient Romans call themselves *rasena*.

The Slavs, according to the Vedic tradition and the “Book of Veles” are the descendants of Slava and Bogumir, once one of the northern Russian people, who, subsequently, disconnected into clans and tribes, eastern: polyane, drevlyane, dregovich, severyane, also vyatichi, krivichi, radimichi; western: czechs, slovak, karpy, lyakchi, and others; then South Slavic people: bulgarians, serbs, croats, etc. Among the Slavs there were also people of Ancient Ruskolani, actually *Russkije rody* (Russian people), who had only this name, because they were not only the descendants of Rosi but also of the patriarch Rusa, one of the descendants of Slava and Bogumir.

We read in the Book of Veles: “And so from the Islands of the Rising Sun and from the Land of *Utrenyaya Rosa* (morning dew) came he (Bys) to the Land of *Svetlaya Rosa* (light dew) and *Predvechernyaya Zorya* (before evening dawn). And this is our native *Svyatorosskaya* country, which is called *Rus Alanskaya* and *Arianskaya*, and it is a holy land

of Dazhbog grandchildren who is actually the God giving rain, warmth and day light, and all goods” [12, P. 371].

M.V. Lomonosov, an outstanding scholar and lexicographer of his time, in his “Ancient Russian history” says that *rus*, *Rossiya* is all lands and nations where there is at least a hint of the presence of these roots in their names! Firstly, in his opinion, these are all the Baltic people – Lithuanians, Latvians, Prussians (!), and in favor of this assumption he finds some similarities (kinship) between Slavic and Baltic languages, customs, relationship of the Slavic Perun with the Baltic Perkunas. Secondly, in his opinion, the *Ros* and *Ra* river (one of the ancient names of the Volga) are apparent evidence of the original settlement of *Slavs*, *rosy* here. And *roksolany*, of course, are the same. They settled in the Baltic lands, on the island of Ryugen, where they came to be called *rany*. As a result, according to “The Tale of Bygone Years”, *Varyagi-Rusy* are also called *Slavs-Rusy*, so it is not right to think that they organized the state in Russia which they all came from once [6, P. 100].

Having examined a large number of German sources, A.V. Nazarenko proved that *rus* is always understood under the term *rugi* in Western European written sources of the 9th–11th centuries [7, P. 111–113]. According to V.V. Sedov, *rugi* – *rus* are *rusy* of the Middle Danube area who lived on the territory of modern Austria and Hungary [14, P. 83–89]. “Russian” toponymy has been preserved for a long time and is preserved nowadays in the Lower and Upper Austria, Shtyriya, Salzburg and Regensburg [1, P. 142].

Conclusions

Phonetic transformation in the development and differentiation of languages led to the alternation of vowels *o*, *a*, *y* and consonants “s”, “sh”, “zh”, “g”, “d”, “zhd”, “st”, “shch” and others in the roots of the words (it is difficult to identify which of them were initial): *rosa*, *Ros*, *rosy*, *Roseya*, *Rosiya*, *Rus*, *Porusje*, *Staraya Rusa*, *rusy*, *rusak* (a Russian person in general), *rusachka* (a Russian woman, who especially *rusit* – wants to be *rusak*), *rusichi*, *rusalka*, *rusalii*, *rod*, *rodit*, *rodichi*, *rodnik*, *rodnya*, *rodstvennik*, *rodina* (motherland), *Rodimaya zemlya* (native land), *narod*, *priroda*, *roditeli*, *orosheniye* (*rozhanitsy*), *rozhdniye*, *rozhdstvo*, *rost*, *rostki*, *vyrashchivat* and others. Language archaeology involves archeology of meaning and connection between meanings. These examples demonstrate a lexical-semantic unity of the words mentioned above. *Rossia* and *Rodina* are single-root words. Thus, the concept of “Russia” incorporates the basic mental components of Russian national culture: fertilizing moisture, water, light (“sun face”), color, gender and development of life, the world and the white light, community of peoples, native land and the state.

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ПЕРЕПРОИЗВОДСТВО В ИНТЕРЬЯЗЫКЕ: ЧАСТОТНЫЙ И ГРАММАТИЧЕСКИЙ АСПЕКТ**Аннотация**

Исследование основывается на данных корпуса текстов петербургских школьников, изучающих английский язык (SPbEFL Learner Corpus). В статье рассматривается характерное для интерьязыка явление перепроизводства в количественном (частота) и качественном (грамматическая корректность) аспектах. Лингвистический анализ двух базовых грамматических структур – *S V Od* и *S V C* со связкой *be* – фокусируется на выборе дополнения в первом случае и дополнения к подлежащему во втором. В результате доказывается, что перепроизводство данных структур характеризуется не только их частотностью в речи обучающихся, но и специфическим выбором их составляющих.

Ключевые слова: корпус ученических текстов, интерьязык, перепроизводство, базовые грамматические структуры.

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OVERUSE IN LEARNER LANGUAGE: FREQUENCY AND ACCURACY**Abstract**

The investigation bases on the SPbEFL Learner Corpus findings and addresses the issue of overuse in learner output in relation to both frequency and accuracy of basic grammar structures. The article deals with two basic syntactic structures – *S V Od* and *S V C* with “be” as copula. The linguistic analysis concerns the choice of object in the first case and subject complement in the second. The objective is to show that overuse of the structures in question results not only in their frequency in learner production, but also in learner specific choice of their constituents.

Keywords: learner corpus, interlanguage, overuse, basic grammar structures.

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Introduction

Since the end of the 1990-s learner corpora (LC) – electronic collections of written and spoken texts, produced by L2-learners – have been regarded as a most relevant resource for learner language studies. LC studies have pinpointed most typical mistakes of learners with different L1, which caused productive changes in learning materials and teaching techniques [4], [5], [6], [10]. Corpus-based studies proved also helpful for interlanguage analysis [2], [10].

Saint Petersburg EFL Learner Corpus (SPbEFL LC), based upon the LC design criteria [5, P.8], is a comparatively small multi-L1 (Russian, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Thai, and Vietnamese) corpus.

The contributors to the corpus were 90 high school students (average age 15.4) from Saint Petersburg (Russia) and their 12 peers, new immigrants to CA, USA (average age 15.5) with the pre-tested intermediate (26%) and upper-intermediate (74%) language proficiency.

The corpus contains written texts (essays and personal letters), monologues and dialogues in scripts. The genres and the topics were suggested by the school syllabus and the format of the State General Exam (ЕГЭ).

Task setting was deliberately different from the requirement of S. Granger’s corpus (ICLE¹): the text production was timed and a size limit for written text was set. No reference tools (dictionaries or grammars) were used either.

Thus, the study presumes, that the contributors’ texts are as near as spontaneous, and the learner output will positively demonstrate interlanguage strategies, such as overuse or underuse.

Method

Any corpus study is a method by definition, since it is based on application of corpus managers, tools that produce such relevant information as concordance, word counts, frequencies, collocation, and syntactic patterns.

Comparison of different corpora is used to pinpoint

specific data for SPbEFL LC authors.

The investigation bases on the assumption that both the vocabulary and the sentence patterns presumably reflect the actual language fund – interlanguage or interim language – that the learners subconsciously resort to in case of FL communication (cf. [3], [9]). The method applied was comparing L2 with L1 varieties [2], [4], [8], [10].

Discussion

Learner language in SLA research is described as developing a transfer grammar (interlanguage) with *overuse*, *underuse*, and *fossilization* as learner strategies. Overuse and underuse as learner language characteristics are obviously a matter of frequency. An investigation of basic grammar structures in L2 learner speech and a closer exploration of their fill provided evidence for at least three interpretations of overuse:

- overuse 1 – learners use a word / construction *A more frequently* than native speakers (NSs);
- overuse 2 – learners use a word/construction *A instead of* a word / construction B;
- overuse 3 – learners use a word / construction *A with a learner specific cast*.

Following the hypothesis, corpus data can pinpoint the most frequent grammatical structures, used by L2 learners. The question is how much they resemble the Basic English Grammar structures.

The list of Basic Grammar constructions taken as model in this paper is adopted from [1]:

- *S V A* (Mary is in the house);
- *S V C* (Mary is kind / a nurse);
- *S V Od* (Somebody caught the ball);
- *S V Od A* (I put the plate on the table);
- *S V Oi Od* (She gives me presents);
- *S V* (The child laughed).

We shall focus on two of them, namely *S V C* with *be* as copula and *S V Od* with *have* as main verb.

Results

A comparative frequency list analysis of three raw learner corpora – French [6, P.17], Quebec [2] and the SPb EFL LC – is only a rough exploratory survey, but it provides some interesting perspectives.

Table 1 – Top 10 word forms in three LC

	French LC	Quebec LC	SPbEFL LC
1	the	the	I
2	of	to	to
3	to	I	and
4	a	a	you
5	and	of	the
6	is	and	a
7	in	in	is
8	that	that	it
9	it	is	in
10	be	it	have

The learner language proficiency varies in the corpora from advanced in the French and Quebec LCR to intermediate / upper-intermediate in SPbEFL LC. Besides, the task setting criteria were different: the contributors to SPbEFL corpus were set a time limit and did not use any reference materials so that the text production was *nearly* spontaneous (except for the previous class practice). Therefore, the rich vocabulary and developed sentence patterns trained in class would give way to simple, common lexis and transparent structures.

The top 10 in the compared corpora suggest that the task subjects in SPbEFL corpus were definitely 1st-person oriented, hence the first rank of *I*. The attraction here is the high frequency rank of *and*, as well as the verb forms *have* and *is*.

As the concordance displays showed, the conjunction *and* is used to connect short and numerous clauses, homogeneous parts, to start a sentence and to fill the pause in case of hesitation – all that features in spontaneous speech production.

In the comparable corpora the only verb forms in the top 10 list are the forms of *be* which can be either lexical, link, modal or auxiliary. The high frequency of *have*, which is mostly used as a lexical verb, suggests that SPb schoolchildren make wide use of the pattern I/WE <HAVE> N.

This pattern analysis found 489 hits for *have* in the whole SPbEFL LC. Lexical use of *have* was found in 429 contexts. Modal use is high enough – 52, while the use of auxiliary *have* (for Perfect forms) is insignificant (8).

The low rank of auxiliary *have* can be definitely marked as underuse: the learners avoid perfective and progressive forms. This avoidance is a failure to nuance the aspect of the event / situation described.

What seems quite special for the learner texts is the use of the basic grammar construction S V Od where the Od position is filled with nominalized forms. That is, the learners prefer a precast pattern to a more conventional for NSs adjectival complement (*be free*, *be independent*) or verbal predicate (*to communicate* / *talk*):

1. *If you leave your childhood house you'll have your own life*²

2. *If you have your own accomodation you also have a freedom*

3. *I enjoy to have communication with interesting people from different countryes*

As examples (1-3) demonstrate, learners resort to S <HAVE> Od construction *instead of* constructions S V C and S V, which we previously defined as “overuse 2”. This type of overuse is a roundabout way of expressing the learner’s idea, a help they find from what they are familiar with. Thus, frequency of S <HAVE> Od in learner output is not overproduction alone, but also a strategy to find a way out.

Still more evidence for treating overuse as a multivalued feature was found while searching the SPbEFL corpus for S V C constructions with *be*-copula. It is common knowledge that this type of construction is overused by EFL speakers [7]. The data in table 2 prove the general tendency: the majority of *be*-forms found in the essays are S <BE> C cases, while only a few contexts realize their auxiliary and lexical use. The underuse of auxiliary *be* is another proof of avoiding analytical verb forms (progressive and passive).

Table 2 – The use of BE in SPbEFL (Essay)

BE functions → BE forms found↓	Copula verb	Auxiliary verb (progressive forms)	Auxiliary verb (passive)	Lexical Verb (There is/are)
is	230	3	1	1
's	67	1	-	-
was	10	1	2	-
am	1	-	-	-

NS corpus data argue that S <BE> C construction is very popular in native speech, too. It is important, that the typical complements here differ in important ways across registers:

“Over 50% of the complements of *be* copula are noun phrases. This structure is extremely common, occurring about 10,000 times per million words (or several times on every page of prose)” [1, P. 446].

“The copula *be* is overwhelmingly the most common verb taking an adjectival complement, occurring over 20 times more than any other copular verb. *Copular be* + *adjective* occurs over 5,000 times per million words for all registers (more than twice per page on average). This pattern is especially common in academic prose and fiction” [*ibid.*, P.437].

The above statements, backed by LWSEC³ findings, pinpoint that

- NSs use S <BE> C construction frequently;
- most frequent complements are noun phrases (NP);
- adjectival complements (AP) are preferable in academic prose and fiction;
- frequency of the construction in learner speech may not be the only value of overuse.

Comparison of SPbEFL LC data with those of LWSEC shows that complements of *be* copula in Russian learner output are preferably adjectival (59%), though the register in corpus is mainly, even in the Essay part, conversational (table 3):

Table 3 – Subject predicative realization in SPbEFL LC

	AP	NP	PP	Complement clause	Inf P
S <BE> C (1325)	779	475	18	40	3

The choice of the complement adjective intensifies the “academic touch” in Russian learner subcorpus, as they seem to favor *difficult* and *different*, both marked for academic register in NS corpus [*ibid.*, P.440]. So, the overuse of S <BE> C is definitely accompanied with a learner specific cast, in this particular case due to L1 interference and imperfect teaching practice and textbooks:

4. *work / period (about youth) is difficult*
5. *It is difficult to meet people who don't know English / to keep pets / to find a good job.*

Similarly, the choice of noun complement specifies the overuse of the construction in a functional aspect (table 4).

Table 4 – Comparing predicative nouns frequency

	SPbEFL	LWSEC (conversation)
1	proper name	crap
2	idea	proper name
3	thing	home
4	friend	no way
5	problem	people
6	webster	matter
7	film	thing
8	place	time
9	child/children	trouble
10	dog	way

The learner choice is for NPs that identify the logical class or type to which the subject belongs (descriptive use), while most common NP subject predicatives in NS corpus “are attitudinal, marking the stance of the speaker / writer” [*ibid.*, P. 450].

So, in both cases overuse is not a matter of frequency alone: while the wrong choice of adjectival complement suggests a learner specific cast (“overuse 3”) and demonstrates lack of accuracy, the noun complement, generally correct, is used in a limited set of functions.

Corpus findings also revealed a common learner error which may be treated as mal-use rather as it starts as a subject complement structure S <BE> C but essentially it is a basic structure with a verbal predicate S V Od or S V, and the copula can even precede modal verbs (6-8):

6. *I'm totally agree with them.*
 7. *I'm prefer pizza, meat, fish and others*
 8. *I'm study in art-school*
- This error frequency is remarkable and it occurs across all types of texts, written and spoken. What is more, it is found in the output of learners with different L1⁴:
9. *... it's depend on how much people have a good responsibil (CA Essay)*
 10. *But, in any case it's depend on person (SPb Essay)*
 11. *... it's can be right some people who work well...(CA Essay)*
 12. *I hope that it's wouldn't last for long time (SPb Monologue)*

13. *As for me I'm always go to internet. I'm play online games (SPb Essay)*

14. *Yes, sometimes I'm go to the cinema with my friends (SPb Dialogue)*

Conclusion

The research was intended to provide evidence for a multivalued character of overuse in learner language. It is suggested in the paper, that overuse is not a matter of frequency alone and that there are at least three interpretations of it.

A high frequency rank, higher than in NS production (“overuse 1”) may mark register specific features. Thus, the high rank of the conjunction *and* in SPbEFL corpus is explained as a regular spontaneous speech production feature: connecting short and numerous clauses, homogeneous parts, starting a sentence and filling the pause in case of hesitation.

Overuse may be referred to the use of a precast pattern instead of some other pattern or construction (“overuse 2”), thus finding help from familiar patterns, violating their accuracy, but expanding their nominative and functional properties. This is the case with S <HAVE> Od basic construction, which learners often resort to instead of constructions S V C and S V. So, S <HAVE> Od frequency in learner output is not overproduction alone, but also a strategy to find a way out.

Sometimes the frequency of a construction in learner output may be comparable to that in native speech and it is only a quantitative and qualitative analysis of its constituents that reveals an important difference in their choice, which marks inaccuracy of both composition and function. In Russian learner output subjective predicative constructions (S V C) with *be*-copula are preferably adjectival. Adjectival complements are common for academic register in native speech, while in conversation NP complements are preferable. The choice of the complement adjective itself intensifies the “academic touch” in Russian learner output.

The repertoire of noun complement displays a difference that specifies the overuse of one function: the learner choice of NPs is intended for descriptive use, while most common NP subject predicatives in NS corpus mark the stance of the speaker (attitudinal use).

So, S <BE> C overuse is not a matter of frequency alone, either: the wrong choice of adjectival complement suggests a learner specific cast (“overuse 3”) and demonstrates lack of accuracy; the noun complement, generally correct, is used in a limited set of functions.

Overuse is often accompanied with inaccuracy. This can be proved by a found common learner error which, likely resulting from the overuse of S <BE> C construction, may be treated as mal-use rather as it starts as a subject complement structure being essentially a basic structure with a verbal predicate S V Od or S V.

¹International Corpus of Learner English: <https://uclouvain.be/en/research-institutes/ilc/cecl/icle.html>

²Here and after the illustrations of learner text from SPbEFL LC are given with their authentic spelling and grammar preserved

³LWSEC – Longman Written and Spoken English Corpus

⁴SPb marks learners from S. Petersburg with Russian as L1, CA is for learners from California with different East-Asian L1s

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СЕМАНТИЧЕСКАЯ ДЕРИВАЦИЯ ЗАИМСТВОВАНИЙ

Аннотация

В статье представлен контрастивный анализ слов *спикер* и *speaker*, который проводился с помощью методики контрастивного анализа. Была выявлена деривативная способность заимствованного слова. Был проведен анализ функциональной способности; представлено семное описание единиц обоих языков на уровне денотативного и коннотативного макрокомпонентов, которое осуществлялось с помощью семного анализа словарных дефиниций. Была установлена частотность употребления сопоставляемых лексических единиц, которая была проведена на основе национального корпуса русского языка и британского национального корпуса. Четвертый этап представлял собой выявление лексической сочетаемости указанных лексических пар в английском и русском языках. Актуальность исследования определяется тем, что лексико-семантическая адаптация заимствований обусловлена их парадигматическими и синтагматическими связями в системе языка-реципиента, что в свою очередь обуславливает активное возникновение новых лексико-семантических вариантов заимствованных под воздействием словарной системы языка-рецептора.

Ключевые слова: семантическая деривация, заимствование, значение слова, ассимиляция заимствования, английская лингвокультура, русская лингвокультура, лексема, сочетаемость слова, *спикер*, *speaker*.

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SEMANTIC DERIVATION OF BORROWINGS

Abstract

The author carried out the contrastive analysis of the word *cnykep* borrowed into Russian from English and the English word *speaker*. The findings of the analysis include confirm (1) different derivational abilities and functions of the borrowed word and the native word; (2) distinctive features in the definitions, i.e. semantic structures, registered in monolingual non-abridged dictionaries; (3) heterogeneous parameters of frequencies recorded in the National Corpus of the Russian language and the British National Corpus; (4) absence of bilingual equivalent collocations with words *cnykep* and *speaker*. The collocations with words studied revealed new lexical and connotative senses in the meaning of the word. Relevance of the study conducted is justified by the new facts revealed about the semantic adaptation of the borrowed word in the system of the Russian language and its paradigmatic and syntagmatic connections in the system of the recipient language.

Keywords: semantic derivation, borrowing, word meaning, assimilation of borrowing, English culture, Russian culture, word compatibility, *спикер*, *speaker*.

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Introduction

Borrowing is an essential way of creating new words, that involves the renewal of the structure and the language system. The term "borrowing" is viewed by the modern Linguistics paradigm in two dimensions, i.e. synchronous and diachronic. The synchronous dimension implies that the terms "a borrowing" and "a foreign word" are used as synonyms. The diachronic dimension implies the division of foreign units into those adapted by the language (borrowings) and undeveloped (foreign) units. The abundance of borrowings in the Russian language has led to the emergence of different approaches to their perception and interpretations: a) the lexicological approach that focuses on the differences in the senses of borrowings and their analogues; b) the stylistic approach based on the differentiation of borrowed vocabulary in accordance with functional styles; c) the epistemological approach revealing different approaches in the ideology of the word, mental images, as well as cultural differences. Following the definition of Grosjean, F. who views borrowing as "the integration of one language into another" [9, P. 180] the author sees borrowing as a process of at least three stages which may be divided into three periods of (1) complete integration in the target language, (2) partial integration, and (3) no integration in the target language. The first and second types of borrowings may acquire orthographic, phonological, morphological and semantic changes. As a result of semantic evolution, the borrowed word typically acquires new connotative semantic components (hereinafter CSC) and becomes polysemantic.

Methods

The contrastive analysis of *cnykep* – *speaker* was conducted based on the stages proposed by Sternin I.A. in the textbook "Semantic Analysis Of Words In Context" [5]. Our main focus was on the following features of the words analyzed: (1) derivational abilities and functions of the borrowed word and the native word; (2) semantic structures of the contrasted words registered in monolingual non-abridged dictionaries (See References); (3) frequencies recorded in the National Corpus of the Russian language and the British National Corpus; (4) semantics and forms of the collocations with words *cnykep* and *speaker*. The author also applied the descriptive method presenting common and different features of the contrasted words; classification of the lexical material collected, syntactic modeling of collocations with the words *cnykep* and *speaker* in English and Russian; the content and discourse analysis revealing additional associations, connotations, and functions of the words studied.

Discussion

The suggested algorithm of the contrasted words analysis meets the main principles of modern linguistics paradigm: 1) expansionism, manifested in integration of related fields, attracting theories, notions and schools outside Linguistics in connection with other sciences; 2) anthropocentrism with its focus on linguistic personality; 3) functionalism (or neo-functionalism), following which a researcher focuses on the functions of the language material studied; 4) the tendency of modern linguistics to find causes and reasons of language facts [4]. The methods applied in the study, i.e. descriptive, contrastive, syntactic modeling, content analysis are viewed by the author as essential in providing a complete analyses of

the words. This research can be of a certain relevance for linguists who intend to conduct further comparative semantic studies in Linguistics, students majoring Linguistics, pre- and in-service teachers of Russian and English.

Results

The semantic analysis of the meanings of words speaker and cnukep fixed in dictionaries.

Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English [10] defines the meaning of the word speaker as follows:

1. a person who is or was speaking;
2. someone who speaks a particular language: (a French speaker, a fluent Russian speaker);
3. one who makes a public speech;
4. one who acts as a spokesperson ;
5. the presiding officer of a deliberative assembly ;
6. the device makes a sound louder .

The English Dictionary Oxford Dictionary [12] denotes the word speaker as follows "a person who speaks a specified language" [usually with modifier or in combination].

The MacMillan Dictionary of the English language [11] interpretes the word speaker as "the person who conducts political debates". It should be noted that the word is combined with a definite article and is written with a capital letter: the Speaker.

The research shows that in modern English, the word *speaker* may also be used in the meaning of a microphone or a critic, though, to the best of my knowledge, neither of the meanings is recorded in dictionaries. The OED though registers speaker as "short for loudspeaker" [12].

Having analysed the senses presented in Explanatory Dictionary of the Russian language [3] it can be concluded that the word *спикер* 'speaker' in Russian was borrowed from English in the XIV century, where the *speaker* is a suffixal derivative of the verb to speak formed by means of the suffix -er, which denotes the agent or instrument of action.

Analysis of the explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language confirms the fact that the word speaker has been integrated into the Russian language. For example, the Etymological Dictionary of Russian [8] registers «the name of the president of the House of Commons in England, existing since the separation of the Parliament into two Chambers; the name means literally — the one who speaks, speaker «as one of the meanings of the word «спикер (speaker)». In modern Russian discourse the word speaker has two senses, similar to those fixed in the semantic structure of the word speaker. The Dictionary of Youth Slang [6] interprets the word speaker as: 1. The Chairman of Parliament or (in parliaments of some countries) chambers of Parliament; 2. A miniature loudspeaker built into computer's motherboard.

And only the Wiktionary [1] provides three possible interpretations to the word *speaker*. 1. *polit.* in a number of countries — the chairman of the Chamber of Parliament; 2. *Polit., new.* an authorized representative of a body; 3. *Techn., the frog.* the same as the loudspeaker, the speaker.

In Russian, the word *спикер* speaker, the chairman of the State Duma or the Representative of the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation became quite frequent in modern Russian discourse. Collocations 'Председатель Государственной Думы' ('Chairman of the State Duma', Representative of the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation and Speaker) is viewed as equivalent, but used differently, since the term *спикер* speaker is not used in Russian legislative papers, i.e. normative acts. The word *спикер* speaker is widely used on television and in mass media: newspapers, magazines. In official documents, the

speaker is replaced by "Председатель палат Федерального Собрания Российской Федерации" Chairman of the chambers of the Federal Assembly of the Russian Federation or 'Председатель Государственной Думы' Chairman of the State Duma.

The frequency of words speaker and cnukep in British National And Russian National Corpora.

In the British National Corpus the word speaker is registered 8508 times. The analysis of the frequency of the word speaker in the Russian language on the basis of the Russian National Corpus showed that the word *спикер* 'speaker' as a noun is used in 947 (CSC-1,2,3) illustrations, the adjective *спикерский* (*spikerskiy*) (CSC-1) 24 times, and the noun *спикерство* (*spikerstvo*) (CSC-1) 4 times.

Both languages – English and Russian – register derivatives with the prefix *ex*: *ex-speaker* – former chamber chairman, *экс-спикер* (*ex-speaker*) –former speaker / former representative of the State Duma.

The word speaker was assimilated in the system of the Russian language, as evidenced by the formation of morphological derivatives: *спикерский* (belonging to the speaker) and *спикерство* (the art of speaking, presening). In Russian, the root of the word speaker is 'спикер'.

The main syntactic models of the words speaker and cnukep.

In total, 38 free word combinations with the word **speaker** (CSC — 1,2,3,4,5,6) are registered in BNC, though the frequency of each differs..

The statistics of the types of attributive combinations of the word *speaker* allow us to conclude that the type of attributive combination constructed by the matching method is the highest frequency: $A^{adj} + K^n$ (CSC-2.3), in which the core (K — Kernal) component is a noun, and the dependent (A — Adjacent) component is an adjective.

In English, the word speaker in the indicated meanings is combined with the following words:

1. The word speaker in the meaning of "a person who is or was screaming a person who spoke or speaks" (CSC-1) is combined with the following adjectives: good ~ (11), interesting ~ (9), expected ~ (6), wise ~ (4).

2. The word speaker in the meaning of "someone who speaks a particular language: (and a French speaker, and a fluent Russian speaker) someone who speaks a particular language: (speaking French, fluent in Russian)" (CSC-2) is combined with the following words, (7): native ~ (55), non-native ~ (9), fluent ~ (3), foreign ~ (2), Russian (8) / English (17) / French (4) .

3. In the meaning of "one who makes a public speech, one who publicly acts" (CSC-3), the word speaker is combined with adjectives such as (8): guest ~ (67), the first ~ (24), keynote ~ (22), public ~ (15), speech of ~ (11), soapbox ~ (7) or with nouns in the preposition: voice of ~ (6) or with a noun in the postposition: ~ discriminants (4).

The word speaker in the above sense is combined with the following verbs in the preposition (3): to applaud (21) ~, to be no ~ (12), to howl down (2) ~.

4. In the meaning of the chairman of the House of Commons, the speaker is a member of set phrases (LSV-5), (3): Speaker of the House (66), Speaker of the Parliament (30), Speaker of the House of Representatives (14).

In this meaning, as a modifier the word speaker is combined with nouns in the postposition (3): ~ post (40), ~ speech (32), ~ remark (27).

5. In the meaning of "the device which makes a sound louder" (CSC-6), the word speaker is combined with nouns in

the postposition (5): ~ phone (33), ~ system (16), ~output (8), ~ unit (3) or with adjectives in the preposition: 2-way ~ (4).

The word speaker may also be combined with the verbs in the postposition (1): ~ call (103).

The English language forms collocations of verbs with the word speaker in the meaning "the presiding officer of the deliberative assembly of the House of Commons" (CSC-5): to be the same of delegation (19), to vote for a ~ (12).

In Russian, the word спикер (speaker) (CSC-1.2) collocates with a number of words. The analysis of the statistics of the types of attributive collocations of the word спикер (speaker) allows us to observe the highest and the lowest frequencies of the model $K^n + A^n$.

In the Russian language, спикер (speaker) (CSC-1) in the meaning of the chairman of the State Duma or the representative of the Federation Council in the Russian Federation is combined with the following parts of the speech:

1. In the function of the subject of a sentence with adjectives. In total, six combinations of the word спикер (CSC-1) with adjectives were registered (14): бывший (ex) ~ (14), нынешний (current) ~ (8), новый (new) ~ (6), популярный (popular) ~ (3), хороший (good) ~ (3), временный (temporary) ~ (2), действующий (acting) ~ (2), избранный (elected) ~ (2), влиятельный (powerful) ~ (1), лучший (the best) ~ (1), главный (main) ~ (1), прежний (former) ~ (1), первый (first) ~ (1), красноречивый (eloquent) ~ (1).

2. The word speaker (CSC-1) functioning as an object is combined with 2 verbs: избрать (elect) ~ (21), выслушать (listen) ~ (7).

3. The word спикер (CSC-1) functioning as an object with a noun in the preposition (in total 18 free combinations of the word спикер with nouns were registered): пост (position) ~ (28), слова (words) ~ (22), кресло (chair) ~ (19), место (seat) ~ (11), заместитель (deputy) ~ (9), обещание (promise) ~ (6), предложение (proposal) ~ (5), поездка (trip) ~ (5), отношение (attitude) ~ (4), роль (role) ~ (4), совет (advice) ~ (4), ~ (4) выступление (presentation), голос (vote) ~ (3), советник (counselor) ~ (2), речь (speech) ~ (1), титул (title) ~ (1), беседа (talk/conversation) ~ (1), время (time) ~ (1).

4. The word спикер (CSC — 2) functioning as an object with the noun in the preposition (in total, 5 free combinations of the word спикер with nouns): мнение (opinion) ~ (7), команда (team) ~ (6), выступление (presentation) ~ (4), речь (speech) ~ (1), результат (result) ~ (1).

5. The word спикер (CSC — 1) in the function of the subject with the noun in the postposition (in total 4 free

combinations): Совета Федераций (the Council of Federation) (36), Государственной Думы (the State Duma) (30), парламента (the Parliament) (15), палаты общин (the Commons) (13).

In the National Corpus of the Russian Language, 24 literary examples with the word "спикер" were fixed. The word "speaker" is combined with such words as: a post, an armchair, place, title, time.

Functions of words speaker in English and cnukep in Russian.

Спикер and speaker in Russian and English are used in the following functions:

1. Subject. In the Russian language CSC-1,2,3, in the English language — CSC-1,2,3,4,5,6.

2. Object. In the Russian language -CSC-1,2,3, in English — CSC-1,2,3,4,5,6).

3. Adverbial Modifier. In the Russian language — LCSC-1,2,3, in English -CSC-1,2,3,4,5,6.

Based on the analysis of the illustrations from the National corpus, it was found that the noun спикер in the Russian language functions as an object in 304 cases making up 74% of the total, in 95 cases (23%) it functions as a subject and in 13 (3%) — as an adverbial modifier.

In English, the word speaker functions as an object in 84 (54%), as a subject — in 50 (33%), as an adverbial modifier in 20 (13%) cases.

The revealed frequency of the functions of the words speaker and спикер make it possible to conclude that words are never used to address Speakers of the House. In all other cases, the words спикер and speaker appear in the functions of a subject and an object.

Conclusion

The findings reveal that in the English language discourse the word speaker plays an important role. The word спикер in the Russian language functions in two types of the Russian discourse: political (CSC-1,2) and technological inventions (CSC-3).

It can be concluded that it most frequently collocates with adjectives and is placed in preposition. Based on the semantic context, it is possible to identify which CSC of the word is used in a certain context. Verbs do not have the ability to differentiate the sense of the given word.

Based on the collocations of the word спикер, it can be concluded that the range of the lexical senses of the word спикер in the Russian language is narrow. The semantic context of the word speaker is broader in CSC-1, which implies collocations with adjectives in the preposition, verbs in pre- and postposition, nouns in the preposition.

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О ЗАРОЖДЕНИИ НАЦИОНАЛЬНОГО ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО СОЗНАНИЯ В ИСПАНИИ ЭПОХИ ВОЗРОЖДЕНИЯ

Аннотация

В статье исследуется языковой менталитет испанского общества на рубеже XV–XVI вв., когда в Европе наступает период все более осознаваемого растущего интереса к национальным языкам, на которых говорило подавляющее большинство населения. Именно в ту эпоху испаноязычное лингвокультурное сообщество впервые обратило взор на свой родной язык, столь же прекрасный и достойный всяческого уважения, как греческий и латынь. В результате исследования доказано, что в XVI веке в умонастроении испанского общества обозначился переход к политически обоснованному конкретной исторической ситуацией осознанию приоритета кастильского языка. Показана роль трудов, написанных профессиональными грамматистами того времени, в зарождении чувства национальной идентичности испанцев.

Ключевые слова: апология кастильского языка, испанское национальное самосознание, профессиональное лингвистическое сознание, испаноязычное лингвокультурное сообщество.

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RENAISSANCE IN SPAIN: EMERGENCE OF NATIONAL LANGUAGE AND NATIONAL IDENTITY**Abstract**

The aim of the article is to describe the attitude of the Spaniards to their native language. The turn of the 16th century saw a considerable growth of interest in the languages spoken by the majority of the population in European countries. It was at that time that the Spanish-speaking community first recognized the value of their mother tongue and saw its merits as equal to those of Latin and Greek. As a result it is proved that in the Spanish mindset of the 16th century the recognition of the priority of the Spanish Castilian took shape. It should be emphasized that this comprehension is politically grounded in a concrete historical situation. The role of the works written by the Renaissance humanists and the professional grammarians in the emergence of the national identity sense of the Spaniards is shown.

Keywords: apology of Castilian, Spanish national self-identity, professional linguistic mentality, Spanish-speaking community.

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Introduction

The turn of the 16th century saw a considerable growth of interest in the languages spoken by the majority of the population in European countries. A step forward to satisfy this interest was a Castilian Grammar printed by Antonio de Nebrija in 1492. The book rather perplexed the royal court; nevertheless this work played a historical role changing the mentality of the Spanish-speaking community and attracting their attention to their mother tongue [1, P. 10].

Later Renaissance humanists contributed greatly to uphold the role of national languages. They limited their Latin studies to commenting on the original texts, thus getting rid of the awkward Latin “neologisms” invented in the 15th century. The necessity to develop national languages to have sufficient resources to express new ideas and notions became very obvious. The use of new grammatical forms and new words, registering them in dictionaries served to establish the norms of Spanish Castilian. Spain gave the world the finest works of literature. Their authors tried and refined to perfection the new ways of expression, new figures of speech and new genres. As Ramón Menéndez Pidal put it, the humanists clipped the wings of Latin and introduced the Romance languages into the world [7].

Method

Due to the fact that the research includes two areas of knowledge — linguoculturology and ethnolinguistics — its methodology is based on diachronic (historical data analysis), comparative and contextual methods. Such a view allowed to identify axiological concepts of the native speakers and to relate them to the cultural space in a certain period of time. In this article, the language mentality is understood not as a way of thinking, represented as a technique of turning a thought

into a linguistic unit, but as a system of evaluating attitudes toward one's own language.

Discussion

The basic postulate of the Renaissance said that, however high the value of classical languages was, the mother tongue was as beautiful and should be respected. Formerly only classical turns of phrase had been considered truly fine, but the Renaissance thinkers attributed the same quality to the phrase in Romance languages as well.

Thus, the Renaissance humanist ideology influenced the society in two ways: on the one hand, the classical values were still extolled, though seen in a new light, on the other, the same ideas gave rise to the so-called linguistic nationalism [1, P. 11].

Results

Among the first manifestations of Spanish national self-consciousness was the 1496 book on the art of poetry *Arte de la poesía castellanaby* Juan de Encina, which was followed in the 16th century by Gonzalo Argote de Molina's *Discurso sobre la poesía castellana* (1575), Juan Díaz Rengifo's *Arte poética* and the works by Jerónimo Mondragón (1593) and Alonso López Pinciano (1596). Collections of proverbs and sayings were published by Correas, Hernán Núñez, Juan de Mal Lara. The Latin-Spanish and Spanish-Latin dictionaries compiled by Antonio de Nebrija and *Tesoro de la lengua castellana o española* published in 1611 by Covarrubias codified the rich resources of the Spanish language.

The 16th century saw the emergence and development of national languages in other Romance countries which was manifested in the works praising their merits. It is remarkable that all these works included words like “defence” and “praise” in their titles, as, for example, *Deffence et illustration de la langue françoise* by Du Bellay (1549), *Difesa della lingua fiorentinae di Dante* by Carlo Lenzoni

(1557), *Diálogo em louvor da nossa linguagem* by João de Barros (1540), *Libro de alabanzas de las lenguas* published by Rafael Martí de Vicianá in the middle of the 16th century. In 1929 M. Romera Navarro published an anthology of 16th century Spanish texts under the title *La defensa de la lengua española en el siglo XVI*. Paying tribute to the enlightened mother Latin, all the 16th century authors distanced themselves and their mother tongue from this language. At the same time they tried to convince the readers of the superiority of their native language over the rest of the Romance languages. This nationalism was in harmony with the spirit of the times when national languages and national self-identification were emerging.

Speaking of the 16th century perception of their native language by the Spanish-speaking community, we should mention their assurance of its absolute superiority to the other Romance languages, the attitude noticed by many French and Italian contemporaries and seen as overconfidence by Henri Estienne in his 1579 work *Projet du livre de la précellence du langage françois*.

The emergence of the Spanish language to its new status began in 1492 when the first Castilian grammar book was published; this became a signal event in the history of the country and the language. Antonio de Nebrija who wrote it was the first to advance the idea of living language normalization similar to that of the classical languages. In the preface added to the subsequent edition of his work Antonio de Nebrija expressed his belief that the grammar book served *the empire's expansionary goals, and the idea was shared by his many compatriots at the time. According to Antonio de Nebrija, the status of Spanish was so high that it could sooner lose it than make it more elevated* [6, P. 687].

The expansion of Spanish all over the world was mentioned by all 16th century authors. On April 17, 1536, Charles V, the King of Spain and the Holy Roman Emperor, addressed the international audience of the Papal Court in the noble Spanish language that deserved to be known and understood by every Christian [7, P. 47]. In 1599 Fray José de Sigüenza wrote that the grandeur and world-wide expansion of Spanish eclipsed the greatness and popularity of Greek and Latin. In 1635 Juan de Robles dared to compare the status of Spanish with the status of Latin in the time of Cicero. Herrera believed the status of Spanish was almost equal to that of ancient Classical languages and certainly exceeding that of living modern languages. In 1651 Fray Jerónimo de San José in his *Historical guide* declares Spanish culture to be superior to that of Rome or Greece at their peak.

Thus we see that in about 150 years, due to the unique political and cultural situation in the Spanish-speaking community, the Spanish language, literature and book culture achieved the status previously enjoyed by only Classical languages and authors, and even surpassed them. Learning Latin was becoming less and less popular and was considered a loss of time (see Pedro Simón Abril, the author of *Greek Logic and Greek Grammar*).

The privileged position of Spanish among other Romance languages was recognized by most Spanish and European authors in general; its situation was unique and greatly contributed to the emergence of the Spanish national idea and national identity.

In spite of being praised as elegant and noble in comparison with French and Italian, according to Juan de Valdés, Spanish was too little used in secular literature, which was natural at the time, since the position of Latin as a bookish language was still quite strong. Villalón also pointed

out some shortcomings of his mother tongue in his 1558 Castilian grammar.

The 16th century authors tended to hold apart the inherent characteristics of the language and its value as an instrument for literary work. They described Spanish as an elegant, beautiful and harmonious, noble and dignified language, stressing at the same time its flexibility, its graceful and succinct turn of phrase (elegancia, lindeza, armonía, agudeza, majestad, magnificencia, nobleza, gravedad, abundancia, riqueza, variedad) [1, P. 14].

It should be mentioned that European authors applied similar words to describe their own native languages other than Spanish, but in each description there is a certain dominating characteristic. As far as Spanish is concerned, dignity was the most prominent characteristic of the language as well as of the Spanish people in general. According to Fernando de Herrera, the Spanish language is the most dignified and majestic among the Romance languages. Dignity was mentioned as the most remarkable feature of the 16th century Spanish national character and it might be extended to the Spanish language which came to embody the national moral and psychological traits, thus itself deserving special respect and veneration. The early 17th century author Gonzalo Correas believed Spanish was superior to all modern Romance languages and Latin for its grandeur, euphonious sound, clarity, simplicity and popularity.

According to *Erasmus of Rotterdam*, each language has its own unique features (propiedades), distinguishing it from all other related languages. Brevity and flexibility (brevedad, agudeza) turned out to be the most outstanding characteristics of Spanish speech (especialización hispánica). As Valdes put it, the beauty of Castilian is in being able to say the most in the fewest words (“...todo el bien hablar castellano consiste en que digáis lo que queréis con las menos palabras que pudiéredes” [9, P.167]. Castillejo agreed that clarity and brevity were the most noticeable features of Spanish (“Nuestra lengua es muy devota de la clara brevedad” [8, P. 69]. Agility and flexibility of Spanish speech was seen as a special Spanish talent (don propio de los españoles) by Medina.

In the light of all this, of special importance is Lope de Vega's opinion that in translation both the original and the target languages lose their characteristic features. Juan de Valdés, Fernando de Herrera and Lope de Vega believed it was impossible to transpose the language characteristic features either in translation or imitation, which manifests their clear understanding of distinctive features of national languages and their “stylistic signature”. The same opinion was expressed in the works of Juan de Valdés, Alfonso Ordoñez, Castillejo, Garcilaso, Morales, Miguel de Cervantes, Vincenzo Maria Bornini, Du Bellay who wrote of enormous difficulties a translator has to face. Mastering another language is not the main difficulty; a translator has to gain an insight into the language character and distinctive features. That is why Valdés advises to look at the meaning of the words, not the words themselves (“no mirar a la palabra sino al sentido” [9, P. 177] and follow the spirit of the target language, Castilian (puro estilo castellano) in his case, whose spirit and style he considers unique and unrivaled.

If Valdés recognizes the difficulty of translation from one language into another, his contemporaries Doctor Viana and Gonzalo Correas plainly stated utter impossibility of translation from other languages into Spanish due to the latter language uniqueness, while translation from Spanish into any other language was quite possible, in their opinion. According to Doctor Viana, the absolutely singular turn of

Castilian phrase makes it impossible to convey its beauty in other languages, and any attempt to do this is ludicrous (“Las redondillas de la [lengua] castellana son tan propias suyas que a ninguna de las otras las concede, y si alguna vez han querido intentar a hacerlas ... han las compuestas tales que son dignas de risa” [8, P.72]. Remarkably, the title of Gonzalo Correas’ work is “The Art of Castilian”(Arte de la lengua española castellana), which shows his appreciation of the national language; it should be mentioned that in the early 16th century the term “art” was applied to only Greek, Latin and Hebrew.

In the 16th century a translation of a book was seen as the property of the receiving nation. As Miguel Sanchez de Lima in his 1580 work *El arte poético en Romance Castellano* put it, Castilian translations of classical authors like Homer or Vergil were so numerous and true to the original that there was no need to read their Latin versions any more (“...tantas y tan buenas cosas hay escriptas en nuestro Romance Castellano, que no hacen falta ya las obras latinas, pues ya tenemos a Homero, a Virgilio, y otros muchos y muy buenos autores traduzidos de tal suerte, que ninguno siente falta de latinidad” [11, P. 156]. The same was true of Juan Boscán’s translation of *Libro del cortegiano* (1528) by Baldassare Castiglione.

Thus, a high appreciation of the native language with its very distinctive style was in agreement with the spirit of the time. Ambrosio de Morales in his work *Discurso sobre la lengua Castellana* (1546) regrets that Castilian does not have its due from its speakers, but the author is for polishing and refinement of his native language within the classical tradition, he does not set any political goals as far as the language is concerned. In his work written later in the same century Francisco de Medina sets the new trend in understanding the role of his native language; he recognizes its merits and sees it as a language on its own. Medina discusses the role of Spanish Castilian in the current political context. What puzzles him is the indifference of the Spanish, ruling half of the world, to the treasure of their mother tongue. To him the grandeur of the Spanish language is the reflection of the magnificence of the empire itself, which naturally means Castilian Spanish is to be studied and learned [1, P. 21].

Our analysis of the 16th century authors has shown that in about a century the mentality of Spaniards transformed, changing the humanistic, non-politicized view of the national language into the full awareness of its superiority to other languages, just as the Spanish nation was seen superior to other nations due to the Spanish political superiority. Even though the 16th century Spanish people were not much interested in formal learning and rules of grammar, the interest in the origin of their language was growing as Spanish national consciousness was developing.

The question of the origin of Castilian was first raised by Antonio de Nebrija who was convinced that the Spanish had received their language from the Romans before the fall of their empire. Juan de Valdés maintained Castilian originated, to some extent, in Greek and Hebrew, Latin being its root language. The anonymous author of *Util i breve institucion* (1555) agreed with Antonio de Nebrija, adding that the Spanish language had been somewhat marred in contact with other languages. Another anonymous author who wrote *Gramática de la lengua vulgar de España* (1559) mostly agreed with this opinion. Cristóbal de Villalón in his 1559 book *Gramática de la lengua vulgar de España* differed from Nebrija seeing the foreign influence as positive and serving to enrich Spanish vocabulary.

In 1616 the first work on the origin of Castilian *Del Origen i Principio de la Lengua Castellana* by Bernardo de Aldrete, a canon from Córdoba, was published. The author conclusively showed that the roots of Castilian were in Latin; he described his native language as a noble daughter inheriting all the splendor of the illustrious mother (“i como hija noble de tan excelente madre le cabe gran parte de su lustre i resplandor” [3, P. 67]. Bernardo de Aldrete was trying to show that not only the grammar of Castilian, but the words as well came from Latin, and he quite successfully defined and described the phonetic changes that had taken place in Castilian. In Amado Alonso’s words, Aldrete laid the foundation of Castilian comparative and historical grammar and phonetics, even though he was just an erudite historian who never, in fact, drew the line between the Latin and the Spanish Castilian language.

What all the above-mentioned theories have in common is establishing a relation between Castilian and Latin. Nevertheless, there existed other theories. The authors of one of them saw the origin of Castilian in the Basque language; another theory maintains Spanish Castilian had “biblical” roots and was as ancient as Latin or even older. The author of the latter theory Gregorio López Madera, a lawyer from Madrid, advanced his own hypothesis called ‘la teoría del “castellano primitivo”’ or, ‘la teoría “tubálica”’. His work *Discursos de la certidumbre de las reliquias descubiertas en Granada desde el año de 1588 hasta el de 1598* (1595 and 1601) traces the origin of Castilian to the biblical times; the author followed the tradition of the royal chroniclers Florián de Ocampo, Ambrosio de Morales and Juan de Mariana calling the pre-Roman settlers of the Iberian Peninsular “Spanish” [1, P. 22].

The interest in the history of the nation was simultaneous with the interest in the origin of the national language. The Spanish people became aware of their common past, in the same way as they were aware of their imperial present and future. At first the interest in the history of the nation was just idle curiosity on the part of some educated people, but by the middle of the 17th century it took the form of aggressive nationalism and the feeling of national superiority, based on the idea of extremely ancient roots of Spanish and, therefore, its superiority to other languages. The adherents of this theory were Bartolomé Jiménez Patón, Gonzalo Correas and Francisco de Quevedo.

Another aspect of interest in their national language was the sensitivity of the Spanish to its style. After Nebrija, the best formula for good style came from Juan de Valdés, a diplomat and theologian who followed the ideas of the Renaissance Humanists. He was the first to proclaim “I write like I speak” (sin afectación ninguna escribo como hablo) and this formula determined the future of European culture of writing. The tendency to less affected style was in agreement with the spirit of the time; lucidity and clarity (llaneza) became the key collective concept during the Golden Age. Nevertheless, this tendency did not exclude preciousity and the use of affected phrases in spoken language, sometimes the spoken and written style of the same author might differ considerably. This co-existence of the two stylistic models in Spanish became its “stylistic signature” that made it different from the French language, for example.

Conclusion

The tendencies we have described allow us to see the general attitude of the Spanish to their mother tongue in the 16th century. In many cases we can only observe the dawn of the future developments, but the general mood and the

preferences of the Spanish-speaking community are very clearly seen.

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ЛИНГВОКУЛЬТУРНАЯ СПЕЦИФИКА ЯЗЫКОВОЙ КАРТИНЫ МИРА**Аннотация**

В рамках современных исследований в области лингвокультурологии мы изучали английский вегетативный лингвокультурный код с целью выявления основных характеристик, которые находят свое выражение в языковой картине мира у носителей английского языка. Мы исходим из положения о том, что «мир, который нам дан в нашем непосредственном опыте, оставаясь везде одним и тем же, постигается различным образом в различных языках, даже в тех, на которых говорят народы, представляющие собой известное единство с точки зрения культуры...» [7, с.149]. В основе нашего исследования лежит гипотеза о том, что каждый язык формирует у его носителей определённый образ мира, представленный семантическим комплексом понятий, характерным именно для данного языка: трудности, возникающие в межкультурном общении и при переводе, доказывают это. Структурно-семантические и прагматические характеристики английского вегетативного лингвокультурного кода дают представление о том, как реализуются общекультурные категории (жизнь, смерть, красота, уродство, брак, одиночество, женственность, мужественность, родство, чужеродность, счастье, горе, и пр.) в англоязычной культуре посредством фразеологических единиц с растительным элементом.

Ключевые слова: лингвокультура, этнокультурный компонент, лингвокультурный код, лингвистическая реальность.

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LINGUOCULTURAL SPECIFICS OF THE LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE WORLD**Abstract**

Within the latest research in the field of linguoculturology we have studied the English vegetative linguocultural code for the purpose of detection of the main characteristics which find the expression in a language picture of the world of native English speakers. We proceed from the provision that "the world which is given us in our first-hand experience, remaining the same everywhere, is comprehended in a different way in various languages, even by those groups of people who are considered to represent the cultural unity [7, P. 149]. The hypothesis that each language forms the certain image of the world presented by the semantic complex of concepts characteristic of the language of its carriers is the cornerstone of our research: the difficulties arising in cross-cultural communication and when translating prove it. Structural-semantic and pragmatic characteristics of the English vegetative linguocultural code give an idea of how common cultural categories (life, death, beauty, ugliness, marriage, loneliness, femininity, masculinity, kinship, foreignness, happiness, grief, etc) are implemented in English speaking culture by means of phraseological units with a vegetable element.

Keywords: linguoculture, an ethnocultural component, linguocultural code, linguistic reality.

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Introduction

Human activity is closely connected with the need for symbolization which makes a boundary between the biological and the cultural. The various objects involved in the sphere of social and cultural reality have the axiological (valuable) importance which forms the basis of their functioning in the society. As a result, the image of an object gets characteristics of independent phenomenon in the consciousness of people. The last several decades the problem of interrelation of culture, language and consciousness has been widely discussed.

Following the latest tendencies in linguacultural studies we agree that to model linguacultural specifics of a community, the concept of a picture of the world – mapping of the world, in particular, is considered to be rather informative. The set of knowledge gained in the course of development of the world and imprinted in a language form represents so-called 'the language intermediate world', 'language representation of the world', 'language model of the world', 'a language picture of the world'. The last term is most distributed.

Method

The language picture of the world "somewhat supplements the objective knowledge of reality", often distorting it [1, P. 58]. In this regard it should be noted that in reality specific features of the ethnolanguage in which unique socio-historical experience of a certain ethnic community is recorded create not the distorted, but specific coloring of the

world for native speakers caused by the ethnocultural importance of objects, phenomena, processes, the selective attitude towards them which is generated by specifics of activity, a way of life and culture of this ethnos.

We see the ethnolanguage as a set of different linguocultural codes which are systems of the symbols united by a thematic community, having a uniform figurative basis, performing sign function and assigned to the language designator united in the lexicological and phraseological field [4, P. 170]. As we found out the elements of the vegetative linguocultural code are represented in everyday English and confined to a pragmatic situation (e.g. *daisy chain* – рус. *венки из ромашек*; тех. *последовательное подключение*)

The ethnocultural component of the language reflecting the language picture of the world as the fact of ordinary consciousness is perceived fragmentarily in lexical and other units of language; however, language directly doesn't reflect this world. It reflects only a way of representation (conceptualization) of this world by the ethnic language personality. The theory of linguocultural codes allows to describe a language picture of the world in detail.

Discussion

As K. Lévi-Strauss noticed, language is both a culture product, and its important component, and a condition of existence of culture. Moreover, language is a specific way of existence of culture, a factor of formation of cultural codes [5, P. 212]. The linguocultural code represents a result of

expansion of a cultural code into a natural language. The semantic density of separate fragments of the language picture of the world is rather high that is the most important objective indicator of the importance of this or that sphere of reality for the community. It is about allocation of the signs testifying to an ethnocultural originality of the people. In this sense, the vegetative linguocultural code has turned out to be quite dense semantically in the speech of rural communities (sayings, omens, superstitions, etc).

Also, we need to say that linguocultural codes (vegetative linguocultural code in particular) have gained ability to perform a symbolic function of culture serving as means of representation of the main installations of culture (e.g. poppy wearing etiquette (Br.), English rose (Br)). For this reason language is capable to display ethnocultural mentality of its carriers. Each language has its way of conceptualization. According to the English folklore, a baby girl is usually found in a parsley bed while a baby boy is in a gooseberry shrub. Traditionally parsley was associated with the underground world as well as a female supernatural power. The gooseberry was a symbol of a typical male character. These are the examples how the language comprises a special picture of the world. This shows the ethnic perception of the world recorded in the language.

Thus, the reality is reflected in consciousness in the form of the world picture which is structured with the help of the world model represented by means of secondary sign systems, in particular, of the language. This is the language model of the world. Owing to this fact the linguistic reality is not an ontological reality. Therefore in the language not only objects, but also pragmatic and emotional characteristics are reflected. "Language couldn't carry out a role of the transmission medium of information and the means of communication if it wasn't connected with a conceptual picture of the world not only in a sense of conceptualization, but also with the most substantial structure" [5, P. 213].

The meaning of language units contain a considerable part of human experience, those ethnocultural behaviour models followed by the person consciously and subconsciously. Respectively, the development of reality in the cultural, language and symbolical sense can't be the same in different cultures. The mechanism is that signals of the outside world are grouped in the way on the basis of culturally determining cognitive categories. For example, the English "bunch" corresponds to the Russian «букет», «кисть» (e.g. *bunch of roses* – *букет роз*, but *bunch of grapes* – *кисть винограда*). Such categories aren't immanently inherent in human thinking, but are perceived in the course of penetration into another culture.

Along with A. Gurevich we define the world model as "a grid of coordinates which helps people perceive reality and build the world image existing in their consciousness" [2, P. 15]. Versatile phenomena can act as modeling symbolical structures: language, mythology, religion, art, science acting as regulators of personal activity.

So, in his consciousness the person is "couplings of concepts which are approved by a natural language and the semantic structure inherent in it, a conceptual structure of the

cultural period and the type to which the interpreter of the text belongs, and, at last, to all structure of art constructions, habitual for it" [6, P. 241]. This statement of Y. Lotman can be interpreted as attempt to present cultural experience in the form of experience of existence within semiotics and communicative structures, or, more widely, within the cultural consciousness and metasystems constructed by it for the description and the organization of the semiotic communicative functioning, and, at last, in the form of experience of existence within communicative mechanisms of culture which are adjusted, on the one hand, by the codes stabilizing the system, and, on the other hand, codes, destabilizing it.

Results

The basic provision of ethnolinguistics about the integrated character of a traditional symbolical picture of the world which can be reconstructed according to various codes does not exclude distinctions between codes in selecting ethnocultural information transferred by them.

Therefore, it is very essential to compare a cultural and language component of portraits which finds, on the one hand, the general motives presented at the same time in several codes. On the other hand, there are motives, explicit in a folklore text or in a ceremony, which find no reflections in the language. "Valuable picture of the world – the part of a language picture of the world modeled in the form of the estimated judgments correlated to the legal, religious, moral codes" along with common sense, typical folklore, literary plots; valuable dominants – the meanings, most essential to this culture, which set forms of the certain type of culture supported and kept in the language [3, P. 40].

With all external randomness of images and emotive characteristics of situations in linguoculture the system of signs of special nature is allocated and verified – that of figurative symbols. Our study of the vegetative linguocultural code and its figurative symbols proves the statement about the movement from mental, everyday phenomena towards their variable fixing in the language.

Conclusion

Thus, we see that the model of the world acts in four plans: 1) as structure; 2) as the complete global image of the world which is a result of all spiritual activity of the person during all his contacts with the world 3) as principle of a picture of the world and 4) as its realization.

The picture of the world functions the following way:

- mediates all acts of human world perception and its understanding;
- generates the information mentioned above;
- promotes close connection and unity of knowledge and behaviour of people in a group.

We can state that the generalization assumes a tendency to unification of a pluralistic vision of the reality which is carried out within the codifying activity/ using various linguocultural codes. The study of the vegetative linguocultural code elements has proven the movement from mental, sociocultural phenomena towards their variable fixing in the English language.

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В статье рассматриваются некоторые динамические процессы в терминологии такого знания, как пиарология, или наука о связях с общественностью. Терминосистема связей с общественностью является открытой системой. Вопросы формирования терминосистемы связей с общественностью были в центре внимания различных социогуманитарных наук: филологии, социологии, философии, рекламоведения, теории массовых коммуникаций и журналистики. Вводится в научный оборот новые термины «коммуникационный продукт» и «медиапродукт». Отмечается, что появление новых медиа ведет и формированию новых терминов, обозначающих акторов современных публичных онлайн-коммуникаций, носителей и текстовых результатов их деятельности.

Ключевые слова: окказионализм, терминосистема, массовые коммуникации, медиапродукт, коммуникационный продукт.

Киуру К.В.¹, Krivonosov A.D.²¹Professor, PhD in Philology, Chelyabinsk State University;²Professor, PhD in Philology, Saint-Petersburg State University of Economics**NONCE WORDS AS FORSIGHTS AND DRIVERS OF THE TERMINOLOGY FOR NEW SCIENTIFIC DISCIPLINES****Abstract**

The article addresses some dynamic processes in the terminology of such knowledge as PR-studies, or the science of public relations. The terminology of public relations is an open system. The formation of the public relations terminology system has been focused by various social and humanistic sciences: philology, sociology, philosophy, advertising studies, the theory of mass communications and journalism. New terms "communication product" and "media product" are introduced into the scientific framework. It is noted that the emergence of new media leads to the formation of new terms that denote the actors of modern public online communications, carriers and textual results of their activities.

Keywords: nonce word, terminology, mass communications, media product, communication product.

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Term systems of new emerging scientific disciplines are a conventional subject for linguistic studies. The term system is in no way synonymous with terminology which is rarely considered as a systemic whole, since it represents a set of both terms per se, terminoids and terminological nonce words. In a strict sense, the term, as popularly assumed, does not enter synonymy, polysemy and homonymy; it is unequivocal, deliberately regulated and stylistically neutral unit. Being a part of the term system it is also marked with a specific lexicographical field label.

In the modern context terminology accomplishes a crucial function – communicative – since it provides specialists with (mainly) special methods of accumulation, fixation as well as of professional thinking development and scientific knowledge stimulation.

As a dynamic linguistic unit, the term represents the result of the human cognitive activity; however, in recent decades, our conceptualization and categorization of the real environment have drastically been changed.

This article contains an observation on some dynamic processes occurring in the terminology of such knowledge as PR-logy, i.e. the study of public relations. The history of foreign and national PR in general has already been addressed in a separate monograph [1].

Owing to an applied nature of this discipline, initially based on an external professional usage imposed by domestic technological developments and on growing public practice, the terminology of scientific reflection of PR-activity has constantly been at bifurcation for almost two decades of its existence. The term framework of public relations is obviously an open system. While in 1990s the term "public relations" per se was being actively discussed and criticized,

soon enough it was no longer a nonce word or a part of professional jargon.

Originally, due to interdisciplinarity of the most social phenomenon the problem of PR term system formation was the focus of various socio-humanistic studies: philology, sociology, philosophy, ads study and the theory of mass communication and journalism. Analyzing the social institute of PR through the angle of philosophy, I.P. Kuzheleva-Sagan points out that this scientific knowledge "incorporates and, in some measure, contensively (conceptually) transforms the notions of both sociology and other interdisciplinary scientific branches...The sources of PR-terms per se are those disciplines at the interface of which PR-study has been formed" [8, P. 261].

Now here the author speaks about gnoseological characteristics of "vocabularies" – resources for PR-terminology – society-wide and specific notions, yet the share of each type of notions can be different. The society-wide notions are those which are included into the vocabularies of all the social sciences. The specific notions are divided into three classes: 1) borrowed from a certain scientific discipline and narrowly used in other social sciences; 2) term systems coming from a similar scientific sphere established abroad; 3) new notions (neologisms) actually emerged within the evolving studies [8, P. 261].

Some specific features of the term formation in PR have already been observed; in particular, we have pointed out the shaping patterns of PR terminology that depends on the nature of the modern changing communication environment mainly characterized by: an active performance of new communication channels (the Internet, mobile industry and etc.); emergence of new production indicators (key competence of employees, intellectual capital and etc.), value of intangible assets; and by the role of human factor [10].

Undoubtedly, new technologies and realia should be the subject of professional discussion and implementation in didactics. Thus, in 2016 a new draft-project of "Model Principle Educational Program in the Field of "Advertising and PR", initiated by Saint-Petersburg State University, was considered. This discussion articulated competences and their descriptions which further, as a matter of course, should be put into the practice through the competences achievement rate at the level of certain academic disciplines.

During the debate on the basic competence with the Federal Academic Methodological Association "Mass Media and Information-Library Service" (Lomonosov Moscow State University) the basic general professional competence was introduced as: media text / media product /communication product. The statement reads as follows: "make <student> able to create communication products demanded in the sphere of public relations and advertising in accordance with the standards of the Russian language, foreign languages and other sign systems" [Project Script]. In fact, (mainly) the didactic operationalizing practice admits such terms which have not been explicitly treated yet (media text) and – shall we say – didactic nonce words – media product / communication product. While the media text includes hypothetical performance of today's journalists who can work in a convergent environment, the result of PR or advertising specialist's activity is hardly to be considered as the media product. Thus, a suggestion was made to note it as "communication product". Following the discussion, the experts at Academic Methodological Association in the Field of "Public Relations" (L.V. Azarova, Associate Professor; V.A. Achkasova, Professor; E. M. Glinernik, Professor; and A.D. Krivonosov, Professor) suggested that this term should be read as: "Communication product means the result of professional activity in the sphere of public and mass communications aimed at media-, event-, ad- and PR-products making".

As it is commonly noted, "communicating or being an observer and carrier of the experience and knowledge the human choose linguistic means of expression accepted by the speech community" [2]. Still, today we face such a situation when a launch of the term into the didactic practice becomes a foresight in the communication activity.

As we see it, to interpret this term it is important to outline that the product means the result of professional activity which is obviously performed within a certain professional area. It seems appropriate to clarify that the media product summarizes the activity of specialists employed at the media sphere.

At the present time we comprehend the media sphere phenomenon in a new way, i.e. "The modern media sphere is understood as an intensity of the information flow (mainly, of the audiovisual one, e.g. TV, cinema, computer graphics, the Internet); as the system of human integrated exploration of the environment within its social, moral, psychological, artistic and intellectual aspects [1, P. 19]. The media sphere shapes a particular media system and involves (mainly) expert performance followed by "ordinary" actors entering the communication. Due to dynamic transformations of the media sphere the notion of media system per se is also approached in a new, extended sense. Citing Ye. L. Vartanova, Professor and Dean of Journalism at Lomonosov Moscow State University: "As the mass media is developing and as contemporary technological platforms such as radio and TV is appearing, broadcast media start to integrate a non-journalistic content as well, i.e. music, theater performance, cinema and etc. The media sphere has also involved those

spheres which previously were the part of cultural (and commonly mass-cultural) production. Since the second half of the 20th century the majority of analysts have come to consider the following segments of the media sphere as new ones:

1. The system of popular music and sound recording; cinema industry;

2. Radio- and TV-companies or production companies.

Alongside with the development of basic segments producing news and entertaining mass media content, there has been a growth in the enterprises which promote mutual interests between the market and mass media, i.e. ads and communicative agencies. The system of public relations, which started to get closer to the mass media as well, has also become independent in the context of strategic business communication and society. The end of the 20th century is also marked by the start of media-and-publishing business integration" [9, P. 10-11].

As it has been mentioned before, the results of activity made by the whole team of experts in the area of mass and public communications are being integrated into the media sphere. Thus, the notion of communication product combines with the notion of media product since the experts in communication can use similar media carriers. The media sphere determines the nature of media communications. In our observation, the media communications are understood as the process of information creation, proceeding and broadcasting as well as exchanging in a personal, group or mass format via different communication channels: verbal/non-verbal; audio, audiovisual and visual. Note that the term "media communications" has not yet been precisely described [12], [11].

However, to our mind, the term "communication product" implies its own connotations, since the result of PR- and ads specialist's performance are often those phenomena which are not supposed to be mediated on a mass scale (not publically).

Undoubtedly, certain difficulties in the dichotomy between "media product" and "communication product" are brought by active digital tools: the mass media now do not dominate the public sphere as an organizer, activator and medium of the public opinion – they are now represented by the Internet users. New media change the number and quality of communication between their members. All this leads to the formation of new terms to nominate, for example, both the actors of modern public online-communications [10] as well as carriers and text results of their activity.

The development of new media has caused the emergence of new communication products, new types of texts existing in the Net. Building new genres of the Internet-text, we generate new research area – the Internet genre studies [3]. The scientific framework consider Insta and Pin as the genres of media text within the Internet communication; some works contain their discourse characteristics [4, 5]. In particular, if we project the system of genre forming characteristics onto Instagram or Pinterest contents, then we are likely to consider Insta and Pic as the genres of media text within the class of news genre as well as of reasonable and emotional journalism. As the news genre Insta and Pin can be called because they record the event (subject) as a picture and text description, meet the requirements on objectivizing the event (method) and speak about the event showing its details (function). It is also possible to consider Insta and Pin as the genres of reasonable journalism given that they contain infographics. Thus, they show the link between different events as well as their causes

and possible results (subject); analyze the event or phenomenon (method); and insert the event into the context (function). Finally, Insta and Pin also represent themselves as emotional journalism genres by the fact that they can include a person (subject) – the image which includes a certain emotionally charged moment of their life (method) and cause emotional reaction of the network user (function).

Another communication product engaged into the social networks is selfie. Today almost all the holders of smart phones with different social networks applications (Instagram, in particular) are the selfie-authors.

We understand selfie as a form of such media text as Insta. The person capturing themselves for the selfie can be both a public figure as well as ordinary people. As a basic image genre the selfie can be described as an image media

text aimed at building and grabbing the publicity capital for the PR basic actor (public figure) expanded in the social networks. We also consider the selfie as a related image text, i.e. the media text which is characterized by publicity, but is not designed to form or grab the publicity capital, since the PR basic actor is not a public figure [6].

In conclusion, we assume that the emerging and constantly developing term system of PR knowledge includes such subsystems the elements of which form certain areas inside. This system offers such properties as emergence, synergy and multiplicity. Its evolution is determined mainly by extra-linguistic factors, which, even in the case of such an applied scientific discipline can be sourced from a pedagogic communication that primarily serves as a foresight for the term-practice and later as its driver.

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**КОМПОЗИЦИОННО-СОДЕРЖАТЕЛЬНЫЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ ПОЛИТИЧЕСКИХ МЕДИАТЕКСТОВ
 (НА ПРИМЕРЕ ТЕКСТОВ ПОЛИТИЧЕСКИХ ВИДЕОКЛИПОВ КАНДИДАТОВ НА ПОСТ ПРЕЗИДЕНТА
 В 2017 Г. ВО ФРАНЦИИ)**

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются тексты политических рекламных видеоклипов кандидатов на президентский пост во Франции в ходе кампании перед первым туром выборов в 2017 г. Указанные примеры медиатекстов анализируются с точки зрения их композиционного строения и тех особенностей содержания, которые непосредственно связаны со структурой текстов. В целом, большинство исследованных роликов имеют сходное строение и состоят из трех частей: вступления, основной части и заключения. Однако в результате исследования был выявлен ряд преимуществ, отличающих удачные по структуре клипы. К таковым относятся: наличие обращения к избирателям и четкая формулировка темы дискурса во вступительной части клипа, наличие яркой и уместной вступительной фразы, логичность и четкость изложения информации, уместное включение дополнительных видеосюжетов, наличие в тексте заключения.

Ключевые слова: политический видеоклип, политическая реклама, композиционное строение, содержание.

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**COMPOSITIONAL AND CONTENT-RELATED PARTICULARITIES OF POLITICAL MEDIA TEXTS
 (THROUGH THE EXAMPLE OF THE TEXTS OF POLITICAL VIDEO CLIPS ISSUED BY THE CANDIDATES
 FOR PRESIDENCY IN FRANCE IN 2017)**

Abstract

The article examines the texts of political advertising video clips issued by the candidates for presidency in France during the campaign before the first round of elections in 2017. The mentioned examples of media texts are analysed from the compositional point of view as well as from that of the content particularities which are directly connected to the text structure. In general, the majority of the studied clips have a similar structure and consist of three parts: introduction, main part and conclusion. However, as a result of the research, a range of advantages marking well-structured videos was revealed. These include: addressing the voters and stating the speech topic clearly at the beginning of the clip, a relevant attention-grabbing opening phrase, consistency and clarity of the information presentation, appropriate use of additional video plots, conclusion at the end of the clip.

Keywords: political video clip, political advertisement, compositional structure, content.

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Introduction

Political video clips as a genre of political advertisement evoke considerable research interest. Being an example of audiovisual advertising [11, P. 140] as well as a type of media text [3, P. 40], a political clip encompasses both verbal and non-verbal components, as well as includes certain emotional tonality. Besides, the clip conveys all the necessary information about a particular candidate. All the above mentioned makes the advertising videos quite comprehensible and easy to understand. D.V. Olshansky notes that 'these days, the main requirements towards the political advertising are brevity, diversity and emotional intensity' [11, P. 234]. This explains why political clips are so popular among voters. In modern France, the situation is even more peculiar due to the official ban on any visual types of political advertisement (leaflets, brochures, billboards, newspapers etc.). In these conditions, political video clips (together with the television debates) play a pivotal role in political advertising campaigns.

According to S.F. Lisovsky's definition, a political clip is 'a video which is longer than a political spot and contains more edited fragments' [5, P. 100]. Here, in turn, it is important to clarify that the length of a political spot, according to E.P. Murashova, varies from 15 seconds to 5 minutes [9, P. 147]. Hence, a political clip usually lasts longer than a minute. Also, S.F. Lisovsky states that 'a politician or an advertising organization representatives should be present' [5, P. 100] in their political clip. The

researcher also adds that 'political clips use the synthesis of a real image and a modeled one' [Ibidem].

So far, political video clips as a genre of political advertisement have not been studied thoroughly enough. The majority of articles and monographs deal with various aspects of political advertising as a whole [1], [2], [5], [11], [13], [15], [18]. We cannot but mention the articles written by E.P. Murashova [6], [7], [8], [9], [10] who analyses political spots in English from different points of view. However, despite certain similarities between this advertising genre and the political clip, there are still some differences mentioned previously. Another researcher, Y.K. Kryuchkina, carries out a comparative analysis of political advertising texts in France and Russia but pays more attention to the visual types of advertisement rather than to the audiovisual ones. Besides, the material studied by Y.K. Kryuchkina [4] refers to an earlier period of time than the political clips considered in the present article. Therefore, the fractional study of the topic under investigation and the recency of the material precondition the timeliness of the present research.

Method

The article examines the compositional structure of video clips as one aspect of a deeper linguistic analysis of this political advertisement genre. Also, the clips are regarded from the point of view of some content particularities which are directly related to the text structure.

The studied material is regarded in compliance with the discursive approach as well as with the use of structural and rhetorical analysis methods. The discursive approach is

totally reasonable when studying political advertisement texts. Indeed, it is necessary to consider the linguistic material 'in the context of the political situation in which it was created, in correlation with other texts <...>, in accordance with the author's political views and personal qualities as well as the specificity of its perception by different people' [14, P. 9]. This comprehensive approach allows a deeper vision of different linguistic details and a better understanding of the situation as a whole.

The methods of structural and rhetorical analysis are basically used to deal with creolized texts representing an ensemble of linguistic and iconic [12, P. 175], verbal and non-verbal components, which is the case of political video clips.

Discussion

Altogether, 28 video clips (from the first round of elections) with the total length of approximately 35 minutes have been analysed in the course of the present research. Each of the 11 candidates for presidency in France (Marine Le Pen, Emmanuel Macron, François Fillon, Benoît Hamon, Jean-Luc Mélenchon, Nicolas Dupont-Aignan, Nathalie Arthaud, François Asselineau, Jean Lassalle, Jacques Cheminade and Philippe Poutou) has presented at least two clips, each lasted from 1.5 to 4 minutes. The majority of the candidates released two or three clips, except for Philippe Poutou who came up with at least ten. However, it seems that quantity in this case is not transformed into quality as P. Poutou's videos completely differ in style from those of the other contenders and look more like soap opera series. Of all Poutou's clips, only one has a similar format to the videos of the other candidates and only this one, in our view, is suitable for analysis.

During the first round of the presidential campaign 2017, most clips were broadcasted on the television in groups of 10 with a common lead-in. Thus, each release contained a varied set of videos from different candidates. Moreover, each clip is available on Youtube up to now. Some candidates, e.g. Jean-Luc Mélenchon, issued non-official videos, apart from the official ones.

In terms of composition, the texts in most of the clips are similar or, more precisely, look like candidates' monologues aiming at persuading the electorate to vote for a particular contender. The structure of these texts is quite simple: we can distinguish the introduction, the main part and the conclusion. In some cases a slogan and/or contact information are also present at the end of the clip.

Concerning the introduction, several tendencies can be noticed. First of all, in this part of the clip, candidates usually (though not always) address the voters. Some politicians use the introduction to state their aims and/or the problem they are going to discuss in the main part. For example, Emmanuel Macron always clearly sets the topic of speech: *Chers compatriotes, je veux vous parler de notre jeunesse...* – *Dear compatriots, I want to talk to you about our youth...*; *Chers compatriotes, je veux vous parler de l'égalité...* – *Dear compatriots, I want to talk to you about the equality...* Another candidate, Benoît Hamon, uses the same strategy in some of his clips: *Je veux vous parler de travail, d'emploi et de pouvoir d'achat.* – *I want to talk to you about work, employment and purchasing power.* The theme of the following speech is also stated in the introduction of some clips of Marine Le Pen (*Mes chers compatriotes de métropole et d'outre-mer, sans une éducation et une formation solides, l'avenir, de nos jeunes est compromis.* – *My dear compatriots from France and from the overseas departments, without proper education and instruction, our children's future is*

threatened), Jean Lassalle (*Le temps est venu de nous délivrer des chaînes de l'oppression financière.* – *It is time to get free from the chains of financial oppression*) and Nathalie Arthaud (*Le chômage est le fléau qui pèse sur toute la société.* – *The unemployment is the burden that puts pressure on the whole society*). Other candidates' clips lack a clear statement of the speech topic, which does not contribute well to the perception of information. Moreover, in some of the studied clips, the appeal to the audience is totally absent, for instance, in all the videos issued by Jacques Cheminade, Philippe Poutou, Jean-Luc Mélenchon as well as in the majority of Nathalie Arthaud's clips and in some by François Fillon. As a result, there is an impression that these politicians either continue an interrupted speech or just demonstrate disrespect to the voters.

Sometimes, on the contrary, the speaker is very attentive to the audience and emphasizes (in the introduction) that his/her goals and interests are the same as those of the voters. In this way, the candidate wants to show that he/she is one of them. This is particularly characteristic of Benoît Hamon's (*Mes chers compatriotes, comme beaucoup d'entre vous, je suis farouchement européen* – *Dear compatriots, like many of you, I am a fervent European*) and Nicolas Dupont-Aignan's clips (*Comme vous, je suis bercé depuis l'enfance par ses paysages, son histoire, ses valeurs.* – *Just like you, I have been cradled since by childhood by its [French] landscapes, its history, its values*). This technique aims at holding the audience's attention and provoking people's sympathy towards the candidate.

One more technique that some participants of the presidential campaign used at the beginning of their clips is an attention-grabbing phrase appealing to the voters' emotions in the first place and thereby inciting the audience to continue watching the clip. Interestingly, Marine Le Pen and Nicolas Dupont-Aignan used absolutely identical attention-grabbing phrases at the beginning of some clips: *J'aime la France – I love France.* A similar technique can be observed in videos released by François Asselineau (*Le vrai sujet de l'élection présidentielle est l'indépendance de la France.* – *The real subject of the presidential elections is the independence of France*), Benoît Hamon (*La France est aujourd'hui saisie par le doute.* – *France is assailed by doubts today*), François Fillon (*La France ne peut plus subir sans réagir.* – *France cannot suffer without action any more*) and some other candidates. The use of an attention-grabbing phrase at the beginning of a clip is quite effective, especially if this sentence reflects the topic of the following discourse at the same time. No doubt that many candidates resorted to this technique.

In the introductions of several video clips, the politicians oppose themselves to their rivals accentuating the advantages and strengths of their own programme or tactics. This is particularly noticeable in clips of Jacques Cheminade (*Je pourrais faire comme les autres candidats et aligner des mesures pour soulager les urgences...* – *I could do like the other candidates and list the measures to ease the urgent issues...*) and Nathalie Arthaud (*La plupart des candidats expliquent que les entreprises ne peuvent pas augmenter le SMIC.* – *The majority of the candidates explain why they cannot raise the SMIC [the guaranteed minimum wage]*). In this case we can observe examples of the so called subvertisement: the politicians tend to show their best advantages as opposed to the other candidates whose drawbacks they outline. However, using such phrases at the very beginning of the speech is not quite appropriate, in our opinion, especially since the clips of the above mentioned

candidates completely lack the address to the voters. Concerning J. Cheminade and N. Arthaud's videos, there are also non-verbal factors that play a negative role in their perception (the so called 'speaking head' on a unicoloured background as well as the fast speech tempo). Nevertheless, judging only by the clip introduction, one could get quite an unpleasant impression of these videos.

In some of the studied clips, the beginning differs considerably from the following parts of the text, having the form of a separate video fragment directly connected to the candidate's political programme. For instance, in the opening part of one of Marine Le Pen's clips, the narrator's role is given to one of her prospective voters – a student worried about the employment difficulties she might encounter after her graduation. This is the way the clip creators state the topic of the main part in the introduction. In the described example, it is the education and employment problem which Marine Le Pen promises to solve as soon as possible.

Finally, we cannot but mention the introduction to Philippe Poutou's clip (the only one studied) as it stands in stark contrast to the other candidates' videos. Instead of addressing the voters, this contender for the presidency names himself and formulates the aim of his clip in a rather laconic and rude way: *Je m'appelle Philippe Poutou, ouvrier anticapitaliste. Il faut qu'on parle. – My name is Philippe Poutou, a worker-anticapitalist. It is necessary to talk.* Earlier, it was mentioned that most of P. Poutou's clips do not accord with the political clip format due to their style and discourse particularities. The clip quoted above is relatively close in terms of format to the other candidates' videos. However, even judging by the opening phrases, it is obvious that P. Poutou tends to use the informal style in his speech, which is not characteristic of the other contenders for the presidency.

In the main part of the video clips, candidates briefly present their programmes (the most topical and important aspects for voters) and/or their views on a particular issue or situation in the society. From the compositional point of view, the main parts of the studied clips do not have significant particularities.

The closing part (conclusion) of the videos in question is mainly represented by one or two sentences. This can be explained by special features of the video clip genre, especially by its short duration. Nevertheless, we can outline several variations of the closing part in the studied videos:

1. The candidate summarizes the speech and draws conclusions (M. Le Pen, N. Dupont-Aignan, N. Arthaud, B. Hamon, F. Asselineau, J.-L. Mélenchon (in some of his clips)).
2. The candidate appeals to the electorate to vote for him, to make their choice and/or to act together with this politician (E. Macron, N. Dupont-Aignan, J. Cheminade, B. Hamon, N. Arthaud, F. Fillon, J.-L. Mélenchon, P. Poutou)
3. The closing phrase or the text on the screen represents the candidate's slogan (M. Le Pen, N. Arthaud, B. Hamon, J.-L. Mélenchon, F. Fillon, P. Poutou)
4. The clip finishes by the phrase: *Vive la République et vive la France ! – Long live the Republic and long live France !* (J. Lassalle, F. Fillon)

Special focus should be placed on the composition of some clips by Jean-Luc Mélenchon as it differs considerably

from that of the other candidates' videos (except for P. Poutou's clips the special features of which were mentioned earlier). Each of J.-L. Mélenchon's clips under consideration consists of two parts (the first is much longer than the second). In the first part, the audience is shown a hypothetical situation in the life of common people one year after J.-L. Mélenchon having won the elections. The offscreen voice comments on the changes and improvements that have taken place so far. In the second part of the clip, J.-L. Mélenchon explains briefly the essence of his programme. The content of the second part is the same for all the videos of this kind. Actually, it plays the role of a conclusion, though quite a long one. In the very end, the audience can see the candidate's slogan as well as his contact information on the screen. This specific clip structure has substantial advantages because it helps to switch the viewers' attention and, thus, stir up their interest.

Meanwhile, the other clips of J.-L. Mélenchon (both official and non-official) are less structured and actually represent a mere stream of words addressed to the voters. Besides, this train of thoughts lacks any introduction or logical conclusion. Finally, such clips often start with a shredded sentence, which complicates the perception of information even more.

Results

Concerning the compositional structure of the studied video clips, we can list several advantages that distinguish the well-structured ones:

- addressing the voters at the beginning of the clip;
- clear statement of the speech topic;
- a relevant attention-grabbing opening phrase;
- consistency and clarity of the information presentation;
- appropriate and balanced use of additional video plots;
- conclusion at the end of the clip (at least in the form of an appeal to the voters).

Taking into consideration the above mentioned criteria, the most structurally effective, in our point of view, are the clips released by E. Macron, F. Asselineau, M. Le Pen (some videos), J.-L. Mélenchon (the clips representing the view from the future) and B. Hamon.

Conclusion

In general, the compositional structure of any text, regardless of its genre, influences its perception by the target audience. As for the political advertisement, its text structure is particularly important. The impact of a media text on the voters and, hence, on their commitment to the corresponding candidate hugely depends on how logically, clearly and skillfully the text is built. Certainly, the electorate's attitude towards this or that candidate is influenced by a great number of factors but the composition of political advertising texts is not the least one in terms of importance.

In the perspective, we are going to continue the comprehensive analysis of modern political video texts in France and study other aspects such as the use of expressive means, verbalization of the 'addresser-addressee' relations, the text tonality, correlation of verbal and non-verbal components.

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.11.11>Тюрина С.Ю.¹, Староверова Е.Б.²¹Доцент, кандидат филологических наук, ²Доцент, Ивановский государственный энергетический университет**АКЦЕНТ И ЕГО ВОСПРИЯТИЕ В ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОМ ДИСКУРСЕ****Аннотация**

В работе исследуются вопросы восприятия иностранного акцента в профессиональном дискурсе. Актуальность работы определяется ростом академической и профессиональной мобильности в современном обществе. Акцент рассматривается в контексте проблемы эффективности речевой коммуникации. Описываются функциональные и прагматические особенности профессионального дискурса. В исследовании используются качественные и количественные методы для сбора и обработки данных. На основе полученных данных сделан вывод о роли акцента в профессиональном дискурсе. Результаты исследования могут быть интересны специалистам в области фонетики и преподавания иностранного языка для профессиональных целей.

Ключевые слова: иноязычное образование, иностранный акцент, профессиональный дискурс.

Tyurina S.Yu.¹, Staroverova E.B.²¹Associate professor, PhD in Philology, ²Associate professor, Ivanovo State Power University**FOREIGN ACCENT PERCEPTION IN PROFESSIONAL DISCOURSE****Abstract**

This paper examines the attitude to the accent in professional discourse. The paper focuses on linguistic approach to accent, thus, the communicative effect of accent in professional discourse is evaluated. Discourse is considered as one of the key concepts of contemporary thinking. The key goal is to study how native speaking and non-native speaking people evaluate the accents in professional sphere. The study is considered to have important implications due to academic and professional mobility. Both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect and analyze data were used. The results of the research may be interesting for phoneticians and ESP teachers.

Keywords: foreign language teaching, foreign accent, professional discourse.

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Introduction

One of the major concern Second Language (L2) learners face is accented speech. The issue of *foreign accent* has gained much attention in recent studies. Accent-related issues are given much attention due to growing awareness of the key role of pronunciation in communication. Studies have shown that listeners can recognize accent easily [7].

Recent studies cover issues of speech comprehensibility, different attitude towards non-native accents of English, foreign accent perception and production, factors that affect the degree of foreign accent and the ways to minimize it, foreign accent problem of non-native teachers etc. [1]; [8]; [10]. The number of studies focused on the relationship between language learner's identity and accent [4]. However, the number of researches to examine perception of foreign accent in professional discourse is rather limited. Therefore, this paper is intended to highlight the attitude to accent in professional discourse.

Accent-related issue

Accent-related issues are discussed by different branches of linguistics, such as phonetics, sociolinguistics, second language acquisition and language teaching; thus, the term *accent* is viewed according to their own theoretical framework and the focus of the research interest.

In general, *accent* is defined as a manner of pronunciation. In terms of phonetics, O'Grady gives a narrow definition of accent as a certain type of pronunciation that is determined by the phonetic characteristics of the speaker's mother tongue [9]. From the point of sociolinguistics accent is the characteristic we use to identify someone as unfamiliar or foreign. Accent in terms of sociolinguistics is a symbol of social identity.

Macmillan English Dictionary defines *accent* as "a way of saying words that shows what country, region or, social class someone comes from" [6, P. 7]. Can it be considered as a hint on accent discrimination? Is it accepted in the modern society? And in the professional community?

According to the survey [3], 53% of nonnative English speakers in Canada believed that they would be respected more if they spoke with a native like accent. Speakers with strong foreign accent feel themselves like an outsider, studies say [2]. Therefore, nonnative speakers try to modify their communication according to situational, personal, or interactional variables. The reason is that the speaker wants to be understood or to assert him/herself as belonging to the community [5].

If speech is considered in the linguistic context, the communicative effectiveness is important. The native speakers will evaluate the speech in terms of communicative effectiveness. Therefore, the speech is considered to be defective if the presented ideas are not clear due to speaker's foreign accent.

It is important to distinguish a foreign accent and a dialect. A dialect may be defined as speech habits of the person at the given time and at the given place. And a foreign accent is an overlap of speech which leads to interference between a native language and a second language.

So, the paper focuses on *linguistic* approach to accent, thus, the communicative effect of accent in professional discourse is evaluated.

Professional discourse issue

The paper is aimed at studying the attitude to accent in professional discourse. Discourse is considered as one of the key concepts of contemporary thinking as it concerns the ways language mediates and shapes interactions in social, political and cultural spheres of life.

When we talk about professional discourse, we mean some practical English command of the language of professional discourse: the commands of English related to a specific job, communicative tasks and purposes in professional environment. These tasks and purposes are determined not by the criteria of everyday life but by functional and practical language requirements of professional community.

The fact is that professional communication is cognitively demanding, it means that success of interaction depends on speech production quality. Accent as the indicator that identity may influence communication fluency. Non-native accents can make speech more difficult to parse and thereby may reduce cognitive fluency. So, comprehensibility and intelligibility are the key elements in professional communication.

Can an employer deny a job to a non-native speaker arguing that a foreign accent impairs communication skills essential at the workplace? Studies show that speakers with certain accents may experience discrimination in employment and are more likely to be evaluated negatively [11].

Present study

The study is aimed to investigate the attitude to accents in professional discourse. Native speakers took part in this research. To conduct the research some background information was asked (sex, age, ethnicity, country of residence, professional sphere). Respondents come from a wide range of backgrounds and from countries.

Method

A mixed approach was used in the study; firstly, quantitative method to collect and analyze data in order to get answers to the research questions was used; secondly, qualitative method in the form of interview was applied. Follow up interviews were carried out with the participants.

The data was collected by means of the questionnaire and the follow up interviews. The aim of the interview was to go further insights into the results.

Data analysis

The data collected by means of the questionnaire was analyzed quantitatively. The background data was analyzed by means of descriptive statistics. Most of the participants are male (62.5 %); most of them are from the UK and a quarter of them is from Germany, the rest is from France and America. Most of the participants are between 40 and 45 years old, a quarter of them is between 60 and 65. The average age of the participants is 47.

The participants are from different professional backgrounds, most of them are from academic institutions. The analyses of the answers to the key research issues shows that most of the participants (87.5 %) can recognize native speakers and non-native at their work place, and they can hear any accent of their customers/ partners/ colleagues. However, only a quarter of them (25 %) can distinguish the accent at the work place. More than a half of the respondents (62.5 %) have no "association" when they distinguish the accent, a quarter of them (25 %) can identify the nonnative speaker and only 12.5 % can name the country. It is interesting to note that most of the participants (87.25 %) admit that accent affects professional communication, but rather slightly (81.25 %), only 6.25 % says accent affects professional communication considerably. Foreign accent slightly affects the content in professional communication,

62.5% says and most of the participants (81.25 %) always are able to understand their nonnative speaking customers, partners, or colleagues in professional situation. As for personal communication, only a quarter of respondents (25 %) admits that accent affects it. Accent slightly affects the content in personal communication and most of the participants (81.25 %) always are able to understand their fellows. The fact is that more than half of the participants have many nonnative speakers at their work place (56.25 %) and a few among friends (56.25 %).

Interview Data Analysis

Four people were interviewed to get more clarified answers to the research issued. The interview was carried out in English.

Lady A, 65, Germany, retired. She had been in business for more than 30 years and did not have any difficulties to understand a nonnative speaker counterpart in professional communication. Now, she has many friends in Russia, Vietnam and other countries. "I can easily communicate with them and really enjoy it", she says.

Lady N, 33, France, a ski instructor. Every day she deals with many people from different countries. "Accent is not a problem in my profession neither with my colleagues nor with customers", she says.

Mr. C, 44, England, a military man. He mentioned there was no problem to understand the command and to follow the instruction. Mr. C is married to a Russian girl and adores her accent. It does not interfere every day communication, it makes it pleasant.

Mr. D, 33, America, Information Technology company. He is sure accent does not play any role in IT sphere. "There are a lot of people from China, India, Russia and all of them are professionals in IT technology. The knowledge is important", he says.

Conclusion

This paper examined perception of foreign accent in professional discourse and the attitude to accent in professional discourse. The results show that most of the participants have many nonnative speakers at the working place and can recognize nonnative speakers in professional communication. Accent slightly affects professional communication. It means that in professional communication content is important, while native speakers focusing on the content they do not pay great attention to the accent. The results of the interview prove that in professional discourse knowledge is profound.

Accent affects personal communication slightly, says 81.25 % of the participants. Some of them find accent-speaking people attractive.

Although further study is required to gain a more thorough analysis to examine attitude to various accents in professional discourse, the findings of this research may suggest some pedagogical approach to study English for Special Purposes.

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ИСПОЛЬЗОВАНИЕ БЕЗРЕФЕРЕНТНОЙ ЛЕКСИКИ В НАУЧНОМ ТЕКСТЕ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается феномен употребления безреферентных слов в научном тексте по лингвистике. В традиционной логике слова с несуществующим референтом рассматриваются как ложные или ошибочные, однако в современной философии языка им придается иной смысл, диктуемый прагматикой языка. В статье приводятся аргументы в пользу того, что безреферентная лексика может использоваться и в научном тексте как инструмент, позволяющий лучше понять теоретическую мысль исследователя. Использование безреферентной лексики в научном тексте определяется индивидуальным стилем автора.

Ключевые слова: референция, ложный референт, научный текст, фантастика, идиостиль.

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THE USE OF NON-REFERENTIAL WORDS IN ACADEMIC TEXTS

Abstract

The article deals with the phenomenon of non-referential word use in academic texts on linguistics. In traditional logic words with no real referents were considered to be false or erroneous, though in modern philosophy of language they gain a different meaning thanks to pragmatics. The author gives arguments for the fact that non-referential words can be used in academic texts as tools in grasping researcher's theoretical idea. The use of non-referential words in academic texts is determined by the individual writing style of researchers.

Keywords: reference, false referent, academic discourse, fiction, individual style.

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Introduction

The category of fantasticism that I defined [1], [2], [7] as a category of thought with a specific use of power of imagination has two main ways of representation in language: by means of metaphor and by words and expressions that have no referents in reality. My study of the role of fantasy in academic texts on linguistics (by U. Eco, R.A. Harris, R. Harris, S. Shaumyan and others) led me to the idea that academic knowledge can be expressed by words that have no real referents. Beside metaphors that have an acknowledged power to reveal the important sides of phenomena making use of fantasy, words that are not related to any existing referents and that are used in the text not metaphorically can also be used in academic language as a means of reasoning and persuasion. In this paper the non-referential means of representation of the category of fantasticism in academic texts is considered. The terms non-referential words and words with false / fictional referents are used as synonymous because they all represent particular sides of the category of fantasticism with a stress laid on different aspects of the category interpretation [2].

Methods

The methods of study of non-referential words in academic texts are logical, semiotic and lexicological types of analysis. Words with no real referent, or empty words, have been studied by many outstanding philosophers, logicians, linguists and semioticians (B. Russell, Ch. Piers, R. Bart, H. Weinrich, Yu. Lotman and others).

Discussion

Traditionally word is viewed as shorthand for an object in reality. But this claim was challenged many times throughout the history of language study. Let us begin with considering the views of the four mainstream philosophies of language on words and their referents: ideal language philosophy, ordinary language philosophy, cognitivism and the new language philosophy.

Within the framework of ideal language philosophy words that referred to real, i.e. existing objects were considered as 'true' words, and words that didn't have any existing referents in reality were named 'empty names'.

Bertrand Russell's widely known example with the word "unicorn" demonstrates the gist of the classical theory of reference [9]. It consisted mainly in the idea that if a word had no referent neither it had any meaning. Such conclusion led to the stripping of a great part of vocabulary of its right to have meaning. This view however is valuable for the study of non-referential means of representation of the category of fantasticism as it gives us a tool to single out in the text any word and expression that represent constructive fantasy. Under the term 'constructive fantasy' I mean any fiction of imagination that transfers a meaningful idea from the world of nonexistent objects into text shaping its cognitive content.

Ordinary language philosophy restored the right to have meaning to the words like 'unicorn'. Its main claim was that word had conventional meaning and that meanings of words depended on pragmatics. Thus, we all understand the word 'unicorn' though it has no real referent. We have a picture of a unicorn in our head, along with the associations connected with this image. So there is a good reason to use a word 'unicorn' in our speech hinting at some similarity of the image it has, and another image or object of reality.

Further illustration of viability of ideas of ordinary language study on non-referential words or words with false referents can be the use of such words in the text of a myth or, to be more precise, a contemporary literary rendering of a myth. The text of a myth has two intertwined layers – fictitious and pragmatic. Initially it was a narration about the creation of the world and the explanation of the natural phenomena of the world [3, P. 16]. At least it was perceived as such by primitive people. For this reason in such texts there are many non-referential words that describe some 'supernatural' structures of the world. From the standpoint of a contemporary intellect such words are absolutely empty, they transfer either void figments or erroneous knowledge.

Cognitive approach to the language has connected word meaning with mental states they express [6]. It has been claimed that most of these mental states get their meanings through reference to the external world [8, P. 559]. I believe that words that have no real referent in this external world evoke the strongest mental response because they make

reference to the mental images. These mental images are not bound by strong rules of a physical world; they are quite flexible to the mind and allow constructing new knowledge on their basis. Thus for example, the word “centaur” could be used metaphorically in an academic text [10]. Though “centaur” has no real referent, it has the ability to convey a new conceptual meaning, like “centaur phoneme” or “centaur concept”.

The new philosophy of language that emerged in the 70s of the XXth century combines the ideas of the previous three philosophies. In general it is concerned about the connection between words and reality, it is descriptive, it distinguishes between what is said and what is meant, it draws attention to the mental states of the language user, and it is concerned with making semantic and pragmatic theories consistent.

Modern philosophers of language hold the idea of referential intuitions [5]. In their view reference of words can be verified by language users because referential intuitions are mainly about linguistic usage of words. Thus reference is considered from the two main points: as semantic reference and as speaker's reference. Semantic reference deals with fixed meanings of words and speaker's reference deals with speaker's intentions.

Results

As we have seen, the study of words with fictional referents mainly concentrates on the following ideas: a) these words are empty and false; b) they reflect erroneous ideas of speakers. But how are we to understand academic texts that make most use of false or, rather, fictional referents? What is the aim of such words in academic discourse?

There are plenty of texts in the field of both science and the humanities that abound with words with fictional referents. One of the genius examples of the use of such words is the article ‘On Truth: A Fiction’ written by Umberto Eco [4]. The whole article is created in the form of a recording of the conversations between Terrestrials – researchers from the Earth, and Antipodeans, inhabitants of the Twin Earth. Researchers from the Earth try to learn the way of thinking, reasoning and understanding of Antipodeans. Let us consider the passage from the article:

“The members of Putnam's expedition on Twin Earth were defeated by dysentery. [...] Next came Rorty's expedition. In this case, the native informants called

Antipodeans, were tested in order to discover whether they had feelings and / or mental representations elicited by the word *water*. It is well known that the explorers were unable to ascertain whether or not Antipodeans had a clear distinction between mind and matter, since they used to speak only in terms of the state of their nerves. If an infant neared a hot stove, his mother cried: *Oh my God, he will stimulate his C-fibers!* instead of saying *It looked like an elephant, but then it struck me that elephants don't occur on this continent, so I realized that it must be a mastodon*, they used to say *I had G-412 together with F-11, but then I had S-147*” [4, P. 262].

The author of the article consciously chooses the non-referential words (*Putnam's expedition, Twin Earth, Rorty's expedition, Antipodean, C-fibers, mastodon, G-412, F-11, S-147, etc.*) and creates a fictional ‘pretend’ story. It is wrong to say that these words with fictional referents are ‘empty’, they surely have definite pragmatic meaning. In the case of the above example they imply just about the following: *Putnam's research; unknown culture or civilization; Rorty's research; natives of the civilization under study; nerve receptors; big mammal; belief; understanding; knowledge*. This ‘pretend’ story represents a mental experiment constructed by the author to make his theoretical idea more vivid though sometimes a bit ambiguous. Ambiguity in this case allows adding our own ideas, expanding what have been said by the author. It seems that such story based on words with fictional referents is akin to a myth: it has two layers of reality – one made up and another implied.

Conclusion

Imagination and fantasy are the tools of all kinds of art and creativity, from literary creativity to scientific research. The scientific journal named *Futures* edited by Elsevier Science Ltd. deals with the problem of conceptual foresight and predicting possible ways of development of different fields of science, though the mere concept of foresight and predicting is based on imagination. It proves the belief of academic people in constructive power of imagination and ability to operate with fictional concepts to construct new theoretical ideas. In my opinion the use of non-referential words in academic discourse is an effective tool of stimulating creative thinking. It is also characteristic for individual style of only particular researchers.

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ТИПЫ ТЕКСТОВ И ПРОБЛЕМА ПЕРЕВОДИМОСТИ**Аннотация**

В статье с новых позиций рассматриваются возможности текстоцентрического подхода к процессу и результату переводческой деятельности и подтверждается неизблемость текста как основной категории переводоведения. В результате исследования было показано, что многогранный характер перевода требует учета самых разнообразных факторов, однако конечный набор параметров, релевантных для процесса перевода зависит именно от текста, поскольку именно текст детерминирует первичную и вторичную коммуникативные ситуации.

Ключевые слова: тип текста, социолект, художественный перевод.

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TEXT TYPES AND THE PROBLEM OF TRANSLATABILITY**Abstract**

The article aims at revealing the possibilities of a textual approach to the process and result of translation activity from a new perspective and stating the inviolability of the text as the main category of Translation Studies. The results of the conducted research show that the complex nature of translation requires con-sideration of a wide variety of factors, but the final set of parameters relevant to the translation process depends on the text, since it is the text that determines the primary and secondary communicative situations.

Keywords: text type, sociolect, literary translation.

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Introduction

Approaching Translation Studies has always presented a certain theoretical difficulty since it started to be viewed as an independent science, and not as a branch of linguistics. In the history of Translation Theory, as a rule, two major approaches to Translation Studies were distinguished: literary and linguistic (e.g. I. A. Kashkin, A. V. Fedorov). In recent decades attempts have been made to single out another approach, which can be defined as 'sociocultural'. Sociocultural method of approaching translation is contrasted with the text-oriented one ('textocentric' approach), which is primarily concerned with the source text and lies within the range of linguistics. Sociocultural approach, on the contrary, deals with cultural, psychological, social phenomena, and does not consider translations as single texts, but regards them as a conglomerate of extralinguistic factors influencing the process of translation.

Method

The system of methods used in the work combines the method of comparative historical and philological research and the method of comparative linguistic analysis of the original *The Gulag Archipelago* by A. I. Solzhenitsyn [4, passim] and its translations into German [9, passim] and English [10, passim].

Discussion

The linguistic stage in the development of Translation Studies was formed in the 50s of the twentieth century, when, under the influence of the ideas of J. Firth, M. A. K. Halliday, J. Catford and others, the Theory of Translation began to be considered as a branch of linguistics. In the second half of the 1960s, there has been a significant increase in research focused mainly on the addressee of the translation and analyzing the nature of the pragmatic impact of the translated text on its recipient. The publication of A. Neubert's work *Pragmatic aspects of translation* in 1968 finally marked a 'pragmatic turn' in translation theory, announcing further approaching translation within a target-oriented framework. As it is well known, the pragmatic adequacy of translation implies the semantic equivalence of the texts of the source

language and of the target language from the point of communication, and not from purely formal positions.

A pragmatic turn in Translation Studies became a necessary premise for a culturally oriented approach to translation theory. Within the new cultural paradigm in translation, the focus shifted from a single word, a sentence or even a text, to the culture itself. As P. Ricoeur states in his work *On Translation*, "the translator does not move from the word to the sentence, to the text, to the cultural group, but conversely: absorbing the vast interpretations of the spirit of a culture, the translator comes down again from the text, to the sentence and to the word" [8, P. 31]. The increased attention to the cultural aspects of translation, emerging in the early 1980s of the twentieth century, entailed a "cultural turn" [6, P. 166], which opened a new page in the development of the science of translation.

The translation became not only a form of interlingual, but also a form of intercultural communication, entailing, according to A. Karamanian "a process of cultural de-coding, re-coding and en-coding" [7]. According to this approach translator had to be not only bilingual but also bi(multi)cultural, as he has turned to a mediator of cultures. Gradually, the research scope of Translation Studies included the study of the sociolinguistic and ethnopsycholinguistic factors influencing the process and result of translation, the special features of translation activity, related to the interpreter's personality as a secondary linguistic personality (Khaleeva 1989), the psycholinguistic aspects of interpreter's activity (Pischalnikova 1999; Pshenkina 2005; Sorokin, Markovina 1988), etc.

Summing up numerous studies devoted to various aspects of the status of the modern Theory of Translation, V. Sdobnikov came to the conclusion that the anthropocentric approach, involving the study not only of texts but also of those who use them and create them, has prevailed over the text-oriented one. According to the scholar, this change of paradigm laid the foundations for a new approach to the study and implementation of translation – "communicative-functional" [3, P. 6].

However, it seems that such a categorical one-sided assessment of the determinants of the translation process may turn to be rather vulnerable. Text is still the main object of the translation process, since it is the text that determines the primary and secondary communicative situations. Of course, the complicated nature of the translation requires consideration of a wide variety of factors, but the final set of parameters relevant to the translation process depends, in our opinion, primarily on the text. The importance of a text for the translation process can be assumed from the argumentation, given by I. Alekseeva, who devised a base for the translational classification of texts. The scholar argues, “texts of one type in different languages differ by formal signs on the phonetic, lexical, grammatical levels, but the same on the textual level” [1, P. 265]. The author also states that most text types are universal in nature, due to which translators rarely face troubles while translating different texts belonging to the same type.

It should be noted however, that the approach suggested by I. Alekseeva is not a universal one. It cannot be fully applied to the literary translation, since it is not only the meaning and function in the sentence that should be rendered in literary translation but the form itself, which may be important for communicating the emotional impact of the original.

Results

The degree of text universality can vary significantly. At the national level, the degree of universality of certain types of texts can significantly decrease, due to the uniqueness of historical development, political situation, specificity of mentality, and so on. As an example, we can name Russian and German literature of the twentieth century. Due to certain historical events inside the realm of two national literatures appeared the similar current, which was later defined as camp literature.

The uniqueness of the camp literature lies in the fact that its distribution historically is due mainly to two countries – the USSR and Germany (although some books from camp literature were created and published in many countries of the world). If we compare texts from the corps of camp literature in both cultures, we will see that even at the level of genre forms, in the overwhelming majority of cases, the types of texts will be identical. Novels (A. Solzhenitsyn *In the First Circle*, O. Volkov *Drowning into the Darkness*, V. Semin *Breastplate ‘OST’*, etc., A. Seghers *Das siebte Kreuz*, B. Apitz *Nacht unter Wölfen*, W. Bredel *Die Prüfung*), stories (B. Dyakov *The Story of my Life*, L. Vakulovskaya *Tungsten – a solid metal*, etc., K. Mundstock *Sonne in der Mitternacht*, S. Hermlin *Die Kommandeuse*); plays (A. Solzhenitsyn *The Love-Girl and the Innocent*, etc., P. Weiss *Die Ermittlung*); memoirs (A. Sandler, M. Etlis *Contemporaries of the Gulag: Book of Memories and Reflections*, *Living in the Gulag*, etc. K. Fraedrich *Im GULAG der Frauen*, P. Epp *Ob tausend fallen ..*); diaries (Y. Sokolova *From the diary (1937-1938)*, N. Lugovskaya *I want to live... From the diaries of the schoolgirl: 1932-1937*, etc. R. Laqueur *Schreiben im KZ. Tagebücher 1940-1945*) (see more in: [2, P. 58-69]).

The presence of texts of the same type in different languages greatly simplifies the task of the translator, leveling to some extent the specificity of the language in which the text was created. In other words, the complexity of

the translation of Russian camp literature depends greatly not only on the specificity of the source and target languages, but on the presence or absence in the target language culture of texts with a similar communicative function and subject content that could serve as a kind of ‘donor texts’, thoroughly scrutinized by E. Narbut in her dissertation thesis [2, passim].

As an illustration, let us compare the translations of one of Solzhenitsyn's most famous works, *Gulag Archipelago*, into English and German. Analyzing the numerous reviews and critical articles on translations of the *Gulag Archipelago* into English and German, one cannot help but noticing the general positive evaluation of the German translation, on one hand, and many negative reviews about the translation in English, on the other. The translation in German was made by A. Peturnig, a specialist in both Russian and German, the author of the English translation (Vol. I and II) was T. Whitney, an experienced translator, who had translated Solzhenitsyn more than once before. Analyzing the reasons for translation inadequacies in the English and German versions of the translation, A. Bond notes that A. Peturnig originally had more advantages than the American translator: “it must be questioned whether P. (A. Peturnig — E.K.) enjoyed an advantage, to a degree, over a W. (T. Whitney — E.K.) which lies outside a competence as a translator” [5, P. 311]. The reasons for translation failures in the English translation A. Bond seeks mainly in significant discrepancies in the language structures of Russian and English, with their relative similarity in Russian and German.

However, in our opinion, the main reason why the German translation was mainly characterized as one of the most successful translations of A. I. Solzhenitsyn, while the translation into English, according to the reviewers, accurately conveyed only the content of the original, lies not in the discrepancies in the language structures. T. Whitney more than A. Peturnig had to face not only the differences in the linguistic structures of the English and Russian languages, but also in the ‘worlds’ themselves, that is, in the objects and phenomena described. The whole system of execution of punishment in the Soviet Union was so specific that it cannot even approximately be identified with similar institutions in the UK or the US. T. Whitney, therefore, had to solve the problem of transmitting the subject matter of the narrative. The situation is different with the translation into German. The use of similar camp systems in the USSR and Germany affected the wide dissemination of specific camp vocabulary in both languages, which was not and could not be the case in English-speaking countries where there was no system of concentration camps.

Conclusion

Coming back to the idea set forth by I. Alekseeva on universal nature of text types, we can continue that the degree of universality of text types can vary significantly. Certain types of texts, such as sociolect texts to which the texts of camp literature belong, may rank from monocultural, i.e. existing in a particular national culture, to polycultural, existing in several national cultures, and universal, lacking the links with a specific national culture. The degree of the universality of a certain text influences its translatability, due to the existence or absence of the corps of texts of the same type, serving as donor-texts for the translator.

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АКСИОЛОГИЧЕСКИЕ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИКИ ДИСКУРСОВ ПЕРСОНАЖЕЙ СОВРЕМЕННОЙ ДЕТСКОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЫ

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются тексты современной детской литературы с точки зрения лингвоаксиологии. Объект исследования в данной статье – дискурс персонажа детской литературы 2000-х гг., предмет рассмотрения – аксиологические приоритеты данных персонажей, выраженные с помощью их отношения к объектам разных языков и культур. Основная цель исследования – показать релятивность аксиологической шкалы персонажей современной детской литературы, которая проявляется в специфических аксиогенных ситуациях. В качестве материала выступают романы Бориса Акунина и Глории Му «Детская книга» и «Детская книга для девочек».

Ключевые слова: лингвоаксиология, современная детская литература, иностранные языки.

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AXIOLOGY OF CONTEMPORARY CHILDREN'S LITERATURE CHARACTERS' DISCOURSES

Abstract

The article considers contemporary children's literature from the axiological linguistics point of view. The object under consideration is the discourse of a children's literature character of the 2000s. The article analyzes axiological priorities of these characters expressed in their attitudes to different language and cultural objects. The article aims in revealing the relativity of the axiological scale of contemporary children's literature characters, which is shown in specific axiogenic situations. The texts under consideration are the novels of *Children's Book* and *Children's Book for Girls* by Boris Akinin and Gloria Mu.

Keywords: axiological linguistics, contemporary children's literature, foreign languages.

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Introduction

The article deals with contemporary children's literature from the axiological linguistics point of view. The object under consideration is the discourse of a children's literature character of the 2000s. The article analyzes axiological priorities of these characters expressed in their attitudes to different language and cultural objects (see also: [7], [8], [9]). Texts under consideration are the novels of *Children's Book* and *Children's Book for Girls* by Boris Akinin [1], [2] and Gloria Mu [6]. The article aims in revealing the relativity of the axiological scale of contemporary children's literature characters, which is shown in specific axiogenic situations.

Method

The main methods used in axiological linguistics are discourse analysis and conceptual analysis. Methodology of axiological linguistic researches is based on hermeneutics, conceptology, and discourse analysis procedures. Studying axiogenic situations in children's literature texts, we reveal different types of values in contemporary children's literature characters' discourses.

Discussion

Axiogenic situations are thought of as "situations, which are closely connected to values definitions" [4, P. 7]. Understanding that "the list of axiogenic situations is very long and quite analogical to the list of main plots in the world literature" [4, P. 8], we can see the main axiogenic situation for the protagonists of the trilogy of *Children's Book* as the situation of the fight between the Good and the Evil, Love and Hate in the world. The point of view at this situation, which is given by a person from the future, the professor Van Dorn, to the main character of the *Children's Book*, Erast (Lastik) Fandorin, is rather pragmatic: *Известно ли вам, мой дорогой родственник, что Добра и Зла в мире поровну, ровно грамм в грамм? Именно поэтому мир все время балансирует между двумя этими энергетическими полюсами, качаясь то в одну, то в другую сторону* [1, P. 55]. The opposite of the professor

Van Dorn is Lusinda Grey who told to Lastik's sister, Gelya Fandorina, about the diamond called a "Paradise Apple": *Вопрос Добра и Зла – главный вопрос на свете. Для мужчин. Для женщин же – Любовь. Добро – штука хорошая, кто спорит, но есть вещи, которые не могут предназначаться для всех и быть поровну на всех поделенными. ...Справедливый мир, в котором не правит Любовь, – это ужасно. Любовь выше справедливости и выше всего на свете* [6, P. 42-43]. Manipulating with the Fandorin juniors, Lastik and Gelya, to achieve their own goals, the professor Van Dorn and Lusinda Grey announce the "Paradise Apple" diamond to be the "quintessence of the Evil" [1, P. 55] and at the same time "the source of light of all-penetrating love" [6, P. 42], which can, however, turn into "the 64 carats of concentrated hatred" [6, P. 44]. Sci-fi plot of both *Children's Books* is pictured around the time travel of Lastik and Gelya, who try to find out the "Paradise Apple". Lastik goes to the past and future through the chronoholes [1, P. 65]; Gelya appears in the past in the body of her great-grandmother, Appolinariya Ryndina, with the help of the gadget called "Slumbercraft" [6, P. 15].

Both scientists from the future are seen by the Fandorin family as foreigners due to their speech and manner: *Пану сопровождал какой-то долговязый, сухопарый старик – сразу видно, что иностранец: в шляпе с перышком, с белым шарфом навывпуск, а в руке объемистый саквояж ярко-желтой кожи* [1, P. 30]. An ironical reminiscence to the Bulgakov's text makes a reader to appreciate the professor in a rather different way than he is appreciated by Nikolas and Lastik Fandorin. When the professor says he does not understand Russian speech quite well if he does not see the face of his counterpart [1, P. 33], it gives him even more charm in the eyes of the Fandorin family.

One more charismatic feature of the professor Van Dorn from the point of view of Lastik Fandorin is his Latin and English, used very often. The professor dubs in Russian all of his phrases in English and Latin: «*Chronohole*», или

хронодыра, мой юный друг, – это такойлаз, по которому можно попасть в другое время [1, P. 65]. Lusinda Grey is appreciated as a Hollywood actress: *Это была одна из зарубежных артисток, Геля ее в первом ряду видела. Как попала за кулисы, непонятно. Очень красивая брюнетка с короткой стрижкой и огромными зелеными глазами. Одета – с ума сойти, алые ногти чуть не по пять сантиметров, на груди кулон в виде золотой змейки, проглотившей собственный хвост. ...В другое время Геля смутилась бы. Ну, как минимум, удивилась бы: иностранка, а хорошо по-русски говорит, да еще фон Дорнов поминает* [6, P. 10]. As well as the professor does, Lusinda Grey tries to dub everything said in Latin and English using Russian: – *Ну, например, у меня есть аппарат, который я условно назвала Slumbercraft. По-русски это будет что-то вроде... – Люсинда задумалась. – Сонолет? – предположила Геля*» [6, P. 15]. Speaking foreign languages is seen by children at the beginning of the 21st century as a prestigious characteristic, which becomes the positive teleological feature of a person (cf.: [3, P. 199]). The Fandorin juniors appreciate speaking English as a psychological and utility value: both Lastik and Gelya are the so called “heritage” children, because their father, Nikolas Fandorin, was born in a Russian family in Great Britain and came into Russia as an adult person, and their mother is a Russian Tatar Altyn Mamaeva. It is interesting that the English language plays a role of a manipulating instrument to shorten a communicative distance between the “future” elder Fandorin family members and a younger generation. But when children are coming into the past, their good command in English becomes a stumble in communication for them. In this situation, the elder generation of the Fandorin family from the future is an axiological ideal pattern, whose speech with foreign phrases is copied by children: – *O’key. Времени у нас совсем мало, – кивнула Люсинда*». – *«Тогда, вскинув руки ладонями вперед, словно отодвигая от себя эту вопящую троичу, Геля выкрикнула: – Я в порядке! В порядке. Со мной все o’key! – И все сразу заткнулись. Ностало еще хуже* [6, P. 54, 70]. Axiological priorities of the characters in 1914, where Gelya comes from the 21st century, differ from hers: her colloquial English is appreciated as the consequence of her head trauma. But to exist in the past and live a usual life, Gelya needs to speak some foreign languages, which are studied in gymnasium: so, Gelya starts speaking German and French after using samsonite, an elixir modernized by Lusinda Grey. Ironical allusions to the Lewis Carroll’s text follow drinking of this “linguistic potion”: *Все страньше истранные, – пробормотала девочка; – Вот, выпей это. – А что это? – Геля не нашла на пузырьке надписи «яд», но мало ли* [6, P. 62].

This samsonite should teach the girl to speak one more “foreign” language – the pre-reformed Russian, because there can be spelling problems with it for a contemporary child. Russian as a foreign language, which needs a translation, is a stumbling point for Lastik Fandorin, too, because he appears in the 17th century coming there from the chronohole: – *Охо—хонюшки, – тяжело вздохнул Василий Иванович. – Измыслено—то гораздо. А еже дознаются? Не снесу аз грешный головы*.

Сначала вроде было понятно, но с этого места Ластик, что называется, упустил нить. Пришлось отодвинуться от дырки – снова следить по экрану.

– Ох-охонюшки (Междометие, выражающее опасение или досаду), – счел нужным пояснить унибук. – Придуманно-то искусно. А есидознаются? Не сносить

мне грешному головы [2, P. 246]. But step by step both Lastik and Gelya try to communicate effectively in the past, though aesthetic and utility appraisals [3, P. 198-199] of the world around them are mostly negative.

The only axiological priority of the old time way of life for Gelya appears to be books and their utility in everyday life routine: *Аглая Тихоновна тоже часто читала – Аннушке, пока та гладила белье, Василию Савельевичу – чтобы приспать, и Геле – просто так; и это домашнее чтение неожиданно царануло девочку по сердцу* [6, P. 99]. The habit of the family members to read aloud makes Gelya to re-focus the values of the 21st century, where it is a rule to read aloud only to little children: *На самом деле все кончилось просто – они с Эраськой выросли, научились читать, засели за книжки и ноутбуки, и папа им больше ничего не рассказывает. Да и не слушает, если честно, – наверное, ему теперь с ними скучно. У каждого своя жизнь – у папы, у мамы, у Эраськи и у нее, Гели. А вот у Рындиных почему-то общая, пусть всякий и занят своими делами* [6, P. 100]. Neither authors nor narrators of the dilogy preach at this change of axiological priorities [see also: 5, P. 34-44], but the relativity of contemporary teenagers’ axiological scale is given obviously: *И снова сталонемножко стыдно – она, конечно, очень соскучилась по маме, но если бы сейчас какой-нибудь волшебник спросил – что ты хочешь, девочка? Чтобы здесь появилась на час твоя мама или интернет? – Геля бы выбрала интернет. Без мамы можно было потерпеть, взрослая уже, а вот без интернета – как без рук* [6, P. 88]. An ethical appraisal of the axiological choice presents here (*стало немножко стыдно*), but the utility values of the information age are more relevant in the situation of the contextual information lack. Moreover, the gadgets, and not people are “rescue rangers” in any trouble. With the light irony the authors of the dilogy make gadgets “the emergency response group” for the children: the Slumbercraft takes out Gelya from the past at the moment she falls into a coma, and the unibook, as an armored jacket, saves Lastik from the bullet, which had got into his chest.

Results

The protagonists of the dilogy of *Children’s Books* by Boris Akunin and Gloria Mu get in axiogenic situations because they do not want to betray their family, friends or beloved people. Their ethical values from this point of view are absolutely stable. Psychological and aesthetic values of the 21st century teenagers are often taken from Hollywood movies and anime. Lastik believes, as a lot of boys do: *...лишь он один может сделать что-то очень-очень важное: добыть Кольцо Всевластья, найти потаенную Запертую Комнату или совершить еще какой-нибудь неслыханный подвиг* [1, P. 41]. Gelya sees the axiological ideal of male’s beauty and charm in Tamaki Suo from anime, then in Johnny Depp [6, PP. 23, 251]. Such axiological conclusions are often followed by stereotypical foreign interjections from semiotic patterns (see also: [10]): *Геля украдкой покосилась в сторону Виталика Сухарева и мысленно завизжала: «каваииии! кавииии!»*. Виталик был отаку – двинутым анимешником и, как две капли воды, походил на Тамаки Суо: беспорядочные льняные пряди падают на невозможного, фиалкового цвета глаза, лицо треугольное, совершенно кошачье, воротник белой лицейской рубашки красиво приподнят. Принц Орана, коротко говоря [6, P. 23]. But Gelya’s travel to the past makes her re-appraise her previous values: *Тот самый Виталик, в которого Геля... Нет, не так. Тот самый Виталик, о котором Геля ни разу не вспомнила за*

последние три месяца. Вот вам и любовь. Сначала подумала: какой-то он манерный и самодовольный. А потом стало стыдно. Виталик как Виталик. Он же не виноват, что ей разонравились принцы. Во всяком случае, анимешные [6, Р. 397].

When Lastik and Gelya understood that their relatives from the future are swindlers, who search for the diamond to conduct some strange and dangerous experiments, the children realize that they are responsible for the world's fate and go to search for the diamond themselves.

Conclusion

So, we can see that the aesthetic ideals and patterns of the protagonists in the dilogy by Boris Akunin and Gloria Mu are mostly taken from the Internet and Hollywood movies. That is why the scientists, who look like foreigners and Hollywood actors, can manipulate easily with the teenagers' emotions. Copying their favorite characters and "prestigious"

adults, the protagonists of the dilogy imitate their speech characteristics, installing foreign stereotypical phrases into their own speech. Speaking foreign languages is psychologically and pragmatically valuable for the main characters: in the 21st century English is acute, in the 20th century it is German and French which are prestigious. Moreover, the protagonists of the dilogy should learn Russian of different epochs as a foreign language to communicate effectively in the past.

The axiological scale of the 21st century teenagers is unstable, the preferences can be given rather to information resources and gadgets than to people. Although, we can assert the protagonists of the dilogy have stable ethical priorities. Mutual help, compassion, sympathy to the close friends, relatives and beloved people are the most stable life values of the junior generation in the Fandorin family, however, these values are appreciated rather ironically by them.

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Настоящая статья выполнена в рамках проекта по финансированию социальных наук в провинции Цзянсу «Исследование проблемы забывания письменного языка студентами колледжей провинции Цзянсу и последующее создание массового открытого курса дистанционного обучения» (№ 16YYD005), а также в рамках проекта по финансированию изучения иностранных языков в Китае «Исследование по забыванию английского языка китайскими студентами: на основе теории динамических систем» (№ ZGWYJYJJ2016B17). Исследование спонсируется проектом Цин Лан в провинции Цзянсу.

КАК СИНТАКТИЧЕСКИЕ СТРУКТУРЫ ЗАБЫВАЮТСЯ СО ВРЕМЕНЕМ: ЭМПИРИЧЕСКОЕ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЕ ПО ЗАБЫВАНИЮ СТРУКТУРЫ ВОПРОСА В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Аннотация

Цель настоящего исследования – определение влияния продолжительности неиспользования языка на процессы забывания вопросительных структур в английском языке. Участниками данного исследования стали 243 китайских выпускника, изучавших английский как иностранный язык в университете. Все они окончили университет год назад или более. В качестве основного измерения использовалась анкета, содержащая 40 английских вопросительных предложений. В настоящем исследовании не было обнаружено существенных различий в ответах студентов, окончивших университет в разное время, хотя результаты тех, кто окончил университет давно, значительно хуже. Выводы дают нам лучшее представление об изучении английского языка в Китае. Группа людей, чьи языковые навыки наиболее уязвимы к истощению – это группа студентов, закончивших университет более 8 лет назад. Соответственно, необходимо уделять больше внимания тому, как сохранить приобретенные навыки владения языком.

Ключевые слова: забывание языка, вопросительные структуры в английском языке, время неиспользования языка.

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HOW SYNTACTIC STRUCTURES DECLINE WITH TIME: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE ATTRITION OF ENGLISH INTERROGATIONS

Abstract

The study was designed to identify how time length since onset of attrition (TOA) influenced the attrition of English interrogations. The participants investigated in this study were 243 Chinese graduates who learned English as a foreign language and had graduated for at least one year. The main measurement employed was a questionnaire with 40 items of English interrogative sentences included. In the present study, no significant difference in interrogation attrition is detected among participants with different TOAs, although their performances on interrogative structures decline with increasing TOAs, i.e., lengths of disuse. The findings also shed light on English teaching and learning in China. The group of people, whose acquired language skills are most vulnerable to attrition, was identified as subjects with their TOAs being more than 8 years. Accordingly, it should deserve much more attention that how to retain their acquired language proficiency.

Keywords: Language Attrition, English Interrogation, Time Length since Onset of Attrition (TOA).

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1. Introduction

Language attrition is described as the phenomenon that learners' ability of using an acquired language regresses with time due to cease or reduction of use. Ni [8] explored eight factors namely, Proficiency level prior to attrition (PLPA), Time length since onset of attrition (TOA), exposure to target language, age at onset of language attrition, foreign language instruction, affective factors, literacy and gender affecting foreign language attrition based on a large body of review of relevant literature. Among them, TOA has been found to influence the process and rate of language attrition and to be a determinate factor. However, how will TOA pose its influence on English syntactic structures? It is of great significance and convenience to explore the interrogation attrition of participants with different TOAs, and thus make clear how TOA functions in the attrition process of English interrogations.

Before such an investigation is made, however, at least two issues should be taken into consideration. First, how long a period is the valid spectrum for language attrition? Second, how do we plot the valid spectrum into several intervals when assessing different degrees of attrition for participants with different intervals of language attrition?

The valid spectrums and intervals that the previous empirical studies adopted varied with research designs. Generally speaking, the TOAs that the previous studies involved cover four kinds of periods including 3 months, 1 to 4 years, 25 to 35 years and 50 years [7]. Cohen [3] set '3 months' as the valid spectrum for attrition since the European students' summer vacation lasts 3 months. However, since the spectrum is too short, intervals are not subdivided further and the results of these studies thus diverge to a great extent. Allendorff [1] set '18 months' as valid spectrum when investigating three children's attrition, and found their language proficiency were attrited after 18-month attrition.

Weltens et al. [10] set '4 years' as the valid spectrum, with '2 year' and '4 years' as intervals respectively. However, there were also some empirical studies with attrition spectrum being above 5 years. Hansen [4] adopted '35 years' as the valid spectrum with '5 years' and '25 years' as intervals while Bahrck (1984) adopted '50 years', also with '5 years' and '25 years' as boundaries. Ni [8], however, divided the '30 years' valid spectrum into three intervals with the adoption of the model of decision tree. Exactly put, interval one covers 1 to 4 years; interval two ranges from 4 to 8 years and interval three is above 8 years. Just following this kind of division, the present study assorted 243 participants into three groups with '4 years' and '8 years' as boundaries. To be exact, the first group consisted of 149 participants whose TOAs range from 2 to 4 years. The TOAs of second group ranged from 5 to 8 years and those of the third group were all above 8 years.

The research questions of this study are proposed as shown below.

What are the differences of attrition on people with different TOAs? How about the correlation between TOAs and interrogation attrition? Can significant difference be detected in the attrition of English interrogations for subjects with different TOAs?

2. Research Method

A cross-sectional paradigm and the technique-accuracy order were involved in the present study.

2.1 Questionnaire

In the questionnaire, a grammaticality judgment task was involved. The task included 40 sentences altogether,

grammatically correct or incorrect. Among the 40 items, there were 4 groups of items involving 10 interrogations with "be" verbs, 10 with auxiliary or Modal verbs, 10 with negative words and 10 with embedded subjects. In order to minimize the interference and maximize the reliability of the research, these 40 items were randomly arranged in the questionnaire. Besides, a five-scale Likert assessing system was adopted so that the participants' attrition can be examined more precisely.

2.2 Participants

The target participants of this study were those who had graduated from non-English majors of a college or a university and have worked at least for more than 2 years. They hardly used English in their work and never received any English training or master program study after graduations. What's more, we consulted Chinese National English Teaching Syllabus and found that the target participants had been taught all the interrogative structures involved in the questionnaire even in their junior middle schools.

2.3 Reliability and validity of the study

31 sophomore college students majoring in laws in Jiangsu Police College were chosen as the participants of the pilot study. According to the pilot study, the Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the items in every group range from 0.70 to 0.81, indicating there is strong consistency of results across items in every groups of the questionnaire.

3. Result

3.1 Comparison of the attrition of participants with different TOAs

Table 1 – Mean Scores of 3 Groups in terms of TOA in Final Survey

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	Minimum	Maximum
1	149	3.91	0.33	0.03	2.98	4.70
2	65	3.89	0.31	0.04	3.15	4.55
3	29	3.83	0.36	0.07	3.08	4.35
Total	243	3.89	0.33	0.02	2.98	4.70

Note: Group 1: 2 years ≤ TOAs of Participants ≤ 4 years

Group 2: 4 years < TOAs of Participants ≤ 8 years

Group 3: TOAs of Participants > 8 years

Table 2 – One-way ANOVA for 3 Groups in terms of TOA in Final Survey

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	0.14	2	0.07	0.65	0.522
Within Groups	25.91	240	.11		
Total	26.05	242			

Table 3 – Multiple Comparisons between Groups in terms of TOA in Final Survey

Between Stages	Mean Difference	Std. Error	Sig.
Group 1 – Group 2	0.02	0.05	.667
Group 1 – Group 3	0.08	0.07	.261
Group 2 – Group 3	0.05	0.07	.462

In table 3-1, the mean scores and other descriptive statistics of the three groups are exhibited. The mean score of group 1 (participants whose TOAs range from 2 to 4 years) is 3.91. The mean score of group 2 (participants whose TOAs range from 5 to 8 years) is 3.89, and that of group 3 (participants whose TOAs are more than 8 years) is 3.83. It

manifests the participants' performance on interrogative structures declines with increasing TOAs, or, lengths of disuse.

With a one-way ANOVA, it is found in table 3-2 above, sig. value is 0.522, which is higher than 0.05. It leads to the conclusion that there is no significance difference among the

three groups in a general sense. To put it in another way, participants with different TOAs have roughly enough mastery of the interrogation items in the survey. Meanwhile, As indicated in table 3-3, the differences between group 1 and group 2, group 1 and group 3 as well as group 2 and group 3 are not significant in a statistical sense ($p=0.667>0.05$, $p=0.261>0.05$, $p=0.462>0.05$). Roughly speaking, participants with TOAs being longer than 8 years still own the same mastery of the interrogative structures as the participants with TOAs being shorter than 4 years.

According to the observed data above, there were no significant differences among groups with different TOAs

while participants' performance on interrogative structures declined with increasing years after graduation, i.e., TOAs.

Whereas, how, and to which extent do participants' TOAs and their attrition relate to each other? A Correlation Analysis is thus run to figure out this issue.

3.2 Correlation between participants' TOAs and their attrition

It was worth noting that only 169 participants who passed CET-4 or/and CET-6 were taken into the analysis in order to minimize the interference caused by the variable, i.e., different PLPAs.

Table 4 – The Distribution of Participants and Their TOAs

Participants' TOAs (Year)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Number	46	43	18	11	18	11	4	6	2	2	6	2
Their Mean Scores	4.15	4.09	3.95	3.97	3.96	3.93	3.89	3.87	3.96	3.84	3.94	3.83

In table 3-4, the distribution of the 169 participants, their TOAs as well as their mean scores in final survey are presented, with 41 participants who didn't pass CET-4 and 33 participants who didn't take CET-4 excluded. From the table, there are 46 participants with TOAs being 2 years, 43 with

TOAs being 3 years, 18 with TOAs being 4 years, 11 with TOAs being 5 years, and so forth. It shows that the participants' syntactic proficiency declines with their increasing TOAs.

Table 5 – PCC for Participants' TOAs and Their Scores

		Year	Score
Year	Pearson Correlation	1	-.805(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	0.002
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	143.00	-3.00
	Covariance	13.00	-0.27
	N	12	12
Score	Pearson Correlation	-.805(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-3.00	0.10
	Covariance	-0.27	0.01
	N	12	12

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The statistical data in table 3-5 indicates that the results are significant at the 0.01 level with Pearson Correlation Coefficient (PCC) r being -0.805 and sig. value being 0.002 (2-tailed), which means there is highly inverse correlation rate between participants' TOAs and their scores. To be exact, the shorter TOA one owns, the higher score he or she will get in interrogation test, and vice versa.

By this token, TOA did play an important role in affecting the process of attrition although there were no significant differences among the 3 groups with different TOAs. To be more specific, participants with short TOAs had a better retention than those with longer ones, to some extent.

4. Discussion

This finding of the present study, on the one hand, is in agreement with Hansen's [4] results as well as Graham's (1990) findings, who argue that learners' performance on target language skills declines with their increasing TOAs, or, lengths of disuse. On the other hand, the finding also differs from those of precedent studies a little. Tomiyama's research [9] reveals '4 years' is a sensitive boundary after which vocabulary and fluency are attrited to a great extent. Ni [8] also maintains that participants with TOAs ranging from 4 to

8 years are most sensitive to attrition. However, no significant difference was spotted between participants with TOAs being longer and shorter than 4 years from the present study.

What cause the abnormal finding of the study?

First, in the circle of language attrition, it is commonly accepted that syntactic knowledge is relatively more invulnerable to attrition than other knowledge, such as lexicon, phonology and fluency [5]. In other words, syntactic attrition is less significant than lexical attrition. Therefore no significant differences are spotted between the performances of participants with TOAs being longer and shorter than 4 years in terms of syntactic level.

Second, the numbers of respondents with different TOAs are disproportionably distributed in the present study. To be more precise, there are 149 participants with TOAs ranging from 1 to 4 years, while there are just 65 participants with TOA ranging from 4 to 8 years, and only 29 participants above 8 years. The disproportionable distribution inevitably poses its influence on the data and thus interferes with the findings of the study.

Third, Ni [8] asserts that at least eight factors are identified in affecting foreign language attrition, namely, PLPA, TOA, exposure to target language, age at onset of language attrition, foreign language instruction, affective factors, literacy and gender. What's more, it is reviewed that the speed of attrition depends on a number of factors such as the difficulty of the learned material, how meaningful the material is to the subject, representation of material, and other physiological factors. The 243 participants involved in the present study are unequally distributed in terms of PLPAs, foreign language instruction, age at onset of language attrition, gender and so forth. Nevertheless, in the study they are classified into 3 groups just with their TOAs as a sole criterion. Factually, participants in the same group vary from person to person in terms of PLPA, foreign language instruction, age at onset of language attrition and etc [6]. These factors are absolutely bound to influence the results. The present study, however, does not take interactions of these different factors into consideration and surely suffers from the fallacy of simplification.

Fourth, according to Ni [8], a critical threshold exists in the EFL learner's original language levels. The critical threshold is a point, or a level, above which the learner has a stable enough mental representation of some linguistic elements or structures that are stable and resilient to loss, below which attrition is rapid and extensive. In the survey of the research, all of the participants involved are college graduates and almost all of them own an original language level above the critical threshold. That is to say, almost all of them have a stable enough mental representation of English

interrogations that are stable and resilient to loss. In this sense, the insignificant difference among three groups with different TOAs is comprehensible.

5. Conclusion

In the present study, no significant difference in interrogation attrition is observed among participants with different TOAs, although their performance on interrogative structures declines with increasing TOAs, i.e., lengths of disuse.

In the light of the analysis and discussion of interrogation attrition, some tentative suggestions are proposed for English learners and teachers to tackle the issues of attrition and improve learning and retaining.

The group of people whose acquired language skills are most vulnerable to attrition was identified as subjects with TOAs being more than 8 years. Accordingly, this group should deserve much more attention. On the one hand, teachers are expected to introduce more efficient mnemonics and more useful strategies that can produce strong memory traces to learners. On the other hand, learners themselves should be encouraged to develop their own methods to strengthen their retention of English skills.

However, methodologically speaking, attrition, by its nature, is rather difficult to be investigated empirically. Hence, a longitudinal paradigm is preferable in language attrition research, where the learner's dynamic process of acquisition and attrition can be traced. Thus a longitudinal method should be adopted as a best way to examine the learner's attrition in future research.

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ФОРМИРОВАНИЕ ПОЗНАВАТЕЛЬНОГО ИНТЕРЕСА НА УРОКАХ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В НАЧАЛЬНЫХ КЛАССАХ: ТЕХНОЛОГИИ, МЕТОДЫ, ПРИЕМЫ

Аннотация

В современной методике обучения иностранным языкам существует достаточно много дидактико-технологических методов и приёмов, формирующих и развивающих познавательные интересы учащихся младшего школьного возраста. Использование в обучении младших школьников различных форм игрового взаимодействия, проблемных заданий, информационно-коммуникационных технологий позволяет разнообразить процесс обучения иностранному языку, способствует развитию их творческой и познавательной активности. Грамотное применение здоровьесберегающих технологий обеспечивает создание психологически и эмоционально благоприятной атмосферы на уроке, что является важнейшим условием для получения новых знаний и поддержания стабильного познавательного интереса учащихся к изучению иностранного языка.

Ключевые слова: игровая технология, проектное обучение, информационно-коммуникационные технологии, мультимедийная технология, здоровьесберегающие технологии.

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FORMATION OF COGNITIVE INTEREST AT ENGLISH LANGUAGE LESSONS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL: TECHNOLOGIES, METHODS, TECHNIQUES

Abstract

There are a lot of didactic and technological methods and techniques that shape and develop cognitive interest of primary school students in modern methodology of teaching foreign languages. The use of various forms of gaming interaction, problem assignments, information and communication technologies in the teaching of primary school students allows diversifying the teaching of a foreign language, contributes to the development of their creative and cognitive activity. The use of health-saving technologies ensures the creation of a psychologically and emotionally supportive atmosphere at the lesson, which is an essential condition for acquiring new knowledge and maintaining stable cognitive interest among students while learning a foreign language.

Keywords: gaming technology, project training, information and communication technologies, multimedia technology, health-saving technologies.

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Introduction

An important task of teaching a foreign language in a modern school is a comprehensive and harmonious development of the personality of a learner capable and willing to participate in intercultural interaction. Motivation is, at the same time, one of the main tools of the learning process. In order to form it, it is necessary to create adequate conditions for the manifestation of internal motives for learning and make sure that students themselves are aware of the purpose of further personal development of the motivational sphere.

It is obvious that the use of modern pedagogical technologies helps to take into account all the constructive conditions for increasing cognitive interest and positive motivation for studying a particular subject. In this regard, the role of didactic and technological methods and techniques increases; they must be used with a specific goal, accompanied by clearly formulated and understood tasks [1, p.248], [2, p.139], [4, p.52].

The purpose of this study is to consider the increase in the cognitive interest of primary school students through the use of modern pedagogical technologies.

In order to achieve this goal, it is necessary to solve the problems associated with describing the practical application of pedagogical technologies that take into account the age characteristics of students in English teaching, their abilities

and interests, namely: gaming technologies, technology of project training, technology of problem-based learning, ICT technologies and health-saving technologies.

Methods

While working on the stated topic, we used such methods as: Analysis of literature on the study of the formation of cognitive interest of primary school students and the application of modern pedagogical technologies at foreign language lessons, as well as methods of observation, study and generalization of pedagogical experience.

Discussion

Gaming technology is one of the most valuable technologies among the teacher's tools. It takes an important place in organizing a foreign language lesson, fully satisfying the age requirements of this category of students.

It should be noted that the educational effectiveness of gaming techniques depends, first of all, on their systematic and purposeful use in combination with the usual didactic tasks and exercises.

The variety and quantitative composition of the games is a known difficulty for an English teacher, so it is necessary to approach the issue of their selection and application carefully. Classified according to certain attributes, properties and features, gaming activities entirely depend on the target setting.

For example, the activity form of gaming interaction implies the possibility of using various board games you can make with your own hands. You can use the game "Roll and Play" for this purpose. To conduct it, you will need a cube with multi-colored sides and a set of cards with tasks also divided into colour groups corresponding to the planes of the cube. The exercise to perform depends on the colour dropout. Throwing a cube, a student says the colour in English and performs what is indicated on the card. For example: Make a happy face, find a star, or walk like a bear. The undoubted advantage of this game is that the learning tasks can change depending on the studied grammar and lexical units.

Due to the age characteristics, primary school students need to move a lot. Action games allow combining active movement and lesson activities. They create favourable conditions not only for physical activity, but also contribute to the solution of educational problems, which enables consolidation and brings speech patterns to automatism. The following games can serve as an example: "The Wolf and the Hares," "Edible – Inedible," "Monkey Sees, Monkey does" and many others.

Pedagogical technology of project teaching is one of the most modern and popular technologies among teachers of a foreign language and methodologists. It includes a set of research, searching, problem methods; it is creative in its expression and is aimed at forming active reflection among the project participants, critical attitude to learning activity, desire to seek and find new knowledge through skills and to apply them in the practical plane [3, p. 8].

At the initial stage of teaching English, educational projects, are most often short-term from the point of view of time duration. From the point of view of activity type they are usually creative or playful, which is determined by the age characteristics of primary school students. Note that any educational activity during this period is of a learning character. The main task of the teacher is the formation of basic skills of project planning, namely – the development of the ability to plan their activities and implement them in accordance with the draft plan.

The project method can be used in the course of time under the training material of almost any of the program topics. The main thing is to formulate a problem the students will work with. Thematic variety of projects is quite wide, even for the initial stage of education, for example: "Healthy Food," "My Favorite Holiday," "My Family," "The City of My Dream," "It's Delicious!", "My Pet" and others.

The technology of problem training can be used at all stages of teaching English, including the primary level. Relying on the age and individual characteristics of students, the ability to create problem situations and solve them are the key principles of the method, where cognitive and motivational components are considered to be one of the leading ones.

Using a problem situation in the classroom, a teacher needs to raise the question in such a way as to exclude the attempt to answer with the help of a ready-made response. Its content should require the concentration of attention, independent thinking and creative mobilization.

Solving various problematic tasks, moving into a communicative field, students learn to interact with each other, find common ground with their peers and the teacher. Problem solving technologies allow creating a new and previously unknown atmosphere at the lesson. In addition, this technology opens up opportunities for the formation of research competence, which pushes students to the understanding of learning feasibility.

It is generally recognized that information and communication technologies (ICT) help to effectively develop the skills of communicative competence, ensure active involvement in the educational process as well as adapt its participants to modern conditions of social interaction. It is impossible to imagine a lesson of English without the use of new technological information and communication tools.

An important place in the activity is given to multimedia products. Note that multimedia technology is a technology that characterizes the way information is presented in the form of a combination of sounds, video, photos, etc.

With appropriate equipment, and namely a projector, a computer and corresponding software, the most common multimedia type, a presentation, has almost unlimited graphic and colour capabilities, which allows presenting any material in the form of animations, colourful pictures, charts, graphs and diagrams, everything that arouses keen interest of the students, contributing to a better perception and qualitative assimilation of the educational material. For example, when learning new lexical units, pictures and animations shown on the screen allow you to associate a phrase or a word in English with an object or an action based on visual memory.

It is possible to organize various educational and methodical games to better remember or revise previously learnt material with the help of multimedia presentations, thus combining different types of pedagogical technologies. To make the learning process cognitive and technological at the same time we can use computer training programs, such as flashcard games, which are as a rule aimed at memorizing lexical units and grammatical constructions.

At the same time, when using a computer and a projector, a smart board and gadgets, it is necessary to remember that these technical means can negatively influence the health of students when applied for a long time. Therefore, a teacher should know that the duration of continuous work with the computer and the projection screen for primary school students should not exceed 15 minutes, in addition, the projection screen, smart installation should be at a distance of 1.1-1.5 m from the centre of technical devices to the floor level.

With proper observance of these health-saving requirements, the use of ICT contributes to the formation of the students' language competence, while the learning activity acquires modern forms, which affects the level of motivation and maintenance of interest in the subject.

A modern lesson of the English language requires a lot of effort and attention on behalf of primary school students – rapid fatigue leads to a decrease in cognitive activity in the study of the subject. The efficiency and effectiveness of a lesson in this regard is ensured by a change in activities that occurs every seven to ten minutes, due to a variety of methods, forms and techniques, so the role of health-saving technologies is quite big nowadays.

When planning a lesson, it is necessary to include various types of relaxation techniques: Physical training, action games, respiratory and eye gymnastics. It is possible to organize physical culture and health-improving exercises in different ways – using rhythmic poems on different topics, video fragments, songs and rhymes.

Given in a certain rhythm, small poems are an effective means of relieving physical and emotional stress. Simple sentences, combined with easily perceived rhyme can be quickly remembered even by the students with a sufficiently low level of linguistic competence, auditory-pronunciation and other skills. During physical activities, a teacher needs to clearly show the movements and correctly pronounce all the

sounds and words, and in order to increase the cognitive interest on the part of the trainees, it is recommended to change rhymes used during the physical activity.

The use of rhythmic poems in class is also justified; they allow not only relieving the tension, but also consolidating lexical and grammatical material. Therefore, preparation for the lesson is a complex process where each activity takes into account all the positive aspects of the other. So, for example, a bright, colourful video clip with easily memorable words, which causes genuine interest among primary school students, is an excellent tool for relieving psychological and physical stress.

Carrying out respiratory gymnastics helps to raise the excitability of the cortex of the cerebral hemispheres and activate mental activity. A good example of this is the breathing exercise called "Balloon." While explaining the rules, the teacher asks students to imagine that they are all balloons: "You are the balloons." When he asks students to "Breathe in" they take a deep breath and hold it. Then the teacher says: "Breathe out" and the participants of the game slowly exhale.

Health-saving exercises include eye gymnastics, which can be carried out using moving objects. This complex of energetic activities is supplemented with verses, words, rhymes, tongue twisters, etc. One of the successful ways to reach eye relaxation is the so-called video-gymnastics – the trainees watch the sea waves and jumping dolphins, falling leaves, etc.

Results

Analyzing and summarizing the pedagogical experience of the authors of this study, we can state that different game forms used at the lesson allow qualitatively diversifying the learning process of the English language, make it interesting and fascinating, since games are, in fact, a natural environment of primary school students. Therefore, gaming technologies have obvious advantages for the further activation and formation of persistent cognitive interest among students.

As for project activities, it is worth noting that participation in the project work significantly expands the educational horizons of students and sustains cognitive interest, while the process of communication during discussions of topical problems becomes natural and in demand. Problem technologies develop creative abilities and critical thinking; form the motivation for the studied subject among students of different age groups, including primary school students.

The use of information and communication technologies significantly increases interest in the subject, while health-saving technologies enable arranging a lesson activity in such a way that its participants do not get tired and the productivity of the educational work increases.

Conclusion

Therefore, the use of modern pedagogical technologies at English classes in primary school undoubtedly has a direct impact on raising the cognitive interest of students.

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