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Rhetoric. The effective use of language (UDC 808)

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Плацинска А.¹, Карапетяна И.²^{1,2}Кандидат филологических наук, Латвийский Государственный университет**ОСОБЕННОСТИ ЯЗЫКА ПЕРИОДА ТЯЖЕЛЫХ ПЕРЕМЕН: КРЕАТИВНОСТЬ КАК ИНСТРУМЕНТ МАНИПУЛИРОВАНИЯ****Аннотация**

В начале 21-го века, большинство экономик мира пережили серьезный экономический спад, который породил атмосферу неуверенности и неопределенности в обществе. Так называемые смутные времена характеризуются экономической и политической нестабильностью, ростом безработицы, бедности и инфляции, вызывая тем самым беспорядок не только в экономике, политике и обществе в целом, но и в человеческих умах. В то же время каждый кризис мобилизует творческие способности человеческого разума и представители власти прибегают к различным манипулятивным средствам для сохранения власти, и языковым средствам в этом процессе отводится центральная роль. Власть пытается убедить в правильности своих решений, подчинить население своему мышлению, чтобы скрыть истинные последствия жесткой экономии. В статье рассматривается взаимосвязь между языком и властью на примере двух стран, пострадавших от недавнего экономического кризиса: Латвии и Испании. Лингвистические средства семантической манипуляции в этих двух странах похожи: они направлены на положительное завуалирование политических решений, чего можно добиться, например, при помощи использования эвфемизмов. Для того, чтобы справиться с хаосом, вызванным экономическим спадом, политики пытаются создать видимость порядка и спокойствия, используя в коммуникации такие языковые средства как метафоры, например. С одной стороны, общество это понимает, но с другой стороны, оно готово к ответной реакции, которая имеет тенденцию быть отрицательной. Это проявляется, в свою очередь, в использовании дисфемизмов. Таким образом, население дает понять, что им не так легко манипулировать.

Ключевые слова: кризис, манипулирование, творчество, язык, власть.

Placinska A.¹, Karapetjana I.²^{1,2}PhD in Philology, University of Latvia**LANGUAGE OF TROUBLED TIMES: CREATIVITY OF MANIPULATION****Abstract**

At the beginning of the 21st century, the majority of world's economies experienced a severe economic downturn, which caused a cloud of insecurity and uncertainty in society. These troubled times are characterised by economic instability, political tremor, unemployment, poverty, and inflation, creating disorder in economy, politics, society and human minds. Each crisis mobilizes the creativity of human minds to make use of manipulative forms of power mechanisms, in which language is given a central role, as through it the dominant groups in society try to succeed in persuading subordinate groups to accept their decisions and policies making them appear sensible and systemic and hide the real effects of austerity measures. The article examines the relationship between language and power in two countries having experienced the recent economic crisis: Latvia and Spain. The linguistic means of semantic manipulation in the two countries are similar: they are aimed at a positive representation of political decisions, achieved with the help of euphemisms, for instance. It can be observed that politicians try to create their own order with the help of language (e.g. metaphors) in order to deal with the chaos caused by the economic downturn. On the one hand, this is acceptable for society; on the other hand, society proves that it is not that easy to manipulate with it. Society's reaction tends to be negative, which is exhibited in the use of dysphemisms. Thus, society proves that it is not that easy to manipulate with it.

Keywords: crisis, manipulation, creativity, language, power.

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1. Background and the Aim of Study

The global credit crunch that peaked in 2008 triggered a serious world recession. The national economies of many countries globally, including Latvia and Spain, were badly affected giving the rise to the austerity policies adopted by the governments in managing the crisis with the help of drastic surgery. Although international finance was an ideal scapegoat, political leaders in problem economies could no longer hide poor long-term economic policy management (e.g. overspending, excessive increases in numbers of public servants) in good times or during the fat years, as it was called in Latvia and Spain¹, when a booming economy essentially blinded everyone.

Latvia's economy has recovered after the third epic recession since regaining its independence in 1991, whereas the situation in Spain seems to be still complicated.

2. To what extent can we speak about the language of troubled times as a linguistic phenomenon shared by languages? Can we speak about language as thought control?

Although the Spanish and the Latvian languages are quite different, they belong to the Indo-European language family. The Spanish language is of the Romance, and the Latvian language is of the Baltic branch.

The linguistic determinism view may make us think that belonging to the same language family, although a different branch, and sharing common experience or living through similar events may lead to similarities in thought [9, P. 422]. A question arises to what extent the people of Latvia and Spain having experienced troubled times and especially the recent economic crisis and its aftermath can think and speak similarly.

Political actors seem to believe in the power of language to affect people's thoughts and behaviour. Political discourse relies on the premise that the mechanisms of power are inherent in language and that people's behaviour or perception of certain events can be affected by language; thus, manipulation is possible with word meaning and connotations, especially when people are not aware of being manipulated.

Manipulative discourse is a type of language use, which is produced with an intention to achieve specific goals by retaining some relevant information in a disguised way. This seems to be especially efficient in troubled times, when the use of, for instance, euphemisms or metaphors, makes it difficult for people to comprehend the true information or intentions lying behind the discourse.

Van Dijk contends that manipulation is “a form of social power abuse, cognitive mind control and discursive interaction” [23, P. 359]. This is a form of discourse-based mental influence often achieved through the mass media. The discursive-semiotic manipulation is exercised through written and spoken discourse as well as visual means. This manipulative discourse may lead people to being unable to retrieve the real informative intention of the message, and they may be unable to understand the full consequences or causes of the situation. In light of the recent economic crisis, people may not comprehend that actually the government policies are largely to be blamed for the bad state of the economy, or they may not see the real meaning behind the creative use of language.

3. Political Language and Communication Strategies

Political language is a generic term used to refer to “all types of public, institutional and private talks on political issues, all types of texts typical of politics as well as the use of lexical and stylistic linguistic instruments characterizing talks about political contexts” [27, P. 7055]. Chilton contends that “language and politics are intimately linked at a fundamental level” and that “the doing of politics is predominantly constituted in language” [7, P. 4].

The relationship between the language and politics was already revealed by Plato more than 2000 years ago. The Spanish academician Alvar holds the view that the means of political communication is as old as democracy. He refers to a special metalanguage: “I do not intend to turn politicians in the theoreticians of the language, but we see that the realization of a particular practice is subject to a historical and doctrinal principles that have been repeated for centuries and, thanks to them we have built such a distinct metalanguage and so well characterized, like any other human activity”² [5, P. 143]

Martínez points out that there is a language of democracy, monarchs, oligarchs, and even a language of tyranny. It should be noted that each historical period and political regime reveals evidence, in particular, in newspapers and magazines, on television, on the radio, and on the Internet. In a democratic country, the mass media are like a football pitch in which opposing opinions and interest clash. It is well-known that the role of the mass media in the formation of public opinion is significant. Importantly, the Internet has given a megaphone to people to voice their views [5, P. 11].

Gutiérrez arrived at a similar conclusion during the 7th International Seminar for Language and Journalism. Referring to Aristotle’s rhetoric, Gutiérrez suggested that there are two strategies used by the political power to communicate with society during a crisis: 1) blaming someone else for what is happening; usually it is the former government, 2) assuming the responsibility and offering solutions. This strategy also serves as an excuse for taking tough decisions and their explanation to people [11, P. 2]. The discourse of major power institutions and their representatives during crises is usually carefully thought out, and its main aim is to manipulate with the society’s opinion in order to justify unpopular decisions and stay in power.

Westphalen [26, P. 117] mentions the strategies of problem concealment and problem rejection. The application of these strategies can lead to even a more serious conflict and changes in political power. Therefore, political scientists do not recommend using them often. For instance, a lot of people became very angry in a situation when there were already five million unemployed, but Prime Minister Zapatero continued to claim that the country did not have a financial crisis. As a result, his party later lost the election in 2012³. Chilton [7, P. 45-46] proposes three strategies: coercion, legitimisation and delegitimation, and representation and misrepresentation. Although all three are interconnected, the latter strategy is of relevance for this study, as it deals with the control of information in discourse. It is possible to provide information which is quantitatively inadequate to the needs or interests of the addressee. Qualitative misrepresentation comprises “verbal evasion and denial” [7, P. 32]. Chilton claims that “euphemism has the cognitive effect of conceptually ‘blurring’ or ‘defocusing’ unwanted referents, be they objects or actions” [7, P. 33]. In such a way, addressee’s attention is drawn away from troublesome issues. How is this strategy enacted by linguistic choices?

Schäffner’s premise that “any political action is prepared, accompanied, controlled and influenced by language” [8, P. 1] shows that politicians often use language to their own advantage in order to influence people’s political views and to persuade them of the validity of their claims. This asks for certain creativity. How is it expressed?

4. Definition of Crisis

The Spanish Language Dictionary (DLE) [28] quote that the lexeme CRISIS is derived from Latin and borrowed from Greek (lat. crisis < gr. κρίσις). In Greek, it means a decision taken in a difficult situation or the turning point for better or worse in an acute disease. Since changes in one’s health can be both negative and positive, etymologically the noun does not have only a negative connotation, although it dominates. DLE offers seven definitions of the word, starting from a turning point in a disease to a complicated situation [28].

According to the Chambers Dictionary of Etymology, the lexeme CRISIS is derived from Greek (lat. crisis < gr. κρίσις) with meanings separate, cut, judge, etc. The word was used in a medical context, where serious illness decided the fate between to live or to die [6, P. 295]. This is essential because these meanings appear later in the meaning network when the use of the word is expanded on social or economic phenomena.

The Latvian Dictionary of Foreign Words mentions that the lexeme krīze (crisis) comes from German (Krise < fr. crise < gr. κρίσις), and it is defined as a dangerous and complicated situation, an economic situation in which the economy of a country experiences a sudden downturn (e.g. decline in production, rise of unemployment) [1, P. 404].

As we can see, the meaning of the noun crisis is related to both a grave economic situation and serious diseases. Therefore, there is no surprise that many metaphors use the source domain of health/diseases to describe the target domain of economy, as we will see below.

Latvia was affected by financial crises several times in its recent past. The first one was in 1995, when the largest bank in Latvia Banka Baltija collapsed and thousands of people lost their savings. Latvia was also hit by the Russian default in 1998. This affected the people’s trust towards banks and the Government’s ability to keep the promises of safeguarding their money in banks. The recent crisis in Latvia in 2008, which followed a period of strong expansion of its

economy, brought to collapse the second largest bank Parex Banka, which affected the people's trust in financial institutions.

Spain also faced a traumatic situation in the transition period from the Franco's dictatorship to democracy, called *transición* (1976-1986), before the recent disruptive economic crisis. It was the period when the political power changed, monarchy was restored, coup d'état, election, and the adoption of a new constitution took place against the background of the economic instability.

The analysis of 5956 Internet user survey data in November and December of 2008 shows that Latvians associated the noun crisis with lack of money, austerity, fear, panic, hopelessness, pessimism, and unemployment [20].

Interestingly, terminology specialists in Latvia tried to find a word with a more positive connotation and created the neologism *dižķibe* (eminent trouble), which is used as a synonym of the noun crisis. It was perceived like something funny due to the paradoxical combination of the lexemes it is composed of, and people did not want to accept it. Semantically, there is certain dissonance because the adjective *dižs* refers to something special with a highly positive connotation, while the lexeme *ķibe* is a colloquial word used in domestic problem situations.

5. The Word and Its Semantics: the Case of Euphemisms

Semantic manipulation is a creative way of linguistic manipulation. Since some words or phrases have a negative meaning, those in power will rephrase them in order to change their meaning with an aim to influence people's beliefs and behaviour, thus manipulating them into accepting some ideas which they otherwise would not support. The much cited quote by George Orwell that "political language has to consist largely of euphemism, question-begging and sheer cloudy vagueness" [19, P. 9] is true nowadays as modern languages abound in euphemisms, comprising one of the richest types of semantic change nowadays [25, P. 82].

Euphemisms can be defined as words or phrases that seem positive and likeable, less straightforward and are milder and less harmful than the words and phrases they substitute or the ideas they express. Euphemisms have a double meaning in terms of what the words connote and what they really denote. They connote favourable or acceptable meaning and disguise the real meaning and measures taken.

This may be an explanation of why euphemisms seem so attractive. Modern media texts brim with euphemistic word play: labour flexibility (i.e. changes in the labour market such as restructuring jobs and salaries in response to some economic stimuli); challenging economic environment (i.e. recession), consolidation (i.e. cuts); and structural adjustment (i.e. restoration of financial stability to countries affected by economic crisis with the help of a wide range of policy reforms).

Bold austerity measures were introduced in order to restore fiscal health; however, people were afraid that the treatment was only temporary, fearing that the situation was like a time bomb⁴. Given the public's mistrust of privatization, liberalization can be used as a euphemism for privatization: *liberalizar los mercados, la liberalización contribuye a la reducción de la inflación, la liberalización del sector de las telecomunicaciones*⁵ [12, P. 61]. In Spanish political discourse, there is a tendency to substitute the verb *privatizar* (to privatize) with *liberalizar* (to liberalize), when it is about protecting the interests of the private sector, in such a way disguising the real meaning. This is because the verb to liberalize, being connected with freedom and making

something less authoritarian, is perceived in a more positive way than the verb to privatize, which might cause certain dislike.

We can observe similar tendencies in the Latvian language, for instance, *enerģētiskas tirgus liberalizācija, telekomunikāciju sektora liberalizācija*⁶. Due to a surfeit of information, which is often presented in a disguised way, many people find it not easy to understand certain government decisions or their causes and consequences; for instance, those on privatisation or liberalization may be mistaken for a consequence of globalisation.

The lexemes AUSTERITY and FISCAL have become buzzwords. Used alone and in nominal groups, they are widely employed by politicians and economists in their discourse, often to manipulate with the word semantics. Being aware of the unpopularity of the measures taken, which lead to the increase of unemployment and poverty, as well as cuts to the education and social sectors, politicians and economists resort to such words as fiscal austerity, fiscal consolidation, fiscal policy, fiscal discipline, fiscal sustainability, fiscal challenges, austerity measures, austerity programme, which are soft-sounding political language means.

It has been proved by various studies that fiscal consolidation has had "significant distributional effects by raising inequality, decreasing wage income shares and increasing long-term unemployment" [3]. These studies suggest that fiscal consolidation measures are typically associated with an increase in poverty and income inequality. For instance, leaders of the world's major economies in a meeting in Toronto in 2010 endorsed an official announcement, recognising that countries experiencing significant fiscal challenges would need to "accelerate the pace of consolidation" (7). The noun phrase fiscal challenges is also used in the Latvian language. When discussing the year 2009 results, which were said to be better than expected, it is stated that *Latvijai priekšā vēl lieli fiskālie izaicinājumi* (8). The connotation of the lexeme AUSTERITY, which means "austetic practices, economies" [21, P. 65], is strict self-discipline, forcing people to adopt austerity measures, which in many cases have affected the middle class and the working class rather than those who control wealth and power, that is the ruling classes. In reality, the lexeme AUSTERITY equals the poverty of the people affected.

In Latvia, *fiskāli taupības pasākumi* (fiscal austerity) means fiscal consolidation in connection with tax rate changes, pay cuts in the public sector and cuts in government spending. In Spain, *austeridad* means budget consolidation, pay cuts in the public sector and tax increase.

According to Lagunilla [12, P. 62], each word can be politicized, for instance *transición, modernización, solidaridad, reforma, cambio*⁹. These words possess strong emotional force and are broadly used in political rhetoric. This often leads to the changes in the semantic field of the word. For example, the noun *cambio* (change) is often used by politicians "we are for changes; we are waiting for changes; vote for changes" [12, P. 22]. In Spain, the noun *cambio* (changes) was first used by The Spanish Socialist Workers' Party during the pre-election campaign in 1982 in their fight against the right-wing People's Party, in order to avoid using the noun *revolución* (revolution), which seemed to be too extreme and categorical: *Por el cambio* (For changes). The People's Party used *Voto del cambio* (Vote for changes) in the 2015 – 2016 election, offering people to vote for economic changes and the stabilization of the situation¹⁰. During the Franco regime, the word *huelga* [strike] was

forbidden; therefore, such euphemisms as *conflicos colectivos*, *anormalidades laborales*, *inasistencias al trabajo*, *ausencias injustificadas*, *paros parciales*, *abandonos colectivos*, *paros voluntarios*, *irregularidades laborales*, *fricciones sociales*¹¹ etc., were used. [13, P. 43-44]

Prime Minister of Spain Mariano Rajoy tries to avoid the use of the noun *rescate* (rescue) by using *apoyo financiero* (financial assistance) or some other words so that the Spanish nation does not have an impression that the state has reached a deadlock. There are other euphemistic expressions which characterise the present Spanish government, for instance, *fuga de cerebros* (brain drain) is substituted for the obscure *movilidad exterior* (external mobility)¹².

The last example to be mentioned in this context is the lexeme REFORM (i.e. *reforma*, *reforma*). The lexeme REFORMA [6, P. 902] is derived from Latin *reformāre* and means “make again, improve”. An example of money reform is given. The Latvian Dictionary of Foreign Words explains that the lexeme REFORMA is derived from fr. *réforme*. It has to be mentioned that Latvia has experienced painful money reforms, which largely contributes to the rather negative attitude of the majority of population towards the introduction of the euro. Latvians lost a good part of their savings during the monetary reform in 1961 and as a result of the Soviet monetary reform of 1991. In 1992, Latvia was affected by the inflation of the Russian rouble. As a result, a temporary currency – the Latvian rublis (LVR) (widely known as *repšiki*, named after then governor of the Central Bank, Einars Repše) was introduced in May, 1992. The national currency lats was reintroduced in 1993, replacing the LVR at a rate of 1 lat = 200 LVR. That triggered people’s mistrust and negative associations with any money related reforms. Although the euro changeover was not a currency reform, the fact that the lat was of higher value than the euro, made people think that prices in euro were higher than in lats.

Thus, although the definition does not emphasize a negative shade of meaning, a negative connotation of the lexeme REFORM dominates in Latvia. The mass media language responds to topicalities and the changes in the political system. In relation to money reforms, Urbanoviča [22, P. 42] gives an example of *paronomasia*, which, as an effective phonetic stylistic device used in ancient oratory and folklore, includes language units similar in sound but different in meaning. For instance, the linguist mentions an example of wordplay in a commentary to an article on the devaluation of the lat by the journalist Lato Lapsa. *Lata devalvācija – Lato devalvācija – Lapsas devalvācija, Lato Lapsa vainīgs* (devaluation of the lat – Lato devaluation – Lapsa’s devaluation, Lato Lapsa is guilty).

In the 1990s, after the restoration of independence in Latvia, reforms in order to switch from socialism and communism to capitalism and democracy respectively had to be implemented. The first years of independence were painful due to the reforms which hit hard on common people’s wallets. At that time, despite the experienced difficulties, people were aware of the necessity of the reforms. However, a different situation was observed during the introduced structural reforms (*strukturālās reformas*) of the recent economic crisis. In order to tackle key macro-structural bottlenecks, comprehensive structural reforms were introduced, and the painful austerity measures hit the majority of Latvians hard.

The Spanish Language Dictionary (DLE) points at the Latin origin of the lexeme REFORM and offers four definitions: 1) action and effect of reform or be reformed, 2) what is proposed, planned or executed as innovation or

improvement in something, 3) reformed religion, 4) religious movement that began in the sixteenth century and led to the formation of Protestant churches [28].

In Spain, the lexeme REFORM possesses a very strong ideological connotation, but its emotional aspect has been changing. The Spanish citizens exhibited a high level of support and commitment for the political reforms carried out in Spain in the 1980s because a new democratic country’s structure was proposed and a door opened for parliamentary democracy and a multi-party system. However, the 2009-2012 structural reforms were associated with unemployment and decay.

6. The Word and Its Semantics: The Case of Metaphor

The theory of metaphor can be traced back to the Greek philosopher Aristotle [2]. His comparison theory of metaphor suggests that there is an analogy between two dissimilar things or notions, and the metaphor is used for the purposes of style. Lakoff and Johnson’s seminal work *Metaphors we live by* has proposed a different approach to the study of metaphor, known as the Conceptual Metaphor Theory. They argue that “metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, [and] not just in language but in thought and action” [14, P. 195-196]. In the theory, metaphor is defined in the light of understanding one conceptual domain (the target domain, which is usually more abstract) in terms of another conceptual domain (the source domain, which is usually more concrete).

Lagunilla emphasizes the persuasive power of metaphor in political communication: “because of metaphor’s inherent ambiguity and its expressive and persuasive power”¹³ [13, P. 49]. Metaphor can be a manipulation means of social cognition [17, P. 14-24]; it is a unique cognitive device that shapes social thought and affects social information processing [15, P. 1].

In the language of politics and economics, creation of a new meaning of words with the help of metaphors is customary in Spain: *congelar los salarios* (to frozen salaries), *blanqueo de capitales* (money laundering), *aterrizaje suave* (soft landing), *enfriamiento* (cooling), *sobrecalentamiento o recalentamiento de la economía* (overheating the economy), *depresión* (depression), *recuperación* (recovery), *crecimiento* (growth), *tregua* (ceasefire), and *guerra informativa* (information war), *síntomas de la crisis* (crisis symptoms) [13, P. 45].

The use of metaphors is also wide-spread in the production of political meanings in Latvia, which reflect the topicalities of the historical period; for example, *iesaldēt algas* (to frozen salaries), *noziedzīgi iegūtu līdzekļu legalizācija* (money laundering), *mīksta piezemšanās* (soft landing), *ekonomikas pārkaršana* (overheating the economy), and *atveseļošanās* (recovery). In the 1990s, which is the period when Latvia regained independence, metaphors with mostly negative connotation were used, e.g. *sarkanie baroni*, (red barons), *lāča pakalpojums* (bear's service), *banānu republika* (banana republic), and *politiskās marionetes* (political marionettes). Many metaphors used in 2007 have become clichés, for instance, the noun phrase *dārgie aizgājēji* (the dear deceased) is used to refer not only to the people who have passed away, but also the ministers who have resigned and received a golden handshake. When adopting the year 2009 budget, metaphors arising from *treknie gadi* (fat years) used by Prime Minister Kalvītis in his 2007 New Year’s address to the nation can be found: *treknie solījumi* (fat promises), *treknie politiķi* (fat politicians), and *kārtējās (un pēdējās) atraugas* (recurrent (and last) belching).

Therefore, the year 2010 was named as *liess cauraudzītis* (lean streaky bacon) [16, P. 153-154]. Since then the adjective *trekns* (fat) has been used metaphorically to refer to the politicians who have managed to keep their power using all kinds of means. It is argued that “recurrent metaphors are embedded in languages and cultures and depend both on the human conceptual system and on cultural systems” [8, P. 320]. Thus, people’s reasoning is metaphorical. On the one hand, human experience can be seen as culture-specific; on the other hand – universal since there are elements common to all cultures acquired through human history and common events.

Metaphorical reasoning is observed in both languages. The crisis is often viewed as illness, and the economically troubled and enfeebled countries have been proposed treatments: they have been offered therapy in terms of close monitoring of the countries’ budgets and economies by the European Commission, which would serve as long-term prevention.

Numerous examples of metaphors in which the target domain is political or economic life and the source domain is the functioning of human body can be found. The use of the metaphoric expressions in Latvian and Spanish the symptoms of crisis (*krīzes simptomi*, *síntomas de la crisis*), economic recovery (*ekonomikas atveseļošana*, *recuperación económica*) (the conceptual metaphor CRISIS IS ILLNESS) below exemplify their use: *En política, como en medicina, es preciso, lo primero de todo, limpiar la herida para examinarla, conocer su alcance, su gravedad, y sus amenazas*¹⁴. *Likumsakarīgas šajā situācijā ir ārvalstīs un iekšzemē vērojamās bažas par krīzes simptomu mērogiem un tālāko attīstību*¹⁵. In the article, *Krīzes domāšana* (i.e. Crisis Thinking), the author Procevska [20] concludes that the use of the word crisis shows that Latvians prefer tolerating the crisis to taking action. They perceive the crisis as a storm cloud, which cannot be struggled with or a cold, which must be cured. The author has analysed 346 texts produced by journalists, expert bloggers and readers in November and December, 2008, in which the noun crisis appears. The conclusion was drawn that one of the most frequently used groups of expressions (in total 76 times) is related to a crisis as illness, for instance *pārdzīvot krīzi*, *just krīzi*, *krīzes simptomi* (to endure the crisis, to feel the crisis, symptoms of crisis). The author infers that Latvians are ready to wait for the crisis to finish rather than take action.

Both Latvian and Spanish metaphors manifest a similar tendency: they tend to conceptualize economic and political problems in terms of illnesses.

7. Polemic of society

Verbal reaction of society is manifested in polemic with the ruling power on television, in the press, and on the Internet, the latter being the most popular means. This can be due to the anonymous, faceless nature of the Internet, which allows people to be more open, even impudent, sometimes hostilely refuting a specific statement or opinion. Let us consider the example below published online on 21 April, 2012:

Sra. Ministra Ana Mato, no queremos tus disculpas, queremos que tú y tú gobierno aplique la solución de los más de 70.000 mil millones de fraude fiscal que evaden de este país España y vosotr@s no hacéis nada de nada y sabedores, te pedimos más transparencia, más generosidad, más profesionalidad, más honestidad y en definitiva más PATRIA. Basta Ya, con este dinero que no se recauda no habría más^{16, 17}. Addressing the minister by name, a warning as if is issued: (The Honourable Madam, we would like to

inform you that the people do not need apologies; they want action in the fight against corruption and fraud). Further on, using the dysphemism *sabedores* (know-alls) and *fraude fiscal* (tax fraud), the ruling group is being reproached for doing nothing, being absolutely unprofessional and dishonest. The use of *Basta Ya* (that’s enough now) puts an end to the comment on the Internet.

An interesting phenomenon can be observed in the comment above: at the beginning, the minister is addressed using the formal singular form of the second person pronoun *you* (*Sra. ministra*), but later the familiar singular form of *you* *tú* is used. The T–V distinction between the familiar and formal is also present in the plural forms: *vosotros/as* and *Ustedes*. Since Spaniards are quite formal, the members of parliament generally use the formal singular form *Usted* because this allows them to keep their distance and to prevent a debate from turning into a quarrel. As we can see, an attempt is made on the Internet to keep the distance; however, emotions take over and the author resorts to the familiar singular form.

The verbal reactions in the Latvian language are also colourful. For instance, in a comment posted to *Neatkarīgā Rīta Avīze* on December 30, 2010 in reply to the article entitled “*Dombrovskis: Visticamāk, 2013. un 2014. gadā fiskālā konsolidācija vairs nebūs nepieciešama*”¹⁸, we can read: “*Dombrovski, vai tev vienreiz nav pašam apriebies melot [...] Derdzas klausīties to fiskālo konsolidāciju! Vai tu vēl kādu citu vārdu savienojumu arī zini?*”¹⁹.

In this comment, we can observe characteristic structures which show a negative attitude exhibited with the help of the address form (using only the surname without a job title (i.e. Prime Minister) or a title prefixing a person's name (Mr.), which is a serious faux pas; the question forms which exhibit dissatisfaction, as well as a direct accusation of lying. Besides, Mr Dombrovskis is addressed using the second person pronoun forms *tu* and *tev* (you). It must be noted that the Latvian language uses the singular/plural distinction to differentiate between the familiar form *tu* (you), used among social equals and intimates and superiors to inferiors, and the formal address form *jūs* (you), used by inferiors to superiors and amongst strangers.

A concrete term can be also used in the plural to describe the whole set of enemies. Attributing individual characteristics to a larger group of people is more effective: *spies*, *Judas*, *traitors*, *pathological liars*, *charlatans*, and *clowns*.

Besides, not all the words used in the function of dysphemism have a negative connotation. Such words as *dog*, *Asian*, *liberal*, *owner* have a neutral meaning, but used in specific situations, they acquire negative connotations.

In a comment posted to *Latvijas avīze* on November 14, 2013 in a reply to the article entitled “*Dzīve ir daudz plašāka par budžetu. Saruna ar Valdi Dombrovski*”²⁰ a person uses several dysphemisms: Mr Dombrovskis is called *nodevējs* [a traitor of the Latvian people] and his center-right Unity party is called *sieva* [woman] (the meaning of the noun *sieva* is generally positive). This is followed by the dysphemism *bāba*, which is a vulgar use of the noun *woman*. The author is aware of the negative connotation and apologizes [*piedodiet*] for this use.

8. Times are changing. Is the language changing?

In a voluminous study devoted to the role of language and its peculiarities in the transition period from the Franco dictatorship to a democratic state in Spain, its authors emphasize the fact that upon a changing regime or a historical period in a country, the words and terms typical of

the previous regime disappear; it does not happen overnight but over a period of time [5, P. 147].

The Franco regime and its language can be characterised as authoritarian, the glorification of caudillo and the humiliation of the people who think otherwise. Therefore, such words as lealtad, adhesión, glorioso, masones, judíos, dos bandos, patria, and subversión²¹ be considered the markers of that time, as they characterize the reality very well. As of 1976, other words depicting the new reality have been foregrounded: peculiaridad de las regiones, diálogo, moral civil, ética civil, divorcio, huelga, and elecciones²². [5, P. 130]

In 1977, when the Suárez's government experienced a deep crisis, and the situation in Madrid was very tense, the president delivered a speech, which did not say anything concrete, but owing to its rhetoric, which was based on the antithesis and repetition of two words nada (nothing) and todo (everything), provided a sense of security to people and the conviction about their strength. Terms from the old regime, for example subversión, unidad nacional, provocaciones, Patria (subversion, national unity, provocations, motherland) as well terms typical of the new regime diálogo, la vida ciudadana, peculiaridad de las regiones, oposición política²³ were used.

Generally, it can be observed that the markers of the recent economic crisis in Latvia and in Spain are the same: fiskālā konsolidācija/consolidación fiscal (fiscal consolidation), taupība/austeridad (austerity), ieņēmumi un izdevumi/ingresos y gastos (income and expenditure), kredīts/crédito (credit), strukturālās reformas/reformas estructurales (structural reforms), and budžeta konsolidācija/consolidación del presupuesto (consolidation of budget).

The majority of terms have appeared in the Latvian and Spanish languages (although the majority of words are of Latin origin) from the English language due to the language contacts in the form of borrowings, for instance, inflācija/inflación (inflation), konsolidācija/consolidación (consolidation), ārējais tirdzniecības deficīts/ /deficit exterior (foreign trade deficit), strukturālās reformas/reformas estructurales (structural reforms).

9. Conclusions

The aim of the this study was to compare the discourse of politicians as well as the verbal reaction of society to the verbal camouflage of politicians during the recent economic crisis against the background of the broader socio-economic transformations in Latvia and Spain.

We must agree with Crystal [9, P. 291] that it is difficult to prove that the language determines our world-view. However, it seems that the claim that the experienced troubled times may lead to similarities in thought and, subsequently, in language use has been elucidated. Troubled times create disorder in economy, politics, society and human minds, which is reflected in a creative use of language.

The present cross-linguistic research discovered a number of substantial similarities between the Latvian and Spanish languages during troubled times. Language manifests itself not only through the changes in thinking, but also through the changes in society. Similar changes cause similar phenomena in different languages in the form of a creative use of language: words are replaced by more agreeable ones. Their replacement with euphemistic and metaphoric words is one of the means which exhibits the semantic change of words. The peculiar terminology of troubled times has become so pervasive that it is often easy to overlook its euphemistic and metaphoric roots.

Euphemism used to disguise negative information is by far the most widely used manipulation device on the lexical and semantic level. Euphemisms act largely as noxious clouds which tend to conceal a direct impact on our lives. Their function is concealing something unpleasant, and as such they allow for the manipulation with the minds of people. Manipulation takes place when the addressee is unable to recover a clear informative meaning or intention of the message concealed with the help of euphemistic and metaphoric expressions.

Similar metaphoric reasoning related to troubled times is manifested in both languages. However, it has to be admitted that some metaphors can be culture-specific due to different historical experience.

The society's reaction in Latvia and Spain is similar. It manifests itself in the expression of dissatisfaction and polemic with the political actors, where offences and criticism are not softened. This is evidenced through dysphemisms, as well as a familiar style of language used on purpose to hostilely refute a specific statement, which is largely possible due to the facelessness of the Internet.

Each crisis mobilizes the creativity of human minds, and although the economy continues to work itself out of troubled times, the communication strategies of political actors with society seem to remain the same: they are aimed at controlling information in discourse, which is often qualitatively misrepresented, often leading to problematic inferences and diverting society's attention from troublesome issues. "You can fool all the people some of the time, and some of the people all the time, but you cannot fool all the people all the time" (Abraham Lincoln).

Notes

¹ LV *treknie gadi* – EN *fat years*, ES *los años de las vacas gordas* – EN *fat pigs' years*.

² Translated by the authors.

³ Based on data from <http://www.abc.es/economia/abci-paro-subio-45-millones-gonzalez-y-zapatero-y-bajo-19-aznar-y-rajoy-201510272118_noticia.html>, accessed: 22.11.2016.

⁴ EN *time bomb* – ES *bombas de relojería*, LV *bumba ar laika degli*. Based on data from <<http://zagarins.net/kjl/teksti/2009/kjl072409htm.htm>>, accessed: 05.11.2016

⁵ EN *liberalize markets, liberalization contributes to the reduction of inflation, liberalization of the telecommunications sector*.

⁶ EN *electricity market liberalization, telecommunications market liberalization*.

⁷ Based on data from <<http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/10430527>>, accessed: 05.11.2016

⁸ EN *Latvia will live a big fiscal challenges*. Based on data from <<http://www.delfi.lv/news/national/politics/svf-velesanu-gaisotne-rada-riskus-pec-velesanam-bus-turpmaka-fiskala-korigesana.d?id=30635091#ixzz3gA1GNmIr>>, accessed: 05.11.2016

⁹ EN *transition, modernization, solidarity, reform, changes*.

¹⁰ See <<http://www.expansion.com/economia/politica/elecciones-generales/2015/12/18/5673dc61268e3ee9718b46bb.html>>, accessed: 29.10.2016.

¹¹ EN *collective conflicts, labor abnormalities, absences from work, unjustified absences, partial work stoppages, collective dropouts, voluntary work stoppages, labor irregularities, social frictions*.

¹² See <<http://www.20minutos.es/noticia/1516871/0/eufemismos/rescate/gobierno-rajoy/>>, accessed 29.10.2016.

¹³ Translated by the authors.

¹⁴ EN *In politics, like in medicine, it is necessary, first of all, to clean the wound to examine it, to know its power, its severity, and its threats,* - based on data from <http://estaticos.elmundo.es/documentos/2012/02/19/discurso_rajoy.pdf>, accessed: 02.11.2016.

¹⁵ EN Concerns in home countries and the countries abroad about the scope and further development of the symptoms of crisis are natural, - based on data from <<http://www.diena.lv/cilveki-velas-valdibu-kura-vinus-vestucauri-sai-krizei-642769>>, accessed:02.11.2016.

¹⁶ EN *Ms. Minister Ana Mato, we do not want your apologies, we want you and your government to solve the situation with more than 70,000 billion tax fraud in Spain, and you do nothing. and you know-alls, we ask you more transparency, more generosity, more professionalism, more honesty and, in short, more PATRIA. That's enough now, with this money that is not collected, there would be no more.*

¹⁷ Quoted from <http://www.heraldo.es/multimedia/videos/v_deos_del_a/2012/11/21/pitada_marea_naranja_mar_ea_blanca_ana_mato.html>, accessed: 02.09.2016.

¹⁸ EN *Dombrovskis: It is most likely that fiscal consolidation will not be required in 2013 and 2014.*

¹⁹ EN *Dombrovski, aren't you tired of lying? I am fed up with this fiscal consolidation. Don't you know another word combination?*

²⁰ EN Life is much larger than budget. Talk with Valdis Dombrovskis

²¹ EN *loyalty, adhesion, glorious, Freemasons, Jews, both sides, motherland, subversion.*

²² EN *peculiarity of the regions, dialogue, civil moral, civil ethics, divorce, strike, elections.*

²³ EN *dialogue, civic life, peculiarities of the regions, political opposition.*

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Марченко О.П.¹, Бандурка Т.Н.², Павлов Ю.Г.³¹Кандидат психологических наук, Московский государственный лингвистический университет,²кандидат психологических наук, Иркутский государственный университет,³научный сотрудник, Уральский федеральный университет*Работа была поддержана Российским гуманитарным фондом, проект "Культурная специфичность и универсальность нормативных оценок слов и изображений" 14-36-01309***ГЕОГРАФИЧЕСКАЯ СТАБИЛЬНОСТЬ КАТЕГОРИАЛЬНЫХ НОРМ ДЛЯ РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКА****Аннотация**

Исследование было направлено на проверку географической стабильности показателей частоты называния слов, принадлежащих различным семантическим категориям, для русского языка. Участники исследования из трех различных регионов России выполняли стандартную процедуру называния слов, принадлежащих 45 семантическим категориям. Для каждого экземпляра категории была посчитана общая частота его называния в каждом из трех регионов. Были продемонстрированы оценки надежности показателей частоты называния слов для каждого региона. Корреляции между показателями частоты называния слов в разных регионах были высокими, что является свидетельством географической стабильности этих нормативов в России.

Ключевые слова: категориальные нормативы, частота называния, географическая стабильность.Marchenko O.P.¹, Bandurka T.N.², Pavlov Y.G.³¹PhD in Psychology, Moscow State Linguistic University, ²PhD in Psychology, Irkutsk State University,³research associate, Ural Federal University*This work was supported by Russian Humanitarian Foundation, grant "Cultural specificity and universality of normative ratings for words and pictures" 14-36-01309***GEOGRAPHICAL STABILITY OF CATEGORY NORMS FOR RUSSIAN LANGUAGE****Abstract**

This study was aimed to examine geographical stability of generation frequency norms for semantic categories in Russian language. Participants from three different regions of Russia carried out a standard procedure for generating exemplars of 45 semantic categories. For each exemplar, overall generation frequency was calculated in each of three regions. Reliability scores for these data were demonstrated in each region. Correlations of generation frequency data between all three regions were strong providing evidence of the geographical stability of these norms in Russia.

Keywords: category norms, exemplar generation frequency, geographical stability.**Почта авторов / Author Email:** olga.p.marchenko@gmail.com**Introduction**

In order to study categorization it is necessary first to identify which words are used by native speakers in specific semantic categories (like "A Fish" or "A Fruit"), and to determine generation frequency of these words within categories. This variable was also named instance dominance by some researches [13], [14]. First attempts to create category norms of generation frequency were made by Cohen at al. (1957) in USA [3]. Their work was continued by Battig and Montague during the next decade [1]. Battig and Montague's (1969) database, which contains 56 categories of English language is the most frequently cited database of generation frequency. The citation search made by Van Overschelde et al. [18] on 2002 demonstrated that it was cited over 1600 times in papers published in more than 220 different journals.

Cross-cultural and linguistic research has revealed that the content of categories varies across different cultures [21] and that patterns of phenomena and variable ratings for those categories may also vary with cultural milieu [12]. Thus using a database, that was collected from subjects of another culture, is not always acceptable. That is why similar studies were conducted in other countries as well, for example in Belgium [15], France [2], New Zealand [11], Canada [8], Israel [6], China [21], Great Britain [5], Spain [10], etc.

In order to study categorization in Russia as well it was important to create generation frequency norms for the Russian language. Some data has been published regarding 13 categories for Russian language in year 1997 [19], serving as a starting point for this line of research. Considering the ongoing changes, evolution of language content, it was

important to enlarge the quantity of categories documented. Generation frequency database for 45 semantic categories was collected for Russian language later [9]. This database was collected in Moscow. Many of selected categories were the same as in the study by Battig and Montague. However, some new categories were included (for example "A Domestic Appliance", "An Organ of the Human Body").

It has been shown that some categorization phenomena depend on human experience and can vary between urban citizens and people who live in close contact with nature [12]. Thus, it is important to take into account not only cultural but also experiential factors [20], [17].

Task which is used to gather generation frequency norms can be quite sensitive not only to language and to culture aspect but to experiential factors as well [20]. It gives an impression about concept structure in population. Along with universality of concepts, it can reveal some differences between subjects, who speak the same language but live in different countries and have different environment [11], or who lives in the same environment but belongs to different cultural groups in the same country [20].

Category norms collected previously in Moscow were proved to be reliable [9]. Nevertheless, taking into account that Russia covers more than one-eighth of the Earth's inhabited land, some differences could be suggested between distant regions. Thus, before making inferences and generalizing generation frequency norms collected in Moscow to the Russian language and the whole country, geographical stability of these results needs to be tested. Thus, it is important to test how similar generation frequency

data from distant regions will be. Moscow, Irkutsk and Ekaterinburg regions were chosen for this aim.

Moscow is located in the central part of Russia. The city is playing a role of a political, economic and cultural center in Russia. Ekaterinburg is located on the borderline between Europe and Asia on the eastern side of the Ural Mountains. Irkutsk is one of the biggest cities of Eastern Siberia.

Geographical stability of psychometric data is traditionally tested through correlations between data collected in different regions.

The following suggestions can be made. Generation frequency data can be accepted as geographically stable and reliable when there are strong correlations between samples of different regions.

Method

Participants. One hundred fifty students of different universities of Moscow aged 18-26 years participated in the study as volunteers (126 females and 24 males, $m=19$, $SD=1.59$). One hundred fifty students from Ekaterinburg aged 18-24 years (126 females and 24 males, $m=19$, $SD=1.14$) and one hundred fifty students from Irkutsk aged 18-28 years (132 females and 18 males, $m=19$, $SD=1.87$) participated in this study as well. There were no significant differences in proportion of male and female participants in samples taken from three different regions (Pearson Chi-square=2.178, $df=1$, $p_s=0.132$). Participants involved in this study in each region represented the same generation and the same social group. All of participants were native Russian speakers.

Procedure. The procedure used to gather the Russian category norms was similar to the procedure of Battig and Montague (1969). Participants were provided with a small notebook. The following instructions, were copied verbatim from Battig and Montague (1969), but were translated into Russian.

“The purpose of this experiment is to find out what items or objects people commonly give as belonging to various categories or classes. The procedure will be as follows: First, you will be given the name or description of a category. Then you will be given 30 sec. to write down in the notebook as many items included in that category as you can, in whatever

order they happen to occur to you. For example, if you were given the category "seafood", you might respond with such items as lobster, shrimp, clam, oyster, herring, and so on. The words are to be written in the notebook, using a different page for every category. When you hear the word "Stop", you are to stop writing and go to the beginning of the next page. You will then be given the name of another category, and again you are to write the names of as many members of that category as you can think of.” The full version of the instruction can be found in the paper by Battig and Montague of 1969 [1].

The category names were read aloud by the experimenter. The participants were tested in small groups to be sure that they could work in a proper way and will not be distracted by each other. The presentation order of the categories was randomized and was different in different groups of participants. The category set for this study consisted of 45 different categories such as various natural kinds ("A Fish", "An Insect", "A Flower"), artificial kinds ("A Type of Vehicle", "An Article of Furniture", "A Musical Instrument"), names ("A Male's First Name"), activity kinds ("A Profession", "A Sport"), abstract kinds ("A Unit of Time", "A Unit of Distance"), etc.

Results and Discussion

The same procedure of data analysis as in previous works was used [1], [16]. No distinction was made between singular and plural or masculine and feminine versions of exemplars. Legible responses that were nonmembers were not removed from the list. For each exemplar, overall generation frequency was calculated in each region. Reliability of the generation frequency data for each of three regions was evaluated by applying the split-half method. Then the Spearman–Brown formula was applied: $\rho=2r_{half}/(1+r_{half})$.

Reliability data are presented in Table 1. Reliability of generation frequency data in all three regions is quite good.

In order to test geographical stability of generation frequency norms correlations between cities were calculated. All words (even these, which were named only one time) were used for this analysis. All Pearson's correlations were significant, $p<0.001$. Correlations are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 – Split-half reliability coefficients of generation frequency for each region and correlation between three regions for each category

category	Spearman-Brown reliability coefficients			r-Pearson coefficients (n), $p<0.001$		
	Moscow	Irkutsk	Ekaterinburg	Moscow Irkutsk	Moscow Ekaterinburg	Irkutsk Ekaterinburg
An Alcoholic Beverage	0.985	0.985	0.994	0.974 (80)	0.987 (80)	0.977 (67)
An Amphibian	0.974	0.959	0.988	0.901 (58)	0.986 (72)	0.933 (67)
An Article of Clothing	0.979	0.970	0.975	0.959 (126)	0.982 (121)	0.965 (116)
An Article of Furniture	0.994	0.996	0.996	0.993 (90)	0.991 (83)	0.994 (89)
A Bird	0.966	0.972	0.982	0.961 (104)	0.961 (111)	0.976 (95)
A Carpenter's Tool	0.988	0.984	0.986	0.951 (117)	0.966 (114)	0.983 (118)
A Color	0.997	0.993	0.995	0.994 (70)	0.997 (76)	0.995 (78)
A Country	0.980	0.969	0.980	0.975 (142)	0.971 (152)	0.97 (137)
A Crime	0.986	0.976	0.984	0.969 (161)	0.985 (159)	0.982 (140)
A Disease	0.962	0.933	0.967	0.948 (200)	0.963 (193)	0.936 (203)
A Domestic Animal	0.990	0.984	0.987	0.975 (84)	0.977 (86)	0.989 (69)
A Domestic Appliance	0.979	0.899	0.977	0.934 (89)	0.966 (86)	0.969 (89)
A Family Member	0.996	0.992	0.993	0.985 (68)	0.984 (70)	0.991 (70)

End of Table 1

category	Spearman-Brown reliability coefficients			r-Pearson coefficients (n), $p < 0.001$		
	Moscow	Irkutsk	Ekaterinburg	Moscow Irkutsk	Moscow Ekaterinburg	Irkutsk Ekaterinburg
A Farm Animal	0.992	0.994	0.994	0.99 (51)	0.992 (61)	0.991 (54)
A Fish	0.969	0.895	0.951	0.788 (147)	0.928 (154)	0.835 (151)
A Flower	0.986	0.977	0.985	0.956 (129)	0.98 (102)	0.972 (135)
A Four-footed Animal	0.984	0.977	0.981	0.981 (110)	0.978 (112)	0.982 (108)
A Fruit	0.980	0.985	0.989	0.968 (50)	0.976 (54)	0.979 (53)
A Girl's first name	0.960	0.894	0.943	0.894 (221)	0.907 (256)	0.893 (239)
An Insect	0.972	0.967	0.981	0.972 (83)	0.98 (87)	0.968 (88)
A Kind of Food	0.955	0.918	0.952	0.908 (237)	0.903 (251)	0.919 (231)
A Kitchen Utensil	0.987	0.986	0.989	0.94 (129)	0.973 (129)	0.981 (137)
A Male's First Name	0.953	0.913	0.932	0.923 (214)	0.922 (219)	0.933 (233)
A Mammal	0.980	0.969	0.987	0.936 (122)	0.971 (121)	0.948 (115)
A Metal	0.994	0.987	0.992	0.982 (65)	0.969 (78)	0.978 (68)
A Musical Instrument	0.983	0.986	0.986	0.96 (82)	0.981 (88)	0.985 (84)
A Nonalcoholic Beverage	0.989	0.986	0.994	0.95 (69)	0.97 (96)	0.971 (98)
A Part of the Human Body	0.984	0.994	0.993	0.993 (110)	0.983 (113)	0.99 (108)
A Plant	0.946	0.949	0.955	0.892 (238)	0.909 (228)	0.935 (211)
A Precious Stone	0.987	0.980	0.988	0.962 (69)	0.974 (71)	0.981 (67)
A Profession	0.975	0.947	0.955	0.936 (277)	0.921 (188)	0.942 (267)
An Organ of the Human Body	0.993	0.990	0.994	0.987 (98)	0.989 (94)	0.983 (84)
A Reptile	0.990	0.993	0.994	0.976 (49)	0.994 (52)	0.987 (44)
A Science	0.990	0.972	0.992	0.977 (160)	0.969 (167)	0.962 (179)
A Sport	0.972	0.973	0.987	0.96 (149)	0.976 (158)	0.967 (152)
A Toy	0.976	0.982	0.982	0.968 (218)	0.962 (213)	0.964 (203)
A Tree	0.992	0.990	0.994	0.963 (79)	0.972 (82)	0.981 (76)
A Type of Fabric	0.990	0.980	0.982	0.972 (144)	0.968 (138)	0.976 (117)
A Type of Music	0.981	0.973	0.990	0.974 (177)	0.98 (175)	0.99 (145)
A Type of Vehicle	0.991	0.957	0.983	0.943 (116)	0.971 (112)	0.952 (109)
A Unit of Distance	0.993	0.994	0.996	0.986 (66)	0.991 (58)	0.992 (65)
A Unit of Time	0.994	0.988	0.996	0.986 (66)	0.991 (54)	0.987 (61)
A Vegetable	0.991	0.993	0.993	0.977 (55)	0.981 (55)	0.987 (51)
A Weapon	0.982	0.983	0.989	0.962 (170)	0.974 (184)	0.982 (158)
A Wild Animal	0.979	0.983	0.985	0.973 (137)	0.985 (138)	0.984 (138)

As correlations between the three regions are strong, geographical stability of generation frequency norms for Russian language can be suggested. Nevertheless, this work was aimed to prove geographical stability and further analyses can be continued in order to study regional specificity of concepts with more sensitive statistic methods.

Similar pattern was observed for English language when comparison of category norms collected in different regions

of the same country conducted [1]. English and Chinese category norms of different age groups within a culture were also similar [7], [21], [4]. As norms of generation frequency are geographically stable, the same generation frequency norms can be used for Russian language around the whole country.

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ПРИНЦИПЫ НОМИНАЦИИ ГИДРОНИМОВ ПОСЕМЬЯ

Аннотация

Авторы статьи устанавливают некоторые закономерности в номинации гидронимов (рек и их основных притоков), формирующих ландшафт на территории Посемья, показывают тесную зависимость названий рек от природных условий: растительного мира, состояния водоема, качества воды и почвы в нем; особенностей течения.

Ключевые слова: топонимика, гидронимы, номинация, этимология, мотивационные признаки.

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THE PRINCIPLES OF NAMING OF POSEMYE HYDRONYMS

Abstract

The authors of the article determine some principles of naming the hydronyms (rivers and their main tributaries), which form the landscape of Posemye. They show close dependence of the names of the rivers on their natural environment: flora, condition of a water body, the quality of water and soil in it, the peculiarities of the river flow.

Keywords: toponymy, hydronyms, naming, etymology, motivational characteristics.

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Toponymic research in the field of hydronymy is widely presented in Russian national linguistics [20]; [21]; [23]; [17]; [19]; [1]; [6]; [3].

However, from our point of view, a group of hydronyms which name rivers and their main tributaries, forming the landscape of Posemye, is not studied well enough. The importance of this article which continues the series of scientific publications on hydronymy of Posemye is determined by this fact [7, P. 115-117; [8, P. 317-326]; [9, P. 108-111]; [10, P. 122-123]; [11, P. 188-192]; [12, P. 81-86]; [13, P. 117].

In our research we rely on the facts given in "Hydronymic dictionary of Posemye" [23, P. 2].

In the article an attempt is made to distribute the hydronyms of Posemye into the groups which have the following motivational characteristics: 1) the condition of a water body, the quality of water and soil in it; 2) characteristic features of the river flow; 3) phytonomic characteristics.

The condition of a water body, the quality of its water and soil:

Апочка – river (the right tributary of the Gerosima), it originates to the north of the village of Verchnije APOCHKY of GORSHECHENSKY district, from *opoka* – ‘stone of green grey colour’. The river was named according to the characteristic features of the banks soil: *opoky* in their solid mass are on the Posemye territory. **Берноветы** – brook (the left tributary of the Tuskar), it originates to the east of the village of ZHERNOVETS of ZOLOTUKHINSKY district, probably from ancient-Russian *bjrnie*, *Bernie* – ‘clay’ [18, P. 212]. **Взмут** – brook (the right tributary of the Svapa), it originates near the village of Teplovka of Khomutovsky district, from *vzmutit* – ‘to make the water muddy’. **Глинитса** – brook (the left tributary of the Apaka), it originates to the west of the village of Glinitsa of Lgovsky district, from *glina* (clay), according to the characteristic features of the water body soil. **Гнилеты** – brook (the left tributary of the Polevaya Snova), it originates to the east of the village of Tsurikovo of Ponirovsky district, from *gniloy* – ‘musty’, according to the quality of the water. **Грыасная** – river (the right tributary of the Kshen), it originates to the south-west of the village of Gryaznoye of Sovetsky district, from *gryaz*, *gryazy* – ‘swampy land’ [5, P. 408]. **Заболот’** – brook (the left tributary of the Polevaya Snova), it originates to the east of the village of Zabolotovka of Ponirovsky district, from *zabolot’* – ‘swamped bottom of balka’ [14, P. 24]. **Зорька** – brook (the left tributary of the

Raspadnaya), it originates to the west of the village of Novaya Ivanovka of Sudzhansky district, probably, from *zorkaya* – ‘light, clear’ [14, P. 41]. **Меловской** – brook (the left tributary of the Seim), it originates on the south-west outskirts of Solntsevsky district, from *melovoy*, according to the characteristic features of the soil. **Песоchnaya** – river (the right tributary of the Svapa), it originates to the north of the village of Andreevka of Zheleznogorsky district, from *pesok* (sand), according to the characteristic features of the banks and the bottom of the river. **Рзхав** – river (the left tributary of the Seim), it originates near the farm yard of Rzhavchik of Pristensky district, from the adjective *rzhavy* or immediately from ancient-russian *rzha* [18, P. 203], according to the colour of the water, from swampy or river rust or red water. **Свинчик** – brook (the right tributary of the Seim), it originates to the north of the village of Svinets of Timsky district, probably from ancient-russian *svinets* – ‘lead’ [18, P. 273]; a metaphor, according to the colour of the water (dark), compare” leaden waves”. **Слизен** – brook (the right branch of the Seim), it originates near the village of Budky of Glushkovsky district, from dialectal *slizky* – ‘covered with gum, slimy slush’ [5, P. 202], according to the quality of the slow running water covered with gum of decaying water plants. **Студенок** – brook (the right branch of the Seim), it originates in the village of Studenok of Khomutovsky district, from ancient-russian *studeny* – ‘cold’ [18, P. 574]. **Теплинка** – brook (the right tributary of the Sukhaya Amonjka), it originates in the plot of land of Teplenjky, to the east of the village of Maleevka of Khomutovsky district, from dialectal *teplina* – ‘a warm well, a hot spring’ [5, P. 399], according to the quality of water. **Тускар’** – river (the right tributary of the Seim), it originates to the south of the village of Novo-Aleksandrovka of Schigrovsky district, from ancient-russian *tusk* – ‘dim’ [22, P. 156]. The Tuskar’ flows through the territory which has thick black soil. In some places it has clayey and rocky soil. A lot of black soil gets into the river, thus making the water dark. **Ублыя** – river (the left tributary of the Oskol), it originates to the north of the village of Somovka of GORSHECHENSKY district, from Slavonic *ubelъ*, *ublъ* – ‘белый’. Probably, according to the colour of the water. **Холодитса** – river (the right tributary of the Malaya Ribinka), it originates to the west of the village of Kasinovo of Oboyansky district, from Russian *kholod* (cold), according to the characteristic features of the water. **Червычак** – brook (the left tributary of the Krutaya), it originates in Matveevsky gullet of Zolotukhinsky district,

from *chervyak*, compare to ancient-russian *chъrvъ*, *cherv'* – ‘red’ [18, P. 1557], according to the colour of the water. **Shmarnaya** – river (the left tributary of the Usozha), it originates to the south of the farm yard of Ivanovsky and the village of Shmarnoye of Fatezhsky district, from dialectal *shmara* – ‘mud on the water, duckweed, the colour of the water, plant Lemna’ [5, P. 640].

Characteristic features of the river flow:

Borsov Kolodez' – brook (the right tributary of the Vorozhba), it originates in the gullet of Borzov of Sudzhansky district, from ancient-russian *borzy* – ‘fast’ [18, P. 199]. **Bistrets** – brook (the left tributary of the Oskol), it originates in the village of Bistretsy of Timsky district, from lexical item *bistry*. **Krupets** – brook (the right tributary of the Obista), it originates to the north of the village of Mikhailovka of Rylsky district, from *krupets* – ‘well, source’ [16, P. 110]. **Krupets**, **Krupka** are usually given to short and rapid tributaries. These names can be found on the territory of Bryanskaya, Kaluzhskaya, Kurskaya, Tuskaya, Volinskaya, Mogilevskaya, Chernigovskaya regions. **Mertvaya Kharaseya** – river (the left tributary of the Kharaseya), it originates to the south-east of the village of Krasny Klin of Dmitrievsky district. In binominal hydronyms *mertvaya* – ‘slow running, standing’ [5, P. 319] is used in contrast to *zhivaya* – ‘quick running’ [14, P. 23]; compare to **Zhivaya Kharaseyka**. **Nemeda** – river (the left tributary of the Sev), it originates to the south-east of the village of Dobroye Pole of Khomutovsky district. *Fasmer* comes from ancient-russian *Nemъd'* – ‘immediate’ [22, P. 211]. **Panika** – brook (the left tributary of the Polnaya), it originates to the south of the village of Paniky of Medvensky district and falls on the territory of the same district, from ancient-russian *niknuti* – ‘go out’, denominative *panikovets* or *ponikovets* – ‘brook, whose flow is exhausted and becomes swampy in some places’ [16, P. 180]. **Sterzhen'** – brook (the right tributary of the Podmostishchya), it originates to the north-east of the village of Olkhovka of Khomutovsky district, from *sterzhen'* – ‘small but quick river’. **Stremlya** – brook (the left tributary of the Seim), it originates in the plot of land of Goloplakovschhina of Glushkovsky district, from kurskaya-orlovskaya *stremya* – ‘creek, shoot’ [5, P. 337]. **Struga** – brook (the right tributary of the Malaya Locknya), it originates in the farm land of Ivashkovsky of Sudzhansky district, from *struga* – ‘water source’, compare to ancient-russian *struga* – ‘current, flow’ [18, P. 558]. **Strigosl** – river (the right tributary of the Psel), it originates in the village of Krivitskye Budy of Belovsky district, from appellative *str- and gosla*, the root *str-* can be found in numerous Slavonic names with the meaning of ‘quick, rapid’. **Shum** – brook (the right tributary of the Amonjka), it originates to the north of the village of Prikhodkovo of Khomutovsky district, from *shum* – ‘heavy flow, caused by sudden turns of the river’.

Phytonimic characteristics:

Babka – brook (the left tributary of the Vandarets), it originates to the north-east of the village of Chernicheno of Konishevsky district, from Kursk dialectal *babka* – ‘the name of the plant Nuphar luteum’, which grows in standing and slow running waters [4, P. 414]. **Vasilyok** – brook (the left tributary of the Amonjka), it originates to the north of the village of Zhedenovka of Khomutovsky district, probably, a metaphor from *vasiilyok* – ‘a swampy plant *Svertia obtusa*’ [5, P. 167]. **Vereslinka** – brook (the right tributary of the Vetka), it originates to the north of the village of Selina of Dmitrievsky district, from *veres* – ‘the plant *Juniperus communis*’ [2, P. 51]. **Vshivka** – brook (the left tributary of the Olim), it originates from the swamp near the village of

Razdolje of Kastorensky district, from *vshivitsa* – ‘the plant *Padicularis*’ [5, P. 254]. **Zhiten'** – brook (the left tributary of the Reut), it originates to the south-west of the village of Zhiten' of Sudzhansky district, from *zhita* – ‘a cereal plant *Secale cereal* or *Friticum*’, according to the plant. Wild grain, sandy rye can be found in sands of Kursk region [15, P. 97]. **Ivitsa** – brook (the left tributary of the Seim), it originates in the plot of land of Balikino of Solntsevsky district, from *iva* – ‘the name of the tree *Salix*’ [18, P. 1018-1019]; [5, P. 1]. **Kamishnaya** – river (the left tributary of the Psel), it originates in the gullet of Kamish to the south-east of the village of Kamishnoye of Belovsky district, from *kamish* – ‘cane’. **Klenovy** – brook (the right tributary of the Gnilyusha), it originates in the gullet of Klenovy of Timsky district, from *klen* – ‘the name of the tree *Acer pseudoplatanis*, white sycamore’ [2, P. 9]. **Osinovy** – brook (the right tributary of the Brusovets), it originates in the plot of land of Osinovy of Ponirovsky district, from *osina* – ‘the name of the tree *Populustremus*’ [18, P. 717]; [5, P. 697]. In the region ‘aspen is everywhere: in forests and groves’ [15, P. 82]. **Rakitnik** – river (the right tributary of the Bely Nemed), it originates to the north-east of the outskirts of Zhelesnogorsky district, from *rakitny*, *rakita* – ‘the tree *Salix fragilis*’. **Rogozets** – brook (the left tributary of the Bistrets), it originates to the north-east of the village of Rogoztsy of Timsky district, from *rogoza* – ‘a swampy plant *Typha*’ [5, P. 7]. **Rogozna** – river (the right tributary of the Seim) with two sources in Oktyabrsky district: one is to the north of the villages of Andrianovka and Sokolovka (Bolshaya Rogozna); the other is to the north of the village of Penjkovaya (Malaya or Srednaya Rogozna), from ancient-russian *rogoz'* – ‘cane, bulrush’ [18, P. 130]. **Skorodny** – brook (the right tributary of the Sudzha), it originates in the plot of land of Skorodnoye, from dialectal *skoroda* – ‘field, wild onion *Allium odorum*’ [5, P. 204, 599]. The plant *skoroda* grows in water meadows; it is gathered in spring and used as food [15, P. 93]. **Trosnitsa** – brook (the right tributary of the Prut), it originates to the south of the village of Konishevka of Konishevsky district, from *trostnoy* – ‘cany’. Cane usually grows on the banks of rivers and lakes. **Turochka** – river (the left tributary of the Kleven'), it originates in the gullet of Turkinskoy of Rilsky district, from dialectal *turka* or *turcha* – ‘the plant *Hottoniapalustris*’, ‘it is found in hollow standing or slow running waters and in swamps’ [5, P. 444]. **Khvoshchnya** – brook (the left tributary of the Nestun'), it originates in the plot of land of Khvoshchevoy of Khomutovsky district, from *khvoshch* – ‘the plant *Equisetum*’, formerly the shoots of *khvoshch* were widely used as food. **Khrenovets** – brook (the right tributary of the Malaya Kuritsa), it originates in the plot of land of Khrenovets to the north-west of the village of Ogarkovo of Kursky district, from *khrenovy*, *khren* – ‘the name of the plant *Cochlearia armoratia*’ [5, P. 567]. Wild horseradish grows in water meadows. **Cheremoshenka** – brook (the right tributary of the Kharaseya), it originates in the plot of land of Cheremoshenets of Dmitrievsky district, from *cheremkha* or *cheremsha* – ‘a woody plant bird cherry tree *Prunus padus*’ [18, P. 1500]; [5, P. 592]; [4, P. 411]. **Chechevizna** – river (the right tributary of the Seim), it originates to the north-east of the village of Berezutskaya of Lgovsky district, from dialectal *chechevichka* – a floating water plant *Lemna* [5, P. 126], from plenty of *chechevichka*, *ryaska* in the river, which sometimes covers brooks and rivers with slow running waters.

Therefore, the studying of the ancient hydronymy of Posemye allows to establish some principles in the naming of water bodies. In ancient times water bodies were very

important in the life of people who used them widely for moving. The names of hydronyms preserve the evidence of the more ancient form of the language. They have great linguistic and extra linguistic information. The studying of

semasiology and etymology of the hydronyms gives us an opportunity to come nearer in understanding the world model which people of different regions of Russia had

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РОДО-ВИДОВАЯ ГРУППА «НАЗВАНИЯ МЕДВЕДЕЙ» В ИДИОЛЕКТЕ КАМЧАДАЛА

Аннотация

В статье рассмотрен лексический состав родо-видовой группы «Названия медведей» в идиолекте камчадала Абакумова С.А. (1938 – 2009), жителя поселка Мильково Камчатского края. Выявлена структурная организация родо-видовой группы с учетом дифференциальных признаков (пол, возраст, тип питания). Определены наиболее типичные отношения названий внутри группы в идиолекте: отношения синонимии, объединяющие общерусские и диалектные слова.

Ключевые слова: идиолект, Камчатский край, камчадал, языковая личность, родо-видовая группа, лексема.

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GENERIC GROUP “NAMES OF BEARS” IN KAMCHADAL IDIOLECT

Abstract

The article describes lexical composition of the generic group “Names of Bears” in Kamchadal idiolect of Abakumov S.A. (1938 – 2009), a resident of the Milkovo village in the Kamchatka region. We developed the structural organization of the generic group based on differential characteristics (sex, age, type of food). We identified the most typical relationship within the names of the group in the idiolect: Synonymy relations, uniting all-Russian dialectal words.

Keywords: idiolect, the Kamchatka region, Kamchadal, linguistic persona, generic group, lexical unit.

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The way vocabulary is organized into thematic classes is determined by the peculiarities of life and human activity in a certain area: the Kamchatka region has been traditionally engaged in fishing and hunting. Thus, the names of these types of activities are very well represented in Kamchadal dialects [1, p.34]. As the names in certain thematic groups in the speech of a dialect speaker (hunting and fishing vocabulary) are very detailed while other thematic groups are limited, we can come to a conclusion that there are dominant activities in human life.

Kamchadals are “Russian-speaking metisized population, the descendants of the marriages between indigenous northern people and Russians” [6].

We considered the fragment of the thematic group encompassing hunting vocabulary in the idiolect of indigenous Kamchadal Abakumov Sergey Alexandrovich (1938-2009), the resident of Milkovo village.

We identified the following basic, most extensive thematic groups in individual speech of a dialect speaker:

- vocabulary related to flora and fauna – includes the names of birds, fish, domestic and wild animals, their usage in the household, as well as the names of trees, plants, fungi, mosses, etc.;
- domestic, household vocabulary – includes the names of household items, tools for fishing and hunting, etc.
- meteorological vocabulary – names of objects and phenomena in the environment.

Generic groups (hereinafter – GG) in the idiolect are structured in accordance with the point of view of a particular person concerning this area of life, as evidenced by the quantitative amount of certain GG and the quality of their content.

GG under study, namely “Bear”, with a common generic notion *медведь* (bear) is included into the lexical-semantic subgroup “Names of Wild Animals” and is the most extensive group of words among the rest of GG denoting names of wild animals. It is primarily determined by hunting on bears, the necessity to give them names according to different characteristics: Their gender, age, type of food, etc.

“When we say ‘generic relationships in the language’ we mean the relationships between several members, counterposed to the volume of meanings. Words denoting generic concepts contain the whole complex of characteristics, which

comprise the meaning of a generic word, plus some additional semantic features, which narrow the volume of the meaning of differentiating words of both generic and specific character” [3, p. 149].

This group of words is generic, because it contains a generic lexical unit, a hyperonym *медведь* (bear.) This lexical unit is all-Russian and has the following meaning in the literary language (hereinafter – LL): “A large carnivorous, omnivorous mammal with a large overweight, body covered with thick hair, and short legs” [5, vol. 2, p. 242]. In this sense, the lexical unit *медведь* (bear) is used to refer to an animal, regardless of its gender.

И медведю-то надо кушать, а там народ везде кругом. Медведей сейчас фсех распугали, нигде не найдешь. Раньше, может, медведи и выходили, когда маленькая деревня была. Медвець не залезет на дерево. Проще фсево добывать медведя. (And the bear has to eat something, and there are people everywhere. The bears have scared them all away, you will find no one. Earlier, perhaps, bears have come out, when the village was small. The bear would not climb a tree. It is easier to get the bear.)

All other names of the bears used by Abakumov S.A. in his speech can be divided into several groups based on their differentiating characteristics.

1. We identified a group of lexical units that name bears on the basis of their gender. This group can be divided into two subgroups: Names of male bears (*самец*, *медведь*, *медведишка*, *сикач*) and the names of female bears (*медведица*, *самочка*, *медведка*, *матушка*, *матуха*, *мать*, *мамка*).

Lexical units *самец* (male) and *самочка* (female) are all-Russian and can be used in relation to others animals as well, when it is necessary to indicate the gender of an animal. When we say “all-Russian word” we rely on the definition given by Ilyinskaya N.G. in her work “All-Russian Words and Their Lexicological Aspect,” “An all-Russian word in a dialect is a conventional name of a lexical unit which has the same form of expression, functioning in LL and dialects. At that, they are not borrowings from LL or any other sources” [3, p. 29]. The dictionary provides the following definition of the word *самец* (male): “A male individual” [5, vol. 4, p. 16]. This lexical unit has the same meaning in the speech of a dialect speaker.

The female bear is on its own, and here is a healthy male. He began to shoot, the female bear disappeared in the rocks, while the male bear was still flouncing.

Lexical unit **самочка** (diminutive of the word “female”) is made up from the word “самка” (female) and suffix “-очк.” This word has the same meaning in the idiolect, as the lexical unit “самка” (female) in LL: “A female individual” [5, vol. 4, p. 16].

Самочка, детишки, они же любопытные, к тебе бегут, обнюхивают. Самочка поумней. Мальчик поспокойней, а самочка с детьми любопытные. (Female, kids, they are all curious, they run to you, sniff you. Females are more intelligent. Boys are quieter, while a female and kids are curious.)

a. Names of male bears.

Apart from the name of the animal (медведь – bear), regardless of the gender, male or female, lexical unit **медведь** (bear) in the idiolect can be used in a narrower sense as an “a male individual” becoming the synonym of the lexical unit **самец** (male).

Он медвёт, а она матушка. Я видал, как медведи деруца. Старица (медведица) от медведя уйти, может маленьких разорвать. Страшно, медведи деруца, рёф только идёт. (He is a bear and she is a female bear. I've seen bears fighting. (Female bear) is trying to leave the bear, can kill the little ones. Scary, the bears are fighting, the roar is loud.)

Lexical unit **медведишка** (bear) is made up from the word “bear” with the usage of a diminutive suffix “-ишк” and is a dialectal synonym of an all-Russian word “bear” (“an individual of a male gender”), making it colloquial. *Давайте медведишку убьём на мясо. (Let us kill medvedishka (a bear) for meat.)*

The speech of a dialect speaker contains the word “сикач” (*sikach* – bear), which, just like the previous lexical unit, has the meaning of “a male individual”, and is quite frequent in Kamchatka dialects. *Мы матуху с сикачом убили, матуха на нас кинулась. (We killed matukha (a female bear) and sikach (a male bear), matukha (the female bear) attacked us.)*

б. Names of female bears.

Most female bear names in the idiolect of Abakumov S.A. are dialectal. The speech of a dialect speaker is marked with the following lexical units: **медведица**, **медведка**, **матушка**, **матуха**, **мамка** и **мать**.

Alternate names contain **медведица**: **медведица** and have the following generic meaning: “Female bear” [5, v. 2, p. 242].

The lexical unit **медведица** is all-Russian: *Убили медведицу, а потом увидели маленьких медвежат. (They killed a female bear and then they saw small bear cubs.)*

The second alternative of the word **медведица** – **медведица** is an accentual dialectal alternative. *Матуха – мы её так и завём – медведица с малышом. (Matukha (female bear) – that's what we call it – a bear with a baby.)*

Lexical unit **медведка** (*medvedka*) is formed with the help of the suffix “-к,” which indicates “femininity” and is derived from the word **медведь** (male bear.) This lexical unit has the meaning of “A female individual” and is a dialectal synonym to an all-Russian lexical unit “bear.” In all-Russian language the word “медведка” means “an insect of Orthoptera order with a body covered by short velvety hairs, which lives in the ground, and is a pest of agricultural crops” [5, vol. 2, p. 242]. Thus, the word **медведка**, which is used in the dialect as a “female bear” means a species of insect in literary language (mole cricket) which makes them lexical

units with different semantic content. *Медвётка – это самочка медведя, а важенка – у олёня. (Medvetka is a female bear and vazhenka is a female deer.)*

The speech of Abakumov S.A. contains the lexical unit **матушка** (*matushka*.) Dictionaries contain this lexical unit: “Old-fashioned, respectful. Mother” [5, vol. 2, p. 236]. In the dialect, the lexical unit **матушка** has the meaning of a “female bear.” *Он медвёт, а она матушка. Смотрим, сикач и матушка, они на нас спустились, а снег размяк, проваливаюца. Матушка выбирает места для учёния медвежат ловить рыбу. (He is medvet and she is matushka. Look, sikach and matushka, they have descended and the snow has melted, it is breaking down. Matushka chooses places to teach the cubs to fish.)*

The word **матуха** (*matukha*) is also dialectal and is used in the meaning of a “female bear.” *Когда бывает свадьба, она, матуха, зделает свои дела и снова приходит. Там матуха сама, а там здоровый самец. Один раз видел беловатую матуху. (When there is a wedding, she, matukha, deals with her business and comes back. Matukha is alone there, and there is a healthy male. Once I saw a whitish matukha.)*

Words **мамка** and **мать** are synonyms, they are all-Russian and have the following meaning: “2. A female bear in relation to its cubs” [5, vol. 2, p. 224].

Мамка (*matka* – mother): *Сегодочка – один год, он не прожывет, он мамку сосит, до трёх лет вместе ходит. Он же (медвежонок) ещё и мамку сосит. (Segedochka – one year old, it will not survive it, it sucks its mamka, they walk together up to three years. It (bear cub) is sucking mamka.)*

Мать (*mat* – mother): *У нас тут два медвежонок была. У них сама мать рыженькая такая. (There are two little bears here. Their mother is reddish.)*

Thus, the speech of a dialect speaker contains a large number of lexical units which name bears based on the differentiating characteristic of “gender.” Within the groups, designating bears, both male and female, there is a large number of synonyms, as well as lexical units, formed with the help of suffixes. The names contain both dialectal and all-Russian words.

2. The next group of lexical units of the generic group “bear” is based on the characteristic of “age.” This group includes the following lexical units: **медвежонок**, **дети**, **детишки**, **мальш**, **мальчик**, **сегодочка**, **четвертак**.

Lexical units **дети**, **детишки**, **мальш** и **мальчик** in the speech of a dialect speaker refer to any animal regardless of its species.

Дети (*children*) is an all-Russian word, which has the meaning “Infants, counter posed to adults // Babies of animals, birds” [5, vol. 1, p. 531]. It has the same meaning in the idiolect. *А самочка с детьми любопытные. (The female bear with children are curious.)*

The word **детишки** (*kids*) is made up from the lexical unit with the help of the diminutive suffix “-ишк.” In the dictionary, this lexical unit has the following meaning: “plural. Diminutive for children” [5, vol. 1, p. 531]. *Самочка, детишки, они же любопытные, к тебе бегут, обнюхивают. (Female, kids, they are all curious, they run to you, sniff you.)*

Мальш (*baby*) – “coll. Kid (typically about a little boy)” [5, 2, p. 223]. In the speech of Abakumov S.A. lexical unit **мальш** denotes a baby of any animal. Therefore, we can say that the word **мальш** has a broader meaning in the idiolect, denoting – “A baby of any animal.” *Луче не трогать малышей, она (медведица) лапой как поддаст, только*

летит кувырком. (Better not to touch the babies, it (female bear) will hit you with a paw and you'll roll upside down.)

One more word for a bear cub – *мальчик (boy)* – has two differentiating characteristics: Age and gender. *Мальчик* – “1. Child, a male teenager” [5, vol. 2, p. 303]. In the dialect, the lexical unit *мальчик* has a wider lexical meaning, than in the Russian language, as it denotes a baby of any male animal. *Самочка агрессивная. Мальчик поспокойней.* (A female is aggressive. The boy is quieter.)

The lexical unit *медвежонок (baby bear)* denotes a particular species of an animal. *Медвежонок* – “1. Bear cub” [5, 2, p. 242]. We have found out this particular meaning of the word. *Медвежата малышки на ольховинках. У нас тут два медвежонка была. Убили медведицу, а потом увидели маленьких медвежат. Нужно стоять, не бежать и не трогать медвежат.* (Baby bears are on little alder trees. We had two little bears here. They killed the female bear, and then saw little baby bears. We had to stand; we can't run or touch the babies.)

Names *сезодочка* and *четвертак* denote particular age of a bear.

Сезодочка (segodochka) – “one year old bear” [4, p. 155]. This lexical unit has wide usage in the dialect with this meaning. *Сезодочка – один год, он не прожывет, он мамку сосит, до трёх лет вместе ходит.* (Sigodochka – one year old, it will not survive it, it sucks its mamka, they walk together up to three years.)

In the speech of Abakumov S.A. there is a fixed lexical unit *четвертак (chetvertak)*, which has two homonymic

meanings. The first meaning is dialectal: “Four year old bear.” The word is motivated by numeral “four.” *Медведя иногда называли четвертаком, если четыре года.* (A bears was sometimes called a chetvertak, if it was four years old.)

The second meaning of the word is all-Russian: “Old-fashioned. Quarter of a ruble, 25 kopeks, a coin of 25 kopeks” [5, vol. 4, p. 673]. The dialect speaker uses the lexical unit in exactly this meaning. *Четвертак – это денежка, это двадцатипятёрка.* (Chetvertak is money, this is twenty-five kopecks.)

3. Composite name used by the informant in his speech, – *ягодный медведь*, can be referred to the third sub-group of GG, the common characteristic of which is “Type of Food.” This name determines the type of food of an animal: *ягодный медведь (berry bear)* is a bear which eats berries. *Медведь оказался ягодным. Сало в ладонь, засолили, оказалось, што ягодный (медведь), жир мяккий, плавица.* (A bear turned out to be a berry one. Lard in the palm, we salted it, and it turned out to be a berry one (bear), fat is soft, melting.)

Attributive component of a composite name in literary language has a different meaning: “Adjective to the word berry // Made from berries, with berries // Giving berries” [5, vol. 4, p. 724]. There are no others bear names that determine the type of nutrition of bears in the speech of Abakumov S.A.

The following figure shows the organization of GG “Names of Bears” in the idiolect of Abakumov S.A. in accordance with differentiating characteristics:

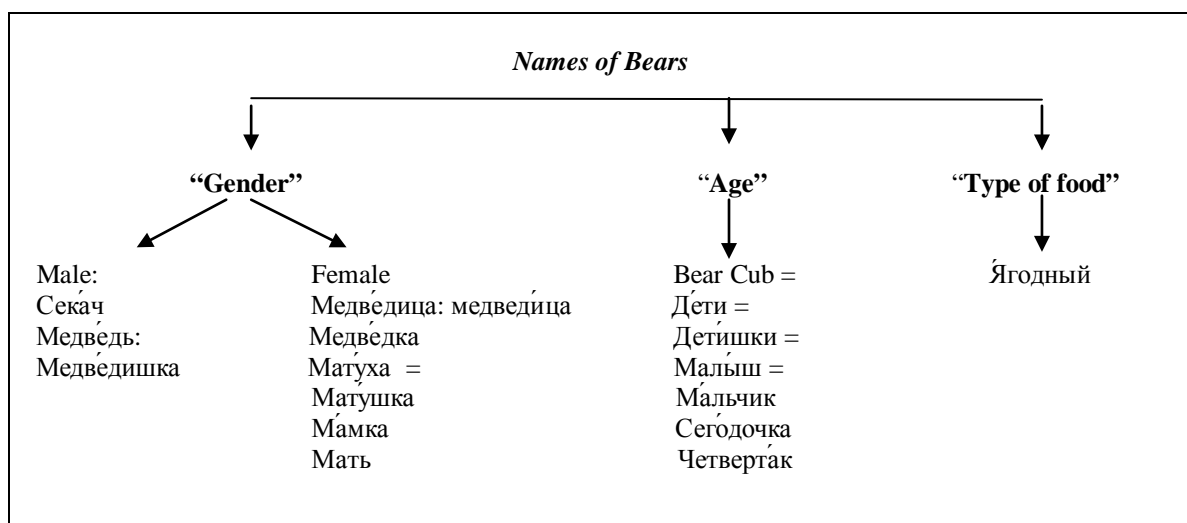


Fig. 1 – Structural Composition of the Generic Group “Names of Bears”

Thus, the lexical group in the idiolect of Abakumov S.A., which includes the names of bears, can be considered generic, because it contains a generic word –

the hyperonym “bear,” there are hyponyms, marked by variability (*медведица* : *медведица*), synonyms (*медвежонок-мальш-дети-детишки*) and homonyms (*четвертак1* и *четвертак2*), word-formation variants (*медведь* и *медведишка*). GG contains subgroups based on the following differential characteristics: Gender, age, type of

nutrition. The group is comprised of both all-Russian and dialectal lexical units (proper dialectal lexical units, word formation, accentual).

The analysis of GG “Bear Names” in the speech of the dialect speaker Abakumov Sergey Alexandrovich showed that the most typical relationship between the names within the group in the idiolect are the relationships of synonymy, which unite all-Russian and dialectal words (*медведица-матуха; медведь-секач*).

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**О ДИАЛЕКТНОЙ САМОБЫТНОСТИ ВЛАШСКИХ СЁЛ (ОТЗЫВ О МОНОГРАФИИ В. МАРИНОВА
«ЗА ФОНОЛОГИЧНИИ СТАТУС НА МЕКИТЕ СЪГЛАСНИ ВЪВ ВЛАШКИЯ ДИАЛЕКТ
В СЕВЕРОЗАПАДНА БЪЛГАРИЯ»)**

Аннотация

В статье-отзыве о монографическом исследовании доктора Владислава Маринова «О фонологическом статусе мягких согласных во влашском диалекте северозападной Болгарии» [2] рассматривается важная фонетико-фонологическая проблема, вокруг которой уже почти более века не прекращаются дискуссии не только в Болгарии, но и в целом в Европе. Автор является одним из компетентных исследователей языковой ситуации в северозападной части Болгарии. Его научные труды посвящены изучению двуязычных влашских сёл, образующих, по мнению профессора И. Кочева, самобытный «остров среди западноболгарского диалектного моря», который удивительным образом совпадает по своим особенностям с восточноболгарскими диалектами и с болгарским литературным языком. Это своеобразие говоров Бреговского района, очевидно, результат сочетания как тенденций в румынском и болгарском языках, унаследованных из прошлого, так и распространенной в наши дни билингвальной интерференции. Д-р В. Маринов глубоко и последовательно на протяжении длительного времени изучает обозначенную проблему, для решения которой ему потребовалось выйти за пределы болгарского северо-запада около Брегова, обрисовать аналогичную картину в болгарском и румынском языках. Многогранность рассматриваемой темы обусловила разработку комплексного социолингвистического и диалектологического подходов [1, с. 16-20], включая сочетание дескриптивного, сравнительно-исторического, сопоставительного (контрастивного) методов в изучении языковой ситуации северо-западной части Болгарии. Обработанный в соответствии с целевыми установками эмпирический материал показал, что в бреговском влашском диалекте корреляция по палатализации проявляется чаще, чем в болгарском языке. Вероятно, сохранение оппозиции «твёрдость – мягкость» в конце слова способствует отчасти и сохранению звучности согласных в конце слова, и это означает, что во влашском диалекте позиций звучных мягких согласных больше, чем в болгарском языке.

Ключевые слова: билингвальная (двуязычная) интерференция, билингвистическая ситуация, влашская речь, говоры, диалекты, диглоссия, дифтонги, консонанты, лингвистический атлас, лингвогеография, фонологический статус, фонология.

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**ABOUT DIALECTAL DISTINCTIVE CHARACTER OF VLACH VILLAGES (REVIEW ABOUT
MONOGRAPH OF V. MARINOV “ABOUT PHONOLOGICAL STATUS OF SOFT CONSONANTS IN VLACH
DIALECT OF NORTH-WEST BULGARIA”)**

Abstract

In the article-review about monographic research of Doctor Vladislav Marinov “About phonological status of soft consonants in Vlach dialect of the north-west Bulgaria” [2] an important phonetics-phonological problem, about which a lot of discussions have been taking place for more than century not only in Bulgaria but in Europe at large, is considered. The author is one of competent researchers of linguistic situation in the north-west part of Bulgaria. His scientific works are dedicated to the research study of bilingual Vlach villages, forming, in accordance with professor I. Kochev’s opinion, distinctive “island among west-Bulgarian dialectal sea”, which in a remarkable manner coincides with the east-Bulgarian dialects and Bulgarian literary language by its features. This individuality of parlanges of Bregov district, is, evidently, the result of combination both tendencies in Rumanian and Bulgarian languages, derived from the past, and bilingual interference widespread nowadays. Doctor V. Marinov has been investigating the above mentioned problem deeply and sequentially for a long time, and to solve it he had to go beyond Bulgarian north-west near Bregov, to feature analogical picture in Bulgarian and Rumanian languages. Many-sidedness of the considered subject stipulates developing of the complex social-linguistic and dialectological approaches [1, p.16-20], including combination of descriptive, comparative historical, contrastive-comparative (constratal) methods in studying of linguistic situation of the north-west part of Bulgaria. Empirical material, handled in accordance with goals, showed that correlation in palatalization appears in Bregov Vlash dialect more often than in Bulgarian language. Obviously, saving opposition “hardness-softness” in the end of the word saves sonority of consonants in the word-final position, in some degree, that means that there are more positions of sonorous soft consonants in Vlach dialect than in Bulgarian language.

Keywords: bilingual interference, bilingual situation, Vlach speech, parlanges, dialects, diglossia, diphthongs, consonants, linguistic atlas, linguistic geography, phonological status, phonemics.

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There are not so many academic pursuits, dedicated to Vlach dialects of the far north-west of Bulgaria: most scientists of the beginning and middle of XX century (K. Konstante, A. Golopentsiya, F. Kanits, G. Vaygand, G. Vlsan and E.Bukutsa, F. Floresky, D. Marinov, etc), having visited this region, were interested in history and ethnography, and the dialect was considered as a marker for distinguishing of speech of bilingual inhabitants from

villages near Vidin city from the speech of the rest monolingual population without determining their ethnicity.

One of the discussing issues in Rumanian linguistic is connected with the presence or absence of timbre phonologically significant correlation “hardness-softness” of consonants. Considering this issue, the terms “palatalization” and “palatality” are used. While softening and palatalization, there are processes at which articulatory place of a phone

changes (gravitates to the palate) and an additional articulation appears. Palatality of consonants can be both phonologically relevant to the front vowels and to the back ones. In Bulgarian linguistic literature the term “palatalization” (softening) also means the changes experienced by velar consonants under the influence of front vowels (I, II, III kinds of palatalization) in Common and Old Slavic languages. Generic term “soft consonants” applied in the analyzed work.

In theoretic part of the monograph with references to English-language works of P. Ladefoged, K. Dzhonson, Rumanian researchers I. Kitoran, Dzh. Hyuld, and also Russian classics N.S. Trubetskoy and R. Jakobson, the author pays attention to the distinction of terms “absolute palatalization” and “secondary (additional) one”, inappropriate using of which causes terminological confusion.

The object of regard of the undertaken scientific research – Vlach dialect, representing peripheral parlance on the Bulgaria territory and having in its basis dialect, Rumanian by origin, on all levels of which Bulgarian has influenced very much. One of the variant of this dialect is spoken by the most inhabitants of Bregov community – the farthest north-west part of the country. Linguistic situation in their villages differs with the combining of bilingualism and diglossia, as the mentioned dialect is actively used alongside with the forms of the Bulgarian (linguistic situation is alike with the described in [3] characteristics of some districts of multilingual Bashkortostan). As Vl. Marinov specifies, at present, due to the interference influences by Bulgarian this Dako-Rumanian dialect (in diachronic plan) coincides with no one from Rumanian dialects, spoken in the north from the Danube river. To avoid terminological mess of Rumanian dialects spread in Rumania and ones, spoken in Bulgaria (Arumanian one, and also Rumanian ones in Nikopolsk, Plevensk area) in the work for specifying non-Bulgarian speech of bilinguals in Vidinsk area the term “Vlach dialect” and its synonyms “Bregov Vlach dialect” and “Vlach linguistic form” are used.

Bulky practical material was collected by the author in villages of Bregov community in real-life conditions from 2005 to 2014, applying the method of stochastic choice and overt observation. The author’s analytical severity in material describing and provided validity of the conclusions are sympathetic.

The analysis of idiolect phonation showed that there are soft consonants varied from ones, included in autonomous palatal row, specific for the western Bulgarian dialects in Bulgarian and Vlach speech of the bilinguals from the far north-west of Bulgaria. Autonomous palatal row met both in other Slavic and Romans languages, is typical for adjacent dialects of Vidinsk-Lom group. Linguistic facts, revealed and described by Vl. Marinov, speak that the investigation has not only private but general-purpose value due to determining the presence of soft consonants in one of Roman languages.

Considering the questions of theoretical phonology and experimental phonetics the author follows ideological views of E. Petrovich – a specialist in Rumanian. Critical interpretation of separate theoretical positions of Al. Rosetti school (A.Avrám, D.Copchag, Al.Graur and others) is based on experimental data, got by the researcher and disputes the existence of some “pseudo” “semi-vocal”[i] in Rumanian end-of-word. Provided by Vl. Marinov numerous evidences of the existence of soft consonants in the middle-of-word before graphic record “diphthong” [ea] are convincing also.

It is admitted that by phonetic (acoustic) characteristics in the end and middle-of-word Vlach soft consonants don’t differ from those in the middle-of-word in Bulgarian literary language and most eastern-Bulgarian ones in the end- and middle-of-word, as growth of consonantism in Rumanian and Bulgarian is similar in the result of lexis-phonetics and phonological impact of Bulgarian on Rumanian and Vlach dialect. However, in spite of languages’ contacts Rumanian and Vlach dialect save soft consonants in end-of-word, but they disappear in Bulgarian. On the one hand, the softness in the end-of-word closely related to preservation of consonants sonority in the end-of-word in Vlach dialect, and because of this feature it is close to Romance type of languages. Together with this Vlach dialect save softness [ɥ] in end-of-word due to its phonomorphological function. On the other hand, there are no soft sibilants and phone [x] in Vlach dialect, but they present both in Bulgarian and Rumanian literary languages.

Sequential analysis of experimental material in conjunction with his theoretical summation allowed to Dr. Vl. Marinov come to the conclusion that modern language situation in villages of Bregov community is bilingual and consists of two components: Bulgarian that is similar to the literary spoken standard and Vlach dialect, at the bottom of that is Rumanian dialects of transition zone between Olten and Banat parlanges to the north from Danube river. Bulgarian parlanges to the west from Yatov border (reflects [Ђ] — the sound ятъ intended) are characterized by the presence of palatal row, consisting of several consonants [л’], [н’], [к’], [г’], [й’]) with strong softness, missing in Bregov and neighbor villages citizens’ parlanges, where the softness of consonants is of literary (east Bulgarian) type. The remark about admission of the role of Bulgarian language in the process of appearing “literary softness” in the west Bulgarian dialect with the account of the parallel influence of Vlach dialect on this process, made by the author is essentially. The conducted analysis of the recorded dialects showed that consonant softness appearing is the same in the speech of all informants and independent of social-demographical factors such as age, education, gender. As for consonant system, natural for the young generation, we can assert that the presence of soft consonant in it is influenced by Bulgarian literary language, but the reason for their appearing in the speech of middle- and old- age generation is the influence of Vlach dialect. The results of the spectrum analysis, conducted by the researcher, show that acoustic characteristics of Vlach and Rumanian consonants before [-ea], [-ia] and final [i] are identical to characteristics of Bulgarian soft consonants.

The remark of Vl. Marinov about recognition the role of Bulgarian literary language in the process of appearing “literary softness” in the east-Bulgarian dialect with the account of parallel influence of Vlach one on this process, is considered to be essential in the discussed context by us. Polling, technical and linguistic analysis of the recorded idiolects, conducted by the researcher, showed that appearances of consonant softness are similar in the speech of informants of different social-demographic status. The author, fairly pointing that pronouncing skills are formed in early infancy, asserts that softness appeared under the influence of Vlach dialect which is the first by the features of practicing and frequency of speaking for bilinguals. On lexical level they are two opposite tendencies characterful for the considered language subsystem – conserving archaic Rumanian features and constant renewal by Bulgarian lexis with the preservation of Rumanian phonetics, the evidence to

this is the presence of Central European “л” in speech of bilinguals having higher education.

Thus, softness in the end-of-word has phonologically relevant character and performs form-distinctive functions. In Vlach dialect the softness in the end-of-word is characteristic only for labial and sonant consonants; the form changing of the rest consonants is identified by consonant alternation.

For the first time, the general classification of soft consonants in Bregov Vlach dialects was made by Vl. Marinov. The researcher’s observations on linguistic behavior of soft consonants lead to solving the problem of existence of the correlation “hardness — softness” in Rumanian.

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Psycholinguistics. Psychology of language (UDC 81'23)

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СПЕЦИФИКА МОЛОДЕЖНОГО ЖАРГОНА В ИНДИВИДУАЛЬНОМ ЛЕКСИКОНЕ

Аннотация

Статья посвящена выявлению специфики некоторых аспектов функционирования молодежного жаргона в индивидуальном лексиконе. Рассматривая состояние молодежного жаргона в современном обществе в контексте его "интернетизации" на фоне доминирования в общении единых информационных пространств, рекламы и масс-медиа, авторы выделяют стратегии, используемые носителями языка при идентификации жаргонизмов, а также анализируют влияние на этот процесс культурных и социальных особенностей, опыта и знаний испытуемых.

Ключевые слова: социолект, молодежный жаргон, индивидуальный лексикон, ментальный лексикон, жаргонизация языка, заимствованная лексика.

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SPECIFICITY OF YOUTH JARGON IN INDIVIDUAL LEXICON

Abstract

The article deals with some aspects of youth jargon functioning in individual lexicon. The authors present the results of free associative experiment, which was aimed at figuring out strategies of jargon expressions identification. The state of youthspeak in modern society is considered in terms of its "internetization" in a context of shared information spaces, advertisement and the media prevailing in modern communicative sphere and the influence of cultural and social peculiarities, experience and knowledge of the tested is analyzed.

Keywords: sociolect, youth jargon, youth slang, youthspeak, loanwords, individual lexicon, mental lexicon, jargonization of language.

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One of the widely discussed issues in linguistic literature of recent years is language transformations and sociolects, including youth jargon. Various aspects of language social differentiation always attract researchers' focused attention, as thus one can see language functioning in situations of real communication. Today linguists talk about youthspeak mostly in terms of changing a native speaker's personality as well as individual's perception of the world rather than influencing the state of modern language. In other words, it's not enough to understand *how* the language changes enriching itself with jargon expressions of different nature, but *why* native speakers now choose jargon expressions instead of literal norm and in what way it can impact their schemes of behavior. It means that one more important moment here is what the factors which define the principles of social and individual language variability are and how jargon expressions are identified by us and included into individual lexicon. These are probably common questions for the whole field of researching social differentiation of language, but we believe youthspeak, traditionally being the most open and sensitive lexical group, offers some opportunities for defining patterns of human's speech behavior in terms of jargonization of language.

The state of youth jargon in modern society, its "internetization" in a context of shared information spaces, advertisement and the media prevailing in modern communicative sphere can only confirm A.A.Leontiev's idea of defining psychological aspects of social matters through "changes in social-psychological or social structure of society or stimulation of direct social phenomenon through impact on the mentality of either a certain social group or the whole society" [6, P. 256]. For this extend, as we reckon, in informational society it's precisely consciousness of a certain person which in fact turns to be "the creator", the basis for constructing the world around, using the endless opportunities and borderless potential of natural language for

its own purposes. Human activities always make a person refer to "the idea of the world" carried in mind, evoking certain feelings, experiences, relations, evaluations, which can't but reflect in the language [5]. L.S.Vygotsky emphasized that a meaning of a word in speech is never constant, it riches the word through the dynamics which give opportunities to get newer and newer senses out of the whole context [3]. It can fully be shown in a specific "jargonization" of modern language which predicates forthcoming of such a phenomena as transnational jargon.

For the purpose of discovering the strategies used by native speakers when identifying jargon expressions, we carried out an experimental research. In the course of the research a working hypothesis was made, according to which modern society contributes towards appearing of new jargon expressions, which creates a certain way of viewing the world determined by society, culture and personality. We chose a number of jargon expressions from thematic forums, listings of ICQ program, blogs and some jargon dictionaries, then analyzed chats and public messages on web sites www.vk.com, www.facebook.com, www.sprashivay.ru, www.odnoklassniki.ru, in messaging programs ICQ, IAM, in chats <http://chat.kursknet.ru> and <http://spchat.ru>. The analyzed items included: ЧАТ (*chat*; a chat), МИТИНГ (*miting*; a meeting), ДРИНК (*drink*; a drink), ДУ ХАСТ (*du khasht*; du hast), БАБКИ (*babki*; money), СИСАДМИН (*sisadmin*; IT systems administrator), АВАТАР (*avatar*; an avatar), ТУСОВКА (*tusovka*; a party), АССИСТ (*assist*; an assistant), ДУМЕР (*dumer*; DOOMer, a fan of DOOM computer game), ЛАЙКАТЬ (*laikat'*, to like), ПОСТИТЬ (*postit'*, to post), ТВИТНУТЬ (*tvitnut'*, to tweet), УЛЁТНЫЙ (*ulyotnyi*, cool), ЗАБАНИТЬ (*zabanit'*, to ban), ПРИКОЛ (*prikol*; a hoax). Most of the items are loanwords.

The research was carried out with the help of free associative experiment (AE further), which means that the tested were asked to write down spontaneous reactions, that appeared in accordance with this or that word. As a result,

verbal reactions, drawings and associative definitions were received. The first stage of data processing is the so called “vertical analysis”, which means fluent overview of filled forms and aims at excluding those being inapplicable for future analysis (for example, the ones with unreadable words). During the statistical processing grammatical forms of one word were counted as one. All the experimental forms were claimed to be suitable for the analysis.

We have to limit the presentation of the experiment results to its most significant part as due to the size of the thesis it seems to be impossible to introduce all the data received. Two main conceptions laid in the theoretical basis for the analysis are A.A. Zalevskaya’s conception about the variety of strategies used when perceiving a word depending on the specificity of the material shown [4] and the conception of T.Y. Sazonova, who assumes that the research of peculiarities of the word identification process presupposes modelling of operations and mechanisms, serving the goal of perceiving a word and searching it in memory as well as solving cognitive tasks [9, P.15].

The first identification strategy is **the strategy of referring a word to a certain situation**. The microcontexts received from the tested are supposed to be the actualization of a situation, where a stimulus is included into a well-known context. This strategy has a leading part among others; the situation here is coded by a stimulus word. Thus, for the overwhelming majority of the tested, the stimulus ЧАТ is strongly connected with friendly communication via a computer mostly at home: друг (a friend) (8); болтать (to chat) (6); диван (a sofa) (4); дом (home) (4); чатиться (to have a chat online) (4); ночь (night) (4); свободное время (free time) (3); сижу и смотрю (I’m sitting and watching) (2) and so on. Some of the tested have the situation actualized through such reactions as: МИТИНГ – площадь (a square) (7); Пушкинский (Pushkinski shopping centre, the biggest shopping centre in Kursk city, where the experiment was carried out) (4); кино (a movie) (5); весна (spring) (3); флаги (flags) (2); попкорн (popcorn) (2); очки (glasses) (2) and so on. Other tested showed the connection between a stimulus and a computer game, for example: ДУМЕР – играть (to play) (4); азарт (gambling thrill) (6); вперёд (to go forward) (3); побеждать (to win) (2) and so on. The analysis of the reactions received proves that a certain experience, whether it’s frequent or significant for a person, is fixed as a reaction, and this frequency or significance can be of different type and origin, for example, ДРИНК – друг (a friend) (7); шампанское (Champaign) (4); БАБКИ – развитие (development) (4); доступ к информации (access to information) (7); результат работы (result of certain work) (2); усталость (tiredness); шум (noise). In our opinion, the examples given above show that while identifying the given stimuli the tested used their knowledge as a footing; the knowledge which stands behind any lexical item and which is important for them in “for me, here and now” situation.

The next identification strategy is **the strategy of generalization**. The strategy of generalization is seen by us as distraction from differential characteristics which leads to a higher level of generalization. We assume that despite modern language jargonization process, it can hardly be said that we know the exact definition or the source which a given word derives from, that’s why the tested tried to understand the sphere of functioning a stimulus can be referred to. For example, ТВИТНУТЬ – поделиться информацией с друзьями (to share information with friends) (6); общение в твиттере (communication in tweeter) (5); предоставить

информацию (to provide information) (4); АВАТАР – фотография, иллюстрация/ картинка (a photograph, illustration/ a picture) (34); социальные сети вконтакте/ фейсбук (social networks) (13); изображение (a picture)(6); маска (a mask) (5); портрет (a portrait)(4); СИСАДМИН – работа в компании (work in a company)(5); должность работника (an employee’s position) (9); ДУ ХАСТ – не знаю, что это такое (don’t know what’s that) (6); слова иностранные (foreign words) (4); надо знать английский, чтобы понять (one needs to know English to understand the meaning) (3) and so on. ПОСТИТЬ – фото (a photo), новости (news), музыка (music), видео, публикация (a publication), запись (a message) (12); размещать/ помещать/ выкладывать (to put, to put online) (11); писать, делиться, рассказывать, отсылать (to write, to share, to tell, to post) (7); социальные сети, интернет, стена, блог (social networks, the Internet, a wall, a blog) (9); ЗАБАНИТЬ – парить, веник, баня (to scald, a besom, banya)(4); бесит мат, неприлично (swear words outrage me, indent) (2) and so on.

One more identification strategy was named **the strategy of direct definition**. Apparently, the tested were to some extent sure that they know the given words and are quite able to define them. For example, ТВИТНУТЬ – выложить, поделиться, написать, записать (to put online, to share, to write, to write down) (10); новость, событие, комментарий (news, event, comment) (7); рассказать (to tell) (5); нажать «мне нравится» (to press “Like”) (4) and so on; ЛАЙКАТЬ – ставить значок «мне нравится» (to put a sign “Like”) (11); выражать симпатию (to show liking) (5); показывать хорошее отношение (to show good attitude) (4). МИТИНГ – встреча (an appointment) (9); собрание (a meeting) (5); большая топа народа (a large crowd of people) (4) and so on. We also single out such a strategy as **identification of a stimulus through a similar synonym**. When looking through synonym rows we noticed that there can be words denoting the same thing along with the words just similar in sounding. ЗАБАНИТЬ – запретить доступ (to deny access), заблокировать (to block) (19); добавить в чёрный список (to add into black list) (6); СИСАДМИН – системный администратор (IT systems administrator) (9); человек, работающий на компьютер (a person working for a computer) (6) etc. It’s necessary to add that the associations received tend to be stereotypic and are mostly based on imaginative conceptualizations, which are widely accepted in this or that speech community, e.g. the youth in our case.

We suppose that a person’s knowledge can be considered as a system of concepts defined as “...constantly stated system of information (opinions, ideas) about the real or imaginary world a person possesses” [7, P. 280].

The next strategy singled out is **the strategy of guiding by letter-sound complex of a word** which happened to occur with some of the tested, for example, ДУМЕР – гумер (gumer; probably, a Turk name) (7); ПРИКОЛ – УКОЛ (ukol; an injection) (3); ПОСТИТЬ – ГОСТИТЬ (gostit’; to be a guest) (2); быть на посту (byt’ na postu; to hold a fort) (2); ЗАБАНИТЬ – баня (banya; a Russian sauna) (2). It’s interesting to mention that, being the basis for identifying an impetus, a morphological form and letter-sound complex of a word direct the process of identification further according to the course given by the reaction to that stimulus. For example, the word баня, being the reaction to the stimulus ЗАБАНИТЬ, caused in mind such an associative row: мыло (a soap), парная (a room in a Russian sauna), друзья (friends), париться (to scald).

The most diverse reactions were received for the stimuli DU KHAŠT and ULYOTNIY, which can be explained by a high level of imagery the origin of these lexical items. Remarkably, among different reactions to these stimuli there were a lot of drawings. It let us talk about **the identification strategy of visual image actualization**. For example, УЛЁТНЫЙ – летит самолёт высоко (a plane is flying high) (7); высокое синее небо (high blue sky) (6); белые облака (white clouds) (4); ДУ ХАСТ – бежит быстро (he runs fast) (5); падение (a fall) (4); спешка (a hurry) (3); бег (running) (3), человек куда-то спешит (a person is hurrying somewhere) (2). When singling out this strategy we were guided by concrete conceptual framework of a stimulus and used such terms as “specificity – abstractedness of individual conceptual framework” [11, P. 89].

It's necessary to say that the stimulus words chosen for the experiment refer to different thematic fields, but all of them are widely spread in internet mediated communication of the youth. They denote diverse range of things and events of real and imaginary world, for native speakers they are substances of different type, so it was only natural to expect a variety of associations with prevailing traces of social and age-related experience. That's why there were some reactions quite difficult to explain and that allowed us to mark out **the strategy of guiding by social experience**. For example, ПОСТИТЬ – помощь (help), выходить в свет (to go out); сопливую ваниль (a three-hankie cutie stuff); АВАТАР – фильм «Аватар»; лицемерие (hypocrisy), флирт (flirting), понты (showing off), очки (glasses); СИСАДМИН – телевизор (a TV), женский доктор (a women's doctor), чувак (a pal); ЛАЙКНУТЬ – зря добавили эту функцию (this function is useless), редко (rarely), собака (a dog); ТВИТНУТЬ – голубой цвет (a blue colour), птичка (a bird,

some external traits of Tweeter social network), “собака” (@ sign); реклама (advertisement) and so on.

The comparative analysis carried out revealed some common as well as specific traits of youth jargon. The differences in perceiving the given stimuli were determined first of all by cultural and social peculiarities quite usual for a human, and also by personal experience, knowledge and current mood of every single person tested. The experiment allowed us to single out the following strategies of identifying youth jargon: the strategy of referring a word to a certain situation, the strategy of generalization, the strategy of direct definition, strategy of identification through a similar synonym, the strategy of guiding by letter-sound complex of a word, the identification strategy of visual image actualization, the strategy of guiding by social experience. Rapid development of youth jargon is rather undulating that constant, it is usually predicated by some significant events in the life of society. The last wave of active youth jargon development is the one connected with global computerization of society. Today's opportunities offered by device market and rapid development of the Internet as means of mass communication make cross cultural communication available for everyone. Youth jargon has already crossed the borders of one language, the same jargon expressions are used in many cultures at once, but it's important to say that under the influence of certain cultural factors a word tends to get different shades of meaning. Sometimes for representatives of different cultures one and the same jargon expression can get new meanings which easily move aside its original unified definition. Along with cultural peculiarities which can influence the process of perceiving a certain word, there are some personal characteristics of different individuals which also take part in the process of forming ideas of phenomena.

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

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ПОСЕССИВНЫЙ ВЫБОР В РЕЧЕВОЙ ПРАКТИКЕ ДЕТЕЙ ДОШКОЛЬНОГО И ШКОЛЬНОГО ВОЗРАСТА (ПО ДАННЫМ ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО ЭКСПЕРИМЕНТА)*Аннотация*

В статье анализируются данные, полученные в ходе лингвистического эксперимента, проведённого в детских садах и школах Омска с целью выявления языковых предпочтений детей в ситуации выбора между тремя типами атрибутивных конструкций, выражающих possessive отношения, которые в русском языке имеют следующие способы выражения: 1) имя существительное в родительном падеже с предлогом и без него, 2) местоимение, 3) имя прилагательное. Исследование показало, во всех ситуациях испытуемые отдавали предпочтение имени существительному в родительном падеже, что соответствует и обычной речевой практике взрослых. В случаях использования имени прилагательного, испытуемые чаще всего отдавали предпочтение притяжательным, что обусловлено их спецификой: именно они предназначены обозначать индивидуальную принадлежность. Из всего многообразия суффиксов притяжательных прилагательных, респонденты выбирали для их образования морфемы -ин-/-ын-, что свидетельствует о несомненной продуктивности данного словообразовательного типа. Анализ языковых предпочтений в зависимости от возраста и пола показал парадоксальную специфику в употреблении притяжательных прилагательных: в пятилетнем возрасте и мальчики, и девочки в своих ответах использовали их значительно чаще, чем юноши и девушки пятнадцати лет.

Ключевые слова: possessivity, noun, pronoun, adjective, possessive adjective, speech practice, linguistic experiment.

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POSSESSIVE CHOICE IN SPEECH PRACTICE OF CHILDREN OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL AGE (ACCORDING TO THE RESULTS OF THE LINGUISTIC EXPERIMENT)*Abstract*

The article analyzes the data obtained in the course of a linguistic experiment conducted in Omsk kindergartens and schools in order to identify language preferences among children when they are faced with the choice between three types of attributive constructions that express possessive relationships. These relationships have the following means of expression in the Russian language: 1) noun in the genitive case with the preposition and without it, 2) pronoun, 3) adjective. The study showed that tested children preferred nouns in the genitive case in all situations, which corresponds to typical practice of adult speech. If children used an adjective, it was typically possessive, which is determined by their specificity: They are used to denote individual belonging. The respondents preferred morphemes -in-/-yn- out of the variety of suffixes of possessive adjectives which demonstrates unquestionable productivity of this derivational type. The analysis of language preferences, which depend on the age and sex of respondents showed surprising specificity in the use of possessive adjectives: At the age of five, both boys and girls used them much more often in their responses than boys and girls of fifteen.

Keywords: possessivity, noun, pronoun, adjective, possessive adjective, speech practice, linguistic experiment.

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The concept of ownership, personal belonging is an integral part of understanding the world around us. To a greater extent, it depends on the culture and mindset of the particular people. The category of possessivity as one of the major linguistic categories is represented in all the languages of the world. Ownership in linguistics is interpreted in different ways. On the one hand, ownership can refer to a legal right to own something, possessor's direct ownership (the subject), where the possessor is an animate object (a person or an animal), and the possessed (the object) is an inanimate one. On the other hand, "in a broader sense of possessivity, it may contain not only a particular object of possessivity, but also an action or a characteristic represented as a kind of a substance in the language" [10, P. 202]. In this article, we adhere to a narrower understanding of possessivity which can be expressed in several ways in the Russian language: By an attributive (using a noun in the genitive case, possessive pronoun, and adjective) and a predicate (using verbs of possession, for example, an auxiliary verb "to be" and an independent verb "to belong".) Scientists in the field of Philology [5], [6], [9] consider the category of possessivity and the ways of its expression from the point of view of theoretical linguistics, historical and comparative linguistics.

In this case, related languages are analyzed (such as Czech and Russian, English and German). Linguists described possessive constructions with possessive pronouns [7] and verbs that express the idea of ownership [8] in detail, but they didn't fully cover the adjectives that, in our opinion, have greater structural and semantic diversity. In Russian, there is a special category of adjectives used to indicate possession – these are possessive adjectives, the fate of which, as in Vinogradov's precise phrase, "is devoid of prospect" [2, P. 197], but the reasons of that attitude are still unknown.

Adjectives are essentially a bookish word form, so the use of this part of speech in oral communication is of particular interest, especially in children's speech. After all, kindergartens and schools are working on the development of speech; the attention is given to adjectives as well. The main task of adjectives is to make speech more expressive, more precise. In this connection, we conducted an experiment, the aim of which was to identify language preferences when it comes to the choice in possessive position.

The experiment was conducted from March to July 2016 in schools and kindergartens of Omsk and Omsk region (Gymnasium No. 84, School No. 47, School No. 144, Irtys School; Kindergartens No. 339, 354, 24, 87, 247, 206, 349, 101, 44, 130, 379). The study involved 2 189 people who

gave responses to 16 621 questions. All participants were divided into three groups (with a certain degree of conventionality) due to their social status and educational curriculum in the Russian language: The first group consisted of preschoolers who are familiar with the language system on “a natural” level, primary school students comprised the second group as they have not yet studied possessive adjectives deliberately, and the third group encompassed students of 6-9 grades as they have already studied possessive adjectives.

In the course of the experiment students were asked to answer 9 questions in writing based on 9 pictures, each of the questions began with “*whose?*” (*whose collar, whose scarf, whose pointer, etc.*). Respondents recorded anonymous answers on separate forms, providing information about their sex and age. They were allowed to give multiple answers, but during the analysis of the results we took into account only the first one, even if this response was struck through by the respondent. Students could not explain the reason for the change of the answer, they just shrugged their shoulders. Most likely, they were influenced by the choice of the word by their neighbour; students assumed that their answers were incorrect after seeing the responses of the others – that is why they struck it through.

As for preschoolers, the experiment was conducted orally: Each child was shown 5 images and asked to describe them. Children were asked some leading questions like *who is that? what is he holding in his hands? what is there next to him?* the key question was *whose?* and it was asked as the last one.

The results of the experiment were divided into groups depending on the age and sex of the respondents, as well as based on the morphological principle of their answers. 4 categories were singled out: Nouns in the genitive case, adjectives (this group includes both possessive adjectives and also relative ones, indicating, in the opinion of respondents, the relations of belonging), pronouns and other. The category of “other” includes words that do not contain the answer to the question, for example, there were nouns in the nominative case and even whole sentences (e.g., *the collar belongs to the dog, the pointer belongs to the teacher*), which, are appropriate, of course, but, their number is unessential (23 responses out of 16 621), and secondly, they were all created following the same pattern with the help of the verb “to belong,” and, therefore, they are of no special interest for the research. The category “other” also includes works with no answer to a certain question (the reason for the absence of the answer is unknown). These were mostly the works of the students at the age of 13-14.

When giving answers, the respondents typically chose a noun in the genitive case, the maximum number of replies in this form was given by students of fifteen-years old. Adjectives were typically chosen by the children as young as four-five years old. A certain tendency can be traced among both sexes: As they grow older, the number of nouns used in their speech increases, while the number of adjectives used falls down. The choice of an adjective at the age of four reached the value of 42.86%, at the age of 15 it comprised 18.75%, however, on average, it was a ten percent mark. Despite the unpopularity of the possessive adjective, this part of speech is of particular interest because of its structure.

Let us look at word-formation types, which were used to create occasional adjectives in more detail.

It is well known that “a word-formation type is a scheme (formula) of the derivative words structure, characterized by three common elements: 1) part of speech of the productive

bases, 2) semantic relation between the derivatives and productive bases, and 3) formal relations between the derivatives and productive bases” [4, P. 182], i.e. common formant.

In all cases, animate nouns (the pictures contained images of a *dog, bear, teacher, goose, builder, elephant, chicken, fisherman, cat*) were used as a motivational basis, a semantic link between the derivative and the productive word can be defined as “belonging, connection with an object is mentioned in the root of a word,” in all different types of word-formation only formants will differ.

Usual adjectives with suffix **-ий-** and its variations were used in 30.87% of all cases of the adjectives use: *собачий, щенячий, медвежий, птичий, слоновий, рыбацкий, кошачий* (dog’s, puppy’s, bear’s, bird’s, elephant’s, fish’s, cat’s).

The speech of students of mid-level was marked by such adjectives (in brackets we indicated how many times each word was used): *собачачий* (1), *медведий* (1), *медвежачий* (2), *гусячий* (1), *гусий* (3), *слоний* (4), *слонячий* (3) (dog’s, bear’s, goose’s, elephant’s).

The responses of younger primary school students contained similar words: *уткий* (2), *слонячий* (1), *слоничий* (1), *слоний* (3), *курачий* (1) (duck’s, elephants, hen’s).

Preschoolers created the following nonce words: *слоникий* (1), *слоний* (15), *слонячий* (5), *курочий* (2), *курий* (1), *петуший* (2), *петухий* (1), *петушачий* (1), *петухчий* (1) (elephant’s, hen’s, peacock’s).

Examples show that suffix **-ий-** is widely used in speech as well as its elongated version **-ачий-**: words like *медвежачий, слонячий, петушачий* (bear’s, elephant’s, peacock’s) were created by analogy with such literary words as *собачий, рыбацкий, щенячий* and *кошачий* (dog’s, fish’s, cat’s), but the first and the second words are marked by the historical alternation [к//ч], while the third and the fourth are characterized by truncated final (-ок/-к) and elongated affix.

Literary adjectives with suffix **-ин-** and its variations were used in 52.24% of all word usages: *собачин, гусиный, утиный, дядин, тетин, мамин, папин, куриный, курицын, петушинный, дедин, дедушкин, кошкин* (dog’s, goose’s, uncle’s, aunt’s, mother’s, father’s, hen’s, peacock’s, grandmother’s, cat’s).

In the course of the study such adjectives as *собакин* (150), *собачкин* (95), *мишкин* (72), *курочкин* (102), *кошечкин* (24) (dog’s, mouse’s, hen’s, cat’s) were used by the representatives of different age and gender groups.

In addition to the above listed words, the speech of middle-level students contained such adjectives as: *медвежаткин* (1), *девочкин* (1), *уткин* (11), *гусин* (1), *утин* (1), *птичкин* (1), *гусинин* (1), *утинин* (1), *слонинный* (2), *курицын* (2) (bear’s, girl’s, duck’s, goose’s, bird’s, elephant’s, hen’s).

Primary school students formed the words: *медведин* (9), *медвежин* (1), *учителин* (1), *уткин* (28), *гусин* (3), *слонин* (5), *слонинный* (2), *кискин* (1) (bear’s, teacher’s, duck’s, goose’s, elephant’s, cat’s).

Preschoolers created the following nonce words: *собачкиный* (1), *слонин* (35), *слонинный* (9), *слонькин* (1), *слоненкин* (1), *дедушкиная* (1), *дедыная* (1), *дедана* (7), *рыбина* (1), *курочкиное* (2), *куричино* (4), *куричиное* (1), *куричкино* (2), *курицыное* (3), *курыно* (1), *петушино* (1), *петухино* (3), *петухинное* (1), *петушкино* (1), *кокоино* (1), *цыпино* (1), *яичкино* (1), *дядиная* (1), *дяденькиная* (2), *человекина* (2), *работникина* (1), *мальчикина* (6), *мальчикина* (1), *мастерина* (1) (dog’s, elephant’s,

grandfather's, fish's, hen's, peacock's, chick's, egg's, uncle's, man's, builder's, boy's, craftsman's).

The collected material which contains a great number of formed adjectives allows us to say that suffix *-ин-* is productive (even the words characteristic to child's speech only – *ко—ко* (chick-chick) was transformed into *кокоино*). Secondly, we can make a conclusion about the unpopularity of short adjectives in child's speech, which is especially evident in the following examples of the words formed by preschoolers: Literary word *дядина* (uncle's) gets the ending *-я*, which makes it look similar to the full form of adjectives – *дядиная*.

Adjectives with suffix *-ов-* and its variants were quite rare (4.18% word usages) in the respondents' answers: Teenagers provided only one word with such suffix: *слоновый* (13) (elephant's), primary school students: *слоновый* (3) (elephant's), *дедова*(2) (grandfather's), дошкольники: *слоновый* (5) (elephant's), *дедова* (7) (grandfather's), *слониковый* (1) (elephant's), *петуховое* (1)(elephant's), *строительова* (2) (builder's), *дяденькова* (2) (uncle's), *работчикова* (1 child, meaning a builder, called him работчик). The materials of the experiment indicate that this suffix is unproductive even in the speech of kindergarten pupils.

Suffix *-ск-* is productive in the modern Russian language, adjectives with this affix indicate its relatedness to something, but the same words can denote individual belonging in certain situations, in particular when a person is meant. The material of the research confirms this: Words *учительская* (teacher's room), *строительская* (builder's), *человеческая* (people's), *хозяйская*(household's), *дедовская* (grandfather's) are derived from the names of people in these professions or their social status. The number of these words in the study comprises an 8.47% word usage which indicates their relativity. Question *whose?* would be more appropriate when it comes to these adjectives – these words mean a certain characteristic of the object rather than belonging:

Teacher's pointer does not belong to the teacher, it refers to the teaching profession.

The remaining 4.24% responses in the form of adjectives comprise a separate group as they do not answer a question, these are such words as: *Чужой, общий, синий, государственный, школьный* (stranger's, common, blue, state, school).

The study showed that diversity of nonce words is motivated rather by morphological processes than by the peculiarities of the suffix and motivational base. These morphological processes can be either fixed (for example, elongated morph in such words as *собачачий, петушачий, петухчий, слонячий, слоничий, гусячий, медвежачий, гусинин, утинин* – dog's, peacock's, elephant's, goose's, bear's, duck's) or non-fixed (e.g., there is no historical alternation in words *медведий, медведин, петухий* – bear's, peacock's) depending on each particular case.

In general, the results of the experiment are the following: In a situation of possessive choice, a noun in the genitive case either with a preposition or without it was used in 71.65% of cases, an adjective – in 21.58%, the remaining responses comprised 6.77%. The tendency to replace an adjective with a noun has started in mid XIX century [3], its reasons are not fully studied, maybe, this is the case of the development of analytism in the Russian language [1]. In addition, the experiment has shown the productivity of one suffixes and unproductive nature of the others in possessive adjectives, which indicates a certain problem: With age, having studied the Russian language at school, children learn rules, including the word-formation ones, (as mastering proper speech is one of the main educational tasks), but it leads to the reduction of the number of adjectives in their oral communication, which means that their speech loses one of its important qualities – its expressiveness. Specific work with texts, however, can partially solve this problem, as texts contain serious linguo-didactic materials [11, P. 158].

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АНАЛИЗ ДОКУМЕНТОВ, ПОЛУЧЕННЫХ ИЗ СЕТИ INTERNET

Аннотация

Статья посвящена проблемам, связанным с автоматическим поиском документов посредством сетевых поисковых машин, анализу документов, использованию и развитию сетевых ресурсов, таких как тезаурусы и онтологии. Представлена табличная классификация источников получения информации из сети Internet. Предложена схема расширения традиционной модели поиска дополнительными оптимизирующими блоками. Сделаны предложения по расширению концептуальной модели, связанные с необходимостью уменьшить размерность множества документов, полученных поисковой машиной, до релевантного проблеме множества документов.

Ключевые слова: анализ документов, термины документа, оптимизация запроса, тезаурусы, онтологии, поисковые машины.

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ANALYSIS OF DOCUMENTS WHICH OBTAINED BY NETWORK

Abstract

The article deals with the problems associated with automatic search documents through Web search engines, analysis of documents, use and development of network resources such as thesauri and ontologies. In tabular classification presented for the main sources of information from the Web network. The scheme of expanding the traditional search model includes additional optimizing blocks. Also conceptual model of computer search is analyzed. Suggestions to expand the conceptual model, associated with the need to reduce the dimension of the set of documents obtained by the search engine are given.

Keywords: analysis of documents, terms of documents, search engines, query optimization, thesauri, ontologies, search engines.

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Статья изъята

Статья изъята

Статья изъята

Text linguistics. Discourse analysis (UDC 81'42)

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АВТОРИТЕТНОСТЬ В КОММУНИКАЦИИ: ПРЯМАЯ И КОСВЕННАЯ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается категория авторитетности в научном дискурсе и дискурсе массовой коммуникации. Утверждается, что авторитетность проявляет себя в виде прямых и косвенных маркеров и служит для повышения авторитета как самого сообщаемого, так и его автора. Вместе с тем предлагается рассматривать средство передачи информации в качестве маркера авторитетности. Авторы делают вывод о том, что авторитетность, свойственная любой форме коммуникации, является одновременно и целью и стратегией, а понимание этого помогает сделать коммуникацию в рассмотренных областях более эффективной.

Ключевые слова: научный дискурс, дискурс СМИ, категория авторитетности, косвенные маркеры авторитетности.

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AUTHORITY IN COMMUNICATION: DIRECT AND INDIRECT

Abstract

This article considers the category of authoritativeness in scientific and media discourse. It is assumed that authority manifests itself in the form of direct and indirect markers and increases the authority of the message and its author. It is also proposed to treat the medium as one of authority markers. The authors conclude that authority is an integral characteristic of any kind of communication. Taking into account the fact that authority is both the goal and the strategy can make communication in given spheres more effective.

Keywords: scientific discourse, media discourse, category of authoritativeness, indirect markers of authority.

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In this article we are going to look at the category of authoritativeness in scientific discourse and media discourse. We assume that authority is a category inherent in communication in different spheres because of the dialogical nature of communication which is involved in the process of human cooperation and interaction. The roles of the participants are not equal one of them being more trustworthy or argumentative than the other. There is a bright example in the article written by V.B. Kashkin, the professor of Voronezh State University. In his lectures he asked students who they would believe more, the dean or the cleaner, if they heard this: "There won't be lectures tomorrow". The choice was obviously in favour of the dean, which means that it's not the word that matters but who says the word [2].

Authority (of a person, group of people, social institute) is an entitative phenomenon of social reality. It appears as a consequence of social wants and is intended to insure their repetition. Authority is also the ability to direct (without resort to force) the behavior and thinking logic of other people to the way that is desirable for the person possessing authority. The possibility of such influence (that can be either purposeful or unintended, involuntary) is largely conditioned by our positive emotional attitude towards the authority carrier.

The media are justly called the fourth estate, because the minority of those in power (authorities) can influence the majority (general public) controlling their thoughts and guiding their actions.

The phenomenon of television has been thoroughly studied and a lot has been said and written about it. Television, as a medium and a mediator, has undoubtedly got authority. In the recent past viewers implicitly believed what they saw on TV, especially in the news, thanks to that credibility and trustworthiness created by on-the-spot reports, live broadcast and so on. It should be admitted that audiovisual TV environment is immersive.

The authoritativeness of news is closely connected with their objectivity, which is, on the one hand, the key requirement for the news reports, but, on the other hand, this objectivity is superficial taking into account all the stages of news production.

There are direct markers of authority in media texts such as indication of the source of information, sound-bites and quotes belonging to prominent people, references to opinion-makers and so on. But what is often underestimated and even neglected is the role of indirect (hidden) authority. And we believe that a famous metaphor "The medium is the message", which implies that the medium has much more power over the user than the message delivered through it, is as relevant as ever. This deliberately paradoxical statement was said by Marshall McLuhan in the period of transition from the print code to the audiovisual code (represented by television) It should be underlined, however, that McLuhan was really forward-looking in his assessment of the role of the media and his ideas could be extended on new forms of media.

With the advent of Internet our media landscape has changed a lot, though it might not be fully realized now. Erosion of confidence in TV as a dominating medium among television news audiences and competition with Internet forced the former to undertake something to hold its audience. It must be admitted that the character of TV news is changing. Nowadays news programs tend to be more like talk shows with their aggressive rhetoric and attempts to prove something by all means.

Politics could be a good example. The television medium gave birth to a new form of politics – television politics. According to McLuhan this new format brought to the fore the image of a politician while the policy of the party they represent is sidelined. Media coverage of the presidential election campaign of 2016 excellently illustrates this idea. There were news reports about political debates in the USA with the candidates for the presidency Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump and the emphasis on their personalities was

very strong. The fly on Hillary's face during the second presidential debate got on the news: "Confirmed, Hillary is a robot" – Twitter goes meltdown after a fly lands on Hillary Clinton's face and she doesn't flinch at all" (The Sun), "Was fly sending message when it landed on Hillary Clinton's face?" (CBS News). In other words the form changed the content. We are not aware of the fact that every medium (in our case television) creates a kind of invisible environment and this unawareness is compensated for by attention to the content (the message). So apart from direct authority of what is being said there is indirect influence of the medium.

Now let us take a look at authority in scientific sphere because the authority of science in the modern world is apparent. Political spells and advertising slogans are often supported by references to ideas and research of "leading specialists" (who are often anonymous). Moreover it has become a trend when pseudoscientific texts in such spheres as occult sciences (extrasensorics, chiromancy, astrology), paramedical discoveries of miracle health cures, pseudopedagogical ideas about magic methods for language studying use the external authority of science, the authority of myth about science in naive worldview [3]. We suggest looking at authority from the linguistic point of view as a special way of influence on addressee by choosing and employing particular discourse strategies. Herein we will consider authority as both means of influence and its goal (and sometimes the result of this influence).

The internal authority of science is expressed as important communicative category in scientific publications of different levels and genres (scientific report, article, review, thesis, monograph, etc.). In such papers scientists try to present their research at its best in order to gain the approval and respect of their colleagues and increase their authority in scientific community.

It should be said, though, that authority in scientific discourse is not only direct but also indirect. Consequently discourse markers of authority, found in every professional text, can be either direct (reference to the authority of respected experts, public opinion, the author of publication) or indirect (hidden). Indirect markers of authority are characteristic of indirect communication, the phenomenon described by V.V. Dementiev, the professor of Saratov State University [1]. According to him, understanding utterances in this type of communication involves understanding

implicated meanings that are not mentioned directly in the utterances.

50 PhD dissertations written in English have been studied and we have identified some indirect markers of authority. The most common of them are:

- Original initial of the work, epigraph, creative title (LINES FOR A VIRTUAL T[y/o]POGRAPHY: Electronic Essays on Artifice and Information [7])
- Wide use of professional terminology, that is often of foreign origin.
- Systematization of information, its visualization in formulae, diagrams, tables (In an eight player game, when two players meet and start fighting, they will both be transmitting three times as much data, and the network will slow down to $8/1+1+1+1+1+3+3 = 8/12 = 66\%$ of the normal speed. In a sixteen player game, when two players meet and start fighting, they will both be transmitting four times as much data, and the network will slow down to $16/14*1 + 2*3 = 16/20 = 80\%$ of the normal speed [6]).
- Application of visible examples, statistic data, figures, etc.
- Figurativeness and irony (This dissertation is dedicated to my wife, who supported me during (not so short) time of my studies and to my daughters Alena, Lucie, and Petra, without whose constant assistance I would probably have finished it much sooner [5].)

So, markers of authoritativeness can be direct and indirect and they pervade mass communication as well as scientific and other types of discourse. Being different, these markers have something in common: with their help texts start to accomplish not only referential function (information transfer) but conative function as well (manifested in the increased impact on the addressee).

To sum up it should be said that generation and increase of authority becomes possible only in the process of interpersonal communication during which the participants experience mutual influence. When an authoritative person says or writes something he or she affects others more effectively. That is why increase of authority in professional discourse (and as a consequence increase of the author's authority) is one of the significant strategies of present-day professional communication. Studying authority in media discourse is challenging and promising as it is one of the framework features of mass communication.

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ЭТИЧЕСКИЙ АСПЕКТ КОСВЕННО-РЕЧЕВЫХ АКТОВ В ОФИЦИАЛЬНО-ДЕЛОВОЙ СФЕРЕ

Аннотация

В статье анализируются этические характеристики косвенно-речевых актов в официальных дискурсах. При этом прагматическая составляющая рассматривается на примере официально-деловой сферы в связи с этическими характеристиками. Учитывается социально-этическая концепция Э. Гидденса. Связываются такие понятия, как «поступок», «рефлексивное сознание», «мотивация», «рационализация», «последствия». В основе данных представлений показано стремление «рационализировать действие», во многом поддерживая «целостное теоретическое представление» о «мотивах собственных действий». Выявляется связь этой концепции с традиционными Аристотелевскими представлениями о том, что человек является «общественным существом», ориентированным на восприятие категорий добра и зла, справедливости и несправедливости, биологического и социального.

Ключевые слова: декларатив, директив, косвенный характер, официально-деловой дискурс, прагматизация, речевой акт, субъект, экспозитив, этический аспект.

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THE ETHIC ASPECT OF INDIRECT-SPEECH ACTS IN OFFICIAL SPHERE

Abstract

The article analyzes the ethic characteristics of indirect speech acts in official discourses. The social-ethic conception of A. Giddens is attracted for analysis. The concepts "act", "reflexive consciousness", "motivation", "implication" are connected. The intention for rational act is showed as support of whole representation about the motives of person acts. This conception is connected with traditional opinions about man as social phenomenon oriented for categories of kindness and evil, justice and injustice, biological and social. The man as a participant of speech act has all such characteristics. Ethic of social life, ethical relations and obligations, social context of deontology, of possibilities are relevant in this aspects. Specific relevance is a condition for interrelation between direct and indirect substance of speech act. In particular, strict direct presentation unites with imperative, this usage is systematic and effective, because it determined with speech variety, which naturally includes soft pragmatics, "indirect directness". The attributes of imperative and indirect expressive strengthens organic essence of interrelation.

Keywords: declarative, directive, expositive, indirect character, pragmatization, speech act, official business discourse, subject, ethic aspect.

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According to traditional objects the modern language theory is characterized by growing multidimensionality. Within the context of the official business speech (OBS) this tendency reveals variously. Nowadays there is an active search for the conditions which contribute both to lingvopragmatic enrichment of OBS, especially in works of 2016 [2], [3] and usage of indirect speech acts (SA) as well as other units of the secondary pragmatization [3], [5], etc. We discuss the pragmatic component within the OBS context and in connection with ethical characteristics.

This epistemic situation serves as premises for the task solved in the present article, i.e. to plan the interaction of those means which define the indirect character of SA in OBS and communicative ethical aspects.

Our empirical material consists of two English-language documents which are devoted to special projects, characterizing didactic traditions as well as reflecting normative educational settings of Oxford university (they are represented on a number of websites as follows: www.wipo.int). The suggested objective is discussed in

accordance with the two interconnected aspects: conceptual and systematic-empirical.

First, we are going to discuss the conceptual aspect. It assumes the reference to speech act and ethical characteristics. The given material induces us to rely on signs of some types of speech acts as follows: dominant of a message, explanation (expositive); responsibility moment (representative); planning moment (commissive); appeal (directive); determination to change (declarative); expression of psychological state connected with sincerity condition (expressive).

Those signs own systemic importance, confirmed by their characteristic in the generic source that is integrated to new observations. It should be mentioned that the strengthened justification in which the direct and indirect SA settings are integrated seems to be peculiar for representatives, while figurative units compatible to official dominants remain inherent to expressives.

Now let us stipulate the attention to ethical characteristics. In this way, the specifics both of the pragmalinguistic task and empirical material make us take into account socio-ethical concept of A. Giddens which is

actively developed both by him and his followers. A number of concepts are connected with it, such as: "act", "reflexive consciousness", "motivation", "rationalization", "effects". These ideas are based on human wish of "rationalization of actions", in many respects supporting "complete theoretical idea" of "motives of own actions" [1]. We should emphasize that this concept has something in common with general Aristotelian ideas about a man who is "a public being", oriented to the perception of good-and-evil categories, justice and injustice, social and biological.

Thus, being a participant of a SA and speech interaction the man should have all specified characteristics. Obviously, such deep connection between lingvopragmatics and ethics can be defined in this aspect. Thus, public life ethics, doctrine about ethical duties and relations, caused by human life in any society, as well as the social context consideration of some questions about due and undue, opportunities and duties are relevant.

Secondly, having pointed the first conceptual aspect out, we will keep on discussing the correlated one, i.e. the systematic and empirical aspect. Taking into account the features noted above, we consider admissible to allocate two main subsystems in our empirical material, including: (1) correlation of lingvopragmatic and ethical characteristics; (2) ethical interpretation of SA's indirect nature.

Respectively, we will use the two working concepts. This is the correlation carrier, i.e. a unit, a unity, a pragmema, where the mutual compliance of lingvopragmatics and ethics is concentrated. Another working concept, interconnected with the first one, is the interpretation marker, i.e. a unit, a unity, a pragmema which defines the ethical aspect of the indirect nature of SA. We think that this sphere suggests a certain restricting system: pragmatic conditions and settings contribute to some combinations. They simultaneously sharply reduce the possibility of others or just except them completely. These restrictions and preferences are bilaterally significant. They, for one, show the deep specifics of pragmatics. At the same time they capture the language system's essence. The presence and participation of ethical features are defined on every level.

Now let us refer to the correlation carrier, i.e. a unity, where the mutual compliance of lingvopragmatic and ethics is accumulated.

The analyzed context reveals the correlation of directive and representative (in J. Searle's terminology; but in J. Ostin's one it is called "expositive"). Here we can observe the directive indirect pragmatic setting: how to win the attention of the audience to "children's" Oxford project and persuade them to participate in it. The essence of direct SA is the representation, i.e. the message as it is. This combination requires a special correlation of direct and indirect SA properties.

Such requirement is met by the arranged repetition of three units, in whose semantics the sema of presentation / representations dominates (in bold). See:

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Such interaction ethics defines its pragmatic naturalness. The directivity, at the triple repetition of the representing unit, is not importunate. It occurs being prepared due to the correlation carriers. In this way, the favourable condition of interaction of the direct and indirect nature of SA reveals. When we have a strict direct presentation, the motivation seems to be natural and effective, being systemically caused by that variety SA specifics which integrally includes "softer" pragmatics, as well as the indirect nature of directivity.

When developed, this contextual organic is confirmed and cultivates. It is strengthened systemically, for instance, by signs both of directive and indirect expressive. Directivity is indirect. But it is deeply snugged and rooted in these pragmatic subsystems. The ethically motivated unity of two methods of expression serves it: semas of activity and invitation (phatic setting). See: «You are invited and encouraged to make a presentation and to provide a paper on **a relevant** aspect of the topic, however, your participation as a member of the Round Table is not contingent thereon».

These mentioned above features are supported also by pragmatic importance which itself is not attached to directive (unlike activity and sociability). The importance itself can be defined in various pragmatic conditions. But in the given material in accordance with the ethical conditionality its specifics appears a kind of correlation carrier of ethics and pragmatics, being defined in the unit allocated above.

Undoubtedly, the whole system supports such correlation carrier's function. Etymological and semasiological relations in their turn reveal themselves in the reference from significance to supermeanings of positive and grace: "Relevant see Levity" as well as in the importance as a sign mode, with the difficult unity of significance and situations: "... it is important or significant in that situation or that person ...».

Obviously, such linguistic SA properties correlate indirectly and deeply with ethical settings – for example, with the intention of communicative participants noted by F. Fukuyama: they, "having ethical community as their base, open the perspective of effective joint work for themselves" [4].

The main conclusion drawn from our observations reveals the multidimensionality of connections between SA and ethical characteristics in OBS. In the modern communicative situation, it acts as an adequate space for interaction of direct and indirect pragmatic settings.

The specifics of socio-ethical discourse explains this feature. Being a special communicative field, it can create certain images inherent to social processes and institutes, using relevant texts. All this proves our idea of heterogeneity of socio-ethical discourse, lingvopragmatic richness of communicators' relationships, and their different character which includes inducing, ordering or describing.

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**ВЗГЛЯД НА ЗАГОЛОВОК КАК ОДИН ИЗ ВАЖНЫХ СТРУКТУРНЫХ ЭЛЕМЕНТОВ СТАТЬИ В
 РОССИЙСКОЙ И НЕМЕЦКОЙ ПРЕССЕ**

Аннотация

Реферлируемая статья предлагает сравнительный анализ взглядов российских и немецких медиалингвистов на проблему заголовка, его типологию, а также на те функции, которые выполняет заголовок в качестве композиционно-структурного элемента газетной статьи. В работе предпринята попытка выявить ведущие типы заголовков в российской и немецкой прессе, проследить различие во взглядах на роль и место заголовка в публицистике. Особое внимание было уделено основным функциям заголовка, а именно, информационной и контактной, а также графически-выделительной, номинативной, рекламной, оценочно-выразительной и интегративной. Единственное различие, выявленное во взглядах на заголовок у отечественных и немецких медиалингвистов, – отношение к наличию у заголовка определённой композиционной формы и его способность влиять на композицию материала в целом. Тем не менее, вопрос о том, является ли корреляция композиции заголовка и композиции статьи необходимой предпосылкой для успешного материала, остаётся на наш взгляд открытым и требует дальнейшего изучения.

Ключевые слова: заголовок, заголовочный комплекс, номинативные и предикативные заголовки, композиционная структура заголовка.

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**LOOK AT THE TITLE AS ONE OF THE IMPORTANT STRUCTURAL ELEMENTS OF THE ARTICLE IN
 RUSSIAN AND GERMAN PRESS**

Abstract

The article is devoted to the title – the initial element of the structuring of the article, so how can you talk about some of the dependence of a vast array of articles and endings from successfully built the introductory unit. If the beginning of the material prepared in a professional way, the target audience reads the full article. In the article the attitude towards the mentioned structural elements of journalistic material of the Russian and West German researchers identified common ground and found some differences. Special attention was paid to the basic functions of the title, namely, information and contact, and more – graphically-excretory, nominative, advertising, assessment of expressive and integrative. The only difference in opinion of German journalists with their Russian colleagues revealed in the assignment of title composite-speech function and the ability to condition the composition of the material as a whole. However, the question of whether the correlation of the composition of the caption and composition of the article a necessary prerequisite for successful material, remains in our view open and requires further study.

Keywords: heading, header complex, nominative and predicative titles, composition-structure of speech header.

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Journalistic material characterized by a certain structural and compositional form, which may exhibit in each case certain characteristics. Newspaper article, like any text, usually consists of an introduction, main part and conclusion. Title, subtitle, section headings, or headings, the lead, along with the ending are the most important structural elements of the journalistic text. The present article is devoted exclusively to the initial structuring elements of the article for the simple reason that if the beginning of the material prepared in a professional way, the target audience reads the full article. Consequently, we can speak about a certain subject of a vast array of articles and endings from successfully built the introductory unit. We will consider relates to these structural elements of journalistic material of the Russian and West German researchers will try to identify common ground and differences.

The importance of header is that probability of its read, according to Russian researchers, more than 90%, as the eye automatically sees on the runway all the words written big and bold. 61% of German readers pay attention to the title. If you attract the attention of the audience using the title failed, the article is likely to be unread. Even more important is the headlines in the online media where readers are guided only by name and not see the full text until, until you open the relevant article. Therefore, a bad title could devalue all the effort you put into writing good material. It is not surprising

that the choice of title often takes less time than writing the article itself. Lead or vodka read only 9% of recipients.

The main functions of the title and Russian and German researchers believe informative and contact. E. A. Lazareva, proposes a graphic-excretory, nominative, advertising, assessment of expressive and integrative functions [2].

As the title of one of the means of entering or immersion in text, it presents the subject material. In this case the German journalists-practices, such as J. Häusermann, V. La Roche, make some bias from journalism in its pure form in linguistics [4], [7]. They believe that if the title is well worded, the reader knows what genre will be an article submitted in the form of a message, comment, story or interview. This means that, first, the title as microtext inherent in its composition-speech form, and, secondly, this form allows to predict the composition of the text of the article as a whole.

The title, according to German metalinguistic must be consistent with the purpose of the text: if the header reports an event, then the text should be news if the headline says something and the text should be kept on the comment form, otherwise the expectations of the reader will be deceived.

Note that the Russian term "contact function" is synonymous with the German "motivational function". This feature means that the title must be attractive and interesting formulated, but in any case not as an advertisement, directly, "screaming", "I am a great material, read me!"

Journalistic texts are read primarily for their content, interesting subjects. But the themes of the day-to-day changes not too strongly and you have to show some talent to the reader in a familiar topic to discover something new.

Header options is restricted in size. In practice, it is difficult to find version that combines at the same time informative and attractive. This dilemma is often mitigated by the fact that the title almost never stands alone — it is accompanied by a line above or below. In the Russian journalistic practice talking about the header system, the combination of title, subtitle, and sometimes names of columns.

Header complex allows not to overload the title, and focus on carrying out the contact function, shifting information to the subtitle. If you enter more and heading, it takes care of informing about the topic, allowing the subtitle focus on the idea on which output is offered of the problem situation.

When writing the header of the complex needs to ensure that its elements do not repeat the same words and do not duplicate each other.

Domestic researchers, for example, A. V. Kolesnichenko subdivide the headings on the form for nominative and predicative [1].

Dead heading is an incomplete sentence, usually a phrase of two nouns or noun and adjective. This header usually contains the evaluation of the news and is accompanied by the subtitle – a common proposal outlining its essence.

This type of heading is more typical of the Russian press, for example: *AIF 05.07.2016 from "Attack of the clones. Guide to the Chinese auto industry", "Soviet policeman. Special signs", "Parasites in the act. 5 stories Russian loafers", "Crimea, etiquette and sports scandals".*

Subject header is, on the contrary, the full proposal can be accompanied by the subtitle and to act independently. Usually, it is used in short news, while the nominative – in the larger materials. For example: *AIF from 06.07.2016 "Vikings choose freedom. Why Iceland wants to join the EU?" "The European Parliament has supported the project of creating a single border control" "Scientists have discovered what killed the dinosaurs".*

After analyzing the headlines in the national press, it is possible to draw a conclusion about the lack of a clear relationship composition-speech form header (if any is in principle possible to say) with the composition-speech form of the article as a whole.

The title, as suggested by German researchers, it is always a statement, and the statement needs to be verbs. Good is the one title that is a complete sentence even when the verb is only implied. Quite favorite titles with infinitives, as they are concise, but they are not only "ignore" who did what, but not a clear idea of the compositional speech form. A similar design of the headers can sometimes lead the reader astray.

Correctly formulated, extracts the caption is always something special, and not stop to simply call the event. The selection in the header the unique features of the incident are important in the case of background messages that have no connection with actuality. For example, the German journals on medicine, focused on the broad, often not professionally prepared for the audience, choose generalized, extremely correct and therefore not very attractive solutions. Let's look at some examples:

Spiegel, 5.Juli 2016 *Rückzug von Brexit-Anführen: EU-Politiker beschimpfen Farage und Johnson. Jeder für sich.*

Klein-Europa: Die Rückkehr der Vergangenheit. Wende geschafft. Karstadt will 2018 wieder eine Filiale eröffnen.

As follows from the above titles, for German publications is not characteristic of the nominative forms of the headers. We see a trend of the use of predicative forms. Even in the case of using nouns *Rückzug Rückkehr Vergangenheit* traced their verbal education and semantics of movement. Full proposals, which must be predicative forms of headings according to the classification of A. V. Kolesnichenko, we do not observe, however, the structure and compositional-speech forms of headers successfully correlated with the articles in General.

Both in domestic and in foreign media linguistics we meet the requirements of the title, which he must meet in order to be successful. These requirements include, first, clarity second, it needs to be correctly formulated, thirdly, to contain the main idea of the text, but not to contradict the content of the material and, fourthly, to excite the interest of the recipient. To check the header you can use the TACT test (from the English. Taste – the taste Attractiveness – attractiveness, Clarity – clarity, Truth, the truth) [3].

Accordingly, if the title meets all the listed requirements, we can include it in the category of "good or right" headers. Since there are first category, and then there are the second "bad" headers.

To bad headlines in the national science considers "zero", "double" and headline-comment.

"Zero" the title mean something, but what – for readers remains a mystery. This happens when the headers are using the catch phrase, proverbs, sayings, slogans and incomprehensible terminology.

"Double header" is a statement that combines two aspects of the topic. As a result, he is long in form and complicated in content. In such cases it is recommended to either opt-in to the title from one aspect or from one article to do two, each with its own heading.

Headline-comments are unsuccessful when you use them in news articles. Readers may get the impression that they impose on someone else's opinion and is prepared to perception presented in the article information at a certain angle. The publication, which is dominated by headline-comments, perceived as a party or corporate, that is engaged in not informing its readers, and to promotion or advertising.

In addition, in the headers it is undesirable to use complex syntax and to remove from each other connected words, such as identifying and defining a word. Also not recommended to use in the header is multiple-valued and unknown to the General public the words, as in this case, the article title can realize wrong.

To use quotations as titles and should be approached with extreme caution. Only in interviews and portraits of such titles definitely be considered relevant. In all other cases it should be borne in mind that the phrase said by the character of the article, almost always reflect the meaning of the material is much worse than it could do by the journalist. Citation the header will only indicate that the author or editor did not bother to come up with their own and just took seemed the most striking phrase of the hero material.

In modern Russian journalism, the most common are the headers built on the principle of modification expressions. That has taken some well-known quote, a saying, idiom, and then it is replaced by word in tune with him, but relevant to the text. It turns out the phrase that combines the meaning of the text, which she entitles, and evaluation, expressed in the original idiom.

Expressions that contain brackets require re-reading, so can't be used in the header. Header too long as well requires the reader to additional time. Norbert Küpper believes, however, that it is better long than short, not saying nothing title [6].

Metaphorical titles is good when they are absolutely related to the topic and original. More often than not, the use of the metaphor in the title is a little aspirational.

Use in the title of interrogative sentences is justified, if the test article contains information, and have not found or have not found their explanation.

The bottom and top of the line unload the title, they contain additional information. Often there are combinations in which the title and subtitle are equivalent information. This can lead to difficulties when reading the fierce competition of the title and subtitle bring negative rather than a positive moment in the process of understanding the text.

The subtitle is the same as the top row after the header is read, if read at all. Subheadings usually longer than the upper row, they call thematic sphere in a simple statement. If they were a single term or any concept, it likely would interfere with the perception of information.

Row headings or titles of sections, too, have a definite structural meaning, as they have a certain optical appeal for the recipient and, thus, force him to read further. When there is such an optical "beacon", the person reads at least to him. Designer of Newspapers N. Küpper believes that the presence of the article titles is one of the main conditions for the success of the material of the target audience [6]. For hundred percent success, according to Küpper, you need a good illustration, well-worded title and interesting topic [5]. It is necessary to assume that any text if it is not, of course, extremely short, will benefit from the availability of the

section titles. They facilitate not only meaningful articulation, but also the structuring of the article. Therefore, not all the same, where are the section titles if they are where they should, it can be read in the relationship and to inform the reader about a train of thought.

As for the language form of the name sections, then the same principles when formulating headings statements better than the individual terms and concepts. The statement can be taken from the running immediately behind the title text. He promises the reader that he will meet him later in a certain context.

On the possibility of using section headings is affected by the design of the entire newspaper. In this case they are given, typically, little space. They are limited to a few lines, often it is not enough for statements. As a result, the section headings consisting of several words. Those who consciously reduces the section header, rejects a significant tool with which he can guide the reader through the text.

So, both Russian and German researchers believe the title of one of the most important structural elements of the journalistic material, and the main functions unanimously considered informative and the contact function. In media linguistics in some detail developed criteria for "good" headers and provides a list of points that should be avoided to ensure that the recipient has not abandoned reading the article at the initial stage. The only thing that separates the few German journalists with their Russian colleagues, this assignment title compositional-speech function and the ability to condition the composition of the material as a whole. The question of whether the correlation of the composition of the caption and composition of the article a necessary prerequisite for successful material, remains in our view open and requires further study.

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СЕМАНТИЧЕСКИЙ АНАЛИЗ ОНИМОВ В СОВРЕМЕННОМ АМЕРИКАНСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Аннотация

В данной статье рассматривается семантический анализ онимов в современном американском языке. Основное внимание уделено на изучение основных функций топонимов и антропонимов. Проанализировав несколько топонимов, можно сделать вывод, что американские топонимы по своему происхождению очень разнообразны. Они выполняют художественно-эстетическую, информационную функцию. Проанализировав особенности топонимов и антропонимов, мы пришли к выводу, что американские топонимы и антропонимы являются неотъемлемой частью истории и культуры американской нации, ее социальной и политической жизни.

Ключевые слова: антропоним, топоним, художественный текст, имя собственное, американские онимы.

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SEMANTIC ANALYSIS OF ONYMS IN MODERN AMERICAN LANGUAGE

Abstract

This article discusses the semantic analysis of onyms in modern American language. We focus on the study of the basic functions of toponyms and anthroponyms. After analyzing several pieces of toponyms, we can draw that American toponyms in its origin are very diverse. They perform artistic and aesthetic, informational function. After analyzing the features of toponyms and anthroponyms, we came to the conclusion that American toponyms and anthroponyms are an integral part of the history and culture of the American nation, its social and political life.

Keywords: anthroponym, toponym, literary text, proper name, American onyms.

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Onomastics has emerged as an applied science, essential for historians, geographers, ethnographers, literary critics, and do not go beyond the auxiliary scientific discipline, yet it was the representatives of these professions. Onomastics examines the nature of proper names, their functional specificity, the origin, development, communication with all levels of the language. This is the essence of linguistic science, but beyond the fact of linguistics through the inclusion of geographical, historical, ethnographic, cultural, sociological, literary, psychological and other aspects. Well-known Russian linguists, such as Gorbanevskii M.V., Salimova D.A., Tupikova N. M., Selishcheva A. M., Chichagov V. K., Sobolev A. I. and others, as well as a number of foreign scientists, for example A. Gardiner – England, A. Dauzat – France, P. Reyney – England, W. Taschizki – Poland and others have studied in their scientific researchers the relevance of the problem definition and the analysis of correlation between the linguistic nature of onyms.

A General characterization of American toponyms includes its etymology, the lexico-semantic meaning of toponyms in the process of its development. Thus, we can say that the geographical names are very different in their linguistic nature.

American toponyms can be divided into five groups:

- the proper names that reflect the physical and natural characteristics of the objects: *Alaska* – mainland (literally, “the object that sent the action of the sea”); *Delaware* – from the Delaware river, named after Baron de La Ware (originally from the Normande *la guerre* or *de la werre*, “relating to war”);

- proper names are given to geographical features after prominent people, who associated with a particular place: *Louisiana* – named in honor of king Louis XIV. The name “Louis” originates from “famous” and “war”;

Maryland – in honor of Queen Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I. the Name “Maria” translated from Hebrew means “bitterness” or “rebelliousness”; perhaps from Egyptian “beloved” or “love”.

- proper nouns borrowed from other countries: *Mississippi* – the name of an Indian tribe without changes is taken as a place name; *Texas* – from the name of an Indian tribe Wichita);

- proper names, which were the result of human economic activity: *Georgia* – farmer; *Alabama* – clearing away bushes or plant gatherers;

- proper names that have been changed the former names of geographical objects or fictitious names: *Laputa* – imaginary flying island in “Gulliver’s Travels” by J. Swift, populated impractical scientists and philosophers, who all the time indulge the sublime reflections, having lost all touch with reality.

During the selection toponymic units from dictionaries, researchers take into account some important factors – especially of place names, their meaning in society, and the history of the people and the frequency of their use in communicative communities.

After analyzing several pieces of toponyms, we can draw the following conclusion that American toponyms in its origin are very diverse. They may not change for centuries. We analyzed 100 units (toponyms), we found that 40% of them are toponyms that reflect the physical and natural characteristics of the objects; 20% the names are given to geographical features after prominent people and borrowed from other countries; 15% of the names are appeared as a result of economic activities of people; and 5% of place names have been changed the former names of geographical objects or fictional place names. This can be seen in the first table.

As for the anthroponyms, their structural models can be analyzed from the point of view of their linguistic and social significance, their basic functions in the communication process. Included in the phraseological units of the anthroponyms can serve as a special linguistic means expressing an order, a threat, a rebuke, a warning and having a positive, negative or neutral colour (*to wear **Joseph's coat**, the jolly **Roger***).

The main functions of anthroponyms in fiction are defined by their stylistic values, reflecting the characteristics of American anthroponyms. They perform artistic and aesthetic, informational function. The authors differ in using the linguistic resources. This extends to proper names, including, and anthroponyms, too. For example, an anthroponym **Uncle Tom**: "The canal opened up and she saw, in the centre of a harbor of discarded warehouses, an old black man straight out of Uncle Tom's Cabin is sitting on a tethered raft and playing his cello to a group of spellbound children." This anthroponym is seemed the imagination of very good, old, humble and positive person. Significant places of an American anthroponyms are taken characters from classical mythology and biblical books, some of them have negative connotations.

The anthroponyms are widely used both in prose and poetic works of literature. The focus of this work is the study of the origin of anthroponyms and their use in a poetic text.

Speaking about the main differences of prose and poetic texts, we can pointed out that in a prose text the value of a proper name is characterized by indivisibility. In prose the words retain only necessary for the context values, the remaining values of this word are eliminated.

All the anthroponyms appearing in the poetic text can be conditionally divided into two large groups. First, the anthroponyms can nominate actors poetry, presenting as a well-known personality, and brand new characters created by the author of the work. Second, in the poetic text, the anthroponym can play the role of semantic milestones, causing a number of different associations with already known to the reader texts.

In poetry, the anthroponyms are often nominated direct actors of poetry. This kind of anthroponyms can be divided into two groups:

a) a central figure of the poetic works can be literary, biblical or historical character. This character functions in a new poetic work, while maintaining their distinctive features and fully assimilating in the lines of the new text. As a rule, this use of the anthroponyms we can found in various devotions, meditations on the topic of historical events or works of art, memoirs, etc.

For example, the ballad of John Greenleaf Whittier, written in 1863, during the Civil war in the United States, is dedicated to the real event – a brave act nonagenarian resident of Frederick town **Barbara Frietchie**, who hung the Union flag in front of marching through the streets soldiers of the Confederate army led by General Jackson:

Barbara Frietchie's work is over,
And the Rebel rides on his raids no more.

Honor to her! and let a tear
Fall, for her sake, on Stonewall's bier.
Over **Barbara Frietchie's** grave,
Flag of Freedom and Union, wave!

b) the name of the hero of the poetical works may not be associated with the literary-historical context. In most cases, in the translation of proper names – anthroponyms are saved and do not cause difficulties when transferring to another language. For example, American writer **Edgar Allan Poe** wrote in his composition about **Annabel Lee** :

It was many and many a year ago,
In a kingdom by the sea,
That a maiden there lived whom you may know
By the name of **Annabel Lee**;
And this maiden she lived with no other thought
That to love and be loved by me.

There has been debate over who, if anyone, was the inspiration for "Annabel Lee". Though many women have been suggested, Poe's wife Virginia Eliza Clemm Poe is one of the more credible candidates.

Researchers have repeatedly noted that the functioning of proper names in the text has its own peculiarities, so names are an integral part of the form works of art, element of style of the writer, a means of creating an artistic image. Onyms can carry a markedly pronounced meaning, have an unusual sound shape, and have a hidden associative background. Proper names should be stylistically correct and accurate, must conform to the whole spirit, the idea, purposes works, and should bear a characteristic flavor and sometimes some special meaning, a special meaning, which is concentrated expressed in the author's idea.

Thus, it is possible to draw the following conclusions that a literary text anthroponyms can nominate his actors, and these actors can be as a figment of the imagination of the author, and the real historical characters; most of the anthroponyms in the poem is etymologically, "speaking", that is semantically marked.

After analyzing the features of toponyms and anthroponyms, we came to the conclusion that American toponyms and anthroponyms are an integral part of the history and culture of the American nation, its social and political life. All American onyms can be classified in groups, along with the main nominative function, an additional function giving the connotation that contains the emotional evaluation of the consequences, associations, etc.

Each writer tries to show that the onyms using in his work clearly show the internal state of the characters, their feelings and experiences. Anthroponyms and toponyms are organically motivated into a system of language means of the American poetic texts, participate in creating the General shape of the works, and vividly paint a panorama of the surrounding reality. All this allows speaking about high degree of erudition of the author, wide range of interests, and the magnitude of the philosophical worldview.

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**МЕТАФОРИЗАЦИЯ КАК ОДНА ИЗ СОВРЕМЕННЫХ ТЕНДЕНЦИЙ ПОПОЛНЕНИЯ
 ЭКОНОМИЧЕСКОЙ ТЕРМИНОЛОГИИ АНГЛИЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА**

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается метафоризация в экономической терминологии английского языка. Очевидна необходимость исследования и выявления теоретических основ терминологизации метафор в финансовой лексике. В статье описываются наиболее продуктивные типы метафор в современной банковской терминологии, являющейся наиболее динамично развивающейся частью экономической терминологии в целом. В качестве доказательств упомянутых предположений приводятся результаты опроса студентов. С одной стороны, результаты показывают, что есть значительное количество метафорических терминов и словосочетаний, которые являются трудными для понимания и перевода. С другой стороны, становится очевидно, что тема интересна для студентов и учащихся и этот факт может помочь учителям поднять мотивацию в изучении терминологии. Статья доказывает, что в процессе преподавания экономической терминологии важно учитывать не только перевод того или иного термина, но и объяснить процессы образования изучаемых единиц в английском языке. Статья может быть полезна как с теоритической, так и с практической точки зрения и имеет ценность для преподавателей английского языка для специальных целей.

Ключевые слова: терминология, термин, метафоризация, антропологическая метафора, метафоры цвета, структурные метафоры.

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**METAPHORISATION AS ONE OF THE MAIN TERM BUILDING TRENDS IN ECONOMIC
 TERMINOLOGY**

Abstract

The article reports on metaphorical term building in economic terminology. It explains the importance of researching and theoretical problems that arise in the process of terminology analyses; then it describes the productive types of metaphors in modern banking terminology being a significant part of economic special vocabulary and, finally, it represents the questionnaire conducted in HSE among the students of the 1st, 2nd and 4th year in order to prove the difficulty of banking terms acquisition. On the one hand the results show that there is a significant number of metaphorical terms that appear to be difficult for understanding and translation. On the other hand it becomes evident that the topic is interesting for the students and teaching this group of terms can help teachers raise motivation in terminology learning. Finally the paper states the importance of testing new teaching methods on order to raise students' competence in specialized terminologies acquisition. Thus it is proved that it is vital to teach not only the translation of special terms but to explain the processes of term building in English. The presented research is based on banking terminology, which is the most fast developing sector in economic terminology. The presented work may serve for both teachers and reaserchers of metaphors and metaphorised terms.

Keywords: terminology, term, metaphor, economic terminology, banking terminology, orientation metaphor, structural metaphor, anthropological metaphor, colour metaphor.

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ИССЛЕДОВАНИЯ ФРАЗОВЫХ ЧАСТИЦ КИТАЙСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В РАБОТАХ КИТАЙСКИХ ЛИНГВИСТОВ

Аннотация

Фразовые или модальные частицы в китайском языке передают, в первую очередь, отношение говорящего к ситуации или факта к действительности; относятся к служебным словам, но маркируют всё предложение и даже текст; не имеют собственного значения вне контекста в синхронии, однако каждая частица обладает функциональным рядом значений, обусловленных её этимологией в диахронии. Для более глубокого понимания сути данного явления важно не только знать, как изменялись функциональные значения фразовых частиц, отражающих, в том числе, и эволюцию экспрессивности и коннотативных значений предложения, но и развитие научных представлений о месте и роли фразовых частиц в языке. Начиная с I в.н.э. эти частицы становятся объектом описаний и исследований в работах китайских лингвистов, и за чуть более чем две тысячи лет развития научной мысли в китайской лингвистической традиции сформировался свой особый подход к изучению данного явления.

Ключевые слова: китайский язык; фразовые частицы; модальные частицы.

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RESEARCH OF SENTENCE-FINAL PARTICLES IN THE CHINESE LANGUAGE IN THE WORKS OF CHINESE LINGUISTS

Abstract

Sentence-final or modal particles in the Chinese language are in the first place used to convey the attitude of the speaker to the situation or a fact of reality; they belong to functional words, but they mark the whole sentence and even the whole text; they are deprived of the meaning of their own out of the context in synchrony, however, each particle has a number of functional meanings due to their etymology in the diachrony. For a deeper understanding of this phenomenon, it is important to know the changes in functional meanings of sentence-final particles, which reflect both the evolution of expressive and connotative meanings of a sentence and the development of scientific ideas concerning the place and the role of sentence-final particles in the language. Since I century AD these particles have become the object of descriptions and studies in the works of Chinese linguists. They have formed their own particular approach to the study of this phenomenon during more than two thousand years of the development of the scientific thought in the Chinese linguistic tradition.

Keywords: Chinese language, sentence-final particles, modal particles.

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The research of sentence-final particles in the Chinese linguistic tradition can be divided into several periods.

1. First mentions and descriptions of phrasal particles

The first descriptions of the sentence-final particles functions are found in the dictionary "The Origin of Chinese Characters: Shuowen jiezi" ("说文解字", 许慎, I AD.) where they are called "finishing the sentence" and expressing an opinion (critic, attitude) of the speaker. Five particles were singled out: 矣 (已), 只, 乎 (余), 哉, 兮. This work reflects the ideas of the scientists of Han period (III BC-I AD), the particles were called – 语已词 – "finishing words" or 语之余 – "remains" (addition) of the phrase [1].

In Liu Xie's work (刘勰) called "Carved Dragon of the Literary Thought" ("文心雕龙", beginning of VI century) there are three types of function words: initial particles, prepositions and conjunctions, finishing particles (or sentence-final particles in modern terminology.)

2. Period of Tang (VII-IX centuries): The first classification and study of the functions based on the material of belles and religious works and translations

This period of the Chinese language is characterized by the transition from the Middle-Chinese (中古汉语) to the New Chinese (近代汉语). Liu Zongyuan (柳宗元) is one of eight famous scientists of the Tang period, at the turn of VIII-IX centuries he introduced the term 助字 (function word, form word\particle) in his work "Response to Du Wenfu's Book" ("复杜温夫书") and divided them into two classes:

expressing interrogative modality (疑辞: 乎, 软, 耶, 哉, 夫) and assertive modality (决辞: 矣, 耳 (而已), 焉, 也). The same classification is used in "Grammar of Mr. Ma" («马氏文通», 1898 г.) by Ma Jianzhong (马建忠) – he kept the division into particles, which render an assertion and a question (传信 и 传疑)[2, P.323].

I century AD – X century AD in the study of sentence-final particles is characterized as the "narrative" period. Having analyzed works on the grammar of the Chinese language, mainly represented by essays and prose, we can make the following general conclusion: sentence-final particles finish sentences, render interrogative or assertive tone (tone of speech, modal tone) and are not "meaningful" words.

The study of function words continues in a series of independent researches as, for example, the works of Lu Yiwei (卢以纬) "Function (Auxiliary) Words" ("助语辞", Yuan dynasty (元), 14 century) and Yuan Renlin (袁仁林) "Treatise on Function Words" ("虚字说"), which made a considerable contribution into the study of phrasal particles. Lu Yiwei used different names to refer to what is now known as sentence-final particles (语已辞, 语余声 etc.). He drew a borderline between modal meanings of the particles and shades of their meanings (for example, he distinguished even 平, straight 直, rising 扬 tone of speech, intonation in particles) [3]. He also emphasized that the same particle can perform different functions in the middle and at the end of the sentence. In his "Treatise on Function Words"

“虚字说”,1710), Yuan Renlin gives the first definition to the phenomenon of modality (语气), correlating it with the manner of speech, tone and meaning of what is said (口气), this concept received the name 神情声气 “tone of mood.” However, he applies this approach to all function words. He emphasizes that function words cannot be commented on, relying exclusively on their spelling; their meaning cannot be explained on the basis of the vocabulary definition. He paid attention to the difference between sentence-final particles used in writing and in oral speech, in the literary language and in dialects [4]. However, his ideas have not been further developed and elaborated over the following centuries.

In this period (XIV – XIX centuries) sentence-final particles have been treated as “function words,” but there was no single term to refer to this phenomenon (语已词, 助词, 送句词, 歇语辞, 语助, 语辞 etc.); the main object of study and description is wenyan, and only a few works refer to oral speech or dialectal variants (袁仁林, 卢以纬); there are descriptions of separate sentence-final particles mainly, often with a synonymic row (Wang Yinzhi 王引之), they are either classified or divided according to the classification which appeared in the Tang period (into interrogative and assertive modality).

3. The beginning of the “European” approach in the study of sentence-final particles

The work of Ma Jianzhong (马建忠) “Grammar of Mr. Ma” 马氏文通 became an important milestone in the study of sentence-final particles and the grammar of the Chinese language in general (1898). There modality and sentence-final particles (in the interpretation of Ma Jianzhong – function words) are considered to be grammatical categories. His work does not contain a distinctive scientific definition of modality and sentence-final particles, but the explanation he gave to “classical” sentence-final particles of that period (wenyan) is close to the modern understanding of these phenomena. As it has been noted above, he used the classification of Liu Zongyuan and divided particles into assertive (也, 矣, 已, 耳, 尔, 焉, 者) and interrogative (乎, 哉, 耶, 欤, 诸, 夫). The innovation of his works is connected with the comparison of the particles within the same group (however, Ma Jianzhong does not divide linguistic material into historical periods, so here you can find examples of early Qin (III century BC) to the Tang (IX century AD periods)). It contains the description of the connections between some of the initial words and sentence-final particles at the end of a sentence; he also described the

features of the “fused” (joint) particles and singled out the order for their usage in a sentence. He also addressed the issue of the relation between syntax and particles.

Later works of Li Jinxi, Lü Shuxiang, Yuen Ren Chao, Wang Li, Gao Mingkai and others explore the topic of sentence-final particles of the modern Chinese language (baihua) for the authors.

In Li Jinxi’s grammar (黎锦熙), the first research grammar of baihua, a new syntactical approach has been offered to the understanding of such phenomenon as sentence-final particles. He separated sentence-final particles from the rest of the classes, counter posing them to the problem of intonation in oral speech. Li Jinxi calls this class the class of modal words (情态词 words of the mood), including sentence-final particles and exclamations. At that, he called them functional words (助词) and gave them the following definition: “Express mood, attitude during the conversation; they don’t have a meaning of their own, they only perform the function of the symbol; they are used at the end of a sentence, render “modality” [5, P.23]. He identified five types of modality in a sentence and pointed out that each of these types is characterized by its own particles, which help to express the modality “in writing.” He also emphasized the necessity to research and study phrasal particle to be fully able to express feelings, sincere intonation and “give power to the words” [5, P.260].

The research of sentence-final particles from the beginning of the 40s of XX century is closely connected with the study of modality. This or that understanding of modality determined the approach to the study of sentence-final particles, including the term itself, which was used to name them. Sentence-final particles were assigned the role of the “spokesmen of modality (tone/mood) in writing” during that period of time.

The work of Lü Shuxiang had the greatest influence on the understanding of modality and the role of sentence-final particles. He defined the place of sentence-final particles as the means of expression of modality in the narrow sense, i.e., sentence-final particles help to distinguish sentences. These sentences are the same concerning the concepts contained in them, but differ in terms of unequal goals of each statement. Means of expressing modality are various: “The aspect of utterance is denoted by means of words-limiters, by the modality of a statement – primarily with the help of the intonation, modality itself is expressed mainly via intonation and modal particles” [6, P.230]:

Table 1 – Category of modality in narrow sense (by Lü Shuxiang)

Modality in narrow sense	in relation to cognition	doubt	positive: guess
			neutral: question
			negative: rhetoric question
	in relation to action	incentive	direct narration (narration, when emphasized it turns into an assertion)
			positive: order
			negative: prohibition
in relation to feelings	advice (assumption, approval)		
			exclamation, surprise etc.

His other works “On Function Words ”在“ and “著” “Notes of Jingde” (《释“景德传灯录“中 ”在“ “著”二助词》) marked the beginning of research on the origin of sentence-final particles.

The work of Yuen Ren Chao (赵元任) “Grammar of Spoken Chinese” does not give a clear definition of sentence-final particles (naming them phrase particles and sentence particles, particles), pointing out a number of characteristics: They are uttered in a neutral tone, they refer

to a phrase or to a sentence closely connected to it (in terms of intonation and grammar), they can unite meanings, they can be combined with function words (in this case they have only one meaning, it is difficult to define the limits of function words in this case (着呐). Yuen Ren Chao was the first person who started conducting the research on function words (particles also fall into this category) comparing normative language, dialects and wenyan (“Research of Function Words in Dialects of Beijing, Suzhou and Hangzhou” «北京苏州常州助词的研究»).

Gao Mingkai (高名凯) referred sentence-final particles to a separate class. When describing them, he divided sentence-final particles into interrogative (吗、么), particles rendering doubt in an interrogative sentence (罢、吧), the ones rendering order (prescription) (罢、吧、呀、啊、哇、休), exclamation at the end of the sentence (啊、呵、呀、哩、呢、哪、吓、啦、咧), exclamation in the middle of the sentence (呀、呢、罢、啊、末(么、吗)) [7]. He correlated the usage of this or that particle with the structure of a sentence, the type of the predicate, modality of a sentence. He called them 感叹词, 命令词 correspondingly etc.

Wang Li (王力) assumed that each sentence has its own “mood” (emotion, modality), which can be expressed with the help of the intonation” (Wang Li, “Modern Chinese Grammar” «中国现代语法»). However, the resources of intonation are limited, while modal particles (语气词) allow expressing the mood in a more explicit way. On the basis of the novel “Dream in the Red Palace” he singled out 12 types of modality, which correspond to certain sentence-final particles: Assertive (了), explanatory (的), exaggerating (呢、罢了), interrogative (吗(么)、呢), rhetoric question (吗(么)、呢、不成), the ones that express condition (呢), assumption, guess (罢), incentive (罢), rush, urge (呀、哇), standing something, bearing something (也罢、罢了、去), dissatisfaction (吗(么)), argument, attempts to convince (啊、呀、哪、咧(啦-了+啊)) [8,P.161-174].

Hu Mingyang (胡明扬) assumed that modality renders 1) feelings caused by a certain event or a thing said by an interlocutor – modality, which renders feelings (expressive) 2) attitude to what has been said (speaking about an opinion, a point of view) 3) expressing sense (meaning, thought). He singled out narrative, imperative, interrogative and exclamatory modality of sentences. He also spoke about changes in sounds and their consistent patterns when new particles appear [9,P.97].

Works of Chinese linguists of the first half of the XX century formed the basis of the classical understanding of sentence-final particles in modern Chinese linguistic tradition. They changed the object of study: Researchers started using the works in baihua of different periods more and more often, instead of literature in wenyan. The differences in understanding of the modality in the following years led to the emergence of two basic approaches to the study of sentence-final particles: The first one – understanding phrasal modal particles as function words (语气助词: 马建忠, 赵元任, 吕叔湘, 胡明扬, 刘月华, 徐青, 房玉清 etc.), i.e. grammatical approach; the second viewpoint, which relies on classical sources as well, calls sentence-final particles modal words (语气词: 王力, 马真, 朱德熙, 黄伯荣, 张志公, 胡裕树, 齐沪扬, 侯学超, 孙锡信, 郭锡良, 李小军 etc.), i.e. modal-semantic approach. In 80-90s of XX century the followers of the second approach became more numerous. A number of new

directions in the research of sentence-final particles appeared after that.

F.R.Palmera's work “Mood and Modality” which appeared in 90s of XX century had a serious impact on further study of sentence-final particles: The problem of relations between modality, emotionality and manner of speech were discussed (语气, 情态, 口气). New understanding of modality, emotional evaluation and manner of speech (tone of speech, intention) contributed to a more in-depth study of modality in the Chinese language and led to numerous attempts to describe modal system of the Chinese language and the place of sentence-final particles in it. For example, Qi Huyang (齐沪扬) in his work “Sentence-final particles and the System of Modality” (语气词与语气系统) defined the place of sentence-final particles in the structure of modality as “The most important,” as they express the function of modality (功能语气)[10]. Several other scientists think that sentence-final particles express the manner of speech (the tone of speech) as in their opinion modality in the Chinese language can take the following forms: Narrative, interrogative, exclamatory, incentive. The tone of speech includes different ways of expressing the attitude of a speaker (evaluative expressions): Indecision, tactfulness, and so on. In this connection, it was suggested renaming 语气词 into 口气词 (Sun Ru 孙汝). Further research in the area is associated with different approaches to the understanding of relations between modality and the attitude of the speaker – for example, the work of He Yang (贺阳) on the expression of subjective opinion through grammatical structures. All of these studies are dedicated to the solution of important problems: Do sentence-final particles have only one modal value (Guo Xiliang 郭锡良) or several (Lü Shuxiang 吕叔湘)? It is still controversial nowadays.

Another important direction during this period was dedicated to the following: The study of the origin and development of the functions of sentence-final particles in wenyan on the basis of works taken from different periods, starting from the study of possible particles of the Jiaguwen period (甲骨文, *oracle inscriptions on the bones and tortoise shells XIV – XI centuries BC*) to the particles of the Qing period (beginning of XX century) (For example, the works 张玉金 “关于卜辞” 抑“和” 执“是否语气词问题”, 翟燕 “清代北方话语气词研究”). Most of the works are focused on the description and analysis of the functions of sentence-final particles in certain works of a certain period. They contain statistical calculations of the frequency of their usage, depending on the type of a sentence.

Significantly fewer works are devoted to the analysis of diachronic change in the functions of sentence-final particles. The most famous works of the period contain the work by Sun Xixin “Sentence-final particles (Modal Particles) in the New Chinese Period” (孙锡信 «近代汉语语气词»), “Origin and Development of Sentence-final particles from Pre-Qin Period to the Period of T'ang and Five Dynasties” by Li Xiaojun (李小军 «先秦至唐五代语气词的衍生与演变»), “Sentence-final particles in Pre-Qin Sources” by Zhang Zhenlin (张振林 «先秦古文字材料中的语气词»), as well as the research on the basis of the translations of Buddhist texts, for example Long Guofu's “Study of Function Words in the Translation of Yao Qin Sutras” (龙国富 «姚秦译经助词研究»).

The research of sentence-final particles of the second half of the XX century and the first decade of the XXI century can be divided into several key movements: 1) one of the most

developed ones – identification and description of the functions of sentence-final particles based on the material of literary and other written sources from the Jiaguwen period prior to the beginning of XX century 2) the description of the functions of the modern sentence-final particles, types of modality and shades of modality, the identification of connections between sentence-final particles and syntactic structure of the sentence based on the materials of contemporary works in baihua, examples from colloquial speech, more seldom – on the basis of journalistic materials 3) identifying the patterns in the change of sentence-final particles functions, comparative analysis of Putonghua, dialects and the study of the historical development of sentence-final particles.

Currently, sentence-final particles research is typically based on the materials of colloquial speech. This led to the emergence of new directions of research: The study of the connections between intonation and sentence-final particles (For example, work 张彦 “北京话语气词韵律特作证研究”), intonation of phrase particles in Putonghua, the study of mono and poly-modal particles based on the analysis of the acoustic data (For example, work 熊子瑜 林茂灿 “啊”的韵律特征及其话语交际功能”), dialectal sentence-final particles are studied as well, especially dialects of the big cities (Shanghai, Beijing, Guangzhou and so on), etc. Interest in sentence-final particles has dramatically increased during

the last 12 years. For comparison, according to the data of the largest electronic archive of publications cnki.net in 2003 there were 76 scientific articles (including master thesis) related to the topic of sentence-final particles, while in 2015 the number of such works has risen to 251. The theme of the works has changed as well. In 2003 the main themes included: Description of sentence-final particles of different dialects, the description of particles in foreign languages (Russian, Japanese and so on), the descriptions of individual particles in wenyan of different periods. While in 2015 some traditional themes were preserved, some new topics had appeared as well, namely: Analysis of the origin of individual particles, functional features of the use of the particles in sentences of different types, comparative descriptions of particles of different dialects, the analysis of relations between the intonation of a sentence and sentence-final particles, the influence of sentence-final particles on a sentence (on other members of the sentence, on the topic and comments, etc.), the description of sentence-final particles used in Internet correspondence and colloquial speech, and a relatively new subject – the teaching of sentence-final particles. The development of new directions in the research of the sentence-final particles in the Chinese language has contributed to the full and in-depth study of this important and irreplaceable linguistic phenomenon.

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Калужский государственный университет им. К.Э. Циолковского**ЦИФРОВОЙ ТЕКСТ КАК СРЕДСТВО ИНТЕГРАЦИИ ИНФОРМАЦИОННЫХ ТЕХНОЛОГИЙ
В ОБУЧЕНИЕ АНГЛИЙСКОМУ ЯЗЫКУ***Аннотация*

В статье описаны обоснования неизбежной интеграции информационных технологий (ИТ) и обучения английскому языку через электронный текст с привлечением новых технологий. В статье рассматриваются причины расширения «онлайн» общения, его привлекательность и удобство. На основании анализа недавних исследований сделан вывод, что вышеупомянутый процесс привёл к формированию парадигмы «новой грамотности», которая называется «цифровая грамотность». Таким образом, дав обоснования тому, что в процесс обучения необходимо включать больше заданий, связанных с web средой. В статье рассматривается цифровой текст как предложенное средство интегрированного формирования ИТ и иноязычной компетенций, а также его наиболее распространённая форма – web текст. На основе рекомендаций web-дизайнеров описаны компоненты web-страницы, приведён краткий предварительный анализ вебсайтов и их домашних страниц. В статье также приведены рассуждения по поводу места дополненной реальности в цифровом тексте, а также компонент геолокации, в частности технологии iBeacon. Приведены примеры одновременного использования двух вышеуказанных технологий в образовательной среде.

Ключевые слова: цифровой текст, web текст, цифровая грамотность, обучение иностранному языку, технология обучения английскому языку, мобильные приложения в обучении.

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Department, Kaluga State University named after K.E. Tsiolkovskiy**A DIGITAL TEXT AS THE MEANS OF INTEGRATING INFORMATIONAL TECHNOLOGIES INTO
TEACHING ENGLISH***Abstract*

The article describes the bases of inevitable integrating of information technologies (IT) and English language learning (ELL) through a digital text, incorporating new technologies. The article examines the reasons for the growth of “online” communication, its attractiveness and convenience. Basing on the analyses of recent researches, it is stated that the whole process abovementioned leads to the formation of “new literacy” paradigm which is called “digital literacy”. Thus, coming to the conclusion that more tasks dealing with web environment should be included into the classroom. As the suggested means both IT and ELL competence intergrated forming a digital text and its most often form a web-page is studied. The web-page components and characteristics, basing on web-designers’ recommendations are explored and a brief preliminary analysis of websites and home web-pages is given. The article also contains the views on the place of augmented reality in a digital text and discusses the geolocation technology component, iBeacons in particular. The examples of using these two technologies combined in the educational environment are given.

Keywords: digital text, web text, digital literacy, language learning, TEFL technologies, mobile applications in learning.

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Introduction. Nowadays we cannot stay unaware of the fact that we are becoming more and more submerged into the “online” culture. We watch or listen to the news, read books, go shopping, book hotel rooms all over the world, buy train or airplane tickets, make important payments and remittances using computers or mobile phones. We do not need face-to-face interaction anymore as we want to stay mobile. With the growth of the cities and often in the need to commute or rather while waiting in traffic congestions during rush hours’ people wish to compensate this time laps by inventing urban fast transport like underground, fast food or takeaway services just to save time as they know it to be an unrenovable resource. And we continue to use smart and intellectual technologies at home to plan our time-table, to do the household, to entertain us, generally speaking to accompany us and to help us in facing the routine challenges that again threaten by distracting us from really important things. We are getting used to it and it really seems to making our lives easier [51].

Background. The conversion of live interaction into the on-line one is established by some researches as a negative influence on socializing [16], [17], [30], [31], [50]. For example, Turkle in her previous work [49] is rather optimistic

about virtual communication and digital revolution in general. But later she points out the illusion of companionship when we are actually alone by demanding too much from virtual objects disregarding our “alive companions”. She also argues that our lives have become more “condensed” because of the replacement of full live conversations by texting and twittering [50]. However, some researches show that people feel more confidence when they don’t have to implement face-to-face communication [33], [37]. There are the suggestions that computer mediated communication (CMC) in an online chat room entails greater anonymity, greater control over self-presentation, more intense and intimate self-disclosure, less perceived social risk (i.e., diminished personal cost if interactions or relationships fail), and less social responsibility toward others and the interaction than in traditional face-to-face communication [11], [37], [38]. An earlier study had found that several of the most common types of support given online were emotional, informational, and esteem; while tangible assistance was least often given [10].

And whereas lately mostly lonely and depressive or “geeky” people used widely Internet socializing the past few years have brought about substantial change: our online

interactions are now more social [57]. Moreover, enterprises are likely to use websites or mobile applications in their businesses [21], [24], [57]. For example, a survey found out that executives equally agree on the need for mobile apps to enhance customer engagement. It showed that 87% said there is high demand among their customers for effective mobile apps that can help them access the company's services [21]. Therefore, scientists of today are becoming involved into the social media marketing research stating that companies thus gain competitive advantages [35]. The profitability of advertising in a social net and having a social network profile has also been discussed [29], [31] as "online social networks have extended marketers' ability to reach shoppers through new touch points" [53]. When people get useful and easy to use shopping services on social networking sites, then they are more willing to use these services on social networks [13].

The next basis for integrating web-texts into the educational process can be found in textbooks. Looking into any up-to-date phrasebook or notes for travelers we can find phrases about shopping, buying tickets, having takeaway, discussing menus [26], [34], weather forecasts, mass media [15], [25], cuisine, television [14]. As for professional spheres, many examples of introducing websites and webpages or mobile applications can be found, e.g., Career Paths: Agriculture besides has its mobile application available on AppStore [42].

Still we have plenty of examples when these spheres are reflected online in online shops, booking services or news sites, at our disposal we have plenty of bytes of information and webpages: users' collections of culinary recipes and cooking advice, language learning, as well as social nets with communities discussing almost all up-to-date issues: both dealing contemporary political, economic and professional or academic ones. Sisojev [4] gives an example of the secondary education system in Russia: applications for grants and scientific contests are realized via Internet only. "Moreover, communication with the members of Russian and foreign education programmes is also only online possible" [4: 122]. Without knowing how to use Internet services this communication and idea or experience exchange will fail or never happen. Besides, Sysoev [4: 11] argues that students' communication skills should be developed not only in live interaction but when interacting without seeing an interlocutor, i.e. via Internet and mobile services. Thus, one should take into account not only language communicative means but extra linguistic ones as well such as: smiles, Emoji, memes. These are the means that abundantly met in a digital environment.

21st century literacy. Consequently, more often it is inevitable for us and for our students to "ask" Google or Siri who know everything to get access to the unknown, to get fast and accurate response for the needed knowledge. But when these helpful services immediately react by giving us thousands of links we face the demand of navigating skills to single out and choose the suitable resource and further the needed section and many other actions which would lead us to success. Internet assisted language learning may reveal the same problem for students. Besides, with new technologies that enter our lives sometimes too fast we must be able to reconsider curricular, teaching methods and design lessons to make the learning process correspond IT development and make it valid in new technologies context, e.g. virtual reality and augmented reality, iBeacon technology, 360-degree imagery and 360-degree video. The process of this reconsideration must be carried out in a new paradigm of new

demands not only to a teacher but to a learner as well. Thus, being teachers we must develop both our and students' IT skills to provide the support in using new technologies to our best advantage and profitably using them for learning in particular, especially in the context of e-Learning.

Warlick [56] speaks about totally new approach to literacy. He states that nothing is known about a working place of the future because more and more professional collaborations has started to happen virtually with consequently less paper occupying our desks as a result of that very above mentioned informatization by penetrating of electronic databases into almost all organizations (banking, medicine, schooling, etc.). Thus, without having an exact image of a future working place the only thing we can teach our students is "how to teach themselves" [56]. Stating that the term "literacy" must be redefined in the new conditions of overwhelming information Warlick suggests that four basic components of literacy must be regarded in the new focus. Thus "Reading, Riting and Rithmetic" are expanding to "Exposing Truth, Employing Information and Expressing Ideas Compellingly". In addition, he speaks about one more important component: Ethics, including respect and protection of information and its infrastructure. Tour [48] examining TESOL in particular "in times of change" supports the broader concept of literacy and strongly supports the approach which aim is to "facilitate the development of a wide range of capabilities so that in a second or foreign language context, students are able to deal effectively, appropriately and successfully with multimodal texts and associated practices in a digital environment: to access, use, design, create, research, comprehend, analyze, evaluate, communicate, collaborate, and share". She also gives the characteristics of digital texts with diverse modes of meaning construction contrasting them to traditional printed-based ones.

Digital and web texts. Characteristics and genres. Speaking about multimodal texts in TESOL practice we should bear in mind that in spite the students of the 21st century being born surrounded by "smart" background they still may lack these navigating skills through English-based websites. Therefore, web texts should be included as they are really what students will use in their everyday life. As we are confident Internet users we have to face web text everyday as technology has "generated" new types of texts: digital texts and then web texts. Moreover, to form foreign language communicative competence one must be able to realize not only face-to-face communication, but vie Internet using confidently its services [4]. Yet for better understanding of how digital and web texts could be included in the educational process we need to discuss their characteristics.

Firstly, we should differentiate these two concepts by determining their definitions. As for a web text, it is considered to be limited to its occurrence in the Internet space (web environment) only. Yet, a digital text is a wider concept that includes a web text as one of its forms. Still in the discussion concerning a digital text it should be mentioned that they generally may be referred to any predigital forms having been transformed by digitization [22]. Such types of the texts may be theoretically included into the wide concept of digital texts. However, such examples are limited in their usage in computer assisted language learning (CALL) only without the involvement of Internet tools. Yet the scope of this article is to discuss the meaning of "true" digital texts and web texts in particular.

In his blog Sanches [44] describes a digital text saying that it may include anything like “a verbal written text, an oral text, a static or animated picture, a sound (human voice, music, effects)”.

So, by nature, digital text is generally more flexible than printed one. It can be subjected to many operations such as search, rearranging, condensing, it may be annotated or read aloud by a computer. Digital textbooks and different aspects of applying them have been recently discussed by some researchers [6], [43], [45], [54]. They trace the path from printed educational materials to the digital ones (eTextbooks) and discuss the requirements to the new educative technologies, hypertextuality questions [45] and the advantages of digital textbooks in comparison to a “400 page, five-pound, paperbound book” [55]. But they are not just a PDF format succession of pages. They are meant to incorporate any means of information transmission as mentioned above. The foremost technologies let other interactive objects be included into a digital text such as augmented reality (AR) technologies which we are going to speak about further [2], 360-degree mobile imagery and 360-degree mobile video, contextual sensors technologies, e.g., iBeacon.

But Golumbia [22] has described the main characteristics of a digital text.

- Nonlinearity, which is examined in the focus of the temporal aspect. Here it should be said that this characteristic may be rather a controversial one. From the one hand nonlinearity implies fast moving from one part of a text to another. As for videos a DVD fulfills this function in comparison to a video cassette. From the other hand both written texts (non-digital) can be nonlinear (e.g. written on in the form of index cards), and digital texts can be linear (e.g. originally non-digital that have been scanned or photographed and do not have necessary tools like bookmarks, thus reducing the possibility of moving throughout their length in comparison to a simple book if being considered from a reader’s position).

- Multimedia, which implies the usage of all the forms of media throughout the text. That has become possible due to the appearance of such tools as PowerPoint, Adobe’s Photoshop, Fireworks, Adobe’s Flash, Premiere, AfterEffects, etc., and has widened the possibilities of Microsoft Word that allows to insert broad range of still image format and some formats of audio, video and computational objects as well as hypertext links.

- Hypertextuality, that implies the possibility of physical connection between texts elements. However, theoretically this can work with the printed text: when working with a book one may make notes writing down other books’ names where he can look for further information.

- Collaboration, which can be traced more obviously on the websites like Flickr, YouTube, Facebook, Twitter, Wikipedia, implying “the production of new media objects that respond to and often incorporate elements of earlier productions” [22: 58].

- Portability, that refers primarily to the reproducibility, i.e. perfect copying of digital texts.

- Preservation, that is the characteristic which demands the availability of a digital text on any computer system.

There is one more characteristic that Golumbia does not mention. It is multimodality, that is generally considered to be the strategic use of more than one communication **modes** to make meaning (image, gesture, music, spoken language, and written language). Multimodality here is not the

characteristic of a digital text only, it can be paper (comics, picture stories, graphic novels; and posters, newspaper, brochures) – especially taking into account the latest AR technology achievements. A multimodal text can also be live (a performance) [40]. “A multimodal text can be **transmedia** – where the story is told using ‘multiple delivery channels’ through a combination of media platforms, for example, book, comic, magazine, film, web series, and video game mediums all working as part of the same story” [40]. Jenkins [28] argues that media used for transmedia must not duplicate the information delivered by other media in one and the same text, but logically contribute into it adding new information, that is not transmitted by the other media.

Thus, we can say that a text is digital when it is opposed to a printed one although the latter may possess some characteristics abovementioned. But if a text possesses all the enumerated characteristics it is a digital text. Moreover, an originally printed digitized text preserve its original characteristics and thus cannot be considered to be digital.

Some scientists tend to go further in their digital text studies having begun to differentiate between its genres and types as well as to describe them [20], [44]. In these researches such web texts as Wiki services, Flickr, Instagram, YouTube, Scribd and Google Drive are mentioned. Still as these works are fully theoretical no one gives any accurate classification with exact descriptions of web text genres. However, Ivanov [3] tries to form Global Net genres into (1) news genres, (2) scientific educational and special information genres (e-textbooks, articles, interactive courses, discussion clubs), (3) fiction genres (eLibraries or digital libraries), (4) entertainment genres, (5) genres forming non-specific communication and (6) business and commerce genres. But it should be said that this classification was worked out in 2000, and obviously needs to be corrected. Goroshko [1] gives a more up-to-date genres description which she calls Internet-communication genres. Having studied the relevant literature, she makes a conclusion that “the approaches to the virtual genres studies can be arranged according to a leading factor, i.e. to a parameter that a scientist considers to be the leading in genre formation and functioning” [1: 31]. The factors of different existing theories are human, media, structural, discursive. However, she does not classify genres and we can find only the description of approaches to the virtual genres paradigm. Goroshko concludes in her theoretical research that the Internet-communication genres are poor structured yet. In conclusion, we may say that this aspect of web texts still should be thought over.

A brief web-page analysis. A digital text with all its characteristics is most often met in a form of a web-page. Introducing digital texts like this into the learning process a teacher should know the components of a web-page, their characteristic, how web designers usually arrange the information. Only in this case a teacher can form good navigating skills in his students. Such information can be found in a number of handbooks for web designers. Nielsen and Loranger [39] agree that a web text should be highly structured, capacious and highly navigable, i.e. include everything that may save user’s time and provide him with the information needed in the shortest period of time. Thus, all the most important information is placed in the upper and left part, as it used to be in printed editions. Miller [36] in his book gives a logically organized structure of a web-page. It consists of:

1. Header;
2. Navigation;

3. Feature;
4. Body/ content;
5. Sidebar;
6. Footer;
7. Background.

Thus, header, navigation and feature are placed in the most viewable by users part of a web-page body. These three components will help a user to better orient and understand where they should go further. A header usually describes the content of a web-page. Navigation is Information Architecture. This part contains broad categories where a user may go and continue navigating through smaller site sections, it may also include parts that a website creator wants a user to go to. The Feature area is included to be “perceived before all others” [36]. This is a focal point of a page. The Body or the Content is usually a terminal point of a search but it may not mean that this section is represented in a form of a long text, vice versa the text is more often divided into short passages, each passage describing only one objective [5]. Besides Chamina says that data presented on a web-page are to be visualized in tables, graphs, diagrams, etc. The passages are usually provided with heading tags so as search engines could better evaluate the content [45]. A sidebar is another form of navigation but it contains widgets, that are the visual tips that shows “that the needed information is somewhere near” [39: 243]. Although the widgets may not be directly connected with the page content as they may be advertisements [52] or an “embedded feature of content from another site, e.g. today’s weather from weather.com.” [19:18]. In a footer contact information is usually given as well as social account links or other links (e.g. to ‘other’ pages). A background is

the ‘backcloth’ of a page, it does not contain any textual signs commonly, but may all the same stay appealing for a user due to it being of a right color, or fancy floral, or it may support the main content.

These are the main structural components of a web-page. As for content components (web-page sections), one may include buttons, consumer testimonials, photos, animation, videos, search bar (which is very useful if it works effectively), geolocation (which defines users’ location and provide accurate information), calendar, pdf uploads, etc. These are general content components which may be found on a broad range of websites. Specific content components are varied from field to field.

It was decided to take a group of websites of educational establishments and compare the sections that a user needs to find in their navigation bar. To limit the number of section we have chosen the ones which are definitely needed to a student. They are: admission, programs, library, calendar/events, structure. And one of the most convenient tool of a non-English website is the possibility to switch the language into English.

Three Universities in different countries have been chosen:

1. English speaking country (the USA);
2. Non-English speaking country (Spain);
3. Mother tongue country (Russia).

Such choice is based on comparing realms. The visualized results are presented in the table below (NB – navigation bar which is horizontal and is placed in the upper-part of a page, SB – side bar which is vertical and is placed either on the left (which is preferable) or on the right).

Table 1 – Universities’ websites brief analysis

	Arizona State University www.asu.edu	Moscow State University www.msu.ru	Universdad Politécnica de Madrid www.upm.es.
admission	+ Not in the NB. Can be found in Academics section and there is a possibility to contact admission representative with special tool in the feature section	+ Is given in the sidebar section	— Not in the NB. In the section ‘Students’ and further’. Contains plug in which is not supported.
programs	+ Is given in the Feature are	— Not in the NB, in the section ‘admission’ and in further sections	+
library	+ Not in the NB Is placed in Academics section	+ (SB)	+ Not in the NB
calendar/ events	+	+/- In the sections: “conference calendar” (SB) and “News” (NB)	+ Not in the NB In the section ‘UPM’
university structure	— In the section ‘About ASU’ in the NB one may choose to click, then again to click in another navigation section, and another one... thus, it is really very difficult to find.	+ In the section ‘MSU sites’ in the NB	+ Not in the NB. in the section ‘University Centres and Campus
switch the lang.	—	+	— It is already in English

Before interpreting it should be mentioned that the Spanish variant of Madrid Polytechnic University has more attractive design. But still in its NB all the necessary sections

are absent. And it needs time to understand where a person should go to find the information. Interpreting the obtained data, it may be concluded that the needed sections are mostly

present on the websites' homepages. Still in some cases it demands some navigating skills to find it. An unexperienced user may be confused or it will take him a lot of time to navigate especially if he possesses poor vocabulary in the given field.

This factor should stimulate teachers to encourage students to practice their navigating skills in the right way to improve them. This may be done by giving a number of tasks accompanied by clear and accurate instructions. As students tend to apply their navigating skills by the simple algorithm typing the name of the topic into the search bar and choose the first link given, and then just copy the text without any critic approach. What is worse is that sometimes even the topic may slightly differ from that in the task, it happens more often when a student is not properly prepared neither technically nor in English to such type of tasks.

The place of augmented reality in a digital text. One of the most interesting feature of a digital text is its media components. There are a lot of digital media previously studied and classified by scientists. Green and Xiaoli give several broad classifications and detailed tables about media types [23].

All these media have been well studied and described. We would like to focus on a relatively new component of a digital text: augmented reality (AR) and AR objects. The principles of AR, the devices used have been thoroughly explored and described [12], [41]. Its application in different spheres and its influence on the future of publishing have also been traced. Special attention is paid to AR educational use [7], [8], [9], [32] and to AR textbooks in particular [27]. Lim and Park analyze existing AR books and come to the conclusion that their usage has positive effects "on not only cognitive but also affective domains such as engagement, presence, interactivity and affordance" [32: 180]. The benefits of AR in educational environments have also been studied [18]. Up to now scientist are looking for the appropriate and the most efficient incorporation of AR in the educational environment, that is why a user (or a teacher) may find plenty of other teachers' resources where they share or exchange their experience and tips for including AR technologies in a classroom.

Here however the question occurs about whether an AR technology is a digital text or it is not. The studies about AR [41], [46] define this technology as the mixed reality that combines exact context existing in reality and virtual (digital) imagery, audio, video, typed texts. Yet as AR itself is not the focus of our theoretical description this issue will not be covered here.

Generally, we may say that an AR object needs some base or anchor to appear on a display. That is why digital text cannot be read without a non-digital one. Still a non-digital component stays useless without a certain digital support. Thus, AR is the brightest example of digital and non-digital texts interconnection. But the conclusion is that AR cannot be definitely called a digital text, but something wider, with a digital text being an ever-present component if it.

Geolocation as a digital text media. Geolocation service is used by many mobile applications nowadays, for many it is the bases of development (Foursquare, Swarm, Google Maps, etc). That is why we cannot omit this issue in this article. Moreover, such technology as iBeacon is steadily entering the educational process. Still we should restrict this digital text media to mobile digital only: to the usage of such handheld devices as smartphones, tablets and others. In spite of this fact new technologies invite us to include it in our everyday life and our classrooms as well. The use of

iBeacons inside school/ university walls is possible due to the fact that iBeacons are more accurate than the geolocation services provided by GPS satellites.

Moreover, iBeacons allow us to create policies and guidelines of how a device should behave based on the context of which region it is in. This fact give teachers incredible possibilities to provide the students with the necessary material or tools which they get right onto their devices. For example, Jamf Pro (formerly Casper Suite) has been designed to automate that kind of device management as well as applications management.

AR and iBeacons usage in an educational establishment. The combination of iBeacon technology and AR technology can give the widest possibilities for using in inside a school or university. As for AR, its possibilities are being discussed now [9], [45] and in some schools, they are already used in the educational process. Bower at al. [8] not only describes the spheres where AR may be applied but also speaks about the principles of design-based learning approach using augmented reality and gives several examples of how students can develop their IT skills trying themselves as designers with augmented reality. The abovementioned research contributes greatly to the bases of integration of IT skills development during the process of learning.

AR and iBeacon technologies may make the process of learning more interactive and they may provide digital support for such games as quests in real time, or quests in reality. For example, a group may be divided into several teams, each one with their own routes and tasks for finding a definite place. The places are marked with iBeacons. Arriving at this place the students need to find a marker with the next task of the next place of their group route. Or the marker may contain the description of the coordinator who will give them the task, assess them and give further instructions. The markers may be "read" with any technology which is available. The easiest one is Aurasma service. Using Aurasma application on their smartphones a student "augments" the marker (it may be a photo, a book, a place) and follows the instructions given. The overlayer may be an audio or a video file or it may be simply a typed text, or a problem (in Mathematics), a chemical equation. In general, it may include anything that will stimulate the application of students' knowledge in a definite field.

The other example of the combination of these technologies is providing the students with the necessary information. Thus, entering the definite classroom, the students get information about the markers to which they can turn to. And then using their AR applications they are provided with all the information the teacher wants them to possess. iBeacons though may be placed not only in classrooms but somewhere near the notice boards where AR markers are gathered: there teachers may hang the announcements about assignments, contests, extra classes, meetings and other events. Or they may organize a thematic board including cultural tips, literature review, places of interest, events related with the topic, etc.

Conclusion. New technologies have generated the new approach to the concept of information itself, making people seeking for accurate knowledge at any moment and in any sphere of life. The needs for efficient information access made companies to create web sites and mobile applications for their customers, further incorporating new technologies such as AR and iBeacon into their advertising strategies to make it more interactive and attractive to a prospect customer.

Thus, the overall process of usage of Internet technologies and mobile applications has led to the growth of new type of interaction and further “new literacy” or “digital literacy”. This type becomes the skill that is demanded by contemporary society. That means that only possessing these skills one has the chance to become a competent and fully-fledged member of society in general and in his/her professional field in particular.

All this leads to IT skills to be both the aim of learning and its means. This becomes possible only by integrating IT into the educational process no matter what course it is applied at. Language learning students get this double but impossible to avoid challenge. They have to master two sciences at a time. Still these two have one thing in common: they both may be used as the means of mastering them.

Integrating IT technologies into language learning classrooms will promote mutual assistance from each of these sciences for each other and consequently the faster mastering both language and technology, e.g. the same is with English: the majority of applications and platforms as well as sites use the English language thus making it impossible to use IT without knowing English. Thus, language classes may become a good field of accepting this challenges and finding solutions for them. Wider incorporation of digital texts and teaching algorithms of operating them and the information they contain, with the usage of AR technologies and iBeacon technologies will contribute greatly to the education of well-qualified professionals and young people adapted to the information society.

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ИНТЕРНЕТ-КОММУНИКАЦИЯ В ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОМ И КОГНИТИВНОМ АСПЕКТЕ

Аннотация

В статье рассмотрены наиболее важные лингвокогнитивные особенности современной интернет-коммуникации и показано, что когнитивные, креативные и др. инновации в ее языке и стиле, такие, как «интернет-текстинг», «интернет-текстизм» и «интернет-текстикет», обусловлены, в первую очередь, ее растущим киберсемиотическим характером. Он проявляется также в интенсивной конвергенции вербального и невербального в интернет-коммуникации и в ее ярко выраженной девербализации. Отмечается значительное влияние интернет-коммуникации на социальную жизнь общества и перспективы его развития. Статья опирается на цикл предыдущих исследований автора, частично указанных в библиографии и имеющих в качестве своей основной цели выявление влияния высоких технологий на естественный язык, человека, культуру и общество.

Ключевые слова: киберсемиотика, «интернет-текстизм», конвергенция вербального и невербального, девербализация интернет-коммуникации, интернет-сообщество.

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INTERNET COMMUNICATION: A LINGUISTIC AND COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVE

Abstract

The paper analyses most important linguistic and cognitive trends in contemporary internet communication and shows that cognitive, creative, etc. innovations in its language and style, particularly such as internet-texting, internet-textism, internet-textiquette, are predetermined mostly by its cyber-semiotic origin which, in its turn, promotes an intensive blending of the verbal and the non-verbal in it, as well as its growing deverbalization. Special attention focuses on the active role that internet communication plays in social life and its future. The paper is based on the research results presented by the author in a series of her previous publications, partly given in the list of References and aimed at explicating the influence of digital technologies on human language, mind, culture and social life.

Keywords: cyber-semiotics, internet-textism, convergence of the verbal and the non-verbal in internet communication, deverbalization of internet communication, internet-community.

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The burden of the paper is to investigate the impact of digital technologies upon our life. It aims at exposing linguistic and cognitive distinctions of internet communication that are of creative and social value. Internet communication has already produced an unprecedented quantity of various discursive and semiotic innovations: new terminology, neologisms, occasional expressions, other cognitively charged instruments for expressing one's ideas, attitudes, etc. An obvious evolution of the cyberspace is now unstoppable, making a scientific interpretation of its verbal and non-verbal innovations more important. For instance, we can find several names/ terms for an innovative technology of combining objective and virtual reality: *mixed/ blended/ mediated/ augmented/ enhanced reality*. Such terminology cases are common nowadays, they need terminological and cognitive comments, and, perhaps, innovative ones.

Cognitive and linguistic innovations in the internet can be characterized as diverse, creative, "intellectually charged", etc. They cover all possible elements of communicative interaction, discursive activities, stylistic genres, modes of expressing one's ideas, purposes, etc. Most vividly such innovations can be demonstrated by new words, notions and expressions that refer to new objects, subjects, events, happenings, facts, etc. that appear in the internet interaction itself. Cf. *Inet, internet/ virtual civilization, virtual urbanism, internet citizens, internet stylistics, net-stylistics, on-line stylistics, cyber-stylistics, netlistics, hypertextual/ non-linea/*

interactive stylistics, blog-stylistics, counter-stylistics, anti-stylistics, etc. That is why more and more linguists, philologists, psychologists, semioticians, etc. make internet the object of their close scrutiny.

The central point here, particularly in a social perspective, is that "digital" innovations in the internet language and style testify not only to the effect that "creative technologies" create cognitive and linguistic innovations, but also that they influence the contemporary society, thus demonstrating that the cognitive, the linguistic, and the social are more intimately interconnected than it is commonly supposed. Thus, the study has to expose the connections between the creative and the social in internet interaction.

Two leading innovative trends in internet communication

Internet as an innovative and technologically advanced way of human interaction develops two most important trends in its evolution. The initial one develops under the influence of its semiotic character and provokes deverbalization of internet discourse, which operates with various, diverse and innovative signs, symbols, markers, figures, graphic objects, etc., built into its operational/ software systems. The latter are constantly improving their navigation instruments and introduce new and more effective semiotic, multimodal and hypermodal characters that are becoming more universal, user-friendly, etc. [16], [1]. The second no less important trend in contemporary internet communication, which also promotes its deverbalization, is

the bias towards visuality and visualization of digital information flows. The unprecedented progress in web-cameras and their installation almost everywhere devalued data flows, making them “language-free” (as well as internationally comprehended) [15], [2].

Both leading tendencies in internet communication: its growing semiotic/ hypermodal quality and predominance of visuality in data flows – have as their foundation the cyber-semiotic origin of computerized data processing. It promotes a cyber-semiotic convergence of verbal and non-verbal in communication [7], [8], thus testifying to the effect that the innovative character of internet’s discursive distinctions are predetermined by its digital hardware as well as programming software.

One of the most vivid manifestations of the cyber-semiotic convergence of the verbal and the non-verbal in internet interaction is an unprecedented quantity of innovations introduced into internet’s language and style. Moreover, the innovative cyber-semiotic nature of digital technologies and their unlimited perspectives in information processing cannot but provoke and instigate further innovations in human intelligence, cognition, behavior, interaction, etc., these becoming more interconnected by a transfer of the creative and the cognitive into the linguistic and the social.

Internet as a transfer of the creative into the social

The most important and prospective social characteristic of internet communication is the freedom of interaction, expressing one’s own mind and opinion, as well as the opportunity of displaying one’s own linguistic, cognitive, semiotic, etc. creativity. Thus many specialists express their belief that internet has become a generator of a discursive revolution that erased differences between oral and written speech. It also produced various new graphic rules, symbols, etc.: occasional, humorous, ironic, sarcastic, other expressive discursive and semiotic “creations”. These innovations become, among other things, the way to transfer the creative and the cognitive into the linguistic and the social. Quite illuminating phenomena in this respect are such innovative creations as texting, textism and textiquette (txting, txtism and txtiquette) of SMS messages. They make a text shorter, compressed, expressive, informative, more effective, and thus have a cognitive background.

Txting, txtism and txtiquette: The internet’s language and style and their estimations

Txting, txtism and txtiquette have introduced (and exploited) a vast variety of new linguistic and semiotic rules of compressed messaging and new forms of interaction, cf. orthographic abbreviations/ contractions: *msg* – *message*, *tmrw* – *tomorrow*; phonological abbreviations: *thru* – *through*, *skool* – *school*, *thanx* – *thanks*; acronyms/ initialisms: *ttyl* – *talk to you later*, *omg* – *oh my God*, *brb* – *be right back*; clippings/ shortenings: *goin* – *going*, *feb* – *February*, *xam* – *exam*; semiotic (single letter/ number) homophones: *c* – *see*, *u* – *you*, *2* – *to/ too*, *4* – *for*; combined letter/ number homophones: *2day* – *today*, *l8r* – *later*; emoticons/ smileys (:-) – *happy*, :-/ – *sad*; typographic symbols (*x* – *kiss*, <3 – *love*, @ – *at*; omissions of punctuation, apostrophes or capitalization: *cant* – *can't*, *i* – *I*; excessive use of punctuation or capitalization for expressing emphasis: *what!!!!* – *what!*, *NEVER* – *never*; repeating letters to mirror lengthening: *sooo* – *so*, *grreeeeenn* – *green*); accent stylizations: *gonna* – *going to*, *anuva* – *another*, *dat* – *that*) neologisms, nonsensical transmogrifications of other words: *lolz* for *lol* [*laughing out loud*] [14], inanities [10], etc.

While some linguists consider txting & txtism to be a “vandalism” [9], others believe that internet’s linguistic and semiotic innovations “re-invent” language, promote its metalinguistic realization, re-creation, etc. The most authoritative internet-linguist, David Crystal, in his famous book “Txting: The Gr8 Db8” (Texting: The Great Debate) [12], qualifies txtism as a language play, plurality of literacies, language evolution, etc. Contemporary “cybersemiotic” language and style of internet and digital communication, besides stimulating the readers’ and writers’ linguistic, creative and cognitive activities, demand intellectual efforts, habits and practices and thus give rise to a new kind of literacy – the cybersemiotic literacy, which, no doubt, influences traditional writing skills and rules. Writing rules are always evolving. For example, in Shakespeare’s time they were not established yet, that is why the writer himself wrote his own name in six different ways [6]. So, perhaps, we will see how traditional writing rules begin to evolve under the influence of the digital communication and cyber-semiotic literacy. (Which, in its turn, was born by a number of virtual keyboards in digital devices/ gadgets that display a vast variety of different, new, concise and attractive symbols, notations, etc.).

Digital communication, cybersemiotic literacy and its examples, names and comments

Digital communication has initiated the cybersemiotic literacy and textism that can be exemplified by the following “traditional” text as opposed to “Netspeak” [11, P. 17]: “*At the end of the day, texting and instant messaging are messing up the skills of our youth to read, write and spell or are really good for them or have basically no effect, because at this point, we cannot be sure!*” (*confused smiley*). Cf. its “cybersemiotic” translation: “@TEOTD txtN & IM r messin ^ d skilz of our yth 2 read, wrt n spel or r rly gud 4 em or av basicaly no ffct, coz @ dis point we cant B sur! :-” [14, P. 598].

Internet language and style permanently evolve and thus acquire new names and qualifications, cf. *electronic language*, *e-writing*, *e-language*, *e-style*, *computer-mediated communication technology*, etc.; cf. “The arrival of Netspeak is showing us homo loquens at its best”... and create “an area of huge potential enrichment for individual languages”... thus, “Human versatility, creativity and search for novelty have not been inhibited but rather instigated by the electronic technologies in a linguistic perspective” [11, P. 241– 242].

Transfer of the cognitive and the linguistic into the social: From internet community to internet society

Intellectually charged internet language and style promote an evolution of social communication: they shorten the distance between the communicators, unite them into social communities, make social interaction less formal, etc. But the most important social benefit introduced by internet is its interactive and creative power, which makes the human feel more independent, knowing, confident, self-sufficient and active. Another no less important internet’s social benefit is its unprecedented feedback, which is now improving all kinds of social relations and make them less “distant”, official, autocratic and impersonal [3], [4]. The perspective of promoting all such gains is to establish contact between various social, cultural, educational, professional, etc. internet communities and blend them into an independent of political parties and their ideologies internet society with prevailing horizontal connections, and thus free of all kinds of pressure, deprivation and manipulation [5].

The main idea of the paper is thus that the innovative and evolving cyber-semiotic character of digital information

technologies provokes new creative abilities and “habits” in the human mind that transfer the cognitive into the linguistic, social and cultural. The most important social innovation that is generated by this transition is the possibility of blending interactive internet social communities into active, open, creative and self-sufficient internet societies, void of all kind of manipulation, dependency and pressure. The most

important cultural and social characteristic of internet communication and its language and style is the freedom of speech, which has as a cognitive background the cyber-semiotic origin of digital technologies, which, in their turn, promote human communicative and social creativity and activity.

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ВЗАИМОДЕЙСТВИЯ В СЕРВИСНЫХ ЦЕНТРАХ***Аннотация*

В статье обсуждается важность понимания институциональной прагматики компьютерно-опосредованного общения клиента и оператора как важнейшего фактора обучения интеллектуальной системы. В статье представлен обзор исследований в области компьютерного взаимодействия и институциональной прагматики, а также описаны некоторые результаты анализа чатов между клиентами и оператором. Исследования институциональной прагматики охватывает широкий круг вопросов, но в нашем исследовании особое внимание было уделено анализу ключевых слов как маркеров определения контекста общения и особенностей речевого акта просьбы.

Ключевые слова: институциональная прагматика, компьютерно-опосредованное взаимодействие, сервисный центр, интеллектуальная система.

Kostnikova O.A.¹, Kostnikova J.V.²¹PhD in Psychology, ²Undergraduate, ITMO University**INSITUATIONAL PRAGMATICS IN THE ANALYSES OF COMPUTER-MEDIATED INTERACTION
IN SERVICE ENCOUNTERS***Abstract*

The paper discusses the importance of understanding institutional pragmatics of the computer-mediated customer-operator interaction in service encounters as the major factor for teaching an intelligent system. It aims at giving an overview of the research that has been done so far in the field of computer-mediated interaction and institutional pragmatics as well as provides some findings of the research based on the analysis of customer-operator chat data. Research on institutional pragmatics has covered a wide range of topics but in our research the main focus has been on the analysis of lexical choice that can index and renew the institutional context and speech act, especially some distinct features of the request.

Keywords: institutional pragmatics, computer-mediated interaction, service encounters, intelligent system.

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The study discusses the importance of understanding institutional pragmatics of the computer-mediated customer-operator interaction in service encounters as the major factor for teaching an intelligent system since we can postulate that service encounters of the 21st century will involve artificial agents intertwined with human intelligence of either customers or staff. It aims at giving an overview of the research that has been done so far in the field of computer-mediated interaction and institutional pragmatics as well as provides some findings of the research based on the analysis of customer-operator chat data.

When we speak of the study of interaction, we bear in mind the analysis of synchronous conversation but we might also consider text-based computer communication in which participants are temporary jointly engaged in some kind of social action being co-present though spatially distant. Examples include telephone conversations, video conferences, chat and instant messaging sessions especially on working place such as service encounters.

The study of interaction traces its roots in many approaches. L. Wittgenstein [12] found the focus on how people actually employ words and sentences in certain situations more important than language rules. D. Hymes [6] laid emphasis on communicative competence, the ability not just to speak a language but to interact in that language in particular situations. The key idea of frames as the way people strategically organize, communicate or even conceal what they are doing when they interact [4] alongside with speech act theory [10] and works on implicature [5] became the foundations for the development of the field of pragmatics.

Pragmatics as a linguistic discipline deals with the analysis and recognition of meaning in texts under contextual influences far larger than their semantic counterpart. Two different traditions in pragmatics are seen in two different

fields of research: pragmalinguistics referring to pragmatics as a separate level of linguistics and sociopragmatics treating pragmatics as a function of language that incorporates a larger situational context. Two different approaches nevertheless operate some general terms such as reference, deixis, definiteness and indefiniteness, implicature, presupposition, speech acts. Issues like reference, deixis, definiteness and indefiniteness are more grammatical in nature whereas implicature, presupposition, speech acts tend to involve more lexico-grammatical or semantic aspects and are more much difficult to handle as they follow less clearly defined or researched patterns. This problem is urgent to be solved as recent years have seen the flourishing in the development of intelligent systems that are supposed to replace one of the partners in some mediated interaction.

The traditional definition of mediation is the information passing through some kind of artifact that is inserted between communicative partners. In applied linguistics the idea of what media is includes psychological, semiotic, and social entities like schemas and genres. M. Bakhtin [1] and L. Vygotsky [2] are the most influential scientists in the field. For the first all our interaction is mediated through other people as to form any utterance we borrow from previously formed utterances. For the second every action is mediated by various tools (both technical and psychological) that provide a link between individual mental processes and social and cultural ones. Early work in applied linguistics dealt with the influence of any kind of face-to-face clues absence on the ways messages can be delivered and understood [11]. Later the focus has moved to the characteristics of the computer-mediated communication both from the point of view of technology and semiotics [7]. But mediated interaction cannot solely rely on either technological or semiotic means, so the study of mediated discourse analysis [9] as the research of interactions in a wide variety of contexts with the

emphasis on pragmatics, institutional pragmatics in particular, seems to be a very important.

Institutional pragmatics though not considered a unified subfield of pragmatics, refers to research on how linguistic utterances obtain their meanings in the context of institutions as language use in the workplace is under certain institutional constraints, which affect how meaning is interpreted and produced. These constraints or the institutional context make up what are called *frames* [4] for participants of the interaction to interpret what type of activity is it, what is going on, and what roles are being played. But the process develops both ways: the institution provides the context for language use so that participants orient to the features of the institution in the verbal (and nonverbal) conducts, but the utterances produced also renew and create the institution as by orienting to institutional goals participants define what institution it is.

Research on institutional pragmatics [3] points at three main features of the institutional interaction in contrast with ordinary conversations:

1. partners in institution interaction orient to some institutionally defined goals, tasks, identities (in the corpus of the call-center dialogues participants do not insert exchanges that deviate from the core goals of the interaction);

2. partners in institution interaction orient to some specific and implicit constraints on what contribution is permissible and what contribution is not (in the corpus of the call-center dialogues when a caller tried to play a compliment, the staff refused to participate in the interaction and tried to orient to the official business issues);

3. partners in institution interaction orient to some inferential framework that are specific to every institution ((in the corpus of the call-center dialogues the staff withhold the expressions of surprise or sympathy).

Research on institutional pragmatics has covered a wide range of topics but in our research the main focus has been on the analysis of lexical choice and speech acts.

Lexical choice is a key resource can index and renew the institutional context. In the example of the recorded conversation between a customer and a call-center operator (to present the authenticity it is in Russian) the customer uses some special vocabulary «потерял сим-карту», «заблокировать» (Line 1), the operator uses «номер» (Line 2), «электронного счета» (Line 6), «балансе» (Line 7), «тарифа» (Line 12) that indexes the context as a telephone company chat and evokes the roles of the interaction as a customer and an operator.

(1) Здравствуйте! Я вчера потерял сим-карту, можно ли заблокировать её?

(2) Добрый день! Ярких и солнечных дней вместе с *****! Руслан, речь идет о номере, который Вы (3) указали в теме чата? Подскажите, пожалуйста, фамилию, имя и отчество владельца номера.

(4) Дело в том, что я * лет назад купил телефон, вместе с этой сим-картой

(5) Подскажите, пожалуйста, следующую информацию: *. Дата последнего пополнения (6) электронного счета (с точностью до * дней) и сумма последнего платежа (с точностью до *\$ (7) или ** руб.). *. Сумма на балансе в данный момент.

(8) Мы будем рады Вам помочь, когда у Вас будет время на общение!

(9) Примерно, **. **. ***** Сумма *** рублей. Баланс примерно рублей **-** рублей

(10) Просто сейчас с этой сим-карты, поступают звонки

(11) Минуту, проверяю.

(12) Информация неверна. Название тарифа, последний набранный номер?

(13) Мы будем рады Вам помочь, когда у Вас будет время на общение! Этот диалог я закрываю, но

(14) мы работаем для Вас ** часа * дней в неделю и всегда будем рады Вам помочь! Рекомендуем

(15) Вам наш сайт www.****, а также Личный Кабинет ***. Это просто, быстро и очень удобно!

(16) Всего Вам доброго!

It should be noted, that lexical choice in institutional talk involves not only the choice of some special vocabulary, but the choice among different ordinary formulations «просто сейчас» (Line 10), «минуту, проверю» (Line 11). Other type of formulation that participants may use to orient to institutional setting involve the choice of references to time, place and events, e.g.. «Дата последнего пополнения» (Line 5) or formulaic expressions («Ярких и солнечных дней вместе с *****!» (Line 2), «будем рады Вам помочь!» (Line 13). Thus word meanings are arrived at in the context of the institution and the identities of the people involved.

Another widely discussed topic within the scope of institutional pragmatics is speech acts as interaction in a specific institutional setting may contain speech acts that are unique to that setting or are realized slightly differently than in ordinary conversations. In ordinary conversations, due to issues of face and solidarity, requests often have prerequisites and hesitation markers that allow for the requestee to imply a negative response before the actual request is produced [8]. In the data under discussion we noted that requests in service encounters of the computer-mediated dialogues between a customer and an operator customers tend to produce their request immediately after the greeting and without any pre-sequences or hesitation («Здравствуйте! Я вчера потерял сим-карту, можно ли заблокировать её?» (Line 1)) . In situations involving negative response this leaves the business employee little or no opportunity to indicate prior to the customer's request that it will not be granted. Since the customer's request and the business fulfillment of this request is the main purpose of the interaction, business employees tend to engage in extensive responses when a request cannot be fulfilled, this responses can involve suggestions for self-service: «Мы будем рады Вам помочь, когда у Вас будет время на общение! Этот диалог я закрываю, но мы работаем для Вас ** часа * дней в неделю и всегда будем рады Вам помочь! Рекомендуем Вам наш сайт www.****, а также Личный Кабинет ***. Это просто, быстро и очень удобно! Всего Вам доброго!» (Lines 13-16).

In the last few decades institutional pragmatics has contributed much to the understanding of how meaning is created and interpreted in the context of the workplace. The findings of the data analysis of the computer-mediated customer-operator interaction in service encounters can provide useful implications for interventions and improvement of communication within institutions.

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**ДИГНИТАРНАЯ И ПЛЕБИАРНАЯ МЕТАФОРА КАК СПОСОБЫ ВОЗВЫШЕНИЯ И ПРИНИЖЕНИЯ
СТАТУСА ИНДИВИДА***Аннотация*

Статья посвящена использованию дигнитарной и плебиарной метафоры (термины наши) для индексации целевых групп. Исследование показало, что данные метафоры активно эксплуатируются СМИ с целью возвышения или принижения статуса публичных фигур (знаменитостей) в глазах общественности (поклонников). С их помощью создается, поддерживается, а иногда и навязывается определенная идентичность индивида в оппозитивной оценочно-когнитивной матрице «Свой» - «Чужой». Оценочный знак указанных метафор является подвижным и детерминирован рядом факторов, основными из которых выступают признаки, положенные в основу вторичной номинации, исторические основания значения, семантика непосредственных адьюнктов и других контекстных единиц.

Ключевые слова: дигнитарная метафора, плебиарная метафора, идентичность, коннотация.

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PEOPLE AS ROYALTIES AND COMMONERS: WAYS TO RAISE AND DIMINISH ONE'S STATUS*Abstract*

The article is devoted to metaphorical conceptualization of people as royalties and commoners. The research reveals that both metaphors are actively employed by mass media in order to create, support, destroy or impose a certain social image of a public person (celebrity) in the eyes of community (admirers) in the framework of a binary opposition "We/Ours" – "They/Others". Both groups of metaphors convey ambiguous connotations, motivated by a number of factors, such as historical background, aspects of target domain hidden and highlighted, immediate modifiers and context as a whole.

Keywords: dignitary metaphor, pleb metaphor, identity, connotation.

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The representation of a person as an individual belonging to a higher or lower social rank is, first of all, historically motivated. For a long time the society used to be unequally divided into aristocrats and commoners. The smaller group of those holding a high official position due to a noble title (aristocrats) is put at the top of a social ladder and opposed to the bigger class of people without ranks or titles occupying the bottom of it (commoners).

For our article we have chosen the lexemes nominating royalties (*king, queen, prince, princess*) as the highest representatives of the dignitary group and the words referring to social subordinates (*servant, lackey, slave*) belonging to the class of common people.

Throughout the history monarchy was one of the oldest and most widespread government systems. The sovereign was the bearer of all political power as well as the owner of the whole country's economic wealth, and the rest of the population had to comply with his orders. Moreover, it was strongly believed that the king's power came from and was blessed by God.

Monarchy has different forms and can peacefully co-exist with democratic institutions of state power such as a parliament. However, it is the absolute monarchy that turns out to be the major source of metaphoric expansion.

King is a senior member of a royal family, not so much biologically (because of his age) as socially (because of his power). Sovereign's dominance and power in combination with feudal relationship of vassalage is retained in the lexeme "king" metaphoric usage when applied to the most important, best or most respected person in a group. In fact, the notion of significance and priority is so strong that in many cases gender component (male) seems to be lost or become irrelevant: *client is king, consumer is king, fan is king, customer is king, programmer is king, writer is king, resident is king*. The nouns "client", "consumer", "programmer", etc.

equally apply to both males and females. Metaphor "king" highlights a person's higher status, power and dominance moving gender to a secondary position.

Figurative *king* is frequently exploited by mass media in order to create, support, destroy or impose a certain social opinion about public figures and celebrities (musicians, sportsmen, politicians, etc). As seen from the following extracts, the metaphor can both raise and diminish a person's social and professional status.

(1) PAUL GASCOIGNE was unofficially crowned of king of world football here last night as he gloriously won his personal duel with Maradona with a wonder goal that 'had made in heaven' stamped all over it [CEP W_newsp_other_sports] [1]

(2) This year Bob Dylan is the king of rock' n' roll, and he is the least likely king popular music has ever seen [MAG SatEvenPost] [2]

In sample (1) Paul Gascoigne conceptualized as king of world football is sure to make a most favorable impression on fans and readers. Contextual units such as "gloriously won", "wonder goal", "had made in heaven" hyperbolize his professional skills and talent and diminish the status of another football star (Maradona).

As for sample (2), Bob Dylan's reputation as a king of rock' n' roll is somehow spoiled as he was not expected to have one. The phrase "he is the least likely king popular music has ever seen" implies that the person is not really worth of the given title.

Prince is just one step below king and the attributes defined for the latter apply in this case. Preeminence, authority and respect are highlighted in the metaphoric usage of *prince* as a successful person.

(3) The young prince of experimental physics, Ernest Rutherford, then a professor at McGill University in Montreal, discovered the enormous energy released by alpha

particle radiation from radioactive substances [ACAD Mercury] [2]

(4) This is the prince of pop, the son and heir of pop star Michael Jackson, now appearing in OK [SPOK CNN_Company] [2]

The motivation for conceptualization men in the above extracts as princes rather than kings refers the age (young – sample 3) and family status (son and heir – sample 4).

The figurative *prince*, however, has additional connotations in comparison with its more senior variant (king). Being an heir of the throne and a potential leader of the country, prince is often connected with people's hopes for a better life in the future. In legends and fairytales he is idealized as a perfect partner many girls and young women dream about. Prince is a handsome, kind, caring, loving and affectionate male: *prince of a fellow*, *prince of a guy*, *prince of a man*, *prince of my dreams*.

The notion of highly positive qualities conveyed by the metaphor "prince" is also exploited in non-romantic spheres of relationships, such as family (*prince of a brother*, *prince of a son*, *prince of a dad*) and professional activity (*prince of a lawyer*, *prince of a doctor*).

As a member of the royalty, metaphoric queen bears many similarities to *king* and *prince* in the terms of a higher social standing, power and dominance. As a female metaphor, however, it also refers to an attractive woman or girl, and the notion of prominence can sometimes convey sexual implications: *sex queen*, *porn queen*, *queen of the night*, *queen of courtesans*, *queen of cougars*, *queen of pleasure*. Metaphor "queen" is often modified by the adjectives referring to appearance: *beautiful queen*, *lovely queen*, *pretty queen*, *glamour queen*, *gorgeous queen*.

Queen is also used to nominate homosexual men in a pejorative way as femininity is regarded as an extremely negative trait in males. In this way men who prefer non-conventional sex seem to lose their gender identity and become bearers of a negative social stigma.

Moreover, contempt towards homosexuality is sometimes extrapolated on other spheres of a person's life, which have no direct connections to sexual orientation.

(5) What does that old queen know? He wasn't even there [FIC Mov:EdWood] [2]

Thus, in sample (5) a person involved in non-conventional sex is considered to be stupid and unreliable. The negative connotation conveyed by queen is further emphasized by the adjective "old", which implies uselessness and backwardness.

(6) She didn't do it alone. In fact, she is just one in a long list of women attached to an incredibly odd publicity machine, DD Entertainment. At the head of it all, a former porn star turned queen of scandal [SPOK ABC_Nightline] [2]

(7) Love triangles, revenge, all in a day's work for the queen of daytime soap Susan Lucci. She's best known for her long running role as the sexy and sassy Erica Cane in All My Children, which famously earned her nineteen Emmy nominations before she won it [SPOK NBC] [2]

Attractiveness as a source domain of *queen* is exploited to present female public figures and celebrities (porn star – sample 6, sexy and sassy – sample 7). Constant rivalry and competition also seem to be an essential part of women's popularity (love triangles, revenge – sample 7, odd publicity machine, scandal – sample 6).

Extract (6) also implies that a woman's power is temporary (long list of women) and is based on destroying other women by means of scandal.

Princess is in many respects a younger image of queen. Both share a high social status, respect of laymen and privileged living conditions. Traditionally, princess is described as a young beautiful girl mistreated by an evil and jealous queen (her stepmother) and rescued by a noble knight (prince) with whom she lives happily ever after.

Beauty and need for protection are the two notions frequently borrowed from the source domain *princess* in metaphorical usage: *beautiful princess*, *pretty princess*, *lovely princess*, *little princess*, *sweet princess*, *fairytale princess*, *spoilt princess*.

Naughtiness, glamour, luxurious life and prestige of *princess* are mapped onto female celebrities in order to create and support a certain public attitude.

(8) The princess of over-the-top pop passes on her appreciation for the finer things to Asia, her fabulous French bulldog [MAGPeople] [2]

(9) Already Sydney has trained her, fashioned another little Princess of Art, streamlined and groomed for success [FIC Atlantic] [2]

As we can see from sample (8) the public appreciation of a woman is more a matter of her extravagant habits and lifestyle (the finer things to Asia, her fabulous French bulldog) than actual talent. Sample (9) implies that the woman's success should be attributed to her benefactor rather than to herself. This connotation is emphasized by the indefinite pronoun "another" (she is not different from many other women) and the adjective "little", which refers not only to her young age but is also aimed at diminishing her significance and proficiency.

Although all the members of royal family (*king*, *queen*, *prince*, *princess*) are naturally above ordinary people due to a higher social status and privileged standing, it is the male half who is regarded as bearers of real (king) or potential (prince) supreme state power. That is why male dignitary metaphor is exploited to activate the relationships of power, preeminence and dominance.

In addition to status and dominance, the source domain of queen and princess highlight physical categories of beauty and attractiveness. The power and authority in society should stereotypically belong to men. A powerful or successful woman (especially in a circle of men) is likely to cause negative attitude in a form of incredulity, suspicion or hostility. This is supposed to be the reason for presenting women as main/dominant figures in this or that field with the hint on their gender peculiarities – attractiveness and sexuality.

Historically, common people were to provide for nobility's comforts and well-being. They catered for food, clothing, shelter, etc., so dignitaries could indulge in the activities appropriate of their rank and social standing. Servants as housekeepers and personal attendants were significant to noble households. A good servant had to be not just blindly obedient, but skilful, smart, loyal and devoted. Besides, many servants shared their masters' house as well as their secrets.

Loyalty and reliability of a servant in combination with emotional attachment to a master seem to be the basis of its metaphoric usage as figurative *servant* denotes a devoted and helpful follower or supporter: *servant of the community*, *servant of the people*, *servant of humanity*, *servant of public health*, *servant of the strong*, *servant of terrorism*.

Logically, a servant's standing among his/her peers directly depended on his/her master's status and power. Similarly, figurative *servant* connotations appear to depend on a cause or person he/she is devoted to.

(10) The Archbishop of Westminster, Cardinal Basil Hume, described him as an outstanding servant of truth and justice [CH6W_newsp_tabloid] [1]

(11) The attorney general is now understood to be a servant the president rather than the law, and the president doesn't appear to want torture prosecuted [ACAD Humanist] [2]

In sample (10) the notion of service and devotion is exploited in the context of the highest democratic and moral values (truth and justice). By means of a metaphoric *servant* a person is portrayed as a respected member of society, a model of behavior for other citizens. Positive connotations are further emphasized by the adjective “outstanding”.

In sample (11), on the contrary, a person's loyalty is directed in the wrong way: he serves the president rather than the law, which is supposed to be the supreme power in a democratic state. The metaphor is used to express strong disapproval not so of the *servant* (the attorney general) as of the *master* (the president).

Lackey used to be rather a low-rank servant. His tasks did not demand much expertise and were limited to pleasing masters and their guests in all possible ways. Lackeys are traditionally presented as flattering, obedient and not very bright sycophants.

Therefore, the metaphorical *lackey* as a person eager to obey others just because they are more important or powerful than him/her, bears negative connotations: *lackey of imperialism, lackey of bureaucracy, lackey of the government, lackey of the administration, lackey of foreign powers, lackey of the state, lackey of the Zionists*.

As seen from the extracts below, *lackey* (contrary to *servant*) is always used disapprovingly, no matter what kind of person, organization or cause an individual is willing to serve and obey. The explanation to this lies in the fact that it is power and status one is devoted to, not person or organization holding it, and the power is over, the devotion is sure to be over, too. Fake loyalty is considered to be sometimes even worse than no loyalty at all.

(12) Critics label him a lackey of neoconservative Rumsfeld, Vice President Dick Cheney and others [NEWS Atlanta] [2]

(13) Was she an anguished mother demanding answers? Or a publicity hound and lackey of the left exploiting her own child? [NEWS AssocPress] [2]

Slave was historically deprived of any status. He/she was regarded as a legal property of a master and was often treated as an animal or even an object. Slaves had no rights and their lives were of no value to anyone. Although slavery is a thing of the past, the notion of being totally controlled and dependent is a source of *slave* metaphoric expansion: *slave of passions, slave of habits, slave of custom, slave of fashion, slave of public opinion, slave of self-involvement*.

Freedom is the highest value of humanity, a necessary condition of an individual's physical, moral and spiritual life. Freedom is believed to be given by God. That is why voluntary giving up freedom is considered to be highly negative and self-destructing. We suppose this to be the reason for the negative connotations conveyed by *slave* metaphorical expressions.

The extracts below demonstrate that it is wrong to allow oneself to be absolutely controlled by something, no matter how insignificant (sample 14) or important (sample 15) this something might seem to be.

(14) You (the attorney) are the slave of technicalities; you do not understand that species of security which is above the words of a deed or the letter of a law [C-1837 (W)] [3]

(15) Man should not become the slave of science [C-1984 Hume (C)] [3]

Despite opposed social standings both royalties and commoners are productive source domains for metaphorical conceptualization of public figures. Dignitary and pleb metaphors are employed by mass media in order to create, support, destroy or impose a certain social image of a person. The central qualities of a dignitary image are power, dominance, leadership, perfectness (for men) plus attractiveness and sexual desirability (for women). In pleb metaphors gender component is irrelevant. Pleb image construction includes loyalty, devotion, obedience and dependence.

Both groups of metaphors convey ambiguous connotations, motivated by a number of factors, such as historical background, aspects of target domain hidden and highlighted, immediate modifiers and context as a whole.

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АНАЛИЗ КОММУНИКАТИВНЫХ СТРАТЕГИЙ И ДИСКУРСИВНЫХ ХАРАКТЕРИСТИК РАЗЛИЧНЫХ ЖАНРОВ АНГЛОЯЗЫЧНОГО ВОЕННОГО ДИСКУРСА*Аннотация*

Целью статьи является анализ коммуникативных стратегий и дискурсивных характеристик ядерных «прототипных» письменных жанров военного дискурса – ориентационного (информационного), «побуждающего к действию» и эпидейктического (ритуального). Автор приходит к выводу, что к генеральным коммуникативным стратегиям военного дискурса следует отнести две полярные стратегии – презентационную и манипуляционную. Презентационная стратегия характерна для ориентационных (информационных) жанров военного дискурса, в то время как манипуляционная стратегия характеризует «побуждающие к действию» и эпидейктические (ритуальные) жанры военного дискурса. Стратегический анализ жанров военного дискурса может применяться в лингвометодических целях – в ходе обучения курсантов военных учебных заведений навыкам профессионального общения, а также на курсах переводчиков и при разработке спецкурсов по лингвистике военного дискурса, спецкурсов по речевому воздействию, речевой коммуникации, деловому общению в военной сфере.

Ключевые слова: военный дискурс, коммуникативная стратегия, ориентационный (информационный), «побуждающий к действию», эпидейктический (ритуальный) жанры, презентация, манипуляция, конвенция, дискурсивные характеристики.

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THE ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES AND DISCURSIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT GENRES OF THE ENGLISH MILITARY DISCOURSE*Abstract*

The aim of the article is to analyze the communicative strategies and discursive characteristics used in the nuclear “prototypical” written genres of the military discourse, i.e. orientation (informative), action-stimulating, epideictic (ritual) genres. The author comes to the conclusion that the two main communicative strategies of the military discourse are presentation and manipulation. Presentation is typical of orientation (informative) genres while manipulation is characteristic of action-stimulating and epideictic (ritual) genres of the military discourse. The strategic analysis of the genres of the military discourse may be used for linguistic-methodical purposes, i.e. in the course of teaching cadets of military institutions the skills of professional communication as well as at the courses of translators and in the process of developing special linguistic courses on the military discourse and speech interaction and communication, business communication in the military sphere.

Keywords: military discourse, communicative strategy, orientation (informative), action-stimulating, epideictic (ritual) genres, presentation, manipulation, convention, discursive characteristics.

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Military discourse is a complex communicative-speech process that includes a combination of both written and oral texts used in the sphere of military intercourse, thesaurus of precedential statements, a set of speech actions and genres typical of this type of communication [8, P. 39]. It is marked by the strict hierarchy of the main participants of communication, the definite chronotope and open representation of values and norms of the military institute. The aim of the military discourse is determined by the key function of the state that is directed at providing the security of the country. This purpose is concretized by the corresponding intentions which determine the communicative strategies and tactics of the military discourse. The latter are actualized in its genres thus modeling their informative structure.

The genre of the military discourse can be defined as “a verbal formalization of the typical situation of people’s interaction, a mixture of textual works united by the common aim, similar or the same theme, compositional forms which are actualized in the typical communicative situation” [9, P. 261].

There are numerous classifications concerning genres of the military discourse. In accordance with the fact that speech intentions are genre-making, there exist directive (instruction, order, command); business-organizational (direction, charter, guidance); informative and reference genres (report, recommendation) in the military discourse [2, P. 66].

According to the functional purpose of military texts G. M. Strelkovsky singles out informative texts (military-scientific, military-technical, military-informational and military-publicistic) and texts regulating the life and activities of the armed forces (charters, instructions, directions, guidances, reports and recommendations). This group is usually called “military documents” [6].

Taking into account the character of the leading intention D. R. Fakhruudinova writes about informative (report, introduction), imperative (command, detailed order) and etiquette (military salutation, greeting) genres in oral military communication.

Written genres take the central place in the military discourse. The nuclear “prototype” genres based on the leading intention of the military communication include orientation (informative), action-stimulating, epideictic (ritual) genres. Each of them is represented by the corresponding texts united by the common aim and strategy.

Orientation (informative) genres are represented by the texts of informative-prescriptive character (military doctrine, military and combat charters, instructions and reports).

Action-stimulating genres include appellative texts (directives, orders, prescriptions, commands).

Epideictic (ritual) genres are etiquette formulae of military salutations and greetings and the text of the military oath of allegiance.

Since one of the aims of this research is the analysis of the communicative strategies determined by the intention of the addresser we will use the gradation of the military genres which was suggested by D. R. Fakhrutdinova.

The intentions of the addresser in communication consist of his aims and intentions and define the form and content of the military text. The “intention of the text” is usually understood as “the common aim, direction of the text towards receiving the definite result” [3, P. 159]. For example, informing or convincing the addressee of something.

The aim of the addresser is determined by his motivation which appears in the concrete communicative situation as a result of the preliminary evaluation of the wide sociocultural context by the addresser [1, P. 103]. The achievement of aims is carried out with the help of the corresponding strategies.

The strategies, in their turn, are realized by means of actualization of tactics. It includes the choice of definite means allowing to achieve the set aims in the concrete communicative situation with the help of language means. So, the communicative strategy is defined by means of the aim of communication. Let's use the scheme to represent the above mentioned definition.

Aim → Strategy → Tactics → Language means

So, a speech strategy is a complete system of operations performed by the addresser in order to achieve the definite communicative aim in the concrete communicative situation by choosing optimal language means [11, P. 28].

It's impossible to give a complete and universal gradation of communicative strategies because of the variety of communicative situations. Let's consider some classifications of communicative strategies.

From the functional point of view there exist primary and auxiliary strategies. Primary strategy is the most significant strategy in terms of the hierarchy of motives and aims at the given stage of interaction. Auxiliary strategies contribute to the effective organization of the dialogical interaction and optimal influence on the addressee [4, P. 106 – 108].

Makarov M. L. gives the following classification of communicative strategies: propositional strategies, strategies of local coherence, productional strategies, macrostrategies, schematic, scenic and stylistic, speech strategies [5, P. 194].

The classification of strategies given by S. V. Datsuk is widely recognized. He investigates presentations, manipulations and conventions. By the level of openness, symmetry and the means of produced communication they are differentiated in the following way: presentation is a passive communication, manipulation is an active communication and convention is an interactive one. In the same way the main means are a message for presentation, a statement for manipulation and a dialogue for convention [7, P. 101].

Depending on the type of language personality A. V. Ulanov distinguishes three types of strategies: informing, manipulation and cooperation [7, P. 105 – 109].

Shkuratova E. A. underlines the strategy of confrontation which is represented by the strategy of speech manipulation and the strategy of speech aggression, the strategy of positioning and the strategy of cooperation [10, P. 205].

This article describes the way how the above-mentioned strategies of presentation, manipulation and convention are realized in orientation (informative), action-stimulating and epideictic (ritual) genres of the military discourse.

At the same time we will analyze the three above-mentioned genres of the military discourse by the following criteria:

- Authorship, i.e. belonging of the text to a definite author. Here we can talk about four possible variants of authorship – when the creator of the text and the official author are the same or different people; the formal absence of authorship or the author's institutional status. The authorship is closely connected with a “language personality” which is an essential constituent element of any speech strategy. Scientists discuss various aspects of the language personality based on verbal-semantic, cognitive and pragmatic levels. In this paper we will consider the pragmatic level which includes the revealing of intentions, motives and aims of the addresser in his speech. Thus, we single out three main types of a language personality – informer (active and passive), cooperator and manipulator. The function of an active informer is to give a message which requires instantaneous fulfillment while a passive informer gives reference information. A manipulator manages information for his own use, his communicative behavior depends on the situational and pragmatically determined. A cooperator performs the cooperative function of communication (shows admiration, congratulates on festive events, etc.).

- Addressness, i.e. the type of the addressee of the text. We will distinguish between group addressee, a specified single addressee and mass addressee.

- Intelligibility, i.e. understandability of the text by general readers or by definite specialists.

- Informativeness, i.e. presence in the text of new information or the statement of known facts.

- Evaluativity, i.e. presence or absence in the text of evaluative addresser's characteristics of the discussed facts.

- Institutionalality, i.e. predominance of personal and institutional aspects in the text.

- The degree of completeness of information, i.e. if the addressee gets complete or reduced information.

The material for the analysis is the texts which belong to the three written genres of the military discourse.

Let's take a close look at some points of the National Military Strategy of the USA, It was presented to general public in 2015 by the Chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff of the U.S. Army General Martin Dempsey, This fundamental document belongs to the orientation (informative) genre of the military discourse and constitutes the basis of the American Armed Forces. This official document is obligatory for fulfillment in the Armed Forces and other military structures of the USA and it's a doctrine which is presented to the whole world. It's a document with a formal absence of authorship, i.e. it was prepared by a group of military specialists and presented to the involved military agencies and the wide public on behalf of the state or authorities of military departments. The communication is conducted in two simultaneous lines “representatives of the institution – representatives of the institution” and “representatives of the institution – representatives of general public”. The language personality in the person of Martin Dempsey performs the function of the informer of the mass addressee of the President's Administration views on American security and welfare. He uses the communicative strategy of informing. Evidently, informativeness, i.e. newness of the given information without any evaluative or emotional component comes to the foreground. So, we can conclude that the analyzed document uses the strategy of presentation to achieve the aim of informing.

The General declares that America needs “to counter revisionist states that are challenging international norms as well as violent extremist organizations (VEOs) that are undermining transregional security” [14].

As we see, this extract presents only factual information and is characterized by the pithiness and succinctness, the use of standard official language means which are characteristic of the Army as a military institution and underlines its institutional character. Nevertheless, the outer plainness of the given information is accompanied by some sense indistinctness. At the same time, the document uses the lexical units of wide semantics such as «international norms», «transregional security», etc. To understand the document correctly one should have a wide scope of special knowledge, i.e. one should be a specialist in this field. Further on some indistinct terms are concretized. For example, hostile to America “revisionist states” are headed by Russia.

For comparison let’s analyze directives and orders as constituent parts of action-stimulating genre of the English military discourse.

It is well-known that directives and orders are characterized by the strict structure and precise wording, exactness, clearness, objectivity, conciseness, accented logicity of statement. Their main mission of this type of documents is to manage and control the activity of the addressee.

Let’s quote some military orders.

“The Under Secretary of Defense for Policy shall coordinate Defense Support of Civil Authorities policy with other Federal departments and agencies, State agencies, and the DoD Components, as appropriate” [13].

From the communicative point of view action-stimulating genres of the military discourse demand the fulfillment of the order contained in the document, i.e. the imperative characteristic of the text expresses the fact that the main attention of the addresser-manipulator which has the institutional status is directed towards the specified institutional addressee (a certain military authority or a department) in order to make them perform some concrete actions. Consequently, we can speak about the manipulative communicative strategy in the analyzed document. The information of the analyzed orders lacks informational superfluity and is understandable only by the involved institutional specialists. The line of communication looks as follows: “representatives of the institution – representatives of the institution”.

For comparison, epideictic (ritual) genres of the military discourse are characterized by the predominance of fanaticism over informativeness, i.e. they don’t contain new information but draw the addressee’s attention to already

known facts. The addresser tries to influence the emotions of the addressee.

The official speech of Ashton Carter (the American Secretary of Defense) in honor of the Armed Forces Day on May 20th runs as follows:

“Today is Armed Forces Day, an opportunity for all of us to express our gratitude, our admiration, and our support to the men and women who have answered the noble call of service. They defend American security, American prosperity, and American values We are so proud of you” [12].

The main aim of this ritual speech is integration and unification of the nation on this special day for Americans. In this document we deal with the “cooperator type” of the language personality and the mass addressee, i.e. all the Americans and people all over the world. The speech is directed not only to the military men but to civil people as well, i.e. the communication is conducted in the line of “representatives of the institution – representatives of the institution” and “representatives of the institution – civil citizens”.

The creator of speech and the official author are the same person. The speech is characterized by the intelligibility, i.e. it is very well understood by the mass audience. The speech doesn’t contain new information; the emphasis is laid on feelings and emotions of the addressee. The addresser softens the official character of his speech, expresses admiration, congratulates all the people on the Armed Forces Day, underlines the precious input of American military men into providing American security. The addresser uses emotionally colored lexical units with positive connotations such as “noble” and “remarkable” to make the audience feel gratitude and pride for the military men. So, manipulative strategy comes to the foreground. But in this case we deal with emotional but not behavioral manipulation of the addressee.

Having analyzed some texts of different genres of the military discourse we can come to the conclusion that the military institutional discourse is a complex multidimensional formation characterized by two general communicative strategies – presentation and manipulation. Presentation is typical of orientation (informative) genres of the military discourse, while manipulation characterizes action-stimulating and epideictic (ritual) genres. The above-mentioned strategies differ from each other by the content and means for its representation. All the analyzed genres of the military discourse are marked by a definite set of discursive characteristics – authorship, addressness, intelligibility, informativeness, evaluativity, institutionality and completeness of information.

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**РОЛЬ КОГНИТИВНОГО КОНТЕКСТА В ФОРМИРОВАНИИ КОНТЕКСТНО-ЗАВИСИМЫХ
ЗНАЧЕНИЙ МНОГОЗНАЧНЫХ АБСТРАКТНЫХ СУЩЕСТВИТЕЛЬНЫХ***Аннотация*

В статье рассмотрена роль контекста в образовании новых значений абстрактных существительных с высокой степенью контекстной зависимости. Контекст может выполнять ряд важных функций, что относится и к когнитивному контексту, который представляет собой блоки знаний, благодаря которым говорящий может ориентироваться в мире лексических значений. Данное исследование основано на данных Британского национального корпуса; в работе предпринимается анализ значений абстрактных существительных. В статье постулируется, что исторический и экономический контексты оказывают большое влияние на формирование значения многозначного слова.

Ключевые слова: контекст, лексическое значение, контекстная зависимость.

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**THE ROLE OF COGNITIVE CONTEXT IN THE FORMATION OF CONTEXTUALLY DEPENDENT
MEANINGS OF POLYSEMANTIC ABSTRACT NOUNS***Abstract*

The paper analyses the role of context in the formation of new meanings of abstract nouns having a higher degree of contextual dependence. Context may have a number of important functions. This is also true with regard to cognitive context, which consists of certain chunks of information facilitating the speaker's orientation in the scope of lexical meanings. The present paper is based on the data from the British National Corpus; it undertakes to analyze the meanings of abstract nouns. The article postulates that historical and economic contexts are crucial for the meaning formation of a polysemantic word.

Keywords: context, lexical meaning, contextual dependence.

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Lexical meaning has been a core notion for linguists throughout all periods of language studies. Still, approaches to its definition vary broadly. Gradually the relationship between a sign and its user came to the foreground. Studies dedicated to pragmatics attempted to describe a dynamic connection between the speaker and the language sign. Cognitive linguistics has also made a significant contribution to the development of the theory of meaning. The idea that a single lexical meaning is part and parcel of a larger mental and linguistic formation underlies cognitive research. That is why such notions as concept, frame and category are widely discussed. Besides, cognitive scientists describe and interpret ways or models by which a new meaning appears in human mind; they investigate mechanisms responsible for meaning formation, as well as various factors that condition changes in meanings. Cognitive studies regard context as a possible means of a meaning identification. Despite the fact that linguists agree on the importance of context analysis, there are minor differences in understanding its role. Contextually dependent words are most appropriate for such studies as they chiefly possess an abstract, generic meaning and it seems interesting to observe the development of their meanings in a variety of contexts.

The present paper is based on several seminal studies, e.g. B. Serebrennikov, N. Boldyrev, V. Zobotkina, T. A. van Dijk et al. The analysis of meanings is done using the data from the British National Corpus (BNC) which now is automatically updated and reflects processes taking place in the modern English language.

Contextual analysis implies clearly delineated paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of the word. The former exist between the words that are located in immediate proximity in a sentence [6, 238], and they comprise the basis of a context. As a rule, one distinguishes between a broad and a narrow context. The broad context is directly related to the cognitive one, since they both include factors outside the linguistic scope (social and historical settings) [4, P. 96]. E.

Boyarskaya writes about universal, culture specific as well as individual features as integral parts of cognitive context, for it is the speaker who connects the outside world and a language expression [3]. The speaker has to relate grammar, vocabulary and syntax of the native language to the ongoing changes in the world and this adaptation first and foremost concerns lexical changes. As stated by N. Boldyrev, lexical meanings are connected to the knowledge blocks that make up cognitive contexts. The mission of contexts is to facilitate the perception of new information (or the old one, but in a new distribution). [2, P. 36-45]. T. A. van Dijk regarded contexts as parts or interpretations of the social environment [7, P. 163].

So, what is exactly the relationship between a word meaning and its context? Contexts can pre-determine a meaning [4, P. 46], or reveal it [1, P. 7]. As a matter of fact, the latter uses the term "actualizing context" which is supposed to act as a prerequisite for the meaning actualization. B. Serebrennikov expresses a contrary idea. Context is unable to create a meaning, it only points at a new situation in communication. The meaning is determined later, in a human mind based on the available cognitive mechanisms [5, P. 206].

The modern English language abounds in new words and meanings. And some of them pose a certain difficulty in their translation into other languages. The lexical meaning is so deeply entangled with the context that it is practically impossible to render an adequate translation without it. The word "performance" is a good example thereof (examples in bold are taken from the BNC).

Word meanings are largely determined by the application area: at school **pupils' performance** basically means good or bad marks, in trading or economics **export performance** is export itself. In the latter case, the meaning is to a certain degree redundant and includes the assessment of all features of export activities, especially profit. In chemistry, **high performance liquid** is a liquid that reacts quickly to other substances while in law **contractual performance** is a degree

to which contract obligations are observed. Mathematics and computing use the word to denote calculation of certain numbers (such as **floating point performance, integer performance**). The invariant meaning can be therefore formulated as “functioning, activity” in a very broad sense. The element of evaluation is present in the generic meaning: any kind of activity should bring about certain results, and be a success or a failure.

Another example of a polysemantic contextually dependent word is “treatment”. Its meanings also depend on the sphere of application. Environmental protection and studies view **water\sewage treatment** as purification, removal of contaminants. It is similar to performance: **numerical treatment** is tantamount to calculation or expression in different values. In agriculture **treatment of confined areas** refers to tilling land, in law and financing meanings are somewhat similar – **income tax treatment, treatment of offenders** denotes a set of rules which should be applied to certain things or persons.

As in the previous example, “treatment” has its invariant meaning “activity, actions imposed on some person or object.” But this word lacks an evaluative component. The question is not how well something is done, but rather whether it is done or not. It is of interest to note the difference between the English concept of “water treatment” and Russian “очистка воды,” literally “water cleaning.” Treatment does not imply that the object will become clean or pure. Rather, the object changes its essence. The same is true for the given examples from other fields of knowledge.

The word “crisis” presents a good example. Though normally it is translated as “кризис,” the meanings vary to a great extent. For instance, if “crisis” is combined with resources (fuel crisis, coal crisis, oil crisis), it does not necessarily mean the lack of them. In most cases, it means

that prices have plunged and the economy is threatened. Therefore, it is actually an economic crisis that is meant.

Another possible model is *country\weapon+crisis* which can mean hostilities or an armed confrontation (**Gulf crisis, missile crisis**). If some notion, which is conventionally regarded as a negative one, is combined with “crisis”, it means its uncontrollable development (**rape crisis, hostage crisis, injury crisis, refugee crisis, debt crisis**). Therefore, “crisis” serves as an intensifier without changing the meaning substantially. Here the abundance of some quality is observed but it can develop vice versa. Examples like **confidence crisis, cash crisis, sterling crisis** point to lack of something which is usually perceived as vital. The last group – **identity crisis, constitutional crisis, legitimacy crisis, capitalism’s crisis** – refers neither to the abundance nor lack of something, but to the disruption of normal functioning. As a matter of fact, it can serve as an invariant meaning. Consequently, the meaning of the word crisis depends heavily on the surrounding context. In order to understand the meaning of various collocations, the speaker has to be acquainted with the social and historical background and be able to distinguish between the set of values and beliefs in the existing society. Social context as such is a complex phenomenon.

In conclusion, it can be stated that the words analyzed above are contextually dependent having meanings dependent on historical, social and other factors. Moreover, several productive models of meaning formation can be identified. Abstract nouns, similar to the ones analyzed in the article, possess invariant meanings related to the functioning of animate or inanimate agents. From a philosophical standpoint, functioning is tantamount to existence. Contextually dependent words reflect fundamental, universal notions that is why they tend to develop numerous meanings.

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General theory of signs in relation to linguistics. Semiology. Semiotics (UDC 81`22)

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**ЛИНГВОСЕМИОТИЧЕСКИЙ ПОДХОД К ИЗУЧЕНИЮ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОЙ МЕТАФОРЫ
 (НА МАТЕРИАЛЕ МЕДИЦИНСКОГО ДИСКУРСА)**

Аннотация

В статье обосновывается новый теоретический подход к изучению профессиональной метафоры, в рамках которого она рассматривается как лингвосемиотический феномен и часть семиотического континуума. Профессиональные метафоры, функционирующие в конкретном профессиональном континууме, рассматриваются автором как единицы живого знания, включающие в себя профессиональные и культурологические знания, коррелирующие с наивными в рамках индивидуального лексикона носителя языка. Особое внимание уделяется эмпирическому подтверждению теоретических постулатов.

Ключевые слова: метафора, лингвосемиотическая теория профессиональной метафоры, семиотический континуум.

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**LINGUOSEMIOTICAL APPROACH TO THE STUDY OF PROFESSIONAL METAPHOR
 (BASED ON THE MATERIAL OF MEDICAL DISCOURSE)**

Abstract

The article explains the new theoretical approach to the study of professional metaphor, in which it is regarded as linguosemiotical phenomenon and part of a semiotic continuum. Professional metaphors operating in specific professional continuum are considered by the author as units of live knowledge, including professional and cultural knowledge, correlating with naive within the individual lexicon of a native speaker. Particular attention is paid to empirical confirmation of theoretical postulates.

Keywords: metaphor, linguo-semiotical theory, semiotic continuum.

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Our linguosemiotical approach to the study of metaphor concerns the description of the existence of this phenomenon as a product of natural and artificial semiosis. On the one hand, it seems to us, that the investigated phenomenon is a part of the language space, objectifying peculiarities of identification and functioning of any linguistic unit in the speech interaction. On the other hand, it is a part of a semiotic continuum, performing interaction of mental space and speech activity of the individual in the process of communication. In our work under natural semiosis is understood as a natural process of signification, i.e. sign representation of information and the use of signs of natural origin in a certain semiotic space. As a part of the natural semiosis metaphor is a universal semiotic-cognitive connector, linking the area of perception with the surrounding reality display. We emphasize that the implementation of the semiotic potential of a metaphor is due to the active use of the analytical capabilities of metaphorization, manifesting cognitive operations products on the linguistic level [1], [2].

Under artificial semiosis we understand the process of cultural signification, i.e. sign representation of information and the use of signs in the semiotic space of the cultural and social life. In this formulation of the problem metaphor as a linguistic phenomenon acquires the status of semiotic space where cultural semes lexicalize. We emphasize that in the artificial semiosis by means of the cultural code, manifested primarily with the help of the natural language, a secondary valuation of the phenomenon under study is performed.

Considering the professional metaphor as a mental being, we assume that first of all it is a cognitive guide in

professional semiotic continuum, which universality of perception is based on its thingness and its heuristic potential. The outer shape (structural conformity) of professional metaphor is the same for various linguocultures, at the same time, it is fairly stereotyped for every separate culture. At the same time, being a verbal representation of pragmatically recycled individual and collective knowledge in professional semiotic continuum, and through the processes of metaphorization, the analyzed phenomenon becomes a conventional substitute for professional concepts of linguistic meaning which is hiding social practice and transformed and crystallized activity.

Metaphors semiotize professional situations, combining prognostic, suggestive and actional aspects ensuring its exterior identification within the continuum. At the same time the phenomenon under study objectifies the existing knowledge of the world by comparing the "ready-made" meanings for deciphering the cultural code and the associative representation caused by them, as well as forming the starting point of all communication grammar.

The use of a professional metaphor, which is the starting point of communicative interaction, pursues, in our opinion, the following objectives:

- employee orientation (the individual is easier to understand and interpret the text in writing form);
- "prompt" for properties of the missing parts of the professional phenomenon description by means of interpolation and extrapolation;
- possibility to avoid specifying the accompanying elements in academic sources based on the cultural or professional knowledge;

- implementation of professional manipulation, naturally arising from the professional metaphor itself, without further consultation;
- formation of psychological comfort while recognizing something familiar.

These assumptions make the overall concept of our study.

To verify our assumptions we have carried out a number of experiments using the technique of subjective definitions. However, applying the methods of psycholinguistic research, we noted some narrow registrative description of professional metaphor. According to the proposed concept, a professional metaphor is a unit that has both meaning and reference. In this context, the differentiation of professional displays of metaphor in spoken and written communicative space, objectifying the link of live language with a particular professional area, seems to be of great importance. Thus, the semiotic potential of professional metaphor demands involvement of other methods of empirical study. In this connection, we developed a nomothetic methodology and conducted a natural experiment in two private clinics of Boston and New, in two private clinics of Paris and Lyon and two hospitals of Kursk. Our experimental group consisted of test subjects aged 34 to 56, in the amount of 185 people for the first part of the experiment, and 240 people for the second. Total number of received subjective definitions is 7585; total number decrypted in the second part of the empirical study of texts is 470 units, scripts generated – 470, medical metaphors registered – 276 and 227 units of subjective definitions.

During the psycholinguistic experiment we carried out the test of the hypothesis of research in terms of perception and understanding of professional metaphor by specialists and non-specialists, selection of national and cultural features of the representation of live knowledge through the investigated phenomenon, clarification of the universality of its outer form (structural matching) for different linguocultures and manifestation of stereotyped characteristics for each individual culture.

Upon the results of the first part of the empirical research we came to the following conclusions:

1. In the linguistic field the professional metaphor is represented as a result of linguistic reality and conceptual conflict correlation, expressed in a specific form by a particular linguistic unit. Depending on contextual localization the linguistic form of the researched phenomenon is able to reduce itself to abbreviation, retaining metaphorical essence and integrity of perceived professional phenomena. E.g: «**HHH** – high, hot and hell of a lot (enema)», «**ART** – Assuming Room Temperature (dying)», «**DRT** – Dead Right There», «**DBI** – Dirt Bag Index – multiply the number of tattoos by the number of missing teeth to give an estimate of the number of days since the patient last bathed»; «**P.P.H.** – «(ne) passera pas l'hiver», «**Status Hispanicus**».

2. Professional metaphors, occurring in academic speech of specialists, represent the theoretical knowledge of professional objects and phenomena. However this knowledge is actualized in them not in logical and rational way, but metaphorically by creating of vivid, memorable image of professional concept. The meaning of professional metaphor is of phenomenological character and is formed by a speaker in particular professional-communicative situation, taking into account the peculiarities of this situation. E.g: ««**soufflé**» (супле) – a patient who fell down from height, «**old-timer's disease**» – Alzheimer disease; «**dowager's**

hump» – osteoporosis, «**hole in one**» – a gunshot wound in the mouth or «**deep fry**» – cobalt radiation therapy.

3. The peculiarity of professional metaphor functioning in individual consciousness (subconsciousness) depends first of all not on metaphor characteristics as a language element, but on bearer's interaction with surroundings. E.g: «**le mauvais stress**».

Upon the results of the second part of the experimental research the following conclusions were drawn:

– The professional metaphor is an extremely complicated phenomenon, based on the resulting synthesis of individual, cultural and professional description practices.

– In semiotic aspect the professional metaphor is a unit of professional discourse, complicating the system of internal organization of the later. Meanwhile along with sustained professional sense, the metaphor has a lot of flexible individual senses subject not to reconstruction but the production from the side of receiver based on spontaneous generalization. For example: «**трёп**» (Aflutter), «**консервы**» (a patient in the hospital (usually surgery) on conservative treatment), «**уши**» (phonendoscope), «**теленузик**» (a patient with severe jaundice and ascites), «**челюскиницы**» (patients of the department of maxillofacial surgery), «**хорёк**» (a person who called an ambulance without any reason), «**непруха**» (ileus), «**НЛО**» (*неподвижнолежащий пациент*; a patient lying motionless; often the patients in a coma). We believe that it is explained not only by processes peculiarities, running in descriptive practice, but it is also connected with the stages of vivid metaphor forming (representing the whole of linguistic and extralinguistic interactions), similar to the stages of natural language: from comprehension to expression, from specific to abstract, from explicit to implicit.

– Professional metaphors fix the national-specific realities in the language. Being the representation of live knowledge, medical metaphor has the universal external form (structural conformity) for different linguocultures. However, in identifying reference the stereotypic features separate cultures appear. E.g: «**Dr. Feelgood**» (*доктор Чувствуй себя хорошо*) – a doctor who prescribes drugs without thinking, «**blade**» (*лезвие*) – an imperturbable surgeon, «**очкарик**» – an ophthalmologist, «**le cycliste panique**» (*панический велосипедист*) – patient of trauma unit, «**rear admiral**» (*тыловой адмирал*) – a proctologist; «**plumber**» (*водопроводчик*) – a urologist, «**albatross**» – chronically ill patient who is afraid to part with the doctor, leaving the health care facility.

The study reached the following conclusions:

1) Specificity of functioning of medical metaphors in the individual consciousness (sub consciousness), first of all, depends not on characteristics of metaphor as a language unit but on the interaction of the native speaker with the world around him.

2) In the language field professional metaphor appears as the result of correlation of the linguistic reality and conceptual conflict, expressed in a specific form with the specific linguistic unit.

3) The textual signification of the medical metaphor is based on the manifestation of the dynamic nature of semiosis, taking into account the structuring of the language, that changes during the initial valuation of textual semiotic reality.

4) The specificity of cognitive metaphor, functioning in the field of professional medical communication, is to broadcast the special and ordinary knowledge in their interaction.

5) In the semiotic aspect the medical metaphor is known as a unit of professional discourse, complicating the system of internal organization of the last.

6) The process of metaphorisation of the medical discourse reflects the interaction of humans with the environment, the process of learning and the way it transforms the reality, manifested in the communicative act.

7) For the subject of the practice interpretational dualism is typical, that is manifested in the utterance and is considered to be, on the one hand, the result of cognitive processing of perceived information, and on the other – a manifestation of his (the subject's), personal characteristics, that are updated in the communicative act.

8) Based on the proposed view a very concrete experience was taken to identify "prophylizations" of the medical metaphor and also to form some fake concepts which are based on the studied phenomenon.

9) The *professional* metaphors, mentioned in the researchers' speeches, show the theoretical knowledge about professional objects and notions. However, this knowledge is actualized in them not in the logical, rational way, but metaphorically, through the creation of vivid, memorable images of professional concepts.

10) In the process of formation of the individual references the narrowing of the extensional definitions of the sign takes place, associated with the main numbers from falling within the scope of the sign subject referents.

11) As a part of the identifying reference, a "targeted metaphoric nomination" is carried out, which includes the classification of subjects and objects of reality, which can, probably, be described as the process of categorical classification.

12) The paradox of the *professional* metaphor appears within cultural practice, which is objectified in the twinkling metaphor sign.

13) Kinematics of the cultural semiotic continuum contributes to the compilation of objective space and the practice of the subject-in-process, forming in the context of treated mental representations empirical basis indicating stereotypes.

14) In contrast to the individual and cultural indicating practices, for the professional one it is typical, above all, the formation of the final logical interpretation in the process of textual signification in the implementation of the semiotic process of triadic interaction of representation, object of the sign and the Speaker/Observer.

15) The description of the professional reality using *professional* metaphors in the linguistic field acquires the following forms of formal structures (used in the documents

when specifying diagnosis) along with informal structures that are used mainly in the informal communication of health workers.

16) Professional metaphors fix in the language national-specific realities.

Thus, the hypothesis of the research we have put forward was confirmed. In addition, we found evidence to our assumptions about:

(1) the mediative role of *professional* metaphors in the written professional communication, providing the output of an individual to its world seeing, which is formed in the multidimensional and versatile personal experience, specific to the context and the degree of imagery, deliberately created to flesh out syndrome, symptom or condition of the patient and specifically fixed by the health professionals – participants of the communication. Conceptual content of the medical metaphor is based on the integrative interaction of the categories, signs and symptoms manifested in their language representation. Such interpretation of the specific of the medical metaphor suggests the presence of semantic variation in the context of the triad "Man – culture – professional area". Implementation of professional interaction in the writing of the medical workers depends on their linguistic and professional competence.

(2) determinants of professional metaphor in verbal professional communication signifying practices (individual, cultural and professional) taking into account the anthropological factor. *Professional* metaphor in speech, viewing as a verbal representation of pragmatically recycled professional knowledge, allows the subject-in-process to restructure the professional continuum, depending on the communicative and professional situation, social and communicative status of the addresser and the addressee, the existing relationship between them. *Professional* metaphor captures the results of the procedural handling of the professional information of the Speaker and contributes to its development during the interpretation of the statements by the Observer.

To summarize, we note that a professional metaphor is a complex non-elementary integrative system including a semiotic, cognitive and linguistic components that ensure its significance. Linguistic components combine concept and an acoustic image of the metaphor, linearly representing a sign; semiotic components provide a link between two objects in the mental field; cognitive components connect the components of the system at any given moment. In this regard, the question of the nature of the metaphor is the question of the coherence of elements of thought and language.

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ЛИРИЗМ В ТРАГЕДИИ ШЕКСПИРА "КОРОЛЬ ЛИР"

Аннотация

Данная статья посвящена особенностям проявления лиризма в драматургии Шекспира. Работа нацелена на выявление лирического начала в драмах Шекспира и на раскрытие лирического колорита в трагедии «Король Лир». Анализ средств выражения лирического начала в драме Шекспира позволил выделить комплекс определенных стилистических принципов, закономерностей построения текста, особого типа эмоционального героя, доведенного до безумия, и особого сюжета, через которые выражается лиризм в трагедии Шекспира «Король Лир».

Ключевые слова: Шекспир, "Король Лир", лирическая трагедия, лиризм в драме, лирическое начало, лирический колорит.

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LYRICISM IN SHAKESPEARE'S TRAGEDY "KING LEAR"

Abstract

This article deals with the peculiarities of lyrical aspects in Shakespeare's drama. The work aims to identify the lyrical beginning in Shakespeare's dramas and to discover the lyrical aspects in "King Lear" tragedy. The analysis of lyrical expression in Shakespeare's drama lets to identify a set of certain stylistic principles, text structures, a special type of an emotional character and a specific type of the plot, through which the lyricism in Shakespeare's tragedy "King Lear" is expressed.

Keywords: Shakespeare, "King Lear", lyrical tragedy, lyricism in drama, lyrical aspects, lyrical colorism.

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It is a well-known fact that Shakespeare is not only a great play-writer but also a delightful poet. Despite the fact that some critics and literary scholars paid attention to the special lyricism of Shakespeare's dramatic works, no one studied lyrical colorism of his dramas, and in particular, no one has explored the lyrical aspects of the his most mature and serious tragedy of Shakespeare — "King Lear". This drama has about 15 translations and interoperations in Russian, and we assume that the interest of translators and poets to this tragedy may be caused by its special emotionality and its heightened lyrical content.

The first mention of Shakespeare's poetic talent that prevailed over the playwright gift was made in 19th century by V. Belinsky who had mentioned that tragedies of Shakespeare have a special lyricism. In his article critic compared Shakespeare's lyricism with a fire and said that his dramatic works are of the highest creative power with a high range of lyricism that emerges through drama. V. Belinsky formed the basis for all further studies of Shakespeare in Russia and all the later interpretations of it in scientific and theater criticism. Until the 19th century Shakespeare was known in Russia only as a play-writer, he was discovered as a poet only in 20th century due to Y. Levin who had explained the role of the famous article by L. Tolstoy and started the study of a lyrical colorism in the works of Shakespeare. Y. Levin has pointed out that Shakespeare does not exist outside of the poetry. Later, in the 20th century, the famous Russian Shakespeare scholar Y. Shvedov said that Shakespeare is a poet and a thinker. These scientists were the first to note the special lyricism inherent to Shakespeare's tragedies.

It is important to understand the difference between the concepts of "poetry" and "lyrics". In general, the poetry relates to literary and artistic works in verse or prose (this interpretation is used in this article). To a certain extent it can be called poetry and art. We can compress all the characteristics and interpretation of the terms "poetry" and "poetic language", concluding in general that broad sense poetry is a work of fiction, written in poetic language (in verse or prose). L. Ginsburg said that lyric is always a talk of

significant, high, beautiful (sometimes contradictory, ironic refraction) something, it's kind of exposure the ideals and values of human life [1]. N. Stepanov gives specific interpretation, he says that lyric is a way or a method of understanding the world in the individual perception of a poet [2]. So, we can say that the lyric is a special kind of poetry that expresses the feelings and emotions, and in a more general sense – it is the collection of works of this type of poetry. G. Pospelov considers lyricism to property arising from the emotional expressiveness of speech and art installation on the author's ideological affirmation of life, embodying the emotional high ground [3]. Summarizing the works devoted to lyric we may say that lyricism is a complex of stylistic principles that cover both the content and form of the work.

Exploring Shakespeare's drama and its lyricism it is important to pay attention to the special elements of Shakespeare's drama, for example, it is necessary to point out that *lyrical drama has a special story, a special type of character and distinctive features, which include metaphors and special emotional characters*. In such works of play-writing the attention focuses on the inner feelings of heroes, the external development of a secondary role events. In lyrical drama there is a *dominating value of monologues over dialogues*, it focuses on the inner world of the characters and their pitch and actions are often not very dynamic. A poetic language of Shakespeare's characters shows that their feelings are expressed metaphorically and figuratively. Despite the fact that all the characters of Shakespeare's dramas speak in poetic language it is very important to pay attention *that lyricism is not available for his antagonists*, their speech is rather rhythmic than poetic, and sometimes even prosaic. But as soon as the lyricism appear, it takes the hero from the negative category and gives him a belief for a spiritual rebirth. At the same time, we come to the conclusion that each *monologue of the main characters is similar to separate and independent poem or a sonnet*. We also come to a conclusion that unlike all the other Renaissance playwrights, whose comic and tragic works are often

intertwined, in Shakespeare's dramas these contradictions are removed, perhaps because of the lyrical comprehension, there is a special connection with the lyrical drama. In Shakespeare's plays lyricism and action merge in a special way, and the lyrics are included into drama in a special form of a sonnet, which becomes the inner form of Shakespeare's drama.

Lyrical aspects may also be considered to psychological and emotional characteristics of the tragedy. It is obvious that in "King Lear" a greater attention is paid to the internal processes of the main hero who is in search of the answers for the philosophical and eternal questions. Lear, who is a protagonist of the tragedy becomes a psychological character; his monologues are increasingly important and Shakespeare even reflects Lear's inner speech, telling about the dreams, visions, observations of nature and phenomena. At this stage, the playwright draws a person being in a situation of conflict with the outside world; person whose worldview is faced with established social ideology departing from traditional notions of class. The experience through which the hero overcomes, generate internal contradictions in his mind and overcoming them, he discovers new horizons and answers to the questions. Shakespeare shows the inner world of consciousness of the hero, who is in search of truth, the world of his feelings and emotions, his philosophy of life that allows to define this text a psychological. The high level of emotionality and psychology in that work is also may be considered as a manifestation of a special lyricism in "King Lear" tragedy.

There is one interesting thing about Shakespeare's dramas in general and the "King Lear" in a particular, we can conclude that the lyricism of the tragedy is expressed, among other things, also through the *protagonist's madness*. A very important role in the tragedy is given to the madness of Lear. A storm in which he falls, the Jester he talks to and the mad Tom are very important, the most significant words in the tragedy belong to their frantic monologues and dialogues. Through the madness Lear overcomes himself, discovers the truth and rebirths. Shakespeare deliberately makes his protagonists mad, the same applies to such characters as Mad Tom and the Jester, they both are significant and important.

We believe that a great *playwright overshadows the mind of his characters for the reason that it raises the mighty stream of lyrical outpourings* (that is what he does with Lear). And this is why the lyricism reaches its greater or lesser height and depth.

Speaking about the poetic power of "King Lear" it is important to mention M. Maeterlinck who calls "King Lear" a dramatic poem, the most powerful, exciting, intense and extensive of all ever written [5]. *The scope of this tragedy is really unstoppable, it is wider and more energetic than any other dramas*. It is deep and broad, it is a universal human story, but yet grand in tension effect. Its lyricism is more discreet, more natural, closer to reality, and at the same time hallucinates overflowing. According to M. Maeterlinck's "King Lear" internally is the most lyrical tragedy of all the times. We also consider Shakespeare as an artist capable to compensate any decoration on the scene with a poetic word. Poetry serves to a playwright as the most effective means to overcome difficulties and to awaken the power of imagination of those who watch the play, it helps to see another world. Lyricism in Shakespeare's drama gives viewers and readers a feeling of life fullness, that raises them to a height from where they can see things which are unseen in their everyday life.

The interest to the question of lyricism in Shakespeare's works, manifested by the scientists, their observations and conclusions about the style aspects, the characteristics of the images and the specific characteristics of the plot have outlined very interesting principles of studying this aspect. The researchers pointed out that the expressing means of the lyrical colorism in Shakespeare's drama "King Lear" is a certain complex of stylistic principles. These principles include a special unity of the whole text and its structure, also a specific type of the plot which is wider than others and may be considered as a universal one, a special type of an emotional character and madness of the protagonist through which the lyricism is also expressed in drama considered to a lyrical type. All means of the lyrical expressions discovered by scientists in Shakespeare's dramas, irrefutably confirm the fact that he was not only a great playwright, but also a poet, and not just a poet but also a lyricist.

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Челябинский государственный педагогический университет**ТВОРЧЕСТВО П.Н. КРАСНОВА В ЛИТЕРАТУРНОЙ ЖИЗНИ РУССКОГО ЗАРУБЕЖЬЯ
(1920-Е – 1940-Е ГОДЫ)***Аннотация*

В статье рассматривается творчество П.Н. Краснова в литературной жизни русского зарубежья 1920-х – 1940-х гг., анализируется его публицистика, а также художественные произведения. Основное внимание уделено знаменитому четырехтомному роману «От двуглавого орла к красному знамени», который получил противоречивые оценки и отзывы в среде литературных критиков, как эмигрантских, так и советских.

Ключевые слова: русское зарубежье, монархизм, белое движение, кавалерийские офицеры.

Yashina M.A.¹, Hudoborodov A.L.²¹PhD in History, ²PhD in History, Chelyabinsk State Pedagogical University**P. N. KRASNOV'S CREATIVITY IN LITERARY LIFE OF THE RUSSIAN ABROAD
(THE 1920TH – THE 1940TH YEARS)***Abstract*

In article P. N. Krasnov's creativity in literary life of the Russian abroad of the 1920th – the 1940th is considered, its journalism and also works of art are analyzed. The main attention is paid to the well-known four-volume novel "From a Two-headed Eagle to a Red Banner" which received contradictory estimates and comments among literary critics, both emigrant and Soviet.

Keywords: Russian abroad, monarchism, white movement, cavalry officers.

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For bulk of the Russian readers in the foreign land literature of the Cossack emigration first of all was embodied in P. N. Krasnov's creativity. And it isn't casual.

From 1921 to 1943 P. N. Krasnov has published more than forty books. They were published in Russian in Paris, Berlin, Riga. Fourteen of his novels have been translated almost into all European languages.

Except memoirs about events of revolution of 1917 and civil war, he has also written and published such documentary works as "On the eve of war" (1937) – about a boundary garrison where the 10th Don Cossack regiment, "Pavlonia" (1943) – the description of life and life of cadets of the Pavlovsk military college which was ended by P. N. Krasnov, "Historical sketches of Don" (1943) entered. The deep respect and admiration of a feat of the Russian soldiers who have fallen on fields of battles of World War I has penetrated his sketch "Wreath on the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier of Imperial Russian army" (1923). His book of sketches on military psychology of "A shower of army" (1927) was highly estimated by the famous Russian military theorist and the historian N. N. Golovin.

A number of the important thoughts and provisions stated by P. N. Krasnov in his publicistic articles have kept the value today. So, in article "Army" (written in November, 1927) he has noticed: "The army is school for the people. Not merely because through its ranks at general compulsory military service almost all nation man's population passed and studied to a debt, courage and patriotism there, but also because the Army gets into all sectors of society and everybody learns to respect and love the fatherland based on its behavior on maneuvers, doctrines, reviews, on the form its officers and soldiers, on their acts, on their talk all judge spiritual power of the state" [1, P. 11].

But the greatest popularity and recognition of readers audience of P. N. Krasnov were brought by his stories and novels. First of all it is the three-volume epic about Russian intelligentsia of the 1910-1920th years – "Largo" (1930), "Vypash" (1931) and "Feat" (1932), a row of adventure stories for youth ("Mantyk, the lions hunter", "Amazon deserts", "White a roll", "With Yermak to Siberia"), the

fantastic story "Behind a Thistle", historical novels "Catherine the Great", "Regicides" and others.

Estimating merits and demerits of creativity of the former Don ataman, the literary critic notes about the Novel Hull that "P. N. Krasnov was able and could write perfectly, but only about what he saw. All his military pictures (fights, parades, military life) are always bright, fresh, live and, of course, with big knowledge of business. Still I remember his wonderful article "Cossack Lava" in some military magazine. But when Krasnov in the trilogy ("Largo", "Vypash", "Feat") wrote about "a world Masonic plot" and brought the emigrant Lenin-Ulyanov under a surname of Buryanov, it was rather bad" [2, P. 379].

It is especially necessary to stop on the most famous four-volume novel of P. N. Krasnov "From the Two-headed Eagle to a red banner" (1921-1922). According to Gleb Struve, this novel "was the bestseller in the foreign market for many years and it was translated into foreign languages" [2, P. 376]. By 1938 the novel was published three times in Russian and twelve times in translations [3, P. 112].

In the novel many events of the Russian history of the period of 1894-1921 are reflected, namely: Russian-Japanese and World War I, revolution of 1917, civil war and red terror in Russia. The author has created truthful images of cavalry officers, for example, the regiment commander Pavel Nikolaevich Karpov, the image of the main hero, cornet and subsequently the general, Sablin is psychologically difficult and artly reliable. In the 3rd volume of the novel the ice campaign of kornilovets at the beginning of 1918 is shown almost documentary, but brightly and expressively, portraits of leaders of the white movement of generals Denikin, Lukomsky, Romanovsky, Bogayevsky are given.

And the main plan of the author – through four volumes of the narration – is try to answer a question: "... how was it possible that one part of the Russian army suddenly had become in such irreconcilable attitude towards another, how the soldiers who still had so recently blindly obeyed to officers, were ready to die for them and sincerely loved them, could suddenly begin to hate them so" [4, P. 21].

Being the convinced monarchist, P. N. Krasnov is talented and even with love describe devotion of the main

character – Sablin's cornet – to the monarch, at the same time he also doesn't hide weaknesses of the identity of Nicholas II as sovereign. So, one of heroes of the novel general Y.P. Pestretsov has given such assessment to Nicholas II: "He is an autocrat, – but the closer I stand to him, the more I am convinced that in him there is no main thing that is necessary for the autocrat – a big mind and inflexible will. Yes, he is sometimes stubborn and persistent in irresponsible trifles, and in a public affair he is the child who is blindly trusting people around. There are the mother, grand dukes and those ministers who have managed to enter to him soul" [4, P. 297-298].

Responses to the novel "From the Two-headed Eagle to a Red Banner" in emigre press and the Soviet press were contradictory. Responses of some monarchic editions were enthusiastic. For example, Grigory Novitsky in the Berlin newspaper "Chto Delat?" wrote: "As a certain the Old Testament's prophet Isaiah, the ataman Krasnov has painted to us a majestic picture of former nice power of the Russian empire and a terrible picture of falling and death of Russia.

Krasnov's book awakes good feelings in the reader, seeks for fight and a feat, and, like "Taras Bulba" of Gogol and to "War and peace" of Lev Tolstoy, will enter an assembly of the books making the Russian Bible, one Gold book of the Russian people" [5, P. 99-100].

In general kind, but with critical remarks, the famous Russian writer A. I. Kuprin has given an assessment of the first volume of the novel of P. N. Krasnov. In particular, the reviewer has emphasized that "everything is close familiar to the author, his personally observations and he is able to pass it bright and convex, with the true skill, with especially broad rise in crowd scenes, with noble pathos [...]. The highest parade in Red Village, guard in the Winter Palace, an evening dawn with a ceremony, the Cossack fancy riding, maneuvers, a big ball in the palace are written very well » [7].

A. I. Kuprin has attributed the schematic, unilateral image of liberal and socialist figures to shortcomings of the 1st volume. In general impartial and objective studying and a literary heritage of P. N. Krasnov still waits for the researcher.

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ЛИНГВО-ПЕРЕВОДЧЕСКИЙ АСПЕКТ РАЗРАБОТКИ МУЛЬТИЯЗЫЧНОЙ ОНТОЛОГИИ СПЕЦИАЛЬНОЙ УЧЕБНОЙ ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ*Аннотация*

В статье рассматривается вопрос о представлении отраслевых знаний в структурированном виде (онтологии) на нескольких естественных языках. Дается описание специально разработанного инструмента управления отраслевыми учебными знаниями – мультязычного обучающего комплекса (МОК), содержательный компонент которого представлен в виде онтологии учебной дисциплины «Общий курс железных дорог» и предметной онтологии «Железнодорожный транспорт» на русском, английском, китайском и корейском языках. Представляются этапы перевода синтаксически обедненного текста на контролируемом русском языке как основы онтологии учебной дисциплины.

Ключевые слова: отраслевые знания, онтология, учебная дисциплина, мультязычный, лингво-переводческий аспект, контролируемый естественный язык.

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LINGUOTRANSLATION ASPECT OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF A MULTILINGUAL ONTOLOGY OF A SPECIALIST ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE*Abstract*

In the article the issue of industry-related knowledge representation in a specific form (ontology) in several natural languages is considered. A special tool to manage industry-related academic knowledge is described. This is a multilingual educational complex (MEC) which includes an academic discipline ontology (the Introductory Course on Railways) and a subject ontology (Railway Transport) in Russian, English, Chinese and Korean languages. The stages of translation of a simple-syntax text in the Controlled Russian Language as the basis of an academic discipline ontology are presented.

Keywords: industry-related knowledge, ontology, academic discipline, multilingual, linguotranslation aspect, Controlled Natural Language.

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Industry-related knowledge is a specific subclass of knowledge which is effectively formed in the “industry — industry educational establishments” system under direct vision of industry administrative bodies. Such knowledge is also a result of teaching-and-learning process of industry workforce at all levels of professional education.

It has been identified that industry-related knowledge might be seen as knowledge of complex nature where we could find philosophical, psychoeducational, socioeconomic, information-technological, linguotranslation and other aspects. Let us consider linguotranslation aspect of industry-related knowledge in details.

Industry-related knowledge — like any other types of knowledge — is an information object represented in a symbolic form. While knowledge hasn't been transferred into a symbolic form, we won't be able to manipulate it. In particular, we can't transmit it or enrich. However, as we represent knowledge in any symbolic form — in symbols of natural or artificial languages or even by using graphic aid, we could manage it. For example, industry-related knowledge adapted to educational process (at college or university) and represented by means of a natural language could form a textbook [1]. Such a textbook could be used by students of industry universities — residents of the Russian Federation and other countries who speak foreign languages — to enrich the components of industry-related knowledge (fundamental, general-professional, narrowly-specialized and corporate knowledge). To this effect students need a particular level of education (including second language knowledge), some intellectual efforts, agreement in terminology systems in two or more languages [2] and a special tool to manipulate knowledge.

Such kind of a tool is being developed in Siberian Transport University (Novosibirsk, Russia) within a multidisciplinary scientific project [3]. The tool is offered as a multilingual educational complex (MEC) of an academic discipline, which content is represented in a complex of ontologies — an academic discipline ontology (the Introductory Course on Railways) and a subject ontology (Railway Transport).

To develop the MEC ontologies, innovative computer technologies (Semantic Web technologies) are used. The development of MEC requires creation of several alternative ontologies in different foreign languages. The main language is Russian. Other languages are English, Chinese and Korean. Their choice is grounded by the fact that the development of cooperation with East Asia, in particular with China and South Korea, is first-priority for Russian railway industry. By its turn, English plays a role of an intermediary language for international interaction for users who speak languages not represented in MEC.

Thus, the Introductory Course on Railways' content is considered to be multilingual. Multilingual means, on the one hand, the development of several versions of content (ontologies) represented in different natural languages equivalently agreed through the common terminology system. On the other hand, this is a function of software of MEC.

To create the academic discipline ontology within MEC a purposely developed method was applied. This method includes the following stages:

1. At the first stage the original text (a piece of textbook) represented as a linear text was transferred into a simple-syntax text called the Controlled Natural Language text (in its Russian version) — CNL-R.

CNL keeps syntax and semantic of a natural language unchanged as CNL is a sublanguage of natural language. To coin a term *Controlled Natural Language* is proved by the reason that natural language syntax is severely restricted to limit its expressive power. At the same time this sublanguage demonstrates sufficient expressive power to describe a subject domain. However imposed restrictions (limitations) are intended for disambiguation of a natural language and make a CNL text machine-readable.

An example of CNL-R is shown below.

устройства и сооружения
предназначены для
 нормального обеспечения перевозок
посредством
 железнодорожного транспорта,
расположены вдоль
 пути;
расположены над
 путём,
подразделяются на
 пассажирские платформы,
 здания,
 опоры контактной сети,
 сигнальные и путевые знаки,
 приводы электрической централизации стрелок,
 путепроводы,
 мосты,
 провода связи и энергоснабжения,
 другие устройства и сооружения.

As you can see from the above shown example, a simple form of structuring let us highlight the key concepts in the CNL text (given **in bold**) and related properties (underlined) as “Subject – Predicate – Object” triplets that form the bases of modern ontology representation languages.

2. At the second stage the CNL-R text was translated into English, Chinese and Korean languages (CNL-Eng, CNL-Ch and CNL-K).

Based on the stages of translation process suggested by I. S. Alekseeva [4], we identified the translation work contents to translate a piece of text represented in CNL-R into other languages of MEC.

The preparatory stage included the following actions of a translator: 1) to give characteristic to the source (linear) text in Russian language; 2) to determine the invariant for the source text and its logic; 3) to determine a translation strategy; 4) to select the translator’s tools (dictionaries, reference books, Internet sites, etc.).

At the second stage, pre-translation text analysis was conducted. This stage included the following actions of a translator: 1) to characterize a source linear text author; 2) to characterize a source linear text recipient; 3) to determine a dominant information type; 4) to determine information density; 5) to determine language at a) syntax level, b) semantic level, c) pragmatic level of the source linear text; 6) to identify the communicative task for the source linear text and the target CNL text.

At the third stage, 1) analytic search of language units in the source CNL-R text to communicate them equivalently in the target CNL (Eng, Ch, K) text was conducted; 2) the translation difficulties were determined.; 3) key methods to eliminate these difficulties (by using translation transformations) were defined; 4) a translate was drawn up.

The final stage was related to 1) textual revision; 2) editing of the target text; 3) checking the translation strategy.

It is important to note that works within the above stated translation stages are not influenced by a specific target language. That is they are similar for translation into English, Chinese, Korean or any other languages. The differences appear at the stage of translation per se when a translator searches language equivalents.

On the way of translation a number of specific features of the source text represented in CNL-R to reduce a level of translators’ efforts have been identified. These features include the following: 1) unification of concepts (terms) throughout the target CNL text is simplified; 2) number of translation transformations is reduced due to simpler syntax of the source CNL-R text and reduction of emotionality components presented in the source linear text.

In particular, a great number of translation transformations are not used. Among them are 1) lexical transformations: generalization, specialization, meaning extension, stylistic neutralization; 2) grammatical transformations: syntax construction replacement, sentence integration, sentence fragmentation.

Following the translation from CNL-R to CNL-Eng we came to the conclusion that the key requirements to represent English version of MEC ontology were generally met – the structure and format of the source CNL-R text has not been changed.

Due to grammar structure of a Chinese sentence, most of source CNL-R text was disarranged. Chinese language required replacement of parts in complex collocations. In simple sentences the structure of source CNL-R text was unchanged. However in complex sentences this structure was unavoidably broken.

Thus, we could not keep the structure and format of source CNL-R text in the target CNL-Ch text unchanged.

The examples of English and Chinese text versions are given below.

railway facilities and structures
are designed
 to provide regular transportation service
 by
 rail,
are situated along
 the track;
are situated over
 the track,
are divided into
 passenger platforms,
 buildings,
 catenary supports,
 restricted traffic and wayside signs,
 electric interlocking point machines,
 viaducts,
 bridges,
 communication and electric wires,
 other facilities and structures.

建筑物和设备
 以
 确保铁路正常通行,
 沿 轨道 设置;
 在 轨道 上面 设置,
 分为
 客运平台,
 建筑物,
 接触电网支柱,

信号标和路标,
箭头电动集中化的驱动,
高架桥,
桥梁,
通讯电缆及电源
等其他设备和设施。

3. At the third stage CNL-Eng, CNL-Ch and CNL-K texts were implemented into the proper software environment using the purposely developed ontology editor named Onto.plus. Then, to check completeness and consistency of this ontological model, a free, open-source ontology editor Protégé was utilized.

4. At the fourth stage to enrich the model we added some glossary articles to the key railway terms [5]. An example of a glossary article is given below:

A term in Russian: Вагонный замедлитель

Translation: Retarder

Transcription: [rɪ'tɑ:də]

Grammatical characteristics: noun, UK, sg = сущ., брит., ед.ч.

Definition: a device installed in a classification yard used to reduce the speed of freight cars as they are sorted into trains.

The term in a context: Each retarder consists of a series of stationary brakes surrounding a short section of each rail on the track that grip and slow the cars' wheels through friction as they roll through them.

Translation: Каждый замедлитель состоит из ряда стационарных тормозов, расположенных вокруг небольшого участка рельса, эти тормоза зажимают и замедляют колеса вагонов при соприкосновении с ними.

Visualization: (picture, drawing, video, etc.)

As a result, the MEC ontologies have been created.

Conclusion:

Having regard to the above, we can come to the following conclusions:

1. The considered MEC with the function of an integrative glossary is represented an information-education resource in several natural languages. Semantic Web technologies could help to integrate the ontologies of the developed MEC with ontologies of other academic disciplines and subject ontologies, forming the common system of terms in different languages.

2. The stages of translation of CNL-R into English, Chinese, Korean and other languages are typical and not influenced by a specific CNL target language.

3. In translation the structure and format of the source CNL-R text has not been changed in the target CNL-Eng text as contrasted with the target CNL-Ch text.

4. The MEC project could contribute into an important task solution which the International Association of Transport Universities of Asia-Pacific Countries identifies as follows: interaction and coordination of the activity of universities for the unification of transport terminology [6].

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"Аналогово-когнитивные процессы в лингвокреативной деятельности личности"

ВИЗУАЛЬНЫЕ СРЕДСТВА ВОЗДЕЙСТВИЯ В АМЕРИКАНСКОЙ ПОЛИТИЧЕСКОЙ РЕКЛАМЕ

Аннотация

В современном мире реклама представляет собой средство психологической манипуляции сознанием человека. Чтобы создать благоприятный образ продвигаемого товара или услуги, рекламодатели прибегают к наложению хорошо известной зрителю информации на сведения о товаре. В когнитивной лингвистике данный процесс называется блендингом. Именно блендинг цвета, визуальных и звуковых символов, текстов обеспечивает комплексное воздействие на потребителя. В данной статье рассматривается структура рекламного ролика с точки зрения теории концептуальной интеграции Ж. Фоконье и М. Тернера, приводится анализ визуального ментального пространства американской политической рекламы и в рамках этого пространства описываются эксплицитные и имплицитные способы воздействия.

Ключевые слова: Блендинг, концептуальная интеграция, ментальные пространства, метафора, политическая реклама.

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"Analogue and cognitive processes in linguocreative activity of person"

VISUAL MEANS OF IMPACT IN AMERICAN POLITICAL ADVERTISING

Abstract

In the modern world advertising is a means of psychological manipulation of human's mind. To create a positive image of the promoted product, advertisers apply well-known information to the information about the product. In cognitive linguistics this process is called blending. The blending of colours, visual and audio symbols, as well as texts provides an integrated impact on the customer. The article reveals the structure of the advertising clip from the point of view of the conceptual integration theory by G. Fauconnier and M. Turner, provides the analysis of the visual mental space in American political advertising and describes explicit and implicit means of impact within this space.

Keywords: blending, conceptual integration, mental spaces, metaphor, political advertising.

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Metaphorical representation of facts is a rich source of creativity. When something known is applied to something new, it is easier to perceive and trust. But what is metaphor? For a long history of science, metaphor has come a long way from a means of emphatic speech to a cognitive mechanism which serves for learning and categorization of reality.

Credit for cognitive understanding of metaphor is deserved by George Lakoff and Mark Johnson, who implemented a two-space model of mapping from the source domain to the target domain and who studied metaphor not only on the linguistic level but also on the level of cognition and activity [6]. A.P. Chudinov expanded the theory of metaphor conceptual analysis by frames and slots and introduced semantic spheres serving as the source of metaphoric expansion. These spheres are: anthropomorphic metaphors, due to which the person represents the surrounding world through their own being, natural metaphors, interpreting the reality through natural phenomena, socio-morphic metaphors, simulating the world on the basis of people's social life, and artefactual metaphors, connected with people's creative abilities [4].

All theories mentioned above are based on the idea that metaphor is a composition of characteristics of one object applied to characteristics of another, what leads to the mixture of their features. In modern linguistics this process is called blending, or the theory of conceptual integration by G. Fauconnier and Mark Turner. Blending is a process that happens reflexively, in the depths of our conscious.

Mark Turner describes blending as a natural process forming the basis of our mind,

Blending is not something special or costly. Blending operates almost entirely below the horizon of consciousness. We usually never detect the process of blending and typically do not recognize its products as blends. Very rarely, the scientists can drag a small part of blending onstage, where we can actually see it. But the mind is not made for looking into the mind, and as a result, we see blending only infrequently, and poorly» [7, 18].

The process of blending happens automatically and is the result of the combination of different ideas into a brainchild. It exactly what happens in TV commercials. Most scholars define advertising as communication between the consumer and the advertiser, the purpose of which is not only to deliver a message, or inform about the product/service, but also to impact psychologically, to involve the customer into the process of commercial communication, to create a favourable image of the product, to arouse a desire, to persuade the customer in the necessity of the product [1]. The main aim of the advertising is to produce an impact on the prospective buyer. To achieve this aim advertisers use various tools and techniques.

The mixture of text, sound and picture causes a comprehensive impact on people's mind. How does it happen? The first thing that matters is the object of advertising, something that needs to be promoted. It can be a thing, a person or an idea. The advertising is usually directed to the target audience, who are more likely to choose this object. V. Muzicant emphasizes that the target audience is characterized by the following factors: biological (gender, age, character, appearance), psychological (emotions, mood,

will) and social (values, purposes, ability to inherit social experience of the previous generation) [2]. Thus, the object and the target audience are two essential components serving as input spaces for the future ad.

The image of the object is visualized with the help of a picture. Nowadays a simple picture does not impress any more, and admen invent different tricks to make the image catchy. The whole clip consists of a series of shots. The better the shot, the more memorable the clip is. Another way to achieve effects is framing. The object is usually positioned in such a way as to be seen more impressively. It can be framed close up, far away, or from different angles. The variation of lighting conveys some meaning as well. The use of dark triggers negative emotions and fear, the use of bright is associated with joy and happiness. The choice of colour determines the general atmosphere of the ad. The setting varies in terms of the object of advertising. It can picture a traditional scene (family, house, school, job), adopt something unusual (films, cartoons, comics) or combine several locations. Therefore, the picture together with its main elements (shot, framing, lighting and setting) forms the third input space.

Text can be presented in oral and written form. The content of the text can be different. The pronounced text introduces the object, describes its characteristics and persuades to choose it. The written text emphasizes the most relevant features of the object and implements the slogan.

The audible component produces conscious and subconscious effects. The song is usually perceived consciously as the audience try to catch the sense of the words, while simple music is usually played on the background of words and written text and is therefore perceived subconsciously. Subconscious meaning is also carried by sound effects, for example loud sound always draws attention while repeated pounding causes irritation.

All the recited components are interconnected by one common topic that links directly to the object of advertising. All together these components form an ad. They are part of one process which is unique and complex.

In the XX and XXI century advertising has been transformed from the economic phenomenon into an integral part of mass culture, thus not only carrying information about promoted things or ideas, but also conveying social, political and cultural attitudes. In most cases such effect is created by

a mixture of various tools: frequently repeated words and slogans, adopted scenarios (everyday situations, shots from films, cartoons and so on), popular music overlaid on advertising texts, and the employment of famous people and images. In other words, any advertising clip is a megablend formed by several spaces such as picture, text, sound, target audience and the object of advertising itself.

The role of advertising nowadays can hardly be overestimated. It influences the choice of goods we buy and ways we think. Therefore, it is not surprising that political life is often touched by advertising. Politicians make resort to commercials for achieving various purposes: to make a name, to reveal their ideas, to blacken their opponents' reputation. It is especially true about American political advertising. To sound more persuasive American politicians work hard on their promotion and, as a rule, use the most popular and highly sought media – television or the Internet. As a result TV and Internet advertising is turning into art. Nonstandard approaches are implemented on all levels of ads.

To attract the customer, 30-second advertising clips are elaborated so scrupulously that they can impact the viewer on all levels (mental spaces). In general, there are several types of psychological impact: cognitive (communication of information), emotive (inducement to feelings and emotions), suggestive (hypnosis), conative (behavioural influence) [3, P. 100-103].

The most powerful tool in advertising clips is picture. This mental space conveys more information than text. Let us consider some main elements of the mental space of picture and how they influence the viewer. Picture in advertising is not just a simple amateur shot. To appeal to people's feelings admen use extraordinary combinations of camera shots, framing, lighting and setting.

Commercials shots rarely picture the same view for a long time, because it bores the audience. Shots change quickly, sometimes in every 2-3 seconds to hold the attention. But not only the speed makes sense, the types of shots have an impact too. Positive image of the candidate can be drawn with the help of shots that show him or her in front of the American flag, the map of the country or the state, and different national symbols (like Capitol). In this case, the image of the candidate is blended with the image of the country or the state.



Stand



Mark Warner 'Mixed up'

Positive feelings are also achieved with the shots of ordinary people supporting the politician. As a rule, these are quickly changing images either showing people alone or with the candidate. Such shots blend the image of the politician with ordinary people, carrying the idea of the representative of masses.

Dubious feelings are aroused by the shots with the ruling president. Such shots can be used either in favour of the candidate (if the current policy satisfies the people) or against them (if the current policy dissatisfies them). Sometimes shots depicting the president and the candidate are intended to blacken the latter. Such tendency got spread in the electorate campaign of 2014 in negative advertising. For

example, in the advertising clip *Cocktails*, the image of the Senator from the Democratic Party Kay Hagan is juxtaposed with Barack Obama and ISIS soldiers as a symbol of inaction of both politicians in the face of a threat. Thus, Hagan's

political views are compared to those of the ruling president. Blending of both persons' images on the unconscious level marks the similarities of their policies causing negative reaction.



Cocktails

The shots with the candidate in the news or newspapers tend to carry negative impressions caused by their ill fame. With the help of these shots the candidates' past merges with his current electoral campaign. In this case, there is a close

connection between picture and text. Close interaction of several mental spaces (object, picture and text) stipulates strong feelings.



AFP holds Landrieu accountable on Obamacare

Shots that are used most frequently portray the candidate themselves. But they can vary in framing. Framing presupposes the positioning of people or objects under a certain angle to convey necessary meanings. In political advertising if the candidate is framed close up, they are associated as equal to you, as they are talking to you face-to-face. This is usually the most common technique. Another

way to introduce the candidate is to zoom in the image from the distance. Thus, it is possible to receive the whole view of the person. The most infrequent technique is to frame the candidate from a low angle. Usually it is used in negative advertising that discredits the opponent, because such perspective makes the person look superior.

Close up



Elise Stefanik 'Fresh ideas'

From a low angle



American Crossroads 'Spelling bee'

Zoom in



Nice guy

Lighting is another powerful tool used to impose the meaning. The effect of lighting is made on contrast. The positive advertising promoting the candidate themselves is bright and colorful. The negative advertising is dark, what makes the opponent look threatening or unpleasant.

Sometimes advertising combines bright and dark colours for the obvious purpose, like in the ad *Trust*. David Perdue talking about his opponents uses black and white images but appears in contrast to them in colour display.



Trust

The last component of the picture is settings. Without a doubt, settings can be different, but the analysis of political advertising shows that there are some common scenes for shooting. The choice of the setting depends on the electoral platform of the candidate, their origin and the target audience. The setting influences the image of the candidate. The schemes showing blending of politicians' images and settings can be shown in the following way:

a politician + family = an ordinary person → supports interests of ordinary people

a politician + factory = a factory worker → supports interests of workers

a politician + farm = a farmer → supports interests of farmers

a politician + a state office = an experienced politician → supports interests of the whole state

Of course, the person may not be as such, but it makes sense for viewers. The same can be said about some unusual settings. Highly metaphoric in its context is a set of ads called

Spelling bee portraying different senators supporting President Barack Obama. The scene of the well-known traditional competition where contestants are supposed to spell words is borrowed for political blackening. This is the visual blend that merges two ideas into one.

Taking into account the main features of picture, such as shots, framing, lighting and setting, it should be pointed out that each of them conveys certain meanings both on conscious and subconscious levels. Even if it is not obvious for the viewer at first sight, these tools can be based on the metaphorical perception of things, which modern cognitive linguistics calls blends.

Political advertising is a powerful tool capable of producing psychological impact on the person by blending different concepts. The role of blending in it is hard to overestimate. The more familiar ideas are blended, the easier it is for the viewer to build the image of the candidate in their mind.

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Methodology of linguistics. Methods and means (UDC 81-13)

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УЧЕБНАЯ АВТОНОМИЯ В ТРУДАХ ИТАЛЬЯНСКИХ ДИДАКТОВ

Аннотация

Статья посвящена анализу исследований итальянских дидактов по вопросу развития основ автономии студентов. Развитие основ автономии, т.е. автономной учебной деятельности обучающегося рассматривается как цель учебной деятельности по изучению иностранного языка, как в отечественных, так и в зарубежных теоретических и практических исследованиях. Автор исследует разработки содержания понятия «учебная автономия», рассматривает влияние самостоятельной работы на развитие и становление личности обучающегося.

Ключевые слова: автономная учебная деятельность, автономия, планирование, ответственность.

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ACADEMIC AUTONOMY IN THE WORKS OF ITALIAN DIDACTS

Abstract

The article is devoted to the analysis of studies of Italian didacts on the subject of development of students' autonomy basics. Development of the autonomy basics, i.e., autonomous learning activities is considered as an objective of training activities in the study of a foreign language both in Russian and foreign theoretical and practical research. The authors investigate the development of the concept of "learning autonomy", examine the impact of independent work on the development and identity formation of the student.

Keywords: autonomous learning activity, autonomy, planning, responsibility.

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Having signed the Bologna Declaration on September 19, 2003 Russia joined the Common European Education Space. This event caused considerable changes in the system of Russian higher education and made obvious the necessity of creating new methodological models, schemes, study guides for the formation of students' competencies according to the new conditions of studying in higher education institutions.

It is important to realize that European Education Space is not just an assortment of new features for students, but as well a field for exchanging ideas and opinions on topical issues in foreign language teaching methodology. It contributes to research experience enrichment of teachers, trainers, educators from European countries, enables them to use recent developments and introduces the implementation results.

Scholars of European countries are currently working intensely on the development of self-study language methods and schemes. Foreign theoretical and practical studies consider development of autonomy basics, that is autonomous learning activities of a student independent of a teacher as the aim of foreign language learning activity and as the condition of education automation.

The concept of teaching autonomy was founded and developed by Celestin Freinet, a French educator who introduced a term "autogestion" (autonomy, or self-management) into the pedagogical science, and defined it as a most important educational aim. According to C. Freinet, this concept comprises such aspects as responsibility, self-regulation, self-evaluation and serves as a starting point for development of the contemporary idea of autonomous learning.

These issues became the subject of wide speculation by Italian scientists as far back as in the 1970s. In the works of R. Titone, G. Freddi, Paolo E. Balboni skills of conducting autonomous learning activity are regarded as most important ones for self-development and self-education of a person. [2].

Paolo E. Balboni, a founder of Department of the Italian Language Teaching Methods at the University for Foreigners of Siena, professor and head of "Progetto ITALS" Linguistic

Centre at Ca'Foscari di Venezia University considers development of students' competence in administration and educational operations management during their studies as one of the priorities in teaching foreign languages.[2].

Using the term 'learn to study' Paolo E. Balboni means an academic activity where a student becomes a subject, i.e. an equal participant, having a right to choose an individual behavior pattern and realizing the responsibility for the choice made. [2]

The scientist points out the importance of induction and reflection – two processes necessary for development of students' competence in administration and educational operations management during their studies.

The term 'induction', i.e. inducement, taking a decision on initiation of an action, means to teach a student to observe and make assumptions and generalizations based on these observations. Further on to perform a check of the made assumptions as well as to estimate and monitor the results with a view to making corrections into behavior patterns or creating new patterns.

The term 'reflection' or speculation about the language is characterized by

an object understood as the process of reflection on the language performed by a student under a teacher's supervision, whose primary goal is to teach him to do it autonomously;

a subject, which includes speculations on the rules and mechanisms of the language functioning;

a moment, when the speculation on the language is taking place, concerning everything that was learnt, checked and recorded earlier;

a way of speculating on the language, which is actualized in an open educational pattern "learn to study" through process management and understanding of the received.

Paolo E. Balboni points out that deliberate control over the abovementioned processes of studying a foreign language indicates personal maturity and ability to speculate over one's behaviour pattern in the period of study.[2].

The existing definitions of a student's autonomy with regard to studying foreign languages emphasize his ability

and readiness to take the responsibility for his education (R. De Beni, C. Cornoldi, L. Mariani, S. Hoffman, P. Diadori, M. Palermo, D. Troncarelli and others). In particular, S. Hoffman considers autonomy as readiness and ability of a learner “to take the responsibility for setting goals, for determination of the content and sequence of the used methods and working practices including assessment of the achieved results as well” [4].

A similar view is shared by L. Mariani, understanding autonomy as “the ability for choosing and using most effective strategies, critical reflection, taking decisions and independent action” [5].

An Italian educationist C. Cornoldi lays emphasis on a learner’s awareness in choosing the ways of realization of learning activity and reflection. Of particular importance is his observation that autonomous activity begins at the internal level. In his research the scientist determines the following stages of its realization:

- focusing, concentration and inner dialogue,
- problem identification,
- consideration of alternative solutions,
- supposition and consecutive evaluation,
- decision making,
- post check of the realized plan of action.

Sharing his opinion, S. Hoffman points out the following skills which according to the scientist, are the basic ones:

- orientation in learning activity process;
- planning and choosing the means of achieving a desired goal;
- conscious responsibility of a student for all aspects of his learning activity;
- reflection and assessment of the achieved results of his activity.

In S. Hoffman’s opinion, one can say about a student’s ability for autonomous management of his learning activity in the case when he takes an independent decision on:

- what he wants to study;
- in what way he is going to continue his learning activity;

- what materials and means he wants to use;
- what strategies he wants to use;
- what forms of work he prefers;
- how to use the given time;
- what forms of control he wants to use for assessment of his activity.

As can be seen from the above-mentioned analysis of research by Italian scholars the present approach in education brings an essential change into the whole didactic system, first and foremost into the system of teacher-student interaction as subjects of learning activity. A teacher only organizes a student’s learning activity. In the course of independent work a student is to learn how to set cognitive tasks, choose the ways of their solution, perform control over the correctness of their solution, how to perfect the skills of practical application of a theory, to reflect the whole learning process and to realize his share of responsibility.

Thus, the new educational paradigm attaches prime importance to actualization of learning activity itself and to the student’s awareness of himself as a subject of the educational process, working in close coordination with teachers, consultants, tutors. The whole educational system at present should be student-oriented and include a wide range of possibilities. Namely:

- a choice of individual tools and methods of studying,
- freedom of decision making with the view of most effective acquisition of knowledge and mastering of future professional duties and responsibilities,
- acquisition of psychological comfort, i.e. development and satisfaction of one’s cultural and value systems, as well as other systems in the process of learning.

All above-mentioned allows us to consider the set of cognitive, organizational and regulatory skills forming the basis of academic autonomy not just as a way of making essential connections during the period of learning, or as a means of gaining new knowledge and socio-cultural orientation, but as a quality of the student’s intellectual development as well.

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