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GENERAL QUESTIONS RELATING TO BOTH LINGUISTICS AND LITERATURE. PHILOLOGY (UDC 80)

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ВНУТРИ-КУЛЬТУРНАЯ СТАБИЛЬНОСТЬ И ВАРИАТИВНОСТЬ КАТЕГОРИАЛЬНЫХ НОРМ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Исследование было направлено на изучение внутри-культурной стабильности и региональной специфичности показателей частоты называния русских слов, принадлежащих различным семантическим категориям. Участники исследования из трех различных регионов России выполняли стандартную процедуру называния слов, принадлежащих 45 семантическим категориям. Для каждого экземпляра категории сравнивали общую частоту его называния между тремя регионами. Показатели близости Хеллингера использовались как мера согласованности частоты называния слов между представителями разных регионов. Коэффициенты близости Хеллингера между частотными рядами слов были высокими, а для большинства понятий различия между показателями частоты называния в разных регионах были не значимыми, что является свидетельством географической стабильности этих нормативов в России. Между тем, число понятий, обладающих разной частотой называния, было ниже, а коэффициенты близости Хеллингера были более высокими, если расстояние между городами было меньше. Различия в частоте называния между регионами, полученные для небольшого числа понятий, могут быть объяснены особенностями опыта респондентов, географическими и средовыми факторами.

Ключевые слова: интра-культурные различия, культурная стабильность, категориальные нормативы, частота называния.

INTRA-CULTURAL CONTINUITY AND DIVERSITY OF SEMANTIC CATEGORY NORMS

Research article

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Abstract

This study was aimed to examine intra-cultural continuity and regional specificity of generation frequency norms for semantic categories in the Russian language. Participants from three different regions of Russia carried out a standard procedure for generating exemplars of 45 semantic categories. Overall generation frequency compared between three regions for each concept in order to study the regional specificity of concepts. Hellinger Affinity scores were used as a measure of between-regional accordance of generation frequency norms. Generation frequency for most concepts did not differ significantly between all three regions and Hellinger Affinity coefficients were strong providing evidence for the intra-cultural homogeneity of these norms in Russia. However, the number of concepts with significantly different generation frequency values was lower and the Hellinger Affinity was significantly stronger when a geographical distance between cities was smaller. Significant differences of generation frequencies between regions, elicited in a study for a small number of concepts, can be explained by geographical, environmental and experiential factors.

Keywords: intra-cultural diversity, cultural continuity, category norms, exemplar generation frequency.

Introduction

Culture and conceptual behavior are inseparable [6]. The frequency of concepts generated in specific semantic categories (like “A Toy” or “A Furniture”) can differ dramatically between different languages. Thus, a frequency of words can be used as a key indicator of the specific features of cultures [12].

Cultural differences can be caused by many factors, such as differences in social, historical, economic, educational systems and habitat, the degree of familiarity of the population with the category [7]. It has been shown that some categorization phenomena can be quite sensitive not only to language and to culture aspect but to experiential factors as well [5], [13], [11]. Nevertheless, we can’t suggest that only environmental factors will explain category representation as thanks to culture and language people can build the representation of things they did not interact with [10]. It can be suggested, the culture, which is dominated in the country, can outweigh environmental factors, which can vary in different regions. However, it has been shown in many studies that there is a crucial intra-cultural diversity, which can be found even inside the country with a homogeneous culture, which can be explained by social and economic factors [8], [2].

Generation frequency database for 45 semantic categories was collected for the Russian language [3]. Category norms collected in Moscow were shown to be reliable [3]. Nevertheless before making inferences and generalizing generation frequency norms collected in Moscow to the Russian language and the whole country, the geographical stability of these results was examined. Moscow, Irkutsk, and Yekaterinburg regions were chosen for this aim. As correlations between the three regions were very strong, the geographical stability of generation frequency norms for the Russian language was suggested [4]. Such result supports the idea that cultural representations maintain their stability while reaching a cultural level of distribution [10].

Nevertheless, previous work was aimed only to prove geographical stability and further analyses needs to be continued in order to study the intra-cultural homogeneity of category norms and regional specificity of concepts with more sensitive statistic methods. Hellinger Affinity, which is used in the current study, as a measure of distance between frequency distributions, is much more sensitive to differences than correlation. Furthermore, a separate comparison of frequency for each concept in a category was conducted with help of Chi-square test with Yates correction in the study.

Thus, the aim of this study was to measure Hellinger Affinity distances in order to evaluate a degree of intra-cultural homogeneity. and to compare differences in generation frequencies between three cities in order to understand the degree of regional specificity of concepts.

The following suggestions can be made. Between-regional accordance of generation frequency norms will be strong showing stability of representations on a cultural level. Nevertheless, the strength of differences can be related to geographical distance. As cities are closer to each other, fewer differences can be observed.

Method

Participants. One hundred sixty-two students of different universities of Moscow aged 18-26 years participated in the study as volunteers (126 females and 36 males, M=19.19, SD=1.52). One hundred sixty-two students from Yekaterinburg aged 18-24 years (126 females and 36 males, M=19.56, SD=1.18) and one hundred sixty-two students from Irkutsk aged 18-28 years (132 females and 30 males, M=19.31, SD=1.82) participated in this study as well. There was no significant difference in proportion of male and female participants in samples taken from three different regions (Pearson Chi-square=0.685, *df*=1, *ps*=0.408, Pearson Chi-square=0.000, df=1, *p*=1). Participants involved in this study in each region represented the same generation and the same social group. All of the 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 asked to write down in the notebook as many items included in each category as they can in 30 sec. For example, if they were given category “birds” they were supposed to write names of different birds like a *sparrow*, a *nightingale* etc. The full version of the instruction can be found in the paper by Battig and Montague of 1969 [1]. Overall generation frequency was calculated for each word. The category set for this study consisted of 45 different semantic categories [4]. For each word, overall generation frequencies were compared between regions with help of two-tailed Pearson Chi-square with Yates` continuity correction. The number of significant differences was compared between regions using Chi-square-test as well. Hellinger Affinity coefficients as a measure of distance between two frequency distributions from different regions were measured for each category. The value of Hellinger Affinity coefficients ranges from 0 to 1 and the 1 means that two distributions are identical. Data were analyzed with help of Microsoft Office Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics 23.

Results and Discussion

Hellinger Affinity coefficients were measured between frequency distributions of three regions (table 1). The level of Hellinger Affinity was strong proving the intra-cultural stability of such kind of data. The similar level of intra-cultural affinity was received in other studies [14], [9].

Table 1 – Hellinger Affinity coefficients as a measure of distance between frequency distributions

Category	Moscow-Yekaterinburg	Moscow -Irkutsk	Yekaterinburg -Irkutsk	Category	Moscow-Yekaterinburg	Moscow-Irkutsk	Yekaterinburg -Irkutsk
An Alcoholic Beverage	0.97	0.95	0.96	A Crime	0.91	0.90	0.91
A Nonalcoholic Beverage	0.95	0.95	0.96	An Insect	0.96	0.96	0.96
A Disease	0.91	0.91	0.91	A Science	0.90	0.92	0.89
A Domestic Appliance	0.96	0.94	0.95	A Vegetable	0.98	0.97	0.98
A Tree	0.96	0.95	0.97	An Article of Clothing	0.96	0.95	0.96
A Wild Animal	0.96	0.94	0.94	An Organ of the Human Body	0.97	0.96	0.95
A Domestic Animal	0.96	0.95	0.97	A Weapon	0.92	0.92	0.92
A Precious Stone	0.96	0.95	0.96	A Reptile	0.97	0.96	0.97
A Kind of Food	0.89	0.89	0.89	A Profession	0.87	0.87	0.88

The end of Table 1

Category	Moscow-Yekaterinburg	Moscow-Irkutsk	Yekaterinburg-Irkutsk	Category	Moscow-Yekaterinburg	Moscow-Irkutsk	Yekaterinburg-Irkutsk
A Unit of Time	0.98	0.97	0.97	A Bird	0.96	0.95	0.97
A Unit of Distance	0.97	0.97	0.96	A Plant	0.87	0.94	0.87
A Type of Music	0.92	0.92	0.94	A Family Member	0.98	0.98	0.98
A Girl`s first name	0.91	0.93	0.91	A Fish	0.91	0.84	0.87
An Amphibian	0.93	0.91	0.92	A Sport	0.93	0.93	0.94
A Toy	0.89	0.88	0.91	A Country	0.95	0.95	0.95
A Carpenter`s Tool	0.92	0.92	0.92	A Type of Vehicle	0.96	0.93	0.95
A Kitchen Utensil	0.94	0.91	0.94	A Farm Animal	0.98	0.98	0.98
A Type of Fabric	0.94	0.94	0.93	A Fruit	0.98	0.97	0.97
An Article of Furniture	0.96	0.96	0.96	A Color	0.98	0.98	0.98
A Mammal	0.95	0.95	0.94	A Flower	0.95	0.91	0.92
A Male`s First Name	0.93	0.93	0.92	A Part of the Human Body	0.96	0.96	0.96
A Musical Instrument	0.97	0.96	0.96	A Four-footed Animal	0.96	0.96	0.96
A Metal	0.94	0.98	0.94				

Hellinger Affinity scores between frequency distributions of Moscow and Yekaterinburg samples were stronger than the Hellinger Affinity scores between frequency distributions of Moscow and Irkutsk samples (Z=-2.261, *p*=0.024). The presence of significant differences in levels of Hellinger Affinity shows some degree of slight regional diversity. Differences in the strength of Hellinger Affinity between other two pairs of regions were insignificant (*p*>1).

Chi-square comparison with Yates` correction showed that there were no significant differences between three cities for the most concepts. Differences in generation frequencies were significant (*p*<0.05) only for 3.98 -5.24 % of concepts (table 2). Just a small number of concepts showed very significant differences with *p*<0.01 (1.27-2.41%). This finding once again supports the suggestion that norms of generation frequency for the Russian language are geographically homogeneous.

Table 2 – The number of words with significantly different frequencies between regions

	The number of concepts which differed significantly (p<0.01)	The number of concepts which did not differ significantly	The percent of concepts which differed significantly
M - I	129	5067	2.41
M - Y	70	5304	1.27
I-Y	84	5141	1.57

M: Moscow, I: Irkutsk, Y: Yekaterinburg

Such small percent of differences can be explained by random factors and ignored. Nonetheless, some regional specificity can be revealed in such limited number of concepts. That is why the number of concepts with significantly different generation frequency in samples of three regions (two-tailed *p*<0.01) compared using Chi-square without Yates` correction.

There were significantly more concepts, which differed in generation frequency between Moscow and Irkutsk than between Moscow and Yekaterinburg (Pearson Chi-square=19.835, *df*=1, two-tailed *p*<0.0001). There were no significant differences in the number of concepts between Moscow-Yekaterinburg and Irkutsk-Yekaterinburg (Pearson Chi-square=1.722, *df*=1, one-tailed *p*=0.1894). There were more concepts, which had significantly different frequencies between Moscow and Irkutsk than between Yekaterinburg and Irkutsk (Pearson Chi-square=9.963, *df*=1, one-tailed *p*<0.01).

Thus, it can be suggested that strength of similarities related to geographical distance. Stronger similarities are observed between Moscow and Yekaterinburg, which are closer to each other than between Moscow and Irkutsk.

Analyses of words with strongest significant differences in frequency between regions showed that in some cases intra-cultural diversity could be explained by ecological, environmental and experiential factors. For example in Irkutsk sample word *omul* (fish with lives in Baikal lake which is close to Irkutsk) was named 90 times while in other samples it was named twice (Pearson Chi-square with Yates` correction= 114.897, *df*=1, two-tailed *p*<0.0001 in comparison to Moscow and Yekaterinburg). In Moscow sample in category "vehicles" *metro* was the frequent answer, while in Irkutsk it was not as there is no subway (Pearson Chi-square with Yates` correction = 67.258, *df*=1, two-tailed *p*<0.0001). The frequency of word *metro* was significantly lower in Yekaterinburg sample as this type of vehicle is not such popular in this city as it is in Moscow (Pearson Chi-square with Yates` correction =25.372 *df*=1, two-tailed *p*<0.0001).

The intra-cultural affinity for data is shown to be strong. Most of the concepts (more than 97.5%) did not differ in frequency between regions. Even though such rare significant differences in frequency can be explained by random factors, some cross-regional diversity for a few concepts was revealed and should be taken into account. Such differences can be explained by geographical, socio-economical, environmental and experiential factors.

Финансирование

Работа была поддержана Российским фондом фундаментальных исследований, проект "Культурно-универсальные и культурно-специфичные аспекты категоризации" 17-36-01131.

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Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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АНАЛИЗ НОМИНАЛЬНЫХ ЗНАКОВ В ТЕКСТЕ ПЕСНИ «MARTESA E HALILIT» И В НЕМЕЦКОЙ ВЕРСИИ В ПЕРЕВОДЕ М. ЛАМБЕРЦА

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Номинальные знаки как важные элементы текстовой составляющей имеют особую функцию в акте общения. В этом исследовании авторы пытаются подчеркнуть функцию номинальных текстовых знаков в тексте песни «Martesa e Halilit» из коллекции «Kängë kreshnikësh dhe legenda» в немецкой версии, переведенной М. Ламберцом. Здесь также подчеркиваются информативные текстовые элементы, такие как тема (Thema) и комментарий (Rhema), в качестве основных составляющих текстовых когерентностей, чтобы прояснить функцию этого текста как единого целого. Эта статья основана на ссылочной роли номинальных знаков в анализируемом тексте, таких как текстовые повторения (textuelle Rekurrenz), составляющие текстовой темы (konstituive für die textuelle Thematik) и квазирекурсии (Quasi-Rekurrenz) как компоненты сплоченности текста.

Ключевые слова: когезия, когерентность, лингвистический знак, составляющая текстовых тем, квазирекурсивность, текстовая согласованность, прогрессивный тип, тема, комментарий, гипертрома.

ANALYSIS OF THE NOMINAL SIGNS IN THE TEXT OF „MARTESA E HALILIT" SONG AND IN THE TRANSLATED VERSION IN GERMAN BY M. LAMBERTZ

Research article

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Abstract

Nominal signs as important textual building constituents have a special function in the act of communication. This study attempts to highlight the function of nominal textual signs in the lyrics song „Martesa e Halilit" from collection „Kângë kreshnikësh dhe legenda" into the German version translated by M.Lambert. It also highlights the informative text constituents such as topic (Thema) and comment (Rhema) as textual coherences primary constituents in order to clarify the function of this text as integral unit. This article is based on the referential role of the nominal signs in the analyzed text, such as textual recurrences (textuelle Rekurrenz), the constituents of the textual theme (konstituive für die textuelle Thematik) and quasi-recurrences (Quasi-Rekurrenz) as components of text cohesion.

Keywords: cohesion, coherence, linguistic sign, constituent of textual themes, quasi-rekurrenc, textual coherence, progressive type, topic, comment, hypertheme.

As a linguistic sign, noun is among the most important classes of the linguistic signs and the information carrier in the text at the same time. Two meaningful noun subclasses are proper nouns (Eigennamen), identifying a person or a thing name and the common nouns (Gattungsnamen), whose meaning includes a broader extend (Umfang) and content (Inhalt). By form, names are linked with the grammar category of gender (Genus des Nomens), number (Numerus des Nomens) and case (Kasus des Nomens). German and Albanian languages have three noun genders: male gender (Maskulin), female (Feminin) and neutral (Neutrum). Despite the noun gender category, the number concept (Numerus) of noun aggregates a binary opposition: Singular and Plural. Finally, case is expressed by inflection of articles either as constituent or effective component („efektiv") of case inflection. On the other hand, noun is a fragmentary constituent („defektiv") of case inflection [1, P. 230-231; 236-251]. Another very important issue linked with the noun is its determination by other different determiners of the nominal group such are: other nouns, pronouns, articles [2, P. 146-344], and the noun have a referential dependency to these linguistic signs (Referenzzusammenhang). [3, P. 317-375]

Noun is defined by various determiners who in the text are seen as attributes. Such attributes could be as pre-determining (prädeterminierende Atributte) and post-determining (postdeterminierende Atributte). Noun and its attributes, be they pre or post ones in text, forms the nominal group (Nominalgruppe). As predetermining attributes, could be used prepositional adjuncts (Präpositional -Adjunkte), gender adjuncts (Genitiv-Adjunkte) and relative adjuncts (Relativ-Adjunkte). Whilst, as post ones the followings: adjuncts of (Genitiv-Adjunkte), prepositional adjuncts (Präpositional – Adjunkte), conjunction adjuncts (Konjunktional – Adjunkte), infinitive adjuncts (Infinitiv-Adjunkte), relative adjuncts (Relativ-Adjunkte) and attributive adverbs (attributive Adverben). The post-attribute is regarded as apposition (Apposition). [3, P. 317-367]

Whilst communicating, the role of the giver and the receiver is determined as negative due to the fact that the situation refers nothing to these two contextual elements [5, P. 19]. The referential role is critical so as to explain this phenomenon, a role that in the text provides reference to various references. As the reference of semantic precision is seen the referential role in all nouns and pronouns throughout the text. Textual references are noticed at the textual recurrences (textuelle Rekurrenz). The simplest recurrence form is repetition of same nouns. Meanwhile, the most complex ways of recurrences are the constituents of the textual themes (konstituive für die textuelle Thematik) and quasi-recurrence (Quasi-Rekurrenz). As constituents of textual thematic are the repetition of nouns in text through other nouns with analogous meanings. Quasi-recurrence on the other hand, could be seen by the use of a range of various nouns with same or similar meanings. Such tools of text building are regarded as stylistic means. [3, P. 368-371]

In the text of „Martesa e Halilit" [5, P. 27], a song translated in german by Lamberc, together with other textual signs, nominal textual signs are very important too. The said text, in Albanian language is in verses while in German language in prose. In this text, jointly with other textual signs, cohesion constituents are nouns, noun determiners, noun references, textual thematic constituent elements (complex forms of noun repetition in the text) and quasi-recurrences. Nouns in this text as well as in other texts in Albanian, comparing to their determiners, are predominantly placed in front [6, P. 219-223]. Occasionally, nouns are even placed at the very beginning of the verse. Their starting position in the sentence respectively in the verse, in this very text is determined by the nature of text as the poetical creativity. Placing the noun before its determiners, i.e. adjective and noun in genitive case, appears in the following verses:

„Se gjith grát e krahinës, ku janë,
„Se gjith vashat e Jutbinës, ku janë,
„Bash si motra qi po m'duken."
„Alle Frauen unseres Landes, alle Mädchen von Jutbina sind mir wie Schwestern"
„Po s'e mora Tanushën e krajlit"
„ Sterben will ich, wenn ich nicht Tanusha, die Tochter des Königs, zur Frau gewinne"
‚Shteku i ballit, si shteku i malit,
„…, die Mittellinie ihrer Stirn ist wie der Pfad über einen Berg …"
„Hunda ndrejt, si kalêmi i Tushës !"
…, ihre Nase gerade wie der Gewehrlauf aus der Werkstatt des Waffenschmiedes Tusha,…"
„E ka qërpikun, si krahi i dallendyshës ;" …, ihre Augenlider wie Schwalbenflügel, …"
„Dhâmët e bardhë, si gurzit e lumit," , ihre Zähne weiß, wie die Kieselsteine des Flusses nach dem Regen,…"
„Syni i saj, si kokrra e qershís ;" …, ihr Auge wie die Kirsche ,…"
„Qafa e saj, si qafa e pllumbit:" „…, ihr Hals wie der Hals der Taube ,…"
„Goja e vogël, si lulja qi shpërthen ;" „…, ihr Mund klein wie die Blüte ,…"
„Misht e dorës, porsi rrêmi i shemshirit" „… das Fleisch ihrer Hand wie die Blüte der Myrte!"

In the analyzed samples could be seen that the noun determiners in Albanian text are accompanied with noun in genitive, adjective but there are cases too when noun is not followed by its determiners at all.

„ Syni i saj, si kokrra e qershís ;" …, ihr Auge wie **die Kirsche** ,…"

In few cases in this text, Lamberc uses composite to translate noun in genitive:

„E ka qërpikun, si krahi i dallendyshës ;" …, ihre Augenlider wie Schwalbenflügel, …"

Noun signs as textual-building signs in „Martesa e Halilit" song are accompanied with referential signs as well, through which is arranged and developed the semantic meaningful body of the text. Noun referential signs in the said text appears in the following verses:

„Vetulla e saj ndrejt si fiskaja;" Ihre Augenbrauen sind wie ein junger Eichenwald,.."
„Syni i saj, si kokrra e qershís ;" …, ihr Auge wie die Kirsche ,…"
„Qafa e saj, si qafa e pllumbit:" „ …, ihr Hals wie der Hals der Taube ,…"
„Shtati i saj, si ' i shtat çetinet;" „ …, ihr Körper wie der Fichtenstamm ,…"

Noun referential signs both in Albanian and in the translated text do appear with possessive pronouns, who settle in with nominal signs in gender and number [6, P. 284-291]. It could be said, that the position of pronoun referential signs in the analyzed text in Albanian do vary from the position of the referential signs in the translated text. Such signs in the Albanian text are placed after the noun all the time while in the german text always in front of the noun.

Quasi-recurrences of the nominal signs are of huge relevance in the text, especially in the structure of the texts having literary and poetical values for the reason that provide artistic effects of a comparative and metaphoric nature and are a constituent element of the song style. In this text, quasi-recurrences of the nominal signs are expressed in the next verses:

„Vetulla e saj ndrejt si fiskaja;" -Ihre Augenbrauen sind wie ein junger Eichenwald,.."
„Syni i saj, si kokrra e qershís ;" …, ihr Auge wie die Kirsche ,…"
„Ftyra e saj, si kuqet molla n'degë ;" „ …, ihr Gesicht wie der Apfel ,…"
„Hunda ndrejt, si kalêmi i Tushës !"
…, ihre Nase gerade wie der Gewehrlauf aus der Werkstatt des Waffenschmiedes Tusha,…"
„Goja e vogël, si lulja qi shpërthen ;" „…, ihr Mund klein wie die Blüte ,…"

Seeing the review done so far, we could add that the cohesion of „Martesa e Halilit” text is developed so as to support the multiplicity of the textual cohesive signs establishing a bond link between words, sentences and the whole text body [7, 7-14]. In this way, the entire connection of the textual signs constructs the coherence of this song. Relying on building up the cohesion of this poetically narrative text it could be seen that the nouns, determiners and noun referential signs do follow it from the beginning till the end:

- As noun determiners in the said text comes out the following –province women (Frauen unseres Landes), girls of Jutbina (Mädchen von Jutbina), Tanushën e Krajlit (Tochter des Königs), swallow arm (Schwalbenflügel), cherry grain (die Kirsche), dove neck (Hals der Taube), small mouth (ihr Mund klein), white teeth (ihre Zähne weiss), river shingles (die Kieselsteine des Flusses),
- As noun referential signs in the text comes out the next examples – her eyebrow (ihre Augenbrauen), her eye (ihr Auge), her neck (ihr Hals), her body (ihr Körper),
- As quasi-recurrences the following : „Hunda ndrejt, si kalêmi i Tushës !”

…, ihre Nase gerade wie der Gewehrlauf aus der Werkstatt des Waffenschmiedes Tusha,…”
„Dhâmët e bardhë, si gurzit e lumit,”
„ ihre Zähne weiß, wie die Kieselsteine des Flusses nach dem Regen,…”
„E ka qërpikun, si krahi i dallendyshës ;”
…„ ihre Augenlider wie Schwalbenflügel, …”

Whereas, based on the informative constituents of the text that is to say on topic and comment, could be mentioned that the topic and comment as textual coherence primary constituents are seen in the text of „Martesa e Halilit” song as well. The whole text is a progressive type with deriving subject (Die Progression mit abgeleiteten Themen), resulting in a hyper theme out of specific sentences [8, P. 45]:

Shteku i ballit, si shteku i malit,
„Die Mittellinie ihrer Stirn ist wie der Pfad über einen Berg …”
„Hunda ndrejt, si kalêmi i Tushës !”
„Ihre Nase gerade wie der Gewehrlauf aus der Werkstatt des Waffenschmiedes Tusha,…”
„ Dhâmët e bardhë, si gurzit e lumit,”
„Ihre Zähne weiß, wie die Kieselsteine des Flusses nach dem Regen,…”
„ Syni i saj, si kokrra e qershís ;” „Ihr Auge wie die Kirsche ,…”
„Qafa e saj, si qafa e pllumbit:” „Ihr Hals wie der Hals der Taube ,…”
„ Goja e vogël, si lulja qi shpërthen ;” „Ihr Mund klein wie die Blüte ,…”
„Misht e dorës, porsi rrêmi i shemshirit”
„Das Fleisch ihrer Hand wie die Blüte der Myrte!”

All these sentences develop the text coherence by being a deriving progression of some themes producing a hyper theme. Hyper theme becomes known from the given themes[8, P. 44-65], and ins our case it is the case of „bukuria e Tanushës – die Schönheit von Tanusha”. The entire such progression of deriving themes can be introduced via schematic way and it includes the unknown theme information, that is to say comment (Rhemen) for each sentence separately:

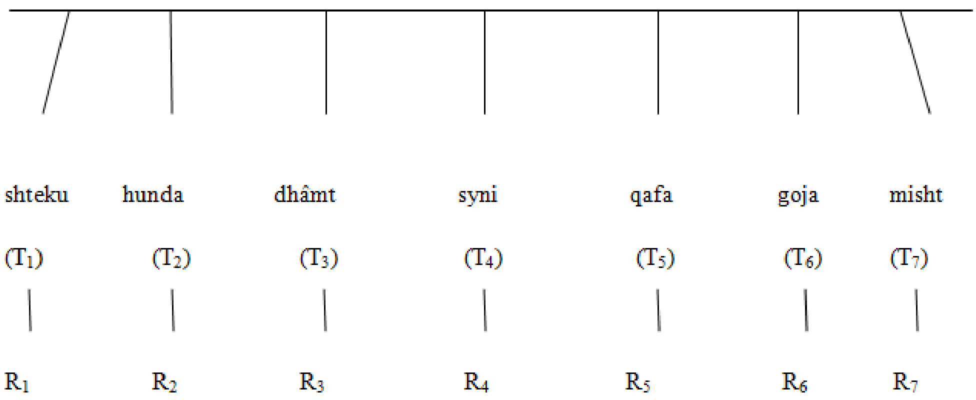

Fig. 1 – Hipertema (bukuria e Tanushës)

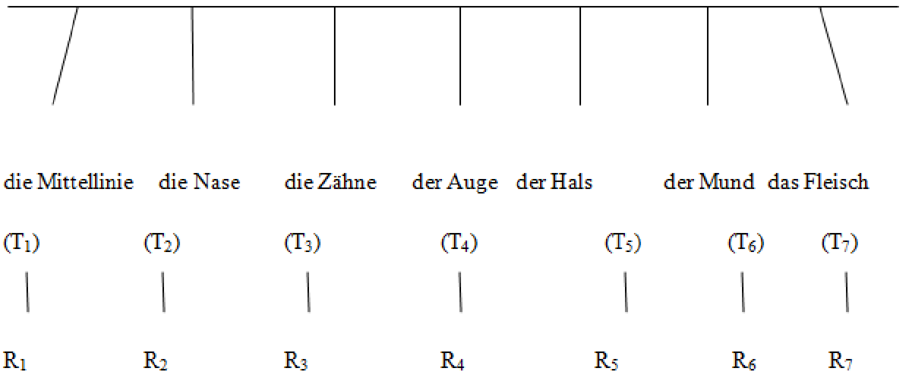

Fig. 2 – Hyperthema (die Schönheit von Tanusha)

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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НАИМЕНОВАНИЯ МЕСТНОСТИ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЮРИДИЧЕСКОМ ДИСКУРСЕ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Ввиду того, что профессиональный язык юристов является инструментом для выражения правовых традиций, топонимические единицы, широко и разнообразно представленные в правовом дискурсе, в большой степени отражают социокультурные, национально-культурные и национально-правовые особенности общества. Сплошная выборка топонимических единиц и тщательный анализ материала показали наличие широкого спектра употребления наименований местности в области права. Автор выделяет несколько основных узуальных кондиций, характерных для интеграции географических названий в англоязычную юридическую терминосистему. В статье предлагается классификация случаев употребления топонимических единиц в правовой документации, делаются выводы о влиянии неязыковой действительности на развитие юридической терминологии.

Ключевые слова: юридический, дискурс, топоним, источник права, юридический документ.

PLACE NAMES IN LEGAL ENGLISH

Research article

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Abstract

Due to the fact that lawyers’ professional language is a tool for expressing legal traditions, the toponymic units, widely and diversely represented in English legal discourse, largely reflect the sociocultural, national cultural and national legal features of the society. A continuous selection of toponymic units and thorough analysis of the material showed the existence of a wide range of use of place names in the sphere of law. The author singles out a few basic conditions that are typical for the integration of geographical names into an English-language legal terminology system. The article proposes a classification of cases of the use of toponymic units in the legal documentation, conclusions are made about the impact of non-linguistic reality on the development of legal terminology.

Keywords: legal, discourse, toponym, source of law, legal document.

Introduction

It is in specific speech works that the elements of language as a system are actualized. This predetermined the interest of linguists to the problems of the typology of discourse, especially to professional discourses. In modern linguistic research, the problem of the professional conditioning of the cognitive and communicative activity of the individual in the process of structuring reality is increasingly raised.

It is commonly known that any language represents perfect expression of thoughts, norms of communication, verbal or non-verbal. To some extent language is an external form of law. The rule of law through the uniform of the legal language tends to the greatest possible uniqueness of its terms in the use of law enforcement.

Unlike the language of art and philology, the language of law fulfills a peacemaking and, therefore, a political function. The clearer it is, the more reliable the right and freedom of the press and the higher the legal culture.

Since legal English is a tool for expressing legal traditions, toponymic units being vividly represented in the legal discourse, to the greatest extent reflect social, cultural, national and legal features of the society. Analysis of the material showed the existence of a wide range of toponymic units in the field of Anglo-American law.

Method

Consideration of toponyms as a mirror of extralinguistic factors that have a significant impact on formation processes in the legal terminology deserves, in our opinion, special attention. In this paper we have made a venture to distinguish several basic conditions that are typical for the integration of geographical names to the English legal terminological system. More than 600 professional language units have been analyzed by method of continuous sampling.

Discussion

Attempts to study and classify similar cases have been made before, for example, by the Russian scholars [2], [4], [5], [6], [7], [9], [10]. But they were built on a thematic basis and in accordance with the source of terminology. In all such studies, the use of place names in the legal discourse is a part of general broad use of onyms. We have singled out and classified namely toponyms and conditions of their usage in English legal terminological system. Most often, as we presume, place names in English legal language are included in the following groups of legal documents names: sources of law, treaties, famous court trials, crimes, famous lawsuits, investigative operations, concepts of forensic medicine, public holidays. Let us consider each mentioned group in detail, denoting **T** for ‘toponym’.

Results

1. Doctrines, theories, sources of law.

The names of doctrines with a toponymic element, according to our observations, are formed according to the following models:

Model	Example
Doctrine, Constitution, Clause, Law etc. **+** ***T***	*Constitution of the USA*
T + *Doctrine, Clause, Law etc.*	*Massachusetts Body of Liberties, Alabama Dog Law, Florida Drunk driving Laws, Quebec Act Rhodian Sea Law*
T + *Doctrine, Clause, Law etc.* + *year*	*Scotland Act 1998, Canada Act 1982*
Doctrine, Clause, Law etc. + **T** + *year*	*Commentaries on the Laws of England 1765, Institutes of the Lawes of England 1628*

As can be seen from the examples, some of these terminonyms also contain the date of adoption of the law, others - have a noun explaining the essence of the law, especially when the legal norms are established by the states on the basis of the federal law. It is interesting, for example, that one of the first legal documents in the world underlying the subsequent legislative decisions was the so-called Rhodian, or, as a synonym for its doublet, the Byzantine law, Rhodian Sea Law (Byzantine law). It regulated the relationship between the owners of a ship and its passengers in the Byzantine Empire since the 7th century. This law, which determined the degree of damage to goods due to shipwreck, the amount of damage, etc., was borrowed by the Romans from Greek law (first applied to Rhodes Island) and laid the foundation of international maritime law.

2. Treaties, conventions, protocols

This is the most extensive group, represented by numerous legal documents, in which the toponym is the name of the locality or territory where the document was signed, and in which it has legal force.

Quite well-known, for example, is Maastricht Treaty, an international treaty between most European countries, which was initiated by the European Union. It was signed in Maastricht, the Netherlands, in 1992.

T + *Convention, Protocol, Treaty etc.*	*Warsaw Convention, Vienna Convention, Groningen Protocol, Montreal Protocol, Maastricht Treaty, Potsdam Agreement*
Convention, Protocol, Treaty etc. + **T**	*Treaty of San Lorenzo, Treaty of Lisbon, Treaty of Rome*

3. Famous court trials

Here, according to our ideas, there is one formation model.

Toponyms are the names of cities in which famous trials took place, and which have become precedents or even historical monuments [8].

T + *Trial*	*Nuremberg Trial, Salem Witchcraft Trials*

4. Names of crimes

Components in this case are not only suggestive lexemes like "riot", "massacre", etc., but also toponymic units in monosyllabic form. Thus, the concept of Johnstown indicates a mass suicide in Johnstown, Guyana, in 1978, where there were killed, according to various sources, from 909 to 922 people.

T + *Riot, Massacre etc.*	*Los Angeles Riot, Kansas City Massacre*
T	*Jonestown*

5. Names of famous lawsuits or legal precedents

As case law becomes the basis for changing certain legal principles, and in the USA - the basis for amending the Constitution, the names of these cases acquire the status of terms for the name of new legal concepts. [3] We observe several following models on which they are formed:

Name (plaintiff) + *v.* + **T**	*Miranda v. Arizona, Mallory v. United States, Northern Securities Company v. United States*
T + *v.* + *Name (defendant)*	*United States v. Caldwell*

T + *v.* + **T**	*Ireland v. United Kingdom, U.S. v. Alaska*
T + *Case*	*Darthmouth College Case*

6. Names of streets and areas that have become nominal

As for the informal names of judicial and similar institutions, they actively function in different types of discourse (in the artistic, journalistic type, for example), and namely in the legal discourse they are sometimes replaced by full official names (like New Scotland Yard which is actually the Metropolitan Police Force).

T	*10 Downing Street, New Scotland Yard*

7. Names of state and legal institutions

The names of penitentiary institutions often contain toponymic components (oikonyms, hydronyms, etc.), denoting various geographical objects in which (or near which) prisons, camps for prisoners, etc. are located.

T + *Prison, Correctional Institute, Detention Camp, Colony etc.*	*Brixton Prison, Danbury Federal Correctional Institute, Guantanamo Bay Detention Camp, Hollesley Bay Colony Folsom Prison*
T	*Albany, Alcatraz, The Fleet, Feltham*

8. Names of reconnaissance and investigative operations

In this case, many examples can be given by the official web-site of the Central Intelligence Agency of the United States www.cia.gov. There we can find not only the names of operative measures, but also their detailed descriptions.

T + *Operation*	*Paris operations of the Russian Imperial Police, Tagil Operation*

9. The concepts of forensic medicine

This area illustrates the interaction of legal discourse with other types of discourse, which are regularly reflected in the system of legal relations.

T + *Syndrome, effect, system etc.*	*Stockholm Syndrome, Lima Syndrome*

10. Names of public holidays

We believe that this kind of terms should be included in this list, because, firstly, these types of holidays are established by the highest state authority, and, secondly, they are prescribed in state legal documents. For example, Bunker Hill Day is the day of the Battle of Bunker Hill, widely celebrated on June 17 in Boston and Suffolk, Massachusetts (USA).

T + *Day*	*Australia Day, Russia Day, Bunker Hill Day, Nevada Day*

Conclusion

As follows from the analyzed material, the legal discourse, in this case based on but not restricted by the Anglo-Saxon legal system, is not limited to toponymic components that are present only on the map of the United Kingdom and the United States. We observe a great variety of topoforms with different etymologies.

Thus, it can be noted that, in the course of its development, legal terminology is always strongly influenced by non-linguistic reality [1], therefore, the composition of legal terminology reflects a special path of development inherent only in it. National-cultural, linguistic-cultural and national legal features of the Anglo-American legal system are mostly reflected in onemic terms, the multiplicity of which is determined by its precedent nature. [7] Depending on the practice of law enforcement, place name lexicon can be characterized as nationally-marked, reflecting the legal specifics of the language of countries within Anglo-American legal system.

It is proved that, since the legal language is an instrument for expressing legal traditions, toponymic units, vividly and multilaterally represented in the legal discourse, largely reflect sociocultural and national legal features of the society.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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СООТНОШЕНИЕ ИДИОМАТИЧНОСТИ И ЭВФЕМИСТИЧЕСКОГО ПОТЕНЦИАЛА ФРАЗЕОЛОГИЧЕСКИХ ЕДИНИЦ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ (НА ПРИМЕРЕ НОМИНАТИВНОЙ ГРУППЫ «БЕДНЫЕ СТРАНЫ»)

Научная статья

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Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются особенности, связанные с употреблением эвфемизмов, относящихся к номинативной группе «Бедные страны». Авторами были проанализированы примеры эвфемистических единиц из новостных статей начала XX – начала XXI вв. Было выявлено, что единицы с высокой идиоматичностью включают в себя больше экстралингвистических компонентов. Определена зависимость эвфемистического потенциала фразеологических эвфемизмов от спаянности входящих в них элементов. Авторами было выявлено, что чем больше единица немотивированна и чем больше она реализуется в постоянном контексте, тем ниже ее эвфемистический потенциал и тем выше вероятность дисфемизации.

Ключевые слова: эвфемизм, дисфемизм, идиоматичность, фразеологические единицы, диахронный аспект, бедная страна, валентность.

THE CORRELATION BETWEEN THE IDIOMATICITY AND THE EUPHEMISTIC POTENTIAL OF PHRASEOLOGICAL UNITS IN ENGLISH (A CASE STUDY OF THE NOMINATIVE GROUP "POOR COUNTRIES")

Research article

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Abstract

The article deals with the features of euphemisms pertaining to the nominative group "Poor countries". The authors analysed a range of euphemistic units from the news articles published in the early 20th – early 21st century. The analysis revealed that lexical units with high idiomaticity contain more extralinguistic components. It was revealed that the euphemistic potential of phraseological euphemisms could depend on the cohesion of their constituent elements. The authors found out that the less a lexical unit is motivated and the more frequently it is implemented in a constant context, the lower its euphemistic potential is and the more likely it is to be dysphemised.

Keywords: euphemism, dysphemism, idiomaticity, phraseological units, diachronic aspect, poor country, valency.

Introduction

A euphemism is one of the oldest language tools originating in ancient taboos. With the development of civilization and society euphemistic units acquire new functions. Using euphemisms, speakers seek to avoid a direct mention of something awkward or unpleasant, thereby saving the speaker's "face", the "face" of the interlocutor or a third party [8].

Being an unstable part of the lexical fund, euphemistic units often lose their potential and disappear from the language, acquiring a negative shade of meaning as a result. The "euphemistic potential" in the research is meant to be the ability of a lexical unit "to soften a strong reaction to something unpleasant, terrible and reproaching" [3, P. 20].

In this study we have set ourselves the task to trace the connection between the idiomaticity degree of phraseological euphemisms pertaining to the nominative group "Poor countries" and their euphemistic potential.

Method

The methodology applied in the research is based on A. A. El'garov's lexical correlation theory, which states that the correlation types are defined by the multifaceted interaction of a phraseological unit (PU) with its lexical environment. The idiomaticity degree was determined according to the criteria developed by A. N. Baranov and D. O. Dobrovol'skij: a) the reinterpretation of a lexical unit, b) its transparency, or absence of motivation [2].

The phraseological euphemisms selected for the analysis were taken from R. W. Holder's dictionary of euphemisms [15]. The contexts under analysis range from the early 20th century to the present day, which enables us to trace the evolution of the lexical units in question.

We took into account possible linguistic and extralinguistic peculiarities (i. e. frequency, polysemy degree, communicative situations), which could have an indirect influence on the euphemistic potential of phraseological units [3], [6].

Discussion

Most scientists, including N. N. Amosova [1], G. V. Kolshansky [4], A. V. Kunin [5] and A. A. Elgarov [7], argue that a sufficient context is required to carry out a coherent and exhaustive study of PUs, which is predetermined by their complexity. While in the case of a lexeme, one meaning out of many is actualized in a particular context, a PU is not as polysemantic and thus the context serves to foreground certain aspects of its meaning.

The process of a PU realisation in speech involves the correlation of its semantics with the value of other linguistic elements, united by the same thematic and situational relevance. A. A. Elgarov states that the meaning of a PU can be amplified when it enters a semantic relationship with its lexical correlates. The linguist suggests classifying the semantic relations into the following types: synonymy, antonymy, hyponymic relations, reference to the same lexical-semantic field, associative relations in the context. [7, C. 10-11].

Results

Having analysed contexts that span a hundred years, we observed the following tendencies.

The noun ‘country’ has a high valency index, since it may collocate with a number of lexical items (*developing, disadvantaged, industrialising, in transition, underdeveloped,* etc.) to form free word combinations. The denotational and connotation meaning, however, may vary depending on the evaluative and referential components of the adjectives.

As it can be seen in Fig. 1–2, the frequency of the items peaked in the following chronological order: *underdeveloped countries* (peaked in the 1960s) > *disadvantaged countries* (peaked in the late 1970s) > *developing countries* (peaked in the early 1980s) > *industrializing countries* (peaked in the late 1980s) > *countries in transition* (peaked in the 2000s).

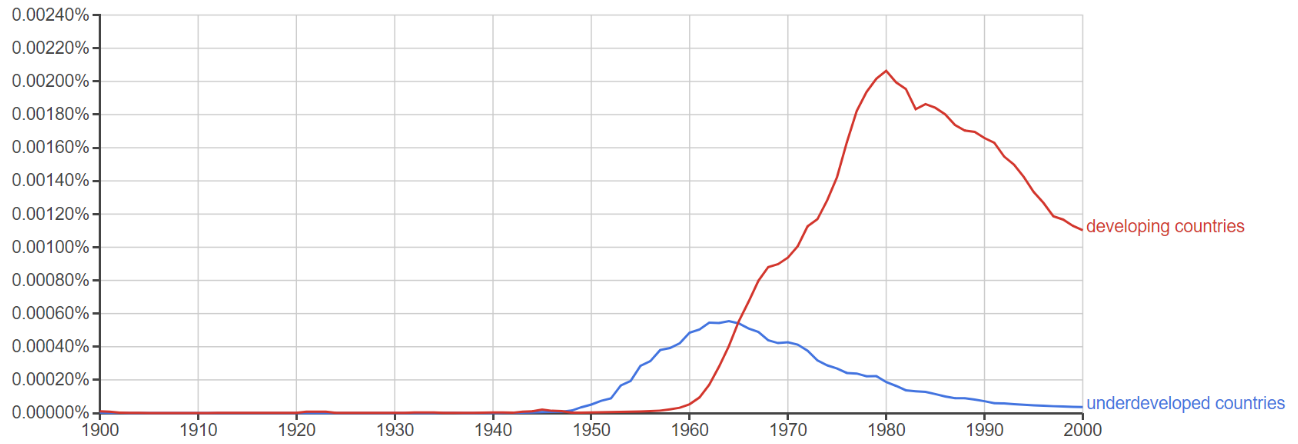

Fig. 1 – Frequency chart of the PUs ‘underdeveloped countries’ and ‘developing countries’

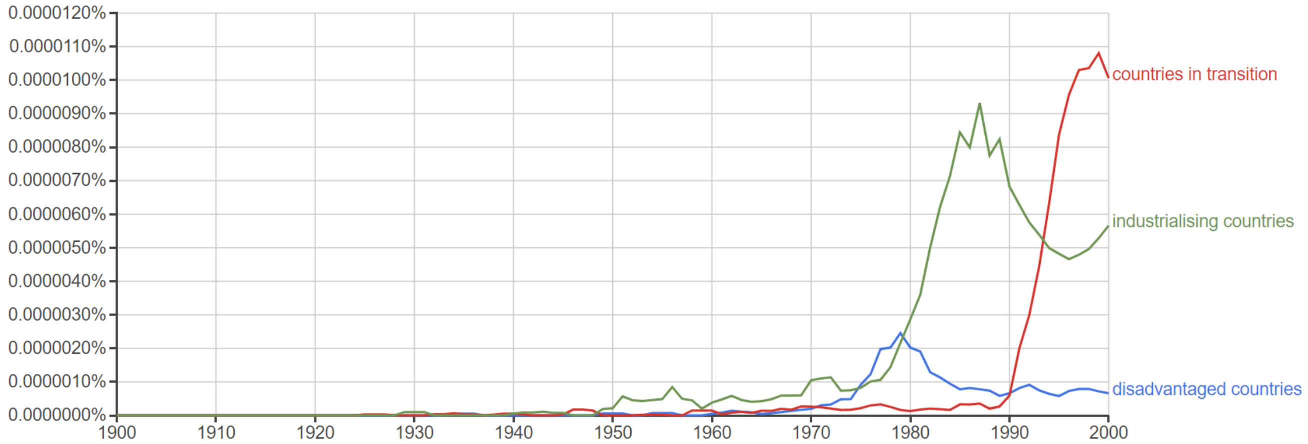

Fig. 2 – Frequency chart of the PUs ‘disadvantaged countries’, ‘developing countries’ and ‘countries in transition’

The study finds that all the highlighted PUs with the element ‘country’ have been able to perform a euphemistic function.

Let us consider the euphemistic potential of each lexical item separately.

The seme ‘development, progress’ in *developing country* immediately triggers positive associations in the reader’s mind. The expression seeks to airbrush reality, presenting the turbulent post-liberation period in a more positive light: (1961) “*In any new and **developing country**, leaders play a dominant role. This has been particularly true of the leaders in the African states, so many of which have acquired both independence and international stature in the past three years, and even during the past months”* [20]. The article fails to mention the economic and political instability, indebtedness and social unrest that the newly-liberated African countries had to face at that time. Such perception is further enhanced by lexical units with a positive connotation, i. e. *independence* and *international stature*:

The PU *a country in transition* is often resorted to in order to downplay the gravity of the current situation, since a transitional period is accompanied by instability and uncertainty**.** It comes as no surprise that the peak was registered in the 1990s. Following the breakup of the Soviet Union and the Soviet Bloc, the former members underwent major economic and political transformations. We should note, however, that the term is not limited in its application and may be used to refer to any country that is changing politically or economically: (2006) “*Tony Blair: ‘We have to recognise Indonesia has been a **country in transition**. What people recognise is how far that has moved since the current president came into office’”* [9]. The lexical correlates *how far* and *has moved* actualize the seme ‘movement, progress’ thereby showing the process of transition as a change for the better.

The PU *an industrializing country* defined by R. W. Holder as ‘a poor and relatively undeveloped state’ [15] displays a high euphemistic potential: the seme ‘progress, development in industry’ places an emphasis on the key area of development and its ongoing character. The phrases *cut off from the rest of the world, communication with the outside world was illegal* form an antonymic correlation with ‘industrialising country’ thus demonstrating a marked contrast between life in Iraq and life in Iran. The semantic opposition adds to the positive connotation of the PU: (2005) “*The Iraqi capital was cut off entirely from the rest of the world; ... communication with the outside world was not just controlled, as it is in Iran, but illegal. Tehran, on the other hand, looks and feels like the capital of a rapidly **industrialising country**”* [21].

The study shows that older euphemisms can develop slightly negative connotations, however the semantic opposition between poor and economically advanced countries is not clear enough to speak about semantic pejoration. The distinct negative emotive charge can be traced in the PUs containing the elements ‘underdeveloped’ and ‘disadvantaged’. It could have developed from the ideas behind the prefix *under*- (‘lower in status’; ‘insufficiently’, ‘incompletely’) and *dis*- (‘showing opposite or negative’) respectively [19].

The frequency of ‘underdeveloped’ peaked in the 1960s but declined within the following decades. The clearly negative connotation of the expression accounts for the decrease. The semantic opposition is illustrated in the following example with the poor countries being involved in agricultural activities and the economically advanced being the consumers: (1959) “*Secretary of State Christian A. Herter called on other prosperous industrial nations today to give more help in the task of aiding **underdeveloped countries**”* [14]. The concept also includes the idea of inequality: the writer compares underdeveloped countries to the needy and thereby arrives at the conclusion that inequality is a broad notion and it may reflect the unequal distribution of economic resources among countries.

Today the term is often applied to criticise advanced countries by comparing them to underdeveloped regions: (2018) “*It [the school] was not suitably upgraded and the conditions resemble those seen in documentaries about old-fashioned orphanages in **underdeveloped countries***” [18]. The attributes *the most chaotic, old-fashioned* enhance the negative evaluative component and add a note of contempt and deprecation.

The PU *a disadvantaged country* possesses a rather vague meaning, as it may be unclear what exactly is meant by ‘disadvantaged’: what particular domains of life it concerns, what events or processes are behind the current economic situation. Reinforced by the immediate context (*depletion of natural resources, heavy indebtedness, unstable prices,* etc.), a heavy emotive charge of the adjective ‘disadvantaged’ can sometimes produce a negative connotation: (1997) *“The present situation is particularly serious in economically **disadvantaged countries** burdened by depletion of natural resources, heavy indebtedness, unstable commodity prices and unfavourable trading systems.”* [17]

The expression *developing* often appears alongside the terms ‘developed countries’, ‘industrialized countries’ thus establishing a partial antonymic correlation. The concept of a developing country comprises the idea of scant financial resources and a dire need for foreign aid: (2013) “*Gender equality? The WEF ranks us behind Nicaragua and Lesotho. Investment by business? The Economist thinks we are struggling to keep up with Mali. Let me put it more broadly, Britain is a rich country accruing many of the stereotypical bad habits of a **developing country**”* [10]. The author shames Britain by likening it to a developing country in terms of gender equality and investment – areas in which developed countries are expected to set an example.

The PU *an industrializing country* describes a region where the shift from agricultural to industrial labour is under way, but it faces numerous challenges, such as indebtedness, shortages of resources, lower demand for certain skills leading to a higher unemployment rate. The recorded lexical correlates *emergency plan* and *energy shortages* indicate that the PU may acquire an occasional contextually bound negative connotation: (2016) “*In 2005, the government drew up an emergency coal production plan to curb the effects of huge, impending energy shortages in the rapidly **industrialising country**”* [12].

The idiom *banana republic*, unlike the ‘x + country’ collocations, admits of no structural modifications. The PU ‘banana republic’ is used to refer to “a small state that is politically unstable as a result of the domination of its economy by a single export controlled by foreign capital” [19]. The term came into existence in the early 19th century after it was coined by the American writer O. Henry to describe a fictional country in his collection of short stories ‘Cabbages and Kings’ [23].

From 1900s to 1930s the term was loosely applied to agricultural states in Latin America in connection with 1) their main economic activities or 2) the disadvantaged conditions people were forced to live in (*pestilential, malaria)*. The first group of contexts are surprisingly devoid of any negative connotation with lexical correlates suggesting an overall positive attitude (*train loads of green fruit, chief article of export, area under cultivation, we fully appreciated it*). It is worth mentioning that the cohesion between the elements ‘banana’ and ‘republic’ was weaker, in particular we have observed instances of ‘banana town’, ‘coffee republic’ in reference to Latin American countries. As it is seen in Fig. 4, the PUs ‘banana republic’ and ‘banana town’ had the same distribution in the 1940-50s, with the latter plummeting in the 1950s (Fig. 3).

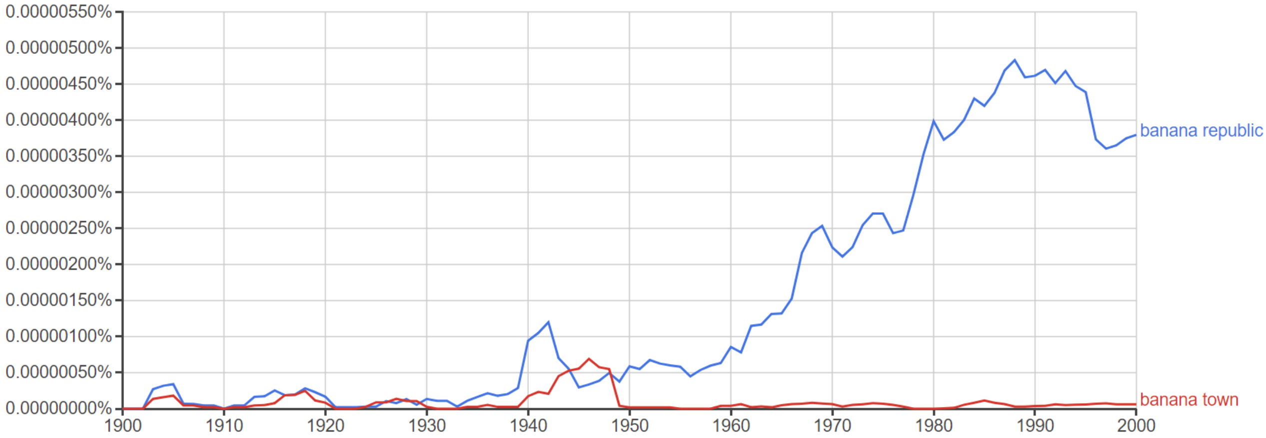

Fig. 3 – Frequency chart of the PUs ‘banana republic’ and ‘banana town’

Over the course of time the expression acquired new shades of meaning. The lexical correlates bring out the semes of instability (*peace and order problems, precarious, in jeopardy, instability*), backwardness (*semi-savage*), dependence and servitude (*would have been less advanced economically, dabbled in local affairs, submissive nations*), usurpation of power (*history of military dictatorships, the heavy hand of a dictator*).

As far as the connotational meaning is concerned, the PU carries a noticeably heavier emotive charge than in earlier contexts: *“Well, what could those little* ***banana republics*** *do, even if they had entered the war.”* [11, P. 14]. In the example, by resorting to the demonstrative pronoun *those*, the speaker expresses his contempt for ‘banana republics’, further enhanced by the adjective *little* – ‘relatively unimportant or trivial’ [19], while the conjunction *even if* implies the speaker’s skepticism about their military potential. The following example makes reference to the related phenomena (*banana fingers* and *banana boys*), which proves that the concept of the fruit itself has been subject to semantic pejoration: *“... we have all grown up to be contemptuous of bananas. We talk of* ***'banana republics'*** *and 'banana fingers' and 'banana boys'”* [22].

Within the last three decades the PU has seen a slight departure from its original denotational meaning while the connotational meaning has maintained its emotive potential. The expression ‘banana republic’ is less often used to refer to Latin American countries and their economic activities. The semes of political and economic instability (*about to implode, weight of its compounding debt*), non-democratic regime (*military leader, refused to allow the democratically-elected government to take office*; *tyrannical, cruel hypocrisy*) and political fraud (*fraud which would disgrace a 'banana republic'*) have come to the fore thus changing the referent. As the negative connotation has become entrenched in the minds of the English speaking community, the expression, due to its evaluative component, has gained traction and is now often used by journalists to criticize advanced countries (the USA, the UK, Germany) and faults in their political and socio-economic systems by comparing them to backward states: (2013) *“There are few acts more tyrannical than keeping innocent men captive. It is no secret that this has been happening at Guantanamo and that it is an intentional political choice. This dishonors America. It is a cruel hypocrisy that, ultimately, makes us no better than a* ***banana republic****”* [16].

Conclusion

Upon examination, the selected contexts allow us to make the conclusion that the phraseological units with high valency and transparent semantic motivation (*underdeveloped / industrialising* etc. country) tend to maintain their euphemistic potential for a long time period, even though the degree of reproducibility is in inverse proportion to the euphemistic property of a word combination. Although the semantic opposition between poor and economically advanced countries might be present in the context, the PUs under analysis may point to an overall positive trend. Considering frequency rate from the diachronic perspective, the euphemism ‘a developing country’ has remained at the top of the list for the last sixty years.

The term ‘banana republic’ has acquired new shades of meaning throughout its usage (political and economic instability, backwardness, dependence and servitude, usurpation of power and political fraud). The contextual analysis proves the expression was prone to a slight semantic change, as soon as it became a ready-made reproduction.

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ОТНОШЕНИЯ МЕЖДУ ОТГЛАГОЛЬНЫМИ ИМЕНАМИ И ПРИЧАСТИЯМИ В ОРХОНСКИХ ПАМЯТНИКАХ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Словоизменение и словообразование - два различных процесса морфологии, но у них нет строгих отличительных особенностей. Флективные суффиксы могут использоваться как для словообразования, так и для словоизменения в современных тюркских языках. Диахронический анализ тюркских языков иллюстрирует переход от грамматических суффиксов к лексическим. И это не единственный возможный процесс, с увеличением производительности и грамматикализации значений, словообразовательные морфемы, особенно суффиксы, образующие имена от глаголов в языке орхонских памятников, стали использоваться в глагольном словоизменении в современных тюркских языках.

Ключевые слова: тюркские языки, древнетюркский язык, словообразование, суффикс, грамматикализация, лексикализация.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DEVERBAL NOMINALS AND PARTICIPLES IN ORKHON INSCRIPTIONS

Research article

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Abstract

Inflection and derivation are two very different processes in morphology. However, there are not strict distinctive features between them. Inflectional suffixes can be used for word-formation and vice versa even in the modern Turkic languages. Diachronic analysis of Turkic languages demonstrates transformation from grammatical to lexical suffixes. It is not the only possible process, because with the increasing productivity and the grammaticalization of meaning, derivational morphemes, especially suffixes making nominals from verbs in the language of Orkhon Inscriptions began to be used in verbal inflection in the modern Turkic.

Keywords: Turkic languages, Old Turkic, word-formation, suffix, grammaticalization, lexicalization.

Introduction

Orkhon Inscriptions are among the oldest examples of Turkic written language. Therefor they are very significant for turkological researches. There are some word-formation features in the language of Orkhon Inscriptions that are interesting for turkology, including lexicalization and grammaticalization of derivational suffixes. The processes lexicalization and grammaticalization are especially found in derivational suffixes that make nouns and adjectives from verbs. Analyses prove that some derivational suffixes that make new words from verbs in Orkhon Inscriptions are used as the markers of infinitive verb forms in modern Turkic languages.

Method

Methodology of this research is based on general linguistics and turkology. We use the descriptive method, morphematical analysis and comparative method as the base method of our paper.

Discussion

Many turkologists mention change from inflectional to derivational suffixes in Turkic languages when they talk about the use of the suffixes of participles as derivational suffixes [10, P. 190], although the material of Orkhon Inscriptions proves an opposite process.

We are not going to show the properties of these morphemes that are close to derivational ones, we are going to talk about their usage as regular derivational suffixes in Orkhon Inscriptions and compare it to their functions in modern Turkic.

We look at this process as a special type of grammaticalization. But most of the researchers focus on the change from words and word roots to suffixes when they talk about grammaticalization, they do not usually mention the change from lexical suffixes to grammatical ones, i.e. derivation to inflection [6, P. 6].

Some suffixes that functions as markers of participles in modern Turkic are used to make nouns and adjectives from verbs in Orkhon Turkic. This process occurs as these suffixes become more common and began to be added to every verb regardless their meaning. These suffixes include not only basic suffixes like *-γan*, *-γu*, but also complex suffixes, namely *-γučï* and *-maqčï*.

Results

The suffix *-γan* is one the main markers of participle and past tense in the modern Turkic. It is mainly used in Turkic languages, except Oghuz group. In Orkhon Inscriptions, however, this suffix was registered as a suffix making nouns and adjectives from verbs.

In Orkhon Inscriptions the words made with *-γan* include the following:

Qapaγan ‘conqueror’, ‘personal name’ (Ongin 4): *qap-* ‘to catch’, ‘to conquer’.

Qorγan ‘fortress’ (BK east 31): *qorï-* ‘to protect’ [14, P. 90].

Tabïsγan ‘hare, rabbit’ (T 8): **tap-/*tab-* ‘to move quickly, to gallop, to jump’, and **tabïs-/*tabïš-* is the cooperative voice of that verb.

Participles with the suffix *-γan* are widespread in the modern Turkic languages: *ǯaqšï bilgen* ‘knowing well’, *mektepke ketken oquuču* ‘the student who went to school’, *ǯasay turgan išterim* ‘my works to be done’ (Kirg.) [15, P. 273-282].

The derivational function of *-γan* still exists in some Turkic languages: *čalïšgan* ‘hard-working’, *burulγan* ‘whirlpool’ (Azerb.), *yapïšqan* ‘sitcky’ (Tur.), *talqan* ‘oat’ (Karak.); *ǯarïlγan* ‘cleft’, *alǯaγan* ‘mad’ (Kar.-Bal.); *tutbaγan* ‘captive’ (Sal.). The grammaticalization of the morpheme *-γan* began not so late, in Chaghatai, it was used as a suffix of participle, e.g. *alγan* ‘buying, bought’, *kelgen* ‘coming, came’, and even as a suffix of past tense; Samarqandnï Iskender binā *qïlγandïr* ‘Iskender established Samarqand’ [4, P. 53].

Some turkologists claim that the derivational function of the morpheme *-γan* is older than its inflectional function [12, P. 446]. To our opinion, the morpheme *-γan* became the suffix of participle, because as a derivational suffix, it also depicted the subject of the action.

The suffix *-γu*. There is not a final decision regarding this suffix among the linguists. While A.N. Kononov demonstrates this suffix as morpheme semantically related to future participle [7, P. 90], T. Tekin claims that it makes the nouns depicting the name of the action and its subjects [14, P. 90]. A.M. Scherbak assumed that one of the meanings given by this suffix is present-future tense [11, P. 159]. J. Eckmann calls its meaning ‘requirement-future’ [4, P. 54].

In Orkhon Inscriptions, this suffix was used in the following instances:

Qor(ï)γu ‘guard’ (BK east 41): *qorï-* ‘to protect’.

Kürägü ‘rebel, runaway’ (KT east 23): *küre-* ‘to run away’.

Qaraγu ‘guard’ (T 53): *qara-* ‘to look’.

-γu continued its life as a derivative suffix in the later times. The use of *-γu* in those stages of Turkic language history is proved by written monuments. Here are some examples: *urunγu* ‘fighter’, *bïčγu* ‘knife’, *sorγu* ‘saw’, *bilägü* ‘grindstone’, *keẑgü* ‘cloth, garment’. The suffix *-γu* was used as marker of future participle beginning from the same monuments, like *qïlmaqu qïlïnč* ‘the work that will not/must not be done’, *qutqarqu tïnlïγlar* ‘the creatures that will/might be rescued’ [5, P. 56], *yürügüdä turur* ‘goes in front of the army’ (Oghuz Kaghan, 13th c.); *ičkü yegü bilä mäšγul ärmiš* ‘was busy with drinking and eating’ (Old Uzb.) [11, P. 159]. And this process continued until now: *mingi* at ‘a horse to ride’ (Karak.) [1, P. 406].

The information given above does not deny the role of *-γu* as a derivative suffix in modern Turkic languages, e.g. *bölgü* ‘distribution’ (Azerb.), *burγu* ‘brace’, *bilgi* ‘knowledge’ (Tur.), *külgü* ‘laughter’ (Uigh.), *pïčqï* ‘saw’ (Tat.), *durqu* ‘threshing-floor’, *ačïtxï* ‘yeast’ (Kar.-Bal.).

The suffix *-γučï*. *-γučï* is another suffix that was used to make nominals from verbs in Orkhon Inscriptions.

Aγγučï ‘adviser’ (T 10): *aγ-* ‘to say’. It was also used as the suffix of participle in the word *itgüči* ‘making’: Barq *itgüči* bediz yaratïγma bitig taš *itgüči* Tabγač qaγan čïqanï Čang Sengün kelti (KT north 13) ‘Tabghach kaghan’s nephew Chang Sengun who makes buildings, creates ornaments, makes written monuments came’. *Itgüči* is used together with the participle *yaratïγma* ‘creating’, and the suffix *-γučï* is added the second parts of the constructions *barq it-güči* ‘making building’ and *bitig taš it-güči* ‘making written monuments’ which is typical for the markers of participles.

Even though there were traces of it as a derivational suffix, e.g. *ölürgüči* ‘murderer’, *qolγučï* ‘beggar’, *čihišguǯi* ‘thief’ (Sal.), *satγuǯï* ‘seller’, *čörulγuǯi* ‘sly’; *bileuču* ‘grinder’, *ǯïrlaučï* ‘singer’ (Kar.-Bal.); *-γučï* and its modern phonetic variation *-uvčï* continued their function as the suffixes of participle in the later stages of Turkic language history: *qïnaγučï* ‘torturing’, *tapïnγučï* ‘obeying’(Kashghari), *olip borγuvči* ‘taking’ (Uzb.); *degüči* ‘story-teller’, *kezgüči* ‘traveller’ (Chag.).

-γučï is a complex suffix made from *-γu* and *-čï* which is a derivative suffix making nouns from nouns.

The suffix *-maqčï*. This suffix also became the suffix of participle in modern period, for instance, *kälmäkši adam* ‘a man who will come’ (Kaz.), *a°lma°qči bulip* ‘decided to buy’ (Uzb.); *ǯiymekši* ‘the one who will eat’, *išpekši* ‘the one who will drink’ (Karak.). In some modern Turkic languages it functions even as a suffix of future tense: *barmaqčïman* ‘I will go’ (Kirg.), *uqïmaqčïmïn* ‘I will read’ (Tat.) [11, P. 162].

This suffix was used only once in the language of Orkhon Inscriptions: *armaqčï* ‘lier’: ...tabγač bodun täbligin kürlig üčün, *armaqčïsïn* üčün… (KT east 6) ‘…because Tabghach people were cunning and sly, because they were liers…’ This noun was formed from the word *ar-* ‘to deceive, to lie’ (KT south 5).

Conclusion

The change from derivative suffixes to the inflectional ones occurred in Turkic languages, as well as the opposite process. The main reason of the lexicalization of inflectional suffixes is the petrification of grammatical forms as independent words, but the reason of the grammaticalization of derivational suffixes can be seen in the increase of the productivity of those morphemes. When the suffix begins to be added to each member of the same word class, the derivational function of this morpheme vanishes and this suffix transforms into an inflectional one. The grammaticalization of the derivational suffixes to the indicators of participle is a productive process in Turkic languages and the oldest traces of grammaticalization belong to the language of Orkhon Inscriptions.

Another thought on this matter claims that the functions of grammatical and lexical suffixes in the ancient written monuments of Turkic languages are similar [2, P. 5]. This process is proved with the words used in Orkhon Turkic.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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ЭМОЦИОНАЛЬНАЯ ОБУСЛОВЛЕННОСТЬ РЕЧЕВОГО ПОВЕДЕНИЯ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Статья затрагивает проблему категоричного и некатегоричного речевого поведения, обусловленного определенным эмоциональным состоянием говорящего субъекта на примере чувств уверенности и неуверенности с точки зрения прототипического подхода к исследованию. Чувство неуверенности как реакция на такие базовые эмоции, как испуг и стыд, показывает неспособность человека им противостоять; чувство уверенности, в свою очередь, является способностью индивида контролировать как свое эмоциональное состояние, так и речевое поведение. Средством языковой репрезентации исследуемых феноменов выступают категоричное и некатегоричное высказывания.

Ключевые слова: речевое поведение, чувства, категоричность / некатегоричность, уверенность / неуверенность, прототипический сценарий.

EMOTIONAL CONDITIONALITY OF VERBAL BEHAVIOUR

Research article

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Abstract

The relation between the categoricity and non-categoricity of verbal behaviour can be investigated through the opposition of their emotional or, rather, sensual, components – certainty and uncertainty phenomena, which are analyzed in terms of prototypical scenario. A feeling of uncertainty arises as a reaction to such basic emotions as fright and shame – social fears of a personal nature and displays person's inability to fight them. A feeling of certainty, in its turn, is a capability of a person to control negative emotions and to return to a stable emotional state. Certainty and uncertainty phenomena are realized on all levels of linguistic system, the means of their linguistic representation are, respectively, categorical and non-categorical statements.

Keywords: speech behaviour, feelings, categoricity /non-categoricity, certainty/uncertainty, prototypical scenario.

Introduction

Emotions or, rather, feelings are included in the structure of the individual and constitute the so-called 'personality profile' – a set of traits where among them there are certainty and uncertainty, self-confidence and obedience, tact and faux pas [8], as well as sensitivity/nervousness vs. security/confidence [3]. The verbal behaviour of a person is caused by his/her emotional state.

Categorical verbal behaviour (categoricity, overstatement) is characterized by confidence, peremptoriness, indelicacy, and tactlessness. The statement of a categorical person is clear and univocal; it can also be sharp, abrupt, rude and impolite. This is caused by two reasons, first: the existence of knowledge (true or full information) and, second: speaker's particular emotional state – feeling of self-confidence or over-confidence [12].

Psychological studies of the emotional stability of an individual describe different values of the categoricity factor: a high value of this factor is observed in people who do not have the flexibility, diplomacy, stick unabashed to their opinion, who are unable to see undertones and find reasonable compromises, who are often hysterical, rushing from extremes to extremes. A low value of this factor is associated with self-doubt, insecurity, passivity, inability or unwillingness to express unequivocally their desires and to make concrete decisions.

Non-categorical verbal behaviour (politeness, understatement), in its turn, displays uncertainty, unpredictability, hesitancy, and courtesy [11]. The person with non-categorical verbal behaviour is insecure, feels uncertain that something is true; his\her discourse is categorized by ambiguity, polysemy, variability, and doubt due to the lack of reliable information (deficit in knowledge) or unstable emotional state.

The relation between the categoricity and non-categoricity of verbal behaviour can be investigated through the opposition of their nuclear emotional or, rather, sensual, components – certainty/confidence and uncertainty/insecurity, which are analyzed in terms of prototypical scenario.

Method

The necessity to move beyond the 'objectivistic approach' to the language on the one hand and an active development of various methods of analysis of the cognitive structures' correlation on the other one marked the emergence of prototype theory (see for instance: [9; 17].

Prototype can be interpreted from the psychological and cognitive viewpoints. In the first case it is 'the best model', 'central, or a typical element of the category'; prototypicality in the category, according to George Lakoff [6], lies in the fact that the central members of the category (closer to the prototype) in comparison with off-center ones display other cognitive characteristics: they are more quickly identified, more frequently used. From the cognitive viewpoint prototype is a stereotype, an ideal, a scheme, a concept that defines the content of the category the basis of which it forms; it is, in terms of John R. Taylor [10], a central member of the category, a schematic representation of its (category) conceptual nucleus.

Emotions can be defined in terms of a prototypical situation and a prototypical reaction to it, at the heart of each of them there is a prototypical situation, which is understood as a characteristic of a typical situation in which a definite emotion arises. Since “the concept of ‘emotion’ is culture-bound and cannot be similarly relied on” and “the concept of ‘feeling’ is universal and can be safely used in the investigation of human experience and human nature”(see for the details: [14]), certainty and uncertainty phenomena, can also be analyzed from the prototypical point of view, to be exact in terms of prototypical scenario.

Discussion

In Western European philosophy uncertainty as lack of knowledge is understood as a source of fear. According to Western philosophers, knowledge is a means of fear escape, since the lack of experience and ignorance of the individual determine fear’s occurrence. The fears of the individual disappear or weaken as experience accustoms it to the manifestations of nature; he calms down as soon as recognizes or imagines that he recognizes the causes of the phenomena he observes and gets acquainted with the means to avoid their actions(see for example: [2; 7]). This is confirmed by the studies of linguists dealing with the problems of Germanic languages, in particular A. Wierzbicka, who studying the phenomena of certainty and uncertainty in English and German, speaks about certainty and Sicherheit as about confidence, security, safety (*certain* / *gewiss*; *certainty* / *gewissheit*) and about uncertainty as the opposite phenomenon, that causes fear [13; 15].

However, there is also the opposite point of view, which is usually associated with the name of the German-American philosopher Erich Fromm, according to his research the world around the individual, in particular the society, is hostile towards him [5]. Knowledge (experience, the benefits of civilization) alienates a person from a sense of confidence; a fear of losing what one has leads a person to anxiety and, as a consequence, to the uncertainty.

According to psychological studies, up to three years a person does not know a feeling of insecurity, because his personality has not developed yet (he has no experience), he has a feeling of confidence, he is protected by his ignorance (lack of knowledge). Then comes awareness (conscious knowledge) of his own imperfection (helplessness), fear appears and, therefore, a feeling of uncertainty. With the reception of “freedom of choice”, awareness of identity, isolation from something whole and holistic (primarily from the mother) a person gets feelings of anxiety and uncertainty. From this it follows that fear and uncertainty are caused by knowledge.

The researches of the ego-psychologist Erik H. Erikson display that in the second stage of personality development (autonomy and doubt / shame) from 1 year to 3 years (later infancy), in the normal line of developing, independence and confidence are formed, in anomalous line – doubt and hypertrophied sense of shame occur [4]. Therefore, uncertainty is the product of a person’s socialization.

Results

The scenarios of certainty and uncertainty take place in case of a specific, definite danger or threat, where fear causes a feeling of insecurity or self-confidence, and, as a consequence, non-categorical or categorical verbal behaviour.

In the English language, a prototypical scenario of certainty feeling includes such items as:

1. The emergence of danger (threat);
2. Fear or shame;
3. An afford/attempt to control negative emotion;
4. A successful attempt and, as a consequence, a feeling of confidence;
5. A return to a stable emotional state;

A short scheme of the scenario is *knowledge – overcoming fear – confidence – emotional stability*.

Certainty is the result of a victory over person’s self-importance and fears.

The behaviour of a confident man represents inner strength, determination to perform certain actions and the resoluteness to carry it out. The signs of certainty can be either external (those that are accessible to the addressee or the observer): a direct fixed look, sure bodily movements, a straight back, an express and clear speaking, often in a loud voice, an obvious ability to stand up for oneself and one’s belief; and internal ones (available in the sensations to the speaker himself): ability and / or willingness to make a decision, to give an order and to demand its fulfillment. For example, the prototypical paralinguistic representation of the order as a component of the certainty/confidence domain is, in our opinion, the “a pointing finger” – silent imperative.

Certainty phenomenon displays the existence of knowledge as well as a feeling of knowing (the existence of sureness). A man of certainty produces the statement, which, in his/her opinion, reflects the objective reality, so he/she is sure about its correctness and verity. That is why such a statement includes predicates of knowledge: *to know, be aware*, and of a stable emotional state: *be sure, be certain*. As a rule, such a statement is either an assertion (fact), where the nuclear grammatical unit is the forms of the Indicative Mood, or an inducement: order, requirement, demand, where the grammatical core is the forms of the Imperative Mood.

The prototypical scenario of uncertainty feeling, in its turn, unfolds as follows:

1. The emergence of danger (threat);
2. Fear or shame;
3. An afford/attempt to control negative emotion;
4. Unsuccessful attempt and as a result:

a) uncertainty, lack of confidence, emotional instability (panic, hysterics);

b) inhibition (stupor);

c) a feeling of overconfidence, the escalation of an unstable emotional state, aggressiveness, and categorical speech behaviour. Person’s aggressiveness, in this case, is just a compensation for his/her feelings of insecurity.

A short scheme of the scenario is *knowledge – not overcoming fear – uncertainty – unstable emotional state*.

The behaviour of an uncertain person, as a rule, is characterized by a non-fixed gaze, crooked shoulders (the “hump” of guilt), quiet voice, slurred speech, ambiguity of expression. Prototypical paralinguistic representation of uncertainty is shrugging shoulders.

Since uncertainty has both an informational component (a deficit in knowledge) and a subjective component (a feeling of not knowing), as it was mentioned in the paper of Yoav Bar-Anan, Timothy D. Wilson, and Daniel T. Gilbert [1, P. 123], it is possible to speak about this phenomenon as an expression of distrust, disbelief and hidden objection, and as well as about indecision and hesitation of the speaker.

A man of uncertainty creates a non-categorical statement, which contains predicates of mental activity, opinion and supposition: *to think*, *be uncertain*, *doubt*, *suppose*; a predicate of knowledge in the negative form *I don’t know*, as well as the predicate of fear *to be afraid* in its secondary meaning – to express the phenomenon of understatement or an uncertain supposition (assumption). The main grammatical means of expression of a non-categorical statement is the forms of the Subjunctive Mood.

Person’s self-confidence as well as his/her self-doubt becomes obvious through non-verbal, paralinguistic characteristics and is marked by the presence of the observer: *he was in doubt*; *she looked uncertain*. Assurance in somebody or uncertainty about something are labeled by the speaker himself: *I am sure*, *I hesitate*; *I am in doubt*.

Conclusion

A feeling of uncertainty, a sense of insecurity, is a reaction to a basic emotion – fear. Fear is a kind of defense reaction, a signal of a possible danger (threat). Uncertainty as person’s inability to make a decision on his own, as a physical sensation of lack of energy becomes accessible to the observer through the uncertain verbal or non-verbal (definite physiological symptoms) speaker’s behaviour. A feeling of uncertainty/insecurity can also arise from a reaction to such basic emotions as surprise (fright) and shame as self-detestation (humiliation) – social fears of a personal nature. A feeling of certainty, in its turn, is a capability of a person to control negative emotions and to return to a stable emotional state.

Certainty and uncertainty phenomena are realized on all the levels of linguistic system, the means of their linguistic representation are respectively categorical and non-categorical statements which rest on a particular bulk of linguistic means of expression that are perfectly adapted to its realization and affect the addressee’s behaviour with the help of resoluteness, confidence, assuredness and unpredictability or, on the contrary, hesitancy, courtesy and understatement.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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TEXT LINGUISTICS, DISCOURSE ANALYSIS. TYPOLOGICAL LINGUISTICS (UDC 81`4)

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СПЕЦИФИКА СТРОЕНИЯ ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО ЯЗЫКОВОГО СОЗНАНИЯ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

В статье представлены теоретические положения исследования профессиональной детерминированности языкового сознания. Рассматриваются отличия таких ментальных структур как «мышление» «менталитет» «сознание». Показано, как языковое сознание связано с деятельностью человека на всех этапах его социализации. Обосновывается зависимость особенностей языкового сознания от социальных факторов, культуры и профессионального рода занятий индивида. Данные теоретические положения могут служить основой для исследования языковых сознаний представителей различных профессиональных групп и сообществ.

Ключевые слова: языковое сознание, профессиональная детерминированность, структура деятельности.

SPECIFICS OF PROFESSIONALLY MARKED LINGUISTIC CONSCIOUSNESS STRUCTURE

Research article

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Abstract

The article presents the theoretical considerations of the study of professional determinism of linguistic consciousness. The distinctions of such mental structures as “mind” “mentality” “consciousness” are discussed. It has been argued that linguistic consciousness is connected with human activity on all stages of socialization. There is a certain dependence of linguistic consciousness on social factors, culture and professional occupation of an individual. The proposed theoretical postulates can serve as a basis for the study of linguistic consciousness of the representatives of various professional groups and communities.

Keywords: linguistic consciousness, professional determinism, structure of activity.

Introduction

All theoretical considerations about linguistic consciousness are based on the necessity of sorting out such concepts as “mind”, “mentality” and “consciousness”. These concepts are used to describe the processes of perception and understanding of the real world by a man. Alongside, these concepts reflect the interaction of a person with his surrounding reality, including his professional sphere. There is one common thing that unites the three above concepts, specifically; it is the fact that they characterize the effect of the cognitive-reception mechanism. But it is also obvious that each of those concepts has a unique content, and they can not be considered as synonyms. Semantic fields and lexical-semantic fields can be regarded as the indicators of the specifics of the linguistic consciousness structure. The research of these fields makes available some important information regarding the peculiarities of the organization of linguistic mentality. On top of that, the study of the organization of a semantic field can provide undeniable evidence about the activity nature and the professional determinism of linguistic consciousness.

Methodology

It is important to clarify the distinctions between such concepts as “mind”, “mentality” and “consciousness”. All of them denote a general capacity for mental activity. “Mind” and “mentality” describe any awareness of thinking processes or any meaningful activity of living creatures [8] whereas the term “mentality” is more applicable in the situations where it is essential to emphasize the national-cultural specifics of the perceptual mechanism. The concept “mentality” designates the mechanisms of perception «…attributed not only to an abstract reflexive subject, but also to a representative of a particular ethnic or social group» [4, P. 5]. The term “mentality” is most commonly used in such areas as: national psychology, intercultural communication, psycholinguistics and sociolinguistics. Certain communities are characterized by similar stereotypes of consciousness that predetermine the specificity of the process of their perception of reality and this mental unity is called mentality.

Human consciousness is conditioned through accepting cultural, ethnic, axiological and socio-economic features of the environment. Linguistic consciousness, as an integral part of human consciousness since it is connected with speech activity, and speech activity is culturally, axiologically and ethnically marked: «There can be hardly any objections against the statement about the national and cultural determinism of linguistic consciousness» [11, P. 59]. Also, it has been proved that «…different psychological attitudes and sets predetermine the perception of environment» [6, P. 11]. This postulate is based on the theory of the socio-cultural determination of personality, which has been developed by L.S. Vygotsky [1] and *J. Piaget [10] and their disciples [9]*. The connection of linguistic consciousness with reality, social being and professional activity of an individual is obvious and it has been proved by many studies in the field of psychology and psycholinguistic.

In the development of an individual's consciousness, a crucial role belongs to objective activity, which has been convincingly described in the works of A.N. Leontiev and A.A. Leontiev. In his monograph "Activity. Consciousness. Personality", A.N. Leontyev examines the relationship between such key concepts as "consciousness and activity" (Chapter 4) and "personality and activity" (Chapter 5) [3].

Objective activity plays a crucial role in the process of the evolution of consciousness of an individual. As well, the role of objective activity in the development of a human's personality is of vital importance. A.N. Leontyev argues that objective activity is the main "generator" of an individual. There is another assumption that has to be taken into consideration at this point – objective activity is the basis for the formation of any individual. A.N. Leontyev has provided a sound explanation of the relationship between professional activity and the mentality of an individual. He affirms that in the course of a human mentality studies, the category of objective human activity is believed to be the basis of internal structure. This category helps to judge about human's personality mediations and the forms of mental reflections. Besides, the examination of a human mentality helps answering the question about the constituents of a permanent psychological basis of a personality. The set of these constituents predetermine the characteristic of a person precisely as a person. Finally, A.N. Leontyev draws the conclusion that the real basis of a human's personality is the totality of his public attitudes towards the world. These attitudes are realized through a human's activity or the combination of his diverse activities [3, P. 89].

As seen, the activity aspect of the personality is directly connected with the reflexive mechanism operation. Only living beings possess an ability to reflect actively on the surrounding reality, which is described as operation of a reflex mechanism. There is another conclusion that can be drawn so far – awareness of reality is an activity by itself. A human's activity is impossible without the mechanism of perception, which mediates the majority of mental processes and reactions.

Thus, the link between human's mentality and linguistic consciousness on the one hand and human's activity on the other hand has been demonstrated in the theoretical works and practical studies of the Russian psycholinguists and psychologists. Specifically, the crucial importance of objective activity in the genesis of consciousness has been analyzed. According to Russian psycholinguists and psychologists, both external and internal activities are mediated and regulated by the psychical reflection of the reality. In the objective world, there exist motives, goals and conditions that predestinate human's activity. At first, the information that is received as the result of reflection, must be perceived and understood. Then, this information is retained in a human's memory in one way or another; and finally, it is presented and reproduced in different forms. This mechanism functions along with a human's activity mechanism and it can be applied towards a human state and his features. What is really important for us is the fact that motives, goals and conditions of an individual's activity predetermine the processes of perception and representation. They predetermine the specificity of the conditions of perception and the essence of perceived information. As well, motives, goals and conditions of an individual's activity mediate the professional activity characteristics. Thus, any act of speech perception and speech production can be regarded as professionally determined activity.

Discussion

All images of consciousness can be divided into those that are created as a result of sensory perception and those that are created as a result of information perception. However, all types of images acquire an individualized character as a result of the acquisition of knowledge generated by particular socio-cultural and professional groups. Correlation and comparison of information is an obligatory stage in the appearance of images of consciousness. As for sensory images, they are the result of processing sensory data. The process of perception starts when a person derives from his memory a certain image, the content of which comprises the knowledge of the culture of a particular society. This mechanism embeds sensual images in the system of cultural knowledge.

E.F. Tarasov argues that consciousness exists as an objective reality, and every member of a society has an opportunity to internalize through interpersonal communication. Consciousness of an individual is a social product, because in its design, one can figure out an individual's belonging to a certain social group. Moreover, consciousness of an individual has an impact of an individual's belonging to a certain professional group [7]. If one applies a well-known theory of socio-cultural development by L.S. Vygotsky, then, it is appropriate to make the following comparison. Just as a child participates in the cultural events of a particular society, an adult, at the beginning of his professional activity, is attached to the culture of a certain professional community. In this way, one can speak about the internalization of knowledge that occurs in social interaction in a certain professional environment and that affects the formation of the professional linguistic consciousness of an individual.

Linguistic consciousness is associated with language, and with various spheres of human activity. Consciousness, as a conscious process, has its own arsenal of linguistic means that verbally represent the professional sphere of an individual. For example, all kinds of professional discourse practices, professional terms and terminology reveal the representatives of a certain professional knowledge. Thus, we can talk about the existence of a segment of language consciousness, determined by the professional activity of a native speaker. In order to create the ground for the statement about the professional marking of linguistic consciousness, it is important to mention the fact of interconnection of the linguistic consciousness of the members of a society with the whole sum of knowledge accumulated by this society.

Conclusion

To sum up, taking into consideration everything what has been said above, we can draw three important conclusions. First, the professional community is a micro-society. When an individual becomes a member of this society he becomes inevitably attached to a certain system of knowledge, which ultimately affects the formation of the images of his consciousness. Secondly, the part of a culture of a certain society is a professional culture, and while acquiring it, an individual comprehends all verbal representations of this culture. Finally, special communicative spaces are formed in all social-professional spheres; there exist culturally marked professional genres and culturally marked strategies of communication [5, P. 55]. It has been proved that all social-professional spheres have objective structure and the system of genres. If professional diversification happens on the level of language and discourse, then, linguistic consciousness of the representatives of various professional languages should be different as well [2; P. 128].

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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АЛГОРИТМ ОБРАБОТКИ РЕЗУЛЬТАТОВ ПСИХОЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ ТЕСТОВ ДЛЯ ФОРМИРОВАНИЯ ПРОЕКТНОЙ ГРУППЫ

Научная статья

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Аннотация

Формирование проектной группы является важной и актуальной задачей. Это связано с тем, что именно от того, насколько слаженно и эффективно будут работать участники проектной группы, зависят результаты ее работы. В статье предлагается еще одна методика формирования проектной группы. Она основана на учете метапрограмм, свойственных личности. Исследования показывают, что метапрограммы, проявляемые в речи, являются по сути установками, определяющими особенности поведения личности и ее реакции на события. Так как определение метапрограмм является сложным процессом, требующим привлечения экспертов и временных затрат, то разработка алгоритма, позволяющего автоматизировано формировать проектную группу и определять роль каждого из ее участников, является важной задачей, поскольку позволит значительно снизить временные затраты и зависимость от эксперта. В алгоритме можно выделить следующие этапы: предобработка; поиск заданных слов в тексте; формирование карточки метапрограмм; сравнение с шаблонами и присвоение роли; формирование проектной группы; визуализация. В статье подробно описаны все этапы работы алгоритма, а также приводятся результаты его тестирования. Результаты показали, что процент совпадения итоговых значений, полученных в ходе автоматизированной обработки, с мнением эксперта составил 89%. При этом были сформированы полные проектные группы. Проверка работы полученных проектных групп на практике была проведена для тестовой выборки. Результат оправдал ожидания – группы работали слаженно, оперативно и показали хорошие результаты.

Ключевые слова: психолингвистика, алгоритм, проектная группа, тестирование, автоматизация.

ALGORITHM FOR PROCESSING OF THE RESULTS OF PSYCHOLINGUISTIC TESTS FOR THE FORMATION OF A PROJECT TEAM

Research article

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Abstract

The formation of a project team is an important and urgent task. This is due to the fact that the results depend on how well and efficiently the participants of the project team work. The article suggests one more method of forming a project team. It is based on considering the meta-programs peculiar to the individual. Studies show that meta-programs are manifested in a speech of a person and can be defined as basic settings that determine the characteristics of his behavior and reaction to events. The definition of meta-programs is a complex process, requiring the involvement of experts and time-consuming, so the development of an algorithm that allows to form a project team and determine the role of each of its participants is an important task. It will allow people to work with meta-programs even if they are not experts. The algorithm can be divided into the following stages: preprocessing; search for given words in the text; formation of a meta-program card; comparison with templates and role assignment; formation of a project team; visualization. The title describes in detail all the steps of the algorithm. Also the results of testing the algorithm are given. The test results showed that percentage of match with the expert's opinion was 89%. In this case, complete project teams were formed. The verification of the work was carried out for the test sample. The result met expectations – the teams worked smoothly, quickly, and showed good results.

Keywords: psycholinguistics, algorithm, project team, testing, automation.

Introduction

Development of modern information systems and software applications is not an easy task. This requires not only skills of using of various software implementation tools, but also a large number of professional competence and only a small part of them can be categorized as basic. Others are expert. They are interdisciplinary and reflect complex aspects of the development of information systems. More than that some of the competence such as design development, content creation, that are necessary during the development of modern information systems can be hardly attributed to the competence of a programmer.

Therefore, development of most information systems is carried out by project teams. The project team is a temporary organizational formation of people with a leader at the head. It includes all the necessary specialists and allows activities usually aimed at achieving one common goal.

It should be mentioned that members of project teams should not only carry out assigned tasks, but also make decisions on design issues and other occurring problems.

That’s why accuracy of selection of project team members is one of the most important features that determines efficiency of design and implementation of information systems and quality of the work of all project team. This statement is confirmed by the results of the analysis of studies on this problem and by questioning of employers and members of project team.

Despite the fact that there are methods for the formation of project teams, there is no method or a group of methods that are currently acknowledged. Also, the analysis shows that this problem is still relevant.

One of the possible ways to solve the problem is to define a role in a project team based on psycholinguistic tests.

The most effective way to do this is to process the results of the test automatically, because manual processing requires a lot of efforts as well as special knowledge.

General description of the methodology.

The meta-program method was chosen as the basis for determining the personal qualities corresponding to a particular role in the project team. Meta-programs can be identified as unconsciously used ways of thinking of the person underlying his behavior. Being the attitude, they determine the specific of perception of surrounding world and the ways of response to internal and external stimuli [5], [9], [11].

One of the features of meta-programs is that they are almost impossible to simulate [6], [7]. A set of identified metaprograms defines a meta-program portrait of a person.

Meta-programs can be defined by several ways, but the most simple and fast is the study of human speech. It is possible to use both oral and written speech. Taking into account further automated processing to define meta-programs, we chose written form of a test. The questions were formulated as open-ended in order to get detailed answers. For example:

– You were charged to execute a new project. What will you start with?

– Do you successfully enter a new team? Why do you think so?

– Your colleague slightly breaks the internal regulations. What would you do?

Some of the questions were related to the behavior in the professional field as the results of defined meta-programs will be used to determine a role in a project team [4].

After holding the test, the process of interpretation of the results can be started.

The processing of the results of a test consists in finding specific words or phrases in responses of respondents. It should be taken into account that a set of tokens, we are looking for, is different for each meta-program. Therefore, each question in a test is related to a certain meta-program [8].

Most of meta-programs are represented in pairs as two opposite meanings (characteristics) that reflects diametrically opposed ways of human thinking. Also one of the intermediate values can be obtained. This means that characteristics of a meta-program are expressed equally, or one of them prevails. The degree of expression of each characteristic depends on the number of words or phrases found in a text and related to a particular way of human thinking.

Counting of found words allows to define the meaning of meta-program.

Knowing the meaning of each meta-program, it is possible to create meta-program portrait of a person [1], [3].

As each role in a project team has a certain degree of expression of characteristics in a meta-program portrait we can define a role which corresponds to a person, just by comparing the meta-program portrait of the person with the templates of meta-program portraits of roles in the project team.

Implementation of this actions is rather difficult process, so it is necessary to develop an algorithm that allows to create a project team using the methodology described above.

Description of the algorithm

To implement the algorithm, it is necessary to prepare a file with the answers of respondents, which the algorithm will work with.

The designed algorithm can be conditionally divided into six stages:

1. Preprocessing.
2. Search for the key words in the text.
3. Forming a meta-program card.
4. Comparison with patterns and defining the role.
5. Forming of a project team.
6. Visualization.

Let's consider each stage in detail.

1. Preprocessing.

The purpose of this stage is to bring the text to a particular state that is suitable for processing. It is necessary to create a dictionary with stop words that should be removed from the text at this stage and with the key words to search in the text. Also, a file with patterns of meta-programs personal cards should be created.

After the data is loaded the preprocessing starts. It is carried out through regular expressions and includes removal of punctuation marks and stop words: conjunctions, prepositions, particles and partly lemmatization that is the reduction of a word to the infinitive. Lemmatization is performed only for nouns, adjectives, participles and gerunds. Verbs do not lead to an infinitive, because according to the method of meta-programs the verb form has a value and affects the result.

2. Search for the key words in the text.

In the preprocessed text, it is necessary to find certain words and / or phrases that determine the meaning of the meta-program. The set of tokens is different for each meta-program, so the answers to each of the questions need to be connected with words or phrases related to them. After analyzing the ready-made dictionaries available in the public domain, we stated that they do not approach the task at hand. Consequently, such a dictionary needs to be developed and that was done [10]. The dictionary is uploaded at the first stage. The dictionary is grouped by its belonging to a specific meta-program and most of words are verbs. The pronouns "I", "we", "they" are also analyzed.

The search for words occurs sequentially on a dimensionless array of strings arrays «Arraylist<Arraylist<String>». The data is processing separately for each group of answers corresponding to one meta-program. In groups, questions are also analyzed in turn.

3. Forming a meta-program card.

After performing a dictionary search, one of the two characteristic values is assigned for each question, depending on the number of words that were found and their attributions to a particular characteristic.

Next, the final value for the group of questions is determined, which is stored as an integer and written as the first element of the string. Definition of the final value are carried out according to the following formula:

Let us denote the first characteristic as x_1, and the second characteristic as x_2 (e.g., x_1 – activity and x_2 – reflectivity), then, if:

x_1 == 0, then we have the boundary value of the second characteristic.

x_2 == 0, then a boundary value x_1 is obtained.

$x_1 == x_2$, then we write the intermediate value.

$x_1 > x_2$ и $x_1 \neq 0$ и $x_2 \neq 0$, so x_1 prevails, otherwise – x_2 prevails.

Similarly, the remaining groups of questions are processed.

As a result, a sequence of values of characteristics is obtained, which together form the card of the subject or a card of meta-programs.

4. Comparison with templates and role assignment.

In order to determine the role in the project team based on the answers, the subject’s card obtained in the previous step is compared with the templates available in the database, each of which corresponds to a certain role in the project team.

The templates of meta-program cards with all possible variants of distribution of characteristic values for each role in the project team must be developed in advance. The basis for this is an analysis of the intensity of the characteristics for each project role. An example of a meta-program map is shown in Fig. 1.

Next, for convenience of processing, the cards were encoded as a four-digit numerical sequence. Each element of the sequence is encoded as an integer from one to five. For the example shown in Figure 1, this sequence will look like 1423.

Comparison of the subject's card with the template goes by character. At the same time, a partial match of three characters and a full match of four characters are searched. If a full match is not found, then the first match of the three characters is retained.

If the meta-program card matches the template by more than 75 percent, then the role assigned to the template is considered the most suitable and assigned to the subject.

Characteristic	1	2	3	4	5	Characteristic
Activity	■					Reflectivity
External reference				■		Internal Reference
Motivation to		■				Motivation from
Out of time			■			In time

Fig. 1 – A pattern of card of meta-programs

5. Forming the project team.

Formation of the project team, that is, directly grouping employees by five to six people.

The project team is formed as follows: first, the array of people is consistently reviewed for a single match with each role, without a group and the preservation of the position of the person with this role. As soon as we reach six matches, the group number is written in the last field of the array of these people, which is then incriminated. The same thing happens as to groups of five people, without an expert and an architect. After that, the array is reviewed again.

In the case of a situation where the test results lack one or more roles, or there are too few experts in the given specialty, there is a "lowering the role" algorithm. It consists in the following. After determining the roles by the results of testing while forming the groups, if the necessary roles are absent/not present in sufficient quantity (in the case when it is necessary to form more than one group), then the roles are transformed according to the following schemes:

– leader → analyst → expert → software developer / tester / system architect;

– analyst → leader.

After that, an array of people is reviewed again.

6. Visualization

At this stage, the user is presented with the results of the algorithm. The results can be presented in the form: metaprogram cards for each subject, the name of the role obtained from the test results, the final role in the project and the number of the project team; composition of project teams.

The schematically described algorithm is shown in Fig. 2.

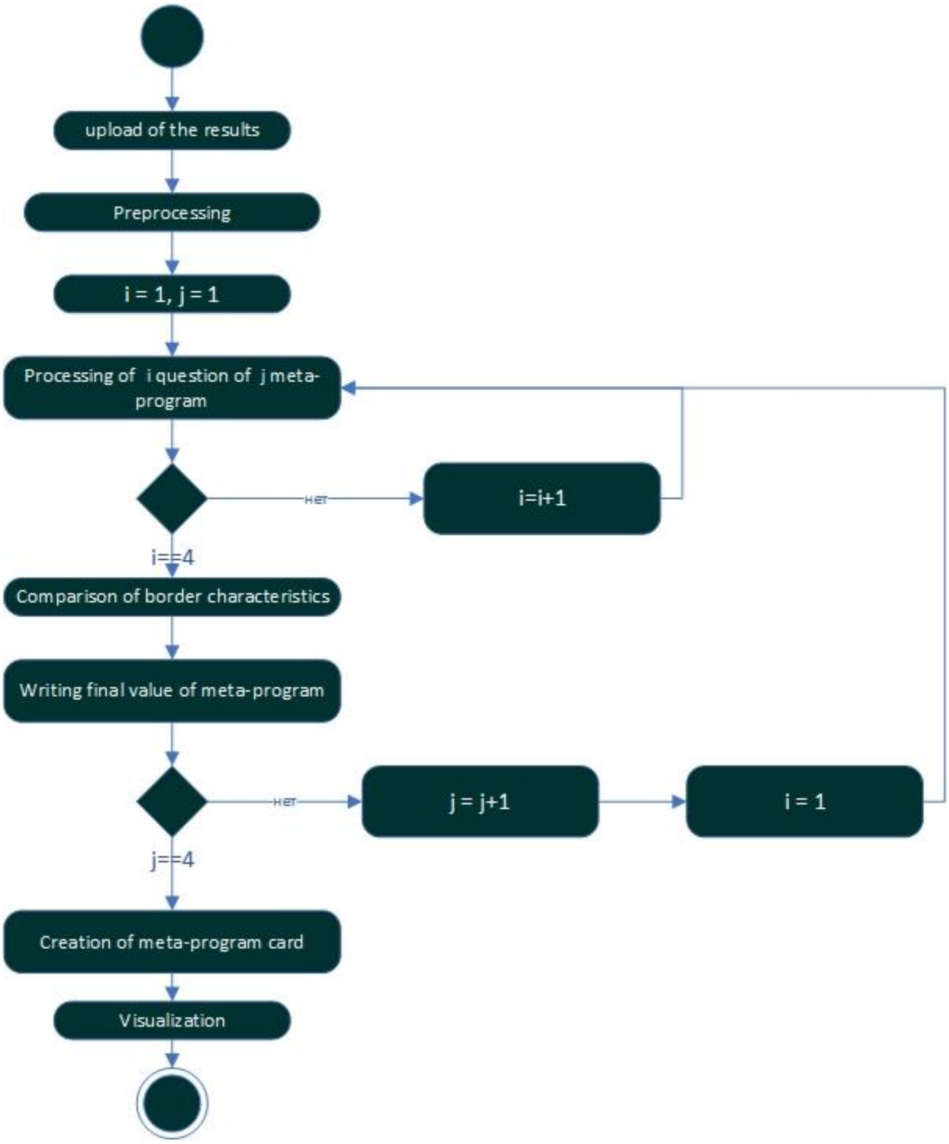

Fig. 2 – Algorithm of processing meta-programs

3. Experimental verification of the algorithm

To test the algorithm, a console application was developed in the Java language. As the compilation environment, IntelliJ IDEA's integrated development environment is used.

The main third-party library used for development is Apache POI. It allows you to work with MS formats, in particular *.xls and *.xlsx. Built-in libraries are also used [2].

The main tool for forming internal arrays is a dimensionless array of lines of the array of lines: ArrayList<ArrayList>. All comparisons occur using standard cycles (foreach, for, while).

For the operation of the algorithm, the following were developed:

– list of questions that allow us to define four meta-programs of personality;

– dictionary of lexemes, grouped by belonging to a specific meta-program;

– meta-program card;

– templates of metaprogram cards with all possible variants of the distribution of characteristics corresponding to the roles in the project team encoded in the form of a four-digit numerical sequence;

– templates for output the results of the algorithm operation.

At the first stage, a survey was conducted on the developed questionnaire. The survey was conducted remotely. You could take part in the survey only once, and you cannot go back and change the answer. The results were saved in a table.

The survey was conducted in two stages: first, data was collected for the training sample, then for the test sample. People of different ages and sex took part in it. After that, the algorithm was tested.

The results of the algorithm work were compared with the results achieved by the expert.

Based on the results of the first testing of the algorithm, the percentage of matches with the expert distribution was 48%. The analysis showed that the main reason for the incorrect definition of characteristics in some cases was the insufficient number of words in the dictionary. In this regard, it was decided to expand the dictionary, supplementing it with a large number of words. Also, a set of role templates was enhanced, and code optimization was performed.

These actions enabled that at a repeated testing of the algorithm the percentage of match with the expert's opinion on the training sample amounted to 91%.

In the training sample, people were identified belonging to all the determinable roles, which allowed the formation of the project team. The project team based on the training sample was formed from six people with the most intensive characteristics and with partially similar characteristics: all members of the group have a high degree of motivation and organization; three members of the group are active, three are more reflective. Of the remaining five people, no group was formed, because not all the necessary roles were present.

On the test sample the percentage of match turned out to be slightly less and amounted to 88%, at the same time, there was a complete mismatch of three results with the expert distribution. After the distribution of the roles, project groups were formed.

At the end, the entire set of data was also processed. The percentage of match with the expert's opinion was 89%, and full project teams were formed.

The obtained result of the algorithm operation is good, the error does not exceed 15%. When processing text data, it is extremely difficult to achieve one hundred percent result, because it is quite difficult to formulate a dictionary that takes into account all possible variants of words used in answering each of the questions.

The composition of the received project groups matched with the expert distribution by 87%, which can be considered a fairly good result. Verification of the work of the received project teams in practice was carried out for the test sample. The result met expectations – the groups worked smoothly, quickly, and showed good results.

Conclusion

In the framework of the research the algorithm for the automated formation of the project team based on meta-program method was designed and tested. The results of the research make it possible to state that the use of the algorithm and the developed materials allows effectively to form a project team and / or to determine the role of a particular person in it.

In this case, the use of an automated algorithm has a number of advantages over manual processing:

– the speed of data processing (for an expert it takes about 5 minutes to process one answer while the algorithm processes all results in 3,6 seconds);

– the possibility to process data and interpret the results without an expert as the use of special knowledge is no longer required;

– the ability to verify accordance to different roles in the project team without additional processing of the results.

At present, work to increase the number of meta-programs used to form project teams is held. Moreover, the dictionary of key words is being modified to improve the accuracy of the algorithm and, accordingly, the accuracy of defining of metaprogram values.

The results of the research can be used not only for the formation of project teams, but also for figuring out personal qualities.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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ОБУЧЕНИЕ СТУДЕНТОВ-ПЕРВОКУРСНИКОВ ОТЛИЧИТЕЛЬНЫМ ПРИЗНАКАМ АКАДЕМИЧЕСКОГО ПИСЬМА (СЛОЖНОСТЬ, ФОРМАЛЬНОСТЬ, ОБЪЕКТИВНОСТЬ, ОТВЕТСТВЕННОСТЬ)

Научная статья

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Аннотация
Английский язык для академических целей и академическое письмо на английском языке является новыми учебными дисциплинами для языковых и неязыковых российских вузов. Особой сложностью для студентов, изучающих данные дисциплины, является осмысление отличительных характеристик академического письма, таких, как сложность, формальность, ответственность и объективность письма. В данной статье предлагается алгоритм действий и пример разработанных заданий направленных на осмысление упомянутых особенностей академического письма.

Ключевые слова: английский язык для академических целей, академическое письмо, сложность, формальность, объективность, ответственность.

TEACHING FIRST YEAR STUDENTS FEATURES OF ACADEMIC WRITING (COMPLEXITY, FORMALITY, OBJECTIVITY, RESPONSIBILITY)

Research article

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Abstract
English for academic purposes (EAP) and Academic writing are new disciplines studied at many Russian universities. Understanding the distinctive features of academic writing, such as complexity, formality, responsibility and objectivity, causes particular difficulties for many students studying EAP. This article suggests an algorithm of actions and some designed activities aimed at raising students' awareness of these features.

Keywords: English for academic purposes, EAP, academic writing, features of academic writing, complexity, formality, responsibility, objectivity.

Introduction

In the recent decades, English has become a predominant medium of Higher education, both in English-speaking countries and worldwide. This has significantly increased the importance of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), which is used as a lingua franca for international studies.

The term 'EAP' has been in use since 1970s and is broadly defined as 'communication skills in English which are required for study purposes in formal education systems' [7, P. 1] or a particular discourse of representing, thinking and talking about the world shared by academic practitioners (teachers, researchers and students) [1, P. 6]. At the Departments of International Business and Administration at MGIMO University the students' main specialism is Business English, and EAP is only taught at Year 1, to teach students the basics of academic reading and writing. Similarly to many recent school leavers, most first-year students at MGIMO face considerable difficulties with EAP, especially academic writing.

To some extent, we assume that it is the cross-cultural differences that cause the problem and complicate the process of learning how to write academically in English. The Russian academic culture seems to differ significantly from one of the English-speaking countries. According to G. Hofstede, a social psychologist and the founder of comparative intercultural research, the academic culture in Russia is dissimilar to those in the UK and the USA in four of the five fundamental value clusters (or "dimensions"): Russia has a high power distance whereas both the UK and the US have a low one [5, P. 110]; Russia has a collectivist culture as opposed to the individualist cultures of the UK and the US [5, P. 96]; Russia is a feminine culture, whereas the UK and the US are both masculine cultures [5, P. 143]; Russia has a high uncertainty avoidance index as opposed to a low one in the UK and the US [5, P. 192].

Cultural differences between Russian and English-speaking countries are especially obvious in the sphere of academic writing. Because the Russian culture is mostly focussed on conserving rather than extending knowledge, most writing done in the Russian language is often rather descriptive. Even if students realise the need to use expert knowledge in their writing, they tend to think their main task is to summarise the information and then simply provide their personal opinion, instead of judging the information critically.

Most first-year university students face considerable difficulties with writing academic essays. Another reason for this, besides the cultural differences, is that the students are very familiar with the 'essay' format of the Russian State Exam (RSE). The test-format essay is a five-paragraph essay, in which the students are to provide a personal opinion, without any references to relevant research, in fairly general language. For the most part, Russian school leavers have extensive practice writing RSE essay, and as a result, first-year students tend to think this is the only correct way to write essays, and often do all their writing in the same format.

Methodology

Many researchers name the following features as distinctive of academic writing: complexity, responsibility, formality, objectivity, explicitness, accuracy, hedging (or cautious language) [1], [2], [7], [9]. However, most first year students are not familiar with these features and do not realise that what they know as an ‘essay’ does not meet the requirements of an academic essay.

Arguably, one of the main aims of the initial stage of teaching EAP writing is raising students’ awareness, or, according to K. Hyland, ‘rhetorical consciousness-raising’ [6, P. 560] of the above-mentioned distinctive characteristics of academic writing. This can be done through getting the students to notice and reflect upon the features of either model texts (arguably ‘perfect’ examples of academic writing) or sample texts (‘imperfect’ texts that can be improved upon), and then to use the knowledge thus received to construct their own writing pieces.

This paper focuses on consciousness-raising of four of the key features of academic writing, namely, responsibility, complexity, formality, objectivity. Another feature of academic language, accuracy, is also touched upon; however, much less attention is paid to it because the students tend to be very familiar with it, accuracy being the most assessed feature in all written work they have done previously.

Responsibility involves justifying the author’s position, and providing evidence for the claims the author makes. It requires applying citation practices relative to what a particular community prefers, for instance, direct quotation or paraphrasing [9, P.132]. A key concept of a writer’s responsibility is his/her ability to include proper references to the work of other authors, so as to avoid plagiarism. This “not only helps establish a persuasive framework for the acceptance of arguments by showing how a text depends on previous work in a discipline, but also as it displays the writer’s credibility and status as an insider” [6, P. 554].

Lexical **complexity** might imply a higher degree of lexical density, for example, by means of utilizing collocations, academic- and discipline-specific vocabulary, specialised or technical vocabulary and metaphors [6, P. 182-184]. To achieve a higher grammatical complexity, the author may make use of noun-based phrases, employ subordinate clauses and/or passive structures.

To achieve a proper **objectivity** of an academic text, a writer is to make little reference to him/herself, emphasizing the facts or evidence instead, thus avoiding personal bias. Self-mention is supposed to be undesirable, unless an author specifically wants to emphasisy his/her own contribution to the field while seeking agreement for it [6, P. 554].

By **formality,** we understand utilizing a proper register of academic writing, colloquialisms, overly idiomatic language, slang or argot, ellipsis or contractions.

Implementation and main results

As a first step of raising awareness of the distinctive characteristics of academic writing, students are to compare four pairs of sentences, each demonstrating a feature of EAP writing, and distinguish which one sounds more academic. Below is an example of an activity we designed with this aim:

Work in pairs. In the following pairs of sentences, decide which sounds more academic, and which one sounds less academic. Write A (for Academic) and NA (for non-academic) next to each sentence.

A. I completed the experiment as I was told to. *(NA)*
B. The experiment was completed as instructed. *(A)*

A. You can control trains this way to make sure the trains run more safely, no matter how bad the weather gets. *(NA)*
B. The use of this method of control unquestionably leads to safer train running in the most adverse weather conditions. *(A)*

A. Researchers observed the way strain accumulates around a fault. *(A)*
B. Researchers looked at the way strain builds up around a fault. *(NA)*

A. Brown (2003) concludes that the level of motivation to succeed depends not only on factors in the home but also peer influence. *(A)*
B. According to some research, the level of motivation to succeed depends not only on factors in the home but also peer influence. *(NA)*

Following this activity, learners match each pair of sentences with the name of the feature they illustrate: objectivity (pair 1), complexity (pair 2), formality (pair 33), responsibility (pair 4), and try to explain how they understand each feature, and why it is important for academic language.

After that, students focus on each feature separately and read a series of statements, choose the accurate ones and correct the false ones. As a result, learners compile a list of rules concerning each feature of academic writing, having discovered them by themselves:

Are the following statements about each feature of academic writing True* (T) *or False* (F)*? Why? Correct the false ones.

E.g. You should always use the first person (pronouns ‘I’ and ‘we’). – False. You should avoid using the first person, unless it is required.

Objectivity

1. You should always use the first person (pronouns *‘I’* and ‘*we*’). *(F)*
2. You should place the main emphasis on the information. *(T)*
3. You should emphasize your personal opinion as much as you can. *(F)*
4. You should base your position on evaluation of the evidence. *(T)*

Complexity:

1. Shorter words are preferable to longer words (e.g. ‘make’ is better than ‘produce/manufacture’). *(F)*
2. You should use more varied vocabulary. *(T)*
3. You should make use of more noun-based phrases (E.g. ‘*There has been a decline in numbers of…*’ instead of ‘*The numbers fell’*). *(T)*
4. You should avoid using subordinate clauses. *(F)*
5. You should avoid using passive structures (e.g. ‘*They grow oranges in Spain’* is better than ‘*Oranges are grown in Spain’*). *(F)*

Formality:

1. You should avoid colloquial language (e.g. *kid, buddy, grab a bite*). *(T)*

2. You should use more idioms (e.g. *dig your own grave)* and proverbs (e.g. *Put your money where your mouth is*). *(F)*

3. You should avoid slang (e.g. *wanna, cool, fab*). *(T)*

4. You should use one-word verbs (e.g. educate) rather than phrasal verbs (e.g. *bring up*). *(T)*

5. You should try to contract all auxiliary verbs (e.g. *don't, should've, there's*). *(F)*

Responsibility:

1. You should justify your position and provide evidence for the claims you make. *(T)*

2. You should demonstrate your understanding of the source material. *(T)*

3. You should cite the sources you use properly. *(T)*

Discuss the corrected statements with the class. These are 'rules' that will help you write well in Academic English. Can you explain WHY it is a good idea to follow them?

To provide further practice of the four features of academic writing, learners rewrite the sentences, making them more academic, improving on each feature. Multiple variants may be suggested by the students, which may lead to peer discussion with the aim of choosing the best variants.

Rewrite the sentences, improving them on the features of academic writing:

Objectivity

1. I will describe the reasons for this in my essay. *(The reasons for this will be described in this essay).*

2. You should obey your parents and be respectful of them. *(Young people should obey their parents and be respectful of them).*

3. I believe it's stupid to smoke because it's bad for you. *(It is widely known that smoking is harmful to people's health.)*

Complexity:

1. You can buy this device anywhere *(E.g. This device can be purchased anywhere/ubiquitously).*

2. People have tried and failed many times to teach animals to speak like humans. *(E.g. Many attempts have been made to teach animals to speak in human fashion, to no avail./ Many futile attempts have been made to teach animals to speak in human fashion).*

3. Many people enjoy risky sports. But they can be very dangerous. *(E.g. Although many people find risky sports enjoyable, they might pose a risk to human health).*

Formality:

1. It's impossible to get rid of this problem by doing this. *(This problem cannot be solved by those measures).*

2. Lots of scientists have brought up this issue. *(This issue has been raised by many scientists).*

3. The future of this invention is up in the air. *(The future of this invention is still unresolved).*

4. The prospects for the business are pretty bad. *(The prospects for the business are fairly/rather pessimistic/ are not very promising.)*

Responsibility:

1. I think smoking in all public places should be forbidden. *(E.g. Smoking in public places poses a significant risk to non-smokers. The health risks of passive smoking are a matter of scientific consensus (Kessler 2006, Samet 2008). According to the Report on <u>the</u> Health Consequences of Involuntary Exposure to Tobacco Smoke (2006), passive smoking may cause disease, disability, and even death. To avoid exposure of non-smokers to second-hand tobacco, it might be justified to forbid smoking in all public places.*

Compare your improved sentences with a partner. Do you have the same variants?

Students may further improve their knowledge of the four characteristics, working with an authentic sample essay. Authentic writing often facilitates learning as it allows a student to see the stronger and weaker points in a piece of writing of a fellow learner, which leads to collaborative discussions; afterwards, students can rewrite the piece, correcting the errors, which promotes their own writing. Conversely, we have found that employing model essays tends to discourage and demotivate learners because they feel they cannot produce a piece of the same quality; because nothing can conceivably be changed or improved in the model, students become passive copiers at best.

Students are to read a sample essay that has certain sentences highlighted in different colours. These are sentences lacking in one of the features of academic language: objectivity (green), complexity (purple), responsibility (yellow), formality (red), accuracy (vocabulary) (blue), accuracy (grammar) (grey). For the sake of readability, these sentences are italicised in the sample below, with colour marked in brackets:

Read a students' essay the essay, paying attention to the highlighted sentences. Can you guess why they are highlighted?

Every society needs rules (purple). Rules are necessary because they help to bring order to the society. *They help us to keep peace and live together (purple). In this essay I will discuss rules of my university (green).*

Every university has rules which must be followed, of course not all the rules are followed by students, but forgetting about them may bring bad consequences.

I am a student at MGIMO University. One important rule at my university concerns clothes. Students and teachers should *wear properly (blue)*, no shorts and other beachwear. Almost everyone in MGIMO university wears classic suits. *Leave your outerwear at the cloakroom (green).* Now I want to discuss why this rule exists. When we come in room from outdoors our jackets and coats accumulate dirt and this dirt turn into dust. *According scientists' researches, one in three Russians suffer from dust (have allergy). In the near future one in two people in Russia will have allergy to dust (yellow)*. 30% of Russians suffer from asthma, it is much more than in USA or Europe. Besides, in winter and autumn our outerwear can be wet and spoil furniture. Moreover, wearing outerwear in room breaks etiquette. Every well-mannered person should know this rule. Finally, it is not convenient to wear jackets and coats inside.

Some other rules concern student's behavior. You shouldn't be late for classes and disturb your colleagues during the lesson. *Don't forget about other students, you mustn't scream, run and distract others (green)*. Attendance is also one of the most important things, afterwards, *your absence (green)* will cause *lots of problems (red).* Drinking alcohol and smoking is not allowed inside the university. Any outpouring of aggression is prohibited and can lead to *deduction (blue)*. It is not allowed to speak anything that can offend other nationalities and religions *and so on (red).* This rule appeared because there are people from different countries and representatives of various nations and religions, and all students must be peaceful to each other.

In conclusion I want to say that rules help to keep order and without them our *society become anarchic (grey)*. These are some rules which will help you to settle down in our university and avoid having problems.

First, students match each colour with a feature that can be improved upon in the highlighted sentence: Objectivity (green), Complexity (purple), Responsibility (yellow), Formality (red), Accuracy (vocabulary) (blue), Accuracy (grammar) (grey). Then, students are to find more examples of sentences that need improvements on those features in the essay and highlight them in the text (highlighter markers in the same colours are to be provided; alternatively, this can be done as a whole-class activity, using the Interactive Whiteboard, with a highlighter tool). After discussing their findings as a class, learners improve upon the highlighted sentences and compare their variants.

As a follow-up activity, students get the assignment to write an essay on the same topic, paying special attention to the features of academic writing discussed in class, which allows them to recycle all the information learned in class.

The activities described in this article have been used in the course of EAP at Year 1 of Faculty of International Business and Administration. After raising awareness of the distinctive features of academic writing, the teachers have given focussed feedback on distinctive features of academic writing. As a result, students improve their academic writing skills and consistently implement knowledge of those features in their writing.

Conclusion

Consciousness-raising of distinctive characteristics of academic writing involving conducting mini-analyses of writing samples has proved to be an effective method. By using an inductive approach, a teacher avoids ‘lecturing’ and providing students with information on the features of academic writing; thus, they are guided to understand the differences between academic and non-academic language themselves, which makes learning more meaningful and memorable.

Конфликт интересов

Не указан.

Conflict of Interest

None declared.

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