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Linguistics and languages (UDC 81)

DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.27>Цветанович И.¹, Радович В.²^{1,2}Доцент, кандидат наук, Нишский университет, Сербия

ЯЗЫК И СТИЛЬ В ЭПОХУ ГЛОБАЛЬНЫХ СММ

Аннотация

Когда мы говорим о том, что нужно знать об изменчивом мире, идущем по пути неопределенностей и глобализации, нам часто очень сложно находить общий язык. Особенно, когда мы имеем дело с такими науками, как лингвистика и стилистика, сложно находить точные аргументы, чтобы доказать установленный тезис. Цель данной работы – попытаться доказать наш тезис о том, что язык и его стиль подвержены сильному воздействию, или даже заражены влиянием глобальных средств массовой информации. Множество уважаемых авторов писали об этой проблеме. Однако это все еще открытое поле неопределенностей. Настоящее исследование посвящено проблеме того, как глобальные СММ влияют на язык и его стиль, а также каков характер словесного общения отдельного человека постмодернистского времени. Мы в то же время пытаемся создать платформу для будущего, более расширенного, исследования в этой области.

Ключевые слова: язык, стиль, глобализация, средства массовой информации, общественная коммуникация.

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LANGUAGE AND STYLE IN THE TIME OF GLOBAL MASS MEDIA

Abstract

If one should engage in a conversation about what there is to know concerning the ever-changing world that goes along the path paved with uncertainties and globalization, it is very complex task to find a common ground. Especially, dealing with sciences like Linguistics and Stylistics it is very difficult to find the exact arguments to prove the established thesis.

The aim of this paper is to try to prove our thesis that language and its style are highly affected or better, infected, by global mass media communication. There are many well respected authors who have been writing about this problem. However, this is an open field of uncertainties. Dealing, in our research, with the basic problem of how global mass media influence language and its style and the nature of verbal communication of fragmented man of postmodern time, we, at the same time, try to open the platform for future, more extended, research in this field.

Keywords: language, style, globalization, media, public communication

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Introduction

The key to the survival of man in the global society is "the secure feeling of self". However, Scholte in his book *"Globalization a Critical Introduction"* concludes that "in order for a person to be untroubled in the world he or she needs a satisfactory notion about who is who, where he belongs, what he wants to become, together with the conviction that the society will respect and defend these ways of being, belonging and achieving [7, P. 305].

Individual identity is completely neglected in the global society. It has lost its basic civil and cultural value." Modern globalization has also sometimes undermined the safety of identity through cultural destruction. Different life worlds quailed before the overrun of electronic mass media, transplanetary tourism, global English language, consumerism and other sub territorial interventions which contradict the local tradition [7, P. 306].

The world's biggest media agencies produce on one way or the other, the simplification of cultures and the assimilation of life styles. However, not to stray from the subject of the paper any further, language and with it, the style is effected at most. Almost half of the languages people use around the world will soon stop being used. Some linguists even think that almost eighty percent of the languages of the world will cease to exist during the XXI century. Scholte claims that this development is promoted by the global media by giving real significance only to the major world languages. The trend of homogenization of culture and language as well as global westernization affects the mass sense of loss of identity and self-reliance. The cultural issues

concerning language also create significant hierarchies in globalization management. The rule of western languages, especially English, inevitably makes other nations feel underestimated. Furthermore, the ideas and principles which are not easily translated in English are often difficult to push forward for a hearing at global forums. [7, P. 375]. On the other hand all that widespread public and global ignorance and passivity only stimulate the aggression of public media which affect the creation of communication murmurs.

Methods

Methodology of langue-stylistic research in the field of media in global time is based on lingual-stylistic analysis as the basic method of global communicative discourse. Also, the method of deduction and syntheses accompanied with comparative research are included in the research process. Based on its findings we develop the further organization of the text.

Discussion

The educational and cultural sphere of action in the global age that functions mostly according to the principles of the western model has neither time nor ear, and most definitely, has no patience for different or original world views. The non-western models can only cause a short-lived comment by the ruling global culture without entering any further into the deeper layers of what is said, written or displayed.

The rule of English language in the world makes it impossible for the large part of humanity to express itself and be involved in the changing and creating of the global world. The mass media affect the formation of an informal public

education by addressing thousands of information. People in the world should learn more about globalization and its fundamental aspirations, requirements, priorities, plans from those sources. However, very little is learned about these issues from the media, because they just do not see a reason or interest in directing the attention towards globalization as a phenomenon and, on the other hand, they intentionally avoid educating the masses on this phenomenon. One of the reasons is that the media are not sure which direction should be taken or if the rise in the educational level in this area might compromise their own interests.

Journalists themselves have often a very poor education in the area of globalization so that even, when they get the chance to write about it, they do not know how to approach the subject, because, apart from their poor knowledge, their writing pens are not sharp enough. Many media reports and media channels uncritically underline the prevailing new-liberal approaches to globalization on the one hand, and on the other hand, the media belongs to a large business which profits from liberalization and privatization in the area of communication.

The main media bodies are also tightly connected to the circles in power and that also affects the quality and objectivity of investigative journalism. [7, P. 356]. The mass media have a key role in keeping people around the world ignorant and mislead about the major tendencies of the global effect postmodern age has on them.

This condition in the global world significantly influences the journalists who feels the narrowness and the lack of freedom to react according to the principals of their profession, ethics and personal beliefs. "For certain executors to be considered responsible for something they themselves must have an understanding of fundamental moral notions such as justice, and moral reactions such as praise and condemnation. Such understanding does not have to be deep, but without a wider notion about those sizes, the man will not be responsible." [4, P. 31]. The freedom to express himself unconditionally through language belongs to the individual. In this case the journalist, should have the unconstrained awareness about his responsibility to himself and to the world. Such freedom is gained through courage to express a certain attitude despite the subjective feeling of being constrained. There is a well known case of the journalist who worked at the prestigious high-circulation daily the New York Times who fabricated his news stories, reports, interviews using sophisticated language and style. He did it successfully for almost six years feeding the readers' hunger for virtual reality. The main pattern of the global society is comprised of journalists becoming accustomed to prolonging their restrains in conveying the truth and adapting the audience to falsehoods. Language and its accompanying tools cover up the true information and display the false ones.

E. Kant suggests that we stay as far away as we can from habits because they take away our freedom and our independence. The global man is suffering more than ever from habits because those habits are mostly conformist. Habits affect the freedom of the human spirit to create its own style. Is man himself not the style, as Buffon wrote? If a man has the habit of spending five to seven hours watching one of the bright screens, he exposes himself to an empty and superficial language.

Roland Bart represents the opinion that language is a kind of response, a convention and that behind the language there is a style that comes from the man's innate and acquired properties. He firmly believes that style does not belong to language. According to him style is outside of language and

is only an accompanying object. [10, P. 126]. Mass media, intentionally or not, in its attempt to simplify language, keep style on distance from language.

Public speech, for ancient Greeks, was the basis of democracy and freedom. Sreten Petrovic [5] speaks of a logic-ethic, and a formally-aesthetic division which, each one in its own way, define and judge the purposefulness of the rhetoric. The first current speaks of emphasizing and expressing the truth through language, and the other represented by the sophists is focused on coaxing and persuasion and on the beauty and style of expression (the way something is said not what is said). Plato never gave credit to rhetoric as a technique nor as an art. He called the sophists flatterers whose only purpose was to be liked by the crowd instead of nurturing the truth. Aristotle tried to unite these two currents by adding a new element of assurance as a way to alleviate the manipulative power of coaxing and persuasion and to get closer to the logic-ethic current to whom speaking the truth was of the utmost importance. One of the greatest philosophers of the XX century E. Cassirer claims that language becomes one of the elementary "spiritual means through which there is a progress from the mere world of feeling to the world of perception and performance. [2, P. 35].

Shuvakovic, on the other hand, speaks of a changing structure of modern civilization which is characterized by the absence of a unique ideology, understanding of the language in accordance with its inter language functions and not according to the reference to the world outside the language, the metaphorization and allegorization of narration [9, P. 35].

On the other hand, speaking about a style of communication in the age of globalization means to speak about the transition from the individual to the collective. Myers and Myers state that communication represents a central phenomenon of culture. Also, if we understand communication as a symbolic process, in which the human awareness is created, maintained, repaired and transformed, all of this might fit into the definition of world global communication. Communication and the mass media are greatly responsible for the development of limited language skills, especially among young people. John Street states in his book *Mass Media, Politics and Democracy*, [11, P. 86] that mass media have an effect on raising the awareness about political literacy of citizens around the world and television has more influence on the viewers' emotions, but at the same time, television affects people in such a way that they shut themselves out from social frames. Robert Patnam states in the same book that "every hour a viewer spends watching television is related to his lesser confidence in social environment. Television, as a private entertainment increases the resistance towards the outside world and weaken citizens engagement in the social system. [11, P. 91]. It is obvious that language, as a social category, stagnate in a modern society where everyone is busy looking at the screens instead of having alive conservation.

Stylistics as a young science regulates the way of the relation between the individual and the society in the context of use of language within the frame of mutual communication. The expressiveness of language can be the product of spiritualized, free view on life, not the oppressed or manipulated view that mass media creates. Talbot Taylor formulated the theory of style as the theory of communications. According to him the process of communication cannot be explained only by dry linguistic theories that mainly explain the verbal communication as abstract link of expression and meaning. This kind of

criticism jeopardizes the nature of relationship between language and communication. The messages we receive in any communication influence communication more than their meaning. [3, P. 82]

In the public media where language is used every day to express different attitudes and opinions the examination of the quality of information is very important. The way in which information is received depends on the way the journalist uses language. The language used by the media must, opposed to the language of literature, respect the legitimacy of standardized language, and that is not always the case as we will see later in this text.

The loss of identity and individuality in the global era of media, political and cultural violence brings about the weakening and neglecting of the individual's style. The journalist does not stand out any more as a creator, a writer or an evaluator of reality. He does not establish, through his style, a special, remote contact with his readers or viewers but unfortunately, instead he forms a distant, formal and estranged contact.

Language culture in global, public written media in Serbia and the irregularities that occur daily in public media has been written from time to time by Egon Fekete, Ivan Klein, Serbian linguists, Milovan Danojlic, the writer who wrote the famous book *Torment with words* in 1975. Scientific papers has been reading in scientific conferences and published in magazines and anthologies. What catch the eye in most of them are, apart the language irregularities, the emphasis on the increasing domination of bureaucratic language. The most often mentioned examples are the use of decomposed predicate (give suggestion - suggest), give opinion - think), give contribution - contribute), nominalization of statements, use of gerund in different case constructions: two mps exchanged opinions, there were discussions, consultations were made, and etc.

The most concerning is the fact that apart from journalists, politicians and public figures who use the bureaucratic language its use is more frequent in every day speeches. What produces a specific alarm is that young people use this form of non standard language.

The analysis of increasing presence of bureaucratic language which impairs and violates the physiognomy of the standardized language seems to lose sight of language being above all a social category. Apart from lingual factors, there are also non-lingual factors that affect its development.

The appearance of the culture of mass society brought in a disturbance in the development tendencies of the spoken language. It disturbed the authentic language culture in relation to the language reality of the poorly educated. These changes continue to influence the language culture of all layers and ages in a society with increased intensity almost daily.

Even people with perfect knowledge of the rules of standardized language, functional styles and who consider themselves stylistically literate, cannot control the non-lingual impulses that affect language.

The criticism of culture of mass society comes from both, the rightists and the leftists. The first ones fear from anarchy being the consequence of mass society, and the other ones believe that mass culture is a product of the ruling class and that it fortifies the bourgeois value system.

Language as a key role in every cultural practice, related to linguistic meanings is definitive because it is affected not only by the creator but also by the interpreter. Every meaning has its own narrative logic that has its own story about itself and about others. Linguistics and stylistics

provide a fair basis for the deconstruction of the power that creates a platform required for the use of non proper speech; the bureaucratic language being one of them.

Roland Bart, addresses the public with the analysis of culture as a text. According to him everything that is broadcast through mass media is subjected to reading because it is a product of a labeling process. The semiology approach supposes that cultural texts are a manifestation of cultural patterns which are universal, unchangeable and that the process of labeling is always active. However, in reality, in the field, every occurrence has a set of meanings. Thus the phenomenon of intersexuality comes into existence. It strives to leave every meaning open to new and different interpretations. His famous theory about the author's death confirms the stance that there is not a phenomenon or meaning that can be interpreted in a way its author desires instead the meaning gets its value only when it is interpreted or changed by the recipient or the consumer. This means that the interests of powerful ideologists can be redirected and also the thesis of some theorists like Sandra Sharo's that bureaucratic language is imposed by the centers of power, governments, the big brother etc. If we "translate" Bart's interpretation of culture as a text there is one evident message, the interpreter of limited and poor text cannot really enrich his language and style. The author in her book *How to Write for the Newspaper* gives the advice to the present and future journalists, but to the authorities as well:

Bear in mind that the all the governments and managements of the world will try to make their work seem less clear because the mystification of the work is an effective way to rule without accountability. An ideal means for that purpose is language. Thereby, it does not matter if the bulky language of administration is used or the language out of which God's essence speaks, or the will of the people, or the authority of political philosophy, sociology, psychology, economy, law or any other former vocation of the politicians... The language of administration is best understood if it is not heard at all. Therefore, you should try to understand what the government is doing before engaging in political journalism. What is of no less importance is this: you should get rid of the fear from the government in order not to get confused by its language. You are left to struggle with the bureaucracies of other vocations. You would not believe but there are as many as there are different professions. [8].

Results

Why do people speak and write bureaucratically? Can they resist the negative influence of mass media on their language?

The manipulation of the public would not be possible without the public's consent. Choosing a lesser evil, only in the society ruled by political terror, means agreeing to manipulation. In all other cases language offers to the public something that it wants, something that it needs or something it appreciates. What does he admire and what does he highly appreciate in a bureaucratic discourse? The society can have different values at different times and nowadays the main values are mostly western values and modernity.

In addition, since the beginning of the modern age the public has high value for the objective scientific cognition. Bureaucratic rhetoric today appropriates foreign words from western politics and economy (mostly English words) and certain features of the scientific style" [8, P. 115]

In the essence of post structuralism is that there is no objective reality which has not gone through the meanings given by the language. J. Derrida thinks that there is no way

to determine the truth because every spoken word actually carries the traces of what was left unspoken. Perhaps Foucault would be a better example for understanding the issue we are dealing with. He is not interested in the functioning of the language itself as much as he is interested in the social conditions which lead to the creation of discursive knowledge. According to him the speech itself is not important to society but, who is speaking and why. The representatives of mass media know that really well that the value system is relative and variable which is why throughout human history different discursive formations were dominant, formations that regulate a certain system of knowledge which cannot be compared to anything that was or that is yet to be.

Language is variable in time in relation to the new and unpredictable situations. Adoption of models and patterns for their use and functioning in communication does not happen according to a certain pattern. Every participant in communication has language ability, and the way of communicating depends on the competence of the code and communication. Communication murmurs have a considerable effect on the process of communication (insufficient attention, ideological choices, indifference etc.). An ideal speech representative (in the sense supposed by the representatives of generative grammar) who possesses an ideal language knowledge does not exist. He especially does not exist among the employed in the mass media where no formal education is required for the job. The occurrence of speech is a complex process of communication depends on the spoken situation (a non-lingual context).

For the same journalist different spoken situations could be interlocutors with different educations, ideologies, mentalities, the readiness for a concrete conversation, stage fright etc. A Serbian sociolinguist Radovanovic says:

The speech representative of course possesses the rules for choosing and using language tools depending on the type of linguistic situations together with all other rules in the part of his knowledge about language called the competency of communication [6, P. 59] Since no speech manifests itself as a completely unified whole but instead it transforms depending on who speaks to whom, with what purpose etc. Thus, a speech variation occurs which has its own style characteristic among others.

One of the main reasons for such an occurrence is that the functional stratification of language is not normatively regulated. Hence the negligence in the use of language. Many editors of the public media are not aware nor are they familiar with the speech variations or functional styles. Just like legal regulation brought about progress a kind of regulation would bring changes in language as well. Therefore, Radovanovic suggests: A language norm must explicitly point out the linguistic features of a style and specify which non-lingual conditions are needed for their choice and use. [6, P. 65].

Some theoretical premises are common for sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics in the linguistic work and actions they undertake. For example, one of them observes language not only in the systematic sphere as linguistic knowledge i.e. competency, but also in the communicational sphere as specified by Radovanovic. Very important issues are related to the problem of language acquisition, bilingualism, diglossia and multilingualism in speech interactions of any kind, organization and function of the speech act, the correlation between linguistic, cultural, social and psychological structures and occurrences, personality structures, speech act and its integration on the level of discourse, linguistic actions in the area of mass media etc. [6, P. 140].

Language itself and its stylistic actions cannot be isolated from its natural environment and from social and cultural context and be understood and interpreted by closed, abstract and stereotyped formulas. Simply put, there are no homogeneous language expressions the likes of which the representatives of traditional linguistics are trying to portray. Language, according to Georgas Mooring is not equipped in a way that it can convey the deepest experience of the individual speaking the language. The complexity of the language functions should be comprehended as a fact which warns us that it depends on the certain realized speech occurrence and speech actions within it when and in which statement some of the possible functions of language might hierarchically get to the forefront. Neither structuralisms nor generativists created the conditions to observe language in the totality of human communication activities, social, cultural, psychological and other interactions or even compare language to them. [6, P. 147]

Lesic here asks the key question, basing his assumptions on Plato's and Aristotle's postulates about style. In order to prove his thesis on the unity of thought and speech he suggested a unit he arrived at during the analysis and that contains the properties inherent to speech thought as a unity. That unit would, according to him be the meaning of the words, because meaning is neither speech nor thought, and they develop and change through history. [4, P. 102]

Apart from all the listed possible reasons that lead to the abundant use of the bureaucratic style in public media and by the students journalists to be and public figures, other reasons could be added such as the development of new technologies, the number of information which multiply by geometric progression, the replacements of words with pictures, not reading and aggressive politics of the owners and managers of mass media etc. Vigotsky firmly rejects the teachings of earlier schools about the connection between word and meaning being only associative and made under the multiple matching in the consciousness of the impression produced by the word and the impression made by the object for which the word stands for. Bureaucratic language and its style is not only a transfer of the bureaucratic bogeyman from the notorious socialism in Yugoslavia but also, and many serious language connoisseurs agree on it Fekete, Klajn, Danojlic, and others that this language "the new speech" of the global age has all the elements of the same limited speech of which Orwell wrote and the conditions for its application have finally been met in this age of mass media. Words have, according to A. Alonso infectious power that has to be considered by those who deal with stylistics. We should stop here for a moment, and consider that infectious energy of words when bureaucratic language is concerned. Polish students proved in the newspaper "Зуцце Варсзавы" how demagogic and cliché language can be. They made a table with four horizontal columns and ten vertical columns. There are a few words in each column from the bureaucratic futile dictionary from the time of socialist Poland.

Sima Avramovic in his book *Rhetoric techno* cites this example as an excellent indicator of empty bureaucratic words that can help make more than ten thousand different speeches. Each one of them sounds serious and significant but in fact they say nothing.

These relapses from the past found their place in today's global written media. Sima Avramovic calls those linguistic phrases mantras and fetishes. Language of the global age has its fetishes, notions such as Human rights, ethnic cleansing, market economy, global society, gender correctness, tolerance, multiethnic etc. Many other terms, many of which

come from the bureaucratic dictionary of international institutions and global world administration, are coming into use and separating people to those who are informed and those who are not.

The use of a number of those terms is a good base for manipulation and demagoguery by those who became familiar with the words first and so gained the right to interpret their meaning to those unfamiliar with them.

It is a sensitive issue especially when terms do not have precisely determined meanings. Right along with it comes the production of consent through media propaganda machinery. The most drastic illustration of it is probably the constantly repeated sentence by Margaret Thatcher when she spoke of the inevitability of neoliberals — there is no alternative. [1, P. 56]. According to Avramovic, bureaucratic language includes slogans, undesired and forbidden words, neologisms, phrases. Bureaucratic language of contemporary media suppresses the individual, and it advertises the market and the political elite. Demagogic coloring of such a language is one of the main

threats to modern democracies and freedoms in the global world. "Hence, perhaps, it can be said that totalitarianism begins in the language," Sima Avramovic lucidly noticed.

Conclusion

We tried to, by citing different author's theories and ideas related to the mass media in global era, join those who address a very complex subject that has not been discussed much. The domination of mass media in all areas of human global life creates a vacuum in which the western civilization strives for an extreme historical delusion that more information and superficial knowledge leads that very civilization along the right path. If language, as the essence of all communication, gets abducted by aggressive and shallow goals of mass media and its creators, a human being of (post)modern time will be locked in deaf society. A rare individual will at some point in a synthesized voice utter certain words speaking and speaking but say nothing. Then, it will be too late for any action.

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ФОНЕТИЧЕСКИЙ МАРКЕР СОВРЕМЕННОГО ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОГО ДЕЛЕНИЯ АНГЛИИ*Аннотация*

Региональное деление Англии на север и юг, обусловленное историческими, культурными и экономическими предпосылками, всегда находило отражение в звучащей речи жителей страны. Сегодня традиционный британский произносительный стандарт, продолжительное время определявший имидж и восприятие страны за рубежом, отстает под натиском современных региональных типов произношения. В этом отношении конкурирующие наддиалектные формы на юго-востоке и севере Англии выступают более актуальными выразителями региональной идентичности молодого поколения англичан, проживающих к югу и северу от традиционной фонетической изоглоссы, маркирующей лингвистические границы двух диалектных областей.

Ключевые слова: региональное деление Англии, фонологическая оппозиция /ʊ/–/ʌ/, региональная идентичность, наддиалектный тип произношения, формантный анализ.

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A PHONETIC MARKER OF THE MODERN NORTH-SOUTH LINGUISTIC DIVIDE IN ENGLAND*Abstract*

A North-South split of England, conditioned by history, culture and economic influences, has long been reflected in the spoken language. As Received Pronunciation has lost its cultural dominance, which once formed the country's official image, this study argues that it is giving way to multiple competing identities. In the North, a new mainstream northern language identity is developing to rival Estuary English in the South as a widespread speech code for modern generations. These two cultural identities are filling the linguistic spaces above and below the border established by the traditional FOOT-STRUT split.

Keywords: North-South divide, phonemic opposition FOOT–STRUT, regional identity, mainstream type of pronunciation, formant analysis.

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Introduction

Phoneticians generally recognize the division of English accents into five major groups in the British Isles: the south of England; the north of England; Wales; the south of Ireland; and Scotland and the north of Ireland [5]. This division is only roughly justified geographically as the linguistic North comprises not only the northern area of England, but also most of the midlands [11]. Despite the general recognition that the drawing of regional linguistic boundaries is notoriously difficult and imprecise, it is relatively safe to say that, linguistically, the population of England is about equally divided between the North and the South and, as Wells notes, about half of the English speak with some degree of northern accent [12].

Linguists' focused interest on this issue seems to be inspired by the current process of increasing democratization of British society resulting in the flourishing of regional accents in popular culture as direct manifestations of a person's social identity. Trudgill points out that many people who in earlier generations would have abandoned their local accents in favour of classic BBC English speech no longer do so: "People who are upwardly socially mobile or who come into the public eye may still reduce the number of regional features in their speech, but they will no longer remove such features altogether" [11, P. 81].

The phonemic opposition FOOT-STRUT

This study primarily concerns the major phonological reason for the so-called "North-South divide", the linguistic border of which runs approximately from the Severn estuary in the west to the Wash in the east. This dividing line is in fact an isogloss marking the main distinctive feature of English accents, i.e. the northern limit of the FOOT-STRUT split in popular speech.

Wells, in his landmark three-volume book "Accents of English" (1982), first coined this term as he introduced his widely adopted comprehensive system of 24 keywords, each referring to a set of words sharing a certain phonetic context

for a particular stressed vowel. Under his system, the lexical set FOOT indicates a vowel in such words as *full*, *look*, *could*, and STRUT denotes a vowel in, for example, *cub*, *rub*, *hum* [12].

The FOOT-STRUT split refers to the division of the phoneme /ʊ/ into two distinct phonemes /ʊ/ and /ʌ/. In Early New English the short /ʊ/ was unrounded to /ʌ/, it lost its labial character in the majority of cases, e.g. *cup*, *bus*, *shut*. However, it could happen that in certain phonetic conditions this split did not take place if /ʊ/ was preceded by a labial consonant – /p b f/ – and followed by /l ʃ ʒ ʃ/, e.g. Middle English *putten* remained ['pʊtən] and then transformed into *put* [pʊt] in the New English period [5].

Historically the split of Middle English short /ʊ/ into two phonemes failed to take hold north of the mentioned isogloss – the imaginary boundary between the Severn estuary and the Wash. Wells specifies that this process of vowel change was carried through further south, further west, and further north, so that in the south of England, in Wales, and in Scotland a six-term system of short vowels was developed and, as a result, there appeared lots of minimal pairs like *putt* [pʌt] – *put* [pʊt], *cud* [kʌd] – *could* (strong form) [kʊd]. In the north of England a five-term system was preserved and such pairs of words rhymed [12].

The absence of the split and as a result the lack of a phonemic opposition between these short vowels has remained probably the most important pronunciation marker setting northern accents apart from southern ones. According to British phoneticians, the area in which FOOT and STRUT have the same vowel still comprises all of England north of this line with very few exceptions [1]; [2].

Methodology

This study is based on the formant analysis of acoustic properties of FOOT and STRUT vowels, i.e. height and advancement which are reflected in the values of F1 and F2 [9]. For the purpose of analysis, tokens of 9 young women from the South, South East and northern areas of England

were subjected to acoustic measurement with the help of Praat computer software designed for speech analysis and synthesis. A number of studies have observed the tendency for women to use more of the innovative and positively evaluated pronunciation variant than men. Very often this fact is seen as indicating women's greater sensitivity to what is considered prestigious, i.e. women seem to lead men in the use of the incoming variant and set trends affecting the pronunciation standard in the future. The generalizations about gender and language variations, as well as the scientific value of female speech for empirical research are discussed in detail in Labov (2001) [7].

The wide corpus of the recorded unprepared speech data makes 92 min 23 sec. This study selected 184 tokens for close acoustic analysis. They included 78 instances of the stressed FOOT, among them *foot*, *took*, *look*, *good*, *put*, *book*, *hood*, *should* (strong form), *could* (strong form), *push* etc.

There are also 106 instances of STRUT; for example *suffer*, *suffering*, *studies*, *suddenly*, *stuff*, *above*, *Liverpudlians*, *other*, *touch*, *just* etc. All tokens of the two vowel variables were transcribed using IPA notation, and grouped according to the variant categories. Further quantitative analysis made it possible to estimate the distribution of variants of FOOT and STRUT on the basis of the aggregated scores for each speaker shown as rounded percentages below.

Results

The FOOT-STRUT contrast in South and South East accents of England

Table 1 and Fig.1 present the results of the formant analysis of FOOT and STRUT vowels in the tokens of females from the South and South East, and exhibit an obvious phonemic contrast between FOOT and STRUT vowels.

Table 1 – The mean F1 and F2 values of FOOT and STRUT variables of five young females from the South and South East (Hz)

| | London | | Brighton | | Southampton | | Guilford | | Gravesend | |
|-------|--------|------|----------|------|-------------|------|----------|------|-----------|------|
| | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 |
| FOOT | 463 | 1713 | 600 | 1700 | 600 | 1800 | 500 | 2000 | 500 | 1900 |
| STRUT | 728 | 1633 | 820 | 1520 | 820 | 1570 | 763 | 1625 | 800 | 1383 |

The realizations of the STRUT vowel, although showing some variation between the speakers, appear to be quite open and centralized with $F1_{\text{mean}} = 790$ Hz and $F2_{\text{mean}} = 1500$ Hz. These formant values deviate somewhat from the standard $F1 = 914$ Hz, $F2 = 1459$ Hz [3] signifying a slightly raised

quality of STRUT which may be realized as [ʌ], [ɐ] and [æ] in the analyzed tokens. In Kent and East Sussex such back variants as [ɑ] and [ɒ] for STRUT are encountered, e.g. *another* [ə'naðə] $F1 = 1000$ Hz, $F2 = 1300$ Hz (Kent); *other* ['ðə] $F1 = 800$ Hz, $F2 = 1250$ Hz (East Sussex).

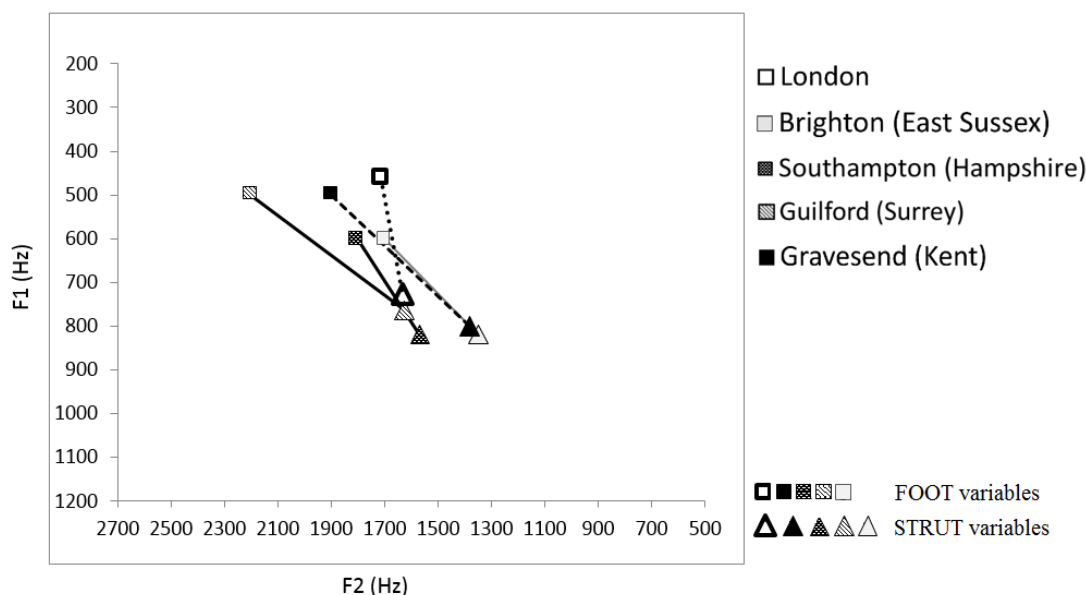


Fig. 1 – The FOOT-STRUT contrast in South and South East accents of England (mean values of the vowels of five young females)

The FOOT values $F1_{\text{mean}} = 530$ Hz, $F2_{\text{mean}} = 1860$ Hz demonstrate a more fronted and more open realization of the vowel than in RP ($F1 = 410$ Hz, $F2 = 1340$ Hz) [3]. But still the phonemic contrast between FOOT and STRUT is very vivid with the average 32% ($F1$) and 23% ($F2$) difference between the two vowels.

The female speakers from Hampshire, Surrey and Kent have even a more fronted character of FOOT than the subject from London. Most researchers are unanimous that London is

the most influential source of phonological innovation in England [2]; [5]; [10], but in case of the FOOT vowel, according to some phoneticians, younger speakers in London maintain the use of [ʊ], but South East regional speakers under 30 have unrounded, centralized variants, e.g. [ɨ] [10]. Thus there is much internal differentiation in the general South Eastern urban/suburban region. Linguists explain this state of affairs by the desire of some residents to exhibit a truly London identity if they commute daily to central

London for work, partly from an urge to “fit in” in the metropolis, and by the opposite wish of those who rarely visit the city centre and strive to preserve the regional contrast.

The FOOT-STRUT contrast in northern accents of England

Northern accents of England as mentioned above lack the phoneme [ʌ] and the opposition FOOT-STRUT altogether, as generally recognized by the majority of linguists. In this respect, northern accents of England are often viewed as more conservative and traditional, resembling to some extent the language of the ancestors, in contrast to those in the south where the population has been generally more mobile [11]; [13].

Nevertheless, the northern five-term system of short vowels is by no means stable and exhibits a great deal of variation. The ongoing changes in the northern vowel system are in many ways provoked by the dual motivation of younger speakers to follow fashionable pronunciation trends and at the same time to preserve their regional identity. The impact of modern technology is intensifying this trend, since modern young northerners can retain their territorial roots and take part in the wider culture and economy of the country

(and globally) through use of Internet and communication tools. They may have no need to follow the example of previous ambitious generations who felt obliged to go south to pursue economic opportunities. They aim, as Foulkes and Docherty (1999) also argue, to sound like northerners but *modern* northerners [6]. Therefore, it is clear that ongoing changes are not characterized by convergence towards the standard form, but rather towards a distinctively *northern mainstream* type of pronunciation with regional features adopted over a wide geographical area. Thus speakers try to avoid variants which they perceive to be particularly indicative of their local roots, and at the same time adopt some features which are perceived to be non-local but also identifiably northern. This process of establishing a northern mainstream type of pronunciation is clearly far from being complete and has influenced particular regions to a different extent.

Therefore the presence of the FOOT-STRUT contrast in northern accents of English is an open question for discussion as it may be realized as a continuum of variables which differ in terms of their advancement, height and roundness.

Table 2 – The mean F1 and F2 values of FOOT and STRUT variables of four young females from the North of England (Hz)

| | Liverpool | | Manchester | | Newcastle | | Leeds | |
|-------|-----------|------|------------|------|-----------|------|-------|------|
| | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 | F1 | F2 |
| FOOT | 590 | 1365 | 791 | 1392 | 615 | 1416 | 451 | 1420 |
| STRUT | 645 | 1285 | 735 | 1400 | 588 | 1465 | 657 | 1727 |

The contrastive analysis of the FOOT-STRUT variables in the selected tokens of four young women from northern cities of England (Table 2, Fig. 2) shows that the most significant acoustic contrast between them was demonstrated by the female from Leeds, whose formant values for FOOT and STRUT differ by 31% (F1) and 18% (F2). The STRUT vowel appears as stressed [ə] with $F1_{\text{mean}} = 657$ Hz and $F2_{\text{mean}} = 1727$ Hz in her tokens. Phoneticians specify that such a realization is often heard in the north of England among middle-class speakers, particularly women when their speech is more self-conscious than usual [4]; [8]. So, it is probably

true to say that the speaker from Leeds does to some extent have a FOOT-STRUT opposition, but it is variably neutralized and sometimes of uncertain incidence. A stressed mid or half-close [ə] in STRUT, central and unrounded, is mentioned by Wells particularly as a characteristic of northern near-RP with its lack of distinction between the strong and weak forms of *but*, *does*, *must*, *us*. An open quality of the vowel in STRUT words, according to the linguist, does represent a genuine modification of a broad northern accent and is often adopted by the upwardly-mobile speaker [12].

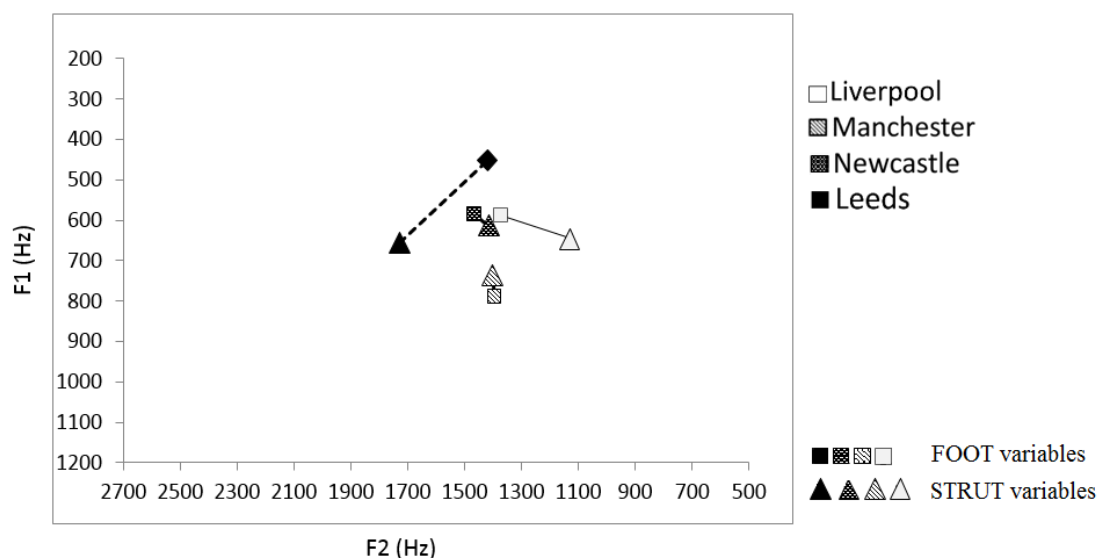


Fig. 2 – The FOOT-STRUT contrast in the northern accents of England (mean values of the vowels of four young females)

For the other speakers [ʊ] by far is the most common variant for STRUT, and is clearly the regional norm. The minimal FOOT-STRUT contrast (7% for F1 and 1% for F2) was observed with the female from Manchester whose STRUT variables appeared even slightly raised compared to FOOT realizations, which may be viewed as certain hypercorrection on the speaker's part. In case of the female from Newcastle, the phonological contrast between FOOT and STRUT in her tokens is practically absent and makes 4% for F1 values and 3% for F2 values. In this respect the emphasis on the absence of the FOOT-STRUT split in speech may even be seen as prestigious in northern accents of England and serve as a marker of a truly northern identity today.

Slightly more noticeable acoustic contrast between the FOOT and STRUT variables was traced in the tokens of the speaker from Liverpool. The STRUT vowel in her tokens is somewhat more open than [ʊ], but fully back and rounded, approaching the acoustic properties of [ɒ]/[ɔ], and deviates from FOOT by 9% in F1 values and 11% in F2 values. Collins and Mees consider Merseyside English different from other types of Northern English, as a result of a massive influx of in-migrants over the last three centuries from two Celtic countries – southern Ireland and neighbouring North Wales [1]. Researchers note, however, that the [ɒ] variant in the STRUT set is quite possible in northern accents of England, though it is used mainly by females on an occasional basis (usually in words like *one, none, once, money, slush, other, mother*, etc.). Stoddart, Upton and Widdowson find the [ɒ] variant in the STRUT set of

particular interest, as it is somewhat closer to standard [ʌ] and opens up the possibility of a move from [ʊ] towards [ʌ] and for the FOOT-STRUT split to be carried through [8].

Conclusion

The variation of the vowel STRUT in the South East and North of England clearly demonstrates the phonological antagonism of two large geographical areas and existence of two competing mainstream sub-systems of the English language, each reflecting strong cultural and social identities of the speakers, formed in part from differing economic experiences associated with the historical development of the industrial revolution. The FOOT-STRUT split, as the key phonological process, in many ways resulted in the formation of today's stereotypical southern and northern types of pronunciation, and consequently in a division of England into the North and the South. As the cultural dominance of a southern-based elite has weakened, speakers in all parts of the country no longer abandon their regional forms in favour of the prestige of standard pronunciation.

In its place, there is developing a tension between speakers' desire to continue signaling loyalty to their particular community by using local speech norms, and a concurrent urge to appear outward-looking and less parochial by adopting a broader regional speech and identity. In the South, this manifests in the spread of Estuary English, while in the North it takes the form of the previously mentioned mainstream northern accent. In this respect, the absence of the FOOT-STRUT phonological opposition may be viewed as prestigious in the north of England as this feature is crucial in establishing the northerners' regional identity.

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.23>Муродова Н.И.¹, Джумабаева Ж.Ш.²¹Преподаватель, Ферганский государственный университет; ²Доцент, доктор филологических наук, Национальный университет Узбекистана

ПРОБЛЕМЫ ПРИ ПЕРЕВОДЕ ЭНАНТИОСЕМИИ В ХУДОЖЕСТВЕННОМ ТЕКСТЕ С АНГЛИЙСКОГО НА РУССКИЙ ЯЗЫК

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается явление энантиосемии, т.е. разновидность антонимии, совмещающая противоположные значения в одном слове. В разных исследованиях эта категория рассматривается как особый случай полисемии. Даны описания некоторых видов энантиосемии, такие как лексическая, диахроническая и фразеологическая; а также выявлены проблемы при переводе этого явления с одного языка на другой. В результате исследования было доказано, что при переводе значение слова сохраняется, а особенность энантиосемии утрачивается.

Ключевые слова: энантиосемия, антонимия, полисемия, диахроническая, лексическая, фразеологическая энантиосемия.

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TRANSLATION PROBLEMS OF ENANTIOSEMY IN FICTION FROM ENGLISH INTO RUSSIAN

Abstract

The article deals with the phenomenon of enantiosemy – a kind of antonymy, combining opposite meanings in one word. In different studies, this category is considered as a special phenomenon of polysemy. Some types of enantiosemy like lexical, diachronic and phraseological are described, as well as problems are identified when translating this phenomenon from one language into another. As a result of the study, it was proved that in translation the meaning of the word is preserved, however the peculiarity of enantiosemy is lost.

Keywords: enantiosemy, antonymy, polysemy, diachronic, lexical, phraseological enantiosemy.

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Introduction

All languages tend to create a single standard system of linguistic means and capable of communication. However, full compliance in the same type of meaning is not observed in different languages. Therefore, the content of each language is distinguished by two components – universal which is common to all languages, and idioethnical that characterizes every language in its individual uniqueness.

The research is devoted to the study various aspects of the enantiosemy phenomenon. The object of research is to study this phenomenon in linguistics and comparative analysis of enantiosemy in translation in the two languages (English and Russian). Many this issue do not have same answer by now. But the research on enantiosemy has great value and significance for the research of lexicology and semantics itself. Therefore, this article aims to promote the study about enantiosemy through detailed illustration of the research value.

Method

In systematic semantic analyses were used the following methods: *lexicographic method*, involving a sample of material from dictionaries, dictionary definitions, analysis and *comparative method* for analyzing prior learning. Examples of enantiosemy were analyzed on the books with parallel translation (English – Russian).

Discussion

Enantiosemy is being studied not only by linguists, but also philosophers, psychologists, etc. Linguists mostly studied lexical enantiosemy and analyzed enantiosemy of one language (Russian, English, French), as well as on the material of several languages in sight was even enantiosemy of separate dialects [12]. There's not an unambiguous

decision on enantiosemy place and role in the language system. The words in which a single word has multiple meanings are an instance case of polysemy. In the special case of contronyms, the polysemous terms contain two opposite meanings. This phenomenon is called by linguists in different ways, it is known also as antagonym, *enantiosemy*, antilogy, contronym, contranym, autonym, or contradictanym. In English there are so called Janus words named after the Roman god of doors and beginnings – Janus [11]. He was usually represented in art as having two bearded faces that faced in opposite directions, as doors do — and the same as Janus words do. Negation, emotionality, antonymy, ambiguity, homonymy, polysemy – all these language tools enriching our speech combines the phenomenon *enantiosemy*. It means the combination in the semantic structure of a word two opposite meanings. The description of this phenomenon was given in 1883 by Professor Scherzl V. I., who named it "enantiosemy". In the writings of Novikov L. A., Panova M. V., Khodakova Y. P., it was also reflected. In our country the research on this phenomenon was done by Odilov Y. R. and Salikhova N. K. Enantiosemy is now a fairly common phenomenon observed in many languages and its main sign is ambiguity in understanding speech. One of the first who spoke about the source of enantiosemy development was the German linguist Carl Abel. It was his theory of the "opposite meanings of primitive words" that interested "The Antithetical Meaning of Primal" (1900), later he wrote an article entitled "The Antithetical Meaning of Primal Words" (1910). The theory appeared in Abel's article "Über den Gegensinn der Urworte," which appeared in *Sprachwissenschaftliche Abhandlungen*, published in Leipzig in 1885[1].

Connections and associations

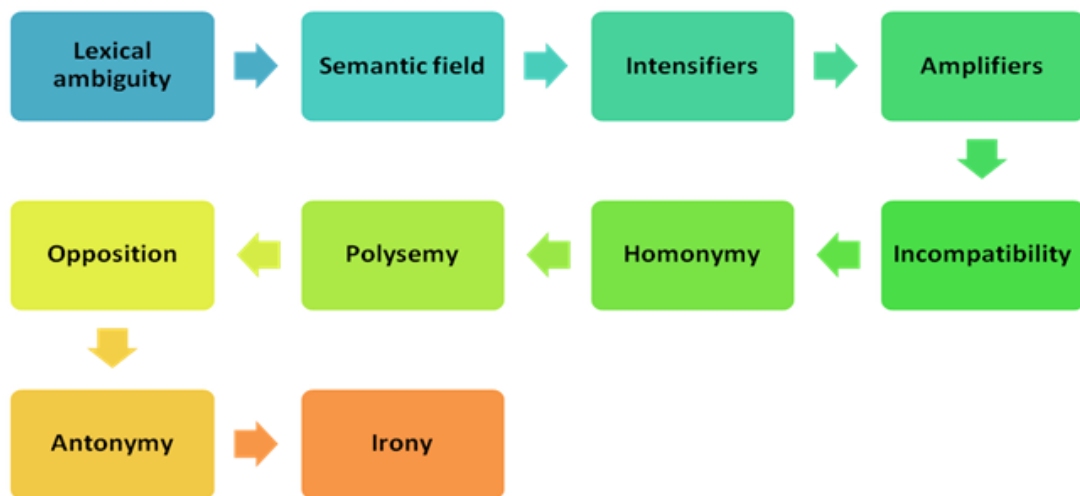


Fig. 1 – Associations of enantiosemy with other linguistic units

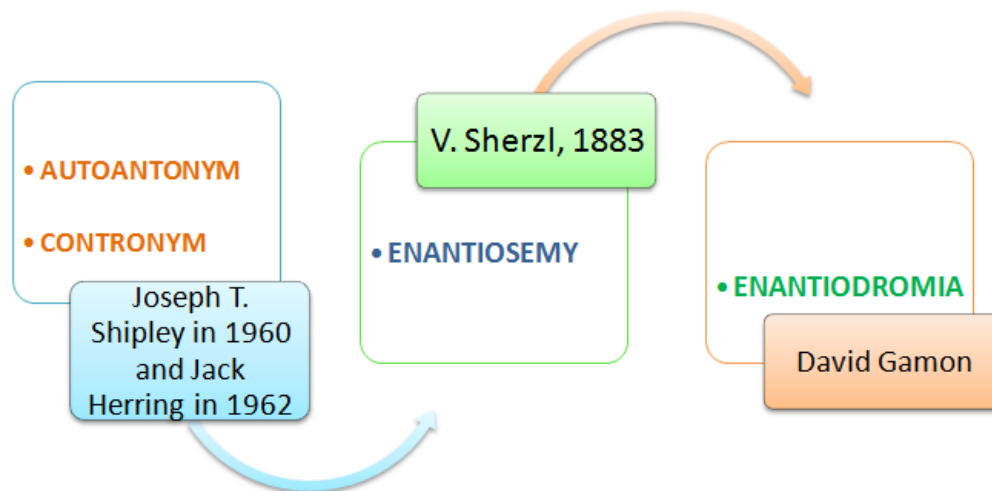


Fig. 2

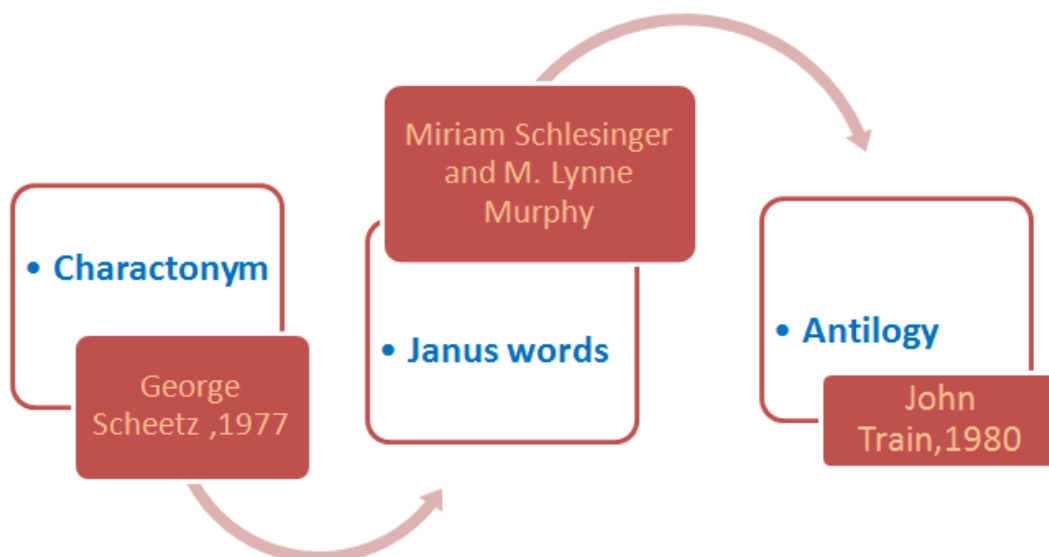


Fig. 3 – Concepts for the “enantiosemy” phenomenon given throughout history by different linguists (Fig. 2)

Results

As the main reason for the emergence of opposing meanings within a single word, they identified an indefinite content of ancient roots. This point of view is supported by other scientists. For example, Bulakhovskiy L. A. notes that the phenomenon of enantiosemia occurs when the "third, intermediate meaning" with various semantic nuances is traced in those or other contexts. The main reasons for its emergence were borrowings, polysemantic words, the formation of complex words, etc. Types of enantiosemia can be represented in the form of oppositions: synchronic – diachronic, linguistic – within speech, lexical – grammatical,

lexemic – phraseological, denotative – connotative, intra- and interlingual. Let's consider some of them:

Diachronic enantiosemia – words that have acquired the opposite (negative or positive) meaning with time:

The English word *resent* is the primary obsolete meaning "evaluate, appreciate," the secondary modern is the opposite one.

The word *courage* we use as a synonym for the words "heroism", "fearlessness". And the original meaning was violation of moral norms, arrogance. So they called an arrogant man. Likewise is the word *boldness*.

Table 1 - Interlingual enantiosemia

| | |
|---|---|
| ▪ "Gift" from German – poison (с немецкого →яд) | ▪ From English into Russian "present"(в русском языке переводится как дар, подарок) |
| ▪ «uroda» polish word – "Beauty" (с польского языка – красавица) | ▪ In Russian is translated "ugly"(в русском языке «урод») |
| ▪ «zapomnieć» - to forget (забыть) | ▪ In Russian the same word is vice versa "to remember" (запомнить) |
| ▪ «вунь, воняфки» Czech word means perfume in Russian (чешское слово имеет значение «духи») | ▪ In Russian is "stink" (в русском языке «вонь» – неприятный запах) |

Interlanguage (interlingual) enantiosemia is when the words' spelling in some languages is similar or identical, but have a completely opposite meaning. Obviously, enantiosemia between two languages, as compared with that inside the first one, can prevent much greater understanding. Since such words cause confusion and misunderstanding in the reader or interlocutor enantiosemia study is an important element in the translation of texts, speeches, as well as in the study of the language itself.

Enantiosemia can occur in different forms, including words, contexts, phrases, within one or cross-languages. The most interesting type probably is **lexical enantiosemia**. In this type of enantiosemia lexical-semantic characteristics play an important role. There are interesting moments in translating enantiosemia from one language to another, in this case from English to Russian.

It is clearly evident in the example:

• "I mention this peaceful spot *with all possible laud* for it is in such little retired Dutch valleys..." (Я упоминаю об этом тихом и *безмятежном* уголке со *всяческой похвалой*; в этих *маленьких забытых* голландских долинах, разбросанных по обширному штату). Analyzing this example, we can say there's irony (enantiosemia is closely connected with irony) as the author means the opposite, though he uses praising words.

• He *belated* for the dawn and hurried up – Он спешил чтобы *не опоздать* к рассвету.

• The cognomen of Crane *was not* inapplicable to his person – Фамилия Крейн довольно *хорошо подходила* к его наружности.

• Justice *was rewarded with* double portion of the birch [2]. – Usually this word has positive meaning, e.g. *to be rewarded by medal*; but in this context it has negative meaning: *to punish somebody*. «Он *миловал щуплого, несчастного паренька, вздрагивающего при малейшем взмахе лозы, но справедливость при этом ничуть не страдала: она вознаграждалась двойной порцией розог, всыпанных какому-нибудь коренастому, крепкому, упрямому и надоедливому пострелу, который под лозой хмурился, пыжился и становился все упрямее и угрюмее*; «вознаграждаться», в значении: 1) за услуги, службу, учебу, – грамотой, медалью; 2)отплатить деньгами – за помощь; 3) наказать – бранью, розгами.

• It was a matter of *no little vanity* to him on Sundays, to take his station in front of the church gallery, with a band of chosen singers; where, in his own mind, he completely carried away the palm from *the parson* [2]. Он *преисполнялся гордости и тщеславия*, когда по воскресным дням занимал свое место на хорах церкви, впереди группы отборных певцов; стоя здесь, он считал в глубине души, что пальма первенства принадлежит, бесспорно ему, *а не священнику*.

• *were often filled with awe at* – *не раз содрогались от страха* [2].

• *was always greeted with satisfaction* – *встречали не без известного удовольствия* [2].

• Her nerves began *to recover from* the shock they had received. – она начала оправляться от испытанного потрясения; *to recover from* – приходить в себя от болезни, испуга, удивления [5, P. 23].

• *To lend* – одалживать, давать займы; *to give money and also ask for money* [2, P. 30].

• *Nothing loath* – means willing, though the word loath means unwilling [2, P. 31]. Very interesting combination of words: negative words give positive meaning.

• *To keep up* – means to continue, in translation into Russian not stop; не прекращать, не меняться [6, P.13].

• *It was no very usual thing...* - это было вполне обычным делом... [7, P. 9]

Variations on this theme include **not bad**, **not half bad**, and **not so bad**, which translate as "good," "pretty good," or, depending on intonation — "Not bad!" — as "very good."

Conclusion

Hence, enantiosemia is such phenomenon that incorporates many linguistic means, such as antonymy, homonymy, etc. giving it a variety of shades, so that each language becomes unique. Consequently, negative sentence transfers into positive in translation, or vice versa: positive sentence becomes negative. And also the conducted analysis allows to draw a conclusion that: 1) enantiosemia has an ambiguous character (the speaker usually means the opposite); 2) most often enantiosemia occurs in oral speech and 3) when translated into another language, in most cases it is lost. On this topic, further deep study is possible, this research can be expanded on the basis of other works, poems,

etc. and can be continued on the basis of Uzbek language, since it is little known on this topic.

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РОДНОЙ ЯЗЫК В МОНОЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОЙ И МНОГОЯЗЫЧНОЙ СРЕДЕ

Аннотация

В работе представлен небольшой исследовательский проект, направленный на изучение российских монолингвов в Москве и турецких билингвов, живущих в Берлине, Германия. Дети исследовались с помощью теста раннего развития языка (3-е изд.), и, несмотря на определенные ограничения в исследовании, результаты указывают на интересные тенденции. Российские дети-монолингвы показали лучшие результаты в разделе, посвященном пониманию текста, чем турецкие билингвы; однако в разделе, тестирующем продуктивные навыки, обе группы детей имели одинаковые результаты. У всех детей были трудности с пониманием абстрактных терминов, определенных предлогов, сложных предложений, с пересказом текста или созданием сюжетной истории с помощью картинок. Билингвизм не является препятствием для развития родного языка, но, похоже, существуют универсальные факторы, влияющие на процесс освоения языка.

Ключевые слова: монолингвизм, билингвизм, русский, турецкий, родной язык, развитие языка.

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THE MOTHER TONGUE IN MONOLINGUAL AND MULTILINGUAL CONTEXT

Abstract

The study presents a small research project on Russian monolingual children in Moscow, and Turkish bilingual children living in Berlin, Germany. The children were examined with using the Test of Early Language Development (3rd ed.), and despite the limitations of the study, the findings point up interesting tendencies. In the comprehension section of the test, the Russian monolinguals did much better than the Turkish bilinguals; however, in the section testing production, both groups of children had the same results. All children had difficulties in acquisition of abstract terms, certain prepositions, complex sentences and retelling or creating a story narrative from pictures. Bilingualism is not an obstacle for mother tongue development, but it seems there are universal factors which influence the process of language acquisition.

Keywords: monolingualism, bilingualism, Russian, Turkish, mother tongue, language development.

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Introduction

It is known from developmental psychology that by the age of five, children have already fully developed their language competence and that genetic factors play an important role in this process [7]. However, another important factor together with the genetic elements in child early language development, creating different groups, is the culture and family environment in which children grow up. In earlier publications [4, 5], we showed different strategies used by parents and educators teaching the children their mother tongue (Romani) or teaching Russian as a second language to minority children. That research shed light on the importance of the surrounding culture for the development of children's language competence. Family environment, the socio-economic status of the family, the parental education level, different activities interacting with children such as oral children's folklore, book reading, storytelling, playing with children are important factors in the process of language development. Experts researching child language development [2] discovered a statistical correlation between the educational status of mothers and the language competence of the children. The children whose mothers have a higher level of formal education have higher greater language competence, and precisely the opposite pertains: children whose mothers have a lower level of formal school education have a lower degree of language competence. "Mothers that have a higher level of education speak with their children longer and more often, using a broad and more diverse vocabulary...Mothers with higher education also read to their children more frequently, and when reading together they include their children in linguistic interaction" [7:32]. Another important factor for the linguistic and cognitive development of the children are the years spent in kindergarten. There is a positive correlation

between the years spent in kindergarten and the school success of the children as they move on to primary classes.

The present paper deals with two groups of preschool children: bilingual Turkish-German children in Berlin, Germany and monolingual Russian children in Moscow, Russia. The two groups have the same socio-economic status, the parents' educational level is the same, and the family environments of both groups are similar. The only difference between the two groups of children is their language environment: multicultural/multilingual in Germany and monocultural/monolingual in Russia.

The research question investigated is:

Do the monolingual and multilingual children have a similar language competence and what specific cultural factors facilitate the process of mother tongue development?

Methodology

Ten children aged 4-5, Russian-speaking monolinguals, from Kindergarten № 215 in southwestern Moscow and ten children aged 4-5 years, Turkish-German-speaking bilinguals, from a kindergarten in Wedding in Berlin, Germany were tested in their mother tongues, Russian and Turkish respectively utilizing the *Test of Early Language Development* (3rd ed.) [6]. The Turkish children in Berlin are also learning English together with Turkish and German. The Russian children know and learn only in Russian in the kindergarten. The Test is comprised of two parts: comprehension and production. Each child is tested individually. The results were analyzed with ANOVA.

Results

The data was analyzed by 2-way ANOVA for two dependent variables separately: total scores on the Comprehension Test and total scores on the Production Test. The independent factor is the *mother tongue*.

Comprehension Test

The independent factor *mother tongue* has a statistically significant impact on the total scores in the Comprehension Test as a dependent variable ($F = 10,125$; $p < 0,01$). Russian

children have greater mean total scores 9,9 on this test than the mean total scores 9,0 of the Turkish children (see Fig. 1). Size effect is large (Partial eta-squared=0.39).

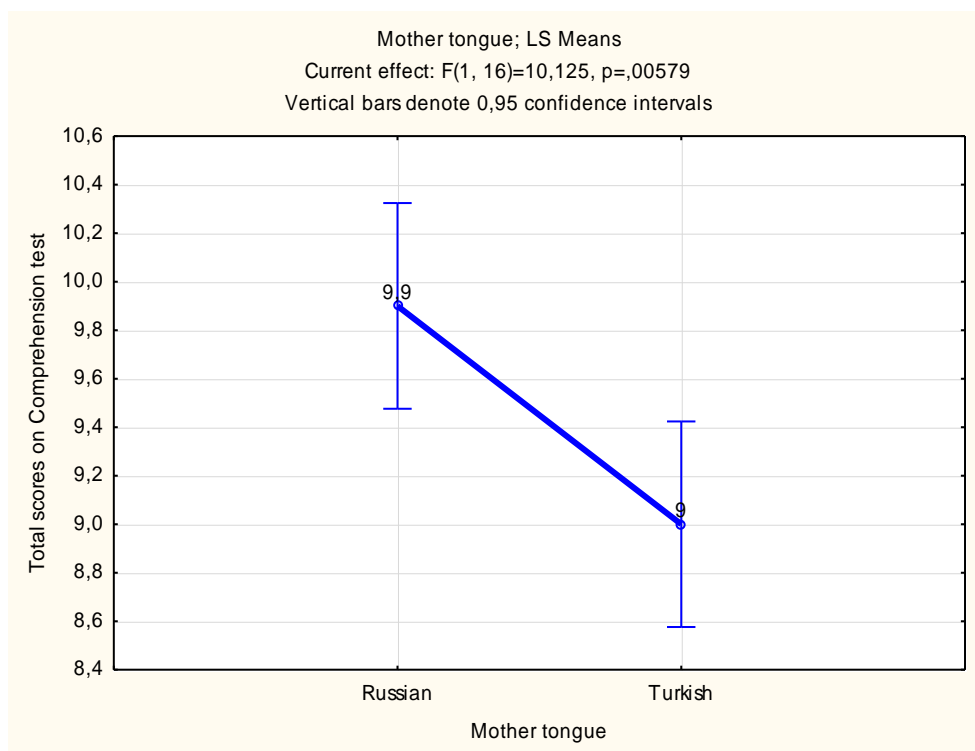


Fig. 1 – Total scores on Comprehension Test as a function of mother tongue

The impact of the factor Gender on the dependent variable Comprehension is not statistically significant ($F = 0,125$; $p > 0,05$). The interaction between the factors *mother tongue* and *gender* has no statistical significance impact on the Comprehension section of the test. ($F = 1,125$; $p > 0,05$). In other words, by the age of 4-5 the Russian monolingual children understand more grammatical categories such as: nouns, verbs, prepositions, adjectives and adverbs than the Turkish bilingual children.

Production Test

The impact of the factor *mother tongue* on the total scores in the Production Test as a dependent variable is not statistically significant ($F = 2,28$; $p > 0,05$). There is no statistically significant impact of the factor Gender on the total scores in the Production Test as a dependent variable ($F = 0,143$; $p > 0,05$). The interaction between the factors *mother tongue* and *gender* again has no statistical significance impact on this dependent variable Production ($F = 0,143$; $p > 0,05$). The results are illustrated in the next fig. 2.

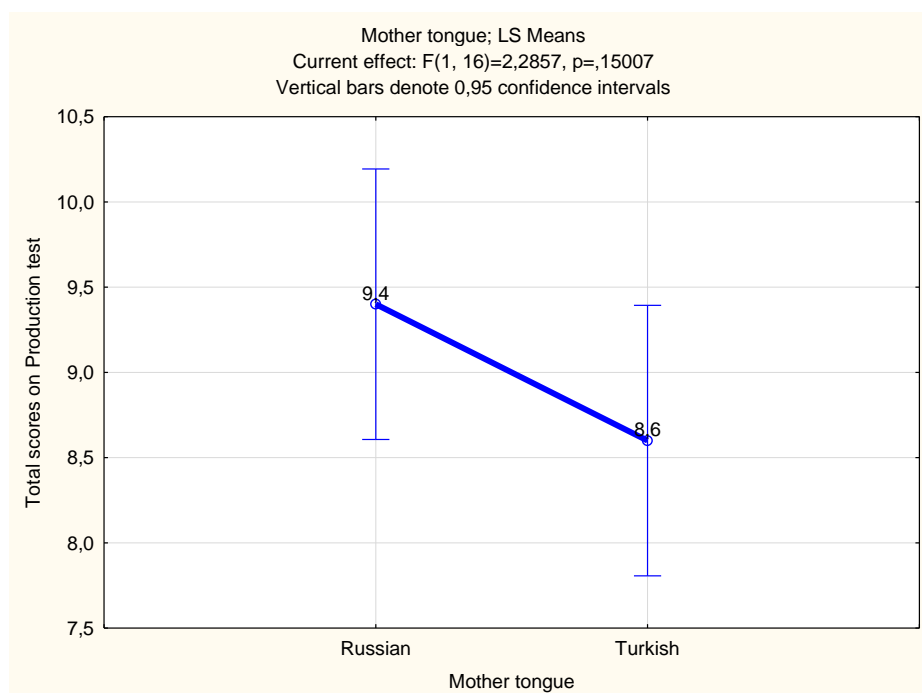


Fig. 2 – Total scores on Production Test as a function of Mother tongue

The results show that both groups have difficulties producing the complex sentences, retelling a short story or creating a story based on a series of pictures.

Discussion

Although the study is very limited, conducted with only 10 monolingual children from Russia and 10 bilingual children from Germany, the results show certain interesting tendencies. The monolingual Russian children from Moscow understand the test in their *mother tongue* (Russian) much better than the bilingual Turkish children living in Berlin. It seems the bilingual children do not have problems in comprehension of vocabulary in their *mother tongue* (Turkish), but have some problems in comprehension of several prepositions, verbs, and complex sentences.

The Production Test shows that there are no statistically significant differences between the two groups. Both groups have difficulties in acquiring the abstract terms. For example, one part of the children in both groups know the names of different toys (ball, puppet, car) but they do not know the general term (toys). Some of the bilingual children knew these terms in German, but not in Turkish. Another problem for both groups were the construction of complex sentences and retelling a short story which they hear from the researcher. By the age of 4-5, the children have to be able to use complex sentences and to retell a short story. However, it seems the bilingualism of the children is not a reason for poor performance in the Test. It seems this is a universal phenomenon, and the educators in kindergartens and the families have to pay more attention to this particular part of grammar of the mother tongue in order to have a well-developed grammar by the age of 6. The ability to construct complex sentences and to create narratives is very important for the literacy acquisition and development process in the primary grades.

The Turkish children in Berlin have lessons in their mother tongue once a week, and lesson once a week in English. In the kindergarten, the children and the staff are free to use both Turkish and German in everyday communication. The present study findings suggest that learning three languages causes some delay in the development of the mother tongue but this is a natural process in the development of bilingual children. According

to educators, the problem comes from the families, because most of the parents are young, working full-time and very often do not have time to play with the children, to read books in Turkish, to tell fairytales or to learn songs in their mother tongue in the home environment. Most families use TV programs, tablets or iPhones in order to keep their children quiet and occupied.

Yet one lesson per week in the mother tongue of the children is not enough for developing strong grammatical skills. The teachers of Turkish as a mother tongue complain that what the children learn during the lesson they have already forgotten a week later. The kindergartens do not have sufficient supportive resource materials - not enough children's books in Turkish, there are no textbooks for kindergarten level in Turkish as a mother tongue, and no animated children's films that can help them to develop the mother tongue.

Conclusion

The research findings here suggest that despite the small number of children tested in the research, the bilingual and monolingual children have universal difficulties learning some grammatical categories such as syntactical structures, and narrative development abilities such as the retelling of a story. There is evidence to suggest that some of the grammatical and pragmatic competences are acquired later in life and are not yet established by the age of 4-5. Some of the Russian researchers, such as O.S. Ushakova, [8] and V. I. Yashina [10], following the ideas of L. Vygotsky, have developed methodological guidelines for training syntax acquisition and particularly the narrative competence of the children by the age of 5.

However, the research evidence suggests that language acquisition should be treated as an important barometer of success in complex integrative tasks. Johnston [3] states: "Fortunately, the research evidence also indicates that it is possible to accelerate language learning. Even though the child must be the one to create the abstract patterns from the language data, we can facilitate this learning (a) by presenting language examples that are in accord with the child's perceptual, social and cognitive resources; and (b) by choosing learning goals that are in harmony with the common course of development".

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.17>Гатауллина К.Н.¹, Мустафина Д.Н.², Нурутдинова Н.Р.³, Соколова И.А.⁴, Айдаева Г.Ф.⁵¹ORCID: 0000-0002-6151-7340, аспирант; ²ORCID: 0000-0001-5770-4111, Доцент, доктор филологических наук, ^{3,4,5} Аспирант, Набережночелнинский (филиал) институт Казанского Федерального Университета**СОПОСТАВИТЕЛЬНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ КОЛИЧЕСТВЕННЫХ ПАРАМЕТРОВ ФУНКЦИОНАЛЬНОГО ПОТЕНЦИАЛА ИРЛАНДСКОГО ЯЗЫКА В ИРЛАНДИИ И СЕВЕРНОЙ ИРЛАНДИИ****Аннотация**

Глобализационные процессы создают неблагоприятные условия для сохранения и развития региональных языков, что вызывает озабоченность зарубежных и российских социолингвистов и делает актуальными исследования в области функционального потенциала региональных языков, рисков в процессах, направленных на их сохранение и развитие, разработки адекватных моделей языковых политик федеративных и многонациональных государств. Статья изучает вопрос функционального развития ирландского языка, который находится под защитой Европейской Хартии региональных языков и языков меньшинств в Великобритании и является государственным языком Ирландии. Целью исследования является сравнительный анализ количественных параметров ирландского языка в Ирландии и Северной Ирландии. Результаты исследования позволяют представить языковую ситуацию в регионах, проследить и спрогнозировать развитие функционального потенциала ирландского языка в сравниваемых регионах. Результаты исследования имеют практическое значение для языкового планирования, повышения эффективности языковой политики.

Ключевые слова: языковая политика, языковая ситуация, количественный анализ, ирландский язык, Северная Ирландия, Ирландия.

Gataullina K.N.¹, Mustafina D.N.², Nurutdinova N.R.³, Sokolova I.A.⁴, Aydaeva G.F.⁵¹ORCID: 0000-0002-6151-7340, Postgraduate student; ²ORCID: 0000-0001-5770-4111, Associate professor, PhD in Philology, ^{3,4,5}Postgraduate student, Kazan Federal University, Naberezhnye Chelny Institute**COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA OF THE IRISH LANGUAGE FUNCTIONAL POWER IN IRELAND AND NORTHERN IRELAND****Abstract**

The globalization processes put a number of regional languages on the verge of extinction, therefore, they have raised awareness of protecting and maintaining the minority languages among a great number of foreign and Russian scholars. The paper deals with Irish that is under protection of the European Charter for regional and Minority Languages in UK and is an official language of Ireland. The research is aimed at comparing the Irish language position in both regions: Ireland and Northern Ireland. Reviewing the quantitative data in the regions under the study allows us to see clearly the language situation, monitor development, and relying on the achieved results, assess the current state and predict the future of Irish in both regions. The research results are considered to be of practical use for further language planning, improving the efficiency of language policies.

Keywords: language policy, language situation, quantitative data analysis, the Irish language, Northern Ireland, Ireland.

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Introduction

Scientific interest and attention are drawn to regional and minority languages due to public concerns of decline in linguistic diversity caused by the globalization processes. Preservation and maintenance of regional and minority languages, analysis of both the phenomenon patterns and new trends in the area are the object of sociolinguistic research of Russian and foreign scholars as Fishman J., Ferguson Ch., Kloss H., Alpatov V. M., Sveytser A. D., Nikolskiy L. B., Bayramova L. K., Volodarskaya E. F., Mustafina D. N., Grishaeva E. B., Slavina L. R., and others [1-20]. Literature review proves complexity and size of the linguistic diversity maintenance issue. Decline in the language functions is a result of the certain external and internal factors - political, religious, and cultural. In some cases the crucial factor is that society and a state or region do not give due heed to a language.

Today, the matter of regional language protection goes beyond one single state and acquires international importance. Within the context the language policy issues require sound scientific and empirical base. The term "language policy" is associated both with state/region actions and scientific movement in sociolinguistics that is targeted at demonstrating patterns of language situation development, introducing influence and control mechanisms for this important field. Klovov V.T. defines "language policy" as "conscious and targeted influence on a language functions and systems from the side of administrative and non-

administrative representatives, social institutions, parties, governments, classes, and others" [21, P. 15-16]. Mustafina D. N. puts forward the following definition: "language policy is the state's actions on regulation of its own language paradigm so as to adjust it to the goals and objectives of the state national policy" [9, P. 113]. Language policy and language situation are, nowadays, mutually influential and cannot be viewed separately. According to the definition by Mustafina D. N., language situation is "combination of historically based quantitative and qualitative features of a language situation in a region or state that is viewed within the context of the relevant extralinguistic factors" [9, P. 40]. Mechkovskaya N. B. views language situation as a group of language forms, i.e. languages and language variations (dialects, jargon, functional styles, and other forms of language existence) that are used by a society (an ethnos or multiethnic community) within a region, political and territorial entity, or state [22]. She classifies a language situation by the following features:

1. Number of language forms (single - / multi-component);
2. Number of ethnic language forms (multi-component one language situation/ multi-component two-(three-, four-, five -) language situation);
3. Percentage of people speaking each language (demographically equal/unequal situation);
4. Number of communicative functions of each language formation (balanced/imbalanced);

5. Language legal status (equal/unequal);
6. Genetic relationship of languages composing a language situation (closely related/not closely related/unrelated languages)
7. Language prestige within a society.

The above mentioned list of features can be divided into quantitative (1-4 features) and qualitative (5-7 features) profiles of a language situation [22-23]. Therefore, the theoretic base for language situation study covers a group of aspects that prove complexity and multiplicity of the matter.

One of the examples of the complex approach to the language policy is the document developed by European Council – the European Charter for Regional and Minority Languages (hereinafter Charter) [24]. The document is developed for protection and revitalization of the regional languages, and November, 2017 is 25th anniversary of Charter adoption. The states signing the Charter plan their language policy as outlined in the document that puts forward the various levels of regional and minority language maintenance according to the conditions of their functioning within a state or region.

It should be highlighted that in the United Kingdom Irish as a co-official language of Northern Ireland is under protection of the Charter, however, Ireland has not signed the Charter so far.

Methods

In the paper we applied the methods of comparative analysis, the quantitative research method, and the results of the review are synthesized in the tables. The research demonstrates the comparative analysis of the language situation in Ireland and Northern Ireland. The object of the research is the Irish language functional potential.

Structurally, the paper is divided into two parts: the first part gives a brief review of the Irish language on the island and the second one focuses on the present situation and quantitative data of both regions.

Discussion

Irish belongs to the Celtic group and Goidelic subgroup of languages. In the 17th century when the Plantations of Ireland began, English started gradually superseding Irish in the various spheres. Irish was considered as a language of poverty and lower social classes whereas English was beneficial for those who sought sound financial standing and higher position in a society. Decline in Irish social prestige was precipitated after the Great Famine (1845-49) when Ireland's population decreased by 1 mln. [25]. Despite the low social prestige, within the state the attempts were undertaken to preserve Irish and promote its use among the people. The key part in developing a favourable language policy belonged to the Gaelic League set up in 1893. After Ireland being divided into Free State (1922) and Northern Ireland (1921), one can observe two different language policies towards the Irish language. In Ireland both Irish and English became official languages and Irish was among the compulsory exam subjects since then. In 1937 Irish gained a status of the first official language as a national language of the country [26, P. 10]. However, Northern Ireland government withdrew funding for support and development of Irish and eliminated it from the curriculum at education institutions. Speaking Irish was considered to show disloyalty to the government of England. Irish-medium education was reintroduced only in 1971 [27]. Here we observe the use of a language as a political instrument which is historical trend and thus implies a greater role of a language in developing and realizing national policy of a state than being solely the means of communication. In the next section we are presenting the quantitative data on the Irish language in Ireland and Northern Ireland which will demonstrate the current trends in the language situation in both regions.

Results

Ireland

Census 2011 results show that the population of Ireland is about 4,6 mln people. Approximately 1,77 mln (41,4 %) of total population claims that they can speak Irish.

Table1 – Number of Irish speaking people by age

| | Total, thsd. | Number of Irish speakers, thsd. | Percent of Irish speakers, % |
|-----------|--------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------|
| Age 3-4 | 138,7 | 18,7 | 14,3 |
| Age 5-9 | 320,8 | 198,9 | 63,6 |
| Age 10-14 | 302,4 | 219,3 | 73,7 |
| Age 15-19 | 283 | 178,7 | 64,2 |
| Age 20-24 | 297,2 | 128,6 | 44,2 |
| Age 25-34 | 755 | 260,9 | 35,2 |
| Age 35-44 | 695 | 234 | 34,3 |
| Age 45-54 | 579,6 | 196,5 | 34,4 |
| Age 55-64 | 463,3 | 164,3 | 36,1 |
| Age 65+ | 535,4 | 174 | 33,5 |

The data demonstrated in Table 1 points out that the higher percentage of Irish speaking people is recorded among children and teenagers. The highest percentage (73,7%) is registered among the people aged 10-14 years. This fact proves success of the Irish education strategy at school. According to the reports on Census 2011 results,

180,9 thsd of 10-14 year-old-respondents claim that use Irish everyday at school as well as 169,3 thsd respondents aged 5-9 years and 178,7 thsd aged 15-19 years. It should be taken into account that 38,4 thsd people of the total population use Irish outside the educational institutions, and 21,6 thsd of them speak Irish daily.

Table 2 – Use of Irish outside the educational institutions by age

| Age 3-4 | Age 5-9 | Age 10-14 | Age 15-19 | Age 20-24 | Age 25-34 | Age 35-44 | Age 45-54 | Age 55-64 | Age 65+ | Total |
|---------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|------------|
| 1 thsd | 8,6 thsd. | 9,5 thsd. | 7,8 thsd. | 1,5 thsd. | 2,7 thsd. | 2,5 thsd. | 2,3 thsd. | 1,3 thsd. | 937 | 38,4 thsd. |

Having analyzed Table 2 data by the age groups, one can notice that the higher percentage is among the respondents of 10-14 years old; it adds up to 24% out of the total number of Irish speaking population outside the educational system, the respondents aged 5-9 and 15-19 make 22% and 20% respectively [28].

Hence, the young generation aged 5-19 amounts to 66% out of this category that proves a positive tendency in functional development of Irish within the education system.

The Economic and Social Research Institute published Attitudes towards the Irish Language on the Island of Ireland report in August 2015. The report recapitulates and organizes the results of Irish Language Survey 2013 [29]. The survey points to the fact that 50% of respondents speaking Irish fluently does not start a conversation in Irish in everyday life, and 49% does not want to talk Irish if there is a person who has no Irish command. Moreover, 75% of the responders with advanced language skills states that Irish is not spoken within their circle. The question on attitudes towards Irish received positive answers from 67% respondents, and 64% of population believes that Irish is critical for preserving the national identity.

Northern Ireland

According to Census 2011 results, the total population of Northern Ireland amounts roughly to 1,736 mln people aged

over 3 years. The linguistic composition of the region is diverse: the largest number is presented by people who state that English is their main language of communication (96,86%), the second in number of speakers is Polish (1,02%), the third—Lithuanian (0,36%). Irish takes the forth position with 0,24% of people who consider it to be their native language. The language skills analysis of the population demonstrates the following data: 4,06% (70,5 thsd.) can understand, but cannot read, write, and speak Irish; 1,42% (9,2 thsd.) can speak, but cannot write and read Irish; 0,43% (1,66 thsd.) can speak and read, but cannot write Irish; 3,74% (64,85 thsd.) can write, read, and speak Irish [30]. The Department of Culture, Art, and Leisure of Northern Ireland undertakes statistical review of Irish skills and usage so as to trace the dynamics of functional development of Northern Ireland's co-official language. The review makes it possible for the government to weigh up the language position and plan the language policy targeting at further Irish position strengthening amidst the population. At present, three reports on Knowledge and Use of Irish in Northern Ireland (2011/2012, 2013/2014, 2015/2016) have been published [31-33].

Table 3 – Irish skills by age.

| | Total % of the Irish speakers out of the number questioned | Age 16-24, %, within a group | Age 25-34, %, within a group | Age 35-44, %, within a group | Age 45-54, %, within a group | Age 55-64, %, within a group | Age 65+, %, within a group |
|-----------|--|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 2011/2012 | 13 | 15 | 17 | 16 | 13 | 10 | 8 |
| 2013/2014 | 15 | 20 | 17 | 15 | 16 | 13 | 10 |
| 2015/2016 | 15 | 21 | 16 | 14 | 14 | 15 | 10 |

*The percentage is deduced in each age group separately

The base for the survey in 2011/12 was 3686 respondents, in 2013/14 - 3751, in 2015/16 the number of the people questioned amounted to 3285. According to the obtained data, the number of people with Irish command (can read/write/speak/understand) has increased by 2% in 2016 since 2011. The next obvious tendency is increase in the number of people aged 16-24 knowing Irish. The fact suggests that the young people show certain interest in the language and this can be attributed to the relatively successful language policy and planning in the region. The surveys of 2011/12 and 2015/16 contain the question on whether you

want to learn Irish or advance your Irish, as a result “yes” answers add up to 18% and 19% respectively. However, the number of the respondents who speak Irish daily is 0%, and 4% uses it once in a while at home or in society (the figure has not changed throughout the reported years) [31-33].

The survey Public Attitudes towards the Irish Language in Northern Ireland was conducted in 2012 [34]. The results of the survey point to the fact that 35% of the respondents has a positive attitudes towards Irish, 29% - negative, 35% - indifferent.

Table 4 – Attitudes towards Irish by age (%)

| | Age 16-24 | Age 25-34 | Age 35-44 | Age 45-54 | Age 55-64 | Age 65+ |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|---------|
| positive | 32 | 41 | 43 | 35 | 28 | 31 |
| negative | 23 | 28 | 20 | 31 | 38 | 34 |
| indifferent | 46 | 31 | 36 | 34 | 34 | 34 |

The number of people with positive attitude towards Irish is significantly higher among the respondents aged 35-44 compared to those aged 55-64 (43% and 28% respectively). However, it should be taken into account that 46% of respondents aged 16-24 and 34% aged 25-34 assert to be indifferent towards the language. 41% of respondents agree that some measures should be taken to support Irish and motivate people to use it (35% - disagree). The question “what would make people use Irish more often?” is answered as follows: 18% suggests that more possibilities to learn the

language while gaining education and 58% states that “nothing”. 41% of the population aged 16-24 is for the opportunity to learn Irish, however, the older generation claims that nothing can motivate them to use Irish (72% aged over 65+) [34].

Conclusion

The review of the quantitative data makes it possible to weigh up the Irish language position in Ireland and Northern Ireland. Ireland demonstrates an efficiently planned education strategy that allows students to master the Irish language

skills. Over 53% of population asserts that the government should strengthen efforts in the Irish teaching sphere. In Northern Ireland it is considered that the efforts should be put into developing TV and radio in Irish as a tool of language revival [29]. The survey results stress out that in Ireland a number of the respondents view Irish positively and consider it to be a main part of the national identity, however, the number of people speaking it every day is not sufficient. Hence, the priority of the regions' government is to motivate people to use the regional language within and outside the educational system. The key part in this objection should be assigned to family since according to statistics people who learned the language within their family are more likely to speak it fluently and use it more often (e.g.: Irish is being spoken by 56% (Ireland) and 45% (Northern Ireland) by those who heard Irish at home and 18% (Ireland) and 6% (Northern Ireland) of those, who did not speak Irish at home [35]. Most of the respondents in both regions are for

becoming a bilingual state, but with English as a main language (43% Ireland, 34% Northern Ireland) [29].

The obtained results of the regions' qualitative analysis allow forecasting Irish further development. Having reviewed the language situation in Ireland we can assume that Irish is gradually taking a strong position in society. When the people start speak Irish more often, Ireland will be likely to become a bilingual state. However, when it comes to the future of Irish in Northern Ireland, it is difficult to forecast it. There are two crucial reasons for that: the first, the regional language comes fourth by number of speakers, the second, almost the half of the population does not show any positive attitudes towards the processes of Irish development. However, one of the possible options for strengthening Irish in Northern Ireland is to actively interact with Ireland, use it in educational programs, and other resources for maintaining the functional power of co-official language of the region.

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СЛАВЯНСКИЕ ЛЕКСИКОГРАФИЧЕСКИЕ ИСТОЧНИКИ В ИСТОРИКО-ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ ИССЛЕДОВАНИЯХ (НА ПРИМЕРЕ ЛЕКСЕМЫ ЛАСТОЧКА)

Аннотация

Изучение важных явлений в истории славянских языков связано с анализом диалектной лексики, зафиксированной в словарях. Этимологические исследования диалектной лексики признаны одной из важнейших задач системного, комплексного, целевого изучения русских народных говоров. Целью данной статьи является изучение этимологии лексемы ласточка на материале славянских лексикографических источников, фиксирование разных значений данного слова в памятниках народной культуры. Авторы делают вывод о том, что этимологически объединяет различные названия зверей и птиц и на каком основании они сближаются в русских диалектах.

Ключевые слова: язык, культура, этнолингвистика, лексикография, этимология.

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ETYMOLOGICAL ANALYSIS OF LASTOCHKA (SWALLOW) LEXEME AS A CASE STUDY OF SLAVIC LEXICOGRAPHIC SOURCES

Abstract

The most important linguistic phenomena in the history of Slavic languages are associated with the analysis of dialect vocabulary documented in different dictionaries. Etymological study of dialect vocabulary is recognized as one of the most important tasks of systematic, complex, targeted study of Russian folk dialects. This article examines the etymology of lastochka (swallow) lexeme as a case study of the Slavic lexicographic sources, exemplifies meanings of lastochka lexeme embodied in the folk culture heritage. The authors identify etymological grounds for combining and converging different names of animals and birds in Russian dialects.

Keywords: language, culture, ethnolinguistics, lexicography, etymology.

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Introduction

In different cultures and nations swallow symbolizes things like spring, morning and rebirth, hope, friendship and loyalty. The Egyptians believed that swallow was embodiment of motherhood, and a flock of swallow was seen as the North stars hanging over the Life Tree. In Ancient Greece and Rome to kill a swallow meant to court disaster, because swallow symbolized dead children spirits; besides, it was an attribute of Aphrodite (Venus). The Swedish legend tells of a swallow which like a stork appeared at the Crucifixion site and cried out for consolation: Svala! Svala! (cf. Eng. swallow). In China swallow is a symbol of courage, danger, loyalty and positive destiny changes but in Japan it symbolizes mothering care as well as infidelity. The Muslims also honor swallow as they believe that it makes its annual pilgrimage to Mecca. In heraldry swallow was depicted as a fantastic bird without feet on the coat of arms because in the middle ages swallow was believed not to touch the ground (this idea is also reflected in African cultures, where the swallow represents purity) [2, P. 248–249].

Swallows are traditionally among the most beloved and honored birds in Russian culture; it embodies female symbolic and the combination of the heavenly and chthonic beginning. Swallow is a pure, holy bird which along with dove and lark belongs to God's birds. Swallows' twittering is perceived as a tireless prayer.

A number of legends can be found in ethnolinguistic dictionary "Slavic Antiquities" where swallow appears to be the Savior, the Protector. The folk tale of the Crucifixion tells how swallows were trying to save the Christ from agony, shouting "dead, dead!" (Rus., Polish.), taking out thorns from his wreath (Rus., Ukr.) bringing him water (Ukr.), moaning and circling over his head (Pol.).

Like a dove and lark, swallows are considered sacred (Eng.), birds of God (Pol.), loved by the God (Rus.), birds whose singing praises the God (Bosn.-Herzegovin.). Its twittering is perceived as relentless litany reading (Kashub.),

like a prayer: "Holy God, Holy Mighty, Holy immortal, have mercy on us" (Rus.). In Ukrainian song swallow is like the Mother of God: "On the shore of the Dunai, the swallow was bathing. That was not a swallow, but the Mother of God..." (Chub.) [3, P. 85].

According to the South Slavic etiological legends a swallow saved a man from the bloodthirsty snake after the Flood (Bosn., Bolg., Rodop.), and the snake bit off swallow's tail, that is why swallows have forked tails (Serb.). This bird also saved the Sun from the snake which wanted to devour it. The swallow hid the Sun under its wings (Dalmatian., Bosn.-Herzegovin.) and took it up in the sky (Croatian. Bosn.) [3, P. 85].

In the Bulgarian legends swallow is a girl who married the Sun (Plovdiv.) or was given in marriage to a robber (Svistov.) and then she escaped. She was taken by the veil or kosnik (Old Russian plait accessories) or by the hair and a clump of it was pulled out, that is why swallows have forked tails. The Polish legend explains that the swallow got its tail and its red goiter as a punishment for stealing scissors and a ball of red thread from the Mother of God. In some of the Southern-Slavonic legends swallow symbolizes sister lamenting for a brother. The other two sisters in their grief turned into a cuckoo and a snake (Bosn.-Herzegovin.), or her mother turned into a cuckoo (Macedon.). So the Macedonians think swallow is a cuckoo's daughter. In Serbian and Croatian songs a swallow, cuckoo, and sometimes snake symbolize the inconsolably grieving people [3, P. 85–86].

Swallow also patronizes the house and cattle. Swallow nest under the roof of a house is widely viewed as a sign of happiness. Its nest in the barn has a positive impact on the cattle (Bel.-Poles., Croatian.). Abandoned nest is a sign of death in the family (Ukr. Poles. Galits.). Killing a swallow means no luck in livestock breeding (Russ., West-Ukr. Malopolesye, Croatian.), and destroying the nest means losing shelter (Malopa.) or going blind (Bulgarian., Pol.). The person who does harm to a swallow, will lose their mother

(West-Ukr., Serb., Macedon.) or a relative (Ukr., Pol.) or this person will lose livestock (Ukr., Bulgarian.-Banat.) or the cow will lose milk (z.-Ukr., Pol.) or will give blood milk (West-Ukr. Malopolesye). The swallows' nest is believed to protect the house from lightning (Pol. Croatian) and fire (Bel., Ukr., Kashub.). If someone dares to destroy the nest, the swallow will burn their house (Ukr., Croatian) no wonder she has a red spot like it is a burn (Rus. Oryol.) [3, P. 86].

Some folklore images of swallow is documented by Dal V.I. in his "Explanatory Dictionary of Alive Russian Language": *lastitsa* or *lastka*, *lastovka*, *lastovochka*, *lastochka* (swallow), *lastushka* feminine gender of *ptashka* (little bird) *Hirundo*, *H. urbica et rustica*, *krasnozobka* (red-necked bird) and *forktail* and *kosatka* (whale), *north koshanok*. *Night swallow*, *big black swift*, *sickle*, *serpik* (small sickle). *Stone swallow*, *Sib. mountain swallow of Eastern Siberia*, *Hirundo alpestris*. *Sea swallow is a small species of Petrel*. *Dove and swallow are God's favorite birds*. *Wherever a swallow flies, spring comes*. *Swallow starts the day (spring) and Nightingale finishes it*. *Who washes with milk at the first swallow, becomes white*. *If a swallow flies under a cow, it will give blood milk*. *Swallow, flying into the window, means that somebody will die*. *It is a sin to destroy swallow's nest*. *Who destroys swallow's nest, becomes freckled*. *The Annunciation with no swallows means cold spring*. *Early swallows means happy year*. *Swallows flying high symbolizes wind*. *Swallows flying low, darting around, means rain*. *A young horse has been overseas; back is sable, and the belly is white*. *What is it? Swallow*. *Shitovilo-Beatovilo*, *German speaking, at the front there is a picker, at the back there is a roller, at the top there is a blue cloth and at the bottom there is a white towel*. *What is it? Swallow* [1, P. 239].

Methods

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

Discussion

There are several versions explaining the origin of word *swallow*. According to one of the theories *swallow* is a borrowing from Lithuanian language. The word *swallow* is related to Lithuanian words *lakstau*, *lakstyti* meaning *flight*. M. Fasmer gives the following explanation in the "Etymological Dictionary of the Russian Language": "*lakstau*, *lakstyti* are most likely related to fly, *lakstus* is related to fast, Lithuanian *lakstiti*. *lek-, is the same as *letet'* (perfect), *letat'* (imperfect), expander -st-. There might be a simplification -kst- > -st on Slav., grounds" [7, P. 463]. There is another theory explaining this lexeme etymology which defines it as the true Slavic, tracing its origin to the word *laska* (care, tender) and other words with a similar root: "*Laska* (care, tender) is related to the Slav. word *laska* (love, affection), which also explains etymologically identical *laska* (weasel) "*Musteia vulgaris*"; cf., for example, *lastochka* (swallow) *Laska*, 1780; see the Trubachyov "Etymological Researches on the Russian Language", Volume II, Moscow, 1962, p. 29]" [7, P. 463].

In the "Dictionary of Russian Dialects of Lower Pechora" *swallow* refers to as "a small carnivorous animal, weasel. *Lastotska* is white in winter and now it is red, it is smaller than a rat, it is neither harmful, nor wild. *Lastochka* is all white but the tail is black, it lives in a hole, *Lastochka* (swallow) in the house brings unhappiness. *Lastochka* does not have a black tail but *Gornostal'* (erminea) does. *Lastochka* is a very small animal, it is white too, and in spring it turns gray, it changes, it is white and the tail is white [4, P. 376].

Chernykh, the author of the "Historical and etymological dictionary of the modern Russian language", also pays attention to both versions of the origin of the word *lastochka* (swallow), but he finds the first one is more reasonable, explaining the word *swallow* as a borrowing: "...The etymology of the word is unclear. It is associated with Russian verb *lastit'* (caress) – *laskat'* (stroke) – *lastit'sya*, *laskat'sya* (impf. take comfort in), *laska* (care, tender), *laskovii* (tender, lovesome). Of course, it is just embodiment of people's understanding of this word (swallow is among the favorite birds in our culture) [10, P. 468–469].

Results

In addition to the abovementioned views, we would like to present our theory on its origin.

In the "Dictionary of Russian folk dialects" numerous polysemous cognate lexeme have been documented; the root is *–las–* and its allomorph (*laska*, *lasuk*, *lasitsa*, *lastochka*, *lastovochka*, *lastik*, *lastochok*, *lastovitsa*, *lastka*).

Lasuk is an animal of the weasel family; weasel. Sverdlovsk, 1965. *Lasuk* is a white long animal, he kills chickens. Sverdl.

Lasitsa is a carnivorous animal, weasel. Slov. Acad. 1814. *Lasitsa* ran into its hole. Smolensk., 1914

Lasta is a carnivorous animal of the weasel family; weasel. Verkhne-Toem. Arkhangelsk.

Lastvochka – a swallow. Ufim., Slov. Acad. 1932 [6, P.279].

Lastik is an animal of the weasel family; weasel. Poshehon'e Yaroslavl' 1849. Yar..

Lastuk is an animal of the weasel family; weasel. *Lastuk* is an ermine subspecies. Sverdl., 1971.

Lastochok is an animal of the weasel family; weasel. Shadr. Perm., 1897.

Lastuchok:

– a mole. *Mole called "Lastuchok" takes out the earth in stocks and place them up*. Novosib. Toguchin.;

– a small carnivorous animal of the weasel family. *Lastuchok is an animal which lives in burrows, in the field ridges* [5, P. 199].

Lastka:

– *lastochka*., *Three swallows (lastochki) flew to the body*, *As the first lastka is Lastka, dear mother*. Onezh. Arkh., Sobolevski.

– animal of the weasel family; weasel. Slov. Acad. 1847. East.-Sib., Cherkasov. *He was mounting tents in his father-in-law, catching lastok-gornostayushek* (song). Samar. *Dikaya lastka* Petrov. Sarat., Slov.Acad. 1932 [6, P. 273–286].

Lastochka:

– animal of the weasel family, weasel. Burnashev. Kurmysh. Simb., 1897. Tul. *Swallow is a small animal*. South.-Ural. ;

– squirrel. Kazan. Kazan., 1897.

– a field mouse. Ryaz., 1898.

Laska:

– a bird, swallow. Lipiets. Voron., Trostyanskiy.;

– a bird, slavka, grey. Yarosl., 1922.

– a bird with black plumage and a white bump on his forehead; "water chicken".

– a bird, *Plareola*; *pratincole*: meadow swallow, sea swallow *Svetlokrilaya* (with white wings).

– tern *Svetlokrilaya* (with white wings). Uralsk, kaach., Menzbir.

– black swallow, black tern. Ryaz., Menzbir.

Lastovitsa:

– a swallow. Tul., North., ORL., Don. Slov. Acad. 1958 [obsolete meaning].

– a tern Menzbir [no place of identification]. Slov. Acad. 1932

– a bird, ordinary monkey. Kholodkovsky and Silant'ev [no place of identification]. Slov. Acad. 1932

– animal of the weasel family; weasel. Don., 1929. 1. *Lastka, Lastochka* (swallow) feminine gender. Flew to the body, *Three swallows flew to the body, As the first lastka is Lastka, dear mother.* Onezh. Arkh., Sobolewski [6, P. 272–285].

In the "Etymology Dictionary" under the editorship of Fasmer M. *yama* (hollow, hole) lexeme is kin to the Greek ἄμῃ shovel, *spud*; δι-αμῖν means *digging up*; ἀμῖνα means *fosse, drain, ridge*; ἀμῖν means *excavate* [9, P. 555–556].

We find it interesting to compare lexemes *lopata, lapa, plast, last* with the reference to Fasmer dictionary;

– **lopata**, Sloven. *lopata*, Check., Slov. *lopata*, Polish *łopata*, Lettish *lāpusta, lāpsta*. Another variant of vocalism is **lapa**. *Laffa* means palm, blade, oar; cf. Lith. *lepeta* means elephant foot [7, P. 518–519];

– **lapa** – Ukr. *lapa*, Bolgar. *lapa*, Sloven. *lapa*, Polish *łapa*. It is related to *łopa* (dog or bear's paw), Lettish *lāpa* (paw), Gothic *lōfa* (palm) [7, P. 458];

– **last** – not widely spread Russian word, Slavic origin **lapstъ*, related to Lettish *lāpsta* (shovel), *lāpa* (paw), Lith. *lōpa* Russ. [7, P. 462–463];

– **plast** – related to *plāštaka, plaštakà* (palm), *plūoštas* (cupped hand), also related to *ploskii* (flat) [8, P. 273–274].

The following lexemes have been documented in the "Dictionary of Russian folk dialects":

– **las** is a small wooden shovel to take out dough from the vat [6, P. 272];

– **laskar'** is a small iron straight shovel [6, P. 275];

– **laska** is a hole in the game for children, the player stands with one feet in the hole (the number of holes in the game depends on the number of players in the team of the game leader) [6, P. 274];

– **last** is a small wooden shovel to take out dough from the vat [6, P. 279];

– **lasta** is a hole with a lid of a tool to catch stone-eels [6, P. 279].

Conclusions

Thus, all of the above-mentioned animals and birds have something in common. They live in simple shallow pits, holes (*lasta*), which serve them as a shelter. Weasel, mole, marten, ground squirrel, field mouse have similar name in folk dialects (*lasta, lactuchok, lastovitsa* etc.) dig holes in the ground. Swallows (*lastochka*) make nests in the existing hollows or in sand cliffs. Water hen, tern, gull, ordinary monkey (lake or river gull) make nests in the holes in the ground, in the branches of trees in the water, in the reeds, in the bushes by the water.

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КРЕАТИВНЫЕ ИМЕНА ПРИЛАГАТЕЛЬНЫЕ В ТЕКСТАХ МАССОВОЙ ИНФОРМАЦИИ

Аннотация

Продуктивность морфологии описывается как характеристика словообразовательных процессов, на основании чего создаются новые прилагательные, отвечающие потребностям номинации. В статье рассматриваются процессы создания новых слов, а именно способы возникновения сложных имен прилагательных в текстах массовой информации. Наименования структурированы в группы с учетом словообразовательной модели, причин и функций в информационной профессиональной лексике. Изложенный в работе материал свидетельствует о высоком удельном весе словообразования в развитии английского языка.

Ключевые слова: продуктивные словообразовательные модели, сложные имена прилагательные, тексты массовой информации.

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CREATIVE ADJECTIVES IN MASS MEDIA TEXTS

Abstract

Morphological productivity is described as the characteristics of word-formation processes whereby new adjectives are created to satisfy a naming need. In this article, we first lay out the process of coining new words and analyze how virtuously compound adjectives are created in mass media text. The names are structured in groups taking into account derivational models, their reasons and functions in media professionals' speech. This paper asserts the significant role of word formation in the development of the English language.

Keywords: productive derivational models, compound adjectives, mass media texts.

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Introduction

Among different approaches which have been adopted when investigating creativity, three particular approaches relevant to the present study are the linguistic, the product and the process approach. Creativity in the linguistic approach is manifested through language play and can occur at the formal and semantic levels [1]. Creativity in the product approach is the “ability to come up with new ideas that are surprising yet intelligible, and also valuable in some way” [2, P. 95]. Creative products, as many researchers have identified, sometimes manifest novelty, appropriateness, usefulness, social acceptance, transformation, surprise and problem solving [3]. Alternatively, creativity in the process approach involves several types of thinking such as ‘combinational, exploratory and transformational thinking’ [2]. The term ‘language creativity’, in the present study, is defined as the playful use of language to construct new meanings, transforming current linguistic words structure and involving different types of creative thinking. Moreover, emergent perspectives of language and language development appear to explain how creative language use can enable learners’ language to grow in complexity, giving rise to processes required for the emergence of complex language [4].

The use of creative compounds in the English language has grown both in quality and quantity. In English, a compound is often spelled with a hyphen or by running its two words together, but it can also be spelled with a space between the two components as if they were still separate words. The compound adjectives which are spelled with a hyphen are chosen for discussion in the article this time.

Experimental study has focused on such a category of part of speech as adjectives, which “cannot be described mechanically. It is important to understand that these words can demonstrate a wide variety of subtle shades of meaning” [5, P. 77]. In a first broad overview, the coining of new words is conventional and not metaphorically very vivid but we take into consideration that a word is not only the product of some potent rule, it is the inspiration for a whole genre of wordplay.

The article investigates the interplay between various parts of speech in coining compound adjectives as well as lexical units with reference to professional terminology. Our concern is to examine how this interplay is treated in the most representative word-formation productivity models.

Method and Material

“Morphology is a cleverly designed system, and many of the seeming oddities of words are predictable products of its internal logic” [6, P. 129]. The real rationale for *developing-world* and *pro-democratic* comes from the algorithm for interpreting the meanings of complex words from the meanings of the simple words they are built out of. “Recall that when a big word is built out of smaller words, the big word gets all its properties from one special word sitting inside it at the extreme right: the head” [6 p 142]. The head of the adjective *developing-world* is the adjective *developing*, so *developing-world* is a kind of adjective, and it is an adjective, because *developing* is an adjective. Similarly, *pro-democratic* is an adjective, because *democratic*, its head, is an adjective, and it refers to a kind of democracy. Here is what the word structures look like:

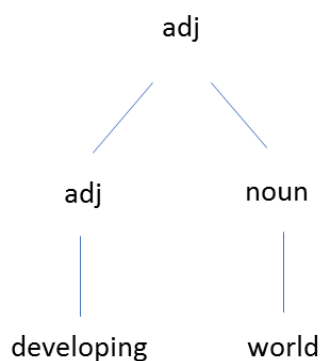


Fig. 1 – Adj + noun

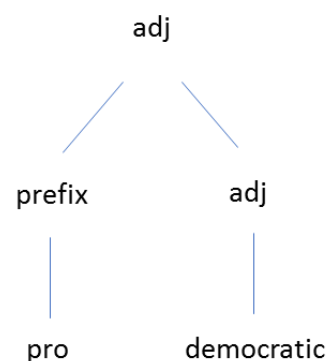


Fig. 2 – Prefix + adj

patterns illustrate the new word structures:

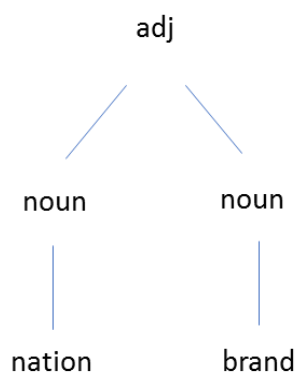


Fig. 3 – Noun + noun

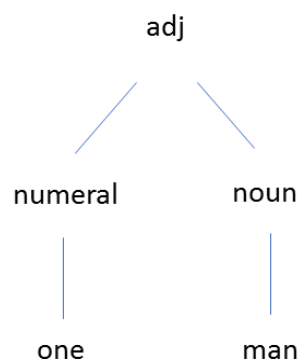


Fig. 4 – Numeral + noun

But creativity in a modern language is not so predictable morphologically as it seems and the following

It is evident that a compound adjective *nation-brand* is built out of a noun *nation* and a noun *brand*; the second adjective *one-man* is united on the basis of a numeral *one* and a noun *man*. These illustrated patterns prove that the stereotype is unfair. “The world of words is just as wondrous as the world of syntax, or even more so” [6, P. 127].

Discussion

Since Berschin, two well-differentiated trends can be distinguished. There are, on the one hand, scholars who understand productivity measurement as a fluctuation of the number of attested words and, on the other, scholars for whom a process is either productive or unproductive [7].

The traditional ways of coining of new words are still productive, especially if it concerns mass media texts, in which the use of prefixes like *anti-*, *pro-*, *multi-* prevail in number: *anti-regime actors*, *anti-Nato type of union*, *anti-American developing-world countries*; *pro-Russian political actions*, *pro-democratic forces*; *multi-dimensional manner*, *multi-party talks*, *multi-vector foreign policy*.

The language of articles from well-respected British news magazine, *The Economist*, demonstrates financial, political, legal or economic trends: “Mass media texts serve as a source of linguistic and field-oriented professional data...” [8, P. 66]. However, as the search did not cover all newspapers for all years, a statistical analysis is not possible: our data can only be interpreted as representing the range types of uses, not their actual frequencies. This paper examines the ways of coining of new words, as mass media text is at its best when dealing with the language created within articles and corresponding real-world situation.

Results

Initially we propose a distinction between two models: the first subclass presents compounds in their full form, demonstrating the structure ‘*adjective + noun*’: *large-scale protests*, *long-term fix*, *developing-world countries*, *modern-*

day developments, *present-day welfare states*; the second subclass of compounds seems to have gone its separate way of ‘*noun + noun*’: *law-enforcement authority*, *nation-brand strategy*.

In mass media texts any affiliation has become a favourite with compounds. As a consequence, these derived uses can be characterized as compound names with reference to national affiliation, where the second element in this structure is reasoned by the use of the initial – an adjective: *Scandinavian-style social democracy* *Scotland-based businesses*, *Slavic-speaking nations*.

Another subclass of compounds originated either in the speech of politicians or in other media source alludes to political affiliation of any political party or movement: *the Christian-Democratic welfare*, *anti-Soviet leaders*, *a post-Obama era*, an individual politician seems to be too attractive as it allows to constitute a separate compound, in which the family name becomes the object of continuous reinterpretation. To arrive at such an expressive comment reading, readers have to notice the pursuit of uniqueness and notion division.

In the following section, we investigate the regularities of coining new words:

Primarily, the initial element in compound adjectives is represented by numerals: *one-day rise*, *one-man rule*, *five-day August war*, *three-way negotiations*, *the one-child policy*. The journalists’ numeral comments follow up “to achieve a recognition-plus-revelation effect” [9, P. 98]. The model ‘*numeral + noun*’ is frequently used in mass media texts as these compound names can be interpreted as assertive-optimistic or negative-commenting usage types, giving rise to further re-evaluations.

Before we can explicate further the coining of words, we need to account for their relationship to expressivity. On the basis of existing research, a particular feeling or influence for

the comprehension of compound name can be formulated as the quality of being expressive. Degree of expressivity is not used through a word materially, but it is included into notion: an adjective based on semantic change of meaning gains stylistic connotation and emotional appeal. Thus, diametrically opposed degrees of expressivity are represented by the initial element of compound names: *broad-based groups, large-scale amnesty, high-risk strategy, lower-profile parties, short-term crisis*.

A remarkable fact is that all these models are adjective-creating rules, and many of them are productive, give rise to lexemes of a different word-class. Therefore, if a process is regarded as productive when it creates new derivatives steadily, this fact denotes that the process in question contains many low-frequency units which, in turn, automatically means that there is a high probability of finding more low-frequency items (i.e. new compounds) from that process in the future. This is one of the pros of these models because, despite being based on attested data, it is in theory able to predict future productivity rates [7].

Conclusion

This article has studied productive derivational models in mass media texts written by such a specialized subgroup of

interpreters as journalists. Of particular interest for us have been examples in which a compound adjective is formulated with emphasis on political geography, international relations, the aspects of economic and political sciences.

As a result, we can note that the language analogy has been continuously in use for several last years. In addition, English is free and easy with "compounding," which glues two words together to form a new one, like *law-enforcement* and *nation-brand*. Thanks to these processes, the number of possible words, even in morphologically impoverished English, is immense. Considered examples underline the specificity of the English language, demonstrating compound object as a naming unit.

To sum up, many of compound names refer to multiple formation, which is not hard to repeat and typically combine. Furthermore, derivational model, staying flexible enough to allow for variation as adjectives, creates a unique compound name. These facts prove that the role of word formation in the system of the English language is not only significant but it is intensely active and available for search: word formation continuously increases the number of new naming units in the English language on modern stage of its development.

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**К ВОПРОСУ О ФУНКЦИОНИРОВАНИИ КОНВЕРСИОННЫХ МОДЕЛЕЙ В СОВРЕМЕННОМ
 АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ**

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются некоторые распространенные конверсионные модели глагольного образования из существительных в современном английском языке, анализируются способы их вторичной номинации и приобретение дополнительных значений при употреблении их в речи. Известно, что явление конверсии настолько активно протекает в современном английском языке, что почти все части речи вовлечены в большей или меньшей степени в этот процесс, хотя и неодинаково: чаще других - это существительные, глаголы, прилагательные и наречия. Более того, конверсия является типичной для английского языка, благодаря его аналитическому строю и почти полному отсутствию морфологических показателей частей речи.

Ключевые слова: конверсия, словоизменительные модели, первичное и вторичное значение.

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ON THE QUESTION OF FUNCTIONING OF CONVERSIONAL PATTERNS IN MODERN ENGLISH

Abstract

The article considers some widely-spread conversional patterns of verbal word-formation from nouns in modern English. The ways of their secondary nomination are also being discussed, as well as acquiring additional meanings while functioning in speech. It is known that the phenomenon of conversion is so active in modern English that nearly all parts of speech somehow are involved into this process, however in different extent - most oftener they are nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Moreover, conversion is typical for English due to its analytical structure and nearly complete absence of morphological identifiers of parts of speech.

Keywords: conversion, word-changing patterns, initial and secondary meaning.

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Introduction

The development of the language is mostly dependable on the development of its word-formation system, appearing new word-forming patterns of words, changing of existing words, as well as increase or decrease of their productivity and many other factors of a word-formation process.

Creation of new words takes place, first of all, as the reflection of needs of the socium to express new ideas or realities, constantly emerging as the result of development of progress, science, culture, public relations and so on.

The creation of new words in the language is also due to different ways:

- 1) Borrowings from other languages;
- 2) Affixation;
- 3) Change of the meaning.

One of the most important ways of creating new words in English is conversion. The specific feature of conversion is the fact that formation of a new meaning is also followed by cardinal change of grammar semantics. As a result, the word transforms into another grammatical class (part of speech): *an air* (n) > *air* (adj) > *to air* (v); *a box* (n) > *to box* (v).

According to J. Ayto, the role of conversion in creation of new meanings of the words in English is gradually increasing.

The objects of the research are the verbs and nouns connected by derivational ties of conversion.

The subjects of the research are the ties of the words meanings of verbs and nouns formed by means of conversion as well as by their prototypes - nouns.

The main aim of the research thus is analyses of semantic connections between the meanings of the verbs formed by means of conversion as well as their prototypes - nouns. Taking into account the main aim of the article, we can state the following tasks of the research: 1) to define conversion as a way of formation of new words in modern English; 2) to reveal the types of conversion; 3) to examine productive semantic models of conversion in English.

Method

We mostly use in the research such methods as cognitive generalizing, comparative-contrasting; inductive-deductive; as well as the descriptive method, which together help understand how new words appear in English. The material for analyses are words created by means of conversion taken from different dictionaries of the English language.

Discussion

The frequency of conversion is so active in modern English that nearly all parts of speech are involved into this process: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, however these cases differ in number. Moreover, conversion is typical for English because of the following reasons: due to its analytical structure and nearly complete absence of morphological identifiers of parts of speech, this is also connected with the historical development of the English language, as in old English for creation of new words they used their active vocabulary, used one-morpheme words to create compound words.

Results

Semantic model N > V (verbalization).

As we know, conversion is widely spread in English. The most its frequently used variant is verbalization, i.e. formation of verbs from different parts of speech. Formation of verbs from nouns is the most productive conversional model in English.

We have found the following basic models of lexical conversion of verbs from nouns:

1. If a noun has instrumental semantics, i.e. it means some artifact created and serving to fulfill some action, then the convertive verb would mean that action: 1) the action for which the original noun is used to denote an instrument or tool; 2) the function to complete which one needs the use of the original noun.

In this case we can speak not about any possible function of the initial nouns, but about their typical exact function which they are meant for.

2. If the noun expresses the whole class of phenomena or things for which some action is normal or at least is the typical feature:

1) the verb has the meaning of “action done by the thing denoted by the initial noun”;

2) to fulfill, to express, to reveal characteristic or typical class-making feature of the initial noun, or to be the initial noun.

3. Getting the meaning of “becoming, getting the image given by the initial noun” and “action connected with the meaning of the initial noun”.

4. The relations of reason and consequence between the meanings of the noun and the verb. The verbs describe situations, in which we can see several subjects connected by some relations. Meanwhile, the verb includes into the structure of its meaning one of the arguments as the differentiating feature, for instance, *a room «a place to live in» – to room «to live somewhere»*.

5. Nouns denoting spiritual, emotional and physiological spheres can form the verbs with the meaning “to feel (reveal, display) such emotions”.

Semantic model “period of time/to be somewhere in a certain period of time”

1. Weekend (n) to weekend (v)

This example shows that the verb ‘to weekend’ formed by conversion from a noun ‘a weekend’ with the meaning of «the end of the week, days-off», has the meaning of «to spend days-off», i.e. it describes the action which denotes some position in a certain period of time, described by the first meaning of the initial noun. Other meanings, different from that of an initial noun, acquired by it on its own, we don’t notice.

2. Winter (n) to winter (v)

This example contains the verb ‘to winter’ which is formed by conversion from a noun ‘winter’ with the meaning «cold season of a year, old age, period of troubles», and at first it takes the meaning of «to live in winter, to spend winter», i.e. it denotes an action taking place in the period of time of the first meaning of the initial noun, but later on this verb during its independent functioning acquired an independent meaning of «freeze», which does not correlate with any of the meanings of the noun. The same can be said of the following examples:

3. Holiday (n) to holiday (v)

4. Honeymoon (n) to honeymoon (v)

5. Fast (n) to fast (v)

6. Vocation (n) to vocation (v)

7. Summer (n) to summer (v)

Semantic model “name of an animal - a man’s behavior like of this animal”

1. Fox (n) to fox (v)

This example shows that the verb ‘to fox’, formed by conversion from a noun ‘fox’ with the main meaning of «a small animal with a long curly tail» at first has the meaning of «to be sly, cunning, to make tricks», which denotes the behavior of a man similar with that of a fox, later on it acquires an independent meaning of «to turn pale», which has nothing in common with all the meanings of the corresponding noun and it denotes quite a new phenomenon. We can also suppose that there is an opposite chain of conversion of a noun from a verb, to denote a man acting like a fox, i.e. a noun has a new meaning of “a sly, tricky person”.

2. Wolf (n) to wolf (v)

This example contains a verb ‘to wolf’ formed by conversion from a noun ‘wolf’ with the main meaning of «wild animal», than it acquires the meaning of «to eat

hungrily without being fed up», i.e. it means a person eating food like a wolf. This verb later gets one more meaning - “to lead a wasteful life”, connected with the second meaning of the noun - “a waster” - and in this case it means the behavior of a man called by the initial noun. There are no other meanings disconnected with the meaning of the initial noun.

The same can be said about the following cases:

3. Peacock (n) to peacock (v)

4. Cock (n) to cock (v)

5. Tomcat (n) to tomcat (v)

6. Snake (n) to snake (v)

7. Ape (n) to ape (v)

8. Monkey (n) to monkey (v)

9. Dog (n) to dog (v)

Semantic model “Instrument - Actions done by it”

1. Hammer (n) to hammer (v)

This pair shows that the verb ‘to hammer’ formed by conversion from a noun ‘hammer’ with the main meaning of “sledgehammer”, accepts the meaning of “to beat, strike, fit in with a hammer”, i.e. the action which is expressed by the noun denoting this action as a tool or instrument. Later on during the development of its semantics, this verb acquires the meaning of “to make noise, to rattle”, i.e. the imitation of sounds produced by physical objects and parts of mechanisms.

2. Nail (n) to nail (v)

This example displays that the verb ‘to nail’ formed by conversion from a noun ‘nail’, gets the meaning of “to strike in nails, to fix with nails”, i.e. means the action in which the initial noun is used to denote the instrument or a tool of action, at the same time the verb includes into its meaning the artifact by means of which actions similar with this one are being done, in this case it is ‘fixing something with nails’ which is possible to do “with the help of a hammer”. In the process of its independent development the verb acquired the meaning of “to attract somebody’s attention”, which probably reflects the functions of the corresponding noun - “to chain” and the second meaning - “to discredit”, which is not connected anyhow with any of the meanings of the corresponding noun.

3. Wire (n) to wire (v)

This case depicts the verb ‘to wire’ which is formed by conversion from a noun ‘wire’ with the meanings of “telegraph”, “telephone cords” and gets the meanings “to wind with the wire, to telegraph, to send something by telegraph”. It denotes the actions for which the corresponding noun is specially meant as an instrument or a tool. During further development of its semantics the verb acquired the meaning of “to set in overhearing tool”, which has nothing to do with the previous meanings of this noun.

The same can be said about the following cases:

4. Poker (n) to poker (v)

5. Spade (n) to spade (v)

6. Bat (n) to bat (v)

7. Knife (n) to knife (v)

8. Axe (n) to axe (v)

9. Rivet (n) to rivet (v)

10. Sandpaper (n) to sandpaper (v)

11. Scythe (n) to scythe (v)

All the examples above express the way of composing verbs from nouns in English by means of conversion. We see that the most productive model in modern English is the basic pattern of lexical conversion, while the verb acquires the meaning of action, to perform which the corresponding noun is specially devoted to as a tool or an instrument.

Conclusion

The most productive semantic conversional verbal models in modern English are the following: 1) period of time - to be somewhere in a certain period of time; 2) instruments - actions done by means of them; 3) a place - to put in a certain place; 4) an animal - a behavior of a man similar to this animal.

In general, we can see that all the patterns of lexical conversion $N > V$ to some extent are connected by the idea of realization of some action, more exactly, this general direction of all the cases of conversion of this type are set by an image of actions performing, realizing or revealing some typical feature (peculiarity, quality or function) of the class of the original nouns.

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СИМВОЛИЧЕСКИЕ ЗНАЧЕНИЯ ОСНОВНЫХ ЦВЕТОВ АНГЛОСАКСОНСКОЙ КУЛЬТУРЫ**Аннотация**

В статье рассмотрены лингвокультурологический аспект формирования базовых цветообозначений англосаксонской культуры с целью выявления и приведения в качестве доказательной базы этимологических данных, а также данных исторического и культурного опыта англосаксов, связанные с цветоименованием предметов и явлений. В результате исследования, несмотря на существующую точку зрения о том, что в системе цветообозначения существует ряд универсальных черт, было успешно доказано, что в каждой культуре, в частности в англо-саксонской, представляется возможным обнаружить некие особенности, характерные исключительно для той или иной лингвоцветовой картины мира. Соответственно, была определена роль базовых цветов, формирующих цветовую картину мира, которая входит в состав языковой, отражая культурную и концептуальную картины мира.

Ключевые слова: цвет, колорема, цветоименование, лингвоцветовая картина мира, лингвокультура, англосаксонская культура, символическое значение.

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SYMBOLIC MEANINGS OF PRIMARY COLOURS IN ANGLO-SAXON CULTURE**Abstract**

The article deals with the linguistic and cultural aspect of forming basic colour names of Anglo-Saxon culture. The aim of the article is to identify and reveal as the evidential base a number of etymological data as well as those ones of historical and cultural experience of Anglo-Saxons, connected with colour naming of objects and phenomena. As a result, the existing point of view, that there is a great number of universal features that can be observed in any colour naming system, is opposed. It is successfully proved in the given paper that it is obviously possible to find certain features characteristic only for a concrete linguistic and colour picture of the world. Respectively, the role of the basic colours is defined in forming a color picture of the world which in its turn becomes a part of the language one, reflecting cultural and conceptual pictures of the world.

Keywords: colour, coloureme, colour naming, linguistic and colour picture of the world, linguistic culture, Anglo-Saxon culture, symbolical meaning.

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Introduction

From the linguistic point of view, the research of colour draws attention to itself within studying of the linguistic and cultural picture of the world. The three-level organization of the colour naming includes concepts, words and communication between them, creates the base for linguistic and cultural distinctions.

Thus, in spite of the fact that from the point of view of physics and physiology, the colour perception is supposed to be identical for all people, representatives of various cultures perceive colours in a different way. Addressing to the definition of the concept "culture", we should mention sense aspects of human practice and its results, the symbolical measurement of social events which allow individuals to live in a special world and make acts whose character is more or less clear to the society. Thus, understanding the culture as the world of meanings, it is possible to assume that colours are special meanings, too. Any person possesses a colour language and consciousness which by their nature are inseparably linked with the national culture.

Methods

Methodology of the given linguistic and cultural research of Anglo-Saxon colour naming is based on a number of etymological data as well as those ones of historical and cultural experience of Anglo-Saxons, connected with colour naming of objects and phenomena. The hypothetic and deductive, text search, and descriptive methods are used to analyze the colour vocabulary taken from *Oxford English Reference Dictionary* (2002) and *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2009); thus, in our opinion, constituting the evidential base.

Discussion

Despite the general principles and approaches of understanding the colour phenomenon and colour perception, we can observe differences in semantics and meanings of particular tones, reflected in the lexical reproduction of colours in various ethnic cultures. For example, any culture has a colour vital triad "black – white – red" which comes down practically everywhere to the semantic hub of "birth – life – death". But the meaning of each of these colours varies depending on the ethnic and national identity of cultures. So, for example, in the western countries, the black colour is a symbol of death in opposition to the white colour which is associated with the birth of something new, while the red one in its turn appears a symbol of life.

Besides, carefully studying the phenomenon of colour, we should mention some historical tendencies of colour changes. It is known that every era has its own colours, and sometimes they are bright, saturated and sparkling, but at other times they can be pale, dark and gloomy. Some people of creative nature, such as writers and artists, feel their era rather delicately, displaying colours in a special manner in their works.

It is obvious that the allocation of associative fields is impossible without defining the etymology of colour naming words. It is so because associations are historically and culturally motivated. And, as far as we know, the process of the initial nomination is always dictated, first of all, by the environment.

Speaking about national peculiarities of the colour perception, it is necessary, first of all, to connect them with the basic concepts of the optics which studies colour and light. Physical properties of the colour perception and

sociocultural features of the colour usage are complementary. They also influence our perception and rate of the use of these or those colours [11]; [12].

In the English culture, colours were initially associated with natural phenomena or objects of the same colouring which are defined as standards, such as: *sky*, *soot*, *sun* and *blood* [5]. Later there appeared particular words to define concrete colouremes, such as: *yellow*, *black*, *white*.

It is known that in the English language the formation of the adjectives meaning colours has originated since the first tribes' migration. At the same time, colour terms of that time contained roots of the Indo-European and German languages: (modern: *red*, *green*, *blue*, *white*) [2, P. 136].

Further there appeared the words which united in themselves the function of a reference object, phenomenon and word-name, for example, "*blue*" + "*like a sky*" = *blue-sky colour*. R.M. Frumkina specifies that thus a large number of colouremes is formed: *lemon*, *opal*, etc. [6, P. 45].

As A.A. Bragina points out, the process of the formations of new colouremes took a long time. So, it took some centuries to transform the object which designated a colour into an appropriate adjective. At the same time, the English language of the 15th century observed no more than 20 of such colouremes. Due to some geographical and historical factors, that process went unevenly, therefore, cases of language borrowings became frequent. Thus, the quantity of colouremes in the language was directly ratio to the level of the English cultural development [3].

A lot of colouremes lost their etymological connection over time and began to be perceived separately (*crimson*, *brown*).

The next stage of the English colouremes' development was the emergence of the model "*colour + a basic noun*" / "*the colour of the + N*": *the colour of the night* [4, P. 201].

The next period of replenishment of the colour naming vocabulary can be considered the end of the 20th century where terms of colour began acquiring an absolutely new function, i.e. an advertising one. The evasion method from designation of exact colours and the focus on shades became gradually popular. The great influence on this phenomenon, undoubtedly, was rendered by the growth of the markets, trade distribution, as well as a huge range of goods and services which cannot do without bright advertising colours that attract customers' interest.

Results

In general, briefly describing some distinctions and similarities of colour naming, some common features should be noted such as universality in the organizations of a paradigm of the main terms of colour and existence of the colour naming formed from a subject (*pearl-white* – a pearl, *fiery* – a fire, *raven* – a raven, etc.) [9]; [10]. Here are some distinctions such as: peculiar to English colour naming with a metaphorically rethought meaning (*Oxford-blue*, *Alice-blue*, *hunter's pink*), one of whose parts is a toponym or an anthroponym [7].

The following paradox is interesting: together with the change of a historic system of colour naming of any culture, colour symbolism undergoes a number of changes. However, neurophysiological principles of colour perception always remain unchangeable. In other words, colour perception is identical to all nations, but colour conceptualization is various because language expresses our consciousness but not that which occurs in a retina of an eye and a brain. Thus, the linguistic and colour picture of the world can express the culture only of a certain nation because in some other culture

it will have the fundamental differences which are characteristic only of the given culture [5, P. 238–239].

So, for example, the word "*red*" has sometimes opposite interpretations in different cultures. In Britain, the red colour symbolizes emotions of confusion and rage (*to turn red with embarrassment / anger*), military groups (*the Red Berets* – *Claret berets*, *the Red Devils* – *Red devils*, *soldiers of a paraborne regiment*) [9; 10]. The military feature of the colour of red in English is historically caused and originates from the thirty years' war of *white* and *red roses* which came to the end with the marriage and domination of the red rose. In the 17th century in the British navy the red flag was introduced as a symbol of summons for a fight. Nowadays, it is the colour of uniforms of the English soldiers.

The white colour in the majority of cultures has a parallel with kindness, purity, joy and innocence (*a white pigeon*, *a white flag*). In the English culture, the white colour is associated with purity, innocence (*white boy* or *white son* – *the beloved son*), inoffensiveness (*a white lie*), professional activity (*a white-collar worker* – *an office worker*), festive events (*a white wedding* – *a wedding ceremony*), traditions (*white Christmas* – *traditional Christmas with the snow*), uselessness (*a white elephant* – *a burden*) [9]; [10].

English yellow has Indo-European roots *ghel* or *ghol* which at the same time meant both yellow and green colours. From the psychological point of view, yellow colour is considered to be the easiest and brightest, possessing stimulating and toning impacts on people's activity. In the western linguistic culture, yellow is the colour of fall, gold. Still sometimes we can come across such meanings of the yellow colour as of a disease and death. Moreover, from the Anglo-Saxon cultural point of view, the colour yellow is often used to represent a lack of courage and great danger (*yellow alert*) [9, P. 1549].

In the English culture, since ancient times the purple colour has been associated with the colour of the royalty because of the high cost of this paint (*born to the purple* – *born into a royal family*) [9, P. 1085].

The green colour is traditionally associated with prosperity, growth and life being connected with the image of blossoming greens and the nature on the whole. For example, in English literature and folklore green symbolizes the nature and its signs, such as: abundance and revival [8, P. 33]; [11, P. 55], vitality and freshness (*greenness*) [9, P. 578]. In its opposite meaning, we come across such meanings of the green colour as unhealthy pale in the face because of sickness, fear, etc. (*to turn green*, *to be green about the gills*, *to become green with anger*, *to be green with envy*, etc. [9, P. 578]) where it personifies oppression, boredom, jealousy and other negative emotions.

In the English culture, the grey colour symbolizes uncertainty, dullness, boredom and indifference (*life seems grey and joyless*; *a grey area* – *an area of uncertainty in knowledge*) as well as results of sudden fear or illness (*to turn grey*) [9, P. 580].

The black colour is traditionally associated with death, evil, mystery, and misfortune. In the English culture, the black colour expresses darkness (*black as coal*), misfortune (*a black day*), danger (*a black hole*, *a black spot*), disapproval, treachery (*a black list*, *a black ship*), illegality (*a black market*), diseases, death (*Black Death* – *Bubonic plague*) [9, P. 119].

Conclusion

To sum up, we certainly can speak about the contents in stereotypes of colour naming of a peculiar colour code which

is caused etymologically. The colour reflects some ways of formation in the cultural memory not only of the general, but also nationally coloured and culturally significant concepts.

Therefore, it is not possible to understand many phenomena of any culture without taking into account meanings of colours.

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СТРУКТУРА И СОСТАВЛЯЮЩИЕ КОНЦЕПТОСФЕРЫ ГЕОГРАФИЧЕСКОЕ ПРОСТРАНСТВО**Аннотация**

В статье представлен один из вариантов структурирования глобальной концептосферы ГЕОГРАФИЧЕСКОЕ ПРОСТРАНСТВО. Концептосфера представляет собой комплексное образование, состоящее, в свою очередь, из двух концептосфер – ПРИРОДНОЕ ПРОСТРАНСТВО и ПОЛИТИКО-АДМИНИСТРАТИВНОЕ ПРОСТРАНСТВО, которые взаимодействуют между собой через входящие в их состав компоненты, отражая способность человеческого сознания к классифицирующей деятельности и когнитивному моделированию и определяя необходимый уровень детализации, достаточный для распознавания географического места/объекта.

Ключевые слова: концептосфера, географическое пространство, языковая репрезентация концептосферы.

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GEOGRAPHIC SPACE AS A SPHERE OF CONCEPTS: STRUCTURE AND CONSTITUENTS**Abstract**

The paper reflects an attempt to structure a global sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE. The sphere of concepts is represented as a holistic phenomenon consisting, in its turn, of two minor spheres of concepts – NATURAL SPACE and POLITICAL-ADMINISTRATIVE SPACE, which correlate with each other through the constituting them components, thus reflecting classifying and categorizing human abilities. The interaction of these two spheres of concepts defines the necessary level of detail sufficient enough to identify a geographic site/object.

Keywords: sphere of concepts, geographic space, language representation of the sphere of concepts.

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Introduction

The geographic concept (or sphere of concepts) is represented in modern research rather fragmentally. The paper dwells on the geographic component as it is a universal constituent of the human existence directly connected with such a global sphere of concepts as SPACE where the sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE plays an important role: thus, the ability (and a vital necessity) of the human awareness to fix a certain position within physical boundaries determines basic parameters of the human well-being in general. Moreover, the geographic component is part and parcel of other spheres of concepts connected with the functioning of the human society, such as POLITICS, CULTURE, SPORT, etc [see: 5], and at the same time, it establishes immediate links with the sphere of concepts NATURE/ENVIRONMENT through indicating seasons, weather conditions, natural phenomena (wind, storm etc), flora and fauna. Thus, the geographic component can be detected, in its direct or indirect representation, almost in all fundamental structures defining the life of human beings.

SPACE is also one of the most important constituents of our existence; accordingly, spatial concepts are of particular significance for mental sphere [see: 2; 4]. As G. Marotta notes: "There is no doubt that all animal species have some kind of mental representation of space, i.e. of the location of objects, places and paths among places. These representations derive from special cognitive capacities, which are shared across species – including humans, at least for a large set" [10, P. 12]. Specific characteristics of SPACE can be represented through its linkages with time, topological and metric parameters, anthropocentricity in the man's perception. It is noteworthy that spatial parameters are experienced by human beings vertically and horizontally; consequently, while studying spatial concepts the categories of verticality and horizontality acquire special importance. SPACE serves as a basis for the formation of other numerous categories [see: 2]. An immediate constituent of any world picture is an ensemble of spatial images reflected in the awareness of a certain ethnic group and codified in language [3]. As V.G. Gak claims: "... space is rather easily perceived

by man. To comprehend space, it is just enough to open the eyes, turn the head, hold out the hand etc. Space is one of the fundamental existential specifiers that is experienced and differentiated by a human being. It is inbuilt in the man's world where man positions himself as the center of macro- and microcosm" [2, P. 127].

Y.S. Kubryakova notes that during the course of evolution man has acquired two systems of the world view as a result of developing sensory experience: one is responsible for selecting objects and observing everything that surrounds a person, the second one is served to determine distance to an object/objects as well as its/their relative location. Due to the first system, man gets an idea of space as a background against which some figures (objects) are located; the second system contributes to the formation of the orientation concepts (remoteness – proximity of objects, a particular location towards the observer, and so on) [4, P. 88].

Being a universal category, SPACE has been widely studied by scholars from various perspectives [see, for example: 11; 12].

Hence, the proportion of lexis with spatial meaning is rather significant in any language as spatial parameters define the essence of man's survival in this world since ancient times. Linguistics deals with two fundamental types of spatial meanings: *the meanings of orientation* and *the meanings of localization*.

Method

For structuring spatial relations the notion of the *sphere of concepts* appears to be the most relevant one. According to the definition introduced by D.S. Likhachov, the sphere of concepts comprises all the national multiplicity of concepts and is formed through all the potentials and systems of concepts that exist in the native speakers' awareness [6, P. 160-162]. In this paper the sphere of concepts is viewed as an integrated formation that includes a number of concepts representing a certain domain of knowledge [see, for example: 9]. While structuring the sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE, methods of cognitive modelling and conceptual analysis have been applied.

Discussion

Spatial relations are rather often viewed through the semantic category LOCALITY: thus, O.Ya. Ivanova describes the sphere of concepts SPACE as its representation through the semantic field LOCALITY/LOCATION. The kernel part of the field and its semantic dominant is represented by a unit possessing the most general meaning [3, P. 2, 6, 16]. The central part of the field belongs to the word *place*. On the first stage of fragmenting the field three specifiers of the lexis with the semantic component *locality* can be distinguished: *space* (an unlimited extension in all measurements and directions); *territory* (space within defined borders); *structure and facilities*. The next step of fragmenting presupposes a differentiation of every specifier through more clearly defined nominations: *space* – *land, air*; *territory* – *state, region, district*; *structures and facilities* – *enterprise, company, dwelling*.

O.A. Volchek, when analyzing the lexico-semantic group with the dominant *space*, refers to this group words with general local semantics (*world, planet*), words denoting land-based objects (*bank, hill*), water-based objects (*river, lake*), airspace (*sky, air*), atmospheric phenomena (*wind, frost*), vegetation (*forest, grove*), habitats (*region, district*), human settlements (*town, village*), routes (road, highway) [1].

A.M. Mukhachova [8] describes spatial relations through the notion of concept. According to her research, concept SPACE is part of the overall world picture and consists of a number of elements that can be classified as a conceptual field. The field has a multi-level hierarchical structure with its constituents objectified in language through the lexemes with the meaning of *locality*.

A.L. Medvedeva in her thesis [7] uses the term *geographic sphere of concepts* and represents it as a hierarchically organized unity of components:

- the highest level is occupied by mega-concepts LANDSCAPE and WATER SPACE;
- the next level is taken by concepts-hyperonyms RELIEF and VEGETATION which relate in their content to the mega-concept LANDSCAPE as well as to the concepts-hyperonyms *bank (shore), water body, watercourse*;
- the third level of the hierarchy is represented by the concepts-hyponyms *upland, plane, depression in the ground*; these constituents are directly connected with the concept-hyperonym RELIEF; the concepts-hyponyms VEGETATION with the predominance of a tree-like structure and VEGETATION with the predominance of a herb-like structure refer to the concept-hyperonym VEGETATION; the concept-hyperonym WATER BODY includes in its turn such concepts-hyponyms as *enclosed water space, bay, swamp (mush)*; at the same time, the concepts-hyponyms *strait (passage), river, stream, brook, waterfall* also belong to this concept; a separate position in the structure is occupied by the concept-hyponym *bottom topography*;
- the last level of the hierarchy is taken by the nominants that verbalize all the constituents of the conceptual field GEOGRAPHIC SPACE.

Thus, summarizing all the data of the research mentioned above, we can state that GEOGRAPHIC SPACE is part of a more global formation – the sphere of concepts SPACE which reflects fundamental aspects of man's existence in the environment.

Results

With respect to all of the above, GEOGRAPHIC SPACE is quite a specific phenomenon both from the perspective of cognitive aspect and from the nominative value of units that

materialize it in language. If we follow the idea of GEOGRAPHIC SPACE as a sphere of concepts [see: 6; 9] being at the same time part of a more global formation SPACE, we may claim that a geographic identifier is rather a relative indicator whose representation in language depends on the degree of the generalization required as the necessity to define a certain locality or orientation in the environment as a whole.

The sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE is one of the components of more global unities, namely: UNIVERSE and COSMOS which include a more localized element – the sphere of concepts PLANET (the EARTH, in our case). Within the sphere of concepts PLANET (the EARTH) we can distinguish such spheres of concepts as NATURAL SPACE and POLITICAL-ADMINISTRATIVE SPACE which overlap but differ first and foremost by the components “natural/artificial” (though to a certain extent – rather loosely, as quite a number of objects that can be referred to the sphere of concepts NATURAL SPACE are man-made: such as, for example, *the Suez Canal, the Uglich Reservoir*).

The sphere of concepts NATURAL SPACE comprises such mega-concepts as LAND, WATER SPACE, AIRSPACE. It is interesting to note that it could be rather reasonable to suggest that these mega-concepts should be arranged according to a unified principle. However, AIRSPACE is somewhat different as for its structure: we can hardly distinguish here any components similar to those of LANDSCAPE and WATER SPACE (such as, for instance, *continents and oceans*). Even if we try to describe the components of this sphere of concepts, its stratification appears to be possible only by following the principle of the vertical orientation, namely: *stratosphere, mesosphere*, etc.

In its turn, the mega-concept LAND may include those constituents that seem to belong to the sphere of concepts WATER SPACE: *seas, rivers, lakes, etc.* So, we have to take into account the aspect of the so-called ‘inclusion’ of an object as part of the extra-linguistic reality into the composition of a specified geographic space. Meanwhile, referring the denotations of the land components, – such as *continent, island* – to the mega-concept WATER SPACE is hardly reasonable in spite of the fact that the very objects are connected with natural water space due to their geographic localization.

Furthermore, when analyzing the structure of the mega-concepts LAND and WATER SPACE, the notion of a *universal geographic identifier* related to the points of the compass (North, South, etc.) should be introduced. This parameter precisely locates the position of an object in space. In the context of global interpretation, universal identifiers permit to classify a geographic object in cognitive and linguistic awareness, at least, in the most general way: thus, the denotation *a northern country* will hardly be associated with such objects as *Australia* or *Cuba*. However, it should be noted that when space localization is narrowed, the definition can be applied to an object situated, for example, in the North of Africa without special reference to the climatic and natural conditions, but at the same time, with a clarifying description required: *Tunisia is a northern African country*. Examples of this sort can be explained by the overlapping of two spheres of concepts – NATURAL SPACE and POLITICAL-ADMINISTRATIVE SPACE. In general, a significant part of language representations for the objects of land and water space is a result of the interaction between the components of these two spheres of concepts.

Let us consider a number of illustrative examples that support the previous statement. Most water and land objects

denotations contain both proper and common names, allowing to associate this or that name with the mega-concepts LAND and WATER SPACE (*the Kola Peninsula, the Barents Sea, and so on*). In this regard, such denominations as *the Arctic, the Mediterranean* are rather noteworthy ones: here we may observe a sort of merging of two mega-concepts LAND and WATER SPACE, unlike more or less similar objects, such as *the Pacific Ocean and Alaska*, because the Arctic Region, for instance, comprises both water space and adjacent territories.

Following further subdivision, two concepts-hyperonyms RELIEF and VEGETATION are distinguished within the mega-concept LAND. These concepts may also have a presentation through a geographic name, such as *the Khibiny mountains, Sherwood forest*, though it would be right to say that for this type of natural sites naming is less common – if any, an object appears to be 1) global by the very nature; 2) it is closely connected with man's life (thus, the forest areas of Siberia are unlikely to be represented through proper names all along the massif).

The mega-concept WATER SPACE, besides basic constituents, such as *ocean and sea*, includes the concept-hyperonym *water body* that in its turn, correlates with the concepts-hyponyms *closed water body, bay, mush (bog)*. The concepts-hyponyms *strait, river, stream, brook, water fall* can be referred to *watercourses*. In cases of the proper names coincidence, a geographic common name (sometimes an illustrative context) is necessary: *town Kola and the river Kola*.

The sphere of concepts POLITICAL-ADMINISTRATIVE SPACE comprises the mega-concept-hyperonym COUNTRY/STATE and concepts-hyponyms REGION, DISTRICT, SETTLEMENT (TOWN/CITY, VILLAGE, etc). From a methodological point of view, we may observe a substitution of spatial relations proper to a political-administrative subdivision that is quite permissible, in the author's opinion: going beyond purely spatial relations is commonplace for the classifying function of the human consciousness [see above: 5, P. 17-19]. At the same time, these cases are of a certain degree of complexity at a closer observation: the inclusion of those concepts that are represented through political-administrative names into the sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE, even through the elements of the sphere of concepts POLITICAL-ADMINISTRATIVE SPACE, requires a detailed specification due to the complexity of objects themselves: thus, the geographic concept RUSSIA is a hierarchically organized structure which includes the megaconcepts of LANDSCAPE and WATER SPACE. The same refers to

almost any concept that is associated with a geographic object and identified within a political-administrative or territorial administrative subdivision. Indeed, such structures are gestalts; they can be classified according to a purely orientation parameter (*Murmansk* is situated in the *North* of Russia) as well as be considered through the components of political-administrative or territorial administrative ranking: *Pervomaysky District, Bering Street, Semyonovskoye Lake*.

Meanwhile, these constituents "lose" their orientation anchors beyond the context unless they are bearers of a unique local/cultural code (for example, *the Eiffel Tower*), because streets, parks, water bodies sharing the same denomination are rather commonplace not only within one and the same national-cultural environment, but within a multi-cultural one also: *Rose street* can be found in Cheboksary, Voronezh, Rostov-on-Don and Edinburgh.

Following the previous observations, it is necessary to mention that all the above-mentioned components are considered to be the most important ones when structuring the sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE. Besides it, there are several additional, indirect identifiers, such as *climatic parameters, the names of flora and fauna, the nationality* that require greater analysis and discussion.

Conclusion

Summarizing all the stated above, we may conclude that GEOGRAPHIC SPACE establishes linkages with other dominant components of the national world picture.

When identifying the elements of the sphere of concepts GEOGRAPHIC SPACE, the names of geographic sites/objects may be more or less informative firstly, according to their status within the system of local territorial identifiers: thus, street names possess a far less informative potential without any reference to the name of a city or town where these objects are located; the numbers of buildings and constructions are of a far marginal informative value unless the names of the street and town are mentioned, etc.;

secondly, according to the integration of the knowledge actor into the local culture: an average Russian dweller is highly likely to identify the location of *the Murmansk Region and the city of Murmansk*, but such toponyms as *Semyonovskoye Lake, Pervomaysky District* will be informatively gaping for him/her without a relevant context.

Finally, a recipient's general knowledge also matters: if a bearer of geographic knowledge does not live in a particular region, he/she may have some difficulties trying to understand what kind of phenomena, for instance, *the polar night* or *Aurora Borealis* are as he/she has never witnessed them. This sort of information requires further efforts when being extracted and processed.

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**ОБ ОДНОМ ПОДХОДЕ К МОДЕЛИРОВАНИЮ КОНЦЕПТУАЛЬНОГО ПРОСТРАНСТВА ЯЗЫКОВЫХ
ЗНАКОВ И ТЕКСТОВ****Аннотация**

В статье анализируется один из возможных подходов к исследованию концептуального пространства, репрезентированного языковыми знаками и текстами. Определяется понятие когнитивной единицы знания, функционально значимой для моделирования концептуального пространства, приводятся некоторые принципы когнитивного анализа. Когнитивная единица рассматривается как единица моделирования ментальных образований, отраженных в языке, например, таких как концепт, или концептуального пространства, связанного с текстом, и в то же время как единица концептуализации, значимая сама по себе, свидетельствующая о важных для социума элементах знания, находящихся закреплении в языковых знаках и текстах. Описывается возможная классификация когнитивных единиц, приводятся примеры, иллюстрирующие эту классификацию.

Ключевые слова: концепт, концептуальное пространство, когнитивная единица, моделирование.

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ON AN APPROACH TO MODELLING THE CONCEPTUAL SPACE OF LANGUAGE SIGNS AND TEXTS**Abstract**

The paper examines one of the possible approaches to exploring the conceptual space represented by language signs and texts. The notion of the cognitheme as a unit of knowledge in the form of a proposition, functional for modelling the conceptual space, is defined and some principles of the cognitheme analysis are discussed. The cognitheme is considered as a unit of modelling mental entities reflected in the language, for example, such as the concept or the conceptual space connected with a text, and at the same time as a unit of conceptualization significant in its own right, revealing elements of knowledge important for a language community and thus fixed in language signs and texts. A feasible classification of cognithemes is described, examples illustrating this classification are given.

Keywords: concept, conceptual space, cognitheme, modelling.

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Introduction

The latest decades in the national linguistic research were marked by the extensive interest towards the conceptualization of the world reflected in language signs of various structures, as well as texts. Back in the 90-s V.B. Kasevich pointed out the existence of two types of knowledge – language knowledge, i.e. knowledge extracted from language signs, and text/textual knowledge, i.e. knowledge derived from texts [5, P. 99-100]. (It is necessary to make a reservation that we are concerned with verbalised knowledge here, leaving aside, say, social experience knowledge as such, which is not within the competence of linguistics.) Hence there are two basic lines of exploring and modelling conceptual space, in particular, concepts as the focus of many researches – based on language signs analysis and based on text analysis, between which there is no rigid border and which are often combined in one investigation. In modern linguistics there are numerous diversified approaches to the notion of concept, the detailed consideration of which is outside the scope of this paper. In general the concept could be defined as “the fundamental unit of knowledge central to categorization and conceptualization” [8, P. 31]. This definition does not contradict the majority of opinions and is in full accordance, for example, with that given by V.N. Teliya, who regards the concept as all the knowledge about an object extracted from the semantics of the language [8, P. 96]. There is a group of researchers who explore the concept as a mental entity having a multiple representation in different language signs, considered in a paradigm [1], [2], [5], [6]. Other linguists focus their attention on concepts based on a text/discourse [9, P. 11]. These concepts are often more modern and more connected with the contemporary society outlook than concepts based on language signs, which often represent obsolete knowledge of the world. Mass media concepts, e.g., tend to reflect an average contemporary

outlook of this or that stratum of the society [10]. But if a text goes back a long time, it will represent largely dated concepts as well.

As for the conceptual space, it is a wider notion, embracing various conceptual structures, such as concepts, prototypes, fragments of the language picture of the world, the language picture of the world as a whole, etc. This notion is nowadays employed in the works of many cognitive linguists, permitting them to speak generally of any verbalized conceptual fragment, be it the language system as such, a number of texts or one word, cf. [3], [9].

Method and Discussion

Our attention in this article is focused, primarily, on the principles and units of modelling the conceptual space, formed by language signs and texts.

The conceptual analysis often falls back on the notion of the semantic field / nominative field [7]. This notion, though having its origins in structural linguistics, turned out to be nevertheless widely employed for the description of various concepts, thus finding its way into the area of cognitive linguistics.

The paper is aimed at considering another plausible approach to modelling a concept, a prototype, a fragment of the language picture of the world, in other words, the conceptual space represented by a language sign/signs, as well as the conceptual space connected with a text/discourse. Introduced in 2002 by the author of this paper [3] and later developed by other researchers [1], [2], [5], [6], the above approach is based on a cognitheme as a unit of analysis and relies on the cognitheme analysis of language signs. In general, a cognitheme is defined as an element of knowledge organised as a proposition and extracted from the semantic / conceptual space of one or several language signs [3, P. 57]. The analysis depends on the assumption that the semantics of the language sign taken as a whole, including both the

meaning and the literal meaning, as well as the connotation, is reflected into the conceptual space. This conceptual space contains the results of the world perception and interpretation realized by the community of native speakers of this or that language. Thus, to be more precise, the cognitheme analysis is aimed not at language signs as such, but at the conceptual space connected with these signs. The cognitheme was introduced with the purpose of having one unit of analysis for this space and originally used for the exploration of the conceptual space connected with proverbs, but later successfully employed for the description of that reflected by other language signs. As mentioned above, it could be functional for modelling a concept, a prototype or a fragment of the language picture of the world, and its usage could be extrapolated onto the analysis of the textual conceptual space. So the aim of this article is to demonstrate the prospects of the cognitheme analysis as a method of modelling various kinds of conceptual space.

Results

At first let us look at the possibilities of analysing the conceptual space based on language signs taken without any context.

The language signs of complex structure, such as compounds, derivatives with affixes, phraseological units and proverbs, are especially resourceful for the cognitheme analysis, but the conceptual space represented by words of simple structure can undergo this analysis as well.

Let us consider as an illustration of the above the phraseological unit "to put all your eggs in one basket" (to make everything dependent on only one thing; to place all one's resources in one place, account, etc.). The cognithemes in the conceptual space of this idiom are as follows: "eggs are put in a basket", "all eggs can be put in one basket", "to put all your eggs in one basket is dangerous", "eggs are like your resources", "a basket is like an account, a place for your resources, etc", "to concentrate all your resources in one place is dangerous".

Cognithemes can intersect, be part of one another, or differ in the degree of concreteness / abstractness. No aim is set to list all the prospective cognithemes in the space connected with the language sign / signs, the main focus being on the repetitive cognithemes, characteristic of the conceptual space of several language signs, for they reflect the elements of knowledge, which are mostly important for the speakers.

The main questions that could arise in connection with the above are as follows:

1. Is the proposed approach akin to the structural analysis?
2. Is the proposed approach subjective?
3. Does the proposed approach simplify very complex mental structures?

The answer to the first question would be negative because no intention of building a formal rigid structure is pursued, and no such structure results in the course of the analysis.

The answer to the second question is positive, but with reservations. The analysis based on the delineation of cognithemes is no more subjective than any analysis of the language semantics, like the division of the meaning into semes, for example. The only difference is that in this case we singularize elements from the conceptual space, which means moving from the level of semantics to the projected plane of conceptualization.

The answer to the third question will also be positive but again with reservations. The mental structures under

investigation have many sides and levels to them, and by using the cognitheme analysis we formalise them and inevitably simplify. But, on the other hand, it is well-known, that we can not study what we can not formalise [6, P. 19], formalisation being inherent to any scientific theory [14, P. 141]. The notion of the cognitheme allows us to fall back on one unit of analysis in modelling various kinds of the conceptual space, but does not exclude the application of other methods of research, if necessary.

Cognithemes could be classified in various ways depending on various criteria. There could be outlined, for example, basic, conclusive and interpretive cognithemes [4, P. 30-32]. Basic cognithemes represent units of the basic knowledge acquired at the first stage of ontogenesis and phylogenesis, like "pigs do not fly" (when pigs fly), "a cock crows" (As the old cock crows, so crows the young). They define the integral characteristics of familiar objects, which all members of the society are well aware of. Conclusive cognithemes reflect the knowledge received through the process of further interacting with the surrounding world and then drawing the conclusion, e.g., "it is bad to be idle" (Idle hands are the devil's tools), "a stone can not be thrown far" (at a stone's throw). The interpreting cognithemes are the result of interpreting the experience: "a person who threatens others is like a barking dog" (Barking dogs seldom bite), "a person criticizing the driver from a back seat is like another driver" (back seat driver). There is no sharp border between the three types of cognithemes, especially the first two. The main purpose of this classification is to specify three different types of knowledge they can reflect. There also exist other classifications of cognithemes [1], [2], [5], [6].

The conceptualization of the world embodied in language signs reflects the knowledge in possession of the community of native speakers. It is possible to suggest that the minute units of knowledge represented by cognithemes in the conceptual space of a language correspond to the units of knowledge in the collective consciousness of the people, speaking this language. The investigation of this hypothesis requires the joined efforts of several disciplines closely related to cognitive linguistics – psycholinguistics, psychology, cognitive science, philosophy, and computer science. So far it is possible, for example, to draw a parallel with the propositional structure of human memory [6], which can be in favour of the supposed propositional structure of collective consciousness. Meanwhile it seems justified to conclude that a cognitheme as an element of knowledge is not only a unit for modelling a more complex conceptual entity, like a concept or a prototype, but is also a representation of specific language conceptualization in its own right. This could be demonstrated especially clearly, if we compare cognithemes of two or more languages. E.g., it is possible to find an English cognitheme "a fox can be grey" (The fox may grow grey, but never good) that does not have a corresponding Russian cognitheme, fixed in a language sign. Insignificant though it may seem as a single example, in practice the comparison of common and specific cognithemes of two languages shows the coincidence and difference in the cognition and fixation of the acquired knowledge in a language.

The notion of a cognitheme as both the unit and the purpose of the analysis can be further extrapolated to modelling concepts / conceptual space represented by a text or discourse. In this case cognithemes are extracted from the conceptual space formed by much bigger entities than groups of language signs or just one language sign.

Texts largely reflect the knowledge of the world shared by most members of a language community. But a text can also verbalise a highly individual and original perception of the surrounding world. This refers first of all to poetic texts.

In this respect it is interesting to compare cognithemes encountered in poetic texts with those inherent to the conceptual sphere of the language system with the purpose to trace their interaction.

Let us consider a short poem by D.H. Lawrence "Little Fish" [16]:

*The tiny fish enjoy themselves
in the sea
Quick little splinters of life,
Their little lives are fun to them
in the sea.*

In the concept "Fish", based on this poem, it is possible to delineate cognithemes, typical of the corresponding concept represented by language signs, as well as individual cognithemes, characteristic of the author's vision of the object. E.g., the cognithemes, coinciding with those that reflect the social vision fixed in language signs, are "fish can be small" (Little fishes slip through nets, but great fishes are

taken), "fish live in the sea" (There are as good fish in the sea as ever came out of it). The cognithemes "tiny fish enjoy the sea", "tiny fish enjoy their lives", "tiny fish are lively", "tiny fish are like splinters", "tiny fish are like splinters of life" form the individual, original part of the concept "Fish", verbalised in the poem. The proposed approach allows us to outline the social and individual aspects in the conceptualization of an object in a more tangible way, than the traditional description of the author's perception and metaphor, pursuing primarily stylistic and literary analysis aims.

Conclusion

To sum up, it is possible to suggest that the subdivision of the language or textual conceptual space into cognithemes should prove useful for modelling cognition and interpretation of the world reflected in the language.

A cognitheme could be regarded as both the tool and the purpose of the analysis. As a tool it is employed to model the structure of a conceptual space. As a purpose, it reflects a unit of knowledge relevant for the interpretation of the world in this or that language.

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КОГНИТИВНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ СЛОВСОЧЕТАНИЙ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ**Аннотация**

Словосочетание – назывная единица языка, которая представляет собой группу слов, включающую по крайней мере два знаменательных слова, образующих семантическое и грамматическое целое на основе синтаксической связи гипотаксиса, или подчинения. Наряду со структурным анализом, представляющим традиционный подход, в свете развития современной лингвистики необходимым и своевременным представляется также проведение когнитивного анализа словосочетаний, в чем и состоит задача настоящей статьи. В статье также выявляются принципы когнитивного анализа словосочетаний в современном английском языке.

Ключевые слова: когнитивный анализ синтаксических единиц, конструирование гипотаксисных отношений, словосочетание в английском языке.

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COGNITIVE ANALYSIS OF PHRASES IN ENGLISH**Abstract**

A phrase is a nominative syntactic unit that consists of at least two notional words forming semantic and grammatical whole. The type of syntactic connection a phrase is based on is hypotaxis, or subordination. Taking into account the fact of modern linguistics development, traditional structural analysis of phrases should be supplemented with cognitive analysis, the latter being this article's objective. The article also focuses on the principles of cognitive analysis of phrases in modern English.

Keywords: cognitive analysis of syntactic units, modelling of hypotactic relations, phrases in the English language.

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Introduction

A phrase is a nominative syntactic unit. The term 'phrase' can be used only referring to such groups of words that contain at least two notional words forming semantic and grammatical whole. Two and more notional words can form a phrase by means of hypotaxis, or subordination. According to the structural approach, hypotaxis links elements of different ranks that could be called the main and dependent elements, or the head and the adjunct respectively, e.g.: *wonderful weather*. One of the components dominates over the other(s) and subordinates it (them) what concerns both form and arrangement. In spite of the fact that traditional structural approach is still popular, it needs enhancement as cognitive aspect of phrase analysis can provide deeper understanding of phrase formation principles.

The purpose of this article is to consider phrases in English from the point of view of their conceptual contents, i.e. reflection of grammatical concepts in a phrase. Grammatical concepts are considered as cognitive meanings that are formed in consciousness of a person making non-discrete units, which is determined by language experience to show connections and various characteristics of different objects [2].

Method

In order to conduct the research we use semantic-cognitive method aimed at determining the main and dependent elements of the phrase and their characteristics, their compatibility as well as cognitive interpretation and modelling. Through continuous sampling approach, 1000 examples of phrases from spontaneous colloquial speech [6] were selected.

Discussion

Concept modelling is rather essential nowadays not only what concerns lexical units that were deeply investigated by numerous researchers but grammar units as well. Although phrase components keep their lexical meaning there is no unambiguous compliance between syntactic and semantic levels, which makes us conclude that not individual components but the whole word combination as well as interrelation of the elements included and their ability to

reflect extralinguistic notions should be subject to cognitive analysis.

A syntactically represented concept serves as a conceptual substrate indirectly displaying the relationship between extralinguistic entities and linguistic signs. This connection is possible due to the fact that such a concept includes the most generalized information about relationship between the objective entities in the scheme "subject - action - object of an action", and each component of the conceptual scheme, in its turn, is projected over the structure of the sentence [3, P. 69]. A propositional structure, or a proposition, is a model of conceptual organization for our knowledge, a mental structure that reflects the typical situation and the nature of its participants' connections [1]. Proposition configuration determines choice of syntactic structures. A phrase is a proposition in its compressed form, as one of the main arguments of the proposition: either a subject or a predicate is absent. Cf.: *the girl standing at the window* and *The girl is standing at the window*. I'm more comfortable with Dad *because of his good driving* and I'm more comfortable with Dad *because he drives smoothly*.

Considering another criterion, semantic content of the word, we could distinguish between two types of word meanings: absolute and relative [4, p. 12]. Words with absolute (non-relative) meaning do not need their meaning to be completed. They can be distributed in a sentence with the help of other words, but not necessarily: *a new dress*, *a table made of wood*, etc. Relative words need to have their meaning completed: *An uncle came in*. Logically arises the question: *Whose uncle?* Relative / non-relative type of a word is considered to be a fundamental constitutive feature to characterize different words in terms of their projections in information flow organization [9, P. 214 – 217], [10, P. 205]. Nevertheless, some words could express either relative or absolute meaning, depending on the context. Cf.: *wooden walls*, i.e. walls made of wood; *wooden smile*, i.e. an inexpressive smile.

Results

Considering the elements composing the phrase it is necessary to note that most heads of word combinations are

expressed by a verb (or its non-finite forms) or a noun. Background concepts typical for verbs or their non-finite forms could denote action: *to go* to the institute*; process: *to dry* swiftly*; some state: *to be* dry*; both action and process: *to dry* the wood*, where the object is transformed, and some agent performing this action could be mentioned, e.g.: *Somebody dried the wood* (* marks the head).

Adding the second dependent element to the basic verb-component introduces new conceptual meanings as follows:

a) localization, referring to the direct subject location: *to be at the university*; the place the subject approaches: *to go to the university*; the place the subject approaches having no specific purpose to stay there: *to go towards the theatre*, or having special purpose in mind like staying nearby: *to go to the window*, *to run to the child*, movements in space: *to walk along the road*. Localization of static subjects or objects is determined relating to their spacial location: *to be in the table*, *to be on the table*;

b) orientation for a person or an object: *gave my brother a book*;

c) temporal orientation: *come at 5 o'clock*;

d) focus on the means or the way to take an action: *is written with a pen*;

e) action characteristics: *to run quickly*, where specific characteristics of an action are mentioned; *to discuss with the teacher*, where joint character of an action is emphasized.

Background concepts typical for nouns could denote subjectivity: a clever person*; objectivity: *a big table**; or objected action: *John's surprise**. Adding the second dependent element to the basic noun-component introduces new conceptual meanings as follows: a) classification: *key to the door*; b) individualization: *souvenir shop*; c) characterization with focus on some properties of the subject or the object: *an intelligent person*, *an interesting book*; d) specification: *two hours' work*; *a mile's distance*.

Many linguists take the opinion that some words are more acceptable as dependent components, so some principles and factors influencing the formation of English phrases should be mentioned.

First, the informative principle [8] demands that phrases both existing, and newly created, should eliminate ambiguous interpretation, i.e. wrong interpretation of the sender's message by the addressee. As English is an analytical language poor in inflections, only relative positioning of words in certain cases, for example, in a phrase consisting of two nouns, determines the whole meaning of the phrase. For instance, the phrase *a fruit salad* describes some food made of fruit, whereas in the word combination *a fruit knife* we

mean that the knife should be used for peeling and cutting fruit.

Secondly, valence [5, P. 117] of this or that part of speech may determine the number and types of its arguments. Almost all verbs and only some adjectives and nouns possess obvious valence. So, the adjective *anxious* demands designation of an experiencer and the reason of this state, e.g.: *anxious about his son's future*. Valence of a noun is shown less brightly. Such nouns as *part*, *sort*, *kind* have clearly expressed valence: *It's got a sort of greenish blue roof*. However, other adjectives and nouns, as well as other substantive parts of speech like adverbs and pronouns, have no obvious valence. In cognitive grammar the term "valence" defines a ratio of meanings of the main and dependent phrase components [7, P. 583]. Thus, the use of an adjective denoting color as a dependent word in a phrase where the main word is a noun predetermines the meaning of thingness, for example: *a green apple*. Here acts the principle of selectivity or correlation that shows interrelation of the phrase components.

Thirdly, the principle of profiling [9] assumes prominence of any characteristic in the main concept. So, *the garden window* is not any window, but the window viewing the garden. Some phrases could have double interpretation. Thus, *my key* may mean the key belonging to me or the key I use to open the door. Syntactic and semantic characteristics of the phrase depend on logical relations that should be shown. Concrete nouns highly tend to combine with other concrete nouns: *father's book*. The main element expressed by a noun meaning process predicts the necessity to mention some object: *patient's treatment*.

According to the research conducted, the type of a phrase and characteristics of its components depend on several criteria: first, the intention of a speaker, background knowledge, relevance of the information rendered, second, language constructions available for expressing cognitive relations. Any change in the direction of conceptual relations is reflected in typical meaning of this construction and the choice of lexical units that constitute the sentence.

Conclusion

To sum up, cognitive analysis of a phrase could help to determine its specific meaning and to find out how the language reflects extralinguistic reality and connections, or relations between its objects. The revealed cognitive principles as well as their deeper influence over phrase formation should be researched further using samples from various types of speech in modern English.

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Semantics (UDC 81'37)

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ТОПОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ СЕМАНТИКА: ОСНОВАНИЯ ОПИСАНИЯ ПРОСТРАНСТВЕННОГО РАЗМЕЩЕНИЯ ПРОПОЗИЦИОНАЛЬНЫХ ЗНАКОВ

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются вопросы топологической семантики естественного языка, необходимость изучения которой обусловлена изменением качественных параметров среды обитания человека и изменением статуса языка. Язык в digitalized society is matched with technology. Базовой концепцией рассмотрения топологической семантики естественного языка признается философия Л. Витгенштейна о предложении как пропозициональном знаке, моделирующем и репрезентирующем мир фактов. Логические основания топологической семантики выводятся из эпистемической логики, в которой исходным понятием полагается понятие фрейма, мотивирующее появление топологического понятия 'место действия'. Анализируются концепции топологической семантики, разработанные различными авторами и основывающиеся на понимании языка как технологии. Своими истоками топологическая семантика возводится к пространственной семиотике, основателем которой является Ю.М. Лотман.

Ключевые слова: топология, философия языка, семантика, пространственная семантика, языковая среда, формальные языки, контекстное значение, мереология, пространственная семиотика

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TOPOLOGICAL SEMANTICS: FOUNDATIONS OF THE DESCRIPTION OF THE SPATIAL DISTRIBUTION OF PROPOSITIONAL SIGNS

Abstract

The questions of the topological semantics of natural language are discussed in the article/ The need to study the topological semantics is due to the change of the quality of the human environment and change the status of the language. Language in digital society is matched with technology. The basic concept of the topological semantics of natural language is recognized, according to the L. Wittgenstein's philosophy on the sentence as a propositional sign, modeling and representing the world of facts. Logical basis of the topological semantics is derived from epistemic logic, in which the source concept relies on the notion of frame, motivating the emergence of the topological concept of 'the scene'. Analyzes the concept of topological semantics developed by different authors and based on an understanding of language as a technology. With its origins in topological semantics is being built to a spatial semiotics, founded by Y. M. Lotman.

Keywords: topology, philosophy of language, semantics, spatial semantics, language environment, formal languages, context value, mereology, spatial semiotics

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Introduction

The representation by the sentence the material properties of the world is recognized by L. Wittgenstein as the main linguistic product of society interaction with the environment which is based on the rules of use of language and comparable linguistic technology [8]. Actually, the language itself in recent decades is interpreted as a technology [13], [16], [23]. Technological status of languages due to the fact that symbolic systems must correspond to the new communicative needs of the person and to meet the requirement of accessibility in the use. The degree of language technological effectiveness is its suitability in the process of adjusting the language of personality and informational transformations of the life-context can be tested empirically by connective technologies [9].

The world, according to the concept of L. Wittgenstein [1] is set of numerous facts, the totality of which is defined as everything that occurs and everything that doesn't have. The sentence is the sign which modeling and representing the world of facts, or actual world. "The sign through which we express the thought I call the propositional sign (Satzzeichen). And the sentence is a propositional sign in its projective relation to the world" [1, P. 52]. The essence of a

propositional sign is that its elements, words, incorporate it in a certain way that allows us to recognize the propositional sign as a fact. Importantly, the idea in the sentence for L. Wittgenstein expressed sensually: the sensible signs are used as projections of the possible state of affairs. Projection method is defined as thinking of the sentence meaning, in the same sentence does not contain its sense, but only the possibility of its expression, the form of its meaning, but not its contents.

Method: The topological representation of facts and signs in logical and semantic spaces

The scale of reality is defined by representation of facts in logical space, in which the position of the sign is determined by the mark relative to its surroundings or to near stay signs. In this case the sign is a standalone form or part of the form and relative semantic continuum – the set of concepts with which the sign can be associated. It is "clot" of contents or the marker sequence of meanings.

As for the location of the sign in a logical, semantic spaces and space of forms, then for its interpretation it is advisable to involve topological ideas and related logical ideas. M. McMullen [20] as the most relevant topological perspective, first defines the transformation of the shape associated with a metric space and a specific distance

between the points. Important is the transformation of three-dimensional form in the plane form, that is also relevant to studies of the events shape transformations, events semantics and environment in a text-mode transmission, i.e., location in a particular system of propositional signs, which correlated with a specific conceptual set. Topological spaces form the broadest regime, in which matter the concept of 'continuous function'.

R. Parikh, L. S. Moss, K. Steinsvold [24] believe that a large part of topology can be considered as a modal logic, i.e. epistemic logic which combines the notion of knowledge and effort. The researchers examine the ratio of logic and space, or rather, they pay attention to how different goals will dictate the formulation/selection logic. But in a sense, the goal is to, based on a common mathematical model of space, to select logical methods to work with this space.

In his work R. Parikh, L. S. Moss, K. Steinsvold rely on the understanding of the topology suggested by Stephen Vickers: "topology is used to explain approximate states of information: the points include both approximate points and more refined points, and these relate to the topology by the property that if an open set contains an approximate point, then it must contain any refinement of it." [33, P. 3]. Finite observations become object of consideration therefore the main task of topology reconstruction in terms of logics of observations. The algebraization of a logic of finite observations is called a frame and the operation \wedge (binary) and (infinitary). The concept of the frame determines the emergence of a more topological notion of 'a locale', which is based on the frame morphisms into a special two-element frame. The semantics begins with a frame, a set whose elements are called worlds or points together with a binary relation on it. This relation is sometimes called accessibility, and symbols like \rightarrow , \leq , or R have been used for it.

Discussion: The parthood semantics as the topological perspective on the logical relationship 'part' to 'whole'

A O. Prozorov [26] proposes to consider as varieties of formal textual syntax systematic interpretation of logical notions in terms of topology and order, drawing attention to the fact that for the word $\sigma\upsilon\nu\tau\alpha\zeta\iota\varsigma$ is derived from $\sigma\upsilon\nu$ (together) and $\tau\alpha\zeta\iota\varsigma$ (order). In addition, the Prozorov O. A introduces the concept of semantic topology on texts, which is based on a topological interpretation of the core hermeneutic idea - the ratio of 'part' of text to 'whole' text [25], [26], [27]. The topological perspective on the relationship 'part' to 'whole' allows you to enter the interpretations of the topological concepts, e.g., concepts of boundaries and interiors of objects. The topological perspective to consider cognitive important part of the whole, the lexical objectification parthood semantics declared by the opposition "single-multiplicity" [10], [12], [22], [21].

The study of the parthood semantics is part of mereology, which allows us to identify the deeper aspects of the ratio of 'part' to 'whole', but also to give new interpretations of concepts such as sum or fusion, and collection [17], [18], [31], [32], [11], [5], [2].

'Part' of the text, interpreted O. Prozorov as subsequence which graph is a subset of the whole sequence graph. The text is understood as a finite sequence of its constituent sentences and so it is formally identified with a graph of the function. Understanding the semantic content of the text related to the meaningful parts and the meanings of these parts determine the meaning of the whole. According to O. Prozorov, to understand a meaningful part U of the text is to understand contextually all its sentences $x \in U$. While the context of a particular sentence x истолковывается как some

meaningful part lying in U . For the least meaningful part U_x containing x , we have that $x \in U \cap V$ implies $x \in U_x \subseteq U \cap V$; hence, $U \cap V$ is meaningful as a union $U_x \in U \cap V U_x$ of meaningful parts.

In accordance with the concept of topological semantics O. Prozorov, it is assumed that any text has a value as a whole, it only remains to determine formally its empty part (for example, as a singleton) in order to provide it with some topology in the mathematical sense, where the collection of

open sets $\mathfrak{O}(X)$ whose boundaries are set as the set of all meaningful parts.

Results: Topological schema as the unit of calculation of the topological semantics and spatial values

E. V. Rahilina [6] finds that every object in the language picture of the world corresponds to a specific topological type – a functionally important class of shapes, which include surfaces, containers, etc. In addition, the researcher [7] suggested to call an image schema as topological schema. Image schema was introduced into science by M. Johnson "An image schema is a recurring, dynamic pattern of our perceptual interactions and motor programs that gives coherence and structure to our experience" [15].

V. Evans and M. Green [14, P. 190], synthesizing different points of view on images schemas and integrating generated by the authors of the lists that offer a list of topological models, which is as follows: SPACE: up–down, front–back, left–right, near–far, centre–periphery; CONTAINMENT: contact, straight, verticality, container, in–out, surface, full–empty, content; LOCOMOTION: momentum, source–path–goal; BALANCE: twin–pan balance, локальное, point balance, equilibrium; FORCE: compulsion, blockage, counterforce, diversion, removal of restraint, enablement, attraction, resistance; UNITY–MULTIPLICITY: merging, collection, splitting, iteration, part–whole, mass–count, link(age); IDENTITY: matching, superimposition; EXISTENCE: removal, bounded space, cycle, object, process.

N. Kuznetsov [3] in the context of spatial values of local cases of Komi language recognizes the most important topological schemas *container*, *surface*, *source–path–goal*, etc. The intra local cases in their basic spatial functions are an indication of internal localization, however, depending on the topological type of the landmark and its physical characteristics, they can also be used to specify other locations. Under the spatial functions of the cases is understood the designation of their physical position, action or motion of the trajector relative to a spatial reference point.

Situation use of the intra local cases in the basic values are similar, they denote the same location and involve the same types of topological landmarks. However, they differ in the designation of types of topological orientation: specify the location of the trajector, marking the final point of motion or action, the expression of the starting point.

Conclusion

A. Sharif, M. Egenhofer, D. Mark [30] notice that the spatial relations reflect the ways in which people perceive the spatial configuration and describe them in different languages. Analyzing the works devoted to spatial relations [29, 34], researchers have come to the conclusion that there are three basic types of spatial relations: 1) topological relationships based on the notion of neighborhood and invariant under consistent topological transformations, such as rotation, translation, scaling; 2) cardinal direction relations, which are based on the existence of a vector space and is subject to change under rotation, while they are

invariants under translation and scaling of the reference frame; 3) distance relations express spatial properties that reflect the concept of a metric and, therefore, changes in the calculation, but are invariant under translation and rotation.

D. Mark, M. Egenhofer [19] note that the semantics of spatial relations multidimensional that affects the choice of words users of the language. It is the values of the objects, shape of objects and their scale, relationships in space between objects. The level of culture affects the choice of words, education and the quality of the natural language of the individuals that use spatial terms.

The use of mathematical concepts in the analysis of the properties of the artistic space of the 80-ies of XX century in the context of spatial semiotics proposed Y. M. Lotman [4]. The space is understood as the totality of homogeneous objects (phenomena, conditions, facts, figures, values of variables, etc.) between which there are relationships similar to ordinary spatial relationships. Applied to artistic works mathematical concepts of space is a modeling language, which can be any values as long as they have the character of structural relations [4, P. 4].

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К ВОПРОСУ О НАЛИЧИИ ЗНАЧЕНИЯ ЛИЧНЫХ ИМЕН

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается вопрос наличия значения у личного имени. Проанализировав теоретические источники по данной проблеме, авторы статьи приходят к выводу, что личное имя имеет значение. При этом, значение личного имени – это комплекс, который включает в себя лингвистическую информацию об имени как о языковом знаке, с одной стороны, и экстралингвистическую информацию об именуемом объекте, с другой. Личное имя – это полноценный языковой знак, семантика которого включает в себя все те же элементы, что и семантика имени нарицательного, однако значимость коннотативного аспекта выходит на первый план, что приводит к своеобразию данной языковой единицы.

Ключевые слова: коннотация, оним, антропонимастикон, личное имя, имянарекание.

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ARE PROPER NAMES MEANINGFUL OR MEANINGLESS?

Abstract

The article deals with the question of the meaning of a personal name. The authors of the article after having analysed theoretical sources on this issue concluded that a personal name has its meaning. At the same time, the value of personal onym is a complex that includes linguistic information about the name as a linguistic unit, on the one hand, and extra-linguistic information about the named object, on the other. A personal name is a full-fledged language sign the semantics of which includes the same elements as the semantics of the common noun, but the significance of the connotative aspect comes to the fore that results in the singularity of this linguistic unit.

Keywords: connotation, onym, anthroponomasticon, personal name, naming.

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Introduction

There are a great number of proper names in any language along with common names. Proper names are used to denote a large range of people, objects, places, phenomena, and concepts.

Since proper names perform identification function, it is worth noting that personal onyms are an integral component of human nature or linguistic identity. They characterise it, evaluate, and give an idea of the name – bearer to the recipient.

Onyms remain a controversial subject for many researchers. The main bodies of issues are:

1. the process of name creation and naming;
2. the existence and absence of the meaning of the name;
3. the functioning of the name in language and speech;
4. the semantic structure of the name.

Methods

To achieve the goal and solve a number of specific problems we apply a descriptive method, etymological method, componential analysis, and method of classification. The methods of study are dictated by the specifics of the subject, linguistic material, as well as the goals and tasks of the research study. The direct study of linguistic material was accompanied by partial analysis taking into consideration not only the semantics, but also a wide linguistic and cultural context.

Discussion

The absence of a single common concept of a proper name is largely explained by the difference in initial positions on the semantics of proper names and methods of their study. This fact gave rise to the opposite theories, based on the connection of a name with the concept referring to an object.

John Stuart Mill's point of view that proper names have no meaning is the most traditional and common in linguistics. Referring to Thomas Hobbes, John Mill wrote that the name is a word arbitrarily chosen to serve as a label, which can

excite the idea in our minds, similar to the one we had before. A name, being pronounced to others, may be a sign of what thought the speaker had before in his mind. Names are the names of things themselves, and not just our ideas of things [9].

As for proper names, John Stuart Mill believed that if names give any information about the things that they name then they have their own meaning, and it is contained in what they connote, rather than that they name. "The only names of objects, which connote nothing, are proper names, and they have, strictly speaking, no signification" [9, P. 288].

The main thesis of John Mill is that proper names are lack of any signification. The theory of definitions closely relates to it and is a necessary component of the theory of names. Proper names may not have definitions as they do not have connotations. According to John Mill, to be a connotative name means to have a signification.

H. Joseph, as well as J.S. Mill considers names as marks, but they refer to a human and, therefore they have a linguistic meaning. In accordance with Bertrand Russell's theory of descriptions, proper names obtain the meaning through the description, which is associated with the referent (a particular object of reality), and, consequently, the amount of the meaning depends on the scope of description.

John Searle also considers that the names have meanings; he suggested the identification when a specific reference occurs only when using an expression that can inform the listener with the description that is true to one object [10].

Attributes referred to denotatum are disclosed in the practical application of proper names. It can be clearly seen when characteristics of proper names are compared with common names. We perceive such personal names as *Alphonse* (the name of the main character of the drama "Mr. Alphonse" by Alexandre Dumas Fils, which is attributed to any man who allows his mistress to pay for his living expenses), *Romeo*, *Ruslan* and *Lyudmila* (the names of the main characters of Alexander Pushkin's first narrative poem,

which moved into adjunction to the category of common nouns in the Russian language area) on the associative background when revealing a large amount of meanings. Moreover, we often associate the names with the names of well-known bearers of a particular name; that means that the name bears stable associations with sample bearers in a national area.

The meaning of the name appears as the amount of characteristics and represents itself as if it were a point of contact in linguistic and extralinguistic context.

The linguistic part of the meaning of onym is the specific character of the existence of the name in the language, its perception, history, and etymology of its appellative base. The extralinguistic part of onym involves the conditions for the name existence in society, cultural and historical associations, the specific relationship between the name and the object being named, as well as the degree of popularity of the name-bearer.

Personal onyms as lexical units consisting of a certain set of the semes: a man, sex, ethnicity, as well as they may also have social, religious, and age-related connotations.

Without reference to any particular person all personal names, surnames, patronymic have the same set of characteristics. When anthroponym is firstly mentioned in the text or speech, it points to the number of persons with the same name who, however, belong to a certain nationality, certain generation.

The speaker who uses the personal name in the speech associates the name with the characteristics of the bearers of such a name who are familiar to him/her. The circle of people who are known for the speaker will be united in the social or territorial communities where individualisation of the person – the name-bearer will be implemented.

Therefore, from the abovementioned, we can conclude that the personal name has the meaning. It relates to a particular person and performs its main function that is it identifies the name-bearer; and as a linguistic unit the name stores the information and has a cumulative function.

A significative component of the meaning of the personal name is reduced to the plan of expression. As for the plan of expression of personal names, it has two aspects. On the one hand, it is etymology expressed by a noun, which has been turned into a name and gives it the content; on the other hand, it is lost, rethought, and associatively reinterpreted over time to create a new content.

The meaning of a personal name (the relationship between the name and the meaning) one should not only consider the connection of the name with its bearer (with extralinguistic information), but establish the denotation of the onym.

Extralinguistic part of the meaning can be named by different terms: denotation, designatum, referent, and object.

According to E. Grodzinskiy [2], we may divide proper names into:

- mono-designated – proper names in the ideal sense having only one bearer (*Jesus, Judah*);

- multi-designated – names having many bearers (*Ivan, German*);

- undesigned – names of mythological creatures really did not exist (*Voldemort, Dobby*).

This classification allows us not only to relate onym to one or another group (to identify the bearer) but to determine connotative shades of a personal onym (expressive, emotive, and cultural).

A connotative aspect in the semantic structure of onym does not level but provides it with emotional, expressive, cultural, and social coloration.

The connotation can be freely reproduced and be stable, therefore it can be included in the semantic structure of the word.

We include evaluative, emotive, expressive, and cultural components in the structure of the connotation of personal onyms. These four elements are not a mechanical sum, but they are an interdependent unit.

We can distinguish various components in the evaluative component of personal onyms based on expressive characteristic of the name-bearer:

- personal (diminutive and hypocoristic derivatives of personal onyms). Derivatives combine abbreviated, hypocoristic, diminutive, and familiar names, which are not amenable for a clear differentiation;

- social (a relation to a famous name based on nationwide and group stereotypes) - the American politician said at the press conference that he worked with *Jack Kennedy* and *Joe Califano*, *Cy Vanse*. This naming of the person is not typical for standard naming, but in this case, they expressed a positive emotional assessment with a touch of familiarity, due to which the speaker emphasized his personal nearness to the mentioned politicians;

- registrative (the use of derivatives in formal and informal situations) - *Rina Zelyenaya* – the full form of the name is *Ekaterina*.

Results

1. In our study, we concluded that a personal name has a meaning. It relates to a particular person and performs its basic function to identify the name-carrier.

2. The specific character of the semantic structure of the personal name defines its specialisation in the identifying function and reveals the main trends in the occurrence of various kinds of connotations.

3. Connotation of the name refers to the wide array of positive and negative associations of the name-bearer. Connotation and denotation are two aspects of onyms. In this case, the connotative characteristics cannot exist without the denotative meanings.

4. Connotation represents the various social and cultural implications, or emotional features associated with the name-bearers.

This study breaks a new ground for a future research of extralinguistic characteristics of personal names especially interconnectivity of connotative meaning with motivation for naming.

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

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**ТРАДИЦИИ ПОПУЛЯРИЗАЦИИ НАУКИ В РОССИИ КАК МЕТОДОЛОГИЧЕСКАЯ БАЗА
РАЗРАБОТКИ НОВОЙ МАГИСТЕРСКОЙ ПРОГРАММЫ «НАУЧНО-ПОПУЛЯРНАЯ ЖУРНАЛИСТИКА»***Аннотация*

В статье рассматривается новая магистерская программа «Научно-популярная журналистика», которая начала действовать три года назад в Санкт-Петербургском государственном университете. Автор статьи – создатель, разработчик и руководитель данной программы. Цель статьи – охарактеризовать исторические и культурные основания магистерской программы и их реализацию в учебном плане. Установка на содружество наук, ориентация на широкую аудиторию составляли профилирующую установку классической системы российской научно-популярной журналистики. В соответствии с этим магистерская программа конструировалась как междисциплинарная, с заложенной идеей конвергенции наук, вытекающей из российской истории научного просвещения. Статья нацелена на то, чтобы показать перспективность междисциплинарной образовательной программы, состоящей из модулей.

Ключевые слова: традиции популяризации науки в России, научно-популярная журналистика, магистерские программы в области журналистики.

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**TRADITIONS OF SCIENCE POPULARIZATION IN RUSSIA AS A METHODOLOGICAL BASIS TO
DEVELOP THE NEW MASTER'S PROGRAM "POPULAR SCIENCE JOURNALISM"***Abstract*

The article discusses the new master's program "Popular science journalism", which started three years ago at Saint Petersburg State University, Russia. The author of this article is the creator, developer and head of this program. The goal of this article is to characterize historical and cultural grounds of the master's program, and their reflection in the curriculum. Installation for the commonwealth of sciences, targeting a broad audience comprised a profiling installation of the classical system of Russian popular science journalism. In accordance with this, the master's program was designed as an interdisciplinary, with the incorporated idea of the sciences convergence, which based on the Russian history of scientific enlightenment. The article aims to show productivity of the interdisciplinary educational programs, combined into modules.

Keywords: traditions of Russian science popularization, popular science journalism, master's programs in journalism.

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Introduction

Contemporary trend, named "science with and for society" (or "public understanding of science" [8, P. 82], means establish communication between separated areas of elitist scientific and social sphere. In terms of communication theory, it is difficult to find some other field of public life, where communicant, mediator would play such a significant role, than in science communications.

At the present time, Russian media increase their interest to scientific problems: actively developed scientific subjects in the printed press and electronic media, created new popular science magazines. For the first time over a long period Russia media show interest to scientific issues.

Training science journalists is an objective need for the state, society, science and media themselves. Russian media market demands science journalists. However, until recent times preparation of science journalists practically not engaged.

In the West, scientific journalists have being prepared at the best universities. American, British science journalists constitute the elite of journalistic profession, precisely because they are able to understand and accessible to present objectively complex issues. In this case, university programs to train science journalists should be specialized and at the same time – within the selected profile – interdisciplinary. The good example of master's degree program in earth and environmental science journalism represents Columbia University (USA). Such programs are designed as a cross-cutting, with the participation of the journalism schools.

In Russia – to say repeatedly – there is a request for scientific journalists with university degree. However, today in Russia there is only one master's program on popular science journalism, developed by the author of this article [2]. It was implemented four years ago at the School of Journalism and Mass Communications at Saint Petersburg State University. Together with Moscow State University, St. Petersburg University is in the top of Russian universities.

Method

In the West, modern knowledge model is based on the separation of science / art. In such logocentric country, like Russia, dichotomy science vs. art is not so relevant. The very type of national consciousness tends to traditionalism and syncretism. In modern Russian scientific environment has developed evaluative attitude towards humanitarian knowledge, as opposed to natural science. Meanwhile, the idea of the commonwealth of sciences is central to the whole tradition of the national popular science journalism [4]. Another reason is that Russian science has never been separated from the public life [1]. In Russia, even methodological schools in different fields of knowledge, maintained themselves through the journalistic discourse. Traditionally, Russian science was a public-oriented. Historical and typological model of scientific and popular press in Russia is based on a multidisciplinary approach, uniting science and art. In Soviet times, the system of scientific popularization was provided at a high level and operated very effectively. Soviet scientists themselves were involved in the different activities in the field of scientific

popularization. Nevertheless, socio-historical transformations have led to the fact that Western researchers and Western science were appeared to be more open to society than is the case in modern Russia.

Discussion

Training of students in popular science journalism faces a number of serious problems. The main problem is that modern science strongly separated within itself. There is a deficit of fundamental scientific trainings at university programs. In Russian humanitarian educational cycle such reductionism is due to two main reasons: 1) the rapid development of non-classical and applied humanities majors (such as tourism, advertising and others), 2) the overall reduction of hours devoted to humanitarian disciplines of the federal component of the curriculum.

If we talk about journalism education, the professional community is increasingly leaning toward the position that strengthening scientific training of future journalists is actually necessary. The main difference between Russian and Western journalism models is based on the fact that the second is mostly "journalism of fact", while the first is par excellence "journalism of opinion". In other words, if the "poet in Russia is more than a poet", the journalist is more than the organizer of communication.

The purpose of the master's program "Popular science journalism" defines wide approach to its formation. The program has received not only interdisciplinary, but also inter-departmental approach. For a point of reference here is not taken the department and faculty, but existing profiles of the university master's programs on the whole. The main thrust of the program – humanitarian.

The main areas of master's program "Popular science journalism" are: a) general scientific, b) history, theory and practice of scientific popularization [7, 9], c) poetics of scientific and educational media texts [6].

The main courses of the curriculum are following: "Introduction to methodology and history of science", "Modern natural science", "History of popular science journalism", "Contemporary scientific and educational film: types and genres", "Popularization of science in print media", "Popularization of science in audiovisual mass media", "Travelogue discourse", "Creative studios", "Environmental journalism".

What are the learning objectives within the framework of the master's program?

First of all, this program graduates should be worthy of a general scientific level, which itself serves as a natural barrier to pseudo-scientific representation. Basic discipline "Introduction to the methodology and the history of science" [10] opens master program curriculum. It is aimed at establishing a common understanding of the scientific process in its unity: diachronic, theoretical. Discipline "History of popular science journalism" [3, 5] promotes addition and deepening of the given coordinate system. In the framework of science popularization history it is considered in conjunction with the development of science, socio-cultural situation. This discipline is designed to reveal the historical and typological models of domestic popular science journalism, which can be applied in the present. Within the course "History of popular science journalism" students get the following task. They should create a popular science magazine drawing on the tradition of Russian science popularization. More precisely, they should form specific magazine model, content, design. Their projects are posted on the faculty website. In addition, within this historical discipline students write a paper: "Course research paper in

history of popular science journalism: the 18th – 20th centuries".

Here are a few examples what kind of material students are studied within the historical disciplines; in this case this material finds a methodological value. Studying the history of the Russian-Soviet press, students have to come to the following conclusions.

1) In the leading type of publication of scientific and popular press – magazine – education and entertainment functions organically combined. Model of the Russian scientific and popular press can be defined as transmedia, or hybrid media. It has been produced by a harmonious work of the most important social institutions of society: education and journalism.

2) The main objective of the popular-scientific press is not so much in the promotion of scientific knowledge, but in the audience world view development. For this concept implementation requires community of the different sciences.

Among the various disciplines of the master's program curriculum is carried idea of convergence of humanitarian and natural sciences. Natural science direction outputs this master program on the wide level of interaction.

The program is called "Popular science journalism", not just "Science journalism, or communication". It is designed to neutralize the possible disparity between the different areas of knowledge. In the program emphasizes adaptation of scientific information for a mass audience through the media, movie, literature and, if we consider more specifically, for example, through travelogues. This feature allows standing out from alternative master's programs. All disciplines focused on the practical application of knowledge. Totally practice-oriented are "Creative studios". They are divided into two modules: science popularization in print media and audiovisual mass media. Within the first module students write popular science articles and reviews for the corporative popular science magazine "Saint Petersburg University". In the second way they are preparing the script and an application for non-fiction television program.

Unfortunately, in the educational and research institutions objectively lack the tools to struggle with pseudo-science. Mission of this master's program graduates is also to carry out this kind of activity in the terms of specific journalistic actions (in the way of investigative journalism, the formation of adequate public opinion). To countering pseudo-science in the humanitarian sphere no less important than in the natural sciences field. Different fields of knowledge converge at this position, but differ in their constitutive role in terms of the formation of ideas about the past and the future. Compensatory function of scientific popularization also has considerable potential. It allows expressing that it is difficult to talk under the rigorous scientific discourse.

Results

Graduates should be able to act in two main directions. Firstly, they should be able to mediatize science itself. In this case, their focus is to advance scientific knowledge, revealing approach to building modern scholarly communication. In the second case, they would think about audience and developing its picture of the world. In Russia, scientific education has always solved these two problems.

It is well known that science can be in progress only in the situation of scientific schools and scientific environment existed. Scientific popularization also develops only in the system of different promotional formats and integrated marketing communications. Therefore, considered master program is working closely with the club of science

journalists "Science Matrix". It has been working in St. Petersburg for more than ten years and organizes press conferences with leading scientists.

The main positive expected outcome of this program is as follows. Graduates of the master's program will certainly be in demand. We already have an offer of employment from the press service of the academic institutions and popular science magazines. It is important that as a result of student's research, journalistic and teaching practice they would provide jobs at the stage of master degree. Graduates have to fill the vacant segment of science journalists. It is very important that at the end of the magistracy, they'll work not in journalism in general, but more specifically – in scientific journalism.

Conclusion

Lifestyle of a consumer society is glamour and tourism. Popular science journalism generates appropriate values of the audience. Worthy science popularization should be able to observe the correct proportion between entertainment and

cognitive aspects. The primary audience of the popular scientific press is quite elitist.

The graduates of the master's program "Popular science journalism" should have some kind of universal cognitive base. In addition, they should be able to pedal scientific information occasions, to bring them closer to the audience. Meanwhile, the controversy in the public space towards the popularization of science is centered on those issues that have long known. In the field of public actively discussed the issue could journalist popularize science or not. A positive answer to this question is well known. In Soviet times, the objective of which was to raise the level of the mass audience to scientific, science successfully popularized as the scientists themselves, as well as journalists. A similar situation exists in the Western press. Actual master's program develops this line.

And finally is one paradox. In Russia, scientific popularization cannot be unpopular. It follows from the traditions and peculiarities of national identity.

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**СИМВОЛ КАК ОДНА ИЗ ОСОБЕННОСТЕЙ ХУДОЖЕСТВЕННОГО ДИСКУРСА (НА ПРИМЕРЕ
 СОВРЕМЕННЫХ ПРОИЗВЕДЕНИЙ АНГЛОЯЗЫЧНЫХ И РУССКОЯЗЫЧНЫХ АВТОРОВ)**

Аннотация

В статье рассмотрен символ как одна из особенностей художественного дискурса. Традиционные символы присутствуют в художественном произведении так же часто, как и в обыденной речи. Их легко понять и интерпретировать. Писатели используют авторские символы для раскрытия художественных образов и описания событий. Исследователи данной области утверждают, что, с одной стороны, символы могут обогащать художественное произведение, придавая ему особые смыслы, с другой стороны, например, для заурядного читателя, символ отягощает текст и делает его недоступным для восприятия всей полноты художественного произведения. Традиционные символы обращаются к произведениям из культурного наследия, таким как Библия, древняя история и литература, к произведениям англоязычных и русскоязычных писателей. Иногда, для того, чтобы понять художественное произведение, необходимо знание истории, политики, текущих событий в современном мире. Значения авторских символов не устанавливаются заранее, они появляются в контексте. Писатель сам придаёт то или иное символическое значение предмету, событию или цвету. Цель исследования заключается в выявлении и анализе авторских символов и их интерпретации в художественном дискурсе. Практическая значимость заключается в возможности применения результатов исследования в разработке лекционных курсов и семинарских занятий по современной британской и американской литературе, стилистике.

Ключевые слова: художественный дискурс, символизм, традиционные и авторские символы.

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**SYMBOL AS ONE OF THE PECULIARITIES OF FICTION DISCOURSE (BY WAY OF EXAMPLE OF THE
 WORKS BY THE ENGLISH SPEAKING AND RUSSIAN SPEAKING WRITERS)**

Abstract

The paper analyses symbol as one of the peculiarities of fiction discourse. Conventional symbols appear in fiction just as often as they appear in daily speech. They can be easily understood and interpreted. Writers employ authorial symbols for revealing artistic images and describing events. The researchers of this sphere affirm that symbols can both enrich a work of literature giving it additional meanings and, at the same time, especially for a non-expert, they can burden it and make the work of literature beyond one's full comprehension. Conventional symbols often allude to other works from our cultural heritage, such as the Bible, ancient history and literature, and works written by the English speaking and Russian speaking authors. Sometimes understanding a story may require knowledge of history, politics and current events in the modern world. Private symbols do not have pre-established associations: the meanings that are attached to them emerge from the context of the work in which they occur. A writer gives his own personal symbolic significance to an object, event or color. The aim of the research consists in revealing and analysing the authorial symbols and examining them in fiction discourse. Practical value of the research consists in the possibility of applying its results in preparing for lecture courses and seminars on modern British and American literature and stylistics.

Keywords: fiction discourse, symbolism, conventional and authorial symbols.

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Introduction

The study discusses the importance of understanding symbol as an integral part of a literary discourse. Symbols can both enrich fiction for an expert in modernism, for example, and at the same time burden it for a non-expert.

The end of the 19th and the beginning of the 20th centuries brought on the European scene fundamental political, social and economic changes, contradictions, conflicts and confrontations which led to small and large scale wars. Great triumphs went along with dire catastrophes.

In this turn-of-the century world tensions were surfacing in virtually all areas of human endeavor and behavior: in science, in arts, in literature, in fashion, between generations. The Victorian era with its strict social codes and ethical values, with its attempts to compartmentalize experience into the categories of good and bad, right and wrong, was over.

At the turn of the century world there appeared new schools, trends, mainstreams in science, art and literature [1, P. 27-28]. We cannot possibly draw straight lines between mainstreams, sometimes the border is blurred. At one and the

same time a writer can be both a symbolist and an impressionist, for example.

Consequently, the paper deals with the analysis of a literary symbol. Symbol is something that means more than what it is. It is one of the resources for gaining compression. It is an object, a person, a situation, an action, or some other item that has a literal meaning in the story but suggests or represents other meanings as well. All readers recognize the power of language in fiction, and its ability to move us both to laughter and to tears. That language, a system of abstract sounds and signs, should affect us so powerfully remains one of the mysteries of human nature. Language gains its emotional power from the fact that it is symbolic [2, P. 278].

The words symbol and symbolism are derived from the Greek word meaning "to throw together". A symbol 1 [(of)] something which represents or suggests something else, such as an idea or quality: In the picture the tree is the symbol of life and the snake is the symbol of evil [6, P. 1343]. A symbol is a sign, something that stands for more than itself. The letters f l a g form a word that stands for a particular

objective reality. A flag, in turn, is a colored cloth that represents a nation. But a flag is more than an identifying sign. Our lives are filled with such conventional symbols, and we are largely in agreement as to their meaning, for example, the rose stands for love, the diamond ring for betrothal, the wedding ring for marriage.

Conventional symbols appear in fiction just as they appear in daily speech. But in fiction, writers also employ symbols in a more specialized way and for a particular purpose. When a writer sets out to tell a story, he uses language to describe the world of everyday experience he shares with his readers.

At the same time, a writer recognizes that the words and phrases he selects for his tale will have implications that go well beyond the immediate action or character being described. In fact, a writer selects a word or phrase precisely because of its implications, because it enables him to transcend the action or character he is describing and give his story the greatest possible meaning.

When we first encounter a symbol in a story or poem or play, it may seem to carry no more weight than its surface or obvious meaning. It can be a description of a character, an object, a place, an action, or a situation, and it may function perfectly well in this capacity.

A symbol may suggest a cluster of meanings. "This is not to say that it can mean anything we want it to: the area of possible meanings is always controlled by the context. Nevertheless, this possibility of complex meaning, plus concreteness and emotional power, gives the symbol its peculiar compressive value [2, P. 278]". The study has been based on investigating two types of symbols: cultural (universal) and contextual (private, or authorial). Contextual symbols are of prior interest for us in this article. Thus, the study has posed the following research question: How does symbol as one of the peculiarities of fiction discourse function in a particular context?

Method

In compliance with the aim of the research, the following methods have been undertaken: the analysis of the publications concerning the studied problem, contextual, descriptive, cultural-historic and comparative analyses and the analysis of the word definitions taken from various dictionaries. Authorial symbols need thorough and deliberate analysis and interpretation.

Discussion

The theoretical background of the present stage of the study is established considering selected theoretical contributions on investigation of symbol as an integral part of literary discourse. Most of the symbols are generally or universally recognized and are therefore cultural. They embody ideas and emotions that writers and readers share as heirs of the same historical and cultural tradition. When using cultural symbols, a writer assumes that readers already know what this or that symbol represents. Cultural or universal symbols are widely known and recognized, for example, the association of white color with innocence, red – with passion, etc.

Cultural Symbols often allude to other works from our cultural heritage, such as the Bible, ancient history and literature, and works of the British and American traditions. Sometimes understanding a story may require knowledge of politics and current events.

Cultural symbols are drawn from history and custom, such as many Christian religious symbols. References to the lamb, Eden, shepherd, exile, the Temple, blood, wine, bread,

the cross, and water – are all Jewish and/or Christian symbols.

"Sometimes these symbols are prominent in a purely devotional context. In other contexts, however, they maybe contrasted with symbols of warfare and corruption to show how extensively people neglect their moral and religious obligations [8, p. 938]". Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture (1992) and the Wordsworth Dictionary of Phrase and Fable (1993), for example, give the following definitions of the universally recognized or conventional symbols:

Creation can be explained according to the Bible story: God made the Universe, the earth, and all the animals. He then made Adam, the first man, out of dust, and Eve, the first woman, from one of Adam's ribs. This took God six days, and on the seventh day he rested.

Eden is a paradise, the country and garden in which Adam was placed by God. Adam and Eve, the first human beings, lived there before their disobedience to God. The word means delight and pleasure. It is thought of as a place or state of complete happiness.

Snake in the Bible (also called a serpent) is the creature that persuades Eve, the first woman, to take a bite of an apple that God has forbidden Adam and Eve to eat. So that is why they have to leave the perfect world of the Garden of Eden. Because of the snake's evil action, God punishes it by making it crawl on its belly forever. This is why in Christianity the snake has a strong association with evil.

Exile can be explained in the following way: God tells Adam and Eve that they must not eat apples from the Tree of Knowledge, but a serpent persuades Eve to take one and share it with Adam. As a punishment God makes them leave the Garden of Eden.

Shepherd in the Christian religion Jesus is often called "the good shepherd" because he looks after his people in the same way that a shepherd looks after his sheep. The good shepherd is a name used for Jesus in the Bible.

The Temple is mentioned many times in the New Testament. Jesus prays there and chases away merchants from the courtyard, turning over their tables and accusing them of desecrating a sacred place with secular ways.

Bread and Wine in Christianity, wine is used in a sacred rite called the Eucharist, which originates in the Gospel account of the Last Supper describing Jesus sharing bread and wine with his disciples and commanding them to "do this in remembrance of me".

The cross is a Christian symbol originating with the crucifixion of the Redeemer. The cross is one of the most ancient human symbols, and has been used by many religions, most notably Christianity. It may also be seen as a division of the world into four elements or cardinal points (air, soil, fire and water) and alternately as the union of the concepts of divinity – the vertical line, and the world, the secular life – the horizontal line. Thus, the aforesaid symbols are considered to be cultural or universal symbols.

Moreover, many cultural or universal symbols are drawn directly from nature. Natural universal symbols are springtime and morning, which signify beginning, growth, hope, optimism, and love. While speaking about cultural or universal symbols we can also come across animals and birds in symbolism. Let us consider some examples:

Unicorn is "a mythical and heraldic animal represented by medieval writers as having legs of a buck, the tail of a lion, the head and body of a horse, and a single horn, white at the base, in the middle of its forehead. The body is white, the head is red, and eyes are blue [10, P. 1115]". One of the

popular believes was that the unicorn by dipping its horn into a liquid could detect whether or not it contained poison. The supporters of the old royal arms of Scotland are the two Unicorns.

Lion is thought as brave and frightening, and as the king of the jungle. It symbolizes noble courage. A lion is also used to represent England. Sometimes the idea from the Bible is mentioned that one day the lion will lie down with the lamb, that is there will be peace and happiness. The animosity which existed between the lion (England) and the unicorn (Scotland) is allegorical of that which once existed between England and Scotland.

With general and universal symbols, a single word is often sufficient. It can be easily interpreted and understood by readers.

Eagle commonly represents the Sun in mythology. It is also emblematic of courage and immortality as well as majesty and inspiration. In Christian art, it is the symbol of St. John the Evangelist. In heraldry, the eagle is a charge of great honor.

Results

At this stage of the research only a few symbols have been revealed and analyzed. The results have shown that authorial symbols can be many-layered and multifunctional. They can be found in works of such great writers as W. B. Yeats, Th. S. Eliot, E. Pound, H. Melville, E. Hemingway F. S. Fitzgerald, J. Steinbeck, W. Faulkner, C. Ozick, I. McEwan; F. I. Tyutchev, B. Pasternak, etc., to name but a few.

Contextual, private, or authorial symbols gain meaning mainly within individual works. A reader needs some background knowledge for interpreting and analyzing them. Private symbols do not have pre-established associations: the meaning that is attached to them emerges from the context of the work in which they occur. A writer gives his own personal symbolic significance to an object, event or color.

For example, William Butler Yeats elaborated his own symbolic system of ideas which became an integral part of his poetry. His poem "Easter 1916" is a commentary on the tragic event, the Easter rebellion, which transcends mere personal opinion to achieve pure tragic symbolism that is relevant to all such events in human history [4, P. 107-108].

Thomas Stearns Eliot in the poem "The Waste Land" (1922) refers to "snow", which is cold and white and covers everything when it falls, as a symbol of retreat from life, a withdrawal into an intellectual and moral hibernation. The poem includes a parade of images, characters and situations symbolizing the spiritual aridity of a godless society.

Ezra Pound, "the highly controversial and influential poet" [3, P. 340], founded the imagist movement. He emphasized the importance of the language of common speech, rather than of new poetic rhythms, and freedom of choice of subject matter and symbols.

If we refer to American literature, we cannot but consider some bright and colorful examples of contextual, private, or authorial symbols.

Moby Dick is the name of the whale in the story by Herman Melville. The book tells us the exciting story of a captain's search for a great *white whale*. Numerous symbolic associations have been made with the figure of the whale itself.

It has variously been interpreted as 1) the personification of evil in the world 2) the mirror image of Captain Ahab's soul and 3) the representation of the hidden and powerful forces of nature. The story symbolizes the prophetic journey of American industry to conquer the natural world with

devastating results. In "*Moby Dick*" Herman Melville warns people that if a man does not respect nature and the environment, the end could be calamitous for man, especially if society continues to strive to dominate and subjugate nature oblivious of the cost [4, P. 78].

E. Hemingway's symbol-building is remarkable. In his writings *rain*, for example, symbolizes disaster, hopelessness and despair. In the novel "A Farewell to Arms" it is a symbol of tragedy and omen of misfortune.

In his short story "Cat in the Rain", Ernest Hemingway uses imagery and subtlety to convey to the reader that the relationship between the American couple is in its crisis and is quite clearly dysfunctional. What seems to be a simple tale of an American couple spending a rainy afternoon inside their hotel room in Italy serves as a great metaphor for their relationship [9]. The symbolic imagery, hidden behind common objects, gives the story all its significance. The cat itself is so essential that Hemingway used the word in the title, thus stating the theme of the story. "The cat" is symbolic of an American wife's emotional state and it also epitomizes a baby the woman wishes she had. "The rain" symbolizes sadness, loneliness, melancholy, despair, coldness and dreariness whereas "the cat" stands for warmth, comfort, cosiness and home, a desperate desire to have a baby. "A cat in the rain" symbolizes isolation, sorrow, its lack of protection, and also the hostility of its surroundings.

Another example of a powerfully described authorial symbol can be extracted from the story "The Ice Palace" by F. Scott Fitzgerald. The ice palace is the main symbol in it. The story's climax occurs when Sally Carrol and Harry visit the ice palace. Constructed of blocks of solid ice, the palace is the highlight of the winter carnival. Eventually, Sally Carrol gets separated and lost in the labyrinthine ice castle. Delirious with cold, she is both frightened and comforted by hallucinations and phantoms [5]. Seeking for adventures she gets locked up in this fairy place. The girl is jailed into the ice cage as a frozen bird and there is no fairy, no happiness, and no cheerfulness in her life anymore.

It is a contrast and confrontation that F. Scott Fitzgerald explores throughout the story as he examines the cultural and social differences between the North and the South. We learn that Sally is engaged to a Northerner, a fact that her friends view with a sense of betrayal and alarm. Her friend Clark worries that Sally's fiancé would "be a lot different from us, every way." Sally, however, worries that her ambitions are incompatible with the sleepy pace of Tarleton, Georgia. She wants to "go places and see people" and to live where "things happen on a big scale [5]." She describes herself as having two sides, and this duality is a major theme of "The Ice Palace".

It is not only the act of writing that is creative, but the act of reading as well and the ability to recognize and interpret the author's use of symbols requires alert and imaginative participation by the reader.

We can see Elisa's chrysanthemums in J. Steinbeck's "The Chrysanthemums" seem at first nothing more than prized flowers. As the story progresses, however, they gain symbolic significance. The travelling tinsmith's apparent interest in them is the wedge he uses to get a small mending job from Elisa. Her description of the care needed in planting and tending them suggests that chrysanthemums signify her kindness, love, orderliness, femininity, and motherliness [8, P. 427-428].

In "A Rose for Emily" William Faulkner traces the career of Miss Emily Grierson through three generations of the American South. Miss Emily has her virtues and her

defects. She is independent, uncompromising, and loyal; she is also proud, provincial, and vain. She despises the townsfolk, and they know it. And yet, these same townsfolk admire Miss Emily and even revere her. To them, she is an idol, an angel a light house-keeper. Such images are repeated throughout the story until the reader comes to see that the townsfolk admire not only Miss Emily's life but also what that life represents, what it symbolizes. Part of the significance and enduring value of Faulkner's tale is that his heroine is the embodiment of a vanished way of life with all its virtues and defects. As such, Miss Emily becomes a symbol of the Old South.

The symbol enables the writer to express one of the deepest truths about human life – its ambivalence. The symbol contains within itself and powerfully expresses the conflicting tendencies so typical of human experience.

If the scenes, materials and objects of setting are highlighted or emphasized, they also may be taken as symbols through which the author expresses his or her ideas.

Such an emphasis is made in Cynthia Ozick's (1928 –) "The Shawl", in which 1) the shawl has the ordinary function of providing cover and warmth for the baby. Because it is so prominent, however, 2) the shawl also suggests or symbolizes the attempt to preserve future generations, and because its loss also produces a human loss, 3) it symbolizes the helplessness of the Nazi extermination camp victims during the World War II [8, P. 289].

The story "Black Dogs" by one of the contemporary British writers Ian McEwan describes how June, the main character, got lost in a quiet part of rural France and was confronted by two ferocious black dogs that had been used by the Nazis to torture prisoners during the war. Miraculously, she manages to escape but the incident has a profound effect on her later life. When he wrote "Black Dogs" in 1992, Ian McEwan predicted that the evil which created Nazi Germany would return to haunt Europe. Can you think of any events in Europe in the years that followed which seem to confirm his predictions?

If we link up with the Russian Literature we are to name such greats as Fyodor Ivanovich Tyutchev, Vladimir Solovyov, Andrey Bely, Alexander Block, Boris Pasternak, etc.

At this stage of the research we have considered a few examples. Fyodor Ivanovich Tyutchev is one of the most memorized and quoted Russian poets. F. I. Tyutchev's world is bipolar. He commonly operates with such categories as "night" and "day", "north" and "south", "dream" and "reality", "cosmos" and "chaos", still world of "winter" and "spring" teeming with life.

Each of these images is imbued with specific meaning. Tyutchev's idea of "night", for example, was defined by critics as "the poetic image covering and simply and economically the vast notions of time and space as they affect man in his struggle through life" [11].

In the chaotic and fathomless world of "night", "winter", or "north" man feels tragically abandoned and lonely. Hence, a modernist sense of frightening anxiety permeates his poetry. Unsurprisingly, it was not until the late 19th and early 20th century that F. I. Tyutchev was rediscovered and hailed as a great poet by the Russian Symbolists.

"The home" symbol reaches beyond its topical context to embody the deepest religious insights in the novel "Doctor Zhivago" by B. Pasternak. "Home" is offered by Pasternak as the primary symbol of man's nature and of his destiny. It is a dear notion for every person. We learn from the philosophy of Zhivago's Uncle Nikolai that man, in a larger sense, is characterized by his ability to create a home in history. It is a view of man-in-history that is based on a "new" interpretation of Christianity. Given hope and dignity by Christ's redeeming presence in time, "man does not die in a ditch like a dog – but at home in history" [7].

The most mystifying of Zhivago's religious speculations are those which attempt to encompass the problems of death and immortality. Again the symbol of "home" seems to provide a key. The imponderable mystery of death is implicitly assimilated in the imagery of home: man is at home in the universe in death as in life, death being a return to the All – the final homecoming.

Sometimes Doctor Zhivago has to ask himself what it is that he finds so wonderful about his wife, and he finds he can only describe her in terms of the vast expanses of the Russian earth, the sounds and colors of his motherland. It is enough to be present in a room with her to know that there is light and air, fields, trees, children's voices. His wife is a symbol of his motherland, of Russia. He loves her with the same passionate love with which he is devoted to Russia [7]. These symbols are constantly reiterated and described under many aspects in B. Pasternak's novel.

At this stage of the research we have come to the conclusion that writers, most often, reconsider some natural universal symbols in the classical context and imply additional meanings as well, such as the rebirth of nature in spring, hibernation in winter, hopelessness and isolation during rain, abandonment and loneliness at night, death as the final homecoming and other related meanings are also woven into them.

Conclusion

Though the term "symbolism" has been used very often universally since the beginning of the twentieth century, its concepts and technical innovations are still exercising an immense influence upon various trends of the 21st century worldwide literature. Thus, English and Russian fiction discourse seems to be an inexhaustible source for researchers of conventional and authorial symbols. It is abundant in contextual symbols, which are open to interpretation and analysis. The results of the research are going to be the basis for writing of the articles and the forthcoming monograph connected with this topic.

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Text linguistics, Discourse analysis. Typological linguistics (UDC 81'4)

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НОВОСТИ ТАСС: ТЕХНОЛОГИИ РАБОТЫ С ТЕКСТОМ В XX ВЕКЕ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается специфика подготовки новостей советскими журналистами для Телеграфного агентства Советского Союза (ТАСС). Целью исследования стало изучение технологий работы с текстом советских журналистов в СССР и за рубежом. Показано, как отражались на работе журналистов идеологические ограничения, какие требования предъявлялись к профессиональному уровню сотрудников, какие технологии использовались в подготовке текстов. Исследование может быть интересно как практикующим журналистам и редакторам, так и тем, кто изучает особенности публицистических и медиатекстов.

Ключевые слова: ТАСС, информагентство, СССР, новостной текст, подготовка новостей, цензура, новостная заметка.

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TASS NEWS: TECHNIQUES FOR WORKING WITH TEXT IN XX CENTURY

Abstract

This article deals with the specifics of news production by TASS and studies techniques applied by Soviet journalists in the USSR and abroad. The research is based on a thorough analysis of archival documents and interviews with journalists who worked for TASS in the 70s and 80s. The results reveal ideological restrictions, professional requirements and news production techniques employed in the Soviet journalists' practice. The findings may be of interest for practicing journalists, editors and media researchers.

Keywords: TASS, news agency, USSR, publicistic text, news production, censorship, news.

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Introduction

News agencies have been a primary source of information for many media since the time they appeared. The approaches to the submission of publications, the speed and distribution channels, the style and structure of the news, its semantic and compositional features – all these aspects were manifested in different ways and modified by news agencies as time was passing while political and economic situation in the country was changing [8. P.26]. Continuous search for new solutions in the technological and journalistic work of the news agency is connected with the changing demands of the audience and, accordingly, with the necessity for the mass media to seek new methods in their struggle for the readership, viewership and listenership [7, p.368]. Do not forget that the emergence of news (telegraph) agencies in the XIX century was associated with the need for higher speed and freedom in journalism, which manifested itself in the structure and style of the author's news texts, in particular.

Research methods and principles

In order to understand the main principles of work with a text in the context of unofficially existing censorship and the canons of working with news texts that were formed in the Soviet media and differed from those of the Western presentation of the material, we analyzed archival documents and conducted several interviews with the journalists who had been working for the agency from 1970s to 1980s.

The analysis of the documents gave us an idea of the official requirements for the texts and a list of topics journalists were supposed to cover. Due to the study of orders and other normative documents, we got an idea about the editorial process in the agency. Unstructured interviews with the correspondents who worked for TASS in the second half of the 20th century helped us to make a more complete picture, reflecting real journalistic practice and approaches to work with news texts.

Discussion

News texts targeted at a wide range of readers were supposed to have a certain ideological effect. This was the goal of the party, and journalists acted as its assistants. Here is what V.I.Sapunov says on interaction or rather, interdependence of journalists and authorities both abroad and in the USSR. In his book "Foreign news agencies" (2006) [7] he considers, among other things, the political and economic aspect of the news agencies' emergence and work. According to the author, the whole history of journalism indicates that the media claimed objectivity but did not reach it, in fact.

A. Blum considers censorship in the second half of the twentieth century in detail and its influence on the quality of texts in his monograph "How It Was Done in Leningrad. Censorship during the Years of Thaw, Stagnation and Perestroika of 1953-1991" (2005) [1]. The author intentionally narrows the geography to a single city, referring in many respects to the fact that the level of the documents' preservation in the Leningrad General Directorate for the Protection of State Secrets in the Press under the Council of Ministers of the USSR allows us to present the most complete and qualitative research. The book contains not only the documents of Glavlit, but also of various party bodies, mainly the ideological departments of the Leningrad Regional Committee of the CPSU. The author also draws attention to the fact that this system had not only prohibitive means, but also certain methods of "negative selection," such as the artificial and purposeful narrowing of the cultural space.

The technology of working with the information from TASS and the requirements for texts are described in detail in the monograph by N.G.Palgunov, who once headed the agency. The author focuses both on the technical side of the editorial process and on the position of TASS at the international arena and relations with other news agencies, while describing the situation in the Soviet media space (1955) [5].

Main results

In the second half of the 20th century, TASS held a unique position among the five world news agencies. The researchers call the period of 60-80s its "golden age." Due to modern technical facilities and qualified employees who were working for the agency during this period, TASS produced up to 2.5 million words a day. Most of the information came from messages that the agency's employees supplied to recipients both within the country and abroad, the smaller part was comprised of the publications from foreign correspondents and other agencies [7, p.282].

TASS was the primary source of information for most of the Soviet newspapers, radio and television in the Soviet Union. Especially in relation to the events abroad or official orders. High responsibility imposed certain duties on employees, dictated special approaches to the way information was presented and to the preparation of publications for Soviet and foreign readers. The analysis of sources, including biographical ones, showed that the list of requirements for TASS information included: Absolute accuracy and absolute grammatical correctness, maximum brevity of the form, and efficiency. At the same time, it was much easier to be quick within the Soviet Union than at the international arena. In addition to the need to coordinate news, journalists of TASS were obliged to "agitate with facts."

The correspondents had not only to select the most important facts, but also had to present information with the understanding of the policy of the USSR carrying out the tasks set by the party "by all the force and senses of their minds" [5, P.32].

At that, the note should have been interesting and understandable for Soviet and foreign readers without being overloaded with terms and clichés. As for internal information, emphasis was made on positive experience; criticism was a rare phenomenon in articles about the life of the country [9]. When it came to natural disasters and catastrophes, the agency used the so-called "figure of silence." The reporters in the republics and regions were often forbidden to convey "inconvenient" information to local authorities, although in the 1980s, the directors of TASS mentioned that they were fighting against this [3, P.13].

Journalists themselves faced very high demands in terms of education (priority was often given to the graduates of the language faculties of MGIMO university), style, responsibility and personal qualities. The authors were required to know the language of the country where they worked perfectly well; they had to understand its political processes, based on the knowledge of its history and economics. Journalists had to receive, handle and convey important political and social information no later than local correspondents. They had to read and know the local press without being limited to the content of the publication. A good foreign correspondent should know "who issued the newspaper, its party affiliation, who financed the paper, how it operated and if it had "political and financial autonomy." They should have also known which items formed its income and expenses. The journalist also had to know who was writing for this newspaper, the past of those people, their present and probable future" [5, P.43].

At the same time, they should avoid mentioning military facilities, a number of economic indicators and everything

that the General Directorate for the Protection of State Secrets in the Press under the Council of Ministers of the USSR (Glavlit) could consider to be unsuitable for the publication. In the early 60's, Glavlit censors dealt with military and economic issues only, but by the end of the decade, the administration worked in conjunction with the ideological bodies of the Central Committee of the CPSU and influenced a rather wide range of topics [1, P.17].

Results of interview analysis

In order to have a more complete idea of the journalistic activities of the agency's employees, we interviewed the TASS journalists who were working for the agency during the period of 70s and 80s. The journalists, who were working abroad in those years, say that demands to the ideological part of the news and censorship restrictions in practice did not limit them in the selection of topics. If the information did not reach the media, it was published in one of the TASS bulletins for nomenclature or internal use in the agency's offices.

Those journalists who worked abroad had the opportunity to learn Western methods of presenting material, gaining access to foreign national and international press. Such a chance was also given to the TASS employees who worked in the Soviet branches in the 1960s. The TASS management provided journalists with the manual called "How to write for the Associated Press" [2, P.125], the authors of which were recommended not to overload the reader with the standard structure "What? Where? When?" but to turn to the reasonable selection of details and the use of casual conversational techniques [4, P.15].

Obviously, along with the other aspects, this played a positive role in the approach to the format and style of information in TASS. In the 1950s the issues of editorial volatility, monotony of the news style, their illegibility and lack of interesting details were often discussed at short meetings but after the 1960s, according to the journalists who were working for the agency at that time, they spoke mainly about journalistic successes and findings regarding the presentation of one fact or another, special techniques, experiments with style etc. [10].

Despite the canons and strict rules that even those who came to the news agency from the newspapers had to master, the preparation of publications was a rather creative process, which required responsibility and grammatical correctness, but allowed finding their own style and methods of working with news.

Conclusion

It should be noted that TASS was the only news agency of this level at the international arena, which, in fact, represented the countries of the entire socialist camp, and its ideology. Its achievements and recognition of its status as a reliable source of information, in spite of the criticism from the Western politicians who accused TASS of propaganda, political tendentiousness and, consequently, non-observance of the principles of freedom and independence of the press, were of high importance. However, the information presented by TASS was read, bought and published on the pages of the Western press. The agency was reckoned with, and in many respects this was the accomplishment of the journalists and their professionalism, including their irreproachable and accurate work with information texts.

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Воронежский государственный педагогический университет*Исследование выполнено при поддержке гранта Президента РФ для молодых российских ученых – кандидатов наук, проект № МК-4633.2016.6 «Диагностирование склонности личности к суицидальному поведению на основе анализа ее речевой продукции».***ЯЗЫКОВЫЕ ОСОБЕННОСТИ РУССКОЯЗЫЧНЫХ ТЕКСТОВ ЛИЦ, СОВЕРШИВШИХ СУИЦИД, И ЛИЦ С ВЫСОКИМ РИСКОМ АУТОАГРЕССИВНОГО ПОВЕДЕНИЯ****Аннотация**

Одним из перспективных направлений современных исследований является анализ речи с целью выявления психического состояния и оценки психического здоровья говорящего/пишущего. В последние годы наблюдается повышенный интерес к решению задач подобного рода с привлечением методов и средств компьютерной лингвистики и интеллектуального анализа данных (data mining). Отдельной научной проблемой, далекой от своего решения и, несомненно, требующей консолидации усилий психологов, лингвистов и специалистов по интеллектуальному анализу данных, является проблема диагностирования склонности личности к аутоагрессивному поведению и (суициду как к крайней его форме) на основе лингвистического анализа речи. Эта проблема имеет не только теоретическую, но и очевидную практическую значимость и в последние годы активно изучается лингвистами и психологами. С применением методов natural language processing ученые анализируют тексты (преимущественно англоязычные) суицидентов и строят модели, позволяющие классифицировать текст как принадлежащий или не принадлежащий суициденту, а также выявляют особенности таких текстов. При этом если ранее анализировались преимущественно художественные тексты суицидентов, то в новейших работах ученые исследуют интернет-тексты (блоги, твиты, посты в соцсетях) лиц, совершивших суицид либо выражающих намерение его совершить. Русский язык долгое время оставался на периферии подобных исследований. В статье представлены результаты исследований, направленных на выявление языковых особенностей русскоязычных текстов лиц, совершивших законченный суицид, а также лиц, склонных к аутоагрессивному поведению. В указанных исследованиях применялись методы и приемы корпусной лингвистики, компьютерной лингвистики, статистического анализа. Обозначены перспективы дальнейших исследований.

Ключевые слова: суицидальное поведение, корпус текстов, компьютерная лингвистика, диагностирование личности по тексту, лингвистические методы оценки психического здоровья.

Litvinova T.A.¹, Zagorovskaya O.V.²¹PhD in Philology, ²Professor, PhD in Philology, Voronezh State Pedagogical University*This research is supported by the grant of the Russian President awarded to young Russian scientists (Candidates of Sciences), project № МК-4633.2016.6 "Predicting Suicidal Tendencies of Individuals Based on Their Speech Production".***LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF THE RUSSIAN TEXTS OF PERSONS WHO COMMITTED SUICIDE AND PERSONS WITH A HIGH RISK OF AUTOAGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR****Abstract**

One of the most promising areas of modern research is speech analysis for the purpose of identifying the mental state and assessing the mental health of the speaker / writer. In recent years, there has been an increased interest in solving problems of this kind with the use of methods and tools for computer linguistics and data mining. A separate scientific problem far from its solution and, undoubtedly, requiring consolidation of the efforts of psychologists, linguists and experts in the intellectual analysis of data, is the problem of diagnosing a propensity for autoaggressive behavior (and suicide as an extreme form of it) based on linguistic analysis of writing. This problem has not only theoretical, but also obvious practical significance. Using the methods of natural language processing, scientists analyze the texts (mostly English) of suiciders and build models that classify the text as belonging or not belonging to the suicider, and reveal the characteristics of such texts. At the same time, if earlier mainly the fiction texts of suiciders were analyzed, then in the newest works scientists study Internet texts (blogs, tweets, Facebook posts etc.) of persons who committed suicide or express their intention to commit it. The Russian language has long remained on the periphery of such studies. The article presents the results of studies aimed at identifying the linguistic features of Russian-language texts of persons who committed suicide, as well as persons prone to autoaggressive behavior. The studies used methods and techniques of corpus linguistics, computer linguistics, statistical analysis. Prospects for further research are indicated.

Keywords: suicidal behavior, corpus of texts, computer linguistics, personality recognition from text, linguistic methods of mental health assessment.

Почта авторов / Author Email: centr_rus_yaz@mail.ru**Introduction**

The problem of personality profiling of authors of written texts has been dealt with for over several decades, but recently there has been a growing interest to it due to a rapid growth of Internet communication and an increasing need for the methods allowing one based on the quantitative analysis of anonymous and pseudoanonymous online texts to trace the personality (gender, age, education level, native language, psychological traits, etc.) of their authors. Psychologists and linguists have been leading the

way in text-based personality profiling (see [2] for more detail).

As part of studies of text-based personality profiling, attempts have been made to diagnose certain mental diseases (depression, schizophrenia, bipolar disorder, etc.) in authors of written texts [6; 8; 9]. Another problem waiting to be addressed as part of the joint effort by psychologists, linguists and data mining experts is that of detecting suicidal tendencies in individuals based on their speech. That certainly is of both theoretical and practical significance.

Method

Over 800000 people are reported to die of suicide annually [20] with only 30 % having previously stated their suicidal intentions [20]. Therefore there is a pressing need to develop methods to identify individuals displaying suicidal tendencies and thus to prevent them from committing suicides. Linguistic analysis appears to be one of the ways to tackle that [8]. Lately there has been a lot of focus on analyzing Internet texts related to suicide (blogs, tweets, etc.) [7, 17, 18]. However, these are mostly texts regarding suicide that are analyzed rather than Internet texts by individuals who committed suicide (those few that are analyzed are written by one person, i.e. case study, see [14] for example). It should also be noted that most studies dealing with linguistic analysis of suicidal individuals have been performed on English-language texts. However, as it is rightly pointed out in [8], in order to address the problem, it is crucial to make use of other languages to be able to identify culturally (and linguistically) universal suicide predictors. It is also essential that related studies are interdisciplinary.

Another way to go about addressing the issue is to identify individuals with high risks of autoaggressive behavior that turns into suicidal one in its extreme form.

Russian texts have long not been analyzed as part of the problem except fiction texts [10]; [12]. Russian Internet texts by suicidal individuals were first analyzed in [16]. Linguistic features of Russian texts by individuals with high risks of autoaggressive behavior were investigated in [3]. This paper summarizes the previous findings and outlines directions for future research.

Results and Discussion

1. Linguistic features of Russian fiction texts by individuals who committed suicide

Texts by Russian poets (translated into English) as well as those by poets of other nationalities were researched by S. Stirman, J. Pennebaker [22] to compare them with those by poets who did not end up committing suicide regardless of the author's nationality and native language. Suicidal poets were generally found to use more pronouns "I" and fewer words describing social interaction.

Texts by Russian suicidal poets were investigated as part of a special study [10]. Linguistic parameters (labeling methods are not mentioned in the article) were those used by S. W. Stirman, J. W. Pennebaker [22]. Davidson found, however, that the proportion of pronouns "I" and corresponding object pronouns were steadily on the rise in texts by suicidal poets and is not stably high, while in texts by the control group it goes down. Additionally, the number of negations (no, not) was analyzed and their proportion was found to increase in texts by suicidal individuals and to decrease over time in those by the control group.

The authors of [12] designed the classifiers to distinguish the fiction texts by Russian suicidal poets and those of the control group. The classifier based on a full set of parameters (word n-grams, relative frequencies of parts of speech, punctuation marks, word length, etc.) was shown to be most effective (F-measure = 0.825). Unfortunately, no analysis of the differences of texts by suicidal individuals and those of the control group was carried out.

2. Linguistic features of Russian online texts by individuals who committed suicide

In [16] the results of a pilot study of Internet texts – online diaries (on the LiveJournal platform) — by individuals who committed suicide (SUI corpus) are described. 45 such diaries were found by means of manual search and further checking. There is a total of 196037 words in the SUI corpus.

Texts used for comparison (i.e. those by the control group) were samples of writing of students of Russian universities that make up RusPersonality corpus [15] with the total of 198045 words (NON-SUI corpus).

All the texts were labeled using the LIWC software [19] with the users' dictionaries compiled by the authors with the total of 104 parameters. Statistically significant differences were found between the parameters of texts by suicidal individuals and those of the control group. A series of operations was performed in order to select the properties and as a result, the classifier was designed with the accuracy of 71,5 %. The approach set forth by the authors was shown to be highly accurate for text classification given that linguistic parameters that are maximum content-independent (proportion of commas, function words, etc.), which is indicative of how effective methods of natural language processing and data mining can be in identifying suicidal tendencies of individuals based on their texts.

The analysis suggests that in Russian texts by suicidal individuals there are more function words, verbs, conjunctions, cognitive words, commas, fewer prepositions, more comparison words and pronouns. These texts appear to be more abstract and contain fewer spatial references.

Texts by suicidal individuals were also found to contain more words for negative emotions and fewer of those describing social relations and perception (particularly visual), which is indicative of these people being more preoccupied with their own thoughts and isolated from the outside world (see [16] for more detail).

Note that existing studies addressing linguistic analysis of suiciders commonly rely on the sociological concept of suicide [11] according to which a suicidal individual is not capable of social integration and is excluded from society. According to the psychological concept of suicide a suicidal individual provokes the sense of hopelessness, despair and helplessness and a range of associated negative emotions [21]. Therefore one can expect there to be more words to describe the author and negative emotions in these texts.

Through the course of existing studies varying results (sometimes contradictory ones) have been obtained regarding the linguistic features of texts by suiciders (see [16] for more detail), but the above theories were mostly shown to be correct. The analysis that we have conducted for Russian texts showed these theories to generally hold as well.

In [13] there is a hypothesis that suicidal poets see the world as unstable, undetermined, hostile, which is expressed with ontological and epistemological categories that are reflective of one's inner world. Suicidal poets were found to use fewer words to describe motion, space, bodily state (world's general characteristics); more words for negation and exclusion (relationship with the world); more words expressing uncertainty but fewer words for vision and perception overall. The authors [18] assume that it is the perception of the outside world as being hostile and incomprehensible that causes these individuals to shut themselves down from it and as a result, to become increasingly self-centered and isolated. These results are largely in agreement with those obtained for Russian blogs [16].

3. Linguistic features of texts by individuals with autoaggressive tendencies

The authors [3] have conducted a study to find out how possible it would be to identify personality traits of authors of written texts that might be personal determinants of autoaggressive behavior (suicidal behavior is one of its forms) using data on the neurobiological nature of individual

characteristics on one hand and cerebral mechanisms of discourse production on the other hand.

The scientific literature suggests that in individuals with suicidal tendencies the right-hemispheric modus of solution predominates for both verbal and visual-spatial problems, which is associated with the left prefrontal dysfunction (see [1]; [3] for more detail). At the same time based on studies of temporary inactivation of cerebral hemispheres it is known what parts of the brain are responsible for producing certain discourse units (e.g., abstract nouns, function words, complex syntactic structures) as well as what "language functions" can be performed by the right and left cerebral hemispheres (see review in [4]; [5]). The authors [3] assumed that in texts by individuals with high risks of autoaggressive behavior there are more language structures that the right hemisphere is responsible for than in those by people with no autoaggressive tendencies and that there are increasingly fewer structures that the left hemisphere is responsible for, particularly the left part of the prefrontal cortex.

The study material was a text corpus "RusPersonality" [15]. As was shown in [3], overall for texts by individuals with high risks of autoaggressive behavior lower lexical diversity, fewer prepositions, more pronouns overall particularly personal ones with a higher index of logical cohesion (created due to more conjunctions and deictic units) and a larger average word length are typical. The data on a lower index of lexical diversity are in agreement with those on a decreasing vocabulary level for hyperactivity of the right hemisphere, a lower proposition of prepositions is due to insufficient activation of the zones of the left hemisphere that

is known to be responsible for most abstract vocabulary; a higher pronominalisation index is commonly observed when paradigmatic language connections that rely on the back hemisphere [5] get weakened. It was also shown that it is insufficient activation of the back hemisphere that is associated with aggressive and suicidal behavior [1].

Conclusion

According to the World Health Organization, suicide is one of the most common causes of death in young individuals (15-19 years old). Unfortunately, in Russia this problem is also relevant. The problem of suicide in teenagers has drawn a significant amount of attention from the state and public. In several countries systems of monitoring social networks and redirecting users to a psychological counseling website as well as mobile applications are developed for timely detection of individuals with high risks of suicidal behavior and counseling [9]. Methods of natural language processing are essential in designing such systems. It was not until recently that Russian texts started being investigated as part of this problem.

As the analysis suggests, texts by individuals who committed suicide and those with suicidal and, more broadly, autoaggressive tendencies have typical linguistic features. Certainly, the obtained data require further clarification first of all due to expanding language materials to be studied. One of the directions for future research is to analyze the dynamics of idiolect of individuals who committed suicide as well as indices of linguistic complexity of corresponding texts.

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ЛИНГВОПРАГМАТИЧЕСКИЕ АСПЕКТЫ ИЗУЧЕНИЯ ЖАНРОВ РУССКОЙ УСТНОЙ НАУЧНОЙ РЕЧИ

Аннотация

В статье рассмотрены лингвопрагматические аспекты изучения жанров русской устной научной речи, включая лингвокогнитивные механизмы формирования устного высказывания. Исследование базируется на анализе оригинальных записей этого типа речи. Показано, что исследовать устную научную речь необходимо в совокупности ее экстралингвистических признаков, ситуативно-тематической структуры и жанровых форм реализации речи. Применяемые в статье принципы и методы исследования могут быть использованы для лингвопрагматических описаний других сфер устного общения современного российского социума.

Ключевые слова: устная публичная (научная) речь, жанры и формы речи, устный научный текст.

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LINGUO-PRAGMATIC ASPECTS OF STUDY OF RUSSIAN PUBLIC ACADEMIC SPEECH GENRES

Abstract

The article considers linguo-pragmatic aspects of the study of Russian public academic speech, including linguocognitive mechanisms of the formation of oral utterance. The research is based on the analysis of original records of this type of speech. It is shown that public academic speech should be studied in the complex of its extralinguistic features, situational-thematic structure and genre forms realization. The principles and methods of research can be used for linguo-pragmatic descriptions of other spheres of oral communication of contemporary Russian society.

Keywords: oral public (scientific) speech, genres and forms of speech, oral scientific text.

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Introduction

In modern Russian literary language there is a special functional kind of speech, which is used in the professional and scientific sphere of communication. It is called by researchers in different ways: scientific style, language of science, language for special purposes, professional (special) language, academic discourse, public academic speech, etc.

The study of the genres of public academic speech was previously conducted solely on the basis of book-written sources, and the description of the features of the oral form of the academic discourse was carried out in isolation from the structure of the lingual personality and the cognitive-semantic aspect of the individual's speech activity. Studies of the linguistic and structural features of the genre forms of public academic speech and professional communication in its connection with the phenomena of extralinguistic reality and sociolinguistic factors have practically not been carried out.

The research hypothesis is that the description of the genre-forming features of public academic speech can serve as a basis for constructing models of speech genres and revealing the cognitive-semantic mechanisms of their text generation. Based on the preliminary study of the material, we assume that the speech models of the genre are systemic and ordered. For this reason we can identify their basic elements and structural modifications, depending on the influence of sociolinguistic and extralinguistic factors.

To this day in Russian and foreign studies of similar textual material on the basis of academic discourse, no parallels have been drawn between linguistic and non-linguistic factors. Obviously, therefore, it was difficult to establish the relationship between the intentional and structural-semantic plan for generating an utterance in the context of a certain genre of academic speech. The novelty of the problem also manifests itself in the anthropocentric and

interdisciplinary approach that we propose simultaneously to the study of oral academic texts within the framework of socio- and pragma- linguistics.

Methods and principles of the study

The study is planned to be performed on the basis of audio and video records of Russian public academic speeches, not completely studied from the point of view of the structural and semantic features and genre typology.

The methodology of this study is determined by its main purpose — the study of the genre repertoire of public academic speeches based on the materials of their text transcripts. We take into account the specific functioning and interrelation of their structural-semantic, lexical and prosodic properties in the discourse of the lingual personality. The research is based on the results of a linguistic description of the phonetic features of oral academic speech [2], including its intonational division and the accentually prosodic aspect of the utterance [5], [6].

Such anthropocentric interdisciplinary approach assumes the use of the principle of linguistic expansionism, that is, the attraction in purely linguistic research of information from such fields of knowledge as socio- and pragma- linguistics, corpus linguistics, cognitive linguistics and functional stylistics. The study of the structural-semantic and composition-stylistic features of oral academic texts explains the use of the functional method of investigation. The need to compare the variants of oral texts of different genres with written analogs in the discourse of the lingual personality requires extensive use of the comparative method and principles of typological analysis. It is obvious that the appeal in the study to cultural-linguistic and social factors will result in an explanatory description.

Discussion

The written form of the language of science is sufficiently well studied and described. Thus, the linguistic

features of the scientific style received detailed coverage in special functional-stylistic studies, for example, in the works of M.N. Kozhina, A.N. Vasilieva, O.A. Krylova, O.D. Mitrofanova, E.I. Motina, L.P. Klobukova, N.M. Razinkina, and others.

At the present stage of the study of academic discourse, the analysis of genre forms [17] and various sorts of discursive markers contributing to the realization of connectivity and linearity of discourse [12] is in the focus of attention of researchers. The interest in studying the ways of representing and exchanging scientific knowledge specific to a particular culture (for example, Russian and Western European), methods of argumentation and logical organization of the text is becoming more apparent [13], [14], [15], [16].

The oral form of academic speech is studied to a lesser degree than written scientific communication. In Russian linguistics, the study of oral literary speech is connected with the works of prof. O.A. Lapteva, who led the creation of collective monograph «Modern Russian oral academic speech» [9, 10]. Later the manual «Training of oral academic speech: theory and practice» was published [4]. Oral public academic speech here is considered as a special functional variety of the Russian literary language, which is an oral intellectualized communication with a wide audience on the topic of the specialty [3, P.16].

The variety of this type of oral literary speech is caused by differences in the themes and genres of messages, individual speaking skills, the tasks of communication, etc. Thus, to study oral academic and professional speech is necessary in interaction of extralinguistic features and genre forms of the realization of speech. The theory of speech genres is a practical model of communication that takes into account such important parameters of communication as the situation, sphere, communication style, intentional factor, form of speech, ways of language text processing, strategies and tactics of communication.

It should be noted that in publications of Russian and foreign scientists the emphasis is on the genre-forming characteristics and typology of the oral publicly addressed monologue [7], [8]. Also, the concept of the genre norm of speech is defined in a certain functional variety of language, including the scientific sphere of communication [1]. However, there are also publications in which attempts are made to identify the structural and compositional genre-forming features of the text and their semantic interpretation on the material of public academic speech of a certain genre — lecture, report, message, discussion [4]. A special depth of analysis is the work of the Czech linguist V. Barnet, in which the concept of the genre norm is defined and the classification of the genres of Russian public academic speech is given [1].

Results

We study the genres of oral academic speech, taking into account a single communicative-semantic continuum of the discourse of the lingual personality. At the same time, comparisons are made of verbal academic texts recorded in the transcripts and variants of their existing written analogues. In order to determine what distinguishes the oral text from the "original" written, it is enough to compare the two versions of the linguistic design of some scientific information presented by the lecturer in the oral form and by the same author — but in writing.

The written version of the text is characterized by strict logical construction, conciseness and clarity of information, an impersonal form of presentation, absence of redundant repetitions and explanations, as well as the lack of direct appeals to the addressee.

The oral version of the lecture contains a large number of oral-colloquial elements: direct appeals to listeners, dialogization of speech in the form of question-answer phrases in the formulation of the problem, pronominal-verb forms indicating the speaker, segments of the text containing duplicate information (repetition, clarifications and explanations).

Language features of the structural organization of public academic text are due to the factor of addressing the oral utterance to a specific audience in a certain time period of speech that does not take place when written information is presented. Oral academic text (lecture, report, message, presentation) is always focused on the optimal delivery of information to a specific addressee and establishing contact with it in the process of speech interaction (hence the dialogic character of the text is characteristic even for public academic monologue). This communicative orientation of the text in the public academic discourse is expressed by a set of specific linguistic (lexico-syntactic) markers, which in speech serve as semantic reference points and facilitate the perception of the text by ear.

These linguistic markers, include:

- constructions performing the function of speech contact with the addressee (addressing markers), for example: *Но если б вы спросили сегодня любого ученого, что есть вид...; Я на этот вопрос постараюсь ответить двояко; Мы уже с вами отлично знаем... Вот если мы на этот вопрос ответим ясно и четко, нам сразу станет понятно...;*
- constructions that emphasize the attention of the addressee on one or another aspect of the message (markers of importance), for example: *Прежде всего я хотел бы обратить ваше внимание на одно обстоятельство;*
- constructions that send the addressee to some components of the compositional-logical text structure (orientation markers), for example: *Что же такое вид? Это проблема очень крупная...; Почему же идет речь только о виде? Почему только вид создает проблему, а другие таксоны проблемы не создают?*

The above mentioned linguistic markers are inherent mainly in the oral academic text and are not characteristic of written presentation. They participate in the prosodic division of the sounding message and the expression of the semantic links between its components. They ensure the structural integrity of the oral public academic text and its special rhetorical orientation (persuasion of the addressee and impact on him).

Conclusion

The difference in language means in the formation of written and oral text is explained by the inclusion of the factor of physical time in the course of oral speech. This factor determines the linear nature of the oral text and the depth of the operative memory at its production / reception. The progressive nature of the development of discourse contributes to the addition of elements of utterance, previously absent in the speaker's intentions.

Thus, for the linguo-pragmatic analysis of oral academic discourse, it is important to take into account 1) the linguistic design of the speaker's intentions in constructing the utterance and 2) the phonetic and intonation aspect of the division of the flow of speech. Particularly important is the prospect of creating a body of texts of the natural Russian academic speech for further study and linguistic analysis. The proposed principles and methods of research can be used in pragmatic linguistic studies of other spheres of speech communication of contemporary Russian society.

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ПАМЯТЬ ЖАНРА В РЕИНТЕРПРЕТАЦИИ СЮЖЕТА О СИНЕЙ БОРОДЕ АНЖЕЛЫ КАРТЕР

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается действие механизма памяти жанра, его способности сохранять элементы архаики благодаря постоянному воспроизведению и обновлению. Материалом для исследования послужил предназначенный для взрослой аудитории современный рассказ, который апеллирует к сказочному сюжету о Синей Бороде. Основываясь на выводах ученых об инициационном каркасе, лежащем в основе волшебных сказок, и его символической маскировке, реинтерпретация архаичного сюжета трактуется как экспликация изначально заложенных мотивов, связанных с сексуальными аспектами взросления, скрытых от детей, иной целевой аудитории.

Ключевые слова: память жанра, реинтерпретация, Синяя Борода, инициация.

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GENRE MEMORY IN ANGELA CARTER'S RE-INTERPRETATION OF THE BLUEBEARD PLOT

Abstract

The paper aims at disclosing the mechanism of genre memory, its ability to retain some persistent archaic elements due to their ongoing updating and renewal. The modern short story discussed appeals to the Bluebeard plot and is intended for grown ups. With scholars' inference about initiation rite as the underpinning of fairy tales and their symbolism hidden from children's eyes who are the common target audience now, the re-interpretation for adult readers is viewed as making symbolic truth less implicit, lifting of sexual taboos, and explication of inherent latent motifs related to initiation into adulthood.

Keywords: genre memory, re-interpretation, Bluebeard, initiation.

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Introduction

The concept of genre memory was introduced by Mikhail Bakhtin who stated that a literary genre, by its nature, reflects the most persistent tendencies in the development of literature. It always retains the undying archaic elements; yet, these elements are retained only because of constant renewal or modernizing. A literary genre lives in the present; however, it never forgets about its past, its origins [1]. These two tendencies in the dynamics of genre provide the basis of its memory mechanism. The concept was never fully developed by the scholar; he would insist yet on the objective nature of genre memory which does not depend on the subjective will of a writer.

When investigating the problem of certain motifs in "The Poetics of Plots" (1986), A.N. Veselovsky expresses the idea of the objectivity of literary forms' memory, folktales in particular saying that their formulae were forerun by worldly relations [2]. In his powerful book «The Morphology of Folktales» (1928), V.Ja. Propp greatly influenced by his predecessor's work found out that folktales with various plots could be reduced to one narrative scheme and pointed at their potential origins in ancient myth and ritual [3]. In «The Historical Roots of the Wondertale» (1946), he writes about the meaning of folktale structure that he isolated: «If you draw a mental picture of what really happened to an initiate and tell, in order, a story about it, you get exactly that very plot on which a folktale is built» [4, P. 353]. The high degree of regularity detected in folktales where every function results from the previous one made him think about some logical pattern that predetermined it, acting on some level behind the text. The folktale formal structure, with linear development through some conflicting situations towards positive solving of predicaments, could serve as a model of solving existential problems of adult life [5].

The term "initiation" derived from anthropology denotes one of the rites of passage, ritual events which mark a person's transition from one status to another. An initiate undergoes three stages: pre-liminary stage, liminality, and

post-liminality. In primitive societies, initiation rites are observed at coming-of-age; they involve isolation, physical exertion, and initiates' communication with the supernatural by means of revelatory trances that alter their sensibilities and mark their admission to secret tribal beliefs. Often rites seem incomprehensible in advanced Western society where ancient traditions are reinterpreted to reflect modern life changes. The emphasis is laid on the initiates' identification of their social or sex roles, as well as self-knowledge. Scholars mark the economy of fairy tales which often results in the use of symbols. "Fairy tales depict in... symbolic form the essential steps in growing up and achieving an independent existence" [7, P. 73]. Yet, when traditional rituals cease to be used, it becomes possible to come out with what once used to be a great secret [6].

Method

The system of methods employed in the paper combines structuralist one as well as stylistic analysis on different language levels.

Discussion

Carter's "The Bloody Chamber", a rewriting of Charles Perrault's fairy tale "La Barbe-Bleue", is permeated with the images of the liminal. Initiation, with strong sexual overtones, is the leitmotif of her revision of the Bluebeard plot. The writer updates setting and rewrites the story from the point of view of the fourth wife of Marquis, the Bluebeard figure. It starts with a retrospective glance of the protagonist at the time when she, a naïve seventeen who believed in romance, was leaving home to marry Marquis, heading for his castle by train:

I lay awake... in a tender, delicious ecstasy of excitement, my burning cheek pressed against the impeccable linen of the pillow and the pounding of my heart mimicking that of the great pistons ceaselessly thrusting the train that bore me... away from Paris, away from girlhood, away from the white, enclosed quietude of my mother's apartment, into the unguessable country of marriage. ...My satin nightdress... teasingly caressed

me. His kiss... had hinted to me... of the wedding night, which would be voluptuously deferred until we lay in his great ancestral bed" [3, P. 7-8].

The excited state of the heroine on the wedding night eve is accentuated by the pulsating rhythm which reproduces the pushing pistons – "the syncopated roar of the train", as she, a musician, qualifies it. Rhythmization is achieved by identical structures "away from" at equal intervals. Parallelism is enhanced by gradation which leads to growing tension till it reaches its climax at the end of the sentence, its rhyme — "the unguessable country of marriage".

Syntactic repetitions are redundant since the theme can be easily defined by the key words reflecting the girl's erotic fantasies: "delicious ecstasy of excitement; my burning cheek, the impeccable linen; away from girlhood; his kiss; the wedding night voluptuously deferred; his great ancestral bed; the... country of marriage". Yet, their climactic arrangement foregrounds the feelings of one who anticipates her near initiation into adulthood.

The girl, young as she was, identifies Marquis as Other at once: "the dark, leonine shape of his head; his dark mane; he would... softly creep up behind me; his strange, heavy, almost waxen face; that face... with heavy eyelids over eyes that always disturbed me by their absolute absence of light, seemed to me like a mask, as if his real face... lay beneath this mask; his lips... so strangely red and naked between the black fringes of his beard". Yet she prefers to close her eyes on these scary features. Moreover, her description of what she felt when she became the *fiancee* of the affluent Marquis and thus an object for scrutiny, goes beyond a teenager's understanding of things. The protagonist declares lack of experience in her, a homegrown girl; at the same time she shows grown-up awareness of her own taste for corruption:

His wedding gift, clasped round my throat. A choker of rubies, ...like an extraordinary precious slit throat. ...That night at the opera comes back to me even now. ...the white dress; the frail child within it; and the flashing crimson jewels round her throat, bright as arterial blood.

I saw him watching me... with the assessing eye of a connoisseur inspecting horseflesh, or even of a housewife in the market, inspecting cuts of slab. I'd never seen... that regard of his before, the sheer carnal avarice of it. When I saw him look at me with lust, I dropped my eyes but, in glancing away from him, I caught sight of myself in the mirror. I saw how much that cruel necklace became me. And, for the first time in my innocent and confined life, I sensed myself a potentiality for corruption that took my breath away [3, P. 11].

A closer glance at the description of "that night [which] comes back to [her] *even now*" reveals two different perspectives. On the one hand, verbs of sense perception (to sense, to see, to catch sight) suggest the position of the protagonist as a witness or participant. On the other hand, sustained metaphors – "a *choker* of rubies... like an extraordinary precious *slit throat*"; "the flashing *crimson* jewels *round her throat, bright as arterial blood*"; [the Marquis] "with the assessing eye... of a *housewife in the market*, inspecting *cuts of slab*, ...[with] the sheer *carnal avarice*"; "that *cruel* necklace" – which require effort to realize the similarity of two objects, suggest passage of time. These markers of cognitive process, in their phraseology, indicate the perspective of a person who has already gained liminal experience and worldly knowledge. She tells a story about her almost fatal experience *post factum*: with wisdom of hindsight, she understands the real state of things then.

Keen vision results from her profound analysis of those events and is introduced into their description some time after her married life with Marquis came to an end. Everything in the protagonist's memories – Marquis who bought her as a piece of meat at the butchers, and the precious, yet cruel, guillotine-like necklace with which he did it, and she herself admitting her potential for collusion — become an object for irony of a mature person in the stage of post-liminality.

Scholars identify the central motif of the Bluebeard tale differently. In his essay "On Fairy-Stories", J.R.R. Tolkien writes about the great mythical significance of prohibition, with its origins in taboo. "The Locked Door stands as an eternal Temptation" [10, P. 32]. Carter foregrounds temptation and draws a parallel with the biblical Eve, which is made explicit in the conversation of the protagonist with the blind piano tuner. It becomes clear to both that, with intent to punish her, Marquis has plotted his wife's breaching his prohibition to enter his office:

'I only did what he knew I would.'

'Like Eve,' he said [3, P. 38]

Marquis encourages her curiosity, punishable as Eve's, by leaving her alone with his collection of Felicien Rops's paintings notorious for their pornographic images. When she is examining one with a telling name "The Reproof of Curiosity", he catches her unawares:

'My little nun has found her prayerbooks, has she?' he demanded...; then, seeing my painful, furious bewilderment, he laughed at me aloud...

'Have nasty pictures scared Baby? Baby mustn't play with grownups' toys until she's learned how to handle them, must she?' [3, P. 17].

As Ch. Renfroe states, "since the heroine's exploration of the chamber is overtly desired by both the husband and the girl for *different* reasons and with the hope of *different* outcome, the tale becomes at once a depiction of the oppressive sexual initiation of a young girl at the hands of a powerful older man as well as a tale of self-initiation and survival undertaken willingly by a member of a community of women" [9, P. 101].

Results

Thus comparing the original story with its modern re-interpretation we see that in "La Barbe-Bleue" the girl can't resist curiosity and enters the forbidden chamber. Perrault blames her in *moralité* which equates curiosity to trouble:

Ladies, you should never pry, —

You'll repent it by and by!

Though the protagonist confronts death, the tale does not suggest any liminal experience she has gained. B. Bettelheim argues that at the end both Bluebeard and his wife are the same persons as they were before. "Earth-shaking events took place", and none of them is better: "no development toward higher humanity is being projected" [7, P. 302].

At the end of Carter's story, the girl who prefers partnership with the blind piano tuner to matrimonial relations violates society conventions. Fairy-tale conventions with marriage as climax are ruined too. The major character, though nameless and thus a stereotype, gives her own perspective of the events, awakening of her sexuality and making her own, rather than anyone else's choice, and getting a better insight into the complexity of the grown-up world. So in Carter's retelling initiation of a young Marquise becomes an impetus to her self-realization. The new understanding is gained by the protagonist as a result of the crucial experience that helps her to attain greater maturity.

Conclusion

Each re-interpretation permits the articulation of deeper possibilities because they were not explicitly expressed in the original story. Embedded and reduced, the latent archaic elements of the pretext that re-emerge later make it possible to treat fairy tale rewritings through the prism of Bakhtin's

ideas on genre memory. So, readdressing their retellings of fairy tales to grown-up audience and bringing to light what used to be implicit or latent in stories for children, exposing anxieties and horror inherent in them, as well lifting sexual taboos, give modern writers an opportunity to reinvent and clarify potential meanings of fairy tales.

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ОСОБЕННОСТИ МИФОНИМИЧЕСКОГО ПРОСТРАНСТВА В ЗАРУБЕЖНОЙ ЛИТЕРАТУРЕ ЖАНРА ФЭНТЕЗИ (НА МАТЕРИАЛЕ ПРОИЗВЕДЕНИЙ ДЖ. ТОЛКИНА И ДЖ. МАРТИНА)*Аннотация*

В статье рассматриваются отличительные черты мифонимического пространства в произведениях Дж. Толкина «Властелин Колец: Хранители Кольца» и Дж. Мартина «Песнь льда и пламени: Игра Престолов». В работе анализируется понятие «мифоним», систематизируются различные подходы к классификации мифонимических единиц. В результате исследования разработана тематическая классификация мифонимических единиц из текстов Дж. Толкина и Дж. Мартина. Сделан вывод о роли мифонимов в литературе жанра фэнтези.

Ключевые слова: мифоним, мифонимическое пространство, имя собственное, фэнтези.

Kharitonova E.V.¹, Fokina M.S.²¹ORCID: 0000-0002-2607-7028, associate professor; PhD in Philology, ²student, North-Eastern State University**MYTHONYMICAL SPACE PECULIARITIES IN FOREIGN FANTASY LITERATURE (BASED ON LITERARY WORKS BY J.R.R. TOLKIEN AND G.R.R. MARTIN)***Abstract*

The paper aims at exemplifying the characteristic features of onomastic space of a fantasy text. The authors examine the notion of a 'mythonym', systemize different approaches to classifying mythonymical units. The conducted study permitted to work out a thematic classification of mythonyms from the novels "The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring" by J.R.R. Tolkien and "A Song of Ice and Fire: A Game of Thrones" by G.R.R. Martin and to draw the conclusion on mythonyms' role in fantasy literature.

Keywords: mythonym, mythonymical space, proper name, fantasy.

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Introduction

Fantasy fiction today has become a major publishing phenomenon. In spite of this, there is still much contradiction when it comes to giving a definition or singling out the criteria, which are specific for the genre of fantasy and which distinguish it from related genres, such as science fiction, escape fiction, surreal fiction, etc. The authors of the *Encyclopedia of Fantasy* point out to the primary feature of a text referred to as a fantasy text: "when set in this world, it tells a story which is impossible in the world as we perceive it; when set in an otherworld, that otherworld will be impossible, though stories set there may be possible in its terms" [7]. In other words, a fantasy writer aims primarily at violating what is generally accepted as impossible and there are various ways and techniques, which allow him to do this. B. Attebery, the author of a rigorous research on the fantasy tradition in American literature, states that there are certain ways for a story to proclaim its fantasy nature: "It can involve beings whose existence we know to be impossible, like dragons, flying horses, or shape-shifting men. It can revolve around magical objects: rings, hats, or castles possessing wills, voices, mobility, and other attributes inanimate objects do not, in our experience, possess" [6, P. 2]. The names of these magic beings and objects form onomastic space of a fantasy text. Such Russian linguists as A.V. Superanskaya and N. V. Podolskaya define onyms, functioning in fantasy texts, as mythonyms: "Mythonyms are proper names which function in the onomastic space of a fiction text describing the name of any sphere of onomastic space in myths, epics, fairy tales and folk epic stories" [4, P. 124–125], see also [5, P. 180]. Mythonymia as a linguistic phenomenon has not been thoroughly investigated yet, as in most cases the attention of the researchers is focused mainly on "natural proper names" and "literary proper names" [5, P. 22], leaving out mythonyms from the research scope. The aim of the present paper is to analyze the mythonymic space of the English-language fantasy literature on the works of such genuine fantasy writers as J. R. R. Tolkien and G. R. R. Martin and to examine the semantic load and a hidden

associative background characteristic for the units of mythonymic space.

Method

The system of methods used in the work combines the method of philological research and the method of comparative linguistic analysis of the mythonyms, selected from the novels *The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring* by J.R.R. Tolkien and *A Song of Ice and Fire: A Game of Thrones* by G.R.R. Martin.

Discussion

Mythonymical space of a literary work is characterized by a high degree of heterogeneity. One of the most common approaches, often applied within the framework of folklore studies is to divide the units of mythonymical space into 'theonoms', i.e. onyms, referring to deities and 'demonyms', onyms referring to names of demoniac creatures (see eg. [2]).

V. V. Belousova suggested classifying mythonyms into neomythonyms and author's myth appellatives as two forms of onyms, used by the authors in creating the artistic imagery in science fiction of the XX–XXI centuries. According to the scholar, neomythonyms are onyms derived from myths, fairy tales and legends, but which underwent the process of derivative and semantic changes. Neomythonyms are not limited by the boundaries of the text, within which they came into being, while myth appellatives, on the contrary, exist only within the source text, marking peculiarity of the linguistic personality of the author [1, P. 94].

N. V. Podolskaya in *The Dictionary of Russian Onomastic Terminology* presented a generalized scheme for structuring mythonymical units into several groups: mythoanthroponyms, mythotoponyms, mythopersonyms, mythozoonyms, mythophytonyms [3, P. 124–125].

The *International Council of Onomastic Sciences* (ICOS) has worked out a list of frequently-met terms for designating different groups of onyms or proper names, including *anthroponyms*, *astronyms*, *charactonyms*, *chrematonyms*, *endonoms*, *ergonyms*, *ethnonyms*, *exonyms*, *hodonyms*, *hydronyms*, *oronyms*, *theonoms* and others [8].

The described above classifications of mythonymical units are based on different criteria and aim at giving a generalized picture of mythonyms as a whole. Our task was to study the onyms, comprising mythonymical space of a fantasy text. Before embarking on the discussion of the semantic load and an associative background characteristic for the mythonyms under analysis, it seemed vital to us to present a detailed classification of these units, showing their complexity, high degree of variability and extreme diversity. Having analyzed more than 1000 mythonymical units, selected from *The Lord of the Rings: The Fellowship of the Ring* by J.R.R. Tolkien and *A Song of Ice and Fire: A Game of Thrones* by G.R.R. Martin we distributed them into several thematic groups.

Groups of mythonyms from *The Lord of the Rings* by J. Tolkien: 1. collectives: *Beleriand, Beornings, Bucklanders, Counsels of the Wise and Great, Hobbitry-in-arms, Last Alliance, Nine Servants, Ringwraith Shirrifs, Shire-muster, White Council* etc.; 2. books: *Book of Mazarbul, Elven-lore, Here and Back Again, Herblore of the Shire, Old Words and Names in Shire, Reckoning of Years, Red Book of Westmarch* etc.; 3. races and representatives: *Big Folk, Boulders, High Elves, Firstborn, Wise People*, etc.; 4. names of characters: *Adelard, Ancalagon the Black, Aragorn, Balin, Barliman Butterbur, Celebrimbor, Deagol* etc.; 5. periods of time: *Black Years, Days of Dearth, Li, One Gross, Tweens* etc.; 6. territories: *Anduin, Blessed Realm, Carn Dum, Eastfarthing, Ithilien, Longbottom, Middle Earth* etc.; 7. forests: *Chetwood, Golden Wood, Greenwood the Great, Mirkwood, Woodhall* etc.; 8. mountains: *Amon Hen, Barazinbar, Blue Mountains, Cloudyhead, Emun Muil* etc.; 9. water sources: *Brandywine, Bruinen of Rivendell, Esgalduin, Great Sea, Long Lake, Mirrormere* etc.; 10. bridges and crossings: *Bridgefild, Buckleburry Ferry, Stock-brook, Tharbad* etc.; 11. settlements: *Annuminas, Arnor, Bag End, Caras Galadhon, Eldamar, Hobbiton, Rivendell* etc.; 12. titles: *Chief of the Dunedian, Elder King, Free Lord, High king at Fornost, Mayor of Michel Delving, Thain* etc.; 13. languages: *Bree-dialect, Common Speech, Fair elven-tongue, Language of Rohirrim, Westorn Speech* etc.; 14. battles: *Battle of Dagorlad, Battle of Five Armies, Battle of Greenfields, War of the Ring*; 15. plants: *Athleas, Elanor, Longbottom leaf, Niphredil, Old Toby* etc.; 16. weapon: *Aeglos, Durin's Axe, Glamdring, Orcrist, Spear of Gil-galad, Sting* etc.; 17. Fortresses: *Amon Sul, Budgeford, Citadel of the Stars, Dol Guldur, Minas Anor, Osgiliath, Thangorodrim* etc.; 18. great rings: *Elven-ring, Master-ring, One Ring, Ruling Ring, Presious* etc.; 19. taverns: *Forsaken Inn, Golden Perch, Green Dragon, Inn of Bree, Prancing Pony* etc.; 20. stars: *Evenstar, Netted Stars, Remmirath, Star of the House of Feanor* etc.; 21. pyrotechnics: *Backappear, Dwarf-candels, Elf-fountains, Goblin-barkers* etc.; 22. minerals and materials: *Calacirya, Elessar, Elfstone, Hithlain, Mithril, Silmaril*; 23. miscellaneous: *Ann-nnath, Argonath, Black Breath, G 3, G for Grand, Ghash, Lembas, Smial* etc.

Groups of mythonyms from *A Game of Thrones* by G. Martin: 1. names of characters: *Aemon, Benjen, Cerenna, Desmond, Grey Worm, Hizdahr zo Loraq, Jaehaerys, Jaqen H'ghar, Khal Drogo, Maege Mormont* etc.; 2. nicknames: *Arrogant, Beggar King, Blackfish, Conqueror, Damphair, Hound, Imp, King-beyond-the-Wall, Lord of Bones* etc.; 3. organizations: *City Watch, Iron Bank of Braavos, Iron Fleet, Kingsguard, Night's Watch, Sons of the Harpy, Unsullied* etc.; 4. peoples and races: *Andals, Children of the Forest, Dothraki, Faceless Men, Rhoynar, Whights, Wildigs* etc.; 5. mythical creatures: *Aurochs, Basilisk, Bloodfly, Direwolf,*

Dragon, Hrakkar, Shadowcat etc.; 6. locations: *Arbor, Blackwater Rush, Braavos, Casterly Rock, Dothraki Sea, Free City of Norvos, Iron Islands, Riverrun* etc.; 7. titles and professions: *Defender of the Vale, First Steward of the Night's Watch, First Sword of Braavos, Grand Maester, Hand of the King, Knight of the Gate, Master of coin, Voice of Oldtown* etc.; 8. houses: *House Allyrion, House Clegane, House Estermont, House Greyjoy, House Mallister* etc.; 9. mottos: *As High As Honor, Fire and Blood, Hear me Roar, We Do Not Sow, Winter Is Coming* etc.; 10. dragons: *Arrax, Balerion, Dreamfyre, Grey Ghost, Sheapsteller, Viserion* etc.; 11. miscellaneous: *Dance of the Dragons, Drowned God, Greenseer, Longclaw, Skinchanger, Valar morghulis* etc.

The comparative analysis of the thematic groups of mythonyms from the works by J. Tolkien and G. Martin shows, that mythonymical space of both texts has the onyms from the same thematic groups, such as proper names, locations, races, collectives, titles and miscellaneous. In most cases, these mythonyms carry a vividly expressed semantic load, have an unusual sound image and a hidden associative background. It seems worth mentioning, that though the characters of *A Game of Thrones* mainly do not believe in mythical creatures, the author inhabits his world with a great quantity of them (e.g. *Direwolf, Firewyrn, Bloodfly, Little Valyrian, Lizard-lion*). Special attention is given to dragons – the symbol of the House Targaryen (e.g. *Drogon, Rhaegal, Viserion, Balerion*). One of the main difference between the world of Middle-earth and Westeros is that the majority of mythical creatures of *The Lord of the Rings* are sensible or intellectual. For this reason, they are considered as representatives of races and can not be allocated to a group of magical beasts.

Certain attention should be given to the thematic group labelled as 'Miscellaneous'. J. Tolkien coined the names of diseases (e.g. *the Fark Plague, Isildur's Bane*), public events (e.g. *the Shire-moot, the Free Fair, Bilbo's Birthday Party*), symbols (e.g. *G3, G for Grand, Elvish letters*). G. Martin's creativity resulted in devising the names for religions (e.g. *Drowned God, Many-Faced God, Faith of the Seven, R'hllor*), historical events (e.g. *Dance of Dragons, Age of Heroes, War of Conquest, Sack of King's Landing*), legendary weapons and combat styles (e.g. *Longclaw, Water Dancing*).

Both authors use a wide range of onyms that possess a vividly expressed characterizing function – the so-called "talking names" ("sprechende Namen") or "meaningful (imagined) names". For example, in *The Lord of the Rings* the onyms from Frodo's neighborhood allow readers to imagine their appearance (e.g. *Bolger, Bracegirdle, Proudfoot, Goodbody, Twofoot*), character (e.g. *Gamgee, Bracegirdle*), occupation (e.g. *Grub, Chub, Hornblower, Burrow*), origin (e.g. *Underhill*). As for the mythotoponyms, in most cases J. Tolkien implicates a particular concept in the names of locations and territories. For example, the mythotoponym *Mirkwood* means that this place is poorly explored, travelers are often lost there and there are many dangerous and mysterious creatures. On the contrary, *Greenwood the Great* indicates that the forest is safe and does not constitute danger for wanderers. Such onyms are characterized by a certain degree of allusiveness and can evoke associations, implied by the author.

G. Martin uses such "meaningful" onyms to inform his readers about the typical traits of locations and their inhabitants. For example, the main events of *A Game of Thrones* take place in the northern and southern parts of the continent, bearing a certain resemblance to the medieval

England. The names of continental locations and territories possess transparent inner form and can easily render the meaning the author implied in the process of their coining: *King's Landing*, *White Harbor*, *the Eyrie* represent the stage for the inland internal strife. On the other hand, the lands extending beyond *the Wall* and on the other side of *the Summer Sea* are referred to as wild territories; their inhabitants are called wizards or *wildings*. The names of these places underline their foreign origin. They present certain difficulties for comprehension: *Braavos*, *Ghiscari*, *the Dothraki Sea*, *Yi Ti*. These locations serve as the main sources of mythical creatures and people, which in their turn may possess a vividly expressed characterizing function: *the Faceless Men*, *the Children of the Forest*, *Giants*. Such mythopersonyms as *Sir Preston Greenfield*, *Jon Snow*, *Jaqen H'ghar*, *Yezzan zo Qaggaz* emphasize the origin of the characters. Thus, the desired communicative effect is achieved.

Conclusion

Authors working in the fantasy genre often create a unique otherworld for their readers to ponder about. Onomastic space of a fiction text plays a vital role in

proclaiming fantasy nature of the text. An author of a fantasy text often acts as a mythmaker, creating unique fictional proper names or borrowing, modifying and adapting mythonyms from other sources. Applying a wide range of onyms possessing a vividly expressed characterizing function fantasy-writers add different associative meanings easily perceived by the readers from the context or even without it.

The conducted analysis of the mythonymical space in J. Tolkien's and G. Martin's texts has shown that the fantasy worlds of both novels are characterized by complexity, high degree of variability and extreme diversity. The imaginary worlds created by both writers are very different in terms of their structure and quantitative characteristics. Within the framework of fantasy texts mythonyms serve the purposes of rendering the communicative intention of the author by way of showing the reader an imaginary world and its characters. At the same time, mythonyms provide an excellent possibility for the author to realize his or her creative intention. Finally, mythonyms serve as culturally bound words reflecting the specificity of culture, history and traditions of an imaginary world presented as a real one.

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.08>Гильфанова Г.Т.¹, Салимзанова Д.А.²^{1,2}Кандидат филологических наук, Набережночелнинский институт Казанского (Приволжского) Федерального университета**НАЦИОНАЛЬНО-КУЛЬТУРНОЕ СВОЕОБРАЗИЕ В ТВОРЧЕСТВЕ ИОАННЕСА БОБРОВСКОГО: ФОЛЬКЛОР, МУЗЫКА, ИСКУССТВО В РОМАНАХ И РАССКАЗАХ****Аннотация**

В статье мы вновь обращаемся к исследованию поэтики эпических произведений Иоганнеса Бобровского, выявляем ее национально-культурное своеобразие, используя комплексный метод: литературный анализ и описание национально-культурной специфики языка. Романы «Мельница Левина», «Литовские клавиры» вбирают в себя и как бы фильтруют слои народного духа, творчества, искусства и своим стилем, языком, ритмом напоминают эпизодами то песню, то произведение живописи. И. Бобровский продолжает традицию устного народного творчества, творчески осмысливает фольклорный материал, «демонстрирует» взаимоотношения литературы и фольклора в историко-литературном плане. Именно это выявляет специфику его творчества и создает предпосылки для «нового» звучания художественного стиля Бобровского.

Ключевые слова: Иоганнес Бобровский, романы Бобровского, национально-культурное своеобразие.

Gilfanova G.T.¹, Salimzanova D.A.²^{1,2}PhD in Philology, Naberezhnye Chelny Institute of Kazan (Volga region) Federal University**THE NATIONAL-CULTURAL ORIGINALITY OF J. BOBROWSKI'S CREATIVITY: FOLKLORE, MUSIC, ART IN NOVELS AND SHORT STORIES****Abstract**

In the article, we again draw on the study of J. Bobrowski's poetics of the epic works, we reveal its national and cultural identity using a complex method: literary analysis and description of the national and cultural specifics of the language. Novels "Levin's Mill", "Lithuanian Claviers" absorb and filter the layers of the national spirit, creativity and art by their style, language, rhythm, remind of episodes, then a song and then a painting. J. Bobrowski continues the tradition of oral folk art, comprehends folklore material in a creative way, so "demonstrates" the relationship between literature and folklore in the historical and literary plan. It helps to reveal the specifics of his work and creates the special background for the "new" sounding of Bobrowski's artistic style.

Keywords: J. Bobrowski, Bobrowski's novels, national-cultural originality.

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Introduction

The national German history is closely intertwined with neighbor nations' histories and it is brightly expressed in the creativity of German writer J. Bobrowski, Prussian, Gipsy, Lithuanian, Polish, Slavic roots of whom thread the text of his poetic and prosaic works. Folklore of German and Slavic nations – the national epic (myths), legends, couplets, lyrical songs, circle dances – folk and music principles of novel's composition are the artistic means, which reflect Bobrowski's worldview and national-cultural originality of his literary space. In other words, it is a case of world's reflection in the writer's mind, his representation of environment. The prose of the described writer is considered to be "information of human and nature world around him", where are "all the background knowledge and ways of reflection of these meanings in the national world-picture image of exact ethnos". In his creativity Bobrowski broadly used as "hook up" and "stream of consciousness". To Albert's mind the peculiarities and the poetics of Bobrowski's prose are emphasized which are into embedded "hook up" of traditional and folk speech. The writer uses different styles: just as traditional so as modern [5]. His novels' structure and composition with their visions, musicality, language and characters' speech are coincided with works created in the past and nowadays by people, their expressers – creators, artists. For these targets Bobrowski immensely uses folk structure in the composition of his novels (especially in "Levin's Mill"). Folklore objectively takes an important place in the writer's novels: 1. folklore – nation's creativity; art, created by human-being is a mirror of historical way of each nation; 2. he aims to make the complicated composition of all his novels more clear, "using folk strokes", as folklore is usually characterized by such

traits as simplicity, clarity, precision of presentation and free-narration story-telling.

Method

The choice of methods of linguistic analysis is determined by the specifics of the material under research, the main tools of which are: comparative method, exactly historical and historical-functional methods. There was used the system analysis methodology while reading the artistic text of novels.

Discussion

The author waves the complex shape and plan of work with bright threads, which hardly keep its structure. For instance, Gustav's children, having buried a dead sparrow in the garden (which was found here, in the garden) were singing a simple song.

"Long Abel

Goose beak

Played in dib

Paws up" [1].

Firstly, poetics of novels is born borrowed from folklore habit and manner of talking clearly and in detail, different people talk diversely, freely. "But firstly we'll tell the story of Poleski. It goes that..." or "So, let's go to the Dreshers" and so on [1]. So this folksy manner of presentation of events according to the points, replacing of them, "unties his hands" and it gives to the writer some opportunity to get away from them or come. The personification of wind, river (Neman was breathing), so this folk spirit can be immutably observed in both novels.

A separate story telling is presented by "spirits' occurrence", so-called "flash-backs". It is also a kind of folk poetry reminder which, in its own way, embellishes the style of this complex literary work. These "little stories" are presented by the author with a shade of fabulousness and

singularity. "The spirits' occurrence" along with folk traditions, folk songs the subject of which is a historic events of 1863 (the rebellion of the Poles in the Duchy of Posen in Galicia), — all these work as a connection with the folk art. Memories of nine years old events and uprisal of kosiners make feeling bitterly, sad, awakens a sense of loss and even causes tears of Yan Marcin and Geete and tears of Marie and Levin.

Memories are on the fields of Russian Poland in Cracow, and are always where people will never accept them [1]. The strength of national spirit can be also observed in Vayzhmantel song where Bobrowski's thought is released; humiliated and offended nation — «but fury of our fire is rising... Spits, spits mow the enemies' army ...» [1] will rise from "smoke and ashes" and avenge the ground of "fathers and grandfathers". So by using of folk song — the folk legend, — the author enriches the material of his novel, and thereby achieves plainness of its presentation.

From the first lines of writing, in particular, in the novel "Levin's Mill", we point its fantastic beginning, which reminds the refrain, the author revoices a bit differently: "The main thing is to begin and, of course, it's known where to do but nothing more is evident here — only the first paragraph, and it is still in doubt". And then it begins as a fairy tale: "In the lower reaches of the Visula River, in a small flow of it in the 70s was a village of the last century, which was populated mostly by Germans". It should be noted also that folk outset used by Bobrowski was not only in his novels but also in the stories, he uses material freely, he looks for and finds his own ways of narration, skillfully conveys the vitality of oral legends in writing. The fact that the writer really appreciated the oral folk legend, also confirm his stories "Malige dancer", "Lithuanian history." "They say, once there stood a beggar. And so every night, "vividness of speech to the narration is also given to the "Lithuanian tradition" — another name of "Lithuanian history." "Malige dancer" leaves the same impression as if you are reading not just a story, but some legend or fairy tale. The very beginning of the writing's manner reminds us of the oral folk tale, so the reader is informed of time and place of the action: "We will tell you a whole story about the dancer of Malige. It began in August, thirty-ninth year, at the end of the month, in a diminutive provincial town" [1]. Ever since childhood, having learned the depth, the beauty of the national life, songs and dances, Bobrowski tends to diverse using of German, Polish and Lithuanian folklore elements, knowledge of which he skillfully applied, having showed his attitude to the controversial relationship of German, Polish and Lithuanian nations, and even Gipsy and other nationalities. «Miracle of miracles, Moses climbed to the water» or "the water in river raise — Moshe shouted:» Oh! It's a trouble! » [1]. Or, when the writer uses the elements of a fairy tale and personificates the nature in Lithuanian song, in Lithuanian fairy tales the main characters talk to the sun, moon and stars in difficult life situations. Sympathizing the deity of the day, helps them (as in our case, the moon gives necessary advice to one of the main characters).

From an early age Bobrowski was fond of music and painting. The writer was devoted to his youthful fascination with poetry, music and art (in 1938 he studied art history at the Humboldt University) until his death. Therefore, it should be noted that both novels absorb and filter the national spirit, creativity, and their construction, style, language, rhythm — all these elements work together as a song or a painting masterpiece. While reading literary text, it sometimes strikes your mind that you are listening to music

(folk or classical), or looking through a work of art. The attention of Voigt in the church ("Lithuanian Clavier") was drawn to a picture of the 16th century, which had a relation with the type of Salzburg churches, stringent hall structures (they were erected by Austrian exiles, when after a long plague the abandoned villages began to revive again). "Epitaph is a wooden board in a rich gold bolection frame, which was strongly peeled: to a certain Bartel Skrinus, his image at the bottom and at the top, under the crown. The middle part-gifts offered to the temple. The space of the temple, only slightly indicated at the edges, is widely disclosed in depth; in the background — along the white road crowd of peasants was approaching with pitchforks and spears; they are following the cross which is carried by the red-haired man. Painting was like singing, it seemed, it could be heard: "We pray to the Holy Spirit ..." [6]. In this regard, G. Fensen said: «The visual dominants in the prose of Bobrowski. Perception categories are related with categories of visual image» [6].

Artistically, with knowledge of the musical school, he gives a description of folk songs, dances. For example, during the summer celebration of Baptist congregation there was a song "... of was being sung in four voices ... and are singing now — soprano has beautiful modulation: firstly terce down, then quint up ... other voices continued on the same note ..." [1]. Or «at the christening of Gustav in Malken Frau Palm orders «Sobotka»: country four tacts motive with dance quarters under which feet tap themselves, but just a little sad at the end» [1].

The following passage of "Levin's Mill" clearly indicates a relationship of Bobrowski's verbal music with fugue by Bach. "In Strasburg Hadedank plays at the funeral, Vayzhmantel sings a song of his own composition ... on four tact tune the size of four quarter that begins on a low note, but with at each line it raises by the tone at regular drops per quart at each line but with the constant increase in the tone of each new line, the song no one present is able to evaluate" [1]. Yes, and for no one it had occurred, that Vayzhmantel «composed» the melody, which is based on a form of polyphonic music works. In fact, by this description of «new brand» Vayzhmantel songs, the author gives the concept of musical term — a fugue. Critics have already noted the affinity of the novel's form to the «sound architectonic» of Bach: Fugues, transitions from one tone to another ... musical element inherent in a fugue: «ricercar», ceaseless repetition of topic, returning, growth of it [6].

Results

J. Bobrowski creates a complex composition of novels (introduction of theme, repeated returnings, voice system) and there is neither a clearly outlined plot, nor a sequence of narration in them as there is no deliberate narrative course like the story itself. The folk-poetic style, the "free independent style" of the writer (the author preserves the poetic simplicity and inner majesty by which folklore can be characterized and in his texts, using "samples of works of folk art from folklore legends" [2, P. 70]) was borrowed by a number of young writers of the 1970s and received its new «sound» [2]. «The breadth and diversity of our lives confronted him with the problem of creating his own style: a laconic narrative with the perspective of depicting an action,» says H. Fensen in his article of literary journal «Text and Criticism» [9, P. 32]. Bobrowski's prose is like a «symphony of ancient sounds, in which the reality is represented in its full entirety, and he insistently and convincingly voiced them. This goal was served by the choice of words, the construction of sentences and rhythm «[6].

Conclusion

The author of novels keeps poetic simplicity which is natural for folklore and inside grandeur using "samples of folk work of folk tales" [10]. In his works (novels and short stories) there is no clearly delineated plot, or sequence of presentation and calm manner of history narration. Bobrowski in his prose combines folk music and folk speech tends to capture the people's view of history and in the art system he integrates folkloric elements and tools such as lyricism, symbolism, metaphor. Poetic of Bobrowski's

literary context is born from taken from the folklore tradition to speak clearly and objectively: these include works of the ancients, modern folklore and, finally, each poem available to the people. As an expert of German history and German literature, he comes to a very important conclusion that true poetry is powered by life-giving juices of folk art. It teaches the ability to convey the feelings, thoughts, experiences and people deeply and truly, so he introduces us to the uniqueness of the national cultural traditions of German and Slavic peoples, pointing to its originality.

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.07>Галимова Х.Н.¹, Леонтьева Л.А.², Зиганшина Н.Ф.³

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ЛИТЕРАТУРНАЯ ДЕЯТЕЛЬНОСТЬ БОРИСА ПАСТЕРНАКА В ЧИСТОПОЛЕ

Аннотация

Статья посвящена особому этапу в судьбе и творчестве всемирно известного русского поэта, прозаика, лауреата Нобелевской премии по литературе Бориса Пастернака во время его трехлетней эвакуации в годы Великой Отечественной войны в маленький провинциальный городок на Каме – Чистополь. Особое внимание уделяется периоду жизни Пастернака, который был ознаменован переводческой деятельностью. Уже через два месяца пребывания в Чистополе поэт переводит пьесу «Ромео и Джульетта» В. Шекспира, а затем и значительный цикл стихотворений Юлиуша Словацкого, поэмы и трагедию «Мария Стюарт» Шиллера. Одновременно он реализует яркий многолетний замысел – перевод «Антония и Клеопатры». Доказано, что наброски и черновые варианты романа «Доктор Живаго», являющегося вершиной его творчества, готовились также в Чистополе.

Ключевые слова: Борис Пастернак, переводы, язык, Великая Отечественная война.

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LITERARY ACTIVITY OF BORIS PASTERNAK IN CHISTOPOL

Abstract

The article is devoted to the special stage in the life and work of the world-famous Russian poet, novelist and Literature Nobel Prize winner Boris Pasternak in his three-year evacuation during the World War II in a small town on the Kama River – Chistopol. Special attention is paid to the period of his life when Boris Pasternak was performing a lot of translation work. Within the first two months living in Chistopol the poet translated the play "Romeo and Juliet" by Shakespeare, and then the great cycle of poems by Juliusz Slowacki, runes, the tragedy of Mary Stuart by Shiller. At the same time he brings to life a great idea he had planned long before – the translation of "Antony and Cleopatra". It is also shown that the sketches and drafts of the novel "Doctor Zhivago" which is considered to be the peak of his creative work, had also been prepared in Chistopol.

Keywords: Boris Pasternak, translations, language, the Great Patriotic War.

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Introduction

During the war, the City of Chistopol by some quirk of fate became a haven for a cohort of over two thousand workers of culture, literature, art, as well as their families.

A special place in the military and literary epic of Chistopol belongs to the world-famous Russian poet, novelist and in 1958 Literature Nobel Prize winner Boris Leonidovich Pasternak.

The name of Boris Pasternak will stay in the history of literature forever. People will always need his spiritual, wonderful and full of life poetry, telling people not only of the common good, but also calling to do good to individuals no matter how small the good may be.

In the creative biography of Boris Pasternak, as in any poet's biography, there are milestones indicating important life changes. A special stage in the life and work of Pasternak were the years of World War II, his three-year evacuation to Chistopol, a small town on the Kama River.

Method

Methodology of literary activity researches is based on the analysis of literary sources, historical, comparative and biographical analyses, annotation and quoting, and general philology. The historical and comparative analysis is to discover the author's identity in literary discourse, annotation, quoting help to emphasize the originality of the author's writing style. Biographical analyses is used for the collection, interpretation of the author's life and the archaic documents. We use the historical, comparative and biographical analyses as the base methods of literary researches.

Discussion

Life in Chistopol during the war was not easy for the poet, but he was patient and enduring.

Despite the hard working conditions, hunger, the rough and tumble of life in the province, Pasternak felt better as he became more prolific and here he was free as "scary eyes turned away" [7, P. 85] from him. About his living in Chistopol Boris Leonidovich wrote that he lived differently, mostly happily. Happily meant that he lived "as far as possible", "tried to overcome all household emergencies and changes", he told, that he "worked and lived the winter months in his usual way: in vitality and purity..." [8, P. 155]. Nothing could stop him in that respect.

Unlike many writers who had been evacuated, Pasternak saw the Chistopol prison not as a punishment, but almost as poetry. In his letter to A. Pasternak he wrote, that there they were "much closer to the truth than in Moscow. Morally all have taken off the buskins and the masks, are feeling young again, and physically are terribly wasted away" (March 22, 1942) [1, P. 77].

Notwithstanding the unbearable cold and the Kama strong winds, Pasternak's creative work kept alive and came closer to reaching perfection. Fate having protected him from the necessity to participate in Great Patriotic War made him a beholder and he did not want to put up with it. He was strongly willing to challenge the life, to rush against it in a notoriously unequal fight, defeat in which was for him grander than victory. Under harsh living and working conditions during the war, the poet wrote articles and a cycle of "Poems and the war" ("Winter is approaching", "Old Park"), he started a cycle of poems dedicated to Marina Tsvetaeva, created translation masterpieces, was involved in

literature and art events, and attended writers' meetings. There he lived a tense social and spiritual life, saying that he had *"to work every day, otherwise I am ashamed of myself"* [10]. These words characterize him definitely.

Results

Boris Pasternak performed a lot of translation work during the Chistopolsky period. *"My private creative work is over. I have started translating"* – wrote Pasternak many years later about this period of life. This translation activity was connected with personal circumstances: as Pasternak refused to praise collectivization, he could not get his works published, and it was extremely difficult to get his translations published as well. The writer had to earn money; he had to provide for himself and his family. Therefore, Pasternak had brought two translation contracts to Chistopol: "Romeo and Juliet" and a collection of poems by a Polish Romantic poet Juliusz Slowacki.

At the same time he brought to life a great idea he had planned long before – the translation of "Antony and Cleopatra" by Shakespeare which had been requested by the Maliy Khudozhestvenniy Akademicheskii Theatre.

Pasternak's translations are of high artistic quality, they reflect the inner core of what is happening in all its depth. He gave Shakespeare's texts new colors, combinations and patterns. Life in Chistopol, a simple provincial city, free from the hustle and ambitions of Moscow, must have contributed to the translation of the texts in all their *"unprecedented simplicity"* characterized by clarity of expression and a unique *"landscape painting"*. While translating Shakespeare's tragedies, Pasternak sought to be understood by any reader, and translate in his own way so that they were clear to everybody. If Shakespeare's language can be called embellished Pasternak mostly adheres to the "language of a provincial": colloquial expressions, with the use of vocabulary that is slightly sharp, frank, and stylistically reduced which gives the translation the features of national and ethnic mentality. Pasternak's style of translation combined both the desire to *"make Russian poetry"* and the strict adherence to the spirit of the original work.

The fact that Pasternak translated Shakespeare's works during the war was well-known, but only few people knew that he also translated poems (the collection was released only in 1943). Pasternak was accused of *"hiding behind Shakespeare"* [8, P. 160] from the horror of life around him in such a tragic time for the people.

Naturally, during the Great Patriotic War, Pasternak could not separate

himself from the fate of Russia, and performing only translations had become

contrary to all the principles of his life. During his life in Chistopol, Pasternak

dreamt of a real book – of serious prose.

Already during the first months of the war, Pasternak trying to comprehend "the course of centuries" in Russian history, wrote the play "In the Soviet city". Pasternak believed that the play would be an attempt to sketch the first features of a new historical type and the praise which was not caught by the Soviet literature that is the play would be written in a new way.

The content of the play was changed in Chistopol, moreover there the play got a more "speaking" name – "This world". Unfortunately, this piece of work was not destined to be known to the wider audience. The play was destroyed by the author. Perhaps he did not accept it relying on his artistic taste, perhaps its listeners would have been horrified by its "dangerous" content because it was written *"in a new way*

and freely" [7, P. 160]. Life in the play is shown without embellishments and evasions. Only the third and fourth scenes of the first act have reached us in a relatively intact form, later voiced in the novel "Doctor Zhivago". The protagonists of the play are Gordon and Dudorov. Later, they will appear in the novel environment of Yury Andreyevich Zhivago, the protagonist of the novel which was not printed in Russia for more than 30 years for the same reasons of displaying free thinking. The author initially predicted that *"the piece would hardly be intended for publishing and for stage. This gave me freedom once and for all ..."* [7, P. 165].

As for the novel "Doctor Zhivago" which is considered to be the peak of his creative work, Pasternak began to write it after the war in 1945 and it took him ten years to create it but the sketches and drafts of the novel had been prepared in Chistopol. The prototypes of the main characters of this unique novel are the citizens of Chistopol, and even the description of houses, streets, landscapes were copied by Pasternak from the city. It seems that the novel even describes the house in Chistopol where he lived: *"This is a house with an adjoined front garden that was located in a black desolated part of the park with an old semicircular alley entrance. The alley was fully covered with grass..."* [9, P. 180].

On June 25, 1943 Boris Pasternak said his final goodbye to Chistopol and went off to war. Chistopol stayed in his heart forever. He himself understood how important the touch of the Russian province was for him as a poet. He missed the "godforsaken town" and all those who were there with him for a long time. He often wrote about this in his letters to V.D. Avdeev: *"As everyone has departed Chistopol, and we will probably not be alive when a new war starts, there seems to be no apparent reason to think about a trip to your city. Meanwhile, especially because I do not cherish the present Moscow ... vividly and with all my heart I really only want to be in Chistopol and Oxford"* [8, P. 91].

For some people Chistopol remained a bitter exile but for Pasternak Chistopol meant returning to real life, it was the starting point in understanding himself.

The genius of Pasternak as a deeply Russian and folk poet and writer is that he, being an urban intellectual, appeared organically connected with his people in the fullest sense of this word because he felt the soul of the people and the soul of the land, which gave birth to this nation. The province "covered with sky as if it were a roof", an "animal-like" way of living in Poshekhonye, the wilderness of Chistopol that "soothes the soul", the charm "of an old book that has been read a hundred times" – all of this inspired him and became an integral component of Boris Pasternak's artistic experience.

Conclusion

Due to the stay in a simple provincial town Boris Pasternak managed to keep the voice of conscience and inner freedom that were lost by many of his fellow writers voluntarily or involuntarily and most importantly, he was able to maintain and strengthen his moral position that eliminated any compromises. This phase of his life served as a reminder of his mission – to serve the truth and not to be unfaithful to it. He had to inform people about the need of atonement, redemption in this terrible war, which Pasternak considered retaliation and retribution for lying.

These unforgettable years of war during which B.L. Pasternak stayed in Chistopol were perpetuated on the 100th anniversary of his birth, on February 10, 1990, by the opening of a memorial museum in the house where he lived – on Volodarsky Street No. 75 (now Lenin str. No. 84). This is

the first state museum of Pasternak in Russia, which displays his personal belongings saved by the residents. Memorial

Museum of B. Pasternak is a subdivision of MBUK 'Museum Association of Chistopol'.

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Practical knowledge of languages (UDC 81`24)

DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.18>Бузина Ю.Н.¹, Аласания Е.П.²¹Доцент, кандидат педагогических наук, ²Старший преподаватель,
Российский экономический университет им. Г.В. ПлехановаКРОСС-КУЛЬТУРНОЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЕ В НЕЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКИХ УНИВЕРСИТЕТАХ:
ЭФФЕКТИВНОСТЬ СИТУАЦИОННЫХ ЗАДАЧ

Аннотация

В статье рассматриваются условия преподавания иностранных языков в больших группах, а также возможные способы обучения навыкам и умениям использования языка как средства общения на примере работы с деловыми ситуациями. Особенное внимание уделяется использованию интерактивных и дискуссионных методов обучения в процессе освоения студентами курса «Межкультурные и деловые коммуникации на иностранном языке» для магистерских программ в экономическом ВУЗе. Авторы анализируют процесс интеграции метода ситуационных задач в традиционный подход к изучению иностранных языков в неязыковых ВУЗах.

Ключевые слова: межкультурная коммуникация, эффективность преподавания, иностранный язык, взаимодействие, дифференциация, мотивация, ситуационные задачи.

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CROSS-CULTURAL EDUCATION IN NON-LINGUISTIC UNIVERSITIES: THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CASE STUDIES

Abstract

The article deals with foreign language teaching conditions in large groups, as well as possible ways of mastering skills and abilities of using language as a means of communication on the example of a business situation. Special attention is paid to the use of interactive and discussion method of teaching in the process of mastering Intercultural and business communication in foreign language for Master programs in an economic university. The authors analyze the process of integration of case study method into traditional way of teaching foreign languages in non-linguistic university.

Keywords: cross-cultural communication, the effectiveness of teaching, foreign language, interaction, differentiation, motivation, case studies.

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Introduction

In the educational context, the problem of efficient organization of classroom and autonomous work still occupies a special place due to several factors. Among them, it should be noted, first of all, is the increased share of the use of new information technologies, which is connected with the outer frame of the educational process, and meaningful parameters of activity of the subject of study. Another important factor is the didactic paradigm that determines the status of a student characteristics, taking into account the relationship and interdependence of the major participants of learning and teaching process, in other words, the teacher and the student. Empirical studies suggest that the position of the student in terms of implementing their own individual capacity, even with optimal training course, is often blurry, hazy, deliberate and determined enough. This circumstance is due to the fact that the concept of learning process until recently has been associated directly with the performance of a plurality of student tasks (activities), leading to the achievement of a certain predetermined (usually Tutor) specific purpose. It is important to emphasize that the goal itself and the path to achieve it should not be given by a teacher. They can be the result of independent decision-making on the part of the student.

The democratic changes in our society and Russian access to the international co-operation necessitate changes in the approach to the study of foreign languages in high school. The concept underlying the formation as one of the components must assume real mastering graduate foreign language. The solution to this problem is possible if:

a) awareness of the need for ownership of the learning side of language;

b) availability of methods and tools to accomplish the task.

Method

Special and not very developed area in the methodology of teaching foreign languages in non-language high school is the organization of training on the subject "Intercultural and business communication in foreign language" for teaching oral speech to a group of students graduate. Such students often reconvene studying a foreign language after a long break, and learning perspective is evaluated very skeptical by them. However, from year to year the number of students wishing to attend the elective course is rising. Due to objective reasons the course can last maximum 30 hours per academic year. The reality is that the course is based on the study of course literature, but students are attracted, first of all, by the opportunity to develop oral communication skills.

The purpose of the analysis of specific business situations (case analysis) is to allow students (levels pre-intermediate and intermediate) to develop the skills of speaking, reading, writing and listening skills in a foreign language, as well as to expand their knowledge about the economy and finance of other countries. Case analysis method is widely used in business schools and corporate training courses, and also has been chosen by the department of foreign languages (PRUE) because it gives possibility not only to convey to students the language and country information, but to actively involve them in the process of problem solving, find capacious formulations and convincing arguments, avoid mistakes in discussion style and discussion etiquette norms (for instance, Russian students tend to overuse the modal verb 'must' which can sound rude to English-speaking people) and all this in a foreign language

specialty. All kinds of activities mentioned above are an integral part of everyday business life.

Thus, the basis of the method is the involvement of students in the workflow class. Their active participation in this process is a crucial factor in improving their knowledge in the field of specialty and language development of linguistic material. If the method is applied and the teacher, and students perform carefully and accurately, the results can be quite impressive - the student gets the opportunity to debate and even think in the foreign language, as well as better learns the mechanisms of the market economy. Another advantage of case analysis is that many students remove the internal psychological barrier to their active speaking, and participating in classes with exercises attracts the attention to any linguistic error. It is even more essential in the course of Intercultural and Business communications where the attention is drawn mostly not to grammar and lexical structure of the language, but to cultural aspects. It is well-known that a language mistake (which is not totally misleading, of course) has less long-term consequences as a cultural one.

Also, there is an important reorientation - now the main responsibility for success depends on the students, not the teacher, due to the reason that the teacher shifts from controlling and supervising function, to the function of interlocutor, so the motivation comes not from the outside of the teacher, but from the students themselves, which makes most classes in the language of specialty and business situations in a foreign language much more effective.

Moreover, case study method is well-used during assessment process. As traditional exam being stressful for students, especially for students with high anxiety level, case studies may assist them in being at ease even during examination and avoid high level of stress thus making the results of the examination more objective and accurate.

Discussion

A modern graduate student as well as an external student is a well-established personality, and they have a definite place in the society and in the professional community. At the present time, when the students work for private and small companies, firms and other commercial organizational structures, they have motivation and increased interest in learning a foreign language as a mean of communication with foreign intermediaries, agents, and other language users. This fact should be taken into account in the program of teaching foreign languages, including the Intercultural and business communication in foreign language course, as it, in all likelihood, will be central to the modification of the program: to whatever specialty students are not taught, it will still be associated with such concepts as market, marketing, contracts, agreements, contractual obligations, trade advertising, advertising methods, etc. "The foreign language speaking implies communication in a foreign language in the space of a foreign linguistic culture, as well as the use of language to achieve specific communicative purposes. Now comes forward the problem of defining a set of competences needed to achieve the specific goals of intercultural interaction" [1].

For example, the etiquette - from the Greek "custom" - a set of rules relating to the external manifestations of attitudes towards people, behavior in public places, forms of address and greetings, manners and clothes, also included in the program of the discipline as integral part of cross-cultural education. Inability to behave in society, at work, in the company when a person creates a certain reputation, which complicates his relationship with people and affects his life.

It is important to teach future professionals such relatively simple things as body language, greeting rules, peculiarities of interaction with opposite sex, behaviour at the reception, during negotiations, official meetings. They would seem as small trifles, but all of them are useful to know and remember, as nuances are of great importance in the business world, government circles, embassies, and in everyday life.

Contacting in a business practice is usually built and maintained exclusively by mutual interest and utility. For this purpose, people meet, considering the process of negotiating as normal daily work. There are so-called protocol negotiations or courtesy visits. They are not organized to discuss or solve a specific problem and to establish personal contacts or to express the attention to the partner on any occasion.

The main feature of business etiquette is courtesy like an indispensable feature of etiquette. Prevention of coarseness and vulgarity in all its manifestations, rules of greetings on seniority, respect for table of ranks and position are also vital.

Taking into account national peculiarities: salutations; restraint, the inadmissibility of familiarity, familiarity, self-control in difficult situations; softness of manners, ability to argue, sense of dignity, national pride, the ability to say "yes" and "no", as well as national features in dispute; respect for women; inadmissibility of pressure someone else's authority in the dispute and tolerance.

Today, to be honest, justice, a sense of duty, responsibility, initiative, positive attitude to subordinates; rigor, demanding of themselves and others, hard work, the ability to take decisions are not only commendable, but also profitable.

Unfortunately, representatives of foreign business notice that in some cases, their Russian counterparts own poor command of the rules of business etiquette, making it difficult to achieve the desired business results, leading to the disruption of existing agreements, in a substantial delay in the ongoing negotiations.

The practical value of this study lies in the possibility of using the method for the selection of business cases in the context of learning intercultural communication in the Russian context, and to use language profile as the basis for selection of the content of learning intercultural communication in the process of curriculum development.

It can be used separately as well as together with the electronic practicum on cross-cultural communication developed in PRUE. "The practicum is to become part of virtual educational environment embracing all three levels of higher education. Put in the form of a project with the purpose of making a final presentation the practicum provides both precise instructions for autonomous working with texts and interactive exercises and methods of self-control. This electronic academic material uses teaching methods which enable learners to master language skills as well as discourse and cross-cultural communicative skills. It can be used at any faculty of the university both in bachelor, master or post-graduate programs and in supplementary educational programs" [2].

The transition to market relations, the integration of our economy into the global, knowledge and compliance with business ethics are very important for the successful promotion in the external market.

Results

Selecting and supplying problems of lexical and grammatical material in the methodological manuals and orientation sessions with students, as well as the organization of classes are relevant and have not been resolved to these

days. One of the ways to improve the teaching of foreign languages and improve its performance is to specify and clarify the lexical material subject to mandatory mastering. The absence of a list of vocabulary in specific contexts of learning has the negative impact on solving the problem of dosing the words on the steps, modules and individual classes.

The question is, in what form this balance is presented in the methodological manuals and orientation sessions, it is very important to maintain and develop the students'

motivation in learning to read texts and communicate effectively in everyday practice. This can be solved by purposeful selection of cases that could cause interest due to the relevance and originality of content and level of needs of students, as well as exercises for the development of speech and case studies offered to students.

The method of selection and further use of case studies underwent approbation at PRUE within the discipline "Cross-cultural and business communications in a foreign language" during 2013-2017.

Table 1

| Stages | Objects of a research and studying | Methods of collecting information and data |
|-------------|--|---|
| Preparatory | Goals and objectives Planning and timing Expected results of CS | The study all available public information about the companies, including print materials and Internet sites The study of promotional materials Interviews with management of companies |
| research | Corporate needs of intercultural foreign language professional communication | |
| | Requirements of business in general now and taking into account plans of further strategic development | The structured interviews with the management Studying of internal documentation of the company: strategic development plan, organogramma and schemes of business processes |
| | Requirements of structural divisions, departments or activities of the international companies | The structured interviews with heads of departments Studying of internal documentation of the companies: functions of structural divisions and departments, internal rules Questioning of personnel Observation of work of departments |
| | The needs of the workplace or position | The study of internal company documentation: job description Employee surveys Focus groups with employees Monitoring individual employees |
| | The individual needs of students | |
| | Language | Role-playing games and simulations Testing of language knowledge, skills of students Testing of cross-cultural competence of students Portfolio of written foreign-language professional communication Questioning of students |
| | Intercultural | |
| analytical | The analysis of the obtained information Recommendations about overcoming "language barrier" Language profile of the student | Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data and information gathered Systematization of the obtained data and analysis Presentation of results in form of charts, tables and graphs for statistical analysis |

Conclusion

To sum up, analysis of language needs cannot be limited only to the study of the actual language needs of the learners, it needs to include a combination of factors that characterize the target situation of use of a foreign language in a professional intercultural context. It is better to begin with the introduction of new words and phrases, supported by illustrations or an audio recording, solutions offered for situations in professional topics and small informative texts. Also, it's important to create a basic vocabulary, which can become a great support in monitoring and assessing students. Because a small number of hours is allocated for the orientation sessions, a teacher must develop methods of teaching rationally and carefully so that students can get the most of linguistic information in their specialty and professional activities. Error correction should be kept to a

reasonable minimum (communicative and meaningful) to avoid violating the logical connection in discussion. Ideally, one case can be used for two classes, two academic hours are allocated for general discussion and work with linguistic realities, remaining two - just to work with the format of the case that students prepare at home.

The proposed method is the urgent need in developing a modern, competitive educational services in the field of training in intercultural communications, because traditional diagnostic language needs of the learners does not allow to investigate the language needs of professional communication target environment, often ignoring the needs of the client-customer. Using this method allows a comprehensive analysis of language needs, including linguistic needs of the customer-customer and customer-user, and to ensure professional and social order.

Of course, the method requires a serious regular preparation for classes by teachers and students, and in addition, the teacher must understand at least the basic business realities, to be ready to manage debates and

decision-making on economic and financial issues. This method has been successfully used by teachers of foreign languages at PRUE.

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DOI: <https://dx.doi.org/10.18454/RULB.12.12>Каскова М.Е.¹, Заболотских А.В.²¹ORCID:0000-0003-0499-4551, Старший преподаватель, кандидат педагогических наук,²ORCID:0000-0002-5253-2733, Старший преподаватель, Российский университет дружбы народов
ВОПРОСЫ ОПТИМИЗАЦИИ УЧЕБНОЙ МОТИВАЦИИ В ЛИНГВИСТИЧЕСКОМ ВУЗЕ (НА МАТЕРИАЛЕ ИТАЛЬЯНСКОГО ЯЗЫКА КАК ВТОРОЙ СПЕЦИАЛЬНОСТИ)**Аннотация**

Статья посвящена вопросу формирования учебной мотивации, которая является одним из критериев эффективности психолого-педагогического процесса в вузе, а также условием, обеспечивающим успешное обучение. Авторы определяют демотивированность студентов как основную проблему обучения и рассматривают способы оптимизации мотивационной сферы обучаемых с целью формирования их учебной мотивации в процессе обучения чтению. В статье приводятся теоретические положения, разработанные итальянским дидактом П. Бальбони, и рассматриваются некоторые приемы и варианты стимулирования учебной мотивации, основанной на потребности и на удовольствии.

Ключевые слова: мотивация, активность, приемы и средства стимулирования учебной мотивации, обучение чтению.

Kaskova M.E.¹, Zabolotskikh A.V.²¹ORCID:0000-0003-0499-4551, Assistant Professor, PhD in Pedagogy,²ORCID:0000-0002-5253-2733, Assistant Professor, Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN)**OPTIMISATION OF ACADEMIC MOTIVATION AT A LINGUISTIC UNIVERSITY (ON THE MATERIAL OF THE ITALIAN LANGUAGE AS THE MINOR SUBJECT)****Abstract**

The article is devoted to the question of formation of students' educational motivation which is one of the criteria for the effectiveness of psychological and pedagogical processes at the university, and also the condition that ensures successful education. The authors define students' demotivation as the topical problem of education and consider ways to optimise the motivational sphere of trainees aimed at the formation of their educational motivation in teaching reading. The article presents theoretical propositions developed by an Italian didact P. Balboni, and considers some techniques and options for stimulating learning motivation based on need and pleasure.

Keywords: motivation, activity, methods and means to promote the learning motivation, learning to read.

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Introduction

In the modern educational process not only the training of students, the transmission of subject knowledge, the skills the volume of which is constantly and steadily rising, come to the fore, but also the personality of the learner as an active participant of the process having the corresponding structure of the motivational sphere. It is the nature of motivation underlying the activity of the learner that determines the direction and their ambitions in the learning process, in particular, involvement in activity, initiative, commitment, satisfaction of the process, understanding that educational information and process are personally significant to them. And the students' steady cognitive interest, their motivation, is becoming one of the criteria for the effectiveness of the psychological and pedagogical processes at the university, and also the condition that ensures successful education. The formation of educational motivation of students without any doubt can be called one of the main problems of modern higher education. Its relevance is determined by the training itself, the updating of the syllabus, the formation of students' autonomous knowledge acquisition and the development of the activity. Nowadays, the most topical problems in the learning environment are associated with the demotivation among the majority of students, which leads to the decrease in the basic indicators of their education.

In recent years the number of publications has increased which shows a steady interest of the researchers in this field, the pursuit of strategy to optimise the motivational sphere of learners and systematic work on the formation of students' motivation.

Discussion

The article represents the reflections and practical advice on the optimisation of educational motivation by the Professor of the Ca' Foscari University of Venice, one of the founders of the Department of Italian Teaching Methodology to Foreign students at the University of Siena, the Director of the Linguistic Center of the University P.E. Balboni.

P.E. Balboni is the author of many books and studies on the theory and practice of teaching Italian as a foreign language, a regular participant in pedagogical associations of the Institutes of Italian Culture, a member of the Italianist Association committed to the theory of advancing (advancement) of the Italian language, based on the high teaching quality.

For teachers of foreign languages (not only Italian) the point of view of one of the authorities in the field of didactics is of undoubted interest. In addition, the works of P.E. Balboni have not been translated into Russian yet. The number of books translated into English is scanty.

Method

An important condition for ensuring the successful educational process is the painstaking work of a teacher who considers motivation as the major concern. For the emergence of a motive an external stimulus is required, with the help of which a teacher handles the changes that occur in a students' motivational sphere.

According to the hedonistic theory, a person's activity complies with the principle of "maximising the positive and minimising the negative emotions," i.e. it is aimed at achieving experiences of pleasure, joy, satisfaction and avoiding experiences of suffering, displeasure and discomfort. And here it is appropriate to talk about the problem closely related to the emotional sphere of a person –

the problem of overcoming psychological alienation, which is particularly clear in the process of learning a foreign language, a language alien, strange and distant. This misunderstanding of the realia of another country leads to its rejection, loss of interest, unwillingness to overcome difficulties, and, consequently, to demotivation. A similar thought found its expression in a Latin proverb – "Ignoti nulla cupido" (there is no desire for the unknown).

P. Balboni states that the immersion of the learner's personality in the process of studying a foreign language to the depths of his/her «Ego» and reducing the psychological distance between one's own language, culture and the same concepts of a foreign language, requires from the teacher specific permanent actions to overcome «alienation»». [10, P. 76].

The following techniques can significantly help to begin identifying one as Italian [the term *dépaysement* (Fr.) refers to the phenomenon, when a student does not feel Russian, Canadian etc. any longer.]:

- simulation of real communication, when a student is forced to overcome their psychological barrier while speaking. The point at issue is about different games and role plays, in which the participation of a teacher is minimised;
- the creation of an artificial environment in a particular classroom, as a metaphor for the "loss" of the national identity. It is, for example, the design of the classroom as "little Italy", which, of course, will help create a special atmosphere of authenticity;
- presence and participation of Italians in the learning process. Assistance of Italian Cultural Institutes.

The creation of a favourable didactic environment, the atmosphere of creativity and cooperation also have a significant impact on the process of overcoming the alienation of a foreign language. Overcoming the psychological distance is a co-factor in the formation of motivation in studying a foreign language.

The initial phase of the lesson as a structural unit of pedagogical activity is always characterised by different motivational vectors of students. Thus, the goal of the teacher's efforts at the initial stage should be to redirect the motivational vectors into a «co-directional" interaction. This can be achieved by influencing the students' motivation through the rational sphere (motivation based on need), the emotional sphere (motivation based on pleasure) or volition (motivation, based on necessity).

However, methods of influencing the students' volition are not the subject of this article, as they can not be subsumed to the methods of optimisation of learning motivation. And, nevertheless, we consider it important to make the following remark. The use of the verb «must», as the form of stimulus during the lesson, should be extremely cautious. We can conclude from our own teaching experience that not only children but also adults, as a rule, react with an explicit or hidden refusal to this verb during communication in the classroom. The effect of the interaction in this case is opposite. According to this fact, we recommend the limitation of the verb "must" during the study.

Let us consider in a successive order some techniques and options for stimulating learning motivation based on need and pleasure, which, according to the Italian didact P. Balboni, are the most effective [10, P. 78].

- Motivation based on future needs. For example, traveling around Italy next summer, one will need to buy a train ticket using the following expressions of a pragmatic nature, etc.

- Motivation based on educational needs. For example, traveling around Italy, one should try to understand this country, its peculiarities and traditions. We can hardly call the Italian language to be a language of great applied significance, compared to other foreign languages, for example, English and Spanish. After all, you can travel around Italy, enjoy its historic and cultural monuments even without knowing the Italian language. But the Italian language has great educational value for studying music, art, literature, history and religion. Its significance for the cultural, social development of the personality in self-education can not be overestimated. Therefore, it is advisable to increase the level of students' motivation, and help them to realise the importance of studying the Italian language in their lives from the perspective of their personal development.

- Motivation based on the actual needs of a student while learning a language implies, for example, reading graded texts, studying various aspects of the language within the given level (A1, A2, etc.), as well as the opportunity not to get bored during the lessons and not to go deep into problems of methodology. Motivation based on the need requires attention throughout the whole course of training.

- Motivation based on pleasure is the most effective type of motivation for a person. Its basis consists of the following options.

The pleasure of learning is formed step by step, moving ahead gradually in mastering the language, without turning error corrections into sanctions and punishments.

The pleasure in overcoming difficulties is a typical characteristic of a person, like the previous type of motivation. It can be used in many methodological exercises. For example, listen to the text, then see if you can understand its main idea, try to convince your group mate that your point of view is correct. Some difficult exercises are especially loved by students, because they present a challenge and a test for their abilities. Students struggles with themselves, with their problems, with the text, but not with the teacher.

Pleasure based on diversity. «The beauty of the world lies in its diversity», – says an Italian proverb. In adolescence and adult life curiosity is transformed into interest, in our case – into interest in the target-language country. This can be a starting point for the formation of motivation. Jokes, teacher's stories, video and audio materials, tourist brochures serve as a support for maintaining interest during the entire period of studying the Italian language.

Pleasure based on various types of work. Attention mechanism has a cyclic nature: the monotonous work tires students, and therefore demotivates them. The beginning is a very important part of work; the effect of novelty is the strongest motive to start an activity. This effect can be maintained throughout the work by changing types of exercises and tasks [teacher-centered, group, individual, oral, written, etc.]. It is useful to incorporate songs, videos, meetings with Italians in the work, as this adds variety to educational routine. Pleasure based on understanding and systematisation. The fact that certain language material will be systematised during a certain period of study, and students will receive answers to their burning questions, should be mentioned at the very beginning of work with a text.

Pleasure based on success. The approval and praise of a teacher are important for every student. But the state of success is even more important, because it leads to increased motivation in almost all types of students, even if the latter solve standard problems.

Pleasure based on a game. The idea of a game is «to pretend and to imagine that I ...» – it enables a student to

play different situations of communication in a foreign language. Using the phrase «If I were you, I would ...» students are involved in frank and sincere talk, share their excitement, stimulate their imagination, critical and creative thinking. This method contributes to the effective "liberation" of students' personality and their creative activity.

During the experimental training, students were offered a number of tasks of this kind, where they were able to 'try on' various characters, which have certain characteristics (professional, age-related, social, etc.).

Results

The impact on the student's motivational sphere occurs not only through organising educational activities, techniques and methods of teaching, but also through the content of training, which must correspond to the age and psychological characteristics of students. At the age of 18 and above young people are experiencing a period of self-determination and the formation of a personality. In light of this, the role of culture in general and literature as a part of it grows more than ever: as the essential, constitutive function of culture and literature in particular is the disclosure of the meanings of certain aspects of reality, as well as their translation for the subsequent semantic formation and semantic construction in the process of self-determination and self-identification. [8].

A distinctive feature of a fairy tale is that a life's challenge in a fairy tale is characterised by the level of general significance, multipurposeness and, therefore, the relevance for many people. At different times the researchers of a fairy tale drew attention to the fact that the concept of meaning can refer not only to the personality of a narrator, but also have shades of general, collective meaning, bringing an individual closer to the representatives of a given epoch, nationality, country, culture, religion, class, profession, and so on. A.N. Leontiev speaks about the existence of "semantic generalisations" and "general problems in the meaning."

However, the personal meaning of the author is not identical to the abstract significance of objects or phenomena that are reflected in students' emotional experience.

After the emotional experience, as the indicator of significance, follows the question of the vital motive of this significance, the question of this object or phenomenon connected with the basic realities of the reader's life. According to M.M. Bakhtin, senses are answers to questions. The thing that does not answer any question is meaningless to us [1, P. 350]. There is a so-called problem in the meaning [8]. It can be posed relating to one's own action

(Why am I doing it? What are the motives behind it? What needs or values are being realised in this action? What will it result in?), and also in relation to objects, phenomena and events (What place do they occupy in my life, in my world? Which aspects of my life are they not indifferent to? How can they affect it? What are the consequences of them?)

According to L.S. Vygotsky, the reader's contact with the literary text should be regarded as the behavioural organisation and a goal for the future, a demand that, perhaps, will never be realised but which makes it strive to overtake life to what that lies behind it [2, P. 322]. Semantic changes, occurring under the influence of a fairy tale, provide a student with mechanisms to overcome real crises, show examples of solving problems, suggest behavioural patterns in difficult situations. To develop and enrich his life experience, there is no need for a young person to experience new misfortunes every time, whether it is an illness, prison, betrayal or deception. A contact with the text of a fairy tale helps to realise it without serious consequences, influencing the person as directly as real life does, but at the same time, providing a person with experience and understanding, excitement and overcoming the future life situations without restricting him to the tough need.

The main psychological function of reading fairy tales is included in the development and enrichment of various forms of students' understanding the reality, the familiarisation with which does not "tear off" a person from life, but, on the contrary, brings him closer to it [7].

This is also proved by the results of students' choice of a reading subject. The survey was conducted in 2014 among the 2nd and 3rd year students of the Linguistics Department of the Institute of Foreign Languages at the RUDN University.

Conclusion

It is worth noting that teachers, using above mentioned methods, can actively influence not only motivation of students but also the entire scope of goal-setting. In addition, the impact on the motivational component of the learning process can be implemented through external psychic mechanisms, such as: addressing the social function of the individual, (research need) and directly through the motivational sphere (ambition, leadership). However, to select pedagogical measures of influence, a teacher needs to determine the personal characteristics of a student, especially the characteristics of memory, emotional sphere and socially significant points.

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ОБУЧЕНИЕ ВЗРОСЛЫХ В РАЗНОУРОВНЕВОЙ ГРУППЕ: ТРУДНОСТИ И ПЕРСПЕКТИВЫ**Аннотация**

Одним из необходимых условий модернизации системы высшего образования Российской Федерации является повышение уровня академической мобильности преподавательского сообщества российских ВУЗов. Для решения этой проблемы в Государственном социально-гуманитарном университете в 2014 году было принято решение об организации двухгодичных курсов английского языка для преподавателей неязыковых специальностей, направленных на повышение уровня владения иностранным языком. Наибольшая трудность в обучении возникла из-за разного уровня владения языком, поэтому преподаватель разрабатывал эффективную методику преподавания английского языка для разноуровневых обучающихся.

Ключевые слова: академическая мобильность, уровень владения языком, методика, неязыковые специальности.

Salamatina I.I.¹, Migdal I.Yu.², Kovaleva T.A.³¹Professor, PhD in Pedagogy, ^{2,3}Associate professor, PhD in Philology, State University of Humanities and Social Studies**ADULTS' LEARNING IN A MULTILEVEL GROUP: DIFFICULTIES AND PROSPECTS****Abstract**

One of the necessary conditions of modernization of higher education system of the Russian Federation is to increase the level of academic mobility of the teaching community of Russian Universities. To solve this problem in 2014 in the State University of Humanities and Social Studies it was made the decision to organize the biennial English language courses for teachers of non-linguistic specialties, to enhance their level of proficiency. The greatest difficulty in teaching was because of different levels of language proficiency, so the teacher had to develop an effective methodology of teaching English for different levels of students.

Keywords: academic mobility, language proficiency, methodology, non-linguistic specialties.

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Introduction

One of the necessary conditions of modernization of Russian higher education and education in general is the creation of the lifelong learning system, i.e. the system which involves the continuous improvement of human's knowledge throughout his or her life. Within this paradigm people can make a choice of educational trajectories corresponding to their individual needs and peculiarities, as well as the needs of the labour market and prospects of development of production and society.

In particular, the inclusion of the teaching community of Russian Universities in the implementation of the educational system requires them to increase their level of academic mobility. The main factor preventing Russian teachers' movement for a time to foreign educational institutions to improve their educational level and training is the language barrier [9].

Method

Methodology of studying any foreign language is based on different aspects of the language. To be able to meet all required standards and refresh their teaching skills and acquire foreign culture, teachers can choose courses abroad. Teachers have a variety of countries to choose from: the USA, Great Britain, Australia, Canada and many European countries like Malta, Spain, Greece and many others. It is considered an English-speaking country to be the best choice for those who deal with the English language. But it is impossible for those who did not study English at school and whose level of the language is the beginner. Also economic situation nowadays in budget organizations leaves much to be desired and the best variant for teachers is the attendance of free classes at their universities. Therefore, to solve this problem it was organized two-year courses of English for teachers of non-linguistic specialties in State University of Humanities and Social Studies (Kolomna) in 2014, aimed at increasing proficiency in a foreign language.

Many experts Bonk N.A. [1], Gal'skova N.D. [2], Kitaygorodskaya G.A. [3], Passov E.I.[7], Mil'rud R.P. [6],

Solovova E.N. [8] claim that the success of the English language courses depends largely on how clearly and differentially a group was selected. This was one of the main problems we faced in the classroom, as the group consisted of 11 people of different levels from beginner to pre-intermediate levels.

Under the level of foreign language communicative competence it should be understood one of the specially selected levels of communicative proficiency, which is characterized by specific characteristics of language, speech and social-cultural human behaviour that can uniquely distinguish the level from other levels of language proficiency as the means of communication within certain methodical classification grades.

During the work of «Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment» it is distinguished six European levels of language proficiency, which gives a qualitative characteristic of the communicative abilities of the individual, communicative competence. They are:

A – Basic User:

A1 – Survival Level – (Beginner and Elementary)

A2 – Waystage – (Pre-Intermediate)

B – Independent User:

B1 – Threshold – (Intermediate)

B2 – Vantage – (Upper-Intermediate)

C – Proficient User:

C1 – Effective Operational Proficiency – (Advanced)

C2 – Mastery – (Proficiency).

During the first year they mostly achieved the level A2, by the end of the second year almost all students approached the level B1. Despite the fact the teaching and learning in multi-level class is very difficult and non-productive, we can distinguish the following advantages of multi-level classrooms:

- students are able to learn at their own pace;
- students learn to work well in a group;
- students become independent learners;

- students develop strong relationships with their peers;
- students become partners in learning.

Discussion

All classes are mixed ability to one extent or another. In such cases it's very important to remember that all students will get something out of the class, but not necessarily the same things, and not necessarily what you aim to teach them. For example, the beginners may start to get a grasp of your classroom language while the stronger students may begin to be able to put a new tense into use.

Adapting materials for mixed ability classes can take different forms. One way is to rewrite reading texts and classify the language tasks accordingly for different levels. But it is practically unreal because of the lack of time; a teacher does not have the necessary time to prepare for their classes. This sort of adaptation is extremely time consuming and very dangerous. When you give out different texts to different students, they will instantly realize that they have been labeled as a weak or strong student and, in the case of the weaker students, this will no doubt effect their motivation [5].

When faced with the challenge of a multi-level classroom many teachers do not know where to start. They fear that the preparation will take much longer, and that the students will be more demanding. However, when you compare all the advantages and disadvantages of the multi-level classroom, you can find the strength to overcome challenges and achieve success.

The main focus was primarily on the need to improve or practice skills in a foreign language. The classes were mainly practical, i.e., the participants talked with each other, spoke on the proposed topics, made presentations and lectures in a foreign language. In the selection of textbooks, we focused on training materials included in the teaching materials, because the participants did not only improve language competency, but also more broadly acquainted with the methodological techniques of work with audiovisual AIDS, included in educational-methodical complexes.

It should be given the special attention to teaching English in groups of beginners, because before the teacher and students are, in our opinion, a more difficult task than in the groups of continuing education. It is necessary to study the large amount of linguistic material and overcome psychological barriers in the limited number of hours.

One of the paramount importances of positive points when learning English "from scratch" is strong motivation. So, teachers need to maintain constantly the interest of students to a new language. This was chosen interesting and feasible tasks, students were not overloaded with homework, we controlled the process of the material's assimilation and, if necessary, we repeated poor assimilation of the information. Many methodists also recommend "the dosage of the material with immediate consolidation" [1, P. 12]. The dosage of the material and the tempo of its passing were determined by the teacher depending on learning conditions, the number of hours and learning level. With the purpose of increasing the mastering of material's level, it was carried out individual work with bad achievers because those students had worse cognitive ability. You must give them the opportunity to work in pairs with successful students [4].

Results

"The English language belongs to the group of Germanic languages. It contains a large number of words borrowed from the French language. This knowledge can simplify the process of learning the English language for starters? So for

those who know German or French, they will need much less time for learning English" [3, P. 69]. For this purpose we make the parallels in the study of phonetic, lexical and grammatical material, especially we cited the analogy in the study of such topics as, the use of definite and indefinite articles, pronouns, verb-cords, the three main forms of the verb, the infinitive without the particle to after modal verbs, impersonal sentences, etc. Here there is some useful advice for teachers: teach grammar in context; don't try too hard to explain things; incorporate grammar into other activities; teaching grammar can be a tricky business; get out of your comfort zone; don't bore your students to death.

Much attention in the classroom was given to the phonetics and elimination of beginners' common errors, especially in the process of reading and translation of words. The similarity in spelling often leads to errors. Finding the familiar word from the German language the students read it with a German accent, for example: also [alzo] instead of [olsou], so [zo] instead of [sou], Name [na:me] instead of name [neim], was [vas] instead of [wo:z]. Similar pronunciation of words leads to misinterpretation of the true meanings of English words. For example: nine (in English it is the number nine) – nein (in German it means "no"), come (in English it means the infinitive) – kam (in German it means the past form of the verb "to come").

From the first lessons the students faced difficulties in reading and pronunciation. It is advisable to read words and small sentences in chorus with the teacher. The principle of oral advance was well established at the initial stage of learning a foreign language. It turns out that the auditory image, used repeatedly over a short period of communicative units, is so strong that reading the text for the first time, students almost don't make mistakes. There is involuntary binding of the auditory image of the word with its graphic image and it is established the sound-letter connection [8, P. 37].

To improve reading abilities you should use visualization, mostly short stories, games and the Internet resources. Use regular lifestyle reading (or any kind of reading materials at home) and teach vocabulary that can be found in the text – this can be done before or during reading, depending on the task.

The intensive work was carried out at the board. There were active students in the group who always wanted to go to the board, but the teacher also sought to cause the constant rotation of students to the role of activists and all students should act in turn. There are some peculiarities to remember improving speaking skills: keep sentences short and grammatically simple, use exaggerated intonation to hold the student's attention, emphasize key words, limiting the topics talked about to what is familiar to the student, frequently repeat and paraphrase [10].

At the initial stage of learning it is also important to constantly monitor the students' knowledge. Therefore, the teacher's forms of control helped to monitor the degree of students' knowledge of any skill and also revealed the possible gap of individual students.

Conclusion

To sum up, after two years courses we can highlight ten golden rules which have helped both teachers and students to achieve excellent results in teaching English:

1. Include English into every corner of your students' lives.
2. Create in-class strategies that will effectively be used in outside practice.

3. Make your students play an active role in conversation in the class and play a more active role in learning the language outside of your classroom.

4. Show the connection between achievements and desires. They must clearly understand the necessity of learning this or that topic.

5. Relate their lives to the content of the learning information to make it more personalised.

6. Enjoy your job and interest levels will go up with the students.

7. Try to be positive and smile as much as possible. Be energetic, no matter how tired you are. Show emotions.

8. Laugh and get them laughing to create friendly atmosphere that will help to raise student interest.

9. Let students make mistakes and correct them with patience, friendliness and compassion. Always compliment the students.

10. Formulate your explanations and tasks clearly.

It should be noted that the successful teachers training will be carried out only if the teachers' active work at the courses will be combined with the systematic independent work of each person for self-education that should be continuously stimulated, directed and controlled.

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МЕТАФОРИЧЕСКОЕ ПРЕДСТАВЛЕНИЕ МЕТАФОРЫ В ЛИНГВИСТИКЕ

Аннотация

В статье рассматривается феномен употребления метафор в лингвистических текстах, посвященных метафоре. Метафора является естественным средством формирования и вербализации мысли в научном исследовании, она отображает способ осмысления знаний в науке и способ их языковой репрезентации. В лингвистических текстах о метафоре последняя выступает в качестве метаязыка. Метафорическое моделирование концепта Метафора в лингвистических текстах позволяет выявить основные особенности этого метаязыка, определить его функции.

Ключевые слова: метафора, метафорическое моделирование, лингвистика, фрейм, концепт.

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METAPHORICAL REPRESENTATION OF METAPHOR IN LINGUISTICS

Abstract

The article deals with the phenomenon of metaphor use in linguistic texts dedicated to the study of Metaphor. Metaphor is one of the natural means of thought formation and wording in scientific search, it reflects knowledge processing and reasoning, and it is a means of linguistic representation of knowledge in science. In linguistic texts on Metaphor metaphors attain the role of metalanguage. Metaphorical modelling of the concept of Metaphor in linguistic texts helps to study the main peculiarities of this metalanguage and define its functions.

Key words: metaphor, metaphorical modelling, linguistics, frame, concept.

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Introduction

Metaphor is one of the phenomena of language and cognition that does not cease to attract researcher's attention and interest. It is an object of study of philosophy, psychology, logic. Nowadays metaphor is viewed as a means of cognition not only by researchers of the metaphor itself (L.Alexeeva, M.Black, Grady J.E., G.Fauconnier, M.Johnson G.Lackoff, J.Ortega-y-Gasset, Osborn M., Ritchie D., M. Turner, etc.) but also by natural scientists (N.Bohr, W.Heisenberg, etc.). Metaphor is an effective tool in wording new knowledge because it is based on at least two interacting referents that tie together old and new knowledge. L.Alexeeva claims that academic metaphor is an "ideal" tool for creating the scientific model [1]. The paradox about studying metaphor is that one of the ways of explaining its nature and mechanisms is metaphorical [8]. The aim of this paper is to study the peculiarities of the concept of Metaphor as it is represented in academic papers on metaphors and its functions in different spheres of thought and speech.

Method

In the study of peculiarities of metaphorical representation of metaphor along with general scientific methods of analysis, synthesis, generalization and systematization such linguistic methods as contextual analysis and cognitive analysis were used. The study was largely based on metaphorical modelling, which is a specific technique of cognitive analysis. Quantitative analysis was combined with qualitative processing of the data obtained from the study of linguistic material. Typological and descriptive methods helped to generalize, interpret and describe the data. In the course of the research over twenty linguistic texts on metaphors were studied.

Discussion

All modern academic papers considering metaphor explore its mechanisms and describe its functions with the help of natural language. Natural language in its turn makes use of all its instruments including metaphor.

In academic language the process of metaphorization is quite natural because metaphors do not contradict the process of scientific thinking [1]. Moreover in modern science scientific concepts tend to become more abstract [2], and metaphor is a unity that combines both abstractedness and particularity. The role of metaphor to serve as a means of term formation is unquestionable because it reflects deductive, analogous and integrational character of scientific research. As a result, metaphorical terms are open to interpretation which is very important for science.

In the philosophy of language conceptual thinking is inseparable from metaphorical thinking, though there is a discussion on the adequacy of interpretation of people's thought in the terms of cognitive metaphor. Thus, the question of whether people use metaphors when structuring their abstract concepts is discussed in D.Casasanto's paper 'When is a linguistic metaphor a conceptual metaphor?' (2009). In studies of cognitive processes at least two types of metaphors should be distinguished: linguistic and conceptual. According to Casasanto, "linguistic metaphors should be treated as a source of hypotheses about the structure of abstract concepts" [5. p. 143]. Abstract concepts, in their turn, often have the form of conceptual metaphors. That means that conceptual metaphors lie deeper in thought, and their creation or 'extraction' from it is preceded by another process of interpreting and evaluation, which is done in terms of linguistic metaphors. Linguistic metaphors represent equipment for operating with abstract thought.

In linguistic papers the use of metaphors of both types – linguistic and conceptual, is quite common. Moreover, various metaphorical means are widely used in texts that represent the very theory of conceptual metaphor [5, 8]. Linguistic metaphors reveal the essence of authors' thought and help to formulate the main scientific idea, they often play the explanatory role, while conceptual metaphors represent condensed knowledge (old or new), hypothesis or theory. Both linguistic and conceptual metaphors thereby form a

metalanguage that reflects the authors' way of thinking, their scientific ideas and their intentions. The study of this metalanguage would help to uncover the main sources from which linguists borrow the meanings for making their concepts clear to readers.

Results

The analysis of metaphorical contexts allowed us to single out a corpus of metaphors that represent metaphorical models of the concept of Metaphor. The other part of metaphors used in the text was not connected with the description of the concept of Metaphor. Seven metaphorical models form the concept of Metaphor (*Metaphor is Man* – 41%; *Spatial Metaphor* – 19%; *Metaphor is Tool / Device* – 15%; *Metaphor is Product* – 14%; *Metaphor is Law* – 7%; *Metaphor is Decoration* – 4%).

The metaphorical model *Metaphor is Man* is predominant in the texts that were studied. The most representative frame of this model is "Human characteristics"; it reflects Metaphor's Mental Abilities (*Metaphor 'conceives'* [13. P. 22], *'operates actions'* [15. P. 16], *'informs the way we think'* [14. P. 1]), Physical Abilities (it *'strikes the hearer'* [15. P. 4]), Family Relations (*'family of metaphors'* [16. P. 15], *'metaphors and their close cousins, analogies'* [ibid.]), Biological Characteristics (*'dying metaphor'* [13. P. 26]), Working Ability (*'a guide'* [13. P. 24], *'metaphoric expressions may recruit'* [8. P. 7]). Other frames of the model that are less represented in studied texts are "Giving Birth" (*'metaphor generates new meanings'* [16. P. 15]), "Activity" (*'metaphors work'* [11. P. 25]), "Rest" (*'dormant metaphor'* [13. P. 26]), and "Death" (*'dead metaphor'* [16. P. 15]). All the metaphors of this model prove that Metaphor is a highly anthropocentric unit.

The model *Spatial Metaphor* underlies the key terms of Cognitive Theory of Metaphor, it is one of the basic models for the classical theory of conceptual metaphor of G.Lakoff, and the theory of blending and conceptual integration of M.Turner and G.Fauconnier. In this metaphorical model the major part of metaphors is conceptual. The most widely used metaphors are *'metaphorical mapping'* [10. P. 1], *'metaphoric projection'* [10. P. 2], *'metaphorical schemas'* [13. P. 23], *'metaphoric shifting'* [8. P. 14], *'framing'* [7. P. 5], *'metaphoric domain'*, *'four-space model'*, *'input space'*, *'generic space'*, *'blend space'* [8. Pp. 1-36]. Metaphor is also considered as a central element of language and thought (*'metaphor is central to abstract language'* [4. P. 17], *'metaphor reasoning is the very core of what scientists do'*

[4. P. 1], *'metaphor lies at the very heart of creative science'* [4. P. 17].

The metaphorical model *Metaphor is Tool / Device* is used in all texts under study. It describes Metaphor as a transitional phase between old and new knowledge in cognition. The characteristics of this tool are various: it is *'a creative tool'* [3. P. 12], *'a research tool'* [3. P. 21], *'a fundamental language tool'* [4. P. 3], *'a tool of discovery'* [4. P. 16], *'a powerful instrument'* [4. P. 1], etc.

The metaphorical model *Metaphor is Product* is represented only in several texts that were studied. It represents Metaphor as a result or product of cognition. *'Conventional metaphors are products'* [13. P. 13], *'metaphor production'* [13. P. 14], *'distribution of creative metaphors'* [14. P. 3], *'processing of metaphors'* [15. P. 17].

The model *Metaphor is Law* is represented in the article "Metaphors we live by" by G.Lakoff (1980) (47% of all metaphors in the article). The author views Metaphor as a natural trait of language and thought that exercises its power of law over both of them (*'the power of metaphor'*, *'metaphor sanctions actions'*, *'metaphors justify inferences'* [12. Pp. 4-14]. Metaphors can be created as laws (*'to create a metaphor'* [12. P. 19]), and people's life is guided by metaphors as by laws (*'metaphors we live by'* [ibid.]).

The least represented model is *Metaphor is Decoration*. It can be explained by unpopularity in modern linguistics of the concept of metaphor solely as a stylistic device. Metaphor in this model is used mainly as an illustration of former knowledge, of old-fashioned theories of metaphors as rhetorical devices (*'decorative view of metaphor'* [6. P. 7], *'metaphor as a rhetorical flourish'* [6. P. 13]. Thus, the authors of the articles under study used the metaphoric description of metaphors as decoration only in argument with their opponents.

Conclusion

Metaphors in linguistic texts can be used as metalanguage in the process of describing their own nature. The use of this or that metaphorical model in the text depends on the aim of the author: it can be central to the main idea of the text or illustrate the accompanying ideas, it can word some new knowledge (as in Cognitive Theories of G.Lakoff, M.Turner, G.Fauconnier) or show old knowledge (as in W.Gray's article "Metaphor and Meaning" where the old 'ornament metaphor' is opposed to the modern 'conceptual metaphor'). No linguistic text about metaphor that has been studied is free of metalinguistic use of metaphors.

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**ОБУЧЕНИЕ ГРАММАТИКЕ РУССКОГО ЯЗЫКА КАК ИНОСТРАННОГО В РОССИЙСКИХ
 УЧЕБНИКАХ НАЧАЛЬНОГО ЭТАПА (МНЕНИЕ КИТАЙСКОГО ПРЕПОДАВАТЕЛЯ)**

Аннотация

Возросший интерес к изучению русского языка в Китае побуждает интерес китайских преподавателей русского языка к учебно-методическим материалам, созданным российскими коллегами. В первую очередь китайские русисты интересуются национально-ориентированными учебниками. В настоящей статье рассматриваются особенности изложения грамматики в российских учебниках, ориентированных на китайских учащихся, только начинающих изучать русский язык. В данной работе сопоставляются национально-ориентированные учебники «Дорога в Россию» часть I и «Учебник по русскому языку для говорящих по-китайски», популярные национально не ориентированные учебники для начального этапа обучения «Прогресс» и «Русский язык. Учебник для иностранных студентов подготовительных факультетов», рассматривается с точки зрения методики учебное пособие «Методика преподавания русского языка как иностранного в китайской аудитории». Мы большое внимание также уделяем особенностям методики преподавания российскими коллегами русских глаголов, в том числе глаголов движения.

Ключевые слова: методика преподавания, русский язык как иностранный, китайские студенты, начальный этап обучения; национально-ориентированные учебники.

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**TEACHING THE GRAMMAR OF RUSSIAN LANGUAGE AS FOREIGN IN RUSSIAN TEXTBOOKS FOR
 BEGINNERS (OPINION OF THE CHINESE TEACHER)**

Abstract

Increased interest towards studying the Russian language in China evokes the interest of Chinese teachers of the Russian language to educational and methodological materials created by their Russian colleagues. First and foremost, Chinese philologists are interested in nationally oriented textbooks. In this article, we discuss the main features of grammar in Russian textbooks aimed at Chinese students who are just beginning to learn Russian. This paper compares nationally oriented textbooks "Road to Russia" Part I and "Textbook on Russian for the Speakers of Chinese," as well as popular non-nationally oriented textbooks for beginners "Progress" and "Russian Language. Textbook for Foreign Students of Preparatory Faculties." The textbook "Methodology of Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language in a Chinese Classroom" is considered from the point of view of methodology. We also pay great attention to the main features of the methodology of teaching Russian verbs by Russian colleagues, including the verbs of movement.

Keywords: teaching methods, Russian as a foreign language, Chinese students, initial stage of teaching; nationally oriented textbooks.

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Introduction

The political and economic situation throughout the world has changed and determined the growing interest in the Russian language in China. This requires the Chinese teachers of Russian to be attentive to the achievements of their colleagues in Russia, especially in terms of publishing textbooks for Chinese elementary-level students since this level is most in demand in mass education.

The problems of teaching the grammar of the Russian language in the Chinese classroom are widely covered in the Russian special literature. These are, first of all, articles that deal with certain aspects of teaching, mostly phonetics, and also Russian grammar. There are very few Russian textbooks and study guides for Chinese students, however. There is a textbook of the Russian language written by V.E. Antonova, M.M. Nakhabina, M.V. Safronova, A.A. Tolstykh called "Road to Russia" Part I [1] and "Textbook on Russian for the Speakers of Chinese" written by T.M. Balykhina, I.F. Evstigneeva and O.L. Maerova [3].

Method

In this article, we used the method of comparison and examined the features of these educational publications for the purpose of teaching the Russian language in China by Chinese teachers.

Comparison, as a universally applicable method, refers to general scientific methods of research. In fact, it is one of the most common methods in different sciences. The purpose of comparison is to distinguish between two and more objects

(phenomena, ideas, results of research, etc.) of the general and various. On the basis of comparison, a conclusion is made of a justified or supposed character or regularity about the homogeneity of phenomena, ideas, the analogy of their content, general orientation, etc. If, however, some discrepancies are found in the course of the study, this allows us to point out a singularity, specificity and uniqueness of a phenomenon or object in relation to another.

Discussion

The textbook "Road to Russia" Part I is not fully nationally oriented, but it contains many Chinese anthroponyms, there is a recurring character in the textbook, a girl called Van Ling. The same respected authors have created a very important appendix to the book "Grammatical Commentary and a Dictionary for a Textbook for Speakers of the Chinese Language (elementary level)" [2]. The grammatical commentary is accompanied by a translation into Chinese, but there is no comparison of the described grammatical phenomena of the two languages, which usually helps teachers in their work with students. For example, in Chinese, one preposition [dao] corresponds to three different prepositions with the meaning of the direction of movement in Russian (на, в, к). Such a comparison would decrease grammatical difficulties arising from the lessons.

"Textbook on the Russian Language for the Speakers of Chinese: Basic course" was created by well-known authors T.M. Balykhina, I.F. Evstigneeva and O.L. Maerova and is presented as a self-taught book. Therefore, it contains a

Russian-Chinese dictionary and grammatical tables with translation into Russian in the appendix, but all assignments in the textbook are also translated into Chinese, and when the grammatical material is presented in Russian, this information is compared to the same phenomena in Chinese. That is, we perceive this book as a truly nationally oriented textbook. It describes the many realities of the Chinese life. This textbook is very convenient for teaching Chinese students, although there are no comparable grammatical explanations in it, as in the previous one.

The grammatical material in Russian textbooks is presented in accordance with the basic principles of its organization, adopted in the Russian method of teaching Russian as a foreign language: There is a connection between morphology and syntax, an educational material has a complex-concentric organization. After all, knowledge of grammar cannot be applied without the knowledge of vocabulary and proper pronunciation skills.

The basic unit of teaching grammar is a sentence. Speech samples, models and rules are used as presentation methods for teaching grammar in Russian textbooks. The text is used as a material for observation and analysis of using grammatical forms and syntactic constructions.

The grammatical material was selected by the Russian colleagues with regards to the aims and stages of the training in accordance with the communicative attitudes in teaching. In Russian textbooks, practical grammar is included into the system of teaching Russian; it combines both theoretical material and exercises. Such categories of a noun as gender and number, case forms, meanings of cases and means of their expression are studied. In the course of studying the adjective, the categories of gender, number and case are important, the complete and concise form of this part of speech, as well as its degree of comparison. The richness of the Russian language in terms of inflexions prompts the use of the method of sequential introduction of grammatical material by the Russian language teachers to ensure gradual assimilation of grammatical forms by students, especially Chinese students since Chinese is not inflectional. We have already described the difference between Chinese and Russian in more detail [10, P. 69].

Russian textbooks consider such categories of the verb as a person, time, general and particular temporal meanings of verbal forms, as well as various ways of designating time in the Russian language. Creators of educational materials pay attention to such a complex category as the verb aspects. Typically, a specific opposition is considered. Types of aspects use are worked out in exercises. At the initial stage of learning, forms of the imperative and subjunctive mood are also included into teaching materials. Students learn various means of expressing motivation, obligation, possibility and impossibility, probability and improbability in the Russian language. Verbs of movement (both unidirectional and multidirectional) are described in detail, including the use of verbs with prefixes in direct meaning. As for pronouns, the creators of textbooks pay attention to personal, possessive, demonstrative, relative and interrogative pronouns.

Teaching grammar is usually accompanied by the use of visual learning tools: Tables, diagrams, drawings and even photographs.

"Textbook on the Russian Language for the Speakers of Chinese" written by T.M. Balykhina, I.F. Evstigneeva and O.L. Maerova contains 20 lessons developed by a respected team of authors, who discuss the problems of phonetics and grammar for Chinese students. It is very important for the book to contain summary grammatical tables. This helps both

students and teachers themselves, who are not native speakers of the Russian language. The presence of the Russian-Chinese dictionary in the textbook is of great help to Chinese students and teachers.

The paradigm of verbs of the first conjugation and the paradigm of verbs of the second conjugation in the forms of the present tense are given in one lesson, which seems very convenient to us because it is possible to show students the comparison of the forms of verbs of different conjugations.

After the explanation of the concept of the subject expressed by a noun in the Nominative case, the authors introduce the forms of the noun in the Genitive case meaning "where something comes from" (*откуда он*) and Prepositional case in the meaning of the place and the Accusative case of both animate and inanimate nouns.

The textbook written by V.E. Antonova, M.M. Nakhabina, M.V. Safronova, A.A. Tolstoy is called "Road to Russia" Part I contains 15 lessons. They are divided into 2 unequal parts. Lessons 1-5 give more attention to the formation of phonetic and graphic skills. Grammar is presented smaller amount. In lessons, 7-14 grammar takes the leading place, in our opinion, although the general structure of the lesson is still preserved (phonetic exercises, dialogues, grammar, exercises of the communicative character, educational text).

The paradigm of verbs of the first conjugation and the paradigm of verbs of the second conjugation in the forms of the present tense are given in different lessons, which is not entirely convenient for students, to our mind, because there is no comparison of forms that would help them to comprehend the main features of these two paradigms.

After the explanation of the concept of the subject expressed by a noun in the Nominative case, the authors introduce the Prepositional case of nouns in the meaning of the place, then the Accusative case of nouns in the meaning of the direct object, and the Accusative case is introduced to express the direction of movement. It seems difficult to us as one lesson contains the forms of the Accusative case of animate and inanimate nouns simultaneously.

At the same time, the explanation of the Dative case in the textbook is divided into two lessons: Lesson 11 contains Dative forms in the sense of the direction of movement to a person, and lesson 13 contains a noun and pronoun forms in the meaning of the addressee, age and logical subject in constructions with words *надо*, *нужно* (you need) as well *кому нравится что* (who likes what).

Each fragment of the grammar system is worked out in separate lessons with the help of drawings. At the initial stage of training, this facilitates the understanding of grammatical material greatly. However, in lesson 8 we see the drawing of the wardrobe in Exercise 24, where you have to ask where the objects are, right after the explanation of the Prepositional case of nouns used in the meaning of the place. Students should say that the coat is hanging in the wardrobe (*в шкафу*), and the clock is in the wardrobe (*на шкафу*), but during grammar explanation there are no examples of the forms of nouns ending in -y, like *в лесу* (in the forest), *на берегу* (on the beach), *на полу* (on the floor), etc. This omission puts the teacher and student doing the exercise in a predicament.

And yet, it is very important to us that the training materials in question are created by the native speakers of the Russian language, and this is crucial for us in the selection of teaching materials in the study of the Russian language in China.

The textbook “Methodology of Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language in a Chinese Classroom” created by Russian colleagues L.G. Zolotikh, M.L. Laptevoy, M.S. Kunusova, T.K. Bardeen [4] is of particular interest to Chinese teachers of Russian. This book gives us an idea of how the native speakers of the Russian language imagine the system of teaching Russian to our students. We can see the difference in the methods of teaching adopted in our and in Russian institutions of higher education. The section “Formation of Grammatical Skills” is of particular importance for us.

As for Russian textbooks non-oriented towards Chinese students at the initial stage of learning Russian as a foreign language, two publications are of interest to us. One textbook is used by Moscow teachers in the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia. It is called “Progress” and is recommended by the Coordinating Council of the centres of pre-university training of foreign citizens of the Ministry of Education and Science of the Russian Federation as a textbook for teaching the Russian language as foreign at the initial stage [8]. This textbook is a part of the educational complex of teaching the Russian language as a foreign language. It ensures the formation of communicative competence in the volume of the Educational Program for Russian as foreign and the State Standard of Elementary Level. The textbook is designed for 120 classroom hours and includes 18 lessons, including an introductory and phonetic course. At the end of the book, there is a dictionary in several languages, including Russian-Chinese.

We studied the part called “Practical Grammar” of this educational complex (Elementary level). The textbook first introduces the Accusative case of inanimate nouns, then the Prepositional case in the meaning of the place, then the Genitive case in the constructions “*Укого есть*” (“Who has”). This topic also contains an exercise with numerals, but they are not presented in the grammatical explanation, which creates some difficulties for the Chinese students. The Accusative case of animate nouns appears only in lesson 10.

The paradigm of verbs of the first conjugation and the paradigm of verbs of the second conjugation in the forms of the present tense are given in different lessons, just like in the textbook “Road to Russia.” These paradigms are not compared.

The second textbook of the Russian language is used in the universities of St. Petersburg. It was written by the teachers of St. Petersburg State University L.V. Moskovkin and L.V. Silvina [5]. This textbook is designed to work at preparatory faculties and departments of Russian universities under the guidance of a teacher. The course contains 40 lessons, 8 of which are control lessons. It takes about 500-540 hours of classroom time. We are interested in this book because some Chinese students at the initial stage in many Russian universities use it. However, this textbook is not nationally oriented and is intended for training in the Russian language environment with the Russian teacher, which, despite the popularity of this publication, creates certain difficulties for Chinese teachers who want to work with an authentic textbook.

The educational material is selected by reputable authors in accordance with the recommendations of the program of teaching Russian to foreign students at preparatory faculties and corresponds to the State Educational Standard for Russian as a foreign language of the 1st certification level.

The textbook by L.V. Moskovkin and L.V. Silvina contains communicative and language exercises that allow students to form communicative skills in oral speech, reading

and writing skills, on the one hand, and knowledge of the Russian language system, on the other hand. The system of multistage repetition and generalization of the learned grammatical material also contributes to strengthening linguistic knowledge.

Almost all grammatical material is intended for active learning in the first twenty lessons, which is due to the leading role of oral speech at the initial stages of learning. In the next twenty lessons, about half the volume of the grammatical material should be activated in the students' speech and the rest of the material is intended for passive learning, which is associated with the increased role of the student and introductory reading in the second semester.

The paradigm of verbs of the first conjugation and the paradigm of verbs of the second conjugation in the forms of the present tense are given in different lessons, as in many other Russian textbooks.

The Accusative case of inanimate nouns is given in one lesson, while the Accusative case of animate nouns is explained in another lesson, which is separated from the first one by several more case forms. We consider this presentation of grammatical material to be successful because in that case, students do not confuse different forms of the Accusative case of nouns. Students have time to comprehend such a difficult grammatical category as the Accusative case and the teacher has an opportunity to work these forms out successively in each subsequent lesson.

The system of nouns declension in the textbook is taught through the meaning of cases. This system is presented on a syntactic basis because in Russian there is a kind of subordinate connection called “governing.” Therefore, when studying grammar, teachers of the Russian language as foreign present the main verbs that govern the case form in question. In this textbook, each lesson contains lists of verbs, which are used with the corresponding case form with examples of their use in phrases and sentences. After that, the authors give students an opportunity to practice their knowledge in exercises. Verbal word-combinations are repeated many times, which allows students to remember these forms well and to learn their use. This is very important for Chinese students, because in our teaching system memorization is very developed. Students in China perform a lot of written work, so the presence of a large number of grammatical exercises in the book on the Russian language is the merit of such a publication for our students.

Results

Despite the presence of textbooks on the Russian language for Chinese students, and for all foreign students all of them have their own characteristic in terms of their objectives, the number of lessons, general compositional design, the arrangement of grammatical materials and the content and form of exercises. In this article, the comparison was made between the textbook “Road to Russia” Part I, “Russian Language Textbook for Chinese Speakers: Basic Course,” the “Progress” and “Russian Language. Textbook for Foreign Students of Preparatory Faculties” with regard to the number of lessons, content and construction of grammatical commentaries and dictionaries in the textbook, the content and arrangement of grammatical materials, including Paradigms of verbs of the first conjugation and verbs of the second conjugation in the forms of the present tense, different cases of nouns, etc., visual training aids, levels and ways of borrowings for regional studies and national culture, etc., pros and cons of various textbooks are considered. Each of them is oriented to a particular learning area. We offer our point of view concerning these textbooks.

We have also considered the textbook “Methods of Teaching Russian as a Foreign Language in a Chinese Classroom.” In this textbook, we can see the difference in the methods teaching adopted in our and in Russian institutions of higher education.

Conclusion

The main textbook of the Russian language used in Chinese universities is a four-part book, “Basic Course of the Russian Language” published in the late 1990s and later reprinted. Its respected author is Tung Qiang [9], but we would also like to use authentic materials of contemporary

Russian colleagues in our work when teaching Russian grammar. Our young scientist Li Ming wrote an article about the problems of adapting Russian textbooks on Russian as a foreign language for Chinese students in higher education [6].

We hope that Russian teachers and scholars, together with Chinese philologists, will create new teaching materials for teaching the grammar of modern Russian as a foreign language, which will focus on teaching Chinese students and will take into account the main features of Chinese perception of the Russian language and Russian culture [7].

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