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CONTENTS

LINGUISTICS

Alyunina Yu.M., Mitchell P.J. SEMANTICS TRANSFORMATION IN ANGLO-AMERICAN LOANWORDS IN THE MODERN RUSSIAN LANGUAGE ................................................................. 4

Bubnova N.V. THE SMOLENSK REGION ONYM IN THE BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE OF MOSCOW STUDENTSHIP (BASED ON THE ASSOCIATIVE EXPERIMENT) ........................................................................ 11

Gajda R. THE PHENOMENON OF TRANSLATION CLOUD .................................................................................................................. 31

Khvesko T.V., Basueva N.Yu. GENERALIZED MEANING OF GRAMMATICAL MODEL IN SPEECH ........................................................................... 39

Kuchesheva I.L. LINGUOCULTUROLOGICAL FEATURES OF ANCIENT MYTHONYMS (BASED ON ENGLISH AND GERMAN LANGUAGES) ................... 46

Leontovich O.A. RETRANSLATION OF HUMOUR AS A POSITIVE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGY ............................................................. 53

Pastukhov A.G. MEDIA TEXTS: MAIN STRUCTURES AND VALUES FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION ...................... 65

Rogozhkin S.E., Mitchell P.J. SPECIFICS OF ACADEMIC TEXT TRANSLATION STRATEGY ......................................................................................... 75

Sergeeva N.N., Bazueva A.N. CLASSIFICATION OF WRITTEN TRANSLATION SKILLS FOR ENGLISH LEGAL DISCOURSE ........................................ 83

Sharifullin B.Ya. “HEY, WHAT’S YOUR NAME?”: ANTHROPONYMICS IN THE LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE WORLD OF JIM MORRISON ....................... 90

THEORY AND METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Millrood R.P. CULTURAL IDENTITY AS A PROBLEM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY ................................................................................................. 101

Sysoyev P.V. FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TRAINING IN THE SYSTEM OF CONTINUING EDUCATION ................................................................... 108
SEMANTICS TRANSFORMATION IN ANGLO-AMERICAN LOANWORDS IN THE MODERN RUSSIAN LANGUAGE

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Abstract. This paper presents the result of a research made on the material of modern Anglo-American loanwords and their semantic transformation in Russian. The analyzed units were classified into four groups in Russian as a recipient language (Literal meaning, Changed meaning, Nominations, Homonyms), which distinguish the typology of loanwords. As the analysis shows, the change in semantics, if any, indicates not only a change of meaning and a change of functional potential, but also gaps in the language-cultural view of the target-language world. Therefore, loanwords may be viewed as fillers of the view, broadening the conceptual and lexical paradigm and the linguistic structure of the recipient language.

Keywords: Anglo-American loanwords; semantics; Russian language.

Introduction

Language as a self-developing system [1] is constantly enriched by new lexical units, which can be formed either inside the linguistic system with its structural units (neologisms, nonce words and potential words) or come from other linguistic systems and are accepted by the society and, as a consequence, by the language of specific socio-cultural concepts (loanwords).

Nowadays the issue of language interpenetration and inter-enrichment is a current area of investigation in modern linguistics marked with a range of studies, where attention is drawn to different types of lexis that become loaned. For instance, V.A. Mytyashina analyzes semiotic and functions of English lexical units typical for German automobile companies German and Russian Internet-sites versions. Y.V. Krilov studies barbarians and so called pseudoloan words and their specifics in advertisement Russian language discourse on the material of widely known brands “nominatives” («нominативов» [2: 84]).
Classifications

In our paper we should mention the work by K.A. Balysheva with the most analyzed typology of lexical loans [3]. The classification shown in the study presents the sequence of stages and their assimilation with the recipient language. The words assimilated in the first stage are used to name loan concepts. Here the law of speech resource economy works: to name a new concept or an object we use the most concrete and precise expression (“billboard, dress-code, casting, reality show, reception, talk-show, fast-food” etc. - «билборд, дресс-код, кастинг, реалити-шоу, ресепшн, ток-шоу, фаст-фуд» [Ibid.: 69]). The second stage of assimilation by a recipient language differs in terms of a more complicated word-formation structure of loan units, which leads to the word semantics broadening and its emergence in the receptive linguistic structure. The most productive derivation type is suffixation (“brand, VIP, glamour, distribution <…> image making, corporativity, creativity, speechwriting, <…>, monitoring, PR (with the meaning “to promote”), to promote” - «брэ(е)ндовый, виповский (ВИПовский), гламурный, дистрибьюторский <…> имиджмейкерство, корпоративность, креативность, спичрайтерство, <…> мониторировать, мониторить, пиарить, промоутить» [Ibid.: 68-69]). The third assimilation stage is characterized by the development of the connotative field and stylistic variation of Anglo-Americanisms in the Russian language, as far as the morphological structure of these words absorbs the suffixes of subjective evaluation («пиарить, пиариться, пиарный, пиаровец, пиарщик» [Ibid.: 71]). As we can see, many studies are devoted to Anglicisms in the modern lexis of different levels. Among the reasons behind such lexical interpenetration the most obvious one is globalization, which is marked in a range of works and can be seen in the following citations: “nominative trend is determined by innovative processes in globalization” [4: 176], “In the context of globalization and broadening language contacts at the turn of the 19-20th centuries the issue of loan words becomes topical” [3: 68].

All the cited authors take into consideration the functional and semantic aspects of the loanwords, however each suggests his/her own classification of Anglicisms in the Russian language. This demonstrates that the system’s lexical loanwords and linguistic structures are open and dynamic: each vocabulary subgroup has its own typical traits that do not have a common basis. Consequently, the typologies mentioned do not limit the broadening of further possible paradigms with new material.

Methodology

Our study focuses on the change of semantics in lexical units in the Russian language loaned from the English language and used by modern
Russian youth in speech. The research material includes 40 Anglicisms and Anglo-Americanisms from two resources: 1. The work of Russian scholar O.V. Symtseva [5]; 2. Personal observations of the English loanwords used in the modern Russian language.

Despite the above statements about the activity of Anglicisms in linguistic systems which are foreign to the English language, the issue of the term “Anglicism” is still open to some extent. What can we call an Anglicism? Is it a whole loanword or a word formed with the use of originally language-recipient units but on the basis of a loan root morpheme? A Russian scholar of the Siberian linguistic school A.I. Diakov suggests the following definition for the discussed term: this is “all language units taken from the English language structure [6: 74] which are divided into such subgroups as “transliteration, transcription, calque, transformation, transplantation and combination” [Ibid.: 73]. The answer to the question stated in the title of this paper is the suffix added by the word to its structure in the recipient language. If the morpheme is calqued, this should be considered an Anglicism. If the suffix is native for the recipient language, this is a derivation resulting in a derived word with an English root.

In this study we propose our own classification. As already mentioned, this paper demonstrates research on the lexical borrowings most widely used among youth in the Russian language and the borrowings’ semantic changes.

To analyze the semantics of the lexical units we used the English and Russian Internet resources: Dictionary.com [7], Oxford Learner’s Dictionary [8], Cambridge Dictionaries Online [9] and Academic Dictionaries and Encyclopedias [10].

Results

The chosen words and collocations may be allocated to four groups according to their semantics when used in the Russian language:

Literal meaning (Table 1). The words whose definitions in Russian (R.) coincide with all of the English ones: boy-friend («бойфренд» = to R. «парень»), to copy paste (in R. it is a noun «копипаст» which can form a verb by adding a inflection -ить «копипастить»), cupcake («капкейк» = to R. «кекс»), pancake («панкейк» = to R. «блин/оладушек»), discount («дисконт», can form an adjective by adding the suffix -ный «дисконтный», = to R. «скидка»), sale («сэйл» = to R. «скидка»), ok (in R. the letters are the same, so it is difficult to say whether we use the Latin or Cyrillic alphabet – «ок/ОК»), online («онлайн» = to R. «на связи»), price list («прайс-лист» = to R. «цены на товар/услуги»), promoter («промоутер» = to R. «рекламный агент»), provider («провайдер» = to R. «оператор связи»), VIP (frequently used as «VIP-persona»), weekend («уикенд» = to R. «выходные/отдых»), baby
Semantics transformation in anglo-american loanwords

(«бэйби» = to R. «ребёнок» or «детка» in the meaning the Russian youth use it), *bike* («байк» = to R. «мотоцикл»), *chart* («чарт» = to R. «список песен»), *cookie* («куки» = to R. «печенье»), *e-mail* («и-мэйл/мэйл» = to R. «почта/электронная почта»), *fashion* («фэшн» = to R. «мода»), *login* («логин», «зalogиниться» = to R. «имя/имя пользователя», «зарегистрироваться/войти (в систему/в личный кабинет)»), *manager* («менеджер» = to R. «управляющий/заведующий/руководитель (отдела)»), *print* («принт» = to R. «рисунок»), *shopping* («шоппинг» = to R. «поход по магазинам»), *style* («стайл» = to R. «стиль»), *tutor* («тьютор» = to R. «репетитор/классный руководитель»). As we can see, some of these lexical units have Russian equivalents and some of them can be descriptively translated into the Russian language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original unit</th>
<th>Original meaning</th>
<th>Russian spelling and transliteration</th>
<th>Russian meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copy paste</td>
<td>The system supported by most document editing applications and most operating systems that allows you to select a part of the document and then save it in a temporary buffer</td>
<td>Копипаст - kopipast</td>
<td>To copy some text from a computer document and to paste it into another one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cupcake</td>
<td>A small cake, baked in a paper container shaped like a cup and often with icing on top</td>
<td>Капкейк - kapkeik</td>
<td>Equal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original unit</th>
<th>Original meaning</th>
<th>Russian spelling and transliteration</th>
<th>Russian meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hot-dog</td>
<td>1) a hot sausage served in a long bread roll; 2) a person, who performs clever or dangerous tricks while skiing, snowboarding or surfing.</td>
<td>Хот-дог - khot dog</td>
<td>Literal to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Face-control</td>
<td>From “feis kontrol”, a Russian klub colloquialism of the English words “face control”. Your “face” is your level of wealth, beauty, power, social standing, and overall desirability [11]</td>
<td>Фейс контроль - feys kontrol’</td>
<td>Original meaning appeared in Russian but with the use of English phrase</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Changed meaning (Table 2). The words whose definitions in Russian partially coincide with all of the English ones. Here there could be distinguished two subgroups:

(a) Words with more narrow semantics which either can be substituted with Russian lexical units or earlier assimilated borrowings which are not realized as borrowings by native speakers in everyday speech and are commonly understood: *goalkeeper* («голкипер» = to R.
«вороть»), *fast food* («фастфуд» = to R. «нездоровая/вредная еда»), *hamburger* («гамбургер» = to R. «бугерброд»), *hot dog* («хот дог» = to R. «сосиска в тесте»).

(b) Words adopted for use in some particular context in Russian by associations with their original meanings: *face-control* (door security in night clubs), *like* (a social network liking of someone’s post), *party* (an adult party with alcohol), *performance* (a type of a modern art when an actor or a group of actors perform a piece of art), *public* (an Internet page, usually in social nets, to publish news and pictures which are not necessarily united with one idea).


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original unit</th>
<th>Original meaning</th>
<th>Russian spelling and transliteration</th>
<th>Russian meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coffee house</td>
<td>1) a restaurant serving coffee, etc., especially one of a type popular in Britain in the 18th century or one in a city in Central Europe; 2) a restaurant serving coffee, etc. where people go to listen to music, poetry, etc.</td>
<td>Кофе хаус - kofe khaus</td>
<td>A proper noun for a cafe Coffee House [14]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>A country in northern Asia and eastern Europe</td>
<td>Раша - Rasha</td>
<td>A word from TV show name called Nasha Rasha [15]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original unit</th>
<th>Original meaning</th>
<th>Russian spelling and transliteration</th>
<th>Russian meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Look</td>
<td>1) the act of looking; 2) a visual search or examination; 3) the way in which a person or thing appears to the eye or to the mind; aspect; 4) an expressive glance; 5) looks: a) general aspect; appearance; b) attractive, pleasing appearance</td>
<td>Лук - lyk</td>
<td>Equal to 5. Bow. Onion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boss</td>
<td>1) a person who is in charge of other people at work and tells them what to do; 2) (informal) a person who is in charge of a large organization</td>
<td>Босс - boss</td>
<td>Equal to 1 and 2. Chef (office jargon). Criminal lord (prison jargon)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Homonyms (Table 4). Words with homonyms are lexical units, which have homophones in Russian and can cause misunderstanding. Such words
Semantics transformation in anglo-american loanwords

are usually used by youth and need to be explained or clarified for elder
generation: look (лук - 1. youth slang, meaning appearance, clothing and
hair style; 2. singular for Russian onion; 3 singular for Russian bow), boss
(1. office jargon, meaning the head of a company or men of weight; 2. prison
jargon of Soviet Union, meaning that a criminal was sentenced by Soviet

Conclusion

As we can see, most of the analyzed words are placed in the first
group with Literal meaning, which signifies that a recipient language and
culture accept not only a word but also the concept despite the purpose
linguistic system has original equivalents or equivalent phrases for the
loaned lexical constructions.

Some of the grouped words can be allocated into two or more
subgroups simultaneously. Some words or phrases borrowed from English
substitute earlier borrowed lexical units and collocations to make their oral
or written expression shorter and more precise semantically. For example,
“promoter” substitutes «рекламный агент» which consists of the French
words “réclame” and Latin “agens”. However, loaned words in Russian, as
in any other recipient language, cannot be divided into their constituents. In
a recipient language, they perform a single unit semantically and structurally.

To sum up, loans appear in a language to fulfill conceptual lacunas in
the linguistic picture of the recipient language speakers and enrich both their
verbal and material culture.

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THE SMOLENSK REGION ONYM
IN THE BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE
OF MOSCOW STUDENTSHIP
(BASED ON THE ASSOCIATIVE EXPERIMENT)

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Abstract. Studying associative and cultural background of proper nouns became especially topical in early 21st century, in conditions of sweepingly developing globalization, resulting in gradual leveling of national and cultural uniqueness of a language-speaking nation. The other side of the globalist process is an enhanced feeling of ethnic, national and cultural distinctiveness, as any proper noun is adapted to such reflection by its own nature of a unique denomination of a single object. Any name accumulates in its content a large volume of historical and cultural information, and, thus, it is one of the basic units in the background knowledge of the cultural heritage, maintaining a link betwixt generations within an ethnocultural community. Nationwide cultural space (in particular, national onomasticon) is formed by an aggregate of regional subsystems; in this connection, studying and description of a regional material facilitate further structuring and description of the national material. The Smolensk land holds a special place in the nationwide cultural space. Its millennium-long history is represented by the names of outstanding people and reflected in the names of numerous architectural and cultural memorials, being the national heritage of Russia. In this regard, studying associative and cultural background of the Smolensk region toponym will considerably enrich linguistic and culturological explorations. We used a large-scale associative experiment as a basic method to detect associative and cultural background of the capital regional onym of Smolensk. This article presents results of one of the experiment’s stages attended by 826 students of various universities of Moscow. Generally, according to the experiment results, reactions of the respondents quite fully and exactly reflect linguistic-cultural realia related to the Smolensk region toponym. The obtained results indicate that the considerable part of Smolensk regional background knowledge (in particular, onomastical ones) is associated with the nationwide level, thus forming a significant part of national cultural space. The described approach to detect and analyze associative and cultural background of capital regional onyms can be used by researches in other regions of Russia.

Keywords: associative and cultural background; associative experiment; proper noun (onym); background knowledge; linguistic personality.

Introduction

Creators of the culture-oriented linguistics word theory (E.M. Vereshchagin, V.G. Kostomarov, Yu.E. Prokhorov, G.D. Tomakhin, etc.) actively
N.V. Bubnova
devolved the question of the cultural semantics involved in the content of the proper noun in the second half of the 20th century. Therefore, G.D. Tomakhin emphasized, “Onomastic lexis possesses the lofty national and cultural markedness. Any toponym and anthroponym in linguistic and cultural spheres are perceived against the background of the determined associations based on certain features of the object denominated by them. More than that, the background knowledge being held by speakers of the certain language and culture materially differ not only in volume, but also in the form of their existence. Thuswise, during the culture-oriented linguistic exploring of lexis it’s necessary to take into account not only all meanings of a word fixed in dictionaries, but also its associations in the background knowledge of native speakers” [1: 115].

In the modern linguistics, exploring the proper noun as a ‘cultural sign’ is one of the most perspective directions of onomastic research. As E.Yu. Voyakina noted, “The proper nouns contain information about the country’s history, religious preferences, culture and the mentality of the people. Onyms carry out the cumulative function of accumulation, preservation and transmission of knowledge from one generation to another, being supports in communication. The capability of the proper nouns to acquire optional meanings, connotations, to accumulate associative, figurative and emotional elements under the influence of linguistic and extra linguistic factors stipulate their heightened claim that indurates in the distinction of information contained in the initiate semantics of the proper nouns” [2: 35]. The particular significance and claim of exploration of multiplane national and cultural information in the contents of onym was aggrandized in the beginning of the 21st century against the background of fast-moving globalization (especially, mental globalization that its processes develop more intensively), which is mentioned in the investigation summary.

The regional direction is a highly essential topic in the present-day native onomastic investigations. It is reflected in proceedings of noted linguists such as A.K. Matveev, E.L. Berezovich, M.V. Golomidova, M.E. Rut, N.A. Maximchuk and other scientists. Investigations in the regional onomastics are not only protuberant to describe unique onomastic space of certain regions and their historical and cultural peculiar features, but also to objectively describe nationwide onomastic rolls.

Methodology

We have been exploring the associative and cultural background of the Smolensk region toponym for 10 years. According to the associative and cultural background, following N.A. Maximchuk, we comprehend this as “all attendant information that is not the part of the immediate content of the onym. At the same time, the “cultural component indicating the background
knowledge accompanying the proper noun primarily bears the culturologically peculiar feature (in this case culture is realized in a large sense). *Associative* component indicates the main path to forming, extending and discovering new background knowledge” [3: 166], that is the associative experiment.

A large-scale association experiment is the main method of our study. N.V. Ufimtseva identifies four benefits of the research material revealed by this experiment: 1) the correlation of associative reactions semantic structure of the vocabulary of language structure; 2) due to the associative reaction proper determining language syntagmatic bonds words; 3) the ability to judge by the associative reactions about the “rules” of the joint use of words in speech; 4) obtaining results of association studies specific to the culture and language of “associative profile” images of consciousness, integrating a mental and sensory knowledge, which a certain ethnic group has [4: 181].

When using the method of associative experiment to describe the associative and cultural background onomastic units it is important that the selection in the vast area of the stereotypical association experiment provides basis-typicality of talk about a certain set of associations for native speakers and their individual groups. The phenomenon of typical reactions (not only in the formal language, but also in the aspect of content) allows us to define, share structure and content of the associative and cultural background of any language units.

The experiment has been conducted by us at the regional (Smolensk) and national level. The main results obtained in the course of the experiment at the regional level characterizing the features of the associative and cultural background toponym the Smolensk region in the perception of the respondents, are described in detail in our dissertation research [5] and the monograph [6].

In this phase of the work, we are exploring the content of the Smolensk region toponym and “the Smolensk component” of the background knowledge generally on the nationwide level. In the beginning of the research, we elucidated how the Smolensk region is described in the lexicographical and culture-oriented linguistic sources and in the Russian National Corpus [7]. Afterwards, we offered the Smolensk region toponym as a motivation for Moscow and Saint Petersburg respondents to compare in what degree the composition of the background knowledge of Smolensk formulated by various sources coincides with the feasible composition of the background knowledge of the nationwide language person. Nowadays, 1602 respondents have participated in the experiment: 826 students of Moscow and 776 students of Saint Petersburg higher education institutions.

**Research results and analysis**

In this work we place the emphasis on the description of results of the experiment that was conducted with the Moscow students. The number of ex-
periment students of each higher education institution in the descending order was as follows: Moscow State University of design and technologies (234); Moscow state technical university named after N.E. Bauman (174); Moscow Regional State University (172); Russian State University for the Humanities (137); Military University of the Defense Ministry of the Russian Federation (62); The Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration (29); Pushkin State Russian Language Institute (18).

At the beginning of the experiment, respondents were offered to fill in anonymous questionnaires highlighting the following characteristics: gender, age, academic curriculum vitae, birthplace (Moscow/Saint Petersburg or other city/township), education (secondary education/post-secondary education/higher education), future professional sphere (humanitarian/technical), native language(s). After the questionnaires were filled in, probationers were offered to write reactions for the Smolensk region motivation during one minute.

Acquired associative material was processed via creation of Electronic Data Base in Microsoft Office Access involving 1140 types of reactions (3101 use). Among the most common reactions (frequency index is ≥10) is 42 (relevant frequency index is for each reaction; here and further the graphic layout of the respondents’ answers is absolutely observed): Smolensk (136); city (107); resin (84); village (82); war, hero-city (67 for each one); Russia (56); province (48); history (47); district (43); forests (41); the Great Patriotic War (34); fields (31); roads (30); the Ancient Russia (25); Kremlin (24); war of 1812, village (22 for each one); the Dnieper river (21); village, nature (20 for each one); people (19); the Smolensk battle (18); the Smolensk region (17); Do You Remember The Roads Of Smolensk region, Alexey? (16); battle, boundary, fortress, the Smolensk road (15 for each one); far, the Ancient Russia, churches (13 for each one); Napoleon, cathedral (12 for each one); hick, river, church (11 for each one); city of Russia, mud, earth, the Smolensk war, verse (10 for each one).

As the result of the analysis of the most common reactions associated by students of Moscow academies with the Smolensk region motivation, we have conducted following observations:

1. The most common reaction is the Smolensk onym. To our mind, this is not only the characteristic of administrative and geographical relations that are identified in the perception of the respondents, but also close connection of the center and the whole region. In this unity of the center and periphery the unicity of small province areas contrasted with the dissociation of the capital and its huge areas is shown here (Moscovites are used to sneer at this: Is there life behind the Moscow Beltway?). The close co-relation of Smolensk and the whole area of Smolensk region in conceptions of the respondents explain to us that a part of reactions for the determined motivations intersects another one. Thus, reactions for city, hero-city, and city of Russia definitions are reactions for the Smolensk motivation, and region, the
Smolensk region, earth - for the Smolensk region motivation. The reaction for hero-city should be especially underlined in which the second component of the lexical token holds the great meaning. By the 40th anniversary of the victory in the Great Patriotic War on May, 6 1985 the Supreme Soviet of the USSR issued the order: “Hero-city honorary title and the Gold Star medal must be awarded to Smolensk for the courage, firmness, mass heroism, and efforts that were displayed by the Smolensk people in the fight against the Nazi invaders during the Great Patriotic War” [8: 426].

2. A group of the most common reactions such as village, province, small town and also forest, field, river, nature characterize the Smolensk region as a province and reflects its opposition to the metropolis according to the determined features in the realization of Moscow students. Regarding this, reaction for far is extremely revealing here, it might be called arguable, because the distance from Smolensk to Moscow is 393 km. At the same time, for instance, the distance from the metropolis to the farther area of Greater Moscow Area called “Serebryanie Prudy” is 160 km. Reactions characterizing nature matters place the emphasis on “the province feature” of the Smolensk region and reflect the stereotyped and associative connection of the province (village) and nature.

We can separately emphasize the most common reaction, which is hick, whose origination for the Smolensk region motivation is explained by the formal sound similarity. However, in the view of linguistics these accordant words have an absolutely different interpretation. In this case, during the research we initially were guided by the opinion of Z.A. Potikha, according to which the present suffix -schin-(yyn) in the composition of the Smolensk region toponym characterizes “the formation of the proper nouns with the place meaning”. The features of nouns formed by means of the same suffix do not extend to them. These proper nouns generally mean everyday occurrence, ideological passages with the trace of the negative attitude to them (barschchina (corvee) and so on)” [9: 231]. To note parenthetically, in a classification of all acquired reactions in the view of their informative value (the classification is illustrated below) the group of formal reactions based on the sound similarity with the motivation has been outlined by us as a separate substantive group; Potikha’s comment spreads to the whole group of such reactions.

3. The resin reaction characterizes the etymology of the Smolensk lands’ names that is shown in the inward form of the Smolensk toponym that was noticed by the probationers. In the meantime, there are several versions of the city name origination. Replies of the respondents have something in common with Farmer’s version. In his largest etymologic dictionary the origination of the Smolnya hydronym and the name of the city are recorded [10: 690].

In the opinion of O.N. Trubachev, the name of the city descended from the verb smoliti with the meaning ‘to clear forest with aid of fire’, ‘to
burn forest down’. It also descended from the ancient form and the meaning of the verbal root *smol-, *smoliti- [9: 105]. At the same time, not only the attitude to the forest is expressed in the name of Smolensk people. The necessary connection with agriculture is also reflected here because in other words *smolēne are the Slavs who retook the tilled field of the forest [11: 105].

Several research findings (beginning from the noted Smolensk historian of the 19th century, S.P. Pisarev), whose points of view we share, consider that Smolensk as a center of Krivich [12: 12] tribes was named according to the denomination of the particular Slavic tribe Smolyane (Smolene), which settled at the Dnieper hilly bank and gave the name to the city [13: 3]. The demonstration of the independence of these ancient Smolensk people consisted in that fact they did not participate in the calling of the Varangians like, for instance, the Krivich tribes did, to whose composition they belonged [Ibid.: 6]. The toponymists shared the viewpoint of S.P. Pisarev: V.A. Nikonov who gave the linguistic comment of the city name origination - from the name of the inhabitants (that is the tribe): smolyane + -sk suffix [14: 387], and B.A. Makhotin who came to a conclusion that Smolensk is the “city of the Smolensk people” [15: 10].

To note parenthetically, the probationers called *people reaction and it is the most common one. Moreover, at the same time, the respondents singly called only one Smolensk demonym - Smolensk female. The respondents did not call other names of the Smolensk inhabitants such as the Smolensk people, smolyane. In our opinion, in this case we cannot affirm that the probationers meant the Smolensk female. Therefore, in particular, in the analysis of materials of the Russian National Corpus for the purpose of the presence of the Smolensk component in it, we revealed that the Smolensk females were foster-daughters of the Smolniy School of Noble Maidens in Saint Petersburg [16]. What is more, it was also a kind of small arms. Perhaps, one of the motivated bases explains to us the origination of such a reaction.

4. The Russia and the Ancient Russia reactions are evidence of that the Smolensk land is primarily the Russian land in consciousness of the respondents despite the fact that Smolensk land belonged to different states and princedoms in different periods. Since 882 it belonged to the Kievan Rus (the Smolensk princedom was established just in 1054); since 1404 up to 1514 it belonged to the Great Lithuanian princedom, since 1611 up to 1654 it belonged to the Polish Lithuanian Commonwealth. The fact that the present-day young people associate the Smolensk region with the Russian component can be differently interpreted: as ignorance of the Smolensk region’s history by the capital cities students and the simple verification of its administrative and territorial belonging or as the purposeful act of ascribing of the Smolensk land to Russia. In this case, it is complicated to make a monosemantic conclusion but it is worth noting that reactions related to *the Smo-
The Smolensk region onym in the background knowledge

lensk region historical past were nevertheless mentioned by the respondents, for example: Poland, the Polish-Lithuanian Commonwealth.

In the content of the Ancient Rus reaction, apart from the characteristic of the territorial belonging of the Smolensk region, the same as ancient is not less important (the same is reflected in the most common reaction history). Actually, the Smolensk lands have ancient history: the city was built on the ancient trade route named as “from the Varangians to the Greeks” as a city of Krivich tribes’ union. The first mention of Smolensk in the chronicle is referred to 863. At that time, as a chronicler wrote, there was “the great city with great population” [8: 423].

The boundary reaction reflects the frontier location of the Smolensk lands: Velizhskiy district, Ershichskiy district, Krasninskiy district, Monas-tyrshchinskiy district, Rudnyanskiy district, Khislavichskiy district and Shumyachskiy district border on Vitebsk region and Mogilyov region of the Belorussian Republic.

5. A particular group of the most common reactions is formed by reactions that characterize the Smolensk region military history such as war, the Great Patriotic War, the war of 1812, the Smolensk battle, a battle, Napoleon, the Smolensk war. The popularity of reactions of such a thematic connection is well grounded, since the Smolensk history can actually be named as the war history. The fate of Smolensk is reflected in its national titles: the guard city, the shield city, the key city. The respondents’ reactions reflect all main guideposts of the Smolensk military history: Russian-Polish wars: the Smolensk war statement naming just the Russian-Polish war of 1632-1634 requires an extra comment here; the Patriotic War of 1812: on the 16th-17th of August the noted Smolensk battle happened that was the defensive battle of the consolidated Russian army (Armies of M.B. Barclay de Tolly and P.I. Bagration) against Napoleon’s army. It prevented an easy march of French forces to Moscow; the Great Patriotic War of 1941-1945: Smolensk battles continued for 2 months (from July 10 to September 10 of 1941). They resulted in the end of the Nazi offensive on Moscow.

Interestingly, in the content of the nationwide knowledge especially shown in the Russian National Corpus, the quantity of contexts related to the Smolensk military history prevails over the quantity of all the rest of the contexts, which underlines the particular role of the Smolensk earth in the military history of Russia [7, 17, 18].

6. The group of the most common reactions with the general lexical element a road also arouses our interest: a road (roads), the Smolensk road, “Do you remember the Smolensk region roads, Alexey...” (In addition, a rejoicing reaction to this group called as a verse that obviously calls K. Simonov’s text). The Smolensk region roads have significant historical connections. The old Smolensk road was the shortest overland way to Europe for years. Occurrence of such a reaction can be related to the popularity of
B. Okujava’s song named as “On the Smolensk road” which was written in 1960. The Smolensk region proper noun is consistently connected with the decisional text in the content of the background knowledge of Russian linguistic personality “Do you remember the Smolensk region roads, Alexey…” which was written by K. Simonov in 1941. As N.L. Leiderman noted, “the Smolensk region roads” is the trustworthy positive and at the same time significant figure. Once upon a time, Napoleon followed these roads. Afterwards, Hitler tanks left for Moscow on these roads. At the beginning of the Great Patriotic War, 25-years-old Simonov joined the army and became the “Red Star” correspondent. As a military correspondent, he was sent to the west boundary where the main attack of Hitler armies was conducted and saw the tragic beginning of the war”. Actually, being then impressed by the most tragic war months he wrote this text [19: 63].

7. Reactions such as the Dnieper; a church (churches), a cathedral; the Kremlin, a fortress name the fundamental waterway, the highest relic and the main architectural fortification of the Smolensk region conformably. According to the results of the experiment with the respondents, indeed these three proper nouns were the most common (in brackets, the frequency index is determined for each name): the Dnieper (953), the Cathedral Church of the Assumption (725), the Smolensk rampart (695) [6]. Sites named by these onyms are actually a “calling card” of Smolensk.

8. The last most common reaction expressing the negative assessment of the respondents is mud; unfortunately, it reflects the objective condition of the city. However, there is a question where did they get this information from (this question would not arise, if this reaction was not the most common; and we could simply assert that several research participants either were born in Smolensk, or visited these places). In this case, we can conjecture there can be a stereotype of associative link: the Smolensk region is a province. To note parenthetically, during the classification of all acquired material in the result of the experiment, the group of estimating reactions was distinguished as substantive group (the information can be shown below). The quantity of negative reactions in this group exceeds the quantity of positive reactions. The conducted co-relation is 86 to 35 conformably.

Totally, the acquired material (from the described most common reactions to the singular ones) was classified by different fundamentals. At the same time, particularly, in the point of view of cognatic status (cognatic potential), we distinguish generally valid, individual reactions and reactions with the unclear motivational backbone. There is a number of individual reactions such as res 5, a friend 4, a camp 3, relatives 3, a former boyfriend 1, perfect weekend 1 etc. It composes a small percentage of the total quantity of reactions (76 reactions from 1140 ones; 6.6 %) and is an exponent of availability of generally valid informative knowledge about the Smolensk region. Individual reactions are out of the scope of our investigation. There is a
small group of reactions (69 from 1140; 6%) whose motivational backbone of origin is obvious only for the respondents who called such reactions, for instance: Barbie doll, bears going by bicycle, sakura, fugra, spider man, etc. They are also out of the scope of our investigation. All these reactions are presented singularly and characterize the ignorance of informative components of the associative and cultural background of the Smolensk region toponym by their authors.

Among of the valid reactions in the substantial attitude we point the following types out: 1) informative, 2) evaluative, 3) formal, 4) mistaken and 5) “hollow”. We are going to consider the following reactions:

1) INFORMATIVE REACTIONS (825/2671): The absolute majority of reactions (825 from 1140, 72%) are informative ones, c’est-a-dire they reflect the critical components of the associative and cultural background of the explored toponym.

In pointing out the semantic groups of informative associations, we noticed that the composite reactions encompass two and more semes (for instance, the Ancient Rus, the historical city, the Russian city, the historical ancient city of Russia), and we determined their thematic belonging based on the semantic belonging of the first component of the word-group.

Upon the quantitative analysis of the informative reactions, we disclosed the following peculiar features of the obtained associative material:

1) the respondents called reactions-word forms we considered as one reaction indicating the second form, for instance: a village 85 (villages 3 inclusive);

2) single-rooted words and phenomena of the syntactical derivation are considered as one reaction, for instance: mushroom 1 (mushis 1), gloomil 2 (gloomy 1);

3) the proper nouns that call one culture-specific concept but are expressed by various lexical means were considered as different reactions (imagine them as micro groups for demonstrativeness), as a supplementary component of the composite onym enriches its content and testifies to the availability of relevant knowledge of the probationers, for instance: the Assumption Cathedral in Smolensk, the Assumption Cathedral, etc.

Informative reactions can be presented as 25 semantic groups (in order to observe all requirements (genre, volume), we shall consider the first ten groups). In brackets is presented the quantity of forming reactions/quantity of performances as assigned to each semantic group; groups are in the descending order from the total amount to the amount of repeated reactions:

I. Reactions describing the Smolensk region as a province (143/593):

1. Reactions characterizing the Smolensk region as a province 22/214: a village 85 (villages 3 inclusive); a province 48; a big village 22; a habitation 21 (habitations 1 inclusive); backs 9; outskirts 5; circumference 4;
thicket 3; village life, agriculture, silence 2; a depth, by-place, countryside, quietude, provincialism, a provincial town, a rural settlement or hick people (c'est-a-dire, the word describes this phenomena), tranquil peaceful life, tranquilly, easy life schedule, quietly 1.

2. Reactions describing the nature of Smolenshchina 29/155:

2.1. Nature 20; vastitude 8 (vastitudes 3, roomily 1 inclusive); fresh midair 3; picturesque nature 2; midair, splendid natural places, beauty of nature, the sky, sceneries, expanse, freshness, fresh midair, ecology 1.

2.2. Forest 41 (forests 19 inclusive); a tree 14 (trees 5 inclusive); a birch 5 (birches 2, littlebirches 1 inclusive); a fir 3 (firs 1 inclusive); an oak, green grass, brushes, firs, vegetation, cones 1.

2.3. The Dnieper 21; a river 13 (rivers 1; brooks 1 inclusive); a bog 5 (bogs 3 inclusive); a lake 3 (lakes 1 inclusive); the Dvina, the Osma 1.

2. Reactions reflecting the connection with Russian traditional culture 41/108: batter cakes, the Shrovetide, atradition 10 (traditions 1 inclusive); a peasant’s log hut, a samovar 8; handicraft, a trade fair 5 (trade fairs 2 inclusive); abagel 4 (bagels 3 inclusive), a tissue 4 (tissues 1 inclusive); felt boots, a loaf, a cart, national 3; a stove, a spice-cake, a shirt, traceries, folklore 2; a balalaika, a baranka, the Gzhel, an open-air merrymaking, a headband, the Pillsbury dough-boy, a national blacksmith’s shop, straw shoes, national art, a nation, national songs, a custom, the national clothing, a national song, dancing, alkie, fairytales, souvenirs (a plate, a piece of magnet, a bell), round dances and other Russian cultural elements, painted wood article, ditties, a cap with earflaps 1.

4. Reactions characterizing peculiar features of the Smolensk region landscape and agriculture of its inhabitants 35/87:

4.1. A field 31 (fields 13 inclusive); hills 4; grasslands 2; highlands, woodlands, wooden well-fare, a wood line, woods and grasslands, thin forest, a trench, the Smolensk grasslands, a wilderness 1.

4.2. Collective farms 7; a garden 2 (gardens 1 inclusive); an agrarian complex, milkmaids, stockbreeding, an apiary, tillage, a plough, field labor, agronomy, farms, housekeeping 1.

4.2.1. A cow 7 (beef, cows 1 inclusive); animals, a horse (horses), a kitty (cats) 2; domesticated animals, chickens, cattle, a dog 1.

4.2.2. Bears 2; a wolf 1.

5. Reactions describing buildings of the Smolensk region 15/28:

5.1. A house 7 (houses 3 inclusive); ramshackle houses 3; a way of life (small houses), wooden houses, peasant’s log huts, old buildings 2; a village house, small houses, edifices, the Stalin buildings, antique edifices, private houses 1.

5.2. A well 2.

6. Other 1/1: absence of the underground 1.
II. Reactions characterizing the interconnection of the Smolensk region and Smolensk as an administrative center (40/376):


2. Reactions with the city lexical token 35/236: a city 107; the propaganda of the city, something related to the city 1.

   2.1. The hero-city 67; a hero 5; a brave city 1.

   2.2. The Russian city 10; the city in Russia 2.

   2.3. A non-great city 7; a small city 6; a small town; a picturesque small city; not a very big city 1.

2.4. Evaluation of the city by respondents:

   2.4.1. A beautiful city, a beautiful Russian city, a fabulous city, a city in progress 1.

   2.4.2. An unfavorable city, a boring and small city 1.

2.5. The geographic location of the city:

   2.5.1. There is a city hereabouts, a city that is located not so far 1.

   2.5.2. The city located nearby Belorussia; a state boundary city; a boundary city; a through city 1.

2.6. The strategic city, it was often an arguable city 2.

2.7. The city located on seven hills 2.

2.8. The city was named so, because in the ancient time boats were caulked and put afloat there 1.

2.9. A native city 2; a childhood city; the city I am going to travel to 1.

2.10. The city is unknown!; the noted city 1.

2.11. The State emblem of the city 1.

III. Reactions describing the Smolensk military history (96/305):

1. Reactions reflecting the wealth of the military history of the Smolensk land (without pointing out the concrete wars and combat operations) (51/187): a war 70 (wars 3 inclusive); the Smolensk battle 18; a battle 15; a defensive 5; a revolt, an uprising 4; a military event 3 (military developments 1 inclusive), the Smolensk battle 3; a fight 2 (fights 1 inclusive); a blockade, combat actions, a besiege, a battle 2; the conquest of Smolensk, the Smolensk military operation, a subjugation, a name of battle, invasion, furious fighting, militia, guard, battles, participation in wars 1.

   1.1. Guerillas, soldiers 3; veterans 2; troops, heroes 1.

   1.2. Blood 3, a gun 3 (guns 2 inclusive); a tank 3 (tanks 2 inclusive); a battlefield 2; trenches, powder, shooting 1.

   1.3. Heroism 2; combat glory, military glory, a deed 1.

   1.4. An army, the front 2; the Smolensk regiment 1.

   1.5. Artillery (weaponry), weaponry experts, weaponry beauty, weaponry 1.

   1.6. Memory, victory, a scouting force 1.
2. The Smolensk region wars 43/116:
2.1. The Great Patriotic War 1941-45 12/46: the Great Patriotic War
34; 1941 2; 13th division of the national militia (my grand grandfather militated there), the Smolensk battle in the Great Patriotic War, the Great Patriotic War battles, the Smolensk battles in the Great Patriotic War, the city played the most urgent role in the Great Patriotic War, the defense of Smolensk in the Great Patriotic War, the Smolensk battle of 1941, the Solovyev ferry 1.

2.1.1. World War II, the Second World War 1.
2.2. The Patriotic War of 1812 15/54: the war of 1812 22; Napoleon 12; fire 3; 1812, the Smolensk battle of 1812 2; the war of 1812 (the Smolensk battle), the war against Napoleon, a gathering area of Russian troops in the war of 1812, Napoleon fell back beside Smolensk, the siege of Smolensk by Napoleon, the Smolensk battle of 1812, the Smolensk battle in the war of 1812, Frenchmen 1.

2.2.1. Borodino 3.
2.3. The Russo-Polish war of 1632-34 3/12: the Smolensk war 10; the battle against the Poles, the war against Poland 1.
2.4. The Russia-Lithuanian war of 1512-22 1/2: 1514 2.
2.5. World War I of 1914-18 1/1: the First World War 1.
2.6. The Great Northern War 1700-21 1/1: Lewenhaupt’s column 1.
3. The Smolensk land evaluation in the history of the Russian State 1/1: All campaigns in Russia will be terminated nearby Smolensk 1.
4. Other 1/1: missing somewhere in the Smolensk region 1.

IV. Reactions naming sights of the Smolensk region (61/98):
1. Churches and monasteries 30/93: a church 24 (churches 13 inclusive); a cathedral 17 (cathedrals 5 inclusive); a temple 10 (temples 8 inclusive); a monastery 3; cupolas 2; a great number of churches, wooden temples, a lot of temples, a lot of churches, non-great churches, the Smolensk cathedrals, the Ancient Rus churches, churches and temples, small churches 1.

1.1. The Assumption Cathedral of the Holy Mother: the Cathedral Mountain 3; the Holy Assumption Cathedral, the Assumption Cathedral, the Smolensk Cathedral 2; the Cathedral church, the Assumption Cathedral 1.

1.1.1. The Smolensk icon of Odigitriy 7; orthodoxy, the saints 1.
1.2. Other churches and monasteries: the Abramius monastery, the Voznesenskiy monastery, the Smolensk Abramius monastery, the Smolensk church, the Trinity monastery, Michael Archangel’s church 1.

2. Monuments, museums and homesteads 31/105: a monument 10 (monuments 7 inclusive); a museum 4 (museums 1 inclusive); sights 3; homesteads 2; historical monuments 1.

2.1. The Smolensk defensive wall: the Kremlin 24; a fortress 15; the defensive wall, the Smolensk Kremlin 7; the Kremlin of Smolensk, the Smolensk defensive wall 3; the defensive gates (wall), the Smolensk fortress, the
Russian land necklace, the Smolensk fortress, the Old Kremlin, a wall, the watch tower of the Smolensk Kremlin.

2.2. Monuments: the Immortality tumulus; the Heroes’ Parkway of 1812, the eternal light; “the Lions’ house”, the Deer in the park, the Great Patriotic War monument on the road, the Lenin monument, the Tvardovskiy and Tyorkin monument, monuments (to Z. Kosmodemianskaya).

2.3. Museums and homesteads: the Gagarin Museum; beautiful castles, the Great Patriotic War museum, Glinka’s homestead.

V. Reactions-characteristics of Smolensk and the Smolensk region (76/192):

1. The Smolensk region as a historical land: 60/167:
   1.1. Reactions with the history same: 20/72:
      1.1.1. History; Russia’s history; rich history, the Ancient Russia’s history, historical period, a period in Russia’s history, a period of history.
      1.1.2. A historical object, a historical center, a historical site; a historical event (historical events inclusive); historical value; historical (especially, military) events happened in the region, a historical city; Russia’s historical ancient city, historical period, historical term (the rich history), historical time.
      1.1.3. It is historically bound up with Moscow.
   1.2. Reactions with seines such us antiquity/eld/langsyne (olden time): 17/53:
      1.2.1. The Ancient Russia; antiquity; the ancient city; ancient; the Old Russian city.
      1.2.2. The old city; Russian old city; old (eld); one of the oldest cities of Russia, the Old Russia, the old big village; the old splendid city.
      1.2.3. Langsyne (old times); Russian old city; a part of langsyne, the antique city, the antique city with a lot of parks.
   1.3. Reactions describing objects/events of olden time: 18/36:
      1.3.1. Georgics; boyars, a prince, a czar; a rank of a boyar (boyar’s wife), a war boss, Cossacks, the Krivich tribes, merchants (merchandise), Rurikids, the Slavs.
      1.3.2. Epic heroes; an epic hero, the boyar troops, the prince’s armored force.
      1.3.3. A town’s meeting, type of government (feudal), feudalism.
   1.4. Reactions with the lexical token such as a century: 5/6: the Middle Ages; a century, 19th century, 20th century, the beginning of 20th century.
   2. Color associations: 9/15: green (greenery inclusive); yellow, black; blackness (black inclusive); white, green, red, gray, blueness.
   3. Reactions characterizing the perception of the motivation by the size: 2/5: small; big.
   4. Culture-bound items and developments related to the modern history of Smolensk: 3/3: the game “By fire and sword”; a mother of many chil-
dren that is suspected of the high treason; the Nationalist Liberal Democrats political social movement 1.

5. Other features 2/2: new, familiar to Vladimir 1.

VI. Reactions reflecting the Smolensk region belonging to the Russian State in different periods (35 / 121):

1. Motherland 7; a state, a small motherland, patriotism, a country 1.

2. The Russian earth belonging in different historical periods:
   2.1. From the Ancient Russia to the Modern Russia 1.
   2.2. The Ancient Russia 25; the cradle of the Ancient Russia, the roots of the Ancient Russia, the period of the Ancient Russia’s consolidation, Mother Russia 1.

   2.3. The empire, Czarist Russia 1.
   2.4. The Soviet Union, the USSR 1.

   2.5. Russia 56; something is situated in the Russian Federation, the Russian Federation, the RF, a part of Russia, this is in Russia 1.

3. Reactions with the lexical token such as Russian: Russian 2; the Russian province, the Russian woman, the Russian land, Russian, Russian women at the cart, Russian women, the Russian traditions, the Russian, the Russian morale, the Russian nation, the Russian language, the Russian architecture 1.

VII. Reactions with the Smolensk region roads seme (33/119):

1. A road 30 (roads 12 inclusive).

   1.1. “Do you remember the roads of the Smolensk region, Alexey?” 16; a verse 10; Alexey 6; the roads of the Smolensk region, a verse 1.

   1.2. The Smolensk road 15; the Smolensk passage 2; retreat of the enemy on the Smolensk road, the Smolensk road (1812), the Old Smolensk road 1.


2. The characteristics of the Smolensk roads:

   2.1. Horrible roads 6; impassibility of roads 2; no roads, absence of asphalted roads, absence of roads, a road washed out by rain 1.

   2.2. The road to Belorussia, we are moving to Belorussia, the key road to Moscow 1.

   2.3. An earthenware road (an argillic road), a country road, ramifications of roads 1.

3. The Minsk highway 3; 242nd kilometer of the Minsk highway is the pedestal of the Bauman warriors 1.

4. A train 5; trains, a commuter train 2; a railway, a locomotive, a platform, the “Swallow” train, a trip 1.

VIII. Reaction characterizing the Smolensk region geographic location (57/118):

1. The place on Russia’s map 6/11: 67th region, a map 3; geography 2; the region in the central part of Russia (European part) with rich history, Central Russia, the central district 1.
2. The location relative to Moscow 23/48:
   2.1. Far 13; far from Moscow 6; expanse 4 (far, farther 1 inclusive); a far region 2 (far regions 1 inclusive).
   2.2. Nearby 2; nearby Moscow, not far, not far from Moscow, relatively close to the Moscow outskirts, beside Moscow 1.
   2.3. Behind the Moscow Beltway 2; areas behind the Moscow Beltway, not the Moscow Beltway, 400 km from the Moscow Beltway 1.
   2.4. 8-hour route, 400 km, 400 km to the west from Moscow, 6-hour trip to Moscow by train 1.
   2.5. “The Moscow Gates” 2; the Gates of Moscow, the New Moscow, it is not Moscow 1.

3. The frontier location 15/40: a frontier 16 (frontiers 1 inclusive); the West 8; the West of Russia 3; motion to the West 2; close to the frontier, the gates of Russia, the gates, the west direction, the west military district, the first line, the frontier station, the frontier territory, a line, the strategic frontier location 1.

4. The frontier territories 13/19:
   4.1. Belarus, the frontier with Belorussia 3; on the border with Belorussia, nearby Belorussia 2; Belorussia, Belarusians, the nearness to Belorussia, the Minsk direction, on the way to Belorussia, not far from the boundary with Belorussia, in the neighborhood of Belarus 1.
   4.2. Bryansk, nearby Bryansk 1.

IX. Reactions-dominations of the territorial elements of the Smolensk region (15/98): a region 43; the Smolensk region 17; land 10; the principedom 6; the government 5; the Smolensk principedom, a region 3; a district, a territory 2; the principedom of Smolensk, a locality, a site, a district, a borough 1.

X. Reactions characterizing the etymology of the Smolensk toponym (11/94):
   1. Resin 84; resin food; it is apparently generated from the word such as resin; a tool with resin work; a resin maker 1.
   2. Travelers, a path, the path “From the Varangians to the Greeks”, the Smolensk boats, merchants, a trade route 1.

Therefore, according to the semantic relation reactions for the motivation of the Smolensk region compose different groupings, whose composition names and describes quite fully and accurately the historical objects and cultural-bound items related to the Smolensk region. Moreover, the most prevalent repeated reactions (used upward of 300 times) are the semantic groupings that possess: 1) the description of the Smolensk region as a province; 2) the interrelation of Smolensk and the Smolensk region as an administrative center; 3) the description of the Smolensk region military history that is regular and correlates with the composition of the more common reactions mentioned before.
2) ESTIMATIVE REACTIONS (8/120; 7%):
   2.1. The negative evaluation and connotation 56/86: mud 10; brutality 6; coldness (cold 2 inclusive); poorness, idleness 3, etc.
   2.2. The positive evaluation 23/35: goodness 4; beauty, glory, warmth 3; interest, tranquility, coziness 2, etc.

   The composition of this reaction grouping shows us that reactions with negative evaluation prevail in the quantitative relation (in some cases, they are accompanied with the reduced stylistic nuance, for instance: trash, sheeple, a hole, etc.). What is more, in some cases, there is a question about the addressee of the negative reactions (such as ignorance, illiteracy, gai cherie, absence of imagination, etc.): Using this way, the respondents characterize the Smolensk region inhabitants or themselves.

3) FORMAL REACTIONS (41/73; 3.5%):
   3.1. Associations conditioned by the presence of suffixes such as -shchin, -ishch, -in or the sound [sh’] in words with the silent word stem 19/47: hick 11, apathy 8, woman 6; Pugachev’s Rebellion 3; hazing in the military, Zadonskhchina, Seven Boyars, Khovanshchina 2; corvee, boyarhood, bream, filbert, man, a nickname 1.

   3.2.1. Smol 3; Smolnyi 2; the Smolnyi bund, the Smolnik, the Smolnyi Institute, resin (moth) 1.

   3.2.2. Fyodor Smolov 2.

   3.2.3. A hookah, nicotine, cigarette, tobacco, smoke 1.

   Associations based on the assonance with the first element of the proper noun 12/16:

   3.2.2.1. Smol 3; Smolnyi 2; the Smolnyi bund, the Smolnik, the Smolnyi Institute, resin (moth) 1.

   3.2.2.2. Fyodor Smolov 2.

   3.2.2.3. A hookah, nicotine, cigarette, tobacco, smoke 1.

   Associations based on the presence of the sound [sh’] compose a subgrouping of the formal reactions in different word-formative formants or in the stem of the lexical token. Moreover, we must place the emphasis on that the part of such reactions is based on the non-complicated sound similarity with motivation (such as hick, a woman, hazing of the military, etc.). The other part of reactions is based on the sound similarity with motivation and at the same time encompasses multidimensional historic and cultural information. So, for instance: the apathy is a term introduced by N.A. Dobrolyubov in the noted article named as “What is the apathy?” themed on Goncharov’s novel “Oblo mov”; Pugachev’s Rebellion is non-scientific name that was given by historians to the Peasant’s War of 1773-75 under the command of Yemelyan Pugachev; “Zadonskhchina” is the monument of the Old Russian literature at the end of 14th century - 15th century about the victory of Russian troops headed by the great prince of Moskow, Dimitri Ivanovich (Donskoi) and his cousin Vladimir Andreevich over the Mongol-Tartar Yoke under the command of the Golden Horde of Mamay, etc.

   Associations with the word-formative segment smol’-/smol- and reflecting relation to pitching make the second subgrouping of the formal reactions. There is the reaction Fyodor Smolov that denominates a football play-
er, the forward of the “Krasnodar” football club and National Russian Team, an idol of the modern youth.

4) MISTaken REACTIONS (34/47; 2.9%) (the necessary corrections and comments are presented in the right order of reaction mention in the article):

4.1. The geographic location of the Smolensk region 9/15:

4.1.1. The Golden Ring of Russia 6: Smolensk is not the part of the Golden Ring of Russia, but this reaction reflects the high assessment of the Smolensk region history in Russia’s culture.

4.1.2. 500 km 2; 100 km from Moscow; the region that borders on Moscow region on the northwest; the Moscow outskirts, to the north from Moscow 1: as mentioned in the above article, the distance between Smolensk and Moscow by the highway is 393 km.

4.1.3. South, southwest 1: the Smolensk region is located on the west of European part of Russia.

4.1.4. Regional number is 66 1: International car code of the Smolensk region is 67.

4.2. The proper nouns 7/10 (these onyms are not related to the Smolensk region; only the name of K. Minin is indirectly related to the Smolensk region by the Russo-Polish War of 1609-11, and the name of D. Pozharskiy is not absolutely related to the Smolensk earth):

4.2.1. The Kiev highway 2; Moscow-Brest road 1.

4.2.2. The Volga River 2.

4.2.3. Minin and Pozharskiy 1.

4.2.4. St Paul’s Cathedral 1.

4.2.5. The Smolensk citizens 2.

4.3. The honorary title of Smolensk 2/4: the city of military glory 3; the region of the military glory city 1.

4.4. Specifications of the city 3/3: the white city, the wooden city, the Nazi city 1.

4.5. The description of the Smolensk defensive wall 3/3: the white-stone Kremlin, the white Kremlin, the Kremlin of white color 1: the Smolensk defensive wall was made of the red brick; to our opinions, beginnings of such reactions is explained by the fact there is a historical locality in Moscow named as the White City whose construction, like in the case with the Smolensk Kremlin, was headed by Fyodor Kon.

4.6. The description of other non-Smolensk culture-bound items 6/8: mountains 3; a big plane in downtown, medical universities, retention of unstressed “o”, tuffets, heath 1.

4.7. The Smolensk region history 2/2: the Stone Age, the Copper Riot 1.

4.8. Reactions homologating the respondents’ low education level 2/2: wooden stoves (perhaps, the respondents meant wood-fired ovens); a site located nearby the Smolensk outskirts 1.
5) “EMPTY” REACTIONS (15/18; 1.3%): no associations 3; unfamiliarity 2; everything is complicated, I have no idea, an unknown place, strange, unexplored, unknown region for me, uncertainty, incomprehension of goings-on, misunderstanding, no, Okay Google; I have no idea what this word means; what is this? 1.

We have involved reactions reflecting the respondents’ absence of background knowledge related to the Smolensk region motivation in “empty” reactions. The quantity of absolutely empty blanks (the form is filled in only) is 24 units, that is 2.9% of the total number of blanks. Such results show us that the significant part of the Smolensk region background knowledge belongs to the nationwide level composing the part of nationwide cultural space.

Conclusions

1. In view of informative value, the experiment reactions can be related to one of the following types: 1) informative reactions describing the associative cultural background of the Smolensk region motivation and language personalities of the respondents; 2) reactions characterizing only collective vocal portrait of the probationers.

2. We have involved individual reactions and reactions with amorphous motivative backbone and estimative, formal, mistaken and “empty” reactions in the grouping of reactions characterizing the collective vocal portrait of the research participants. The individual reactions can be named as discursive reactions, as they reproduce the total fragment of the respondents’ worldview about the Smolensk region, in whose composition backbone there are emotionally personal significant events and impressions. Reactions with amorphous motivated backbone are determined by the associative links that are topical for the exact linguistic personality and incomprehensible to others. The mistaken and “empty” reactions are indices of the respondents’ ignorance of the associative and cultural background of the Smolensk region proper noun. Anyhow, estimative and formal reactions reflect the respondents’ attitude to the set motivation.

3. According to the informative reactions, those reactions that refer to the Smolensk village of the Irkutsk district do not touch the Smolensk region 9/18: there is an opinion that the name expresses the idea that the occupation of this village was pitching (in the past). The Smoliag lived there, people who were occupied with boiling up resin, and the name of the locality was Smoliaga, then - Smolenshchina. Nevertheless, the historical sources contain information about Mitka Smolenskiy who was exiled to the Irkutsk pit in 1670s. The Smolenskikh winter hut is pictured on S. Remezov’s map. Perhaps, he was Smoliag and established the Smolensk region [20].

More than that, Smolensk objects of Moscow do not territorially belong to the Smolensk region 13/40 (Smolensk square, Smolensk railway sta-
tion, Smolenskaya underground station, etc.) and to Russia as well ("Smolensk" undersea cruiser). Naming of Smolensk objects of Moscow by the respondents explains to us that the participants of this experiment were the Moscow students. Each denomination has its own origination that is microscopically described by us [21]. Generally, the exposure and description of Smolensk objects of other Russian cities facilitates in expanding the geography of Smolensk names and determining the role of the Smolensk region and Russia’s history.

4. The informative reactions to describe the associative and cultural background of the Smolensk region toponym name denominations, objects, culture-bound items and specifications that are related to the Smolensk region anyhow and afford us to reveal the volumetric historical and culturological information that enriches the associative and cultural background of the investigated toponym. Taking into consideration and observing the volume of the publication and requirements to the genre of this editorial, this multidimensional information is not presented in the real piece of research. In the long view, it can find reflection in different anthropic-oriented dictionaries (such as regional, linguoculturological, associative dictionaries).

5. The methods that are presented in this research can be used to disclose and describe the associative and cultural background of other capital regional proper nouns aimed to objectively describe the nationwide onomasticon.

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THE PHENOMENON OF TRANSLATION CLOUD

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Abstract. The text of the article deals with the current translation cloud, paying special attention to its particularity and usage within the work of not only experienced translators but also beginning ones.

Keywords: IT infrastructure; The translation cloud; Specialist texts; Translators.

Introduction

Translating specialist texts just like acquiring foreign languages contributes to breaking down language barriers since scientific and technical universalism clash almost always with the variety of natural languages [1: 272]. Working in Cloud is nowadays an everyday activity of contemporary translators. At present it is used by almost everybody - by mobile phone operators, providers of office packages, even organisers of huge events - and it is often up to them to order the translations, which is why both the beginning and experienced translators reach for the solutions from the cloud computing area. Thanks to working with clients all over the world, they know that to succeed in accomplishing an ambitious translation task it is necessary to have a solid foundation in the form of an efficient IT infrastructure. The key aspects are here reliability, short time to complete the translation assignment and availability of the solutions offered by us - translators.

Analysis

Cloud is the tool which can streamline the work of translator teams. In the contemporary world business requirements change so fast that it results in an extremely dynamic development of various types of applications. We are also witnessing the progressive digitalisation of more and more sectors of the economy. Consequently, it poses new challenges to the IT environment. The solutions found in cloud are becoming more and more popular and our translators’ offer tries to keep up with the next new challenges.

According to the specialist dealing with cloud, one of the greatest advantages of Private Cloud is its flexibility. It provides translators with a vast choice of configuration and enables adjusting the Cloud to our own requirements by configuring separately its individual parameters, i.e. the number of processors, the amount of memory as well as the amount and type of disc
space. The translator is also able to alter the resources allotted at any time and to use precisely such amount of memory and space as is required at the moment by the particular translation assignment. All this offers a great freedom of choice how to scale the efficiency of the application [2].

Cloud comprises the applications and the IT infrastructure that is provided as an Internet service. It supplies the solutions with which the translator has the continuous possibility to adapt the technology and the tools to the current needs.

The term cloud [3: 72] is a metaphor referring to the architecture of the services offered in this way. The calculations do not take place on the user’s computer but are done by many servers located in the servers’ centre of the service provider. It is also on them where the software is installed - the user can see only its interface. The package of services operated on by the user can consist of various services provided by one or several companies which somehow frequently communicate with one another in a certain way. Even more dispersed are the ‘fringes’ of the cloud which comprise the users’ computers on which no data is collected but which simply provide an access to it. If we tried to present such type of connections in a form of graph - indeed, the result would somehow resemble a cloud. The whole Internet could be shown in a similar way.

The concept of making programs and services available in this way is absolutely not new - it goes back to the beginning of the digitalisation era. It was then when all the calculations were made on central units. It was the loading units which were used to feed and read the data, and quite often they were deprived of any computing power. Several years later, in times when PCs became common, it is mostly economical and work organisational considerations that made the users and those who order the services come back to the old model.

However, cloud computing cannot be called in any way an archaic concept - the technology and the ideas it implements in such services are most often the newest achievements of IT… and economical thoughts [4: 137]. Not connected with one another, or sometimes even the companies which compete with one another, process and store their data on the same servers belonging to the same provider of the services. Far smaller staff is needed to run the servers standing in one place, as compared to the situation where each company were to keep its own. The same IT specialist can work alternatively, for example for a courier company, furniture producer and a chain of children toys’ store. All the three companies pay for the possibility to create files but they have to buy neither the hardware nor the software or even employ IT specialists. The client is not even interested where in reality the machines he uses are.

In the world, which more and more relies on technology, services on demand present a new model of creating and providing IT resources. This
model offers the flexibility which is necessary to implement the tasks of difficult to predict workload and to scale and estimate the temporary needs for resources and expenses which could be met by a typical business person interested in using such services.

The terms: cloud, cloud computing or services upon request are so wide that describing them demands juxtaposing them with one another in various categories, and each category is worth at least a brief explanation.

First of all, there is an abundance of offer that can be provided to the user of cloud computing. According to experts in the field the most common is the software and the applications in the form of services (SaaS). They include, among others, such popular applications as commonly used Twitter or LinkedIn, which one neither has to make an effort to install, nor to worry about its versions or updates in order to be able to exercise their benefits. The offer which has the biggest potential to revolutionize the IT departments in companies is the infrastructure as the type of service. IaaS provides the users with the online access to all the available sources in the form of space for storing data and computing power on the servers usually equipped with operation system and the virtual platform to enable the users the virtualization of their application. The virtualization is the basis in cloud for all the infrastructure services which give the access to the numerous virtual applications or virtual machines on which the shared server space can be found [2].

Depending on the company needs, it can benefit from various cloud options in many ways. First of all, it achieves greater scaling ability together with the flexibility which are indispensable in the dynamically changing call for resources. And since the traditional server centre does not handle such options, it can be the infrastructure in the shape of cloud which may come to the rescue enabling the allocation of service space between virtual machines according to the current need. What is more, the user will pay only for the resources he or she has really been using. As far as it concerns another benefit, it is the economy that is mentioned due to the lack of need to invest in the equipment. And because it is the service provider who is responsible for providing and installing the elements of the infrastructure, instead of investing, the user usually pays a monthly service fee out of the operating budget. The third advantage is the improvement of quality and the contents of the application, thanks to the possibility of testing them in a full-scaled environment and the possibility of implementing standardization in the applications according to the needs. All of these ensure certain requirements in the company; for example the ones concerning safety. It is worth noticing that another important feature is limiting the time necessary to create a new application from several days or weeks to just minutes. When the developing platform in cloud is integrated with the services of the infrastructure the developers can use ready-made formulas and tools in order to avoid the need to perform monotonous routines, speeding-up the process of creating the appli-
cation, testing them and bringing out the new ones. Using cloud causes the transfer of the duties connected with the maintenance of the infrastructure to the provider of the service. The resources can be submitted to the user in various modes: from generally accessed virtual space, from the company data centre or from the combination of the above ones [2].

The subject literature holds the opinion that public cloud is a hosted environment which has a shared server and net infrastructure. The users place their applications in the data centre of the cloud provider as a virtual machine. The crucial benefit for the company is the flexibility which features the applications designed for cloud. Configuration of public cloud’s real servers is shared by the users in such a way that the applications of various companies having access to it can work on this particular server. Generally, the access takes place through the Internet or API [5: 60].

Another choice for business resources is an inner cloud. This term refers to both hosted environment and the one created in translators’ own server centre [6: 63]. Hosted from the outside, the cloud makes up such an environment where the physical server and additional equipment are dedicated to one company, which is its user. All the virtual machines on the particular physical server belong to the very same company. The definition of the inner cloud focuses on the resources kept in translators’ own database centre of a company and managed by it with the help of hypervisor, platforms and management software and physical server of high density. Cloud providers can optionally offer also some dedicated services.

The most flexible solution, however, not always possible to implement nowadays due to legal restrictions, is so-called混合 model, i.e. hybrid cloud. In such configuration, a single application can be implemented for various environments. It concerns, for instance, marketing applications, which are hosted in public cloud, a good example of which is the font visible by the user and on the other hand is the processed data stored in the database centre found physically in the cloud of the private company.

Despite continuous improvement of the solutions which are based on the concept of the resources being available on the demand (so called customized service), there still exist certain concerns about the safety, availability and proprietorship rights of data. Since they are becoming more and more commonly accepted as a platform providing applications and services, it is assumed that their position on the market will strengthen.

It is worth noticing that all this undoubtedly brings translators certain benefits, among which special attention should be given to:

- **Good translation** - the system helps to control the quality and coherence of the translated texts and assures the proper circulation of the translated materials within earlier defined verification cycles.

- **Considerable reduction of costs** - an automated function of managing language materials, which are currently updated, identifies the contents
The phenomenon of translation cloud

which have been changed and which were previously accepted. The translator receives directly only the new contents.

- Easy processing and updating - the activities which previously required several hundreds of working hours have been reduced to a few easy tasks. Nowadays managing translation resources, tasks assignment to the approved providers and updating together, with storing the translation memory in cloud, takes place up-to-date round-the-clock on all the days of the week.

- Possibility of scaling - simple price plans within subscription mean that there is no need to claim high expenses in order to buy the software. Due to the cloud system the translator is paid only for the real usage which can be easily modified according to the requirements.

- Serving many subcontractors - based on cloud, the solution enables the access to the assigned tasks and using the translation memory which is being currently updated. Thanks to this solution, translators and editors can cooperate with various branch experts provided by the site who ordered the service in order to ensure the high quality of the translation. It is especially helpful in case of translating IT texts.

- It is very easy to extend the cloud system using non-standard scripts. Its well-documented interface of API programming allows non-standard integration and adjustments to the requirements of the ordering site.

- Flexible operational environment - the flexibility means in this case that the product is still being enriched in new functions. All the users implement the newest version and there are no problems with either the check-up version or costly updates [2].

In recent years, there has been a tendency to combine the benefits and technological possibilities of automatic translation systems with the applications based on translation memory. As Lagoudaki [7: 262] writes the hybrid systems enable offering a translator some solutions right at the moment where the translation memory cannot cope with the problem. Lagoudaki shows the results of research on the users’ (translators’) satisfaction connected with the use of systems based on translation memory and with elements of technology of automatic translation.

An interesting conclusion is the statement that excessive dependence on automatic translation functionality can be disastrous. As we know in case of computer aided translation, it is the translator who makes the final decision and the system provides the supporting function that is especially emphasized by the participants of the discussed survey.

There is a huge interest in the development and the implementation of computer programs, and also in translation cloud. All this can be seen in the fact that a huge amount of money is being invested in contemporary systems supporting translators.
In the opinion of the researcher, the operation of every CAT tool is based on translation memory. It is, to put it simply, a set of pairs of the text excerpts from the source language and their translations. These excerpts are usually sentences or their shorter elements, which are collected in the form of a bilingual corpus - called segments [7: 264].

There are two methods of creating translation memory: during the translation of new documents or with the use of alignment. The first method is connected with placing consecutive new segments during the translation with a CAT tool. It can also be done in the end when the file is cleared. The second option is alignment (called by some “the process of making things parallel”) of archive documents with the help of special programming. In this case the program divides documents into segments and joins them in pairs. Depending on the type of software, this process requires more or less interference on the human side.

According to experts in the field, translation memory is the heart of every CAT. The tools aiding translation derive from the resources of translation memory and prompt the segments collected in them. The user has also the possibility to use context TMs (the function of CATs Concordance) and to search for the translation of particular phrases [2].

The benefits coming out from collecting the resources in the form of translation memory cannot be overestimated. A translator will not have to translate the same contents again and again - he will simply use the previous translation. He or she will surely appreciate the fact that it will be easier to maintain the coherence in the texts translated by him/her as much as the access to the archive data. The translation offices will notice the real economy achieved by the fact that some documents given for translation will be repeated so they will pay only for new contents, not for everything. And what about clients? They gain in the quality of translation and the speed of it. Quite often they will pay less if they are charged according to the analysis of logs-in into the CAT.

The subject literature holds the opinion that the market of translation programmes is still growing - it is probably one of the fastest growing segments of software sales, which we deal with on Inscripte. Equally fast-growing are the services connected with programming, such as: various types of trainings, workshops, webinaries and implementations. You have also to add the multitude of services provided in cloud and we can boldly speak about the translation revolution. Of course, one can ask a question whether this boom is a fad only or not. Is it a necessity to use a CAT in case of translators? Probably, yes and no. Lots of translators have already been using such tools, yet there is a huge group who still hesitate and are not sure whether to use it or not [Ibid.].

Programs aiding translations are exceptionally helpful, first of all, for all agencies. Even now most of them, if they do not require but surely en-
courage their associates to use them. It is a pure profit - thanks to CATs the payment comes only for something what was really translated. Additionally, agencies gain lots of precious translation memories and terminology bases. Therefore, if students of translation studies want to work in the future for a translation agency, the use of CATs is a must for them - sooner or later they will be asked to use it. It does not have to be an unpleasant requirement since both sides will benefit from it - we will sooner accomplish our translation tasks, our translations will be more coherent, we will be in full charge of the number of translated pages and characters and it will be easier for us to deal with various layouts. All these are the results of working with professional CAT.

CATs are irreplaceable during the translations of various type of documents, manuals, contracts and agreements as well as legal codes, leaflets, brochures and diverse types of conventionalized texts, which have fixed nomenclature, a bit limited vocabulary and fixed phrases. It is also a good choice for people translating scientific and research theses whose language is as a rule formalized and repetitive. From my own practice I can say that CATs work perfectly well in translations of web pages - they help to maintain the tags and the structure of the home page as well as take care of the coherence of the permanent elements of the page such as navigation, keys, etc.

It is worth noticing that professional translators usually do not have enough time to often click many programs, to check websites and dozens of dictionaries. What counts here is the efficiency and this is provided only by CATs which have or should have all of these in one window or just after pressing a few keys on the keyboard. Of course, we have to feed our CAT well - it is necessary to supply it with many good units form of translation memory and a rich terminology base - CAT is as good as our translations [2].

It is difficult to be surprised that taking into consideration the whole catalogue of benefits mentioned before, the market of programming aiding translations is growing so fast. The requirements of contemporary world provide more and more needs for faster and faster translations. Translation tools simply help us to do it - a well prepared for work and properly configured CAT is undoubtedly translator’s best friend [8-14].

Conclusion

The translation cloud, similarly to the machine translation used some time ago, together with the new trends in linguistics provide the answer to the next stages of scientific and technological revolution. As Jerzy Pienkos writes - the machine translation is restricted to certain types of texts only until the properties and the level of a raw product achieved from the computer allow to use it in particular conditions of its effectiveness [1: 163]. Therefore, cloud is an attempt to combine these two professional spheres - scientific and business ones which can be understood as a manifestation of con-
temporary thought about the humanities whose achievements can and should be utilized on the job market of both present and future translators.

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Abstract. The aim of the article is to show the semantic aspects of grammar modeling while applying the cognitive linguistic approach. The authors analyze the correlation of universality of the Complex Object model and its specific features in speech. The referent embodiment is realized through its mental activity (perception, assessment, causation, and willingness). Analyzing the Complex Object structures in communication the authors come to the conclusion that blending is realized with the help of spatial and temporal markers: the process of subject causative effect and the object predicted result; the process of sensory perception and the (un)real picture of the developing event. Duration in time or moving in space to completeness processes are represented in the standard grammatical model and vary due to verbalization of thought in speech.

Keywords: generalization; cognitive linguistics; grammar modeling; spatial and temporal markers; speech.

Introduction

The central idea of cognitive grammar is that the lexicon, morphology and syntax form a unity, not decay naturally into disjoint classes, while showing a great variety in regard to the level of generality and structural complexity.

Generalization is reflected in the theoretical foundations of speech/thought activity in L.S. Vygotsky work, where the main idea is the collective consciousness, the need to put each notion to a certain class of the well-known group of phenomena, which certainly requires generalization. Higher human forms of psychological communication are only possible thanks to the fact that a person reflects reality by the way of thinking collectively [1].

Some models have a generalized grammatical meaning of the “subject in the state of perception and evaluation of the world”. This standard model is called Complex Object. The fact that the grammatical model is a generalized form of thought was proved by professor Helen Kubryakova, the founder of the cognitive science approach in Russia. “The speaker’s subjective image of the objective world and the individual view of the world are reflected through the collective memory of the world” [2].

Within this context of assumptions on subjectivity and the collective consciousness the purpose of the present article is to interpret the semantic
aspects of grammatical modeling from the cognitive linguistics view. More specifically this paper aims to show the relation of the universal (generalized) aspects of grammatical constructions and manifestation of specific features in the structure of the English sentence (Complex Object), reflecting the embodiment of the referent in the mental spaces (perception, causation, willingness or assessment), which are complemented by the expression of spatial and temporal relations.

The idea takes shape thanks to the cognitive and linguistic processes, in which sensory data are converted into a mental representation. Nickolay Boldyrev stresses the idea that the diversity of knowledge determines different ways for the formation of grammatical concepts in the human mind: on the basis of sensory experience, e.g. as a result of the surrounding world perception (seeing, feeling or hearing) and on the basis of mental activity (as a result of arguments, inferences, conclusions) [3]. Consequently, the linguistic form and the grammatical model are a reflection of cognitive structures in human consciousness, thinking and cognition. Thus, cognition is directly associated with a definite language. According to Valery Demyankov any statement consists of two components: the intuitive (generalized) and rational (individual), which manifest itself in the forms of language [4]. This idea can be supported by George Lakoff thought that a set of universal models in grammar is limited and can be reduced to perception, estimation or effect: “children first learn literal see as in See doggie and See Daddy. Then they learn cases which he referred to as “conflations”, where the domains of seeing and knowing are co-active, that is, where both are at issue, as in sentences like: See Daddy come in. See what I spilled. Finally, children learn pure metaphorical cases like: See what I mean” [5].

The goal of cognitive grammar, according to R. Langacker, is to characterize the psychological structures that make up the human language ability, the ability to master the language conventionally established USES. The author refers his approach to language structure as a usage - based one. The author states that he prefers the cognitive and linguistic adequacy of the concept rather than formal purity of generative grammars, which is based on the distortion and impoverishment of the content aspect [6].

In contrast to the concept of generative grammar R. Langacker puts forward and justifies the view of the language system as vast and largely redundant array of units not amenable to algorithmic calculation. Under certain unit the author understands perfectly mastered structure or cognitive pattern. Defining language grammar as an organized inventory of conventional linguistic units (structured inventory of conventional linguistic units), the author emphasizes that the grammar is not generating. Inventory is arranged so that one unit can serve the parts of other constituents. The process of building the language structures by a speaker is represented as sequential assembly of the inventory resources, according to the cognitive patterns (also
Generalized meaning of grammatical model

Having analyzed all the aforementioned views we decided to study mental spaces in correlation with language units. The cognitive assessment activity, according to Olga Iriskhanova’s view, is a complex process of integration structures of personal and social knowledge that come into regular one-to-reverse relations, on the basis of conceptual integration and metaphorical model correlating in order to form the evaluation metaconcept of the secondary plan. The result of integration is based on a comparison of parameters. New knowledge will be fixed in a grammar structure, which will receive a secondary interpretation [8]. In particular, the assessment of “the practical value of the object” refers to a basic level of categorization and is one of the most important categories in the evaluation of the objects of reality. The subject of evaluation operates mainly by personal knowledge in the process of nomination. The primary knowledge is subjected to a secondary interpretation followed by the formation of new assessment meaning, verbalized by the language model e.g.:

‘I really do not know what you expect me to do’, he said (G. Durrel).

...I have more than once regretted bitterly, over flouring, superfluous words, and feared I had said more than he expected me to say... (Sh. Bronte).

These models are characterized by the structural and semantic standardization, a high degree of stability, where the weakening of the lexical meaning of the verb expect is accompanied by the meaning of assessment on the metonymic or metaphorical basis.

There is a primary level of thinking, where the language cognition is considered as an interpretation of the objective reality images in consciousness. In the process of reality perception both universal and individual cognitive processes are used. R. Langacker considers it necessary to postulate a number of basic areas (basic domains) as cognitively irreducible representations, among which the author mentions our experience of space and time, as well as the color scheme, the frequency range, temperature scale, the area ofASTE sensations, etc. - all this according to perceptual abilities of the human body [7].

G. Fauconnier considers mental spaces to be the cognitive structures that exist only in the minds of the interlocutors. According to his theory, there are two types of mental spaces: basic space is used to describe reality (it is clear both interlocutors), and mental spaces that go beyond reality by
appealing to possible worlds, along with the expression of spatial parameters, fictitious structures, games, etc. [9].

Some embodiments of the referent dominated that testifies their primacy dealing with in the human mind. The embodiment is considered to be the human activity on the construction of mental representations of the knowable referent [10]. E. Rosh concept establishes the connections between the world and the man, which lies at the basis of the experience of human interaction with the surrounding reality: “The embodiment is of dual nature: it combines the physical, material as the evidence of our experience and our own body as a receptacle of cognitive mechanisms for the formation of this experience” [11]. The semantics of the verb indicates that the referent embodiment takes place with the participation of one of several areas: motor, sensory-sensitive (audio, visual) and modus. Sensory perception area is manifested by the models, where sensory perception verbs (hear, see, watch, find) in conjunction with the ing-form of the object perceived action (coming, wheezing, marching) occur as an indicator of a process, developing in the space, e.g.:

Once in the night we went to sleep and when I woke she was not there, but I heard her coming along the hall and the door opened and she came back to the bed and said it was all right she had been downstairs and they were all asleep (E. Hemingway).

Assembling sleepily in Michael’s room we found him wheezing and gasping, the sweat running down his face (G. Durrel).

...Donne followed Malone, and Sweeting followed Donne; and more wine was ordered up from the cellar into the dinning-room (for though old Helstone child the inferior priesthood when he found them “carousing”, as he called it, in their own tents...

Sometimes in the dark we heard the troops marching under the window and guns going past pulled by motor-tractors (E. Hemingway).

The combination of sensory perception verbs (hear, see, watch) with the infinitive form of the perceived object action (laugh, do, settle) shows, that the perceived effect is static and it has already been made, e.g.:

She laughed. It was the first time I had ever heard her laugh. I watched her face (E. Hemingway).

I have never seen you do anything myself (E. Hemingway).

I watched them settle on the ceiling (E. Hemingway).

I saw the major look at him and notice that he was drunk (E. Hemingway).

He watched his father stalk the choicest animals, his young eyes hard brown with excited interest (E. Hemingway).

A regiment went by in the road I watched them pass (E. Hemingway).

5 per cent of the young people stopped, were found to be in actual possession of drugs (Morning Star. September 29, 1972).
He was seen (as a statesman who needed time) to complete what he had begun (New Times 47. November 1, 1972).

We consider that mental diagram representation of the processes that occur in the human body is based on the spatial parameters of the referent embodiment and shows the process of perception of the object or the completeness of the object action [12]. Modus zone of the referent embodiment is manifested by expression of will, e.g.:

...We knew he did not want us to think that at all (The Times. Aug., 1980).

‘Priest not happy. Priest wants Austrians to win the war’, the captain said (E. Hemingway).

I do not. I do not want anyone else to touch you. I’m silly (E. Hemingway).

“I do not want you to drop the department in again” (Morning Star. August 2, 1979).

You want us to stay here or can we look around? (E. Hemingway).

The willingness develops to a certain point, that is represented in the linguistic form of the infinitive, where the particle to has the meaning of the limitation, e.g.:

Which only serves to make the point that Mr. Biffen and his colleagues are up to things he very much does not want us to know about (Morning Star. July 26, 1979).

- Would not you like me to have some more exalted rank?
- No, darling. I only want you to have enough rank so that we’re admitted to the better restaurants (E. Hemingway).

The basic thesis of the authors of cognitive theories is the belief that the individual’s behavior is determined by knowledge and ideas. The human ideas about the world are projected in behavior: what a person says and how he does it, depends ultimately not only on the needs of fixed, deep and eternal aspirations, but also on genetic heredity. G. Lakoff, talking about mental cognitions, asked... how it is possible for all human beings to have the same primitive image-schemas, which can be combined differently in different languages [5]. The models associated with the processes of human interpretation of the world and a man in this world are the constructions of the causative prototype. Ludmila Furs notes that syntactic processes of the causative meanings are complex and require the definite criteria for unambiguous interpretation of causative effect. The existing heterogenity in the field of constructions with lexical meaning of causation can be eliminated on the basis of verbalization ways differentiation according to the result obtained “actuality/potentiality”. Actualization of causation result, which is understood as initiated intention, successfully realized effect on causation object can be attributed to the category of causative constructions. The constructions which do not give a clear interpretation of the result differ from proto-
type category causative constructions, e.g.: She ordered me to stay awake [13]. The nature of causation (actual or potential) can be determined only on the basis of the context. L. Talmy separates a group of verbs having a linguistuc code of causative effect according to the marker of “realization of the action” [14]. The semantics of the verbs induce, cause, get, have, make, force includes the marker “realization of the action” while the semantics of verbs persuade, convince, decide does not. The presence of the language mechanisms of causativity meaning differentiation indicates the relevance of speech variations, e.g.:

They made him take off his coat and waistcoat.

It might be that an admirer of his had pestered him to introduce me to her or that an American editor, in London for a few days, has desired Roy to put me in touch with him (S. Maugham).

The following models show that the action expressed by the infinitive is potential, e.g.:

I never allow outsiders to come to rehearsals, but as you are our accountant you almost belong to the theatre, and I would not mind making an exception in your favour if it would amuse you to come (S. Maugham).

I wonder if we could persuade you to come and eat a chop with us (S. Maugham).

The verbs of speaking (verbal actions) are used in the case of potential effect, e.g.:

O’Farrell said wayward soccer genius Best would have been asked to attend the board meeting... (Morning Star. December 6, 1972).

National guardsmen have been ordered to impose a curfew on the University... (Morning Star. April 22, 1972).

The New Nicaraguan government has declared a national emergency empowering authorities to recruit Labour without payment, commandeering private vehicles and requisitioning private property for a temporary period (Morning Star. July 26, 1979).

Conclusion

The aim of the article was to show the semantic aspects of grammar modeling applying the cognitive linguistic approach, to show the generalization of the Complex Object model and its variants in speech. The referent embodiment is realized through its mental activity (perception, assessment, causation, and willingness). Analyzing the Complex Object structures in speech the authors came to the conclusion that blending is realized due to the spatial and temporal markers: the process of subject causative effect and the object predicted result; the process of sensory perception and the (un)real picture of the developing event and the process of assessment of the object. The perception of an object is presented through the prism of spatial and temporal characteristics (duration or completion of the process of perception).
Blending is not predictable solely from the structure of the inputs. Rather, they are highly motivated by such structure, in harmony with independently available background and context. The variability of spatial and temporal relations takes place in the Complex Object structure. Application of such models in order to show duration in space and time or moving in space to completeness are represented by the standard grammatical model due to verbalization of thought in speech.

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LINGUOCULTUROLOGICAL FEATURES OF ANCIENT MYTHONYMS (BASED ON ENGLISH AND GERMAN LANGUAGES)

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Abstract. The article is devoted to linguoculturological analysis of ancient mythonyms to describe flora and fauna, space (based on English and German). Relevance of the study is specified by the fact that ancient mythonyms denoting insects, birds, plants, planets, chemical elements, constellations, mountains, animals, substances are insufficiently studied both in native and in foreign linguistics. The paper gives the definitions of such concepts as mythonym, cultural linguistics, general cultural lexicon. Methods of continuous sampling, etymological, semantic and linguoculturological analysis are used in the paper. The paper examines lexical units and gives their thematic classification such as: insects, birds, plants, planets, chemical elements, constellations, mountains, animals, substances taken from the ancient mythology from the position of cultural linguistics. The etymology and examples from English and German fiction are given for deeper understanding of ancient mythonyms. The author pays attention to the peculiarities of spelling mythonyms in English and German. The analysis revealed that the feature of ancient mythonyms in English and German is that they refer to general cultural lexicon because they are used in two or more languages.

Keywords: cultural linguistics; mythonym; ancient; general cultural lexicon; onomastics.

Introduction

The magical function of language in archaic cultures is due to mythological beliefs of the people and inspiration of the whole world. In the opinion of E. Cassirer, the structure of the mythological language of the world is largely determined by the same spiritual concepts: “The myth revives and enriches itself due to the language, and the language revives and enriches itself due to the myth” [1: 41].

The relevance of the study is due to ancient mythonyms denoting insects, birds, plants, planets, chemical elements, constellations, mountains, animals, substances are insufficiently studied both in native and in foreign linguistics.

The lack of complete research of the semantic and etymological features of ancient mythonyms in English and German leads to some difficulties in translation of literature and through intercultural communication.
The novelty of this research is its comprehensive study of ancient mythonyms in English and German carried out for the first time. Linguoculturological importance and functioning in speech and literature is shown in the paper.

Etymological analysis of ancient mythonyms in English and German from the perspective of cultural linguistics is carried out and thematic classification is given for the first time.

The main purpose of this paper is to identify the linguoculturological characteristics of ancient mythonyms in English and German and their functioning in literature through etymological analysis.

The practical significance of the study is that the results can be used in the preparation of the English-German onomastic dictionaries, in the preparation of courses, special courses and textbooks on lexicology.

Sixty-four English and German lexical units (ancient mythonyms) served as the material for the research and were selected by continuous sampling from English and German lexicographical sources, and English and German literature.

Methodology

Methods of continuous sampling, etymological, semantic and linguoculturological analysis are used in the paper.

The works of foreign and native authors serve the theoretical framework of the study:
- on the cultural linguistics: V.V. Vorobyov (1997), V.A. Maslova (2001);

Research

Legends and myths describe a lot of things which have never existed in the world. But nowadays people do not have doubts about their reality. Many of them have remained up to the present time in English and German onomastics.

To investigate it the myth is available only in the form of figurative and verbal trace, while the live self-replicating myth is a special type of thinking chronologically and essentially opposed to historical and natural way of thinking [2: 19].

Views on the way people thought about the world were reflected in ancient myths, religions, epic works and tales.
Onomastics (Greek “onomastike” - “Art to give names”) - is a special branch of linguistics dealing with the study of proper names. Onomastics includes personal names, surnames, nicknames, names of towns, streets, squares, villages, hills, rivers, lakes, seas, celestial bodies.

Mythological onomastics as a set of proper names of supernatural beings is a significant part of onomastic space [3: 14].

Mythonyms are names of people, animals, plants, peoples, geographical and cosmographical objects, various things and so on, which in fact have never existed. Names in myths represent considerable interest for researchers of history of mankind. Grains of information about earlier stages of human history can be derived from mythonyms [4: 55].

Mythonyms which include proper names, taken from ancient (Greco-Roman) legends form national identity system and linguistic culture.

As for the definition of V.A. Maslova, “cultural linguistics is the science which appeared at the junction of linguistics and cultural studies and investigates cultural manifestations of people that reflected and consolidated in language” [5: 28].

V.V. Vorobyev considers that cultural linguistics is viewed as “a complex scientific discipline of synthesizing type, which studies the relationship and interaction between culture and language in its functioning and reflects the process as an integral structure of units in the unity of their linguistic and extra-linguistic (cultural) content using system methods and focusing on up-to-date priorities and cultural establishments (a system of norms and human values)” [6: 36-37].

It is of great importance to know the etymology of proper names taken from the ancient mythology. It is necessary to find out what historical information they contain and to learn meanings that are summarized in the structure of these lexical units.

Sixty-four English and German lexical units were selected for the analysis in the paper.

Thematic classification of ancient mythonyms in English and German defining insects, animals, birds, plants, mountains, substances, constellations, planets and chemical elements are analyzed and composed.

**Insects**

- eng. psyche - germ. Psyche - a beautiful butterfly (in Greek mythology the personification of the human soul, is named after the king’s daughter Psyche. She was depicted in the image of a girl with butterfly wings).

  E.g.: In der Hand die kleine Lampe, In der Brust die große Glut, Schleicht Psych zu dem Lager, Wo der holde Schläfer ruht. 
  Sie errötet und sie zittert, Wie sie seine Schönheit sieht 
  Der enthüllte Gott der Liebe, Er erwacht und er entflieht.
Achtzehnhundertjähr’ge Buße! Und die Ärmste stirbt beinah!
Psyche fastet und kasteit sich, Weil sie Amorn nackend sah [7: 195].
- eng. galatea - germ. Galatea - a butterfly (a beautiful statue created by the sculptor Pygmalion and revived on his prayers by the goddess Aphrodite; shirt striped cotton fabric named after Galatea (in Greek mythology one of the daughters of the sea-god Nereus, personification of the quiet sea).
E.g.: Galatea never does quite like Pygmalion: his relation to her is too godlike to be altogether agreeable [8: 193].
- eng. hercules - germ. Herkules - a big beetle living in South America (named after the mythic Hercules, the strongest of Greek heroes).

**Birds**

- eng. harpy - germ. Harpyie - a big bird of prey; a genus of bats living in India, named after the Greek goddess of vortex and death Harpy [9].
E.g.: Here the repellent harpies make their nests,
Who drove the Trojans from the Strophades
With dire announcements of the coming woe.
They have broad wings, a human neck and face,
Clawed feet and swollen, feathered bellies; they caw
Their lamentations in the eerie trees [10].

**Plants**

- eng. hyacinth - germ. Hyazinthe - a genus of perennial bulbous plants of the lilaceous family; red or reddish-brown transparent variety of mineral zircon, used as a gemstone (named after Greek youth Hyacinth).
E.g.: About them lay long launds of green grass dappled with celandine and anemones, white and blue, now folded for sleep; and they were acres populous with the leaves of woodland hyacinths: already their sleek bell-stems were thrusting through the mould [11: 681].
- eng. andromeda - germ. Andromeda - evergreen bushes of the heath family (named after the daughter of the Ethiopian king Cepheus);
- eng. sequoia - germ. Sequoia - a genus of evergreen coniferous trees of the Taxodiaceae family (named after the leader of the Indian Cherokee tribe).

**Constellations**

- eng. Orion - germ. Orion - a constellation of vault of heaven (Orion in Greek mythology is the Boeotian giant hunter).
Mountains
- eng. Volcano  - germ. Vulkan - a fire-breathing mountain (named after the mythical Roman god of fire and blacksmith Vulcan).

Animals:
- eng. triton  - germ. Triton - a genus of suborder of salamanders (named after the sea-god Triton).

Substances
- eng. myrrh  - germ. Myrrhe - aromatic resin of some African and Arabian trees that freezes in the air and is used in medicine and perfume (named after the Greek woman Myrrh. Gods in Greek mythology turned her into the tree).

Planets
- eng. Venus  - germ. Venus - one of nine major planets that is the closest to the Earth (named after the ancient Roman goddess of love and beauty Venus);
- eng. Mars  - germ. Mars - a planet (named after the ancient Roman god of war Mars);
- eng. Jupiter  - germ. Jupiter - the biggest and the brightest of nine planets of the solar system (named after the Roman supreme god of light, thunder and lightning Jupiter);
- eng. Mercury  - germ. Merkur - a planet (named after the Roman god of trade Mercury);
- eng. Uranus  - germ. Uran - a planet (named after the Greek god of the sky Uranus);
- eng. Neptune  - germ. Neptun - a planet (named after the Roman lord of water Neptune (Greek Poseidon), whose symbol is the trident);
- eng. Pluto  - germ. Pluto - a planet (named after the Roman god of the underworld kingdom Pluto);
- eng. Pallas  - germ. Pallas - a planet (named after Pallas, the daughter of Triton and a friend of Athena);
- eng. Ceres  - germ. Ceres - a planet (named after the ancient Greek goddess of agriculture and fertility Ceres).

English and German names of planets after ancient characters are written with the capital letter.

Chemical elements
- eng. neptunium  - germ. Neptunium - a chemical element (named after the planet Neptune);
- eng. niobium - germ. Niobium - a chemical element (named after Niobe, the daughter of mythological Tantalus);
- eng. palladium - germ. Palladium - a chemical element (named after the planet Pallas);
- eng. plutonium - germ. Plutonium - a chemical element (named after the planet Pluto);
- eng. promethium - germ. Promethium - a chemical element (named after Prometheus);
- eng. tantalum - germ. Tantalum - a chemical element (named after Tantalus, the hero of Greek mythology, in connection with difficulty of metal mining).

The analysis led to the conclusion that lexical units that include names of chemical elements and planets relate to general cultural lexicon.

General cultural lexicon has the same lexical meaning, the source language, functioning in two or more languages, but not always coinciding graphically and phonetically.

Names of chemical elements after ancient characters are written with the lowercase letter.

The peculiarity of the names of chemical elements such as neptunium, named after the planet Neptune (after the Roman sea god Neptune); palladium - named after the planet Pallas (after the Greek goddess Pallas), plutonium - named after the planet Pluto (after the Roman god of underworld kingdom Pluto), have double nomination.

Conclusion

The analysis reveals that ancient mythonyms designating planets and constellations in English and German are written with the lowercase letter. Mythonyms designating insects, birds, plants, mountains, animals and substances in English are written with a capital letter, while in German they are written with a lowercase letter.

The ancient mythonyms transferred to various items such as insects, birds, plants, planets, chemical elements, constellations, mountains, animals and substances belong to general cultural lexicon because they are found in two and more languages but have phonetic differences connected with the peculiarities of pronunciation of English and German.

To sum up, lexical units of mythological origin denoting insects, birds, plants, planets, chemical elements, constellations, mountains, animals, substances entered the lexicon of English and German as a result of human cognitive activity and received their names after mythical characters and ancient heroes. Myths are transferred orally from generation to generation and with the advent of writing started to be written on papyrus, paper. Ancient legends help scientists to get to the deep roots of the history of countries and peoples.
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RETRANSLATION OF HUMOUR AS A POSITIVE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGY

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Abstract. Humorous discourse is a positive communication strategy, which contributes to the success of intercultural encounters. On the other hand, wrong interpretation of humorous culture-specific meanings can be a cause of communication failures. The present paper analyses five translations of I. Ilf and E. Petrov’s books The Twelve Chairs and The Golden Calf from Russian into English. The study shows that the key factors which influence the construction of cultural meanings include: background knowledge, presuppositions, imagery, evaluation, emotional perception, cultural context, connection with precedent concepts and texts, and intertextuality. The treatment of cultural meanings also depends on the historical period when the translation is done and the political views of the translator.

Keywords: positive communication strategy; humorous discourse; retranslation of culture-specific meanings; connotation; intertextuality; intercultural communication.

Introduction

Society generally views positive communication as a desirable form of relationship which contributes to mutual understanding and effective human interaction. It is based on positive emotions and is satisfying for all the parties involved [1].

Humour is among the leading communication strategies “enhancing feelings of being understood, a vital component of interpersonal need fulfilment” [2]. Whereas it is almost universally seen as a positive factor improving intercultural communication, its erroneous interpretation or discrepancy of cultural perceptions can sometimes hinder understanding - as Virginia Woolfe put it, Humour is the first of the gifts to perish in a foreign tongue. We might conclude therefore that competent interpretation and translation of humour become vital components of effective intercultural interaction.

Humour attains its aim when it becomes shared meaning between interlocutors. On the other hand, meanings seen as funny are relative, as they are socially, psychologically, culturally and situationally conditioned. In in-
tercultural settings humour can either blossom or, on the contrary, “perish” due to the divergence of different semiotic systems, incongruity between norms of behaviour, or lack of background knowledge.

The present study is based on the analysis of five translations of Ilya Ilf and Evgeniy Petrov’s works *The Twelve Chairs* (1928) and *The Golden Calf* (1931) seen by many Russians as the funniest books of all times. It is only natural to admit that it is impossible to carry out their exhaustive analysis in one short paper. The study pursues the following tasks: 1) to discuss the notion of “cultural meaning”; 2) to investigate the genesis of cultural meanings and the regularities of their construction as positive communication phenomena; 3) to identify various strategies of retranslating humorous cultural meanings for a foreign audience; 4) to analyse associated problems and ways to overcome them.

**Discussion**

We distinguish between Meaning 1 (Rus. *znacheniye*) and Meaning 2 (Rus. *smysl*), which can be with a certain deal of approximation rendered, correspondingly, as dictionary meaning and meaning-in-use. Meaning 1 (*znacheniye*) is independent of context, non-interactive and static, whereas Meaning 2 (*smysl*) is, in its turn, context-dependent, interactive and dynamic. If Meaning 1 is precontextual and forms the basis of mutual understanding between interlocutors, Meaning 2 is co-created by the interlocutors in a context [3].

Embarking on the study of cultural meanings, it is appropriate to recollect D.A. Leontiev’s remark that the correlation of *smysl* and *znacheniye* reflects capabilities and limits of human communication and understanding [4: 375]. According to Y.A. Sorokin’s definition, “*znacheniye* is conceived as the essence of an object correlated with a particular sign; *smysl* - as its interpretation by a certain number of recipients on the basis of their collective and/or personal experience” [5 : 59]. From this point of view, translation is a product of triple interpretation - on the part of the author, translator and reader. The interpretation of cultural meanings presupposes not only the knowledge of factual information about a particular culture, but also the ability to extract in-depth senses expressed by linguistic units in a context. Those meanings interweave, interact with one another, and it is only possible to adequately construe them by taking into account the complexity of their interplay.

One of the popular and effective present-day interpretative approaches to the study of texts is constructivism, which views culture as a transcendent historical process of meaning creation providing the interpreting individuals with ready-made meanings and symbols. In the process of socialization “individual systems of constructs are smoothly coordinated with the system of
sociocultural meanings” [6:61]. Constructivists believe that reality cannot be regarded as fully independent of the way a person conceptualizes it; “perception depends on coding the world into iconic signs that can re-present it within our mind” [7:11].

A. Cruse suggests that meanings “emerge in actual use as a result of various processes of construal (mental processes of meaning construction)”. He claims that a permanent property of every word is a mapping onto a body of conceptual content (purport) which acts as “an essential part of the raw material for the construal processes” [8:262]. This perspective is concordant with the point of view expressed by A.V. Smirnov who treats meaning not as a fixed content but only as its potential implemented in the process itself. He defines meaning (smysl) as a continuum with “a regression to infinity” [9:34-35, 99]. This echoes L.S. Vygotsky’s idea that “<…> the presence of a second, inner aspect of speech behind the words, the independence of the grammar of the mind, the syntax of word meanings make us see not a once given, immobile and constant relationship between the semantic and phonetic aspects of speech in a simple utterance, but a movement, a transition from the syntax of meanings to the word syntax, the modification of the meaning structure implemented in words” [10:298].

Where does the cultural component come from, what is its genesis? It can be either integrated in the meaning or induced by the inner or outer context as a result of inference. The factors which influence meaning construction from the point of view of its cultural specifics include: 1) background knowledge; 2) presuppositions; 3) imagery; 4) evaluation; 5) emotional perception; 6) cultural context; 7) connection with precedent concepts and texts; and 8) intertextuality.

A fruitful approach to the analysis of cultural meanings and modes of their retranslation was introduced by U. Eco who wrote about nuclear content which includes minimal concepts, i.e. elementary requirements allowing to recognize an object or understand a construct - and the corresponding linguistic expression [11:103]. Similarly, D.A. Leontiev argues that in the language of psychological mechanisms, meaning construction can be seen as the process of disseminating meaning from the leading, “nuclear” semantic structures to particular, peripheral, derivative ones in concrete situations of an unfolding action [4:255].

The form of verbalization of cultural meanings allows us to classify them as a) explicit where the nationally specific component is included in the nucleus, and b) implicit where it exits on the periphery (see the works by O.A. Leontovich about the typology of cultural meanings: [3, 12]). Explicit cultural meanings participate in the creation of the key content of a literary work, whereas implicit meanings are present as a sort of halo, an undecoded latent constituent which gives it an ethnospecific colouring but is not always comprehended and processed by the translator and the reader.
I.V. Popchenko believes that the nucleus of a comedic worldview is universal and includes phenomena of international humour comprehensible for representatives of different cultures; the middle part (between the nucleus and the periphery) includes culture-specific representations of humour, whereas the periphery is based on the individual comedic worldview of the author of a corresponding text [13: 3-4].

Given the last statement, it is quite a challenge to draw demarcation lines between those constituents because, as L.S. Vygotsky puts it, the enrichment of the word with intellectual and affective senses which it absorbs from the whole context constitutes the main law of the dynamics of meanings [10: 333]. One might also speculate about the double-layer/multilayer character of meanings, their complex constellation, qualitative change of meanings in the process of their realization in the context, etc.

Text comprehension presupposes the matching of the author’s and reader’s meanings. The author’s meaning unfolds from its original conception towards the mode of its verbal expression, its realization in the text; it is further perceived by the reader and decoded into the language of thought. These processes inevitably presuppose partial loss and/or modification of meaning, firstly, because of the difficulty of accurately expressing thoughts by means of words, and secondly, because the addressees impose their own interpretation on what has been said. The depth of comprehension depends on the cognitive base shared by the communicators (in our case - writer and reader) which can differ depending on the historical period, age, gender, education, life experience, etc.

Communication in an intercultural setting is complicated by the presence of translators (retranslators of culture) serving as intermediaries. They inevitably have to deal with the problem of translatability. According to D. Chandler, linguistic universalists claim that practically everything can be translated; linguistic relativists, in their turn, believe that the transference of meanings between languages is very problematic and at times impossible; they suggest that even the reformulation of a thought within one language is fraught with distortions and losses [14].

We proceed from a compromise according to which part of the cultural meanings is inevitably lost in the process of translation, but the main content can be verbally expressed. The question now arises: is the understanding of all cultural meanings critical for the comprehension of a literary work and its positive perception, in particular a humorous one? The overarching aim here is not to discuss its in-depth analysis by literature specialists who strive to understand the meaning of each word, but ordinary readership for the sake of enjoyment. Which cultural meanings are a must for retranslation and which can be rephrased or altogether omitted because of the difficulty or, moreover, impossibility of their verbal expression?
P.V. Donets suggests that it is necessary to discern between discrete (i.e. clearly distinguishable, visually imaginable) and non-discrete (fuzzy, vague, abstract) meanings. From his point of view, “the former ones can be identified by means of contrastive comparison of the systems of cultural meanings, whereas the latter require complex analytical procedures” [15: 187].

It means that in order to comprehend and translate cultural meanings one has to tackle two major problems: 1) understand the components of cultural meanings through their verbalisation; 2) grasp the regularities of their combination into a single whole in the text. If we agree with A.V. Smirnov that different cultures use different logics of meaning formation, one has to admit that, in addition to a certain amount of specific information about a tradition or culture required for the comprehension of a certain content, one also needs to understand the logical procedure forming this content [9: 46-92].

Among other things, the translation of a literary work implies a mediated transference of cultural meanings from one culture to another. The translator’s aim here is to interpret and present the information in a form providing for its maximum comprehension by the target audience. In an intercultural context we actually deal with double translation: from a culture to a retranslator and from a retranslator to the target audience. It also includes the adaptation of meanings to the scope of cultural knowledge of the target audience, i.e. representatives of a different culture.

Translation of a humorous text is a double challenge: it is necessary not only to make it comprehensible but also funny and enjoyable. The danger is that “humour can be dissected, as a frog can, but the thing dies in the process” (E.B. White).

Let us take a look at the problems and their solution on the example of the translations of Ilya If and Evgeny Petrov’s works.

Challenges start with the translation of the book titles themselves. If J. Richardson (Ilf, Petrov, 1965) keeps the original name of the book The Twelve Chairs, E. Mill and D. Mudie (Ilf, Petrov, 1930) change the title supplementing it with an allusion to William Shakespeare’s play well known to the English-speaking readers: Diamonds To Sit On. A Russian Comedy of Errors. This attempt at creativity probably brings the book closer to the target audience but is somewhat too far-fetched and evokes meanings non-existent in the original.

K. Gurevich and H. Anderson (Ilf, Petrov, 2009) translate the sequel’s title as The Golden Calf, whereas both Ch. Malamuth (Ilf, Petrov, 1932) and A.O. Fisher (Ilf, Petrov, 2009) go for The Little Golden Calf trying to make up for the absence of a diminutive suffix in English corresponding to the Russian telyonok. Both titles can be justified, but I find the first variant preferable, as, in my opinion, “little” here is excessive.

In this and other cases translators have to make conscious decisions about the accuracy, credibility, and comprehensibility of their representation.
of cultural meanings. By accuracy I mean the expression of cultural information in the form most faithful to the original and the source culture. An obvious illustration of this is the simple transcription or transliteration of proper names, e.g.: Ostap Bender, Ippolit Matveyevich Vorobyev, Kon-dratyevna, Pasha Emilevich, Shura Balaganov, Panikovsky.

If the accurate representation of the information or phenomenon is impossible, the information must at least be credible, i.e. approximated to the depicted cultural reality. In particular, a translator can use English analogies of Russian realities, if it does not incur any serious loss of meaning. Since intercultural communication presupposes two sets of knowledge - of people belonging to two different cultures, the translator takes into account the cultural competence of the target audience and uses adaptation, or adjustment of cultural meanings to their cognitive base.

For example, Russian names are quite lengthy and difficult for the perception by English-speaking readers, therefore translators sometimes partially adapt them, i.e.: Father Fiodor - Father Theodore; Katerina Alexandrovna - Catherine Alexandrovna; Klavdia Ivanovna - Claudia Ivanovna; Andrei Ivanovich - Andrew Ivanovich. Female surnames are often translated without the ending -a (Russian marker of feminine gender): Madame Gritsatsuyev, Ellochka Shukin, Kokushkin.

An effective way of preserving the humorous effect produced by the “speaking names” is their partial translation: thus, fire chief Nasosov (from Rus. nasos - pump) acquires the surname Pumpoff.

Various kinds of connotations play a special role in humorous discourse. In connection with this, Russian diminutives become a real torture for translators. Some attempt to express their meaning with the help of little: zerkal’naia polochka - a little mirrored shelf, shkafchik - a little cabinet, chemodanishko - a little suitcase, or other adjectives: etazherochki - low bookshelves. Others ignore them altogether: chemodanisko - a plain-looking suitcase, blondinchik - the fair-haired young man.

For the understanding of nuances of meaning it is necessary not only to know but also feel the connotations expressed by particular suffixes. For a non-Russian speaker they are a meaningless set of sounds and are lost on them altogether. E.g. a foreign reader is unaware that the surname Vorobyev is marked by a certain degree of aristocratism, unlike, for example, a more common surname Treukhov. The surname Trubetskoi-Lapis sounds rather pretentious. The names Nikesha and Vladya clearly characterise their owners as infantile blockheads. The simple English transcription of the names Pasha Emilevich and Pashka does not allow an English-speaking reader to appreciate the attitude, evaluation, social acceptability, or the appropriateness of their use in different contexts.

It is necessary to point out that translators should also keep in mind the degree of relevance of information. Even though we can regret that Eng-
lish does not accurately express the connotations of such words as tishaishiy (translated as extremely quiet) or upoitel’niy (delightful), this will not seriously affect the general perception of the book. On the other hand, the nickname Kisa given to Vorobyanninov (one of the main characters of The Twelve Chairs) by Ostap Bender and rendered in English as Pussy, can acquire undesirable and even obscene connotations in an English context.

More nuances of meaning are verbalized with the help of synonyms. I cannot stand the temptation of including here Richardson’s translation of the famous episode from The Twelve Chairs marked by a skilful use of a whole range of verbs meaning “to die” (an undertaker’s professional jargon):

“So the old lady’s passed away. Old ladies pass away... or they depart this life. It depends who she is. Yours, for instance, was small and plump, so she passed away. But if it’s one who’s a bit bigger and thinner, then they say she has departed this life...”

“What do you mean ‘they say’? Who says?”

“We say. The undertakers. Now you, for instance. You’re distinguished-lookin’ and tall, though a bit on the thin side. If you should die, God forbid, they’ll say you popped off. But a tradesman, who belonged to the former merchants’ guild, would breathe his last. And if it’s someone of lower status, say a caretaker, or a peasant, we say he has croaked or gone west. But when the high-ups die, say a railway conductor or someone in administration, they say he has kicked the bucket. They say: ‘You know our boss has kicked the bucket, don’t you?’”

Shocked by this curious classification of human mortality, Ippolit Matveyevich asked: “And what will the undertakers say about you when you die?”

“I’m small fry. They’ll say, ‘Bezenchuk’s gone’, and nothin’ more”. And then he added grimly: “It’s not possible for me to pop off or kick the bucket; I’m too small”.

The translators of Ilf and Petrov’s books make ample use of proper names and allusions to the cultures of other countries from the original text, e.g. Hamlet, Prince of Denmark, Columbus Theatre, Madam Butterfly, League of Nations, Chamberlain, Fujiyama, etc. These names act as a certain starting point for the “internationalization” of the text, they place the action into a broader context comprehensible for representatives of other cultural communities: Her voice was so strong and fruity that it might well have been envied by Richard the Lionheart...; How talented I was in my time in the role of Hamlet!; William Shakespeare’s vocabulary has been estimated by the experts at twelve thousand words (Richardson); Or take this one, the European pedestrian movement’s very own last of the Mohicans; “No, this is no Rio de Janeiro” [16, 17].

The cultural meanings expressed by such proper names as Zhukovsky, Milyukov, Budyonny, Gerasim and Mumu, Dolgoruki, Yusupov, Pugachov, Ogonyok, Pravda will hardly be comprehended by an English-speaking
reader, therefore in some cases the translators specifies them, e.g.: poet Zhukovsky, or, similarly, when quoting Pushkin: <...> Pushkin’s poem: “There he stood, full of great thoughts, on the bank...”. It is difficult to imagine that an average reader (not a language or literature specialist) will be looking up the meaning of each culturally-specific term or passage in dictionaries or encyclopaedias.

Unfortunately, even though the translations under analysis to a certain extent retain the vivacity and cheerfulness of the original, they still lose the irresistible wit and proverbial character of the key phrases which are so highly appreciated by the fans of Ilf and Petrov’s works:

“Does the Nymph, durn it, really give good service?”

My coffins are like gherkins, specially selected for people who know a good coffin.

A passionate woman is a poet’s dream.

Do-Us-the-Honour Funeral Home.

“Things are moving, gentlemen of the jury!”

I am commanding the parade!

Great importance is attached to the first and last phrases of each book. P. Janse discusses different translations of the opening phrase of The Golden Calf: “Pedestrians should be loved” (Malamuth); “Pedestrians just need to be loved” (Fisher) and “You have to be nice to pedestrians” (Gurevich and Anderson): “Maybe there is something to be said for ‘need to’ instead of ‘should’, but I do not like the ‘just’ at all. It introduces an emotional note, which may be present in the original, but only in an implicit way. The Russian sentence is delightfully laconic and a perfect opening of a novel. The translation by Mrs. Fischer is too awkward <...>. Gurevich and Anderson (2009) have ‘You have to be nice to pedestrians’. Hm. ‘To be nice to’ is not the same as ‘to love’, is it?” [18].

A lot can also be said about the closing phrase of The Golden Calf. P. Janse writes that Anne Fisher’s ‘I’ll have to get re-trained as an apartment building supervisor’ “is an exact representation of the original content, but really...” He also indicates that the English or American ‘concierge’ is not exactly the same as the Russian ‘upravdom’, “but is the difference so great that this colourless, awkward three-word translation is necessary? This is the final sentence of Ilf and Petrov’s finest novel! How can you do this to the reader?” In his opinion, Gurevich and Anderson’s ‘I’ll have to go into apartment management instead’ “sounds a little, but not much, better” [Ibid.].

Other situations fraught with communicative failures are those which require the comprehension and visualization of phenomena and artefacts well known to representatives of Russian culture (at least at the time when the book was written). Some Soviet realities are expressed by means of word-for-word translation: communal-service workers’ local committee; the regional-executive-committee car Gos. No. 1; women’s work division; the
Boulevard of Young Talents; the Leningrad Lumber Trust; the cooperative cafeteria ‘The Former Stomach’s Friend’, etc. The notion itself can be vague for an English-speaking reader, but the use of the terms, at times quite exotic, gives the text a certain culture-specific flavour.

Important for the interpretation of literary works are precedent texts. One example is the reference to the untraditional staging of Gogol’s “Marriage” described in The Twelve Chairs. Its comic character is comprehensible only to those who are familiar with this classical play, its content, characters and the peculiar treatment of the original utterances.

Numerous songs used in the texts are much more meaningful for Russians than for foreign readers because the former know the melodies and numerous meaningful associations that are perceived as part and parcel of their native culture. For a foreign reader such songs as: Haa-aapy daa-aays... (Byvali dni vesioyte, The Apple (Yablochko)) and others are practically meaningless and do not create a mood intended by the author.

The painting The Bolsheviks Answer Chamberlain devised by Ostap Bender is an allusion to Ilya Repin’s famous painting Zaporozhtsy are writing a letter to the Turkish Sultan. The inability to visualise it makes impossible the further appreciation of humorous meanings, such as: “Comrade Kalinin in a fur cap and white cape” and “Comrade Chicherin stripped to the waist”.

Translators follow different paths trying to fill in the gaps in the cultural competence of their readership. Fisher provides 300 endnotes to The Little Golden Calf (2009), which, on the one hand, contribute to the understanding of the book, but, on the other, steal some of the humour.

When things become far too complicated some translators omit challenging passages altogether. As Fisher indicates, Ch. Malamuth “arbitrarily cut many of the segments that give the novel its narrative charm and topicality: completely absent are the typewriter with the Turkish accent, the rebusmaker Sinitsky, the detailed descriptions of Khvorobyov’s Soviet dreams, the scene of Ostap Bender dancing the tango with Koreyko’s case file in the empty Bureau of Horn and Hoof Procurement, and the wonderful passage on the differences between the big world and the little world in Chapter Nine. Malamuth seems to have decided that these scenes were too silly or too culture-specific, and left them out” [16: 25-26].

Gurevich and Anderson replace the phrase ‘Down with Khovanshchina!’ (‘Doloy Khovansshhinu!’ - a reference to Musorgsky’s opera) with ‘Down with the Queen of Spades!’ “believing that the English public is better acquainted with Tchaikovsky’s music” (Janse).

In her introduction to The Little Golden Calf, A. Fisher makes a number of very interesting observations about the degree to which a translation depends on the historical period when it is made and on the political standpoint of the translator. Malamuth, she says, “had personal experience of the
Russia of Ilf and Petrov’s novels, while Richardson translated both novels during the surge of interest in early Russian literature encouraged by the Thaw (he published his translation in 1961). According to her, “Malamuth also took occasional liberties with the text. For example, Funt converts to Judaism and has to wear his “Passover” trousers, not his Easter trousers, every day. Malamuth also adds several sardonic references to the Five-Year Plan and socialist competition (no doubt reflecting his own recent disillusionment with Soviet rhetoric) and inserts a silly slogan of his own (“Electricity + Soap = Revolution’s Hope”) to the list of slogans offered to the Antelope-Gnu in Chapter Six”. Richardson, on the other hand, entirely removes all the direct references to God - “perhaps in a bow to Cold War stereotypes of “godless Communists”” [16: 25].

This can partially account for the differences in the representation of cultural meanings by different translators [19-21].

Conclusions

1. The study shows that humorous discourse is a positive communication strategy which contributes to the success of intercultural encounters. On the other hand, wrong interpretation of humorous culture-specific meanings can be a cause of communication failures.

2. The key factors which influence the construction of cultural meanings include: background knowledge, presuppositions, imagery, evaluation, emotional perception, cultural context, connection with precedent concepts and texts, intertextuality, etc. The comprehension of humorous culture-specific meanings can be tentatively subdivided into two constituents: a) the understanding of the components of meaning; b) the understanding of the logic of their combination into a single whole in the communication process.

3. Retranslation of culture-specific meanings, i.e., their verbalization and adaptation for the target audience, is one of the greatest challenged facing a translator of a literary work. The factors which can violate the comprehension of a text retranslated from one culture to another include verbal mistakes, imprecise connotations, insufficient background information, discrepancy between form and meaning, violation of context distribution of meanings, disparity in value orientations and their manifestation in communicative behaviour. The treatment of cultural meanings also depends on the historical period when the translation is done and the political views of a translator.

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Translations of I. Ilf and E. Petrov’s books


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MEDIA TEXTS: MAIN STRUCTURES AND VALUES FROM THE PERSPECTIVES OF INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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Abstract. The aim of the paper is to indicate main techniques of modeling the media text structure for the purpose of finding practical solutions for their description and to identify essential characteristics i.e. functional and stylistic features of the media genres etc. The paper deals with a wide range of media text issues as a cultural object where current views on its nature and criteria for an adequate understanding are given. The problem of “Other” and “Foreign” in the reflection of modern media by all evidence is one of the most difficult to comprehend. The article is devoted to the modern manifestations of national-specific information encoded within the media text. The paper also focuses on the problems of the cultural transfer as a key question that manifests the values of media texts which can be reconstructed through the transcultural analyses. The forms of cultural specifics are analyzed, whereas the concept of cultural intertextuality is introduced and discussed as an important fact for pragmatic and cultural text retrieval. The defined forms of cultural specifics are illustrated by several examples taken from media texts that may have practical and didactical implications. Based on comparative analysis the study of cultural connotations reflects current opportunities and solutions for intercultural information policy and especially for emotional impact on the audience in a multicultural and globalizing world.

Keywords: media text; media culture; media impacts; media communication; multiculturalism; intercultural code; intercultural competence; culture tag.

Introduction

Modern processes of social interaction are determined by parameters of interpersonal communication. Structural changes and relationships between individuals and their communicative culture are increasingly associated with achievement of information technologies and introduction of new forms of social and personal interaction. The world-picture knowledge has developed as a move to the consequent formation of aesthetic ideas, ethics rules and morality. Significant are the social practice and personal experience, as well as the study of the stereotypes of communicative behavior.

Finally, the parameters of modern media culture are focused on the most important linguo-cultural stereotypes that appear as a result of the ethno-centric reaction - specific response that reflects the experience of “native” and “foreign” culture. So the mechanisms and self-generation of ethnic and
cultural stereotypes are closely connected with today’s realities. Recognition and overcoming of ethnic and cultural conflicts can revealingly characterize the modern dialogue between peoples and cultures.

Important options for any language culture may provide its cognitive basis that includes the deepest comprehension of the communication culture. It consists of values and attitudes that are mainly crystallized by current cross-cultural stereotypes. The idea of a foreign culture is based on the obvious and false stereotypes that typically influence the world picture and foreign cultures too. At the same time, the most important view can actually manifest the existence of the individual as a bicultural or polycultural language person itself, while learning languages and cultures.

### Intercultural Communication

The flow of the communicative processes is normally characterized by the complex of factors that reflect ultimate realization of interaction between different cultures. Considering the bunch “Language - Text - Culture”, the following framework appears as a comprehensive feature of the text that occurs in the translation of cultures themselves in all manifestations and individual interactions [1: 35].

It is no coincidence that the study of stereotypes is the priority over consideration of the stereotypes. In a foreign culture, demonstration of the communicative situations in native and foreign language determines a special cultural space. It is understood as an extension of the world view and is associated with continuous development. The special dynamics of representation in a culture may give rise to an expanded definition of the native language in today’s globalizing world.

The nature of intercultural relations evidences this actual social phenomenon in its common practice and relation to the world’s cultures. This phenomenon is also associated with the social macro- and micro-levels which are conclusively seen as a response to attempts at constructing communicative situations in their aim to minimize the speech that also give a prompt access to communication and its effectiveness. Intercultural communication can assume therefore the equality of people (this imaginary world is not always equal either to their own or another culture) and predestinate numerous forms of reflection, self-reflection, mutual clarification, dialogue etc. Similarly, this communication is seeking for similarities and differences, because they provide not only regulators of other cultures, but also have their directing, distinguishing and participating role in the architecture of the inner world that is determined by “my” world view contrasted with others’. The relevant point of view is an individual construction, because accentuation on differences complicates and hinders dialogue.
Related issues of Intercultural Competence (IC) are logically combined by a framework that contains linguistic and nonlinguistic factors. Endowed with linguistic and non-linguistic projections, IC is well integrated into “Other” and “Foreign” cultures. Therefore, while studying texts in the divergent social contexts, it is important to understand that discourses can make it easier to declare and recover a common message (text). From the current context its interpretation can be obtained, but it is more difficult to explicate it from simple understanding. Thus, intercultural competence means an essential orientation in contexts and discourses of other cultures [2: 33]. Intercultural competence in the contrary must have the mastering skill by setting the text into historical context or through the possibility of adapting formulas and models of media texts. The understanding and proper co-measurement with positions of the recipient within the current context bring them into historical dynamic development and processes of divergent human behavior.

In order to fulfill the social role of intercultural communication (IC) the above task becomes more interdisciplinary. This approach joins with a whole network of various aspects of sociological, philological, theological, pedagogical, philosophical, historical, linguistic knowledge due to their understanding as a compensatory response for needs of specialization. They require at the same time a rapid deepening of consciousness and far-ranging relationships within this intercultural paradigm.

Media Culture. Illustrative indicators of sustainable linguistic reflections are observed in the area of “cultural values” translation, which is called media culture. Media culture as a special sphere of speech existence is of great interest to researchers. It is also closely related to the promotion of new technologies and strict definitions of the borders and modern information policy in the communicative space. While using media texts (press, radio, TV, Internet etc.), certain speech units are essentially embedded into the programs and texture of contemporary media speech that directly or indirectly affect media culture in general. According to N. Kirillova, “media culture in its totality of information and communication instruments, material and intellectual values is produced by the cultural-historical development, forms of public awareness and socialization of the individual” [3: 31].

In earlier studies [4, 5] we have showed the importance of studying the various aspects of cultural objects that are significantly marked by the multicultural environment. They objectively reveal the cultural differences: regarding a wide array of media texts, we would like to focus attention on the effects of the similar Russian concept «интеркультура» in its relation to the conditions of the globalized world and related concepts of ‘transculture’ and ‘multiculturalism’.

According to the approaches of most Russian researchers, interculture means mutual relations between people from different cultures. Concerning
multifaceted relations and diverse nature they outline the remits of the field of contemporary reality - interculture - as a collective concept in theory and practice that is also typical for methods and arrangements in a society covering a wide historical and contemporary background of various cultural spaces, individuals and groups. In this so-called “first line of public importance”, adjustment for trans-, multi- and intercultural aspects are revealed in its significant differences among them.

Multicultural approach, which is rather problematic in its nature, produces the common compromise between cultures. Culture can also exist without it. In this case, people feel a specific immutable identity. But it does not occur, when the leading idea of culture and cultural development is based on the relationships of images and clichés, beyond the uniqueness and uniformity. If we mean a homogeneous society, it can heavily recover moderated trans-cultural differences that are not always related to crossing the boundary in the relationship between individuals. It is absolutely exhausted, because this area appears as a field of trans-cultural, inter-cultural or inter-religious contacts.

In the evaluation of a variety of contexts and situations of extreme actuality or, better to say, conversely, moderated forms of relationships are incalculable. After all, individuals are understood not as cultural mestizos. It is not enough to fix the local and aboriginal differences. The translation of multicultural factors (interculture) is regulated by trans-cultural laws and behavior. It considers also the behavior of foreign migrants that came to Russia in the early 1990s etc. Do they have retained native religion, traditions, language and culture? The answer to the question gives an opportunity to understand conditions under which society is slowly transformed into multi- and intercultural. This is due largely to behaviors that did not previously exist, but are in the process of formation, suitable to new conditions and challenges of the social environment. So the key concept of human life - CULTURE - implies furthering the logical understanding of basic problems of communication in general. According to individual decision, the whole complex of problems is associated with the ability to create and recognize text, language etc. Analyzing and understanding patterns of behavior lead to not only the efforts of the rational, but also to emotional communication development.

Intercultural understanding and mutual penetration are widely correlated with a special kind of hermeneutic interaction, with the category of “Other” [6]. It is constructed as a perception of the facts in which design of values vary and operational and symbolic systems are implemented. The concepts of intercultural understanding and intercultural hermeneutics per se can be used interchangeably, since they include similar behavior rules, translations and text interpretations. But only perception of artifacts can define the cultural contexts and subsequent connections between “Other” and “Foreign”.
It is no coincidence therefore that an empirical analysis of the cultural phenomenon of communication and media captures the widest scope of literary questions, sociology, psychology, semiotics etc. that previously were quite relevant to the designated spheres: journalistic, text-linguistic, discursive, analytical etc. In the 'cultural' texts, however, it is very important to complement these approaches by meaningful analysis of numerous stereotypes for their implicit cultural content, as well as to clarify the question of whether “cultural” category or the rules of public opinion affect [5].

Emphasizing the language sign as a cultural icon we mean not only the hidden significance and cultural content that may have characteristic vectors and cultural dimensions. Linguistic symbols hereby function as a tag, an orientation or a code of culture.

**Culture Tags** are linguistic symbols that directly point to the ethnography of a language community, allowing to recognize one culture and to distinguish it from another in accordance with simple features. **Culture orientations** include linguistic symbols, orienting in the cultural signs that indicate the direction to recognize cultures that differ one from another or from the observed phenomena. **Culture Codes** are language symbols that require complex description based on a comprehensive interpretation that allows identifying the culture in all vectors and measurements. The difference between language symbols between cultures depends not only on the depth of information, but also on the **communication speed**. The culture tags are equivalents for “quick postings”. Some culture orientations in the contrary can appear as a symbol for “slow messages”. Codes of culture are also symbols for “slow messages” [7: 44].

So media culture covers a wide complex of factors that is constantly updated by framework of symbolic media forms reflecting the global world picture. Analyzing the media culture and especially its intercultural aspect, we have to highlight the characteristics that are inherent in it and typical for the information society (spontaneity, lightness, acceptance of norms and stereotypes, promotion of tolerance, manifestations of individuality, mobility values etc.). In any case, the comprehension of “Foreign” and “Other” cultures cannot be left without attention. Moreover, it is very significant for the media extension process and its positive or negative ethno-cultural connotations.

**Media Text.** The study of texts in the traditional media research is an important factor from the point of view of development and public communication analyses. The main feature of the media text is its “public context, which is due to the nature of the communication of various social groups in the objective and subjective conditions of their interaction. The formation of a typology and establishing forms, communication standard formats, clarification of the principles and methods of media text construction include therefore strict requirements concerning certain text types. The media text typology is grounded on a functional and stylistic basis that allows consider-
ation of the specifics of actual linguistic text features and their correlations among the media sphere, that also have some pragmatic attitudes” [8: 82].

In the conditions of meaningful communication the media attitudes discover vast empirical material. It is closely related to the analysis aims that are relevant for description of media texts, reflecting a wide range of patterns and immanent messages. The media discourse can reflect further the recent conceptualizations in form of specific media research that becomes a source of examples illustrating features and phenomena, for example, political or organizational discourse, where processes of categorization, conceptualization of information and their reception are given. Obviously the results of our research concerning media text and/or media discourse as a basis for determining characteristics of media text becomes a significant bonus that is obtained in addition to the main results.

The public media sphere is a special field of activity that is rich and meaningful to society, and its language means may differ from the language that is used in other fields. With this usage the field of media (or public media) is of concern to media linguistics - a special branch of linguistics that deals with the relationship between language and media [9: 30].

From this perspective, linguistics is searching now for recurring communicative purposes of texts. Moreover, media provides strategies for practice with their logical patterns to save processing expenses and at the same time to produce continuously attractive “news”. Among other things, the text linguistics examines such factors which make a text-to-text and patterns for language use in the “quick”, industrial journalistic media [Ibid.: 183-184].

Taking into consideration the media text problems, it is necessary to determine gradually the observation of the empirical world focusing on specific aspects of the theoretical and empirical material description, as well as consistently proving theoretical foundation approach to its illustrations. The perspective studies, as well as realization of the advantages and disadvantages of techniques and methods used in the analysis of media text can significantly increase the explanatory intensity of them.

Thus formulated universal relevance [10: 196-197], specific patterns of media text [9: 197-198], as well as linguo-cultural significance, relation to the social context and their syntagmatic receive particular interest, where types of media text are characterized by different ratios of event; i.e. actional, axiological and thematic components are associated respectively with specific weight of expressive language means <...>. In the space of a media text there is enclosed information on the dominant relevant linguistic culture; its value orientations and matching cause the reception of media texts and their meaningful interpretation [10: 198; 11: 15-17].

Importance of media studies can be proved by the media literacy, which not only captures the process of understanding and using media in its active form, but also involves a conscious and critical understanding of the
media nature, as well as of the methods and techniques that are used in persuasive communication [12]. It can also expect a cultural information, which inherently carries positive reflection of ethnic diversity causing by interests to the life and experience of people.

From the standpoint of the communicant media, in combination with the creolized media, texts are not fundamentally different from the homogeneous verbal text. Such texts are determined by categories of textual integrity and connectivity. The integrity is understood as a unity of the text, ability to exist in communication on the basis of the internally and externally organized whole. Connectivity reflects substantial and formal communication of the text. Both categories are closely interrelated and integrated into creolized communicative and cognitive imaginations of sender that individually perform the ‘face’ of the author or his ‘collaborators’ (artist, photographer, editor, etc.). A common topic disclosed by verbal, iconic and other paralinguistic means in media text appears as a complicated textual form with verbal and/or iconic elements of visual, structural, semantic and functional nature aimed at the comprehensive pragmatic effect on the recipient [13: 17].

Media Text Typologies. The problem of text typology is extremely relevant, because only through text activity can the effectiveness of the text initiations be fixed. The information act in the modern culture makes the text one of the channels of mass communication. More recently, media practice faced some extreme difficulties, or even impossibility of positioning the individual facts and phenomena through the media text. But now the situation has changed: new forms of media give a clear impetus to the media text and media text system combinations. Linguists are increasingly talking on the emergence of new text types that primarily reflect their production environment. It should be noted that the texts of new media, i.e., media texts are created or transmitted by new communication channels that cannot always support their linguistic or extra-linguistic characteristics.

Since the beginning of text linguistics in the 1960s and text typology discussion, the essential elements of this sub-discipline are not considered by linguistics [14: 62]. Early concepts of linguistic pragmatics were integrated into text theory; texts therefore act in the context of performance communication and society. However, there remains the question what the yielding text typology is and what significance it has. The text typology issues determine special ways to controversial site rules, because of their fundamental importance and position at the intersection of scientific disciplines [15: 12]. This disagreement relates initially nothing less than the very basic methodological question: what are the text types and how can they be designed. At the center of linguistic typological approach remains an attempt to overcome the supposed (!) arbitrariness and inconsistency of everyday text examples and an objective overview that can win the universe of texts [16: 153].
In this case the status quo of the tradition in the text type research is based on the essential characteristics and classifications of texts, but a new classification system is formed that encompasses various typologies due to the complexity of the subject matter. In our opinion, the text typology is ideally characterized by:

- Exhaustiveness: all typological elements are recognized;
- Homogeneity: typology includes a uniform criterion;
- Monotype: elements that are typologized, uniquely assigned to the types;
- Finiteness: number of text types is limited.

In more inductive approaches the selection criteria of empirical texts and eventual classifications are deductively formed. The applied character of empirical studies is often less motivated by practical questions than through purely scientific research; it directs and clarifies needs of a valid basis derived from text rules for all texts, or for certain types of text, just intuitively differentiated. The studied text types or genres can be distinguished also by systematic application of linguistic criteria. In our attempt to describe the world of texts by objective science, however, one problem should be kept in mind. We mean therefore concepts and categories that are not simply presented, but always based on methodically reflected and formed perceptions and interpretations [17].

This is just only one of the typological proposals in all variety of reflections of the “arbitrariness” and “inconsistency” of everyday texts. It is probably less overcome than increased. One typical example of this types is considered in the general function of text that should classify in abstract models of language the variety of those linguistic phenomena which relate to the mentioned issues. The language of media will undergo even a single structure or act that is needed. Probably they contain intra-professional knowledge domains where situation and text types differ.

**Conclusion**

The ideas of humanism and tolerance towards the conditions of modern life span individuals and ethnic groups, their knowledge and ethnic existence, consolidation and integration, preservation and development of their cultural identity, reflection or conflict of ethno-reconciled media activity. Remembering that trans-culture is one of the most developed social means the transition from the sphere of the material into the spiritual sphere, in the field of mass psychology and social interactions rise to a considerable extent and feed stereotypes. In its basic intention axiological stereotypes *a priori* include the personal experience, regularity, stability, etc. and generate a number of consequences among which may be mentioned a potential of subjectivity, appraisal, expression (axiological stereotype) etc. This is a typical
stereotype, in which the individual stereotypical generalization of knowledge is promoted.

Thus the media text gets new accenting in modern conditions. There is a qualitative transformation of its ontological status, of the media as an intermediary between person and objective reality. All that provides a unified communication, not even contrary to the integrity and adequate perception of social reality. Indeed with the loss of structure-valued information in media, it has lost its relevance as “mass information” because it reflects the processes and events of the objective reality of mass communication and turns into an individualized one [18: 131].

In addition to its informational media text resources, it reveals the connection with the general implication of the mass media and cultural practices: it intrudes into the territory of relevant scientific disciplines, and most of them become a priority providing a universal integration of multiple disciplines, which would also explain the theory of the media as a fundamental base. It is not enough just to “stake out” the borders and domains of cultural studies of media, which is understandable, but it should be more clearly outlined by the studied field of text culture and media interaction [19: 47].

This is one obvious point of view which would refer to the complexity of trans-culturation in the journalistic practice. Trans-culturation means here the global enforcement of professionalization driven by the global media commercializing standards [20: 109-110]. When they face the challenge of the journalistic daily job, the communication in different cultures obtains different cultural backgrounds. Based on similar considerations, i.e. on the journalistic practice, G. Baumann, M. Gillespie and A. Sreberny [21] have mentioned it as trans-cultural journalism. In its “translation”, “transfer” and “transformation” values it can really inter-culturate beliefs and models of culture, but require at the same time the careful contextual analysis. So the differentiated look at the communicative figurations, in which journalistic practice is integrated, is essential so long as respective production of cultures is articulated.

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SPECIFICS OF ACADEMIC TEXT TRANSLATION STRATEGY

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Abstract. In the article traditional and contemporary approaches to the concept of academic text translation strategy are analyzed. Academic text translation strategy is regarded as a special activity aimed at the identification, comprehension and transference of the typological dominant of the original academic text. Special attention is paid to objective and subjective factors that determine the use of the strategy in academic text translation.

Keywords: academic text; translation; strategy; substitutive transformational translation.

Introduction

Modern translation is in a transition from a comparative structural type of ontology to an activity-based type. This transition is going through a phase of self-reflection expressed in the circulation of academic knowledge about itself. Self-reflection allows us to review the main categories and concepts of translation on other grounds and thus find their place in a broader context of humanities. One of the basic concepts of substitutive transformational translation studies (V.N. Komissarov, I.I. Revzin, Y.I. Retsker, V.Y. Rosenzweig, A.D. Schweitzer), which requires deep study in terms of philosophical and methodological knowledge, is the notion of academic text translation strategy.

The concept of strategy in substitutive transformational translation studies was used as a part of translation competence, and it meant the process of making translation decisions on individual levels of language. The strategy was defined as the development of a translation program of action and implementation of this program into practice, namely the performing of rational operations expressed in the choice of literal, free, exact translation types [1: 24], following a series of principles such as the principle of identifying successive sections of text and consecutive interpretation in the original text [2]. This view of strategy is due to linguistic concepts that form the basis of translation as an academic discipline.

Comparative-historical linguistics and structuralism course influence

Historically translation was formed under the influence of comparative-historical linguistics and structuralism courses. As a part of compara-
tive-historical linguistics characterized by the desire to identify family ties and correspondence between the languages by comparing phonemes (J. Grimm), roots (G.F. Leibniz, F. Bopp), single words (I.Y. Scala, M. Lituanus, A.H. Vostokov) and grammatical forms (F. von Schlegel, R. Rusk), a typology of languages was created that pointed to the existence of certain regularities between languages. The comparison principle as the identification of the general and the particular in the lexical and grammatical aspects of the language and the principle of historicism as the evolution of linguistic forms, requiring the search of correspondences at a certain historical moment, had a decisive influence on the theory of translation, because in comparing the languages word-by-word subscript or literal translation was used as linguistic analysis. This type of translation, according to D.R. Firth, was often absurd and helpless, because linguists had no answers to the questions “how” and “what” they were translating due to the lack of appropriate philosophical generalizations [3].

The use of a wrong translation type to convey the original author’s thought is demonstrated in the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original text</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>Adequate translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These conditions do not fit the requirements, to begin with</td>
<td>Эти условия не соответствуют требованиям, чтобы начать с</td>
<td>Начнем с того, что данные условия не соответствуют требованиям</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we can see, this is a mechanical translation of original text words in the order in which they appear in the text, without regard to their syntax and logical connections. This translation often leads to nonsense and should be resolutely expelled from practice.

Substitutive transformational theory of translation

Structuralists such as F. de Saussure, A. Seshe, C. Bally, L. Hjelmslev, V. Brendal, and H.J. Uldall studied the language as an immanent system having its own order and relations, characterized by the dominance of form, rather than substance. The central concepts were the concepts of the structure as a way of existence and language description, the value as content of speech in relation to the signified object and the importance of word relation (syntagmatic and/or paradigmatic) to other words in the language system. Substitutive transformational translation, originating within structuralism, borrowed its method of operating language units in the form of an analysis of their structure and content, as well as invariant search, limited by the variation range of linguistic signs.

A distinctive feature of the substitutive transformational theory of translation is the use of phenomenological explanation expressed by putting
The fact of translation under the empirical law, i.e. the observed is explained by the observed, through words, phrases, syntax, and others.

The linguistic and cognitive theory of translation (L.M. Alekseeva, N.L. Galeeva, I.E. Klyukanov, Y. Sorokin, T.A. Fesenko) uses a teleological explanation type that is expressed in the interpretation of the observed facts through the unobserved - a cognitive purpose, i.e. determination of what the author wanted to say. The linguistic and cognitive theory of translation recognizes the personal nature of the text and the asymmetry of non-linguistic knowledge and linguistic values. Text becomes text in the interaction of participants in communication, in the process of generating text and text-perception, objectification and disobjectification. Content of the text reflecting the author's dominant is recognized as the objective content of the text in the axiological aspect [4: 29]. The asymmetry of the non-linguistic knowledge and linguistic values appears in the fact that knowledge is fixed, not only through linguistic meaning, but also through images, actions, emotions, combined in propositions in the human mind. Therefore, in linguistic and cognitive translation theory the linguistic process is subordinate to the cognitive.

Here we should mention that literal translation with proper transfer of thoughts of the source text seeks to reproduce as closely as possible the syntax and lexical structure of the text.

In cases where the syntactic structure of a sentence can be translated and expressed in the translated text with similar means, literal translation can be considered the final version of the translation that does not require any further processing, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original text</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The substance was dissolved in ether</td>
<td>Вещество было растворено в эфире</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, such a coincidence of syntactic means in two languages is relatively rare; more often there is a violation of the syntactic rules of the Russian language in a literal translation.

In such cases we have a known gap between form and content: the author's idea is clear, but the form of its expression is not appropriate for the Russian language, for example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original text</th>
<th>Literal translation</th>
<th>Adequate translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The isolator includes a 3 mm minimum opening distance between contacts</td>
<td>Изолятор включает в себя 3 мм минимум открытого расстояния между контактами</td>
<td>Изоляционное расстояние между разомкнутыми контактами разъединителя должно быть не менее 3 мм</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Despite the fact that literal translation often violates the syntax rules of the Russian language, it can be used in the first, rough step of the text,
because it helps to understand the structure and the difficult sentence form of the original.

Then, however, literal translation with structures that do not fit the Russian language must necessarily be processed and replaced by an adequate option.

Translation of lexical units in the translation can be done in three ways:
Via equivalents, i.e. direct correspondences that do not depend on the context;
Using analogues, i.e. words of synonymous row with the most relevant context;
By descriptive translation, i.e. the free translation of semantic content of original text words or phrases.

Concept of strategy

One of the main problems in linguistic and cognitive translation studies is the choice of the original knowledge translation method that determines the translation strategy.

The concept of strategy was borrowed by modern science from the art of warfare, in which strategy is defined as the study of the best location and use of military forces to achieve a goal. Military strategy was implemented by tactics, directing the activities of strategy subjects, determining strategic behavior, in particular the choice of action plan based on the criteria of optimality. Strategy interpretation and tactics in philosophy, as it seems, most closely conform to the requirements of contemporary translation studies, which recognizes the importance of analytical thinking transforming the individual in the process of understanding and interpretation of the original text. Through analytical thinking the translator is able to reconstruct the “procedure” embedded in the original text and matched the dominant typology of the original text. It is the well-known opinion of P.H. Torop, who believed that the original translation of text is due to the translation dominant, expressed in the transfer of translated text typological parameter [5: 12]. In terms of academic text translation such a kind of dominant may be regarded as conceptualization of a logical-semantic design of academic knowledge. Thus, when translating an academic text the translator creates and operates special constructions, which is the means of mental work, he/she provides access to academic knowledge. Such constructs in academic knowledge are represented by logical relations (propositions), whose totality allows us to represent the object as an integral phenomenon.

The methodology states that the formation of a strategy is possible on the basis of a person’s representation of the whole, and on this basis the presentation data will be merged [6: 282] and implemented in accordance with a specific technique. G.P. Schedrovitsky notes that “the concept of
strategy in general occurs only after we are able to achieve a goal or solve a problem in various ways and methods” [6: 478]. Therefore, the development of strategy is the result of thought and action of the individual, involving the use of both theoretical and practical data.

The goal of using a translation strategy for academic text is to create a successful translation of academic text, which expresses the author’s model of knowledge.

Choosing the academic text translation strategy depends on both objective and subjective factors. The former includes text type, type of communication and the type of knowledge [7, 8]. The latter includes the professional competence of the interpreter, implying not only foreign language skills, but also the ability to understand and interpret the original academic text, as well as the ability to use special knowledge in accordance with the rules of the target language.

Logical relations, acting as a means of relation type of model components, are “international substance”, repeating the course of the author’s thoughts. Language embodiment of logical relations takes place on the basis of analogy, which allows us “to attach a similar conceptual framework to the similar form language embodiment” [9: 331], whereby the logical relations in the academic text are explicit in nature and cause its topological parameter - consistency.

Academic communication depends on several factors: addressee, addresser, the specifics of their interaction, communication character code, features, etc. Academic text translation as a type of scientific communication includes the steps of intrapersonal and interpersonal communication (Lotman’s term). In the first stage (intrapersonal communication) the translator understands new academic knowledge, expressed in the original text. The result is to build the translator’s understanding of the original author’s model of knowledge. Achieving understanding is possible by interpretation of the academic text by means of language comprehension and cognitive units in order to recreate a complete model of the author’s knowledge on the basis of logical relations of original text. In the second stage (interpersonal communication), the translator is interpreting the special knowledge that he/she obtained from the original text by means of the other language in the translated text. L.M. Alekseyeva said that “the idea of the two-stage model of academic translation is caused by two different thought processes in nature: the perception of the text, based on the coagulation of the original text, the translation and the creation of the text, based on the deployment of the meaning of identification and understanding of scientific concepts” [7: 13]. The first stage is the lead, as the degree of understanding of the original meaning of academic knowledge special independent objectification in a language culture.

The purpose of academic text translation in the aspect of communication is to gradually move from the position of interpreter as a mediated communicant to a position of direct communicant. To achieve this goal, the
translator performs the following tasks: mastering the special knowledge and translating it into the target language. A solution to these problems is achieved by adapting and socializing the translator in academic translation.

Adaptation is the identification of the original academic text logic, which allows you to recreate the holistic model of author’s knowledge. In the academic translation detection of logic construction of the author’s concept is expressed in the conceptual subordination of translator to the author, i.e. in the pursuit of a resistive transfer strategy [10]. Socialization is manifested in the creation by an interpreter of successful text translation, i.e. such a type of foreign language text which is able to objectify new scientific knowledge created in a different language environment. One of the prerequisites for the objectification of new scientific knowledge in a different language environment is recreated through an interpreter on the basis of logical relation conceptualization of the original text. Successfully recreated conceptualization allows recipients of translated text to understand the original author’s concept.

Scientific knowledge is a complex process that involves the mechanisms of assimilation and accommodation [11]. Assimilation is expressed in the knowing subject’s interpretation of a fact/object parallel to its deciphering by the use of mathematical logical “framework” (the establishment of the adjacency or separation, the attribution of quantifiers “more” or “less”). As a result of the assimilation schemes with facts/objects are developed. When the facts/objects and assimilated schemes are developed, accommodation takes place, i.e. adaptation to the characteristics of the objects under “outside influences”. In academic text translation assimilation corresponds with knowledge schematization, or with the establishment of logical relations that do not depend on the specific language of scientific presentation and accommodation - the individualization of scientific knowledge, which is reflected in the author’s metaphors.

A translator of academic texts has the task of producing an accurate translation of the model of academic knowledge with support on the logical relations, as they are part of the cognitive assimilation mechanism inherent in all human beings [Ibid.], as well as provide insight into new scientific knowledge of foreign language recipient. Ignoring the nature of academic knowledge and academic type of the text could lead to a translator’s incorrect translation of logical links of the author’s model of knowledge.

The venative technique or method of “support” for basic words and associative explicative developed by L.M. Alekseyeva contributes implementation of the academic text strategy, based on the conceptualization. These units represent the main slots of the author’s model of knowledge. Adequate language units search described in the original text, as well as setting the correct logical relation between them shape the understanding of the author’s model of knowledge, which in turn allows the interpreter to translate it as accurately as possible.
Specifics of academic text translation strategy 81

L.M. Alekseyeva interprets academic understanding of the text as “the ability to build a working model of an object or phenomenon” [12: 6]. The underlying idea of the flexibility of concepts and characters of relative interpretational signs. The original verbal sign - an academic text, is perceived by the translator as “a possible trace of thought” [Ibid.: 7].

Lack of understanding of an academic text is the result of misinterpretation of the original specialized knowledge. The translation of an academic text is a reflection of linguistic units and concepts with the aim of recreating the author’s model of knowledge based on the principle that sets the original type of the text, its logic. The translation of an academic text is to identify linguistic units (basic words, explications and associations) and relations between them. The purpose of the translation of academic text is to understand the special text based on an individual model of knowledge. In contrast to the interpretation of a literary text, involving a multiplicity of interpretations due to the fact that this type of text is culturally driven and designed for “general” audience, the interpretation of academic text is limited to certain logic of scientific knowledge and scientific knowledge in general. The logic of academic knowledge appears in ordering and objectification of the scientific knowledge results [6]. Thereby, the base of the academic text translation is the principle of moving from the old to the new knowledge, from “basic” to “constructible” [12]. On the basis of this principle translator organizes and constructs the original special knowledge.

Conclusion

Traditionally, the basis of the interpretation of an academic text is the principle of linguistic interpretation. This led to the fact that the special words, the basis of academic text, “escaped” from the text, and the integrity was attributed only to terminological systems. However, some language units do not fully actualize the author’s concept, so the language interpretation of an academic text often led to a certain loss of scientific knowledge.

An important role in the translation and understanding of academic texts goes to a cognitive component, as the academic text shows the result of cognitive activity of a scientist, expressed in the creation of an integrated model of special knowledge and concepts of the system. R.I. Pavilenis believes that to internalize a concept means to build some structure [13: 102]. Construction of the structure should be “the fundamental principle of translation” - a sequence of learning and the continuity of the concept design [Ibid.: 106].

This principle of interpretation applies both to the construction of a single concept structure and the construction of the entire conceptual system, which is a kind of “context” of interpretation. Therefore, “the understanding of linguistic expression <...> is regarded as its interpretation of a certain conceptual system, rather than in terms of a certain set of semantic objects cor-
related with linguistic expressions, and generators of ‘semantics of language’ [13: 116]. Hence, the interpretation of academic text is a reflection of linguistic units and concepts based on the logic of the development of knowledge.

Thus, the feature of the academic text translation strategy, due to objective and subjective factors, is a recreation of the translator’s original model of knowledge embedded in the original text, based on the interpretation and understanding of the conceptualization of scientific knowledge in the original text.

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CLASSIFICATION OF WRITTEN TRANSLATION SKILLS FOR ENGLISH LEGAL DISCOURSE

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Abstract. The article deals with the content of notions “English legal discourse”, “translation difficulties”, “translation strategy”, “translation tactics”, “translation skills”. Description is given of the complex of written translation strategies for English legal discourse. The authors suggest developing groups of translation skills at pre-translation, translation and post-translation stages.

Keywords: English legal discourse; translation difficulties; translation strategy; translation tactics; translation skills.

Introduction

Translation represents a complex form of speech activity. This activity is impossible without specific knowledge, skills and personal qualities, which constitute translator’s competence. Translation skills are central in the structure of translator’s competence, which represents a synthesis of theoretical knowledge and practical actions performed on the basis of this knowledge.

The authors studying the methodological issues of translation teaching offer different sets of translation skills, classifying them with reference to the stage of work on translation [1]:
- skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the pre-translation stage (“understanding and interpretation”);
- skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the translation stage (“producing the translation of the text”);
- skills of editing and assessing the translated text, analyzing the problems of translation and ways of overcoming them (post-translation stage - “checking and assessing the translation product”).

Some authors divide translation skills into monolingual and bilingual, depending on the use of language. In addition, authors offer a set of translation skills depending on the goals of learning methodology [2].

Classification methodology for English legal discourse written translation skills

The theoretical research is based on the fundamental assumptions of the activity theory of general psychology (L.S. Vygotsky, P.Ya. Galperin,
A.N. Leontiev, S.L. Rubinstein etc.); theory of speech acts (P. Searle), fundamental assumptions of the theory of forming cross-cultural competence in teaching foreign languages (N.D. Galskova, E.I. Passov and etc.); different aspects of discourse (V. Karasik, N.D. Arutyunova, A.P. Chudinov etc.), as well on the theoretical assumptions of written speech practical application and techniques of translation (L.S. Barkhudarov, V.N. Komissarov, L.K. Latyshev, R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev, A.D. Shveitser etc.). Analysis of pedagogical, psychological, and linguistic literature, as well as synthesis and generalization form the methodological basis of the research.

Research and results

In this research English legal discourse is understood as a set of texts generated in the process of written communication in the field of law. As for the teaching of translating English legal discourse, it is important to take into account its specific nature, which manifests itself in linguistic and discursive features. The linguistic peculiarities are shown mainly at the vocabulary lexical level (use of terms, clichés, general vocabulary of legal importance, Latin loan words, abbreviations, etc.), and at the level of grammar (ways of expressing obligation and conditions, extensive use of complex adverbs (whereby, hereof), predominance of the passive voice, etc.). The discourse features are justified with the formality of communication, written information transfer channel, distant location of the communication participants, and with the peculiarities of the national legal system.

The existing approaches to the interpretation of the “translation” concept focus on different aspects of this phenomenon. One of them focuses on the sociocultural aspects; others focus on the communicative aspects.

The scholars who follow the socio-cultural and communicative approach focus their study on the cultural elements or contextual aspects in order to carry out their analysis. This can be separated into two groups: those who work from a communicative point of view, focusing on extra textual aspects; and those who deal with translation from a socio-cultural point of view [3].

At present, this definition is considered from the sociolinguistic viewpoint that is reflected in the definition of “translation difficulties”, by which we mean a set of problems caused by linguistic and discursive features of English legal discourse.

Difficulties of translation are determined by the essence of translation as a complex form of speech activity. They arise, first, on the account of differences between the systems of the source and target languages, which present the difficulties of linguistic nature. Moreover, in the process of the translation we must consider the facts that are beyond the scope of the language system and are directly related to a foreign culture. The latter causes the difficulties of discursive nature.
Indeed, sources of legal translation difficulty include the systemic differences in law, linguistic as well as cultural differences. All these are closely related [4].

According to S. Tolstoy, the translator in the process of translating the text is facing the difficulties of lexical and grammatical nature [5].

From our point of view, the lexical and grammatical difficulties of translation relate to the linguistic features of English legal discourse. The prevalence of acronyms, abbreviations, extensive use of the terminology, and archaisms cause difficulties mentioned above.

However, in the translation process, we are dealing not only with the systems of the two languages, but also with a concrete speech act. When we talk about some translation discrepancies, we do not mean isolated words and sentences, but about a completely translated speech act. The translation process is greatly complicated not only by differences in the systems of two languages, but also by differences in the subjective perception of communicative act participants, who belong to different cultures. The translated text belongs to the two systems - the original culture and the culture of the recipient; in this case some of the concepts and phenomena are not always the same in their cultures.

However, legal systems are peculiar to the societies in which they have been formulated. Each society has different cultural, social and linguistic structures developed separately according to their own conditioning. Legal concepts, legal norms and application of laws differ in each individual society, reflecting the differences in that society. Legal translation involves translation from one legal system into another. Unlike pure science, law remains a national phenomenon. Each national law constitutes an independent legal system with its own terminological apparatus, underlying conceptual structure, rules of classification, and sources of law, methodological approaches and socio-economic principles [6]. This has implications for translation when communication is channeled across different language and culture.

There is a vast culture that the translator should take into account in order to undertake linguistic transfer: training in linguistics, literature, history and culture. Moreover, one must not forget that translation exists in order to transmit the original meaning of a text to a different language avoiding cultural prejudices, which may lead us to change the text we are translating. Finally, the job of the translator consists in communicating, even though what we are translating belongs to two linguistically and culturally different systems, always respecting the fact that perfect synonymy does not exist in language [3].

It can be assumed that translation of a legal text is impossible without taking into account the cultural traditions of both the original language and the language in which the translation is done.
In general, the activity, which is directed to solving the problems of translation, is called translation strategy. Translation strategies are the subject of research in a methodological science, educational psychology, and psycholinguistics. In accordance with the definition given in the dictionary of methodological terms, a strategy is one of the ways of acquisition, preservation and use of information to achieve a particular purpose [7].

From the psycholinguistics point of view, a strategy is “patterns of decision-making in the course of human cognitive activity” [8].

Our analysis of Russian and foreign literature on the studied problem shows that the term may be used in the meaning of a plan of activity (T.Yu. Ternovych, 2007; T.A. Sokolova, 2009;), algorithm of actions, the general direction of activity (J. Burner, 1977; A.E. Mikhina, 2009), a set of actions, goal-oriented actions (N.G. Mikhailova, 2008; A.N. Rossinskaya, 2009).

Written translation strategy of English legal discourse is a method of overcoming the difficulties of translation at the pre-translation, translation and post-translation stages. The strategies are implemented through tactics. Under translation tactics, we mean a set of sequential actions organized under the optimal parameters to resolve translation difficulties at all stages.

Nowadays, there is no uniform typology of translation strategies in linguistic science. It is advisable to take into account the specifics of translation as a complex form of speech activity. Such definitions as “activity” and “activity approach” are basis to foreign language teaching methodology [9]. Activity approach is highlighted in the works of A.N. Leont’ev, 1977, A.A. Leont’ev, 1997, I.A. Zimnyaya, 1981, 1999. The most common understanding of the activity is “its interpretation as a concrete historically conditioned way of being, human being” [10].

Activities are controlled by human needs. If we consider human activities in terms of the need for communication when dealing with issues related to the translation, we are interested in bilingual speech activity. From this aspect, I.A. Zimnyaya and V.I. Ermolovich define “translation” as a continuous process of reflection (the formation and formulation of the perceived thought - understanding the meaning of communication in one language and the formation and formulation of statements in a different language [11].

Speech activity is implemented in four kinds, namely: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Translation brings together all the components of speech activity. In case of the dominance of certain kinds of speech activity, one can single out different kinds of translation: Reading and Writing are dominating during written translation. In case of the dominance of certain kinds of speech activity, different kinds of translation are distinguished: Reading and Writing prevail in written translation. In this aspect, I.A. Zimnyaya defines translation as “a continuous process” [12].
V.N. Komissarov divides the translation process into three stages: the interpretation of reality through the text, finding the invariant of translation, editing the product of translation [13].

Thus, taking into account the linguistic and discursive specifics of English legal discourse and the stages of translation, a complex of translation strategies of the legal discourse must include three global strategies:

- **pre-translation analysis**, consisting of local strategies of preparing for the translation, identifying information items and stylistic features of the text;

- **making translation decisions and creating a product of translation** containing the local strategies of selection of appropriate equivalents, and creating your own theme glossary of terminology;

- **editing the translated text and generalizing translation experience** covering local strategies of verification and correction of the text, analyzing the current translation problems and the way to overcome them, and systematizing successful translation solutions.

Possessing knowledge about specifics of the legal discourse, a translator applies appropriate skills to realize the strategies. Leontyev defines a skill as “the ability to carry out a particular activity at the optimal parameters of this action that is the best way, so that the implementation of this action is appropriate for the purpose and conditions of its progress” [14: 136]. After the definition of A.A. Leontyev, we define the translation skills as the ability to carry out this or that speech act at the optimal parameters corresponding to the objectives and tasks of the translation.

In other words, to translate legal discourse written texts from English into Russian it is necessary to perform certain actions purposefully, using the translation tactics, and these actions gradually become skills.

Such authors as L.K. Latyshev [15], V.N. Komissarov [13], etc., offer a different set of translation skills. Taking into account the working conditions with a class of law students and the stages of work on the translation, there are the following groups of translation skills:

- **skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the first stage of the translation** - “understanding and interpretation”: to carry out various types of information research on the subject of the text by means of electronic search engines; to determine logical-semantic orientation in the text; to identify key words and terms in the text; to use a variety of electronic dictionaries; to find the right lexical meaning of the word and term, collocation; to find non-equivalent vocabulary, abbreviations, Latinisms; to recognize grammatical transformations; to work with linguistic and cultural literature and translate socio-cultural information;

- **skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the stage translation (“the product of the translation of the text”)**: to use electronic bilingual dictionaries, machine automatic translation; to classify and struc-
ture information; to perform grammatical and lexical transformations (techniques of antonymous and synonymous translation; techniques of translation transcription, transliteration, loan-translation, descriptive translation, translation commentary;

- **skills of editing and assessing the translated text, analyzing the problems of translation and ways of overcoming them** (translation stage - “testing and evaluation of the translation product”): to use electronic dictionaries; to use the systems of spelling checking; to use search engines and discipline-specific sites, translation forums; electronic encyclopedias; to identify adequate translation and evaluate it in terms of the norms of the Russian language; to edit text.

This classification of translation skills is the most suitable for the construction of a method of teaching written translation strategies for students of non-linguistic universities.

**Conclusion**

To conclude, translation difficulties of English legal discourse include the systemic differences in linguistic and cultural aspects. A method of overcoming these difficulties is a translation strategy. The latter is implemented through tactics. Translation tactics are a set of sequential actions for overcoming translation difficulties at all stages of work on translation. In summary, the translation skills enable translators to carry out the operations necessary to successfully complete the translation process. There are three groups of translation skills: skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the pre-translation stage (“understanding and interpretation”); skills to overcome linguistic and discourse difficulties at the translation stage (“producing the translation of the text”); and skills of editing and assessing the translated text, analyzing the problems of translation and ways of overcoming them (post-translation stage - “checking and assessing the translation product”).

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“HEY, WHAT'S YOUR NAME?”: ANTHROPONYMICS IN THE LANGUAGE PICTURE OF THE WORLD OF JIM MORRISON

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No one remembers your name
When you’re strange
“People are strange”

Abstract. In the article, the anthroponyms are considered as one of the key fragments of the language picture of the world of American poet and musician Jim Morrison. The symbolism of names, which is important for all lingual cultures, in the poetics of Jim Morrison is manifested in a special way, because of his specific perception of the people, especially the women, with whom Jim Morrison’s relations were not the simple due to a specific life of rock-musician in California of the flower revolution epoch. In the Jim Morrison’s linguistic picture of the world, the elements of European (Antique, Germanic, Celtic) culture and culture of North American Indians are invented. Jim Morrison has created also his own cultural code, the American one, more exactly, a code of California, and the appropriate poetics of myths, that are reflected in his poetic texts. Therefore, the anthroponyms in the lyrics by Jim Morrison reflect all these cultural codes. In the article, the most interesting cases of inclusion of the anthroponyms in his lyrics are presented. English quotations from the songs are accompanied by Russian translations made by the author.

Keywords: language picture of world; cognitive and typological reconstruction; symbolism of name; anthroponyms; Jim Morrison; The Doors.

Introduction

This article continues the series of studies on cognitive and typological reconstruction of Jim Morrison’s, the American poet and musician and the leader of rock-group “The Doors”, language picture of the world [1-3].

The onomastic space of songs texts by Jim Morrison is not so high if compared, for example, with the texts of “the Beatles” [4]. The place names are represented much more than anthroponyms, which, in general, is understandable: in Morrison’s language picture of the world the space is represented very much by what we see in the images of the sea, road, city and country (e.g., see [5]). A small number of anthroponyms in Morrison’s texts is due, probably, to his words that are presented in the epigraph to this article: “No one remembers your name when you are strange people”. I note that the English word strange can be translated as “stranger”.
Still, let it be small research but about women’s and men’s, and especially about women’s names, meaning the very peculiar way that the women are represented in the poetics of Jim Morrison, which reflects his personal life and poetic creativity [2].

About onomastics as a linguistic symbol in the lyrics of British rock poetry I wrote earlier (see [6]). In this article it will be reviewed on the material of Jim Morrison’s lyrics, and that is its purpose.

The research methods

The main research method in this article is a semantic-mythopoetic interpretation of textual material. The comparative textual analysis and methodology of translation and interpretation of the text are also used.

The investigation

1. “Roll on, roll on, Maggie M’Gill’.
Feminine names in Jim Morrison’s songs

Hello, I love you, won’t you tell me your name

Jim Morrison had an uneasy relationship with women, which is associated with the well-known characteristics of a rock musician in California at the era of the “revolution of flowers” and “children of love”. “Sex, drugs & Rock’n Roll”, “Make love, not war” - those were not just slogans, it was a way of life. And the groupies of the band “Doors” were not like the girl-fans of the Beatles”. So Jim had a lot of girls and women, a lot of music, whiskey, drugs, and poetry...

In fact, the only and the last beloved woman and the Muse of Jim Morrison was Pamela Courson, whose surname in Russian is often passed as Курсон, or even Корсон, Корзон). He dedicated to her many poems and some of the most beautiful of his songs (e.g. “Love Street”, “Indian Summer”, “My Eyes Have Seen You”, “Twentieth Century Fox”, “L.A. Woman”, “Queen of the Highway”, “Wild Child”, and “Orange County Suite”, which is directly related to the flaming hair of Pamela). Morrison met this beautiful red-haired and green-eyed girl at a party in September 1965, and was constantly in her company, which, however, did not prevent him to tie a fleeting romance with his many female fans, groupie girls. But he loved Pamela sincerely and called her his “cosmic friend” [7] (Fig. 1).

Pamela, just like Jim died at 27 years old, having survived him only 3 years... But Jim nowhere in his poetry mentioned Pamela’s name, unlike John Lennon’s Muse, Yoko Ono, whose name is found frequently in Lennon’s songs. It was, probably, because Jim wrote about Pamela in his poems, not all of which later became songs. And in verses, it is not accepted to men-
tion the name of the beloved one, it is simply implied. Our Pushkin also wrote “To K…”.

Morrison often uses the pronoun *she* and its forms and also the form of the pronoun of the second person *you*, as in one of the best songs, “Love Street”, 1968. Here is the full text:

```
She has robes and she has monkeys
Lazy diamond studded flunkies
She has wisdom and knows what to do
She has me and she has you
I see you live on Love Street
There’s this store where the creatures meet
I wonder what they do in there
Summer Sunday and a year
I guess I like it fine, so far
She lives on Love Street
Lingers long on Love Street
She has a house and garden
I would like to see what happens (Fig. 2).
```
Originally, this song was a poem written by Jim Morrison about the street in the Laurel Canyon area of Los Angeles, California, where he lived with Pamela. Morrison and Courson called this street the Love Street, because they were sitting on the balcony and watched countless hippies who were passing by, constantly kissing (Fig. 3). A store, referred to, was in the house opposite [7].

Some of the women’s names in Morrison’s texts, otherwise, allow us to correlate them with Pamela as, for example, in his song (“Maggie M Gill”, an album “Morrison Hotel”, 1970):

Miss Maggie M’Gill, she lived on a hill.
Her daddy got drunk and left her the will.
So she went down, down to Tangie Town.
People down there like to get it on.

What facts can testify in favor of this assumption? First, the Irish surname M’Gill (and Pamela was of Irish descent; in the Oliver Stone’s movie, “The Doors”, she was played by Meg Ryan, also of Irish descent), more precisely, MacGill, Magill, from Gaelic MacanGhaill that means “son of the stranger” [8: 296]. The name Pamela as one of the versions is, translated from Latin “wanderer”.

Secondly, on the cover of the single of the song there is the photo of a red-haired girl with a guitar, very similar to Pamela, in particular, due to the shape of the nose in profile (Fig. 4, 5):
Unfortunately, I didn't find any information about who is on the cover. “Wikipedia” only mentioned that this song is dedicated to Pamela Courson.

The onomastic game is used by Jim Morrison in his song “Stoned Immaculate”, from the album “An American Prayer”, 1978:

One summer night, going to the pier
I ran into two young girls
The blonde one was called Freedom
The dark one, Enterprise
We talked and they told me this story
Now listen to this...

The essence of the game is that the English word freedom is “freedom”, and enterprise is “business”. Freedom, of course, is all “white” (like the statue of Liberty in New York), and the business, apparently, is “dark”.

There is the name Freedom in the United States, and it is quite popular, but it is considered as a man’s name, anyway, according to the Internet, which, in general, is strange, as we see the female appearance of the famous statue. But I did not find the female name Enterprise, so the ironic play by Morrison is obvious: the opposition of liberty and business, black and white.

There are also four female names in Morrison’s texts which can be considered as “looping”: Sandy, Carol, Gloria and Wanda.

The Man is at the door
Peppermint, miniskirts, chocolate candy
Champion sax and a girl named Sandy


The name Sandy, qualitative of Alexandra (and of the corresponding form of the male name), was quite common in the 60-70s of the last century in Britain and America, especially in the genres of music like country, folk and rock. Therefore, this name used by Jim can be generalized to denote a typical “girl-groupie”, constantly hanging out at various music events. But it can be assumed as an allusion to the popular British rock and folk-singer and composer, Sandy Denny (Alexandra Helen McLean Denny; 6 January 1947 - 21 April 1978) [https://ru.wikipedia.org/wiki/Денни_Сэнди]. Jim Morrison certainly knew about her and her work; especially in their poetics there were
similar motives (Celtic folklore). It interesting to compare the meanings of the titles of the songs by Jim Morrison “Waiting for the sun” and Sandy Denny’s “Rising for the moon” (“the sun” and “moon”), although the impact here was likely from Jim: the song of Sandy Denny represented in the eponymous album, “Fairport Convention” in June 1975. By the way, Sandy was also red-headed (Fig. 6):

![Sandy](image)

**Fig. 6**

Some onomastic game, perhaps not deliberately provided by Morrison, is presented in a rather long song “Gloria” (“An American Prayer”, 1978; quoted in abbreviated form):

Did you hear about my baby?
She come round here, the head to the ground,
Come round here just about midnight,
She makes me feel so good, make me feel all right.
She come round my street, now
She come to my house and
Knock upon my door
Climbing up my stairs, one, two
Come on baby
Here she is in my room, oh boy
Hey what’s your name?
How old are you?
Where’d you go to school?
Well, now that we know each other a little bit better,
Why don’t you come over here
Make me feel all right!
Gloria, Gloria - all night, all day
Gloria, Gloria
You were my queen and I was your fool,
Riding home after school.
You took me home to your house.
Your father’s at work,
Your mama’s out shopping around.
Check me into your room.
Show me your thing.
Why’d you do it baby?
Getting softer, slow it down
Now you show me your thing.
Wrap your legs around my neck,
Wrap your arms around my feet, yeah
Wrap your hair around my skin.
I’m gonna huh, right, ok, yeah.
It’s getting harder, it’s getting too darn fast
Come on, now, let’s get it on.
Too late, too late, too late, can’t stop, wow!

Female name Gloria in Latin means literally “glory”. Judging by the content of the song, we are talking about one of the young girl-groupies (even a schoolgirl) who crowded around Jim. The song is very sexual, as evidenced by its execution. But the game perhaps lies in the fact that this girl, Gloria, of course, was attracted, first of all, by Morrison’ glory. Maybe Jim has outlined one of the many girl-groupies whose names he didn’t remember - Gloria. A kind of irony? It is quite likely as it often was characteristic for Jim Morrison.

About the name Carol, that appears in the eponymous song (“Carol”, “An American Prayer”, 1978):
Oh, Carol!
Don’t let him steal your heart away.
Yeah I’ve got to love you darling
If it takes me all night and day.
Beat cool down, over cool down,
I can hear that highway sound.
Carol!

Most likely, it’s again about one of the girl-groupies. The name Carol was fairly common in America in those days (the short form of Carolina, the feminine form of the masculine name Carlus, the English version, Charles, which came from the German Emperor Carolus, from where, by the way, came the Slavic word король). Here is a picture of typical girl-groupies (of the rock group “Kiss”) (Fig. 7).
The name *Wanda* was used only in one of the fragments of Jim Morrison’s poem, “The Paris Journal” (1972):

*Shake it! Wanda,*

*fat stranded swamp.*

*Woman,*

*We still need you.*

The name Wanda is of Polish origin, from old Slavonic word meaning “troublemaker, argumentative”. I haven’t found information, whether Morrison is referring to a particular woman, Wanda, or whether it is just a collective image of the Slavic women, who had a reputation in those days in the West as thickset and clumsy. Note that this is also the name of the heroine of the American comedy thriller of 1888 “A fish named Wanda”, a role of Jamie Lee Curtis; the surname of her heroine was by the way Jewish, Herschwitz, from Poland).

2. “Poor Otis dead and gone”. Masculine names in Jim Morrison’s songs

![Fig. 8](image)

Of all the masculine anthroponomy we found in the lyrics by Jim Morrison, the interesting is only one (Fig. 8), demonstrating an inherent Jim’s creative speech onomastic game. But first, let us consider some more banal examples, and there are quite a few.

In the song “Hyacinth House” from the album “L.A. Woman” the name *Jack* in English playing card terminology means *The Jack* (see also *jack pot*):
Why did you throw the Jack of Hearts away?  
It was the only card in the deck that I had left to play.

So here, in fact, we meet not an anthroponym, but a common name, although according to the rules of English orthography it is written with a capital letter. Also note that the name Jack (from diminutive John, i.e. like Russian Ваня) has also the additional nominal value, including, word combinations and complex words. Often these words are written with a lowercase letter: for example, jackass “donkey, fool, idiot” (that’s the equivalent of our Ivan the fool), etc.

In the song “Ship of fools” (“Morrison Hotel”, 1970) there is a character whose name, Mr. Goodtrip, is “speaking”, which is the result of Jim’s onomastic games:

Yeah, along came Mr. Goodtrips  
Lookin’ for a new a ship.  
Come on, people better climb on board.  
Come on, baby, now we’re goin’ home.  
Ship of fools...

We meet the name Otis in the composition “Runnin’ Blue” from the album “Soft Parade” (1969):

Poor Otis dead and gone  
Left me here to sing his song  
Pretty little girl with the red dress on  
Poor Otis dead and gone...

This is the name of a famous American singer and composer in the genre of soul music, Otis Ray Redding, who was tragically killed in a plane crash in 1967 at the age of 26 years (Fig. 9). His work influenced the music of the Rolling Stones, George Harrison, Marvin Gaye and others. I think Jim Morrison was influenced too, if he wrote that Otis “left me here to sing his song”. “Girl with the red dress on” is apparently an allusion to the surname of Otis Redding.

Fig. 9
And now, the most interesting, in my opinion, the text of the song “L.A. Woman” from the eponymous album of 1971:

Mr. Mojo risin’, Mr. Mojo risin’,
Gotta keep on risin’,
Mojo risin’, got my Mojo risin’,
Mr. Mojo risin’,
Gotta keep on risin’.
Right in, right in!

Who is “Mr. Mojo”? And why is he “risin’”? Of course, it is a proper name, but still, who is he? As Peter Hogan writes in his “Guide...”, Jim introduced the refrain of Mr. Mojo risin’, bearing in his mind not only the meaning of “Mr. One risin” (lexeme mojo in American slang is used to replace forgotten names - such as Russian “Kak ezo man?”), but also gaming one, as this word is used “as a euphemism for concepts, often related to sex or drugs, although the value can be even wider, depending on the context. As it was discovered by John Sebastian, these words are the anagram of the name Jim Morrison, i.e., so that Jim made it clear that he continued to rise higher [7]. In other words: Jim Morrison > Mr. Mojo Risin’.

All this is quite likely. In general, it’s a rather complex meaning expressed only with two words: “Mr. One, I mean it’s me, sticking by sex and drugs and generally risin’ higher and higher This is consistent with the self-perception by Morrison.

You can, however, also take into account such a version, basing on the combination got my Mojo risin’ and the full context of the song “L.A. Woman”. Mojo in American slang also refers to sexual potency [http://www.urbandictionary.com/define.php?term=Mojo].

And one more thing: Mojo (pronounced [m’odz’o]) is the Japanese name for “Morning star”, i.e. Venus. It turns out like “the rise of Lord of Morning star”. Not just too bad. In general, the speech game by Jim Morrison, as it’s characteristic of him in general, produces a very complex semantic and symbolic configuration.

And finally, of course, in the lyrics by Jim Morrison, there are other feminine and masculine anthroponyms, but they are only in his poetic works that did not become songs. There is no point in analyzing them in this article, although when writing a forthcoming monograph on the language picture of the world by Jim Morrison in the appropriate paragraph, such examples are necessarily taken into account.

Conclusion

The versatility of the poetic and musical creativity of Jim Morrison conditioned the high complex frame of his linguistic picture of the world. It holds a special place in onomastics as one of the most important fragments
of the national linguistic picture of the world: the way people are called reflect their attitude to the outside world. So anthroponymy is rising in many nations perceptions even to the pagan era, when people identified a word and object, themselves as persons and as a part of the world.

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CULTURAL IDENTITY AS A PROBLEM OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

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Abstract. The article considers the problem of the learner’s cultural identity in acquiring a foreign language. An attempt is made to prove the relevance of this problem to the ongoing period of neoglobalization of languages and cultures. The research encompasses a theoretical analysis of the “third culture” phenomenon combined with the studies of cultural identity of English language learners, including an opinion poll among Russian students of English. The article concludes with the idea that cultural identity in English language teaching can be viewed as an intrapersonal process. Cultural identity can serve the purpose of training students to exercise tolerance for other cultures across diversities and differences.

Keywords: culture; cultural identity; globalization; anti-globalization; global English; the phenomenon of the “third culture”; native speakers and culture bearers.

Introduction

Cultural identity is an individual’s awareness of oneself as the bearer of certain culturally marked traits, which becomes ever more realized amidst cultural diversity. Identity is deeply hidden and intimate process of integrating oneself with culturally alien environment and achieving the integrity of the native and non-native norms, values and stereotypes. In this sense, identity is the way towards self-reconciliation of the “nativeness” with the “otherness” [1].

Thus, cultural identity is not only a state of personal mentality but also a process resembling the “tug-of-war” when individuals find themselves between the two or among more cultures making the much needed choice to self-identify and to belong.

If the choice is made in favor of the target foreign culture, individuals acquire the necessary consistency in behavior.

In the case of retaining one’s allegiance to the home culture, cultural identity is an important psychological prerequisite to remain the “rightful
owner” of one’s native culture and a “welcomed” guest in the foreign environment. Self-identity in the non-native society is also important for the psychological health of an individual, because “wandering between cultures” can be seen as a cultural split personality syndrome.

It’s cultural identity, but not attempts to fit in the others’ cultural practices that accounts for success in adapting to a non-native social environment. Seeking one’s own cultural identity is relevant not only in the field of multicultural world, but also in the language classroom, where native culture bearers get into active contact with the target step-culture.

Methodology

The study was based on the generally accepted concept of an individual’s cultural identity. The specificity was seen in the idea of the “third culture” [2], the role of the nearest cultural context available in language learning [3], the impact of globalization on cultural self-perception [4]. The method of analyzing worldviews in Russia’s English language learners was also applied. With the help of opinion poll the perception of cultural self-identity in English language learning was studied among students at Tambov State Technical University.

Results and discussion

“Third Culture” in the cultural identity of pupils

The study of cultural identity of pupils is known in language teaching pedagogy as the problem of a “child with a third culture” (Third Culture Kid - TCK) [2].

The “Third Culture” of students in many ways develops not only in real contact with other cultures, but also during the English language classroom. This process is under the influence not only on the part of teachers and class peers. Essential impact comes from the family, parents and social environment. It is noteworthy that parents often voice their concern over their children starting to absorb other people’s worldview and values during their English language lessons and this phenomenon goes far beyond Russia’s educational environment observable in many other cultures across the globe.

Typically parents who want their children to learn English, want them to get acquainted with other cultures keeping their native cultural identity. This phenomenon is being increasingly observed in Russia with a growing sense of belonging to “one’s roots”. A very illustrative in this sense, is the celebration of Christmas during the English language lessons in the British tradition. Quite a few parents in our own experience have expressed doubt whether it is appropriate to celebrate this holiday in the British way on the Russian soil.
The methodology of teaching is also considered a culturally marked practice with the distinction made between teaching “their way” and “our way”. One of such teaching areas is the instruction of grammar regarding the choice of material, the succession of presentation, the teaching techniques and the weight of importance given to it. Russian national pedagogy is often viewed as an important indicator of the teacher’s cultural identity and allegiance.

Another important indicator of one’s cultural identity is the phenomenon of Global English or rather the choice of one of the “Englishes”.

**The cultural function of the global English language in the modern world**

In contrast to “King’s/Queen’s English” there emerges Global English owned by the English speaking community at large and belonging to different cultures both big and small. Received Pronunciation has already become a thing of the past even on the British Isles, limited to a professional community of BBC presenters while English is spoken in a great variety of local accents.

The role of global English is growing, allowing people to:
- establish intercultural contacts on a global scale;
- achieve pragmatic goals making oneself understood and heard;
- understand the multitude of different accents typical of “Englishes”;
- “to switch codes” embedding elements of English in one’s mother tongue and inserting elements of native language in the English speech;
- confidently demonstrate one’s own cultural identity through the vehicle of English [1].

It’s the communicative reality that prompts the need to teach students to understand not only the Standard English pronunciation but also develop readiness to deal effectively with non-standard accents [5].

Thus, the multiple function of Global English has already emerged vividly symbolizing the cultural diversity of the world, effectively serving the purpose of intercultural communication and assertively publishing one’s cultural identity.

These functions mark neoglobalization.

**Cultural identity of the individual in the process of neoglobalization**

Theoretical research has shown that the study of students’ cultural identity will be more productive if we take into account the period of “neoglobalization”, which replaced the relatively short time when the spread of the English language and culture went on uncontested with the domineering values of the “inner circle” (UK, USA etc.).

Neoglobalization shows not only the spread of English language and culture, but also the growing national self-awareness of people in the “outer” and “expanding” circle where English is either firmly established or is in
growing demand. The English language which once served as a social tool to distinguish a Brit from a foreigner has subsequently turned into a convenient instrument of an individual’s cultural self-assertion owned by diverse ethnic communities of the world.

Under these conditions, the task to train and educate English language learners with the distinct cultural identity and ability to successfully navigate between cultures, is becoming truly relevant [4].

Another important trend of neoglobalization is the silent claim coming from Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, Russian and some other languages to get the status of a “global” language [6] the reason being migration and formation of cultural diasporas and enclaves all over the globe.

Impact on the classroom

The interaction and blend of cultural norms, values, stereotypes, beliefs and bans takes place not only in the real world but also in the language classroom where learning environment is the arena of both transfer and clash of cultures [7].

Observations in Russia’s language classrooms show that the tendency to teach English spoken “as in England” is still considered ideal by some teachers lacking first-hand knowledge of the linguistic reality on the British Isles with an apparent variety of ethnic norms. At the same time, “travellers’ tales” spread the word reaching classrooms in Russia that English in England is not spoken as it is taught in class, forgetting about Northumberland Geordie which is beyond understanding, and saying nothing about English in Scotland and Northern Ireland. This begs the question of what kind of English should be taught for better communication with the real world.

In view of the “proper English” problem the preference traditionally given to the “correct English” is being questioned and contested alongside with the growing interest in the native speaker’s worldviews reflecting the whole cultural map of the world [8].

This trend alongside with the tendency to view oneself as belonging to one’s own culture has become noticeable not only in Russia but also in European countries, including the UK, France, Greece, Spain, but also in Russia, China, Japan, South Korea, Vietnam, and others. This is the most essential feature of neoglobalization. Globalization of English that was once regarded as a threat to cultural identity has turned out to be its booster. Resistance to alien interference has once again proved to be alive and kicking.

Cultural identity in students

Studies have shown that contact with another culture leads to both negative and positive changes in the learner’s cultural identity and ability to adapt to a different social setting. On the positive pole these changes are:
Cultural identity as a problem

- enhanced flexibility in finding bearings in a different social environment;
- increased ability to get an insight into a different culture.

On the negative pole the changes are:
- losing the ability with the time to understand one’s native culture;
- wavering between the non- and native culture;
- experiencing inner conflict of cultures.

This dynamics results in the productive, additive, subtractive, non-productive and split change in the learner’s cultural identity. Zero change with little or no effect is also possible [3].

Studies demonstrate that the most important factor having an impact on cultural identity of individuals is not immersion in a culture per se, but a “foreign friend”. Socializing with friends and acquaintances facilitates culture acquisition, makes a person more self-confident abroad [9]. Importantly, interest of foreign friends in the individual’s native culture contributes to the sense of belonging and retention of cultural identity.

Teachers’ response

In some countries, such as China, where national cultural identity is noticeably felt, English teachers’ voices are heard expressing their concern about the initiation of students into English and culture, leading to potential loss of Confucian traditions in education. Some teachers protest against students’ increased self-confidence which is alien to the Chinese educational traditions.

Interestingly, early English learning cuts the likelihood of a cultural “split” and increases the chances that learners’ native culture will dominate. [10: 2005] The analogy can be found in Japan with the typical “Japanization” of education [11] and other countries of the region [9].

Opinion poll among Russian students

In order to study the process of identifying with a foreign culture a survey was conducted among students at Tambov State Technical University (Russia). The students were asked to complete the given statement with the suggested options:

Contact with foreign culture in my English language studies:
1) expands my intercultural horizons;
2) teaches me adequate strategies of behavior;
3) gives me a positive image of target countries and cultures;
4) generates inner conflict between my native and learned culture;
5) has “zero” impact on my;
6) gives rise to mixed feelings.
7) requires increased tolerance in perceiving foreign cultures.
Responses were obtained from 150 students at Tambov State Technical University (Russia). The distribution of responses (%) is shown on the histogram (Fig. 1). Each participant could choose more than one answer.

Distribution of answers to the teachers on the impact of the culture of countries where English is common language in outlook, behavior, attitude

As shown on the histogram, many students believe that discovering the culture of English-speaking countries beyond the inner circle of the UK and USA expands their horizons and learn different strategies of behavior. Students’ responses about positive image of English culture were mixed.

It is noteworthy that quite a few students mentioned mixed feeling and the need to exercise tolerance towards English speaking communities and their cultural practices. These indications can be interpreted as natural process of searching for one’s cultural identity and position in the modern multicultural world. The guarded attitude towards some indications of English-associated cultures means that Russian students have now entered the reality of the world that can be harsh at times and are becoming part of international community with diverse attitudes and mixed feelings. This proves once again the relevance of moving cultural component of curriculum from the curriculum backdrop to the forefront and ascribing to it the role of “second grammar” much needed for successful communication [12].

**Conclusion**

Cultural identity of the English language learner is a novel issue that has become relevant in the process of neoglobalization and, the growing search for self-identity in large and small nations. The process of establishing cultural identity is natural and is always activated in the situation of cultural diversity and the need to belong. The task of developing in Russia’s learners of English their national self-identity is explicitly set in the Federal
State Educational Standard in Russia starting with the primary school and into higher education. The goal is set to develop in Russia’s English language learners their national and civic identity with awareness of themselves as bearers of Russian culture. The achievement of this goal matched with the increased ability of native culture bearers to adapt successfully to the non-native cultural environment on the principles of tolerance and interaction, is both timely and worthwhile the pedagogical effort.

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FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHERS’ TRAINING
IN THE SYSTEM OF CONTINUING EDUCATION

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Abstract. Nowadays Russian universities offer applicants three linguistics and philology majors: “Philology” (profile “Foreign Philology”), “Linguistics” and “Teacher Education” (profile “Foreign Language”). However, which of them fully prepares students to become teachers of foreign languages. In this paper, the author gives an analysis of the situation in the national education system in the undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate continuing education and offers an individual education path “bachelor-master-graduate school” for training foreign language teachers.

Keywords: continuing education; methodical preparation; the preparation of teachers of foreign languages; a three-level model of training specialists.

Importance

On the modern education market universities offer a range of majors of different levels (undergraduate, graduate, post-graduate) related to foreign language training as specialization (“Philology”, “Linguistics”, “Teacher Education”), using all possible arguments to attract applicants. Moreover, the transition to a two- or three-level model of training (undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate) de jure creates conditions for the implementation of continuing education on an individual path, allowing to take into account students’ individual professional interests and needs to the full. Thus, having received a bachelor’s degree in one major, student can continue education in the same major, or select another one, which fully meet the student’s demands, interests, and needs. However, how to understand what chain of the “undergraduate-graduate-post-graduate” meets best the needs of students who want to become foreign language teachers in secondary and higher education establishments? The purpose of this paper is the author’s attempt to show a variety of options for getting foreign language teacher education in Russian universities and to define the chain of continuing education, which would meet the social demand for teacher training in a foreign language to the full (In this paper we adhere to the definition of “language education” proposed by B.S. Gershunsky, for whom language education is a “value, process, result and system of foreign language teaching” [as a specialization] [1: 38].).
Historical background

In the USSR the training of foreign language teachers was conducted in pedagogical institutes or universities, pedagogical schools and colleges. In universities standard period of training in major “Foreign Language” lasted 5 years. At the end of training students received qualification “Teacher of a foreign language” or “Teacher of foreign languages”. This qualification allowed graduates to be employed as foreign language teachers in secondary schools, institutions of secondary special and vocational education, universities. In addition, theoretical and practical training allowed graduates to work as interpreters, even though there were specialized institutions of higher education. At the same time, it is necessary to emphasize that in the USSR the basic need in the professionals who speak foreign languages was mainly in the field of education. That is why the main emphasis in language education in the country was reasonably placed on pedagogical training in a field of foreign languages. As a result, in most regions of the country there were pedagogical institutes or universities with faculties of foreign languages to meet the needs of each region in the teachers. In addition, in the USSR and Russia there was a whole network of pedagogical colleges which gradually merged into universities or transformed into pedagogical colleges. In these establishments students received the secondary special and vocational education allowing to work as foreign language teachers in the lower grades of secondary schools, institutions of secondary vocational and special education.

The mid-1990’s were characterized by global changes in the Russian system of higher education. In most regions of Russia establishment of classical universities by merging pedagogical institutes with other institutions (e.g. Institute of Culture, etc.) led to a gradual shift from “pedagogical” to “classical” specializations. In particular, instead of foreign language teacher training many universities switched to training of philologists who could speak foreign languages. The changes were made not only the names of the specializations, but, more importantly, the content of the teaching. From educational programs and curriculum of specialization of “Philology” (and then major “Philology” profile “Foreign Philology”) in many universities were excluded such important disciplines for pedagogical activities as “Developmental Psychology”, “Educational Psychology”, “Didactics”, “Theory of teaching”, “Foreign Language Textbook”, “Foreign language teaching methodology”, although the last one remained the only pedagogical discipline of curriculum in many universities of country (major “Philology”). They were replaced by new theoretical courses, many of them, according to the contents, represented regional philological research schools, and were not directly aimed at an intensification and modernization of students’ training for pedagogical activity (Notice that I do not detract from the significance of many philological disciplines. I am just state the fact that their in-
clusion in curricula often occurred to the prejudice of disciplines of psychopedagogical orientation.). At the same time, the main place of employment of graduates of foreign language specializations in the majority of regions of the country were and still are secondary schools and other educational institutions. Thus, we can say that in some regions of country where population need in training of pedagogical staff holding the foreign language teaching methods at different stages, the authority of the universities deliberately ignored the social order in favor of the prevailing trend.

Just a few classical universities in the country preserved pedagogical specializations and at the same time developed philological/linguistic and teacher education in the field of foreign languages. For the sake of justice it should be noted that a big contribution to preservation of specialization in order to train foreign language teachers was made by the Moscow State Linguistic University, which initiated the appearance of the specialization “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Cultures” (1996). In 2010 Moscow State Pedagogical University and Herzen Russian State Pedagogical University opened a new major “Teacher Education” where teachers of foreign languages are currently being prepared.

In 2011, in connection with the transition to a two-level system of training (undergraduate-post-graduate) many specializations, including the linguistics, moved to the majors. In accordance with the Federal State Educational Standards of Higher Vocational Education (2011) in many majors were allocated individual learning profiles, defining the sphere of future professional activity of graduates. In particular, in the major “Philology” training is conducted both in the field of Russian and in the field of foreign languages. For those who learned foreign language as a specialization, universities determined the profile “Foreign Philology” (in the standard selection of this profile is not provided). On major “Linguistics” the profiles “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Cultures”, “Translation and Theory of Translation”, “Theory and Practice of Cross-cultural Communication”, “Theoretical and Applied Linguistics”, and in the major “Teacher Education” - the profile “Foreign Language” are allocated. Besides, “Teacher Education” is provided by the opportunity to study on two profiles (a two-profile undergraduate), for example “Foreign Language and History”, or “Foreign Language and Foreign Language” (the second foreign language), etc. With such a great variety it is often quite difficult for an applicant to define what of these linguistics and philology majors fully prepare teachers and lecturers of a foreign language.

Consider federal regulations and exemplary curricula for above-mentioned majors for undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate for further discussion of topical and controversial issues of methodical preparation of teachers of a foreign language in system of continuing education.
Preparation for pedagogical activity of graduates in regulations of the higher education of the undergraduate

With the transition to a two-level model of education “bachelor-master” the qualification “Teacher” or “Lecturer” is no longer indicated in the bachelor’s diplomas. Instead, it indicates the qualification “Bachelor” in the modern undergraduate diploma, the major and orientation (profile) of the educational program. This fact gives additional opportunities for manipulation of applicants who do not understand all the subtleties of the higher education system in the Russian Federation.

Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education regulates types of professional activity which will prepare the graduates who have mastered an educational program of undergraduate [2-7]. Readiness for each of types of professional activity is defined by the number of professional competences which are presented by types of professional activity in the standard. Note that the opportunity to prepare students for teaching activities inherent in modern Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education in all three majors (undergraduate level). In addition, linguistic and didactics preparation, designated in Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education for the major “Linguistics”, allows students to master the theoretical issues of foreign language teaching (learning content, goals, objectives, principles, methods, means, language learning, methods of research, methodological foundations of language teaching). In this regard, N.D. Galskova justifiably calls Language didactics the “methodological basis of foreign languages teaching” [8: 81]. Linguistic and Didactic preparation will allow graduates to not only simulate correctly the pedagogical process of learning a foreign language at different stages, but also to determine the policy of language education in schools. However, the complexity and ambiguous interpretation of quality of methodical preparation of pedagogical staff is connected with an opportunity within each major for the aim of a narrow-profile specialization in specific types of professional activity of allocation of profiles of training.

Ideally, the choice of profile education should regulate and restrict the professional activities of students who have mastered the basic professional educational program (BPEP). In particular, teacher training appropriate to maintain within the profile “Applied Philology” (major “Philology”) (provided that methodical program content) or “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Cultures” (major “Linguistics”), but not to artificially add pedagogical activity in the profiles, which not originally designed for the training of teachers and lecturers (e.g. profiles “Foreign Philology” (Philology) or “Translation and Theory of Translation” (Linguistics)). Otherwise, the meaning of separation of training profiles within the majors is completely destroyed! In addition, Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education does not regulate the minimum amount of labor input re-
quired for the formation of a group of competences (in particular, related to teaching activities). The standard requirement is only presented to the volume of the disciplines of basic and variable parts. The number of disciplines and their labor input which need to prepare students for a specific type of professional activity is not specified in the standard. Such a gap in the regulations allows the authors and developers of basic professional educational program in specific schools to declare about the training of teachers and foreign language teachers including a 1-3 insignificant complexity of educational disciplines of psychological and pedagogical and methodological orientation in the curricula. In this regard, in the existing regulatory and legal framework of Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education for more accurate orientation of applicants in a variety of advertised linguistics and philology majors, it could be only recommended to study basic professional educational programs and curricula offered profile training and determine which of them to a greater extent creates didactic conditions to prepare for future careers in the field of foreign language teaching. Let me illustrate the presence of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation of some of the curricula in three profiles of the three majors (Table).

### Psychological and pedagogical orientation disciplines in the curricula of profiles for undergraduate

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major and profile</th>
<th>Major “Philology”, profile “Foreign philology”</th>
<th>Major “Linguistics”, profile “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Cultures”</th>
<th>Major Teacher, profile “Foreign languages”</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Discipline</strong></td>
<td>- Psychology and pedagogy</td>
<td>- Psychology</td>
<td>- General Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Curriculum</strong></td>
<td>- Methods of teaching a foreign language at school</td>
<td>- Pedagogy</td>
<td>- Developmental psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Teaching practice</td>
<td>- Theory of training</td>
<td>- Pedagogical psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Methods of teaching a foreign language and culture at different stages of learning</td>
<td>- General pedagogy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Information technologies in training of foreign language</td>
<td>- History of Pedagogy and Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Modern training and methodology complex in foreign language</td>
<td>- Modern educational technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Teaching practice</td>
<td>- Methods of teaching foreign languages and cultures at different stages of learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Information and communication technologies in linguistics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Learning theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Teaching practice</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Analysis of the curricula for the presence of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation suggests that the preparation of teachers and
Foreign language teachers’ training

Foreign language teachers can fully be conducted in major “Linguistics” (profile “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages and Cultures” and “Teacher Education” (profile “Foreign Language”). Certainly, in different educational institutions all over the country the number of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation and their labor input can differ in the direction of increasing and decreasing. In this paper, we deliberately do not specify the schools whose curricula were used to compile Table, since a similar situation can be observed in various regions of the country. We only pay attention of the teaching community to the current trend of inconsistency between the stated aim of preparing students for teaching activities in teaching on a particular profile and the number of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation and their labor input in the curricula for training the selected profile. Is it possible to fully prepare students to work in a secondary school in the presence of only two courses in pedagogy and psychology and methods of teaching a foreign language in the curriculum (the amount of these courses will remain outside of this article)? At the same time, our criticism is not related to the curricula in “Philology”, including the list of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation, similar curricula in “Linguistics” and “Teacher education”.

It is necessary to mention experience of Derzhavin Tambov State University where in the curricula for teacher education (profile “Foreign Language”) present the disciplines which both aimed at the formation of foreign language communicative competence and methodical competence of students. For example, during the course “The use of the audio-visualization in learning of language and culture”, the students watch and discuss language foreign films, and on the methodological side, they analyze and develop their methods of teaching foreign languages and cultures on the basis of films as well.

A model of preparation of undergraduate students in profile “Teacher Education” deserves special attention, it implements by some universities where, regardless of the profile of education, during the first two years students of different learning profiles (“Foreign Language”, “History”, “Preschool Education”, “Elementary Education”, etc.) study the same range of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation (“Child Psychology”, “Developmental Psychology”, “Educational Psychology”, “Developmental Anatomy and Physiology”, “Developing Training the Child to School”, “Methods of Teaching and Education of Pre-school Children”, “Methods of Teaching and Education of Younger Pupils”, etc.). Thus, students receive unique wide-profile training through educational activities, and they will be qualified to teach their subjects at different stages of education. Particular relevance this model acquires in regions where opportunities of employment in the specialization are considerably limited in comparison with megalopolises.
Training of teachers and foreign language teachers in graduate and post-graduate

One of the positive sides of a two-level education system is an opportunity to continue education in graduate on another profile or major. Unlike undergraduate where education is generally massive, graduate and post-graduate are focused on a smaller number of students who more consciously and deliberately choose a specific major and specific education program. Considering the opportunity of the pointed choice of the program according to specific needs of the region, there are no training profiles in the graduate. Instead of them ideally under several certain types of professional activity, the specific educational program is offered to applicants. Comparison of the Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education (undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate) indicates the presence of continuity in the regulations between the levels of education. At all levels and majors there is the opportunity to prepare students for teaching activities. The graduate and especially post-graduate focus on the research work, which is quite natural. Being the third level of education, post-graduate prepares pedagogical staff for higher education.

As in the undergraduate, readiness for every type of professional work in the graduate is determined by the formation of a number of components of professional competencies, which are presented in the standard for the type of professional activity. However, unlike the undergraduate which has a broader focus on the professional activities of future graduates, heads of graduate and post-graduate have a little more freedom to determine the activities which will prepare the basic professional educational program.

Master’s program is developed with a focus on research and/or kind of pedagogical professional activity. In accordance with the professional activities, the most optimal conditions for training teachers in the field of foreign language teaching create master’s programs in applied philology, linguistics and teacher education, including discipline aimed at both the formation of foreign language communicative competence (C1-C2 levels) and competence in the field of methodology of teaching foreign languages and cultures. Master’s program author has the freedom to choose the name of the program which should ideally respond to its content. In practice, graduates of the bachelor degree programs are often offered education programs which do not meet the requirements of the level of preparation of graduates of master’s program and unable to prepare for the educational activities in the field of foreign language. Firstly, some curricula do not contain or contain the minimal labor input for the further study of a foreign language. By doing this, developers of education programs ignore the fact that in the graduate of foreign language major students must achieve a C1-C2 level language skills. The transition from level B2/C1 to C1/C2 requires
200 academic hours. Secondly, the curriculum in the graduate must contain a considerable amount of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation, many of which should reflect the specifics of higher education by their content (for example: “Methods of Foreign Language Teaching in Higher Education”). In this context, choosing a master’s program, the applicant must understand that the only one program corresponds to the interests which contains: a) a large amount of foreign language and b) a large amount of disciplines of psychological and pedagogical orientation. It should be advised for the applicants entered to graduate to read the description of the educational program for the presence of educational activities and study the curricula to determine the presence of language courses and psychological and pedagogical orientation.

Pedagogical activity in post-graduate has narrow-profiled character. Post-graduate in philological sciences provides the training in disciplines of a philological and linguistic orientation, in pedagogical sciences it is a technique of training in a foreign language at different stages. In accordance with the direction of the program, each university independently formulates a list of professional competencies formed as a result of the study of a particular cycle of disciplines. In our country there is a tradition to prepare candidates of Philological Sciences (Theory of Language, the Germanic Languages, Romance Languages, etc.) and Pedagogical Sciences (Theory and Methods of Teaching and Training (foreign languages)). In this regard, a special interest may represent post-graduate programs, including interdisciplinary modules which are implemented simultaneously in several majors. In particular, V.V. Safonova [9] presented in her paper a description of the innovative experience of the Faculty of Foreign Languages and Area Studies at Lomonosov Moscow State University to develop this interdisciplinary module on foreign language teaching methodology for post-graduate students studying in the majors of “Linguistics and Literature” and “Education and Pedagogical Science”. I note that the practice of creating these modules is possible only in the teaching staff interested in improving the quality of education and competitiveness of graduates, rather than “to grab the biggest piece of the pie”. In most universities of the country where at the same time students are offered “Philology”, “Linguistics” and “Teacher education”, for subjective reasons the development and introduction of interdisciplinary modules is not possible.

Thus, de facto, the system of continuing linguistic education was established in Russia and still works. However, from the entire spectrum of majors and training profiles, this paper focuses only on those which in my opinion for some above-mentioned reasons; create the most optimal conditions for the training of pedagogical staff in the field of foreign languages (Fig. 1).
The three-level model of education creates the conditions for a particular academic mobility of students in the selection of majors and programs of a higher level. Thereby, everyone will be able to choose an educational path which will allow him most to be the popular expert in modern labor market. As for pedagogical activity in the field of foreign languages, there are several options which are caused by two main reasons. Firstly, all three linguistics and philology majors considered in this paper at the level of the undergraduate provide students the formation of foreign language communicative competence to the B2/C1 level. Secondly, in our country there is no regulation limiting the set on graduate with a non-core undergraduate (not related by their professional orientation to graduate in philology, linguistics, or teacher education). Based on the professional activities identified in the Federal Educational Standard of Higher Education and learning content within the basic professional educational program, ideal educational paths to teacher training and foreign language teaching are: a) undergraduate in the major “Linguistics” (profile “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Lan-
Foreign language teachers’ training

guages and Cultures”), graduate in the major “Linguistics” program “Linguistics and Didactics”, post-graduate in major “Education and Pedagogical Sciences” (profile “Theory and Methods of Training and Education”); b) undergraduate in major “Philology” (profile “Applied Philology”), graduate in the major “Philology” (program “Applied Philology”), post-graduate in the major “Education and Teaching of Science” (profile “Theory and Methods of Training and Education”); c) undergraduate “Teacher Education” (profile “Foreign Language”), graduate “Teacher Education” (program of “Theory and Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages”), post-graduate in the major “Education and Teaching of Science” (profile “Theory and Methods of Training and Education”). In addition, cross variant of the transition from the undergraduate to the graduate (from Applied Philology in Linguistics (theory and methods), etc.) are possible; it depends on what majors and related master’s programs are developed and were accredited in a particular university. Any combination of the three above-mentioned linguistic majors (programs) create the most optimal conditions for the training of teachers and the teaching of foreign language as in the undergraduate students receive a total psychological and pedagogical and methodological training which is mainly applied to the secondary school. In the graduate the range of the studied issues extends to methods of teaching foreign language in universities.

Those students who completed undergraduate programs of other profiles in language majors (“Philology” (profile “Foreign Philology”), “Linguistics” (profile “Translation and Theory of Translation”, “Theory and Practice of Intercultural Communication”) and non-linguistic majors (e.g. law, economics, international relations (provided that the level of foreign language they speak correspond to the B2/C1 level) can also continue their education in one of the methodological master’s programs. However, in this case they will need to catch up and make up for the amount of psychological and educational training that they did not receive during the study in undergraduate; but which serves as a basis of master’s program in the theory and methods of teaching a foreign language.

Introducing the chain of realization of continuing pedagogical education in the field of foreign languages “bachelor, master and postgraduate school”, we are not saying that it is the sole and universal model containing a few options. In this paper the author presented ideas for discussion which regard the most optimal path of teacher training and foreign language teachers based on the contentious issues of domestic law and personal factors of educational programs in the field of developers.

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