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Editorial address:
Faculty of Foreign Languages
National Research Tomsk State University
36 Lenina Avenue
Tomsk, 634050
Telephone / fax: 8 + (3822)52-97-42
E-mail: gural.svetlana@ail.ru
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THE LANGUAGE OF WORLDWIDE COMMUNICATION AND LINGUISTIC AND CULTURAL GLOBALIZATION

S.K. Gural, V.M. Smokotin
Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: gural.svetlana@mail.ru; vladimirsmokotin@yandex.ru

Abstract. The aim of the paper is to examine the interrelations of English as the language of worldwide communication with other languages and cultures as well as the effect of linguistic and cultural globalization on ethnocultural identities. The paper demonstrates that in the conditions of globalization, ethnocultural identity is a component of a multiple identity, which includes the language of worldwide communication and the global culture as components of a global identity. In the conditions of the globalizing world, the English language, due to its “communicative potential” (A. de Swaan) transforms from one of the most widespread international languages into the global language of universal communication in all spheres of international activities and, first of all, in science and higher education. The article supports the opinion of a number of researchers in the field of the English language as a lingua franca about the need for recognizing English used as a means of overcoming intercultural and interlingual barriers as a new variety of the English language, which presents a special object of research, differing from the main national standards and new varieties of the English language. The English language as the language of worldwide communication is used in its major communicative function of interlingual and intercultural communication, and, in case of abiding by the principle of subsidiarity, does not lead to the elimination of ethnocultural identities, which are expressed through national and ethnic languages. As a result of the English language acquiring the global status, there takes place a stabilization of the world system of languages, which is expressed in weakening of competition between major world languages in international communication. English as the global lingua franca emerges as a new variety of the English language, free from national or ethnic cultural component, which does not mean, however, a lack of cultural component and, correspondingly, a new identity. Creation of a global society in conditions of globalization leads to the formation of a global culture and creation of a new global identity. To substantiate the thesis about a complementarity of interrelations of the English language as the means of world communication with other languages and cultures, the authors resort to the notion of “multiple identity”. In conditions of globalization, the global English language and the emerging global culture become part of the multiple identity of a multilingual and multicultural person of the information society. A possibility of and a need for multiple identities on the basis of mass individual multilingualism open the ways for preserving ethnocultural identities on the basis of functional spheres of use division between languages of different levels and hierarchies in the world system of languages.
**Key words:** English as a global lingua franca; language of worldwide communication; ethnocultural identity; multiple identity; linguistic and cultural diversity.

**Introduction**

The evolution of the English language from a little-known language of a small ethnic group into one of the most widespread international languages occurred rapidly in the course of the 20th century and involved the transformation of English into the language of worldwide communication. The English language’s assumption of global language status is an unprecedented phenomenon in the history of languages and cultures, and has significant consequences not only for the theory and practice of language teaching, but also for the preservation of linguistic and cultural heritage of the world. English, long before its transformation into a global means of overcoming language and cultural barriers, was considered by some academics and politicians as a domineering language, threatening the future of national languages and cultures. Thus the issue of its relations with other world languages and cultures came to be of great concern by the beginning of the third millennium, in a period of rapid globalization.

Is it true that the use of English as a global lingua franca in all spheres of international communication and the cultural globalization of the world may lead to its replacing other languages and cultures, especially the thousands of languages and cultures of small peoples in the world? Or is the language of worldwide communication becoming a part of the multiple identities of humankind in the era of globalization and the information society, without posing a threat to ethnocultural identity?

The approach to language as a tool, used for the purposes of communication, coordination of joint actions and understanding of the world, makes it possible to explain the difficulties of language policy without proper consideration of instrumental and functional properties of languages. However, some important issues connected with the development, conservation and use of languages and cultures in the context of globalization are not explained fully, despite the increasing level and scope of linguistic research. In this regard, the concept of A. de Swaan [1], a professor of sociology at the University of Amsterdam, on the global system of languages is of particular interest. According to de Swaan, more than six thousand languages in the world represent a system of languages, connected together by multilingual speakers. In the global system of languages some languages, according to the principle of multilingualism, have a wider function, i.e. being a means of communication between speakers of regional languages. Depending on the language’s ability to act as a means of cross-language communication, de Swaan divides the global system of languages into four hierarchical groups: 1) peripheral languages, 2) central languages, 3) supercentral languages, and
4) hypercentral languages. Peripheral languages are generally not used for cross-language communication. This group includes the majority of so-called minor languages, which are under threat of disappearing, because speakers have to use other languages in the process of communication beyond their linguistic groups. Central languages, the number of which is about a hundred, are used as a means of communication by peripheral language speakers. Central languages are widely used within geographical areas, and are spoken by approximately 95 percent of all humankind. Supercentral languages are more geographically widespread than central languages and they are used as international languages for communication by central language speakers.

The group of supercentral languages includes 12 languages: English, Arabic, Spanish, Malay, Chinese, German, French, Portuguese, Russian, Swahili, Hindi and Japanese. Supercentral languages acquired the status of international ones as a result of their wide geographical spread and the fact that they are unusually major languages; the number of supercentral language speakers (with the exception of Swahili) exceeds 100 million. Hypercentral languages are those global languages which are used for communication between speakers of supercentral languages. The phenomenon of global language appeared at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries as a result of the unprecedented growth of international contacts during the processes of integration and globalization. At present the only hypercentral language is English; the number of hypercentral language speakers, including both the first (L1), and the second (L2) languages, now approaches two billion.

The hierarchical distribution of languages in the global language system explains the difficulties of language policy in education, designed to support and develop multilingualism. According to A. de Swaan, “The study of languages is mostly passing in an upward direction… People usually prefer to learn a language which is at a higher level in the hierarchy” [Ibid: 5]. An ever-increasing concentration process, in which a central role is played by a small number of languages with the greatest communicative value, is directed by the “invisible hand of the market”, i.e. the objective market mechanism described by Scottish economist Adam Smith in the 18th century in his book *Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*, published in 1776. Smith, opposing the protectionism of government regulation, used the metaphor of the “invisible hand” as an explanation of the tenet according to which every individual, striving for his or her own benefit, regardless of will or conscience, is directed towards the achievement of profits and benefits for all society through the “invisible hand of the market” [2].

De Swaan introduces the concept of Q-value of language as a measure of socially accepted notions of the “communicative potential” of the language, i.e. the communicative advantages of language acquisition as a result of investing time and money in its studying [1: 230-233]. The Q-value of a
language is defined not only on the basis of the language’s predominance at the level of a geographical region or the whole world – based on the number of native speakers of the language – but also on the basis of language centrality, which is the indicator of the language’s capability to connect people who speak different languages, estimated by the number of multilingual people who speak the language as their second one. Commenting on de Swaan’s economic approach to languages, Ferguson (2006) writes: “Thus, languages can be regarded as long-term investment projects, and the volume of investments affects the functional potential of the language at the individual level; learning a second language can be likened to the creation of capital; acquisition of symbolic and intellectual capital in this case” [3: 122].

In the hierarchy of the global system of languages only the hypercentral language, English, has the highest Q-value because, though it yields to Chinese in terms of the number of native speakers, English takes precedence over not only Chinese, but also other languages in its centrality as a universal means of overcoming interlanguage and intercultural barriers. Studying English, therefore, provides the greatest benefit, and that is why it is not surprising that preference is always given to the English language when choosing a second or foreign language in educational systems around the world.

Supercentral languages have a high Q-value. Many of them are official and working languages of the major international organizations. Thus, the official languages of the UN are six supercentral languages: English, Arabic, Spanish, Chinese, French and Russian. Swahili is one of the official languages of the African Union. Supercentral languages are widely included in the curricula of national educational systems in the studying of second and foreign languages. Higher education institutions offer courses in these languages, they are the languages used in broadcasting worldwide radio and TV shows, and a large number of educational materials are developed for their learning.

The Q-value of a central language is relatively small; it is sufficient for their use in national education systems, at least in the initial stages of studying, and even at the level of higher education in the European Union, South Africa and others. Peripheral languages have the lowest Q-value, in terms of communicative potential, and their use in the social life of a country is limited by the ethnocultural identity expression function of people who speak these languages. In order to preserve, support and develop these languages, the most major of them are given the status of national language, which makes it possible to include them in the curricula of school education.

Thus, the approach to language as an instrument for communication and understanding of the world, and also the consideration of language interconnection in the global hierarchical language system, in which the relative position of a language is based on its communicative potential that has an effect on its Q-value as “hypercollective goods”, makes it possible to explain the phenomenon of English’s transformation into the global means of com-
munication at the turn of the 21st century. The global system is nothing new, but in the conditions of globalization, with an unprecedented growth in international communication, the necessity of a global means of overcoming interlingual and intercultural barriers led to a change in the relations between languages, which are at different hierarchical levels, and also to an acquisition by English of a global status. The transformation of the English language into a global one led to a stabilization of the world language system, putting an end to competition between major languages in the interlingual communication. However, English’s intrusion into new functional areas not only at the international level, but also at the regional and national ones, is a cause of concern to politicians, researchers and the general public due to the potential danger of losing global linguistic and cultural heritage.

Some of the most important issues connected with the study of linguistic and cultural globalization are the issues about the impact of the language of worldwide communication and globalization on other languages, the beginnings of new varieties of English and their interrelations with English in its global status. The expansion of English throughout the world and, as a result, the beginnings of local varieties of English following indigenization after former colonies and dependent territories gained independence began long before the acceleration of globalization processes in the early 1990s, which, among other things, led to qualitative changes in English from an international language to the global language of worldwide communication. In the 1970-80s the cultural and linguistic isolation of English-speaking countries led to the recognition of the phenomena of World Englishes as varieties of English used in different sociolinguistic contexts around the world and necessitated the study of their linguistic characteristics, their sociocultural environment, as well as the literature written in these varieties. Traditionally, it is appropriate to classify these varieties of English by dividing them into three groups: 1. English as a native language (ENL), 2. English as a second language (ESL) used both in a given country and in international communication, and 3. English as a foreign language (EFL) used only for international communication.

The most famous pattern of the English language’s expansion throughout the world and, accordingly, its varieties, is that of Kachru (1992), in which the expansion of English varieties is presented in the form of three concentric circles: the inner circle (UK, USA, Australia, etc.), the outer circle (India, Pakistan, Nigeria, Malaysia, etc.) and the expanding circle, in which English is widely used as a foreign language in international communication, though it plays no role in government or internal communication (China, European countries, etc.). Having described this model, Kachru noted a qualitatively new phenomenon, which distinguishes the use of English as an international language and the growing importance in its use in those countries, in which English is not recognized as an official or national language: “The expansion of the English language has reached such proportions
that at the present moment the efforts of the non-English-speaking world contribute largely to its use” [4]. By the end of the 20th century the number of people speaking English as their second language surpassed the number of native speakers of English, and as indigenization of English occurred in countries where English became more greatly used in politics, the economy, education and culture, a paradigm change in terms of language expansion and its adaptation to new sociocultural conditions became evident. According to Widdowson (1997), the expansion of English in the world is taking place, in contrast to past ages, in such a way that the English language is becoming the language of other people, and other people should have the same rights to English as its native speakers: “It is not the real language that is expanding, but a virtual language and its realization that is spreading. The expansion of the real language means its acceptance and compliance with its rules. The spreading of the virtual language means adaptation and autonomy. These two processes are completely different” [5: 140].

The independent development of the former British colonies after the collapse of the British Empire led to the acceptance of local varieties of English as national standards. Schneider (2007) explained the transformation process of the standard language of a mother country into new language standards by changes in the dynamics of national identity, requiring the adoption of a new outlook and value systems according to the perception of its status as an independent nation.

According to the dynamic model introduced by Schneider, the spread of English passes through five stages, during which the English language gradually becomes native (nativization), adopts local rules which are reflected in national dictionaries and literary works, and in the last stage, which Schneider calls the stage of differentiation, it acquires the status of a national standard [6].

Yet since English acquired the status of a worldwide language of global communication, the study of only native English (L1) and local varieties (world Englishes) became insufficient. According to an Austrian researcher of English as a means of global international communication, B. Seidelhofer, the conceptualization of English in a globalized world must include “the most widespread modern use of English as the lingua franca, which is globally its predominant reality involving the largest number of speakers in interactions mostly by non-native speakers”. Seidelhofer believes that the unavailability of some research to allow for “the acceptance of language, which is not someone’s native tongue, as a legitimate subject of research and descriptive characterization” is a “conceptual gap” that must be overcome, as indeed was the attitude towards “national varieties of English as a mistaken and wrong use” and “departure from the standard variant” [7: 237]. Seidelhofer explained the existence of a conceptual gap in the acceptance of English language reality as a global lingua franca in terms of a “resistance against the conceptual corrections, which are required by rapid
changes in a globalized world, as a result of which the concepts of ‘community’ and ‘linguistic diversity’ cannot be used in the same way as they were used long before the era of international mass movement, not to mention electronic communications” [Ibid: 238].

Seidelhofer introduced the concept of “communities of practice, characterized by interactions outside of primary social areas and speech communities,” which in turn leads to the creation of new varieties of English as a language which is the primary means of interlanguage communication (lingua franca), instead of the previous concept of community based on regular contacts of people who share a certain geographical area, in conditions of unprecedented global mobility and changes in communications which led to changes in the nature of communication. People who use English as their lingua franca, according to empirical research, form and develop it regardless of language standards. According to Seidelhofer, “English as a lingua franca (ELF) does not denote a depleted linguistic code, used on occasion as a temporary means, but rather it is “full of life, a powerful and versatile resource that enables communication across linguistic and geographical boundaries” [Ibid: 242].

The fact that Seidelhofer marks out English as a lingua franca as a separate variety on the basis of its formation in globalization which is not limited by any geographical and political boundaries of the global community that use English for global communication, is quite justified. Historically new varieties of English appeared in English-speaking countries that were put on the path of independent development, because the developing national culture and national identity were reflected in the language that became a part of the national mentality. National varieties of English can no longer be regarded as “improper use of the linguistic standard” and they are national varieties themselves, which are independent subjects for research. Likewise, the formation of world economic, political, scientific and cultural spaces during the process of globalization led to the creation of a single language area, the language of which differs from national varieties and cannot be equated to any of them. At the same time the point of view about the independent development of English as a lingua franca, the formation of which is determined now by non-native speakers, constituting the majority of people who use the language, is objectionable and does not match reality. Language rules and language usage are currently defined by native speakers, and not those who use the given language in its instrumental function, knowing it to a limited extent.

At the same time we should admit that as there is a strengthening of English in its status of the world language of global communication, the role of people who speak it as their second language will increase as a result of displacement of other languages by English from certain functional areas and a great increase in the degree of mastering English.
The recognition of ‘English as the global lingua franca’ as a new variety of English, free of a national cultural component does not mean, however, the lack of any cultural component and the formation of a new identity among people who use the global language to overcome interlingual and intercultural barriers. The creation of a global society in the context of globalization leads to the formation of a global culture and creation of a new global identity, which in turn enriches the multilingual and multicultural individual of today’s information society and does not lead to the displacing of national cultures and ethnocultural identities.

The creation of a culture as part of a global language occurred due to several factors contributing to the formation of cultural phenomena in the global cultural space during globalization. Modern society is defined as an ‘information society’, the development of which is happens through its transformation into a knowledge society [8-10]. The knowledge factor as the main source and resource of modern society’s transformation into a knowledge society has a decisive influence on the course and nature of globalization processes. By its nature, knowledge is international and it leads to a smoothing of all ethnic and national differences in it. Knowledge is a beginning which unites all nations and peoples, and the knowledge society, forming in the process of globalization, cannot be anything other than global. It is logical to suppose that such a unifying beginning is a basis for the formation of a global unifying culture.

A decisive role in the formation of the knowledge society has been played by the information revolution of the late 20th century which, based on digital technologies, led to modern knowledge being transformed into information. Mass flows of information, computer epistemology, virtual reality and the Internet connect all countries and peoples and enable the ongoing development of information culture as a global culture.

The language of worldwide intercourse in its basic communicative function of interlingual and intercultural communication is part of multiple identities and leaves undisturbed the area of representation of subject content in ethnic culture, which is expressed in the languages of ethnic groups and ethnic and cultural identities. The concept of “multiple identity” is not new, although it received greater recognition in the period of globalization. Benjamin Bailey, disapproving of the common aspects of uniformity of the linguistic, ethnic and racial categories of the U.S. population, noted the use of linguistic forms from a variety of two linguistic codes – Spanish and English by Dominican Americans – “for situational activation of various aspects of their multiple identities” [11]. The anthropologist Adam Cooper, in his description of an “existential struggle for the maintenance of their ethnocultural identity” also expressed his opinion towards the prevalence of the phenomenon of multiple identities in the context of globalization. In a paper devoted to anthropological approaches to ethnic cultures, published by Har-
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vard University in 2000, he wrote: “We all have multiple identities, and even if I admit that I have a primary cultural identity, maybe I will not want to meet it” [12: 247]. Multiple identity, however, is not a new phenomenon appearing in the second half of the 20th century as a result of growing economic, political and cultural exchanges in the world. Historically, the interaction of cultures as a result of conquest, revolutionary upheavals and regular trade relations led inevitably to acculturation processes and the creation of new multiple identities. The clearest example of multiple identities is the identities in Arabic-speaking societies of North Africa. At the present moment, the ethnocultural identity of the Arab population in North Africa is part of a complex multiple identity, which includes, on the basis of the Arabic language and culture, the national and pan-Arab identity [13].

Multiple identity is the result of identification of certain social categories, including gender, ethnic, age, cultural, professional, regional, and others. Different identities within multiple identities become apparent depending on the situation [14, 15]. This approach to identity was formed in the process of finding ways in the European Union to create a common European identity, which demonstrated the need for the simultaneous existence of a European identity, without which European integration would be significantly obstructed, and other identities, especially national and ethnocultural.

Globalization of language communication in the world, based on the English language, is accompanied by the phenomenon of glocalization, which is displayed both in the adaptation of national varieties of English in countries where English plays an important role in national communication, local linguistic and cultural standards, and the originality of use of English borrowings in local languages.

Linguistic globalization and linguistic glocalization, leading to the formation of multiple identities in the world, point to the groundlessness of statements about the displacement of local languages and cultures by English as the language of global communication. The viewpoint on the definiteness of choice “either / or”, in which non-native English speakers must make a choice between mastering the global language with a consequent loss of their languages and culture, or preserving their language and culture at the cost of linguistic and cultural isolation and rejection of English as a language of worldwide communication, is too simplistic. However, the violation of the principle of subsidiarity in use of languages, when a more widely used language is used in functions which are common for local languages and cultures, may indeed lead to a loss of linguistic and cultural diversity.

Conclusions

1. The language of worldwide communication, which is essentially used for communicative functions as a means of international communic-
The language of worldwide communication

will not threaten ethnocultural identities expressed in terms of national and ethnic languages. The influence of a language of worldwide communication on national and ethnic cultures in the process of cultural and identity globalization will also not weaken or supplant local cultures and subcultural identities, characterized by stability of national archetypes – the collective ethnic component and subconscious. The spread of English as a worldwide language in the conditions of globalization leads to the creation of multiple identities. The possibilities and necessities of multiple identities based on mass individual multilingualism in terms of which language and cultural aspects exist, which although they seem to be contradictory and mutually exclusive, despite cultural homogenization during the period of globalization, make it possible to protect ethnocultural identities.

2. Ethnocultural identity in terms of multiple identities expresses itself through the use of a native (or official) language. The language of worldwide communication and global culture, as components of global identity, are part of multiple identities, providing for the entrance of ethnic groups to the uniform international, economic, political, educational and cultural space. Conflict between the language of worldwide communication and local languages and cultures occurs only when the principle of subsidiary is broken and the language of worldwide communication begins to be used in its unnatural function of intra-national and intra-ethnic communication.

3. In terms of this approach the language of worldwide communication, maintaining multilingualism, sorts out synergetic chaos occurring in the worldwide language system as an open, dynamic, self-organizing and self-developing structure, as a result of the influence of processes of globalization, leading to the activation of interlingual and intercultural contacts. This is not a language hierarchy of the global language system, in which the English language competed with the other international languages to become the means of worldwide communication, thus destabilizing multilingualism and threatening the existing linguistic and cultural variety considering increasing dominant languages and cultural influence and their invasion into functional spheres traditionally controlled by local languages and cultures. In the new language hierarchy, the English language obtained the status of a language of worldwide communication. The stability of individual multilingualism in the new conditions of an existing language of worldwide communication, is based on linguistic duality in dividing functional spheres of use between languages of different hierarchy levels. Besides, English as the language of global communication does not compete with the other languages’ functioning as means of realizing national and ethnocultural identities.
Literature

Abstract. The given work deals with the description of innovations in the lexical subsphere of “state administration” sphere in the Russian language of the modern period. The appearance of such innovations is caused by the essential changes of socio-political and economic character. Strong innovations represented at the lexical-semantic level (neologisms-borrowings, morphological and syntax neologisms) are analyzed in the article. Some special interest is caused by the characteristics of weak neologisms in the observed sphere. They are connected with the renewal of lexics presented by semantic neologisms characterized by the changes in the word’s semantic structure in general or changes in the denotational component of one separate word’s sign and its frequency in usage. Also functional-semantic innovations dealing with the changes in functional-stylistic component of lexical semantics are investigated.

Keywords: innovations; neologism; strong and weak neologisms; morphological neologisms; syntax neologisms; neologisms-borrowings; functional-semantic innovations.

The contemporary period of Russian society development is characterized by considerable changes in all social spheres, which have an indisputable impact on linguistic situation. In our opinion significant interest is caused by linguistic processes that touch upon the thematic sphere “State government” lexical system, which is quite receptive to social factors’ influence and connected with the ideas about state specificity realization of authoritative and other functions by all bodies, institutions of all branches, as well as state institutions voluntary impact on the activities of the society, its separate groups in which social needs and interest, valid aims and social will are realized [1: 49].

Transformations in the sphere “State government” lexical system are vividly manifested in neologism appearance processes, that is the formation of innovations, presented on lexico-semantic level of linguistic system (strong neologisms) and connected with lexical vocabulary’s renovation (weak neologisms) [2: 10, 11].

Among strong innovations, following Professor O.V. Zagorovskaya’s ideas, we single out lexical (neologisms-borrowings), morphological and syntactic neologisms [Ibid: 10].

In the modern period of the Russian language development new foreign vocabulary of the analyzed thematic sphere represents, as a rule, the words borrowed by replication method and in most cases denotes a new notion or (more seldom) replaces a bulky russian descriptive language means.
Among innovations of this kind denotations of state government new models can be singled out: (e.g.: gosudarstvennoe administrirovanie, elektronnoe pravitelstvo, novii gosudarstvenii menedzhment, novaya model upravleniya obshhestvom, novoe gosudarstvennoe upravlenie, onlainovoe pravitelstvo, globalnoe upravlenie, elektronnoe gosudarstvo, etc.), nominations of state events (e.g.: celevaya kompleksnaya programma, videokonferencsvyaz, videoconferenciya, telekonferenciya, veb-prisutstvie (of the government body) etc.), specific features of new state government denotations (e.g.: transparentnost, cifrvoerassloenie, cifrovoeneravenstvo, gotovnost k informacionnomu obshestvu, elektronnoe uchastie, etc.), nominations of people taking part in a new state government (e.g.: teflonovii politik, elektronnaya administraciya, rabochaya gruppa, elektronnaya elita, etc.), denotations of unfavourable phenomena in state ruling (e.g.: provali gosudarstvennogo regulirovaniya, etc.).

It’s worth mentioning that Russian thematic sphere “State government” vocabulary of the beginning of XXI century is noted for active replenishment with morphological and syntactic neologisms. Today the process of lexical units from different parts of speech formation in the analyzed sphere is characterized by extreme dynamism. Among the most productive neologisms-nouns formation ways of the thematic sphere “State government” affixation and composition can be singled out.

Among affixationalneoderivatives in a quantitative sense suffixational derivatives take place: 1) the denotation of people taking part in the administrative activity (e.g.: omonovec (OMON), specnazovec (specnaz), fondovec (Pensionnii fond), kremlevec (Kreml), vidvizhenec; lobbist, federalist; putunist (storonnikPutina), gebist / GBist, etc.). Among new words of the present group there are lexical units formed from actualized lexemes’ stems (e.g.: dumec and some others); 2) nominations of procedural character typical of state government sphere (e.g.: upravlyaemost, bezalternativnost (absence of real rivals for one of the candidates during the election), vedomstvennost, gosudarstvennost, innovativnost, predvibornost, koridornost in the meaning of “the nature of behavior and working decisions’ quality defined by the atmosphere in authority sector”, karmannost in the meaning “obedient fulfillment of somebody’s will as a result of dependence in political or another relation”; monetizaciya, minimizaciya, byurokratizaciya, fracionalizaciya, FSBizaciya; ograzhdanivanie, administrirovanie; presidentstvo, premjerstvo, etc.) [3: 103-105].

There are also cases of suffixational noun formation in the sphere of state government based on phrases’ contraction (for univerbats’ formation) among which we single out: a) zerosuffixationaluniverbasation (e.g.: nelegal in the meaning “a person in the illegal position”, neformal, marginal, federal, municipal, regional, etc.); b) suffixationaluniverbasation (e.g.: with suffixes -ik-, -nik:-narodnik, silovik, tenevik; pravozashitnik; nalogovik, setevi-
kin the meaning “the representative of political nets”, iniciativnik, gosudarstvennik, spisochnik in the meaning “a deputy elected by party tickets”, obshchestvennik – a member of the social institution; with the suffix -k(a)-: socialka- socialnizakaz; nalozhka – nalogovayainspeksiya; chrezvichaika – chrezvichainaya situatsiya, oboronka – oboronnaya promishlennost, trehletka – trehletnii byudzhet; with the suffix -chik-: apparatchik – rabotnik gosudarstvenno go apparata; with the suffix -shik-: alternativshik, bezalternativshik, kommunalshik, nomenklaturshik, etc.). As it can be seen such denotations are functionally-stylistically and expressively-stylistically marked. Being informal objects and sphere state government phenomena’s nominations, univerbats in the beginning of the XXI century still more displace official nominations-phrases.

Prefixation as new words’ formation way stands out in the last decade. As the research showed: in the beginning of the XXI century prefixational derivatives are created for the nomination of: 1) intensity of notions and phenomena’s sign manifestation (super-: supersekretnost; giper-: gipereffektivnost, etc.); 2) absence, contrast or elimination (de-: debyurokratizaciya, dekrinalizaciya, depolitizaciya, decentralizaciya, destabilizaciya, demodernizaciya; raz-: razbyurokratizaciya, etc.); 3) insincerity, falsity (kvazi-: kvaziparlamentarism, etc.); 4) repetition of something or contrast to something (re-: resocializaciya, restrukturizaciya, etc.); 5) negation (ne-: nenarashivanie (about expenses), neplatelshik, neplatezhi); 6) loss of this or that feature (eks-: eks-rukovoditel, eks-gubernator, eks-president, eks-glava, eks-deputat, eks-spiker, eks-lider, eks-premjer-ministr); precedence (do-: dovibori, doizbranie, etc.).

Single cases of clipping are also fixed (e.g.: vice – vice premjer): No malozhestkogopremjera, esteshe i gospodinShuvalov, pervii vice (Moskovskii komsomolec, 06.2008).

Today during nouns’ formation denoting the notions of new state government sphere the way of composition realized by stem composition and word composition shows its activity. In case of stem composition, compound connected words are formed which are presented in this sphere primarily by abbreviated verbal signs, among which the following can be singled out: a) the compounds of the initial part of the first word and the whole second word (e.g.: goszakaz, gossluzha, gossluzhashii, gossluzha, gosregulirovanie, goszadanie, gosfunkcii, gosupravlenie, gosduma, gossektor, gossstruktura, gosapparat, depgruppa; komfrakciya; adminreforma, adminresurs; pravkomiissiya; zaksobranie; Minekonomiki, Minobrnauki, Minregion, etc.). Besides, compound words can represented by combinations with prepositive or postpositive prefixoids of international character (video-: videopriemnaya, videosvyaz, videostena, tele-: teledebati, teledemokratiya, telemost; mono-: monogorod, monoekonomika; mini-: mini-poslanie, blic-: blicvizit, etc.); b) the compounds of each word’s initial parts (e.g.: Kabmin,goskomstat,
Centrizbirkom, polpred, izbirkom, nardep, etc.; c) the compounds of the whole words with the help of interfix which more often takes place in subordinate relations (e.g.: byudzhetopoluchatel, klientoorientirovannost (rendering of state service) etc.); d) the compounds of the first word and the end of the second word (e.g.: tandemokratiya – tandem + demokratiya, putinomika – Putin + ekonomika, etc.). The activation of abbreviations’ appearance in the analyzed sphere is also one of the Russian language signs of the beginning of the XXI century (e.g.: GD – Gosudarstvennaya Duma, CF – Sovet Federacii, ZS – Zakonodatelnoe Sobranie, OP – Obshestvennaya palata, FCP – federalnaya celevaya programma, DCP – dolgosrochnie celevie programmi, etc.).

To the number of less active processes in the modern Russian word formation area we refer the formation of compound words with separately arranged parts which are one of words-composites’ types created by word composition. Such composites follow the model noun + noun with hyphen writing (e.g.: chinovnik-bloger, chinovnik-menedzher, chinovnik-ekonomist, kandidati-dvoiniki, vedomstva-soispolniteli, etc.).

The major part of lexico-semantic sphere “State government” adjectives-neologisms is made up with substantive derivatives. Today, as the researches point out, the prefixes taking part in new lexemes’ formation and carrying significant social and cultural semantics become more intense: E.g. anti- (in the meaning “directed against, created according to contrary laws”): antigubernatorskii, antikremlevskii, antikorrupciionnii, antinimenklaturnii, antopolpredovskii, antiputinskii, antimveddevskii, etc.; pro- (progubernatorskii, prokremlevskii, proputinskii, propravitelstvennii, etc.); ne- (neparlamentskii, negosudarstvennii, nekonkurentnii, nekonstitucionnii, etc.); posle-, post- (poslekrizisnii, postkrizisnii, postreformennii, etc.); vne- (vnebudzhetnii, vnerapidoluevitelstvennii, vneparlamentskii, etc.); vnutri- (vnutridumskii, vnutripravitelstvennii, vnutritandemnii, etc.); mezh- (mezhvedomstvennii, mezhparlamentskii, mezhpravitelstvennii, mezhregionalnii, mezhfrakcionnii, etc.); pred- (predvibornii, predkrizisnii); okolo- (okoloprezidentskii, okologosudarstvennii, okolonomenklaturnii, etc.); nad- (nadmisterskii); multi- (multipolyarnii); super- (superprezidentskii); giper- (gipergosudarstvennii); ekstra- (ekstrapremjerskii); polu- (poludemokraticheskii, polukorrupciionnii).

As the analysis shows, during the adjective formation of the analyzed sphere vocabulary suffixes such as (e.g.: -ov- (inzhiniringovii, sbitovoi, etc.), -n- (tandemnii, elitnii, komandnii, prefekturinnii, etc.), -sk- (putinskii, medvedevskii, vice-premierskii, premierskii, senatorskii, vice-presidentskii, etc.)).

In the lexico-semantic sphere “State government” single cases of adjective formation with the help of composition (often with explanatory type of the first part) (e.g.: kontrolno-nadzornii, operativno-strategicheskii, parlamentsko-pravitelstvennii, prezidentsko-premierskii, apparatno-burokrati-
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cmpeskii, politico-upravlencheskii, putinsko-medvedevskii, plebiscitarno-burokraticheskii; e.g.: korrupcioemkii, naukoemkii, etc.). In some cases composition is complemented with suffixation (e.g.: belodomovskii, etc.).

Neologisms-verbs and adverbs in the thematic sphere under consideration are represented by not a big number of innovations created as a rule according to traditional Russian models with the help of typical verbs and adverbial suffixes (e.g.: monopolno, elektoralno, opposicionno, privatizacionno, antomoderнизционно, etc.). In such a way, for instance, among verbal innovations in the sphere “State government” neologisms with suffixes -ova-, -irova-, -izirova- (e.g.: administrirovat, lobbirovat, kvotirovat, oligopozirovat, pozicionirovat, masshtabirovat, etc.) can most often take place. Today the verbs formed with the help of prefixes (e.g.: pere-: peregonosovat; za-: zavolokitit, zaburokratizirovat; po-: poreshat; pro-: prodavit, etc.) are actively used.

As the analysis of the facts has shown, today in the thematic sphere “State government” syntactic neologisms appear by which, in the given research, we understand the nomination realizing new opportunities of lexicophraseological language units’ compatibility (e.g.: gosudarstvennii menedzhment, upravlyat v ruchnomrezhime, administrativniiresurs, etc.).

Among weak innovations we pay attention to proper semantic neologisms characterized by changes in the word’s semantic structure on the whole or the changes in the contents of denotative and emotive components of verbal sign separate meaning; and functionally-semantic innovations connected with the changes in the contents of functionally-stylistic lexical semantics component.

Proper semantic innovations appear as a result of metaphorical, analogical and gender-aspectual changes.

Taking into account metaphorical nominations formation mechanism’s specific features of the thematic sphere “State government” we have singled out the most conspicuous of the metaphorical periphrasis: 1) metaphorical periphrasis based on the similarity of functions, also the character, the way and the result of the action (e.g.: nastroika pravitelstva, raspechativanie gosgarantii, zavisayushii zakonoproekt, prodavit zakonoproekt, proshtampovat popravku, raskachat sector, etc.); 2) metaphorical periphrasis based on the similarity of the inner structure principle, the number of constituent elements (e.g.: vertikal, vertikalnii, verhnie etazhi vlasti, barjeri administrativnie, richagi prinyatiya gosudarstvennih reshenii, etc.); 3) metaphorical periphrasis based on the similarity of appearance, sizes and magnitude of objects (e.g.: paketiniciativ, piramida iz vetvei vlasti, byurokraticheskii koridor, etc.); 4) metaphorical periphrasis based on the similarity of the signs’ importance and general impression of the objects (e.g.: prozrachnaya vertical, zamyatoe poruchenie, ramochnih dokument, myagkie transformacii gosupravleniya, etc.).
During the semantic neologisms’ formation of the thematic sphere “State government” with the help of analogy the following semantic models are used: 1) container – contents (e.g.: Ohotniiryad in the meaning “Gosudarstvennaya Duma RF”, Belidom, Kreml, portfelporuchenii, levieiniciativi, svobodnimikrofon, etc.); 2) the sign of the object – the sign of another object which is somehow connected with the first object, made from it or used by it (e.g.: tandemnii in the meaning “vhodyashii v tandem Putin – Medvedev” and “rekomendovannitandemom”, nechestniemetodi, karmannigosorgan, etc.); 3) an action – the result of an action (e.g.: narobotki, etc.).

Gender-aspectual transformations connected with extension noted for special importance (e.g.: znakivii in the meaning “otlichayushiisya osoboi vazhnostyu”, institut presidentskoi vlasti, etc.) or narrowing (e.g.: ploshadka for the decision of state administrative questions, tandem, zachistka, etc.) of the original word’s initial meaning; and the semantic shift (e.g.: parlament, president, premjer, premjer-ministr, mer, meriya, vece-mer, vice-president, vice-premjer, vice-spiker, senat, razdelenievlastei, byurokratizm, byurokratija, byurokrat, valorizaciya, vertikalnaya koncentraciya, veto, korrupciya, korrupcionnii, etc.).

Among functionally-semantic innovations of the thematic sphere “State government” we single out: actualized lexemes to which we refer: the names of governing bodies, departmental divisions, organizations (e.g.: dobrovolnaya narodnaya druzhina, glavk, gosbezopasnost, ispolkom, raiono, oblono, parthyuro, partgruppa, prezidium, obshestvenniepriemnie, etc.), the nominations of people taking part in state government and active social life (e.g.: druzhinnik, naznachenec, polpred, etc.), the denotations of state character events (e.g.: plan, gosplan, planovii, planirovanie, selector, etc.), the nominations of major state sphere notions (e.g.: GOST, partdisciplina, naznachenstvo, partsobranie, perevibori, dovibori, samootvod, balanstrudovihresursov, premiya, chelovechrskii factor, socializaciya, obsuzhdenie, etc.).

The noted lexical units’ actualization processes of the thematic sphere “State government” revealing in the frequency of their usage, in the first place in mass-media with neutral nominations and in case of chronological labels’ absence in explanatory dictionaries of the last years, show the appeared need for presoviet and postsoviet administrative nominations succession renovation in modern society.

Active vocabulary extension of the thematic group “State government” in the contemporary Russian language development may occur due to the words which were earlier confined in the functionally-stylistic respect. Primarily it refers to the words of terminological character (e.g.: informacionno-telekommunikacionnie tehnologii, blog, server, onlain, portal, IT-tehnologii, sait – from IT technologies’ sphere; ekonomizaciya vlasti, menedzheralnii podhod k gosupravleniyu, gosudarstvennii menedzhment,
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produktivnost gosuspravleniya, menedzher strani – from economics’ sphere; klient, servisnoe obshestvo, gosudarstvennie uslugi, pokupatel gosuslug, obschestvo uslug – from services sector; innovacii, vertikal innovacii, tehnograd, osobie ekonomicheskie zoni, nanotehnologii – from scientific and technical sphere; rebrending, promo-akciya,piar-kampaniya – from promotional sphere), jargon (e.g.: otkat, otkativay, otmivaniedohodov, etc.) and colloquial character (e.g.: prodavit in the meaning “to get state decision-making or a person’s assumption with the help of various tricks”, podvizhka in the meaning “positive change, success, progress in socio-economic and political spheres”, nakachka in the meaning “state officials’ professional skill improvement”, monitorit, otpiska, vzbuchka, peretasovki, provolochki, etc.).

Contrary to activation is the process of falling into disuse which meansthat lexical and phraseological units of the given thematic sphere go out of use. Today to such lexical units of leisure sphere we refer the names of state power bodies (e.g.: Verhovnii Sovet SSSR, presidium Verhovnogo Soveta, miliciya, politupravlenie, sovapparat, sovyurokrat, Sovet, Gensek, etc.) and methods of their activity (e.g.: promfinplan, gospolitupravlenie, narodnii control, rukovodyashaya / generalnaya liniya partii, provodit parti-inuyu liniyu, socialisticheskoe / vstrechnoe obyazatelstvo, perevipolnenie plana, socsorevnovanie, pyatiletka, semiletka, etc.).

All in all, the enumerated innovations are the evidence of dynamic thematic sphere “State government” vocabulary development in the modern period of the Russian language and are caused by global socio-political and economic changes in Russia.

**Literature**

LEXICAL REPRESENTATION OF “EGO BOOSTING / EGO EFFACING” AS ONE OF THE VALUE CONNOTATIONS OF “MASCULINITY / FEMININITY” CULTURAL DIMENSION (BASED ON THE MATERIAL OF ENGLISH AND RUSSIAN)

U.S. Zakharova
Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: ulyana.zakharova@gmail.com

Abstract. The article is devoted to the lexical representation analysis of one of the social value connotations of “masculinity / femininity” cultural dimension – “ego boosting / ego effacing” in Russian and in English. The analysis contains several aspects: the number of elements in the synonymic row of key words, representing these connotations, specificity of denotive and evaluative aspects of semantics, frequency of these key words in speech actualization. The theoretical bases of the research are G. Hofstede’s anthropological theory and A. Wierzbicka’s linguacultural theory.

Keywords: cultural dimension; keywords; cultural elaboration; masculinity / femininity; ego effacing; ego boosting.

Cultural specificity lexical representation study is found in the centre of many modern language and culture studies based on various methods and approaches. Current study is attempting to analyze lexical representation of the social value orientation of “masculinity / femininity” cultural dimension formulated by his author G. Hofstede as “ego boosting / ego effacing”. The analysis is based on the G. Hofstede’s anthropological cultural dimensions theory and A. Wierzbicka’s linguacultural key words theory (argumentation of these two theories interrelationship is given in [1]).

The key term of G. Hofstede’s cross-cultural research is cultural dimensions – “the values that distinguished countries (rather than individuals) from each other” [2: 11]. He defined six such dimensions including “masculinity / femininity” opposing values that are traditionally thought of as masculine to those ones which are thought of as feminine [3]. Following anthropological research traditions, hidden culture value orientations were formulated by G. Hofstede on the bases of the peculiar social behavior analysis revealed by various cultures representatives. Our hypothesis is that the results of these values lexical representation analysis should correlate with those of the behavior peculiarities analysis held by G. Hofstede.

G. Hofstede formulated his “masculinity / femininity” dimension on the bases of 70 hidden value orientations [2: 298, 299, 306, 312]. The present article demonstrates the ways of lexical representation of one value orientation “ego boosting / ego effacing” in comparison of two linguacultures – Russian and English. At this stage we investigate lexical representation aspect that allows us to bring into correlation G. Hofstede’s research results.
with the results of A. Wierzbicka’s concept cultural elaboration study results. This scholar’s interests are in specific national concepts revelation based on the analysis of their linguistic means of representation, lexical, derivative and syntactical ones. One of the central terms in A. Wierzbicka’s works are key words – “the words which are particularly important and revealing in a given culture” [4: 15, 16].

We suggest that her methodology with some additional stages can be used for revealing lexical representation of masculine and feminine values formulated by G. Hofstede.

Further some variants of one value lexical representation, “ego boosting / ego effacing”, are to be considered [2: 299, 306].

Understanding (perceiving) one’s own role in a particular action is closely connected with another “masculinity / femininity value” – “ego/relationship orientation” [5] – and non-agentivity (the feeling that human beings are not in control of their lives and that their control over events is limited [6: 395]) analyzed by A. Wierzbicka. She claims that Russian culture is non-agentive and English is agentive. This feature is represented in the language syntax and these differences between Russian and English in this case in our view can serve as one of the language evidence that Russian culture representatives are closer to ego-effacing and English ones – to ego-boosting.

A. Wierzbicka made a conclusion about this issue on the bases of nominative- and dative-like constructions dominating in the language. This article deals with key values representation on the bases of lexical semantics. As the examples of notions representing “ego boosting / ego effacing” value the following lexical units are analyzed: cooperation / collaboration (сог‐ трудничество), solidarity (солидарность), modesty (скромность) representing feminine values, and persistence / perseverance (настойчивость) representing masculine ones.

To analyze the peculiarities of these words functioning in the languages we hold a multiaspect analysis: 1) number of synonyms of these words, 2) peculiar features of the denotive and 3) evaluative aspects of these elements in semantics and stylistic marking, 4) frequency of the key words in speech.

Resources used for the research are the following dictionaries: Russian defining dictionary [7], Russian and English synonyms dictionaries [8], [9-12], English thesaurus [13], frequency dictionaries [14, 15] and online dictionaries [16, 17].

We will consider all of the suggested words representing the value orientation in Russian and English one by one.

I. Cooperation / collaboration.

In English there are two and in Russian only one word that realizes this meaning.
1. The number of elements in the key word synonymic row shows that in English this notion is more elaborated.

In Russian сотрудничество enters 13 synonyms row with a dominant word помощь (help) [10: 445]. In English there are 36 synonyms of cooperation [13: 174] and 20 of collaboration [Ibid: 144].

2. Semantic peculiarities of the word and its synonyms.

In Russian сотрудничество has two meanings: “1. Help, participation in some kind of action, business. 2. Joined actions” [7. V. 14: 408].

Meaning of English cooperation is an act or a process of joined work to achieve one result [16], collaboration is “1. an act of work with somebody to produce something, 2. treacherous cooperation with an enemy” [16].

We suggest that the main difference in semantics of the lexemes сотрудничество, cooperation and collaboration is in the distribution of participants’ roles. Russian seme help implies unequal distribution of responsibilities. In the English words the seme partnership is the most significant – participants’ duties and a reward for the results are distributed equally.

Though the seme help exists in the semantics of the synonymic row elements of English cooperation and collaboration, as well. There are two subgroups in the synonymic row of cooperate. The first one has partnership as a common seme: collaborate (28 synonyms), the second – the seme be of assistance: help (23 synonyms) [13: 173]. The same correlation can be observed in the collaborate synonymic row: 1. cooperate (21 synonyms), 2. fraternize (7 synonyms) [Ibid: 144].

Cooperation synonymic row includes 14 polysemic elements representing both types of the values – feminine and masculine ones. These words imply voluntary joined actions based on trust, mutual aid, goodwill, collaboration and concurrence, strength domination and importance of wealth (for example, coactions, help, concurrence).

Сотрудничество enters a synonymic row built of the following elements: помощь, вспоможение, вспомоществование, поддержка, подмога, подспорье, пособие, вспопоможение, пособничество, содействие, польза, субсидия [10: 445]. The word помощь (help) is the dominant element of the row and the common seme for all of the words mentioned above.

3. Evaluative aspect of these elements semantics and stylistic marking.

In the process of the third aspect analysis disapproving evaluation of the collaboration second meaning has been revealed – treacherous cooperation with an enemy [13: 174].

Сотрудничество has no negative evaluation but there is a word with such a feature in its synonymic row – пособничество (synonyms are сообщинчество and соучастие) that enter the denonative-ideographic group “a person / people in their relation to crime” [11: 170].

4. Frequency analysis of the words mentioned above was held using frequency dictionaries built on the basis of national languages corpora. The
numbers are remarkable: collaboration – 14 ipm (items per million), cooperation – 12 ipm, and сотрудничество – 70.6 ipm. So, despite the fact that cultural elaboration of Russian word is smaller (the length of the synonymic row), it is being used more often in speech.

So, the quantitative analysis showed that the English words covered are characterized by bigger cultural elaboration of synonymic rows, the Russian word – by higher frequency of usage; the qualitative analysis showed a discrepancy between the key semes of the words covered (partnership – cooperation and collaboration, help – сотрудничество).

II. Solidarity.
1. The number of elements in the synonymic row of solidarity is bigger than of солидарность: 12 versus 3 elements [13: 888].
2. Peculiar features of the word and its synonyms semantics.

In Russian солидарность has a meaning “active sympathy to somebody’s actions or opinion; common interests, unanimity” [7. V. 14: 212]. In English solidarity is “a unity or accord of feelings or actions, especially among people with mutual interests, mutual support within a group” [16]. That means that all of the meaning components in the words repeat except for the seme mutual support of the English word.

3. Evaluative aspects analysis.
Солидарность synonymic row includes сочувствие, сострадание, участие [8: 331]. Solidarity synonyms are unanimity, unity, likeness, agreement, accord, harmony, consensus, concord, concurrence, cooperation, cohesion, camaradie [13: 888]. So the Russian synonymic row claims unity of feelings as the most significant issue, the English one – rational unity of opinions and unity of actions.

4. Frequency analysis of the words in speech showed that the Russian word appear in speech less often than the English one (солидарность – 8.6 ipm, solidarity – 11 ipm) [14, 15]. Possibly, it happens due to the fact that the last word has a rich number of semes.

As far as the analysis revealed the notion solidarity is more elaborated in English with the semes unity of opinion and unity of actions as the main ones, while in the солидарность synonymic row unity of feelings is more significant.

III. Modesty.
1. The number of elements in the synonymic row of the key word shows that its cultural elaboration in Russian and English is almost equal: скромность has 11 synonyms [8: 919-922; 11: 88], modesty – 10 [13: 640].
2. Peculiar features of the word and its synonyms semantics.

Скромность in Russian is “a trait of a modest (скромный) person”, скромный – “one who is not in the habit of highlighting one’s own merits, boasting of one’s own merits; lacking vanity and arrogance” [7. V. 13: 1067,
Modesty is “a trait or a state of a person not pretending for the evaluation of his abilities” [16]. So these meanings can be viewed as similar.

Russian скромность has the following synonyms: сдержанность, корректность, почтительность, скованность, чопорность, церемонность (6 synonyms) [8: 919-922], безыскусность, бесхитростность, непритязательность, простота (5 synonyms) [11: 88]. English modesty in a meaning of a trait of character has the following synonyms: self-effacement, humility, reserve, reticence, unpretentiousness, shy-ness, bashfulness, timidity, self-consciousness, meekness (10 synonyms) [13: 640].

Thus though reticence and simplicity are represented in the synonymic row of the English word, they are represented better in the synonyms of the Russian words.

3. Evaluative aspects analysis.

Among all of the synonyms of скромность and modesty two elements are remarkable with its disapproving evaluation – чопорность and shyness.

Disapproving evaluation characterizes a verb скромничать derived from a noun скромность and defined as “to show one’s own extra modesty, diminishing one’s rewards or merits, be silent about them” [7. V. 13: 1067]. Its English equivalent is to be overmodest. Synonymic row of скромничать proves that: плакаться, жаловаться, бить на жалость, самоуничи- жаться, наговаривать на себя [8: 1032]. So, the verb and the corresponding word combination have a seme excessiveness that implies the norm rejection and are thought of as negative.

According to the Russian and English lexicography tradition the synonymic rows of abstract nouns and qualitative adjectives are presented via mutual reference. That is why the adjectives скромный and modest are of our interest, as well.

Modest represents the key notion of a feminine society but within its synonymic row there are some words representing a detachment of a group and individualism, such as reserved, retiring, quiet, coy, cheap (Am. Eng.) [13: 640].

4. Frequency analysis of the words in speech shows that the Russian word is twice more frequent than the English one: modest – 23 ipm, скромный – 49,2 ipm [14, 15].

Thus the analysis revealed that cultural elaboration of скромность and modesty are approximately equal. In the synonymic rows one and the same semes are presented though they are presented asymmetrically. In the semantics of the words examined has been revealed some sort of disapproval to the excessive modesty. The Russian word is appeared to be more frequent.

IV. Persistence and insistence.

1. The number of elements in the synonymic row of the key word.
The Russian word **настойчивость** has 4 synonyms [12: 264] while English **persistence** and **insistence** – 27 и 11 synonyms accordingly [13: 716, 473].

2. **Peculiar features of the word and its synonyms semantics.** The word **настаивать** means “intensively strive for or request to fulfill something” [7. V. 7: 526, 527], therefore **настойчивость** – “persistence in achieving something” [Ibid: 533]. The meanings of the English words are the following: “persistence is a fact of keeping one’s opinion or action despite difficulties and contraction; continued or prolonged existence of something, insistence – fact or a state of insisting on something that makes sense or must be done” [16]. Thus in the Russian word the seme **request** is more significant.

The remark given above is proved by the fact that **настаивать** is in the synonymic row with a dominant **request**. This row includes such words as **приказывать** and **запрещать** as well [8: 860].

The English word **persistence** enters a synonymic row with dominant member **perseverance** and 27 other elements: tenacity, determination, resolve, resolution, resoluteness, staying power, purposefulness, firmness of purpose, patience, endurance, application, diligence, sedulousness, dedication, commitment, doggedness, persistency, pertinacity, assiduity, assiduousness, steadfastness, tirelessness, indefatigability, stamina, intransigence, obstinacy, (informal) stickability [13: 716].

The noun **insistence** enters a synonymic row with a dominant member **demand** and 11 elements: bidding, command, dictate, instruction, requirement, request, entreaty, urging, exhortation, importuning [Ibid: 473].

Synonymic rows analysis showed that the meaning “request fulfilling something” of the Russian word is not typical for **persistence** because its peculiarity is some kind of self-directed action while **request** is directed onto another person. Its synonym **demand** exists as one of the meanings of **insist** though it is less represented.

3. **Evaluative aspects analysis** shows that all the words examined are characterized by positive or neutral evaluation.

4. **Frequency analysis of the words in speech.**

The most frequent of these words is **persist** (67 ipm), less frequent is **настаивать** (37,2 ipm (including homonyms)) and the least frequent is **insist** 18 ipm [14, 15].

Conclusion: Quantitative analysis of the notions **настойчивость / persistence / insistence** showed that the English synonymic rows are longer, at the same time **persist** is more frequent that the Russian word. These words peculiarity is their polysemy that is why these numbers characterize not only the aspect considered. Qualitative analysis of the key words only is thereupon more representative. Its results revealed that in various national cultures different semes appeared to be the most significant (**persistence** in Eng-
lish culture, request – in Russian one). Combining these results with A. Wierzbicka’s conclusion and D. Gachev’s comment on a “self-made person” as a key image in English culture [18: 158, 165], we came up with a decision that persistence is more representative in English linguaculture.

Thus language elaboration analysis of the notions сотрудничество / collaboration / cooperation, солидарность / solidarity, скромность / modesty and настойчивость / persistence / insistence showed that these units can be interpreted as lexical representants of the masculinity / femininity values of Russian and English linguacultures. The results prove the working assumption about possible correlations between lexical elaboration of the culturally-significant concepts language analysis results and G. Hofstede’s anthropological study results.

**Literature**

3. Geert Hofstede and Geert Jan Hofstede's official website http://www.geerthofstede.com/media/654/6%20dimensions%20for%20website%2020101123.txt (07.05.2012, 11:15)


L.B. Kryukova

Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: Larisa@seversk.tomsknet.ru

Abstract. Perceptiveness is one of the key representative features of images-symbols in the poetry of European and Russian Symbolists. The inner state of the poet, their feelings and emotions, reflections on the problems of life and image of the world (real or illusory) are verbalised by linguistic means with the semantics of sense perception. Perceptiveness of images allows the author to expressively and emotionally convey the basic idea of the poetic work and reflect their vision of the world. Due to different context accretions, traditional images-symbols acquire individual content within the poetic text.

Keywords: Perceptiveness; symbolism; visual image; linguistic means of expression; author's world view; poetic text.

Perception is the basis of world cognition, its interpretation and categorisation. Linguistic units with the semantics of perception (from Lat. perception) are represented on different levels of the linguistic system. The complexity and diversity of this phenomenon has led to different approaches to its study. Cognitive linguistics studies perception as the interaction of linguistic and mental structures, and as the expression of various meanings. In semantic research proper linguists are focused on the implementation of a universal model of perception in different types of discourse, as well as on the identification of the national and individual features of its representation. In communicative stylistics perception is treated as a mechanism to regulate the interaction of the author and the addressee, etc. [1].

This paper studies linguistic units with the semantics of perception and their role in the formation of key poetic images in works by Symbolist poets. The stated problem involves integration of various approaches, yet the main research method is the linguistic analysis of the text (lexical and elements of syntactic levels).

Symbolism as an art movement is one of the dominant stages in the development of 20th-century art. The problem of perception becomes central to the Symbolists who followed the thesis by Arthur Schopenhauer, “The world is my representation” [2]. What is important in the artistic work is not the objective reality, but the attitude to it. When verbalised in the work of art, colours and sounds become symbols that characterise certain mental states [3]. Sensuality is regarded as one of the key features of the new poetry. Perceptiveness is the speech and language interpretation of
how a person observes or otherwise cognises the surrounding world [4: 277], which along with metaphoricity is an important constituent of the artistic image [5: 124].

It is the works by the Symbolists that are marked by abundance of synaesthesia (from Greek synasthesis –mixed feelings). For instance, “Na menya ustalym likom / Glyanesh, promolchish. / Zolotoye nebo krikom / Ostro vzrezhet strizh” (A. Bely “Ty”) [6]; “V garmonii dali pogaslo bezumiy. / Pomerkli akkordy vostorzhennykh liniy. / I temnyye zvuki spustilis ugrumo, / I vypyl napev temno-siniy” (V. Bryusov “Saga”) [7]; “I v istome zamiranya / Ih vershiny v sladkom sne / Slyshat lunnoye siyanye, / Slyshat veter v tishine” (K. Balmont “Lunnyy svet”) [8].

Symbolism as a phenomenon of European culture has a common source. So, it is quite natural that individual artistic images demonstrate formal resemblance in the works of such famous Symbolists as Antonio Machado, Otakar Březina and Vladimir Solovyov. Each poet seeks to fill the traditional image with its own content, i.e. to reflect in poetry both the inner state of his own soul, the attitude to the reality, and his philosophy of life.

Perceptiveness is a key representative feature of images-symbols in the poetry of Spanish, Czech and Russian Symbolists, as indicated by the linguistic means with the semantics of various types of perception (colour, light, sound, tactile) [9, 10]. The paper contains the linguistic analysis of the lexical and syntactic units modelling the author's world view in the poetic texts by A. Mochado, O. Březina and V. Solovyov. The supporting examples are excerpts from poems by Russian Symbolists A. Blok, V. Bryusov, K. Balmont, A. Bely who were influenced by the philosophical ideas and artistic concepts of the authors under analysis [11]. The focus is on the linguistic means verbalising the images of nature, time, beauty, and way.

The Spanish Symbolist Antonio Machado published a collection of poems “Soledades, galerías y otros poemas” in 1903 [12]. The collection is a typical modernist work of the early 20th century, devoted to lost youth, life dissatisfaction, sadness, dreaming – the feelings that the poet experienced in the given period of his artistic work. The idea of absolute loneliness is expressed through the image of nature in the forever elusive and changing time [9: 387]. For instance, loneliness and death are depicted as a desert and a wizen / broken tree, “Yo he visto mi alma en sueños... / Era un desierto llano / y un árbol seco y roto / hacia camino blanco...” (A. Machado “Soledades, galerías y otros poemas”). The word combination an endless desert (desierto llano) is evident of the visual perception, while a wizen broken tree (árbol seco y roto) indicates indirect tactility. The poetic metaphor in both cases is based on perception.
The founder and theoretician of Russian Symbolism Vladimir Solovyov [13] creates the images of a desert and an abyss that evoke the feeling of loneliness, hopelessness and despair. He sees the entire human life as a lifeless desert one has to live in. The poet seeks to find his way to the ascent, “Ne sred zhiteyskoy mertvennaya pustynya, / Ne na rasputye prazdnykh dum i slov / Nayti nam put k utrachennoy svyatynye, / Napast na sled poteryannyykh bogov” (V. Solovyov “Ot plameni strastey”). The semantics of perception in the word combination mertvennaya pustynya (deathly desert, i.e. lifeless, with no motion [14]) is not obvious when out of context, though within the whole work it is directly connected with senses, and visual perception in particular (nayti put (to find a way), napast na sled (to track)).

Desert as a symbol of loneliness is represented in the poems by A. Blok [15], “Ty otoshla, i ya v pustyne / K pesku goryachemu prinik. / No slova gordogo otnyne / Ne moghet vymolvit yazyk” (A. Blok “Ty otoshla, iy a v pustyne...”). The perceptive component of the traditional image is verbalised by the whole phrase – K pesku goryachemu prinik, where both the predicate and the qualifier are expressed by the lexical units with tactile semantics (priniknyt – to huddle up, nestle against smb./smth [14]).

Otokar Březina, the Czech Symbolist, shows loneliness though the image of an abyss. His poem “Ruce. Hudba slepců” [16] conveys the feeling of deep isolation and hopelessness, birth and death, the eternal cycle, “Ohnivé propasti země, noční blankety smrti, / kvetoucí v kosmickém mravu hvězdnými asfodely, /a všechno, co myšlenku hrůzou a závratí jímá / a čeho osleplé pohledy neviděly” (O. Březina “Ruce. Hudba slepců”). The title of the poem “Hudba slepců” is a synaesthetic combination (visual / auditory senses), while in the body of the poem visual perception (or lack of it) predominates – blinded eyes do not see the abyss of death that reigns by the Universal Law.

Through natural scenery Symbolists describe the inner state of mind and profound emotional experience rather than the outer, real and familiar world which is the space for living. Beauty is one of the basic principles that transform and enlighten the human life on Earth. This image is represented through the description of a garden and park, “I v zelennom sadu u tsaritsy moyey / Roz i liliy krasa rastsvela, / I v prozrachnoy volne serebristyy ruchey / Lovit otblek kudrey i chela” (V. Solovyov “U tsaritsy moyey”); “Gde podstupayet k moryu sad, / Ya znayu grot uyedinenyy: / Tam shepchet dremlushchiy kaskad, / Tam prud nedvizhim polusonnyy” (V. Bryusov “Gde podstupayet k moryu sad...”). In these examples the image is represented through the lexical units with the semantics of visual perception, mostly used as the qualifier: zelenyy (green), prozrachnyy (clear), serebristyy (silver), nedvizhim (motionless)…
A similar picture can be found in Březina's poem, “Zahrady zimní viděl jsem, haluze rozkvetlé v křišťály, / jak právě rozžaté lustry ještě se houpaly, duhами zahrály; / jak ledové palmy na oknech tajemství, mrazivým světlem ozářené / a jako zahrady kosmu přibližené, rozjiskřené a otevřené” (O. Březina “Ruce. Prolog”). The predicate is expressed by a basic verb of visual perception to see, with both the subject and the object on the explicit level of the phrase (Zahrady zimní viděl jsem). Verbalised light images enhance visual perception: diamonds lit by the freezing light.

The Spanish poet also describes the metaphorical reflection on emotional experiences. This reflection takes place in the garden (parque) where poets like crying, “Te he visto, por el parque ceniciento / que los poetas aman / para llorar, como una noble sombra vagar, envuelto en tu levita larga” (A. Machado “A un viejo...”). As the previous poem, this one also verbalises the basic model of the phrase with the visual semantics – Te he visto (I saw you). The words ceniciento (dark) and sombra (shadow) enhance the visual component of the image.

Day and night are represented in the context of images of nature. It is the linguistic means with the semantics of visual perception that describe the transition from day to night, “Vzglyani, kak shir nebes prozrachna i bledna, / Kako tyanutsya luchi v sadu polurazdetom… / O, chto za chudnyy chas mezh sumrakom i svetom, / Chto za svyataya tishina!” (V. Solovyov “Vzglyani, kak shir nebes prozrachna i bledna”); “Bezdonnost sumraka, nerazreshennost sna, / Iz uglya chernogo – rozhdeniye almaza. / Nam pravda kazhdyy raz – sverkhchuvstvenno dana, / Kogda my vstupim v luch svyashchennogo ekstaza” (K. Balmont “Put pravdy”). Bezdonnost sumraka (abysmal gloom) is nothing but a synaesthetic combination (the combination of visual and auditory senses). Linguistically the semantics of perception is represented on the level of phrases as well: contrast of phenomena (attributes) – gloom / light, black coal / diamond, and their juxtaposition – clear and pale.

In Otokar Březina's works the insight into the spirit of nature is represented through the image of the all-illuminating light. For instance, in the poem “Příroda” the repeated adjective většího (bigger) enhances the visual image, “Oblaky setměly západní slunce. A duše má ptala se větrů: /Jsou to oblaky přicházející nebo odcházející?... / Světlo umírá jenom příchodem ještě většího světla, ještě většího, většího světla” (O. Březina “Příroda”). The word light is simultaneously used in two meanings – daylight and enlightenment [10: 13].

Light and sun are the dominant images in the poem by A. Machado “El viajero”. The interrogative structure and obvious metaphoricity demonstrate the complexity and ambiguity of the image created [9], “¿Sonríe el sol de oro / de la tierra de un sueño no encontrada; / y ve su nave hender el mar sonoro, de viento y luz la blanca vela hinchada?”
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(El viajero). The poet inquires whether the golden sun of that undiscovered mysterious land smiles. It is important for him to know if the wanderer sees his boat (his way). The predicates sonríe (smiles) and ve (sees), the attributes oro (golden), sonoro (sounding), blanca (white) contribute to the creation and perception of the key images of the sun (sol) and light (luz).

Way (road) is traditionally perceived as the symbol of search for the sense of human existence. The analysis of the perceptive component of this image shows that the poets use a wide range of linguistic means representing various types of sense perception, as, for instance, in V. Solovyov's poem, “Byl truden dolgiy put. Khot voskhishchala vzory / Poroy prirody divnoy blagodat, / No nepristupnyye krugom sdvigalis gory, / I grud ustala, yedva mogla dyshat” (V. Solovyov “Byl truden gorniy put”).

The image of road in A. Machado's poetry is complicated by the image of river. The road along the river (camino en la ribera) means motion and eternal changing, “He vuelto a ver los álamos dorados, / álamos del camino en la ribera / del Duero, entre San Polo y San Saturio: / tras las murallas viejas...” (A. Machado “A vuelto a ver...”). The predicative component is represented by the construction with a basic verb of visual perception vuelto a ver (saw again), and the qualifier – by the adjective dorados (golden) with the semantics of light and colour.

In O. Březina's poetry the idea of spiritual search is connected with motion and flight, which enhances the metaphorical image of way (view from the above), “Jen němé vedro tvé spravedlnosti sálá jak brázdy jich letu / nad nivami a nad staveništi, kde bílé kameny svítí / jak řečiště ohně a kde jak náměšiční plíží se vojska” (O. Březina “Ruce. Vedra”). There are no basic verbs of visual perception in the phrase, but one of the predicates is expressed by the word svítí (shines) which refers to the group of verbs with the semantics of light manifestation (to shine means “to radiate, glitter, reflect light” [14]). The word combinations bílé kameny (white stones) and řečiště ohně (fiery river bed) are used as the object and basis for perception of the image in the poem.

The linguistic analysis of the poetic texts shows that mostly expressed in the Symbolist poetry are linguistic units with the semantics of light and colour (regardless of the language).

For instance, in V. Solovyov's poetry the concept of light is represented by common words that become “contextually loaded” due their specific lexical compatibility. The analysis of artistic images shows that the use of lexical units, such as light, sun, ray, glow, and fire, is associated with God's manifestation and is based on the existing religious and symbolic tradition. The use of words gleam, glitter, azure, gold, and silver represents the Divine and the image of Sophia [17: 52], “Vsya v lazuri segodnya yavilas / Predo mnyou tsaritsa moya, – / Serdtse sladkim vostorgom zabilos,
In the Symbolist poetry words meaning light and colour are an important means of image development and artistic expression. Widely used are the oppositions of light and dark, black and white, day and night (see above).

Light is shown through colour. For instance, V. Solovyov depicts the transition from the light rainbow colours (bely (white), zolotoy (golden), lazurny (azure), zhemchuzhny (pearl)) through the saturated tints (purpurnyy (magenta), ahy (scarlet), goluboy (light blue), sinyi (navy blue), izumrudnyy (emerald green)) to the darkest and faded ones (sedyi (grey), cherny (black)). The words bely, zolotoy, lazurny, goluboy are the attributes of the divine world filled with light and spirit. The dark colours are used for the figurative description of the earthly reality [18: 526], “Golos otchizny v volshebnykh rechakh, / V svete lazurnykh ochey, / Otblek otchizny v efirnykh luchakh, / V zolote chudnykh kudrey” (V. Solovyov “Blizko, daleko…”).

In O. Březina’s poetry Heaven is represented through the traditional image of a light garden. The great saints invisible to ordinary mortals are merciful to human souls from time immemorial, “Pro neviditelnou přítomnost velkých a svatých našeho rodu, / kteří jdou mezi námi v zahradách světla / a z dálky všech věků hovoří k našim duším / milostiplní, / sladko je žíti!” (O. Březina “Kolozpěv srdcí”).

The analysis of the few lexical means with the semantics of perception in the context of the work suggests that the word neviditelnou (invisible) and světla (light) are contextual synonyms.

The image of a plant that makes its way into the rocks and shadows symbolically reveals the desire of the human thirsting for the distant light (light means enlightenment). White shadow and clear days are the images that in A. Machado’s poetry are connected with the hope of the human who is eager to feel and live the holy hour, “Con las órbitas huecas de sus ojos / ha visto cómo pasan / las blancas sombras, en los claros días, / las blancas sombras de las horas santas” (A. Machado “Crece en la plaza en sombra…”). The linguistic units with the semantics of visual perception can be regarded as figurative and expressive means verbalising the basic idea of the poem (the repeated word combination blancas sombras (white shadow) and its juxtaposition within a single phrase with the word combination claros dias (clear days).

The poet of loneliness, Otokar Březina, reflected much on the polarity of his soul. In his works the traditional images-symbols of day and night, light and darkness, desert and green garden form the meaning, but they do not constitute the semantic core of the poem. The perceptive images as a part of Březina’s complex metaphor help the reader to feel and understand the
The interpenetration of linguistic units and visual, auditory and tactile semantics can be seen in the poem "Jarní noc", “Však jejich ruce duchové k hvězdám se rozpjaly, / miliony duší na zemi a ve všech světech objaly / a dlouhý oddech radostných procitnutí, / svätéční vření věčného města, / duchových křídel šumění, hra větrů v mystickém oseni, / orchestřu neviditelných zapění, / zdíhlo se v taktu jejich tajuplného gesta” (O. Březina “Jarní noc”). The dynamic character of the images of the joy and mystery of a spring night is expressed by words with tactile semantics: se rozpjaly (to spread), objaly (to embrace), gesta (gesture). The auditory perception is expressed by such words as šum (noise), zpěv (singing), takt (tact), vření (whirl), oddech (exhale). Visual senses are formed by the word neviditelných (invisible) which indicates the unearthly game of spring mystical intoxication.

The main task of the linguistic analysis of a literary text is "the study of linguistic means of different levels in the literary text from the functionally aesthetic point of view and in terms of their compliance with the author's intent and individual style of writing" [19: 38]. Thus, in the conclusion it is necessary to emphasise the functional load of the linguistic units under study as well as their ability to form the semantics of perception in the text as a whole.

Linguistic units with the semantics of perception, when used in the poetic text, contribute to expressing the main idea of the work. They also help to form the emotional, thematic, plot and compositional levels of the text. The inner world (inner voice, inner ear) is modelled on the basis of outer feelings. The emotional and intellectual spheres are interpreted through the situation of sense perception [20: 190].

In his poetry O. Březina aggravates the conflict between dreams and reality which is connected with the subjective vision and inner experiences. The ideas expressed in his poetry are polar: charm and depression permeate all poet's works, which is expressed linguistically in contrasting light and darkness, day and night, paradise (garden) and abyss. The composition complexity is based on the overlapping and interpenetrating of perceptive metaphors (including synaesthetic combinations).

In V. Solovyov's poetry the conventional religious and mystical symbols conceal the deep world of feelings and experiences of the poet. The mystical vision of St. Sophia awoke Solovyov's interest in philosophical search, the result of which he sought to convey through poetry. The seemingly simple structure of the metaphor and the abundant perceptive images conceal Solovyov's complex philosophical views. Verbalisation of the main idea is logically represented by lexical and syntactic units with the semantics of light and colour.

For Antonio Machado, poetry is an opportunity to express the dynamics of human development as well as the endless search and motion. He believes that the most important in the poem is the intimate inner
experience of the poet based on the perception of the outer and inner realities rather than form and sound. Machado's poetry is abundant with common images-symbols, linguistically represented by words of sense perception: *road*, *light*, *source*, *evening*, etc. Due to context accretions the linguistic units under study acquire individual content (for instance, the *white* colour can reflect both purity and death).

Thus, this linguistic analysis (including elements of linguistic and poetic text analysis) shows that the images-symbols representing the inner state of the poet, his feelings, emotions, reflections on existence are verbalised through predominantly linguistic units with the semantics of perception (mainly visual). The future research is connected with the study of these linguistic units in the stylistic aspect, which will require a more detailed analysis of the perception model appropriate for each of the languages, as well as with the description of the mechanisms of perceptive image formation in various literary movements.

**Literature**


MASS MEDIA TESTS: SOCIOCULTURAL ASPECT
(BASED ON ADVERTISING TEXTS)

S.V. Moshcheva

Ivanovo State University of Chemical Technology (Ivanovo, Russian Federation)
E-mail: moshevasv@mail.ru

Abstract. The article is devoted to the social and cultural aspects of mass media texts. The ways and the principles of this research are defined. The study concludes that the social nature of advertising communication enables it to reflect all the nuances of life of society and to form an expedient paradigm of human relations in the context of various social and cultural phenomena of reality.

Keywords: advertising discourse; social phenomenon; way of life; paradigm of the human relations; development of language and society.

Traditionally advertizing is considered as a way to impact on mass consciousness which can influence the motivation of audience behavior. Researchers of an advertising discourse note that “ambitious self-demonstration and aspiration to subordinate all new spheres of the manifestation” are considered as the fundamental properties of advertizing [1: 32]. Growth of the advertizing sociocultural significance contributes to the fact that it directly serves the most important of human motivation – the desire to acquire the subjects of material / non-material sphere of life.

The purpose of this article is to examine a role and a place of the sociocultural component in the formation of mass media texts and to identify some approaches to the study of this phenomenon. We share the point of view of some authors researching the sociocultural aspects of an advertizing discourse proceeding from the prerequisite that the range of impact of advertizing is extremely wide, noting that advertizing represents not only information about goods and services giving a recipient (a consumer) setup on their purchase but also a peculiar ideological code which creates system of symbolical values: social, moral, political, family. Inclusion of goods in a symbolical exchange happens at the same time to objectification of abstract values, such as feeling of patriotism, state priority over the certain individual, men over the woman, etc. Today advertizing – always a metaphor in combination with multidimensionality, word-play and visual symbols. So, A. Levinson, analyzing development of an advertizing discourse, allocates the following stages, namely: advertizing product – advertizing of its quality – advertizing lifestyle – advertizing of a consumer of goods (addressee) and dynamic role-playing situation, which is considered in the context of the advertised product. For the target audience advertizing acts as a representa-
tive of society to which this group corresponds, i.e. advertizing legitimizes a target group, enters it in a society [2].

The problem of social differentiation of language at all levels of its structure, being one of the main problems of sociolinguistics and is considered in a modern advertizing discourse. Structure of social differentiation of language is multivariate that is caused by heterogeneity of social structure and variety of social situations. Based on a study of advertising material it is possible to claim that one of typological features of the advertising discourse is the focus on imitation, display of changes of development of language and society which are shown at all levels of language structure (phonologic, morphological, syntactic, lexico-semantic). This imitation is considered rather effective way of approach of advertizing society to objectively existing one. Thus, we share the point of view of a number of linguists that it’s necessary to carry out a careful, sociolinguistic study of local dialects and city popular speech, professional and social limited subsystems – technical languages and social group jargons, which are rather active in the communicative respect (E. Bliss, J. Wells, D. Rosewarne, S. Mufwence, G. Smitherman, J. Rickford, B. Ward, L. Krysin, D. Cristal, S. Decheva, T. Anikhovskaya etc.).

The use of slang, reduced and colloquial forms is often applied in an advertizing discourse as a colloquial type of the speech for reconstruction of a real communicative situation. Some examples from our English experimental materials can serve as confirmation of the presented conclusions [3]:

* “grab a Snickers!” – an advertizing of Snickers chocolate bar directed on a youth audience, actively is marked by youth slang that can be traced in the Russian translation of the English version of an advertising slogan “Hungry? Grab a Snicker!” – “Не тормози! Сникерсы!” (Russ. lang.);
* “You’ll love this vac and how it effortlessly devours dirt!” – an advertizing of a vacuum cleaner “PowerVac” (vac – vacuum cleaner [abbr.]);
* “Why moms who care say YES to Honeycomb? That’s because Honeycomb has the nutrition moms can feel good about” – an advertizing “Honeycomb” (mom – [colloq.] mommy / momma);
* “with 1/3 less sugar, you can love ‘FROOT LOOPS’ as much as your kids do” – Fast Food advertising breakfast for children (kid – [sl.] child);
* “Want to refresh your fitness routine? Skip the gym and hit the pool” – an advertising of healthy lifestyle (gym – [colloq.] gymnasium);
* “Where there’s life… there’s Bud” – an advertising of beer “Budweiser” (Bud – [abbr.] Budweiser);
* “Bye-bye ultra dry. Introducing Never Say Dry Extra-rich moisture cream” – an advertising of a moisturizing cream (bye-bye – [colloq.] goodbye);
Obviously Russian advertising actively operates such lexical units because today there aren’t strict regulations and requirements for creating mass media. As an example one can represent some advertising texts: “It can be fun to revel at a party in honor of St. Valentine’s Day”; “Come and rock with us!”; “Just a cool drink”; “...Shop Rags – it’s something!”; “This outfit is only in a store Freebie”; “Bon Pari candies – fruit lawlessness!”; “We – new, cool, lilac Mirinda. Fruit Mirinda – the funkiest lemonade!”; “For the cool grandson – the cool grandmother!!!”; “The lethal credit – 0% the first contribution, 0% the credit, 0% commission”; “Hangout rate is $ 005!”; “LOGAN. It is not afraid of Russian roads! Where Renault Logan has been already started selling, cars go in flight”; “In Short, Autostyle – We’ll surpass! All!”; “Aspirin S. Give cold up as a bad job!”; “Strepsils – When cold takes for a throat”; “Fint. For those who are true cool!”; “We’ll deliver at its best! Never mind! We’ll deliver, install, connect” and etc.

We note that a social differentiation of language includes also some questions which are connected with the research of influence of age, level of education, belonging to various social groups and some other characteristics on the process of speech communication. The concept of «social role» is of interest to identify the specifics of communicative act, because it determines the choice of language means, their compatibility and ways of phonetic registration of the statement. Creation of the sociolinguistic portraits can be seen as a quite perspective direction of sociolinguistic studies as the speech of the certain person can accumulate the features being typical for language habits of the social environment involved [4, 5]. It is necessary to notice that modern oral advertising rather actively uses the methods for creating a sociolinguistic portrait of the individual and the groups united on the basis of professional, social accessory as effective expressive means. Sociolinguistics considers some problems of the description of standard situations of speech communication, formulating the rules of speech behavior of native speakers in various situations depending on the purposes of the communicative act.

L. Krysin suggests to consider a speech situation as the structured object consisting of a number of variables, namely, the sender and his social role; addressee and his social role; the relations between the sender and the addressee; manner; purpose; means (literary language, local dialect, professional language, social jargon); method (contact / distant, oral / written), the change of each value leading to changes in the linguistic characteristics of speech situation [6]. We believe that the presented variables, their correlation and collocability can be considered in practice of the analysis of a modern advertising discourse. It is obvious that social roles, which are typical in a society involved, are acquired in the socialization process, i.e. the social role is a form of public behavior of the person caused by his situation in a social group and a communication situation. Couples of social roles – the most typical form of role interaction of people: 1) the role of the first partici-
part of a situation (X) is higher than a role of the second participant of a situation (Y): $P_X > P_Y$; 2) the role of the first participant of a situation is lower than a role of the second participant: $P_X < P_Y$; 3) the roles of both participants of a situation are equal: $P_X = P_Y$ [6: 3].

It should be noted that differentiation of speech situations due to the communicative purposes of the statement happens according to basic laws of the theory of speech acts; by means of the sociolinguistic analysis of communicative situations one can identify the social causes of infringement of communicative postulates (maxims), the emergence of communicative failures. The process of advertising creation, according to our opinion, represents a certain communicative situation where speech intention of a sender is formed due to the influence and the factor of an addressee, his social and professional accessory, an education level, the age characteristic, etc.

In modern sociolinguistics a special place is given to the issue of interaction and relation of language and culture. These relations are of a dual nature, the processes of contact of various cultures are reflected in the lexical loans. It is obvious that in modern conditions the processes of loanwords and their development in stylistic and genre kinds of the speech have a common cultural, ideological, social context. Research of adoption of loanwords in the different social environment and means of its influence to an advertising discourse are of a certain interest for the analysis of the advertising texts in sociolinguistics.

The diglossia phenomenon as sociocultural phenomenon can be considered as one of features of a modern advertising discourse. Since the language is both the transmission system of thoughts, the means of communication and the significant factor in the cultural, ideological, political, ethnic processes, so special living conditions and activity of communities lead to formation and adaptation of various sign systems. Now the development of society seeks for formation of the united sign space based on the cultural bilingualism leading to interpenetration of semiotics spaces being manifested in a language as numerous loanwords having not only lexical character, but also mental one.

Researches of the advertising material give to us the grounds to claim that the appeal to cultural, historical events is the characteristic feature of a modern advertising discourse and is shown by means of cliches, quotes, allusions, precedent texts and names in an advertisement. Advertising is considered as a special type of communication in which language signs, i.e. words and various language cliches, represent the attitude of the people expressed in objects and its understanding realized in a context of cultural traditions and its understanding being a powerful source of interpretation of the hidden cultural level. So in a research of Russian advertising discourse Y. Pikuleva suggested to use the term “precedent cultural sign” reflecting the semiotics nature of a precedence phenomenon of precedence reflecting, correlation to national and cultural background knowledge and active inclusion
in modern communicative process as the symbols traditionally recognized in this society, help to realize the pragmatic potential of the advertising message [7: 23].

Analyzing some English and Russian printed, oral advertising texts it is obviously possible to reveal actively used precedent phenomena, namely, precedent names (anthroponyms, theonyms, ideonyms), precedent statements (quotes, phraseological units, proverbs, sayings), quotes often transformed for the purpose of easier storing and language play [8]. Let’s turn to some examples: *“Who Loves Me, Follow Me” – an advertising of jeans clothing “Jesus” (a phrase from a book “New Testament”); *“To Share or Not to Share…” – an advertising of an investment company (an allusion of V. Shakespeare’s poem “Hamlet” – “To be or not to be”); *“When Cathy Cole and Peggy Burton saw Joan Emery’s new floor, they couldn’t believe their feet” – an advertising of a company “Gaf Sofstep Vinyl Floors” (an expression “Do not believe your eyes!”); *“Tastes differ, tastes cry” – an advertising of yogurts (a proverb “Tastes differ”); *“The person for the person – the Chanson” – an advertising of a radio channel (a proverb “The person for the person – the friend”); *“Bravo for rest and Bravo for work” – an advertising of a cocktail “Bravo” (A right for rest and the right for work); *“Atlant”, “Viking”, “Suvorov” – precedent names used as a name of trade enterprises, beauty salons – “Cleopatra”, “Queen Margot”.

Obviously, the use of precedent phenomena in printing and oral advertising enhances pragmatic potential of advertising, making it more vivid and memorable. However, one should take into account the fact that the appeal to this phenomenon in an advertising text suggests the common background knowledge of a sender and a recipient of the communicative act.

One of the features of the modern advertising discourse is to study a gender component and gender stereotypes of a society. The gender (social or sociocultural sex) isn’t a linguistic category, but its content can be revealed by the analysis of language structures explaining the relevance of linguistic competence to study the cultural representation of the sexes [9]. It is important to identify, by what means, in what semantic fields, in which cases the sex is fixed in the language. It is known, that the factor of the biological sex of the language was established in the antiquity with understanding the grammatical gender category. The hypothesis about the appearance and functioning of the category of gender in the language was symbolic and semantic, i.e. based on correlation of natural grammatical categories of sexus and a grammatical category of genus [10]. The studies involved did not observe the correlation of gender, education and age, the conclusions were drawn using unrepresentative material. All the differences between a male and female speech were defined by only a biological sex. But in the 60th years the sociolinguistics considers the functioning of language in groups of people united on the basis of profession, gender, age, place of residence.
Studying of some language stereotypes, dynamics of their development reflecting the changes in a traditional role differentiation of a society is rather topical area of gender researches. So, according to a number of researchers, gender stereotypes are a special case of a stereotype, cultural and socially caused by opinions on qualities, attributes and standards of behavior of both sexes and their reflection in a language.

One of the most stable stereotypes is a roleplay one. This stereotype is formed already in childhood, being a result of influence of system of gender belief, i.e. knowledges and standarts how men and women have to react emotionally in these or those situations. Some time ago in Russian advertising such concepts as “serious and responsible work” and “woman and work” were opposed. Similar TV commercials supported such stereotype, as an incompatible concepts – “career” and “woman” (woman is an assistant, a secretary, but not a leader; a female is a performer, not a generator of ideas). Advertising texts created on the basis of using these stereotypes have two discourses. The primary discourse describes quality and advantages of goods / service. The secondary discourse informs who should carry out a work, who should make a decision, i.e. an advertiser transferred to a consumer the conventional version of social and gender world and relationship in it.

Currently, however, the advertising image of a women is changing and is presented in a slightly different way. The woman becomes free, energetic, active having new demands and desire to be independent from men, to have equal opportunities as a man possesses in the professional term; gradually a woman takes some positions as a man has, tries being realized as a person. Respectively, for the characteristic of a such image words reflecting development of the strong-willed personality including determination, independence, self-sufficiency are used: “Live without restrictions!”,” Love yourself!”, “You have yourself one and only!”, “Be yourself!”, “Be always sure of yourself!”,”Mind and practicality won't bring you”, “You know what it is necessary for you, and you will achieve it”. According to some researchers advertising does not create new values and uses created social standards and stereotypes, and also is closely connected with the concept as «lifestyle» which is formed thanks to an advertising.

A woman is presented in a number of commercials as the head of a company being responsible for the company development, for the employees. Such advertisings make it irrelevant the stereotype of “limited feminine behavior” (including speech), being associated with a dependent status of a woman in comparing with a man in all spheres of life. So, the expert survey carried out by the Russian psychologists showed that a woman – as a head / leader is more law-abiding, less inclined to various “everyday weaknesses”, more often recognizes the wrongfulness (the man, as a rule, seldom recognizes the mistakes, considering that he shows illiteracy, shortsightedness, incompetence), is more self-critical person. Possessing a good
intuition being considered as a typical feminine quality, the female head makes in the activity less mistakes and miscalculations [11: 111-114].

We note that the carried out analysis of some printing and oral advertising texts allows to reveal some features of a role stereotype in English and Russian advertising. Due to a certain level of development of socio-economic and political spheres, and also the appeared opportunities of professional skill improvement, at present a woman in Russian society is characterized originally from positions of her financial independence, opportunities of career growth. In English mass media there is a lot of examples both in printing editions, media channels where a woman often consciously makes a choice in favor of significant values, i.e. her children and family.

It is difficult to recognize or disprove a stereotype of “female verbositeness” being based only on advertising analysis. This stereotype can take place in case if a copywriter intentionally wants to pay our attention to this trait of a character.

It is considered that a woman makes her speech according to a cause-and-effect logic. As for men, the logic of temporary development of events is typical. These stereotypes can be tracked in TV and radio advertising:

* “Bad, grey weather. Poor, grey mood... fashion stores “Sella” – the recipe from a bad mood!” (“cause” – bad mood; “the task” – is to find the means to improve it; “consequence” – the recipe was found as a new purchase);

* “To have a good rest of the weekend – now is not a problem. Yesterday we called friends, discussed everything, and today we have been already here. A camping “Borovoye”. It is both fresh air, nature and cool service... Quality and availability are the tourist center “Borovoye””. This advertising is built according to the temporal logic of the development of events, which is typical for male speech behavior. But the text could be sounded by a female voice. Most likely a copywriter would add some details, trivia, create an additional storyline. This technique is used for advertising the same products (service). Pronounced by a male or female voice, altered according to gender stereotypes, the advertising sounds always in a new way, more expressive and emotionally rich.

The occurring stereotype of great politeness of a female speech isn’t confirmed by the analysis of advertising texts. Politeness is not a gender accessory, it is in direct dependence on level of the culture both a man and a woman. Politeness is not only a property of language units but the strategic principle of behavior of a speaker carrying out a choice of language means according to a communicative situation that testifies to communicative competence of a speaker. It is obvious that all cultures of the world have certain rules to ensure the successful communicative acts and prescribing to participants of communication standards of behavior, their fulfillment is strictly obligatory. As all people act within the culture according to society expecta-
tions, it is possible to call their behavior as a stereotypic speech behavior [12: 127-131]. Only a hint of rudeness, a frequent use of jargons can be noted in printing editions for a male audience:

* "In short, Effes – beer without showing off!" – an advertising of beer “Effes” (a radio channel “Russian Radio”); * “Prices Ohhh ..........” – an advertising of a tariff plan “Euroset” (a radio channel “Russian Radio”).

Let’s note the peculiarities of advertising creation having some features of shock value. Being in the conditions of rigid competition to enter a market having a new product and to gain recognition of a consumer, some copywriters try to use an offensive language and vocabulary of erotic character for the advertising purposes. This kind of advertising texts are read as a rule by a man's voice. Advertising texts sounded by a female voice have slightly different connotations – a woman is not the primary source of this information, she only retells earlier heard and already sounded by a man.

Based on the analysis of advertising texts we can conclude that the main indicator of the orientation to the man is the use of the stereotype of masculinity, i.e. emphasis on masculinized characteristics. Respectively the social roles of a man (a son, a father, a husband) practically aren't presented or insufficiently presented in the advertising texts. Our experimental data allow to draw a conclusion that so-called man's advertising, i.e. aimed at a male audience is practically a gender-neutral advertising. In turn the advertising for female audience is distinguished by a bright gender orientation being shown in a choice of language means and a manner of scoring.

There exists a stereotype according to which women use more exact color shades. But this claim is controversial one because there is no single point of view on this issue. So, R. Lakoff [13] agrees with the opinion involved and E. Zhigaykova [14] disproves this stereotype. Probably, unless more careful researches are carried out, the question remains unsolved one. Our analysis of advertising texts to identify frequency and accuracy of the use of shades of colour has not given us a full and adequate understanding. Advertising texts do not differ in diversity using a large amount of colors and shades.

Consequently, studying the mentioned stereotypes (role-playing, conflict of ideas “woman and career”, deficiency of female behavior, verbosity, speech politeness, logic of statement creation (cause-and-effect and temporary)), a role-playing and a logic of statement creation stereotypes are obvious in advertising texts; the politeness stereotype takes place in advertising, but it is defined as a seldom used stereotype. But how have these stereotypes been presented in our modern society? After all an addressee and a sender of a message are separated by a copywriter who invests the author’s intention in linguistic forms. And does the gender of a copywriter influence the creation of an advertising text?
Thus, our position in the research of the advertising text is a complex approach, i.e. a study of all the components finally forming — an advertising discourse. One can conclude that the social nature of advertising communication enables it to reflect all the nuances of life of society and to form an expedient paradigm of human relations in the context of various social and cultural phenomena of reality being confirmed by the examples of our experimental texts. During the analysis it has been revealed that the appeal to this or that sociocultural component depends on a number of parameters, i.e. taking into account a social nature of language, speech communication in different social and age groups, the phenomena of bilingualism and diglossia, gender and other components. Therefore, advertising was beyond economic information and became the most important means of creation of such social phenomenon, as a way of life.

**Literature**

Abstract. A multidisciplinary aspect of translation results from the integrated processes of Modern Linguistics. The complex nature of translation has been obvious for centuries as it is a meeting point of diverse knowledge and experience, yet the pros and cons of such meeting need a closer exploration to avoid misunderstanding in terminology and subject–object relations. The article explores a combined power of three paradigms – communicative, psycholinguistic, and cognitive – to reconstruct and construct speech in the process of intercultural communication. The advantages of such enterprise are plausible as they are based on the conception of language as only one of the mental faculties of a person alongside with a number of others.

Keywords: translation; theory and practice of translation; paradigm of knowledge; expansionism; knowledge integration.

Translation is one of the forms of language interaction, and its successfulness is achieved due to the experience amassed throughout years of translation practice and its analysis. However, we cannot yet confirm the close relationship between translation theory and practice, which is backed up by a number of scientific articles in Mosty (“The Bridges”) translation journal [1-3] and some other papers on this subject [4].

We believe that there are several reasons for that. One of them dates back to the 1950s when the idea emerged to grant translation studies the status of an independent science. The opponents argued that the explanation of translation solutions was to be found in comparative linguistics, hermeneutics and other scientific areas. Later on even the most obvious achievements of translation theorists (e.g., the classification of translation techniques) did not foster the prominence of translation theory. It all came down to the idea that this theory “was lagging behind translation practice” [5: 50].

The translation studies in the 1970s and the 1980s did little to single it out a separate branch. Russian and German translation theorist of that time treated translation as an act of communication performed by its participants in order to achieve a communicative effect. From the modern viewpoint this effect is manifested “either as a minimum understanding of the original text author’s intention or as a maximum communicative influence on the text recipient” [7: 130].

Thus, communicative approach has shown the need to focus on another component of the interlinguistic communication, i.e. on a person (text
producer, text recipient, intermediary). It coincided in time with the emergence of the new anthropocentric paradigm.

Scientific paper compilations of the late 1990s and the early 2000s highlight the popularity of translation research. According to M. Zwilling, “translation studies had made their way to become a quite ramified scientific discipline” [8: 32]. It is the interdisciplinarity of translation studies that we would like to dwell on in this paper.

Speaking about scientific research, nowadays the need for incorporating the knowledge of different areas is unquestionable. Expansionism remains one of the key features of linguistic science which were defined by E. Kubryakova [9: 207]. The productivity of the interaction between translation and adjacent sciences is historical and obvious, for the paradigm shift in linguistics promotes the disclosure of new aspects of translation, the new insights into translation strategies, etc.

Just as important is the feedback of humanities and translation. Today we observe the growing cooperation between translation and adjacent sciences. Researchers believe that is due to the rise of mental processes research. The opportunities offered by the joint studies of intelligence activity and translation are enormous. Translation process features double code change, and if the findings of studying this mental process can be recorded materially, then translation can be considered an natural way of obtaining objective data about human mental activities [10-12].

However, the excessive enlargement of translation studies subject area is duly criticized by translation theorists and practitioners. The paper by D. Buzadzhi and V. Lanchikov “Death list. On the Troubles of Modern Translation Studies in Russia” [2] offers convincing and well-grounded reasons on that score. The authors maintain that in an attempt to meet the goals of a particular piece of research scholars often ignore actual translation objectives, with the theoretical principles torn apart from translation practice and fundamental translation notions and terms being quite blurred. “Notions and terms are borrowed from foreign subject areas not because it is necessary but because it is trendy. <…> More often than not these terms become metaphorical and act as mere symbols enabling the researcher to juggle with them as he or she wishes” [Ibid: 53].

The concern of the D. Buzadzhi and V. Lanchikov is clear. Their paper deals with the most relevant questions of translation theory and didactics that cry for debate and answers. The article reflects the general ambiguous attitude towards translation theory and some adjacent study areas. Accepting the productivity of integrative research (e.g. employing the findings of psychology, corpus linguistics, etc.), translation theory at the same time attempts to preserve its autonomy. Despite existing skepticism towards research carried out within the scope of cognitive linguistics, it is safe to say that the integration of translation models based on various paradigmat-
calfoundations, promotes the meeting of translation goals and enables to bring together translation theory and practice.

As an example let us consider the potential of three modern paradigms to meet one of the major translation goals: the reconstruction and the conveying of the intentional meaning. Based on the assumption that the understanding happens as a result of intersubject activity, the born meaning cannot be only and ultimate. The proponents of different translation models offer different solutions to this task.

The advocates of psycholinguistic models believe that starting point should be the study of psychological, mental, emotional and intentional activity of the text creator, the translator and the text reader (for further details see [14]). It is assumed that the mechanisms of translation process are contained in activity theories of translation. According to these theories, the unit of analysis is a basic speech act. Acts here are defined as *ways of representing meanings through language expression*. By such expression the author singles out various meanings, while the translator produces his own ones based on the interpretation of conventional language units of the text. The interdependence of language units within the text structure enables the translator to identify the author’s intention of using definite language units. The content of the text always implies its reconstruction by the reader in accordance with his understanding of the message. The translation activity emerges as speech-and-thought production and translator’s reconstruction of the integrative / dominant meaning of the original text [15].

Having said that, the majority of translation theorists nowadays agree that translation includes semantic differences and semantic shifts depending on the translator’s interpretation of the source text [16, 17]. Naturally a question arises as to the extent to which this semantic shift may happen and how it can help integrate the knowledge of different ethnical cognitions.

The answer can be found if we resort to cognitive paradigm, which possesses explanatory potential. One of the basic terms of cognitive linguistics is the concept, which is an operational cognitive unit and contains the information about the way things stand in the world. Integrating the knowledge of the two paradigms, the cognitive and the psychological one, the concept can be thought of as a complex meaningful unit the structure of which includes several components: the body of the sign, notion, image, objective content, associations, emotional and evaluative components [15: 36]. The concept has a field structure in the center of which is the a notion or one of its characteristics, with the relations between the components based on functional principle.

Why can the integrative approach to the concept be exciting for a translator? First of all, it provides him a reference point in the continual and infinite space of meaning. The idea of translation as the activity of selecting functional foundations aimed at creating integrative cognitive structures en-
ables to consider the model of concept put forward by psycholinguists as the basis for designing and developing translation programs, selecting translation strategies and verifying the quality of translated texts.

Let us go through a particular example.

The adequate translation of the sentence below can be carried out only when the emotional and evaluative component of the concept guerrillas is correctly interpreted:

*Past links to terrorist groups... are proving useful in helping to free hostages held by Muslim guerrillas* [19].

One of the most authoritative English-Russian dictionaries edited by Yu. Apresyan has the following entry: *guerrilla–1. Партизан, боевик*. The entry does not include any information necessary for proper understanding of this concept. Historical and discourse experience of a Russian receiver of the translation makes the meaning of the Russian equivalent *партизан* distinctly positive. So the seemingly obvious meaning of the English sentence confuses beginner translators. The inner context of the recipient contradicts the external context of the sentence. It is not quite clear for Russian mentality why *партизаны* should hold hostages that are to be freed.

At the same time, the English concept of guerrilla includes a negative evaluation component, which is quite clear when you study the definition provided in English language dictionaries: *guerrilla – a member of an unofficial military group, esp. one fighting to remove a government, which attacks its enemy in small groups unexpectedly* [ELAC]; *guerrilla – a member of an irregular military force that uses harassing tactics against an enemy army* [AHD]. Hence we can translate guerrilla as боевик.

Another approach to semantic text interpretation is suggested by D. Buzadzhi, representative of the linguistic translation school currently being developed at Moscow State Linguistic University. It is based on the functional and communicative perspective, and, on the one hand, can be compared to the selection of foundations for translation strategies described in earlier approaches, and, on the other, makes them more specific and complete thus further uniting translation theory and practice.

In his article describing the essence of the suggested model the author specifies that communicative adequateness of translation is achieved by rendering functional and information pictures of the original text. The former is associated with the “wind rose”, a number of vectors the resultant of which determines the nature (informative, affective, aesthetic) of the analyzed text or an extract from it and implies one more opposition of the line “author’s vs. general” (“idiolect vs. conventional”). The information picture is “a set of actualized communicatively essential meanings of the original text that are to be translated” [22: 53]. The four types of notional information (situation, expressive-evaluative, associative-figurative, and style information) can be represented in juxtaposed texts to different extents.
The described model features two levels of source and target language text juxtaposition. The first is the level of form (phonetic, morphological, lexical, syntactical and idiomatic) that reflects the conventionality of language means used in both texts. It is represented by five axes corresponding to the five types of forms, while the conventionality picture is marked by a curve intersecting each of the axes. The second level, the level of content, features a curve that enables to evaluate and compare the density of every type of information expressed in a communicative passage of the source text with the potential translation [22: 50].

Let us try and integrate the ideas of all the three approaches and conduct a comparative content analysis of several passages from J. Brodsky’s Watermarks [23] and its translation Набережная неисцелимых by G. Dashevsky.

A Venetian essay is a passionate declaration of love in winter Venice, a remarkably beautiful city on water. Reminiscing about his first arrival, the author writes:

1. Then I saw the only person I knew in that city; the sight was fabulous [22].

Тут я увидел единственное человеческое существо, которое знал в этом городе; картина была сказочная [Ibid: 103].

It should be noted that psycholinguists generally call for including the problems of understanding into the subject area of translatology. It usually takes place in translating literary texts where reflection is based on the synthesis of the translator’s life and discourse experience. In such cases the actualization of linguistic form correlates with constant changes in the semantic space of the literary work. As a result, new meanings emerge and new translation strategies have to be selected.

This very case is given in the analyzed essay. Taking into account Brodsky’s bilinguism, we can suggest that the choice of the lexeme sight was influenced by A. Pushkin’s verses dedicated to A. Kern (“Я помню чудное мгновенье” – I still remember that amazing moment). Hence the translation calls for the word виденье. It looks quite suitable in this context [24: 47], whereas the chosen variant картина does not reveal the emotional component of the concept “beauty” prevailing in Brodsky’s essay.

The language unit sight, once appearing in the source-language text, emerges multiple times again further on and acts as an emotional and evaluative marker of describing the Venetian acquaintance of the writer. The translator has to take this point into consideration while selecting translation strategies in order to preserve the author’s narrative features, i.e. the functional picture of the original text. However, the variant картина is not equal to the original lexeme on every level. Below are seven cases of the contextual repetition of the lexeme sight and its translations. In our view, all of them have one feature in common, viz. they lack the conventionality of expressing
the target meaning, because the author deviates from general language standard.

2. The sight had come there in the guise of a Slavicist [23: 11]. – Тогда картина явилась в облике славистки [Ibid: 103].

3. That nearly disqualified the sight as a subject of interest in the eyes of the coterie to which I belonged [Ibid: 11]. – Последнее чуть не зачернило картину как объект интереса в глазах моей компании [Ibid: 103].

4. So we regarded the sight as the physical extension and embodiment of our ideals and principles [Ibid: 13]. – Мы считали картину физическим продолжением и воплощением наших идеалов и принципов [Ibid: 105].


6. The nutria-clad sight next to me began to explain [Ibid: 14]. – Рядом со мной картина в нутрии объясняла... [Ibid: 103].


Conforming to conventionality in expressing the meaning is an important part of the translator’s professional competence, which is pointed out by N. Ryabtseva [4]. She notes that “a professional translator rather seeks to express the relevant meaning in the target language in accordance with its norms. Thus, the quite controversial precondition for the translator’s creative thinking is the search for the most stereotypical expression in the target language” [Ibid: 65-66].

We can conclude, therefore, that the disciplinarity is the result of integration processes in the contemporary science. References to careless usage of terms or departure from methodological principles in new disciplines are the result of human factor rather than a feature of interdisciplinarity, which is the signature of modern science. Here one would recall the prediction of V. Vernadsky who suggested that the expansion of scientific knowledge would blur the boundaries between separate sciences and researchers would have to specialize not in branches of science but in scientific issues.

Literature

19. USA Today, 2001, 18th May.
BORIS PILNYAK'S AMARCANISMS IN THE NOVEL “OK”

V.N. Sushkova

Tyumen State University (Tyumen, Russian Federation)
E-mail: sushkovavn@mail.ru

Abstract. In “O.K.”, an American novel” (as Boris Pilnyak named his work) Americanisms are not only words or expressions peculiar to American English, but also representing the intervention of foreign e words into Russian. This is the Russian writer’s feeling of freedom and peculiarity, that characterizes the inhabitants of the United States. Besides, introducing foreign words into his narrative is a particular strategy that reveals the basic intention of his work.

Keywords: Americanism; analogy; irony; the English vocabulary.

Boris Andreyevich Pilnyak’s creative work is actively studied now in Kolomna State Pedagogical Institute. Analytical article collections (of both Russian and foreign authors) are published here regularly. Boris Pilnyak’s poetics in all its structural range is attracting the scientists’ attention.

Boris Pilnyak was not an indifferent observer, but an eyewitness who was actively engaged in the life of the early twentieth century. Today he is perceived as a chronicler of the epoch of the global change. The scale of events that produced the deepest impression on the writer in connection with his passion for the philosophy of Friedrich Nietzsche, Bergson, Schopenhauer, together with rooted in his personality admiration for the creative work of Andrei Bely, caused paradoxical artistic thought and experimental nature of Boris Pilnyak’s prose.

Numerous articles, monographs and theses (E.R. Abdurazakova, K.B. Andronikashvili, L.N. Anpyalova, A.P. Auer, E.S. Babkina and many other authors [1]) have been dedicated to studying Pilnyak’s view of Russian history for he perceived it’s inner dynamic force (“The Naked Year”, “The Salt Barn”, “The Volga flows into the Caspian Sea”, “The Tale of the Unextinguished Moon”), and revealed its underlying processes, creating vivid images while at the same time evincing a particular type civic-mindedness. Much attention has been accorded to the foreign motives and themes in Pilnyak’s creative work, especially regard to the East (“China Story”, “Roots of the Japanese Sun”, “Rocks and Roots”).

For that time the writer traveled a lot: in 1922 he visited Germany, in 1923 – England, in 1926 – China. He visited Japan twice: in 1926 and in 1932. In 1931 Pilnyak visited America at the invitation of Ray Long, the publisher of the popular weekly “Cosmopolitan”. Ray Long and Pilnyak drew up a contract to publish the novel “The Volga flows into the Caspian Sea” [2: 184].

“O.K., an American Novel” (as the writer himself defined the genre of this work) was published in 1933. Direct impressions from numerous meet-
ings and events were included in this book of travel sketches. In my opinion, this work is unjustly neglected by researchers, because it has retained a topical relevance for Russia in the late XX – early XXI centuries.

Boris Pilnyak visited the United States at the time of the toughest economic crisis in the history of America. And, at the same time, it was the period of energetic industrial construction in the USSR. Naturally, the parallels between the state of things in the two countries is constantly drawn in the book:

“Of course, America is on the high road of the mankind’s development. This road leads to the new destination – to socialism. These paths to socialism are being constructed in the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics. Now the Soviet Union and the United States are playing the chess game of the modern mankind” [3: 451].

These comparisons and analogies open and close Pilnyak’s “American Novel”. The book consists of 43 chapters of variable length. These chapters are enclosed in a kind of compositional ring. The first and the last chapters, framing the book, consist of only three sentences, repeated almost word for word: “4 July, 1776 was the day when the United States declared independence. It was the day when Betsy Ross, an American woman, presented the first U.S. President George Washington with the first American banner in Philadelphia. That was fifty years ago” [Ibid: 452].

“7 November, 1931 is the anniversary of the October Revolution in Russia. It is the day, when Betsy Ross, an American woman, handed the red flag to the Detroit organization of the Communist Party of the USA” [Ibid: 675].

The history of America’s discovery, its economic ups and downs, historical and political documents, the eye-witness experience – everything is organized within the framework of a single narrative plot – the travel notes [4]. This degree of integration is achieved due to an easily understood syntax and vocabulary. The novel is constructed through rhythm, alliterations and sound repetitions. The main stylistic characteristic of the book is associated with Americanisms, that are introduced into the depiction of events by the sure hand of the author.

In Pilnyak’s interpretation Americanisms are not just the words and expressions characteristic of the American variant of the English language. Americanisms are the writer’s feeling for a certain individuality and freedom inherent in the people who inhabit that country.

“Everything is sport for Americans. Sport, records, “O.K.” – are the equivalent concepts for the American people… And there are lots of national flags! Flags are even in cemeteries! They are patriots! They are delighted with themselves; they are delighted with their country, let alone the fact that fathers of the half of them were not born Americans. America is the apex of mankind and civilization, the crown of creation! And Americans have nothing to do with cosmopolitans: “What is Europe or Asia? …Athens, where is
this? – in Mexico? … Moscow? – Ah, yes, it seems to be somewhere in Kentucky! Odysseus Voltaire – he is a cooper from 2nd street… – But in general, it is of no importance. America is surpassed by nobody, nothing and nowhere and can never be surpassed! However, if Europeans do invent something, it is only for the sake of America. Everything else is a mere bagatelle, good for nothing!” [3: 433].

Similarly:

“In America – there is prohibition, “the dry law”. It is not a trifling law, but the one that is included in the precepts of the Constitution of the United States. So, sometimes in unfamiliar places I, a foreigner, had to address a policeman and explain rather through gesticulating than speaking, that I should have a drink with my friends. And every time cops gave the same answer: “O.K., boy! O.K., guy! It is very simple. Go round the corner, the second porch. Tell them – policeman Charlie has sent you! Sure!” [Ibid: 568].

In the USA of the XX century gangsters were one of the original forms of the American freedom manifestation. Pilnyak recounts of one of the most notorious gangster kings – Al Capone, who could not have a talk with the writer from Russia, because on that day he was involved in the mayoral election in Chicago:

“If Mr. Pilnyak stays a little longer in Chicago, Mr. Capon will be at his service” [Ibid: 511].

Al Capone’s “tough guys” shot people “on order” with machine guns while a human life was valued at 25$ and above.

“Al Capone is a great man,” – Pilnyak continues and describes in detail the way this bandit is making millions in collaboration with the banker Z, with the Chicago factory owners and merchants as companions. “Al Capone has got big business – Big deal!” He collects tribute from the submissive people and shoots away the unruly. His business is not restricted to vodka and prostitution. Pilnyak gives not only examples of racketeering, but cites the Act on functions of Chicago’s Special Court [Ibid: 575] on racketeering that ruled on the following upon:

1. Destroying citizens’ property by explosions.
2. Deliberate wrecking of houses.
3. Collecting money as penalties.
4. Throwing bombs” etc. There are 9 points.

A few years later, in 1935, Soviet writers, Ilia Ilf and Yevgeny Petrov, travelling around America, also failed to meet Al Capone. At that time Al Capone served his 11-yaer sentence in a Los Angeles prison “not for smuggling and robbery, but for non-payment of income tax on the capital procured by means of robbery and smuggling” [Ibid: 288].

Pilnyak does not hide his attitude to that American “peculiarity”. On the contrary, the writer has and expresses his own opinion on every occasion he describes. For example:
“They say that labor is respected in America. I think, what is really respected there is the dollar, and the way it is received is of no importance, it might be even through gangsterism”.

Very often Pilnyak’s Americanisms are ironically or even sarcastically colored when he introduces into his narration political anecdotes, placards, mottos revealing the essence of American morals:

“Time is money!”, “He who does not work more then he receives, does not receive more then he works”, “An accident is wasting time!”

Sometimes Pilnyak states the fact simply:

“In America one should see in a political party he belongs to neither principles, no programs, but a source of existence” [Ibid: 471-473].

The author takes, for example, quotations from the book “Political Behavior” by F. Kant, an American journalist, whom he considers “a person who is not at all of revolutionary inclination”. If you only look at the list of contents of the book, you would grasp what is the book about. The items of the table are laconic which looks very “American”:

“Obey the law, and you will be beaten!”

“You must be true to your gang!”

“To hurt the interests of business is unprofitable”.

“A party is not responsible for bribery in its ranks” and so on.

In addition B. Pilnyak relates the content of some of the book’s chapters. For example, in the chapter “When the water reaches the upper deck, follow the rats” F. Kant gives his explanation:

“As applied to political life, this means that it is foolish for a person, engaged in politics, to continue to adhere to his beliefs as soon as they became unpopular” [Ibid: 582].

There were many critical remarks, concerning the vocabulary of the novel. “The usage of English words with Russian flexion is a bad taste”, wrote one of the reviewers. – Americans [lontchat] – have lunch, [dinerjat] – have dinner”, [bitchujutsa] – lie on the beach, and [baluyut] – play ball” [6: 10-13].

For Boris Pilnyak the usage of Americanisms is a verbal device, that opens up and develops the meaning of the narrative. “O.K.”, carried out into the title of the book, is the key word of the “American novel”. This word sounds as a refrain throughout Pilnyak’s book and more often than not has an ironic shade, which is spread over to both meanings of the concept “Americanism”. In one of the first chapters of his book Pilnyak gives an explanation of using “O.K.”:

“At the start of the 19th century the USA Presidents were, as usual, generals, military men and not very well educated people. And at a certain
time Andrew Jackson was President. There are two words: “All correct” in the English language, which render the meaning “Everything is right!” Once some documents were brought for the President to sign them. Having read them he wrote two letters on the documents “O.K.”, believing that he wrote the initial letters of the words “all correct”, the way he heard them, because “all correct” is pronounced [o:k korect]; the same two letters “O.K.” have been used since then first as a joke, later on as a habitual expression. So because of the illiteracy of a President, a former general, “O.K.” became widespread and institutionalized in America, as “all right” in England and “mamandi” in China [3: 444, 445]. An American guy smashed his car in an accident – “O.K.”, lost all his money in stock-jobbery – “O.K.”, got robbed by bandits – again “O.K.”. Now Presidents put “O.K.” on the laws out of solidarity to their predecessors” [Ibid: 445].

English words are included into the text of the book necessarily with a Russian translation and explanation, but not always in the same detailed way as it was with “O.K.”:


Sometimes Pilnyak gives a loan translation or a calque of an English word and then offers an explanation to it:

“They call them tramps” – travelling down-and-outs, tramps, vagrants – (“путешествующими босиками, бродягами”) [Ibid: 643]. “A Russian driver, if he drove his car for an hour by New York streets the way he does it in Russia, would be all covered with “tickets”, penalty tickets, like with snowflakes in a snow-storm. And this would not happen only because he would be wrecked within the first five minutes together with his car in the streets of New York” [Ibid: 476].

Another example: “The word ‘turn’ to show that you have to turn the corner here is rendered by the word ‘curve’; if to read it in Russian it would sound as [kurve] in English – [kerv]” [Ibid: 478]...

Once having translated words from English into Russian, Pilnyak uses only English equivalents:

“In Manhattan there are ten avenues. If you say it in Russian it would be ten alleys. They ran through the city. And then there are almost three hundred streets, meaning the same in Russian, they cross the city. And there is not a single avenue in New York where you would not hear the screech of car wheels… Now everybody knows that the distance of three avenues and ten streets you cover sooner walking than driving a car” [Ibid: 471].

Pilnyak explains prosperity – “a purely American English word” – only once:
“In spite of the prosperity (prosperity as opposite to crisis) in the best years of the last prosperity there were in America from three to three and a half million unemployed workers” [Ibid: 505].

Then having learned the meaning of this Americanism, the reader understands the text quite easily:

“As for American “prosperities” in general, which together with the “prosperities” from 1922 up to October 1929 were five in number, American economists put forward as the principal causes of these “prosperities” some things not less unusual than “prohibition” [Ibid: 590]. “Prohibition” was one of the causes of the last “prosperity” [Ibid: 592].

An enumerative manner is typical of Boris Pilnyak’s “Americanisms” infused with emotional interjections:

“Publicity! Advertisement! Honestly, it often seemed to me, that people in America did not exist to be themselves, but just for publicity and advertisements… Advertisements are screaming, purring, singing arias, scaring, goggling eyes and soothing eyes, knocking down, keeping watch on intersections, in doorways, in toilets, in alcoves. These advertisements creep into your nose, eyes, ears, into your food, into your blood and heart; they pick your pocket, pocket, and pocket! – For they all are here to shout: “Buy more! Eat more! Drink more…” [Ibid: 458]. And this “consume more” is yelling even when there is crisis in the USA and more than ten million people are unemployed”.

One cannot but share the opinion of D. Zaslavsky who wrote when the novel was published: “Pilnyak has vividly described, with malicious humor, the way American millionaires live and amuse themselves, the way a healthy man is suffocated by advertisements, and big cities are saturated with oil stench, and the number of cars became so innumerable, that it is easier to walk than to drive a car to get somewhere… That is quite right, but there is nothing new in it” [7].

While writing about Pilnyak’s American impressions that they might be peculiar to Pilnyak, but there was nothing new in them, the critic kept in view that some Russian writers visited America long before him. They were: Vladimir Korolenko who wrote “With no tongue”, Maxim Gorky, author of “The city of the Yellow Devil”, Sergey Esenin, who wrote “The Iron Mirkorod”, Vladimir Mayakovski, author of “My Discovery of America”.

Naturally, neither Russian writers nor literary critics could have foreseen, that in some 70-80 years Russia would become similar to America as it was at the beginning of the XX century.

The content and the plot, the structure and the linguistic shaping of Pilnyak’s “American novel” characterize, first and foremost, the personality of the author himself with his culture, world outlook, and specific language. The English vocabulary, which had been transformed and accumulated by the American culture, was introduced by the writer into the Russian usage
with his own personal ironic coloring. And nowadays when the novel is read by Russian literature lovers it seems to them quite topical.

Though Pilnyak’s translations and explanatory notes to some Americanisms appear naïve, these words long ago entered the Russian language and need no explanation now, everybody knows and uses such words as advertisement, publicity and the like. It’s a pity that prosperity in its real and individual sense is familiar to a only small part of the Russian population.

So, Boris Pilnyak, with his “O.K.”, an American novel made his own distinctive contribution to genuinely humanitarian international communication.

**Literature**

RESEARCH REVIEW: INTEGRAL APPROACH

T.N. Khomutova, E.V. Kravtsova

South Ural State University (Chelyabinsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: khomutovatn@susu.ac.ru; ayo-tech@rambler.ru

Abstract. The novelty of our research is defined by the necessity of further theoretical consideration of integral nature of the scientific text using the material of texts of research reviews. The purpose of the article is the further development of integral theory of the scientific text using the material of texts of research reviews and the construction of an integral model the research review text. The basic integral model of the research review is presented. The perspectives of further research are outlined.

Keywords: integral approach; scientific text; research review; integral model.

Analysis of the scientific text increasingly acquires special importance. In the conditions of globalization it is the scientific text that becomes the major unit of communication both for the scientists and for those who use their works. However, as practice shows, stereotypic perception of the scientific text as an unambiguous object does not correspond to its multidimensional integral essence and the real dependence of its characteristics from a number of factors including those which are culturally specific. This contradiction may be viewed as the sign that the scientific text is to be studied from new integral positions. The integral approach gives the opportunity to analyze the scientific text and units that comprise it in their global unity and interdependence [1].

The novelty of our research is defined by the necessity of further theoretical consideration of integral nature of the scientific text using the material of texts of research reviews. The research review has never been thoroughly analyzed in this particular aspect.

The purpose of the article is the further development of integral theory of the scientific text using the material of texts of research reviews and the construction of an integral model of the text of research review. The intermediate aims of the research are:

1. To research the research review as an integral object.
2. To specify the definition of the research review in the integral aspect.
3. To develop an integral model of the text of the research review.
4. To define prospects for further research.

The research object of this paper is the text of the research review. The research subject is the integral character of the text of the research review.

The work comprises various general scientific, linguistic, linguoculturological and other methods and analysis methods, such as integral, logi-
cal, descriptive, etc. Traditionally the research review which is the object of our research is studied from the position of functional stylistics. The review is understood as a type of scientific, literary and literary criticism, the literary critique that gives the analysis, an assessment to the scientific work or to a work of art – a book, a picture, a performance, etc. The research review is a kind of evaluative and critical type of a text. It combines the characteristics relating to those functional styles the main feature of which is that the assessment is a dominating communicative purpose [2: 23, 24]. It is obvious that the functional approach to the scientific text in general and to the research review in particular considers this object point wise, without capturing its multilateral and many-sided essence.

Within a modern paradigm of scientific linguistic knowledge we consider it optimal to view the scientific text, including the research review, as an integral object: fragment of the act of scientific speech communication, fragment of scientific knowledge, fragment of special sublanguage, fragment of national culture, fragment of social professional space in global unity and interdependence of units that comprise it. Such approach allows to consider the organization of the scientific text as the unity of four sectors: cognitive, linguistic, cultural and social. Each sector consists of its own special units combined with the help of a certain structure into a complete system [3: 39, 40].

The text of the research review which is the object of our research, wasn’t exposed earlier to detailed consideration from the point of view of integral approach. Following the integral approach, we have specified definition of the scientific text in relation to the research review and came to a conclusion that the research review is an integral object: fragment of the act of scientific speech based on the assessment of scientific activity of the author of the original text by the authoritative scientist (i.e. one imposing much influence on the scientific community); fragment of scientific knowledge of the author of the original text and reviewer; the fragment of special sublanguage, in which evaluative words play a special role; fragment of national culture, including corporate; fragment of the social professional space where the most authoritative members estimate scientific activity of other members, in global unity and interdependence of units comprising it.

Contents of the research review are the scientific facts the semantic structure of which reflects the essence of an epistemic situation of the given text, and also an assessment of its scientific character.

The concept of “epistemic situation” was introduced by M.P. Kotyurova and further employed in stylistics of the scientific speech. This concept is used for justification of determinacy of formal and inclusive structure of the scientific text by a complicated set of the subject and object relations of scientific cognitive activity and its product – the scientific knowledge [4: 343].

The process of formation of scientific knowledge (on the basis of gno- seological and psychological researches of specifics of scientific activity)
represents a sequence of the following stages: the problematic situation (more than a problem, can include several problems) – the problem (the central question containing the further program of researches) – the idea (the fundamental element of the theory, not all researchers allocate it) – the hypothesis (the presumable formulation of the answer to the question posed) – the hypothesis proof (logical justification of the answer to a problem question, construction of the theory) – the law, the conclusion (the final decision of a problem, the logical statement containing new knowledge) [5: 158-171]. Thus, the evolution of knowledge represents a dynamic process, change of various states, movement from essence to essence, from ignorance to knowledge.

The research review belongs to secondary texts. The object of an assessment in the research review are the phenomena and the facts taken from primary scientific research or a material. As a rule, these are the texts that give primary scientific data, received in the course of original scientific researches. Such texts are turned directly to object of cognizable, researchable reality. These are the texts of thesis, monographs, articles, etc. Secondary texts contain the knowledge gained after analytic and synthetic processing of primary text. These are the texts of papers, summaries, reviews, comments etc., studying the other text with the completed result of scientific knowledge [6: 39-41]. Thus, texts belonging to genres of a monograph and an article we should relate to the primary category, while texts of a summary, a paper and a review – to the secondary.

One of the features of the research review is the intertextuality. The research review possesses specific form and content. On the one hand, the research review as an independent scientific work is aimed at transfer of results of scientific knowledge of the real-life phenomena and reality processes. On the other hand, its object is not a group of direct facts, but the phenomena already studied and comprehended by another subject of the phenomenon, embodied in a certain text as a result of acquiring certain scientific knowledge. It is the other text becomes the direct object of studying in the review. The reviewer inevitably includes in the field of his vision the other subject of knowledge – the author of primary text. In the review there is a comparison of two individual pictures of the world, two outlooks and meanings. Interpreting primary text, the reviewer adds his own knowledge to the results of the activity of the other subject. Thereby, the critical text exists in indissoluble intertextual communication with primary, reviewed work [7].

The next distinctive feature of the research review is the dialogue. The review is a reciprocal remark of the interpreter in the dialogue with another author.

Owing to this fact the text of the research review is both subjectival and subjective. The author of primary text considers scientifically cognizable reality acts as an object, for the reviewer the object consists of two concepts:
1) the objectival reality and 2) the primary text that reflects it [Ibid]. It means that the reviewer has to follow strictly the other subject of knowledge, recreating precisely and authentically the logic of a reasoning of the original author. However, he is to be concentrated on himself, his own agenda with his reflections, his ideas providing penetration into the essence of the object being cognized.

In this paper we have developed basic integral model of the research review on the basis of basic integral model of the scientific text (table) [1].

**Basic integral model of the research review**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive sector</th>
<th>Linguistic sector</th>
</tr>
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</table>
| 1. **Secondary text** as the knowledge fragment (knowledge of subject domain):  
  - declarative knowledge (concepts, ontologies)  
  - procedural knowledge (as a rule, with a higher level of thinking of the reviewer, than the author of primary text). | 1. **Secondary text** as a language fragment as subject (sublanguage fragment):  
  - sublanguage lexicon, estimated lexicon, semantics, grammar of the text;  
  - structure of the secondary text:  
    - macrostructure – the main contents of the text;  
    - microstructure – local structure of the text, its minimum components;  
    - superstructure – the structural diagram |
| 2. **Special knowledge** (knowledge of experts in the field).  
  3. **Scientific knowledge** (detection of scientific character of research) | 2. Special sublanguage (terminological dictionary, keywords, text superstructure).  
  3. Scientific style (from the linguistic point of view) |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cultural sector</th>
<th>Social sector</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1. **Secondary text** as a culture fragment:  
  - Cultural concepts and values (relation to time, to space, to authorities, etc.)  
  - Culture-based type of thinking | 1. **Secondary text** as fragment of social space:  
  - Social concepts and events (scientific community, level of development of science, priority directions of development of science, etc.)  
  - Socially dependent communicative behavior (typical structures of special communication: functional style, the genre which is revealed in special superstructure of the text) |
| 2. Detection of scientific character of research (special role of the reviewer) | 2. Research review as institutional type of scientific discourse |

**In cognitive sector** of integral model the research review represents a fragment of special scientific knowledge of a certain subject domain. The declarative knowledge represents concepts, conceptual systems and knowledge ontologies. The procedural knowledge (abilities to operate concepts) represents the level of thinking peculiar to scientific community. The special knowledge is a knowledge and experience of experts in this subject domain. In this sector it has subjective character. The scientific knowledge is true knowledge, systemic and intersubjective. The research review is represented by different levels of thinking of the author of primary text and the reviewer. As a rule, the reviewer's level of thinking is higher, than the author's. Reviewers of scientific works have to be more skilled and influential.
people in the area. The research review gives the chance to look at primary
text from new positions, to interpret the information through a personal vi-
sion and understanding of a problem. The reviewer adds his own knowledge
and reflections to the results of scientific activity of the other subject, at the
same time estimating the material and revealing its scientific character. As a
result of such reconsideration of a source text new meanings may emerge,
supported by the reviewer's own knowledge.

**In social sector** the research review represents a fragment of social space
in the form of a social context of the act of special scientific communi-
cation – a discourse, which due to the effort by E.V. Sidorov is now treated as
“the separate act of speech communication in the course of which the text
appears in a sociocultural context” [8: 147]. The participants of communica-
tion organized in scientific community, the level and the priority directions
of development of science in the community, and also social structures of
scientific communication, such as a genre and functional style can be re-
ferred to the social sector of the scientific text.

As the research review belongs to institutional type of discourse, its main
audience of readers and users is a scientific community, experts with high-
quality professional training. Reviews are published in scientific journals
and are found, as a rule, in the section “Book Reviews”. The researchreview
has a characteristic of the communicative and pragmactical relations. The re-
viewer acts as some kind of an intermediary in the communication between
the author of primary text and the reader. Thus the reviewer differs from any
other potential reader by the creative activity, as the creating subject he turns
the process of perception of scientific ideas into consciousness of the new
text. Authors of primary scientific texts - research associates, graduate stu-
dents, Candidates of Science for whom it is important to receive criticism
and an assessment of their works for further researches. For an objective as-
sessment and the analysis of new achievements in science the authoritative
scientists in the areas of knowledge act as reviewers. As it was specified ear-
lier, the level of thinking of the reviewer is, as a rule, higher, than the one of
the author of primary text, therefore the reviewer interprets the source text
with his knowledge and understanding of the subject.

**In cultural sector** the research review acts as the fragment of culture
which is based on cultural values of the people. Cultural values, in turn, are
closely connected with language, society, thinking and, thereby, shape the
type of the latter [9]. Culturally based type of thinking is expressed, in par-
ticular, by national specific models of semantic and grammatical structures
of the text. Matters of corporate culture and scientific ethics are an integral
part of cultural aspect of the scientific text. The cultural sector of the re-
search review is presented by the cultural values put in mental structures of
the individual. Following G. V. Yelizarova, we understand cultural values as
‘cultural propositions’ – cultural concepts and the relations connecting them
[10: 20, 21]. For each culture the types of thinking are unique. The types which are caused by social and cultural factors are allocated. Different types of thinking get the linguistic expression in the relevant structure of the text, where a certain variability is observed. Distinctions in structures of the text are caused by distinctions in thinking types which, in turn, is affected by the system of basic cultural values. It is confirmed by written texts in non-native language where communicants prefer to use the structure of the text in native language, familiar to them. Identification of valuable orientations is not carried out without taking into account the relation of representatives of the culture to the nature, time, space, activity, nature of communication, to character of the argument during communication, to the nature of thinking, personal liberty and autonomy of the personality, rivalry, authority and power, human nature etc. [Ibid: 25-35].

In language sector the research review represents a language fragment as the subject (language system and language material), namely: fragment of special sublanguage in which the declarative and procedural knowledge, cultural values, social concepts and events are expressed by means of language units (lexicon, estimated lexicon and grammar of the text). This sublanguage is scientific and is expressed in category of scientific style. The language sector of the research review is presented by micro-, macro- and the super-structure of the text representing the cognitive, social and cultural aspects.

As a part of communication the text of the research review represents a fragment of the communicative act – a discourse, a material embodiment of the interfaced communicative activities of representatives of scientific society: the author of primary text and the reviewer, verbalization of fragments of the scientific knowledge, special sublanguage, national culture and professional social space in their global unity and interdependence.

Thus, the integral approach allows us to track close interrelation of all four sectors of the research review and to use it to reveal deep mechanisms which are the basis of scientific communication.

The contrastive analysis of the structure of the research review on the material of several languages for the purpose of detection of its universal and culture-specific characteristics may become a highly promising direction of further research of the integral nature of the research review.

Literature


SEMANTIC PROCESSES IN DERIVATIVES
OF THE ETYMOLOGICAL ROOT *ڀhel-
(*ڀhel-) / *glend(h)- ‘TO SHINE, TO SPARKLE’

O.V. Tsaregorodtseva
Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: caregrad@yandex.ru

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for Cognitive studies of Language (Tomsk State University)

Abstract. The study is devoted to the history of derivatives of Indo-European
root *ڀhel-: zeleniy, zheltiy, goluboy ‘green’, ‘yellow’, ‘blue’. In the article
material of the classical languages, Slavic languages, Russian dialect material
was used. A hypothesis of the semantic reconstruction of the color terms was
proposed. In the article was written about connections of the semantics of the
light and color – this semantic is the semantic of the root *ڀhel-. In the article
also the assumption was propounded about the semantics of the Indo-
European root, parallels was held with other “light” roots: *mer- ‘sparkle’,

Keywords: etymology; the history of the Russian language; comparative phi-

lology.

Researchers paid attention to derivatives of Indo-European root *ڀhel-
not only one time. The reason of attention in the fact, that derivatives of this
root have often color semantic, and color categorization is one of the ways of
world categorizing. The problem of “color words” was interested by ancient
philosophers (Empedocles, Theophrastus, Democritus, Plato); light and color
as phenomena in their teachings are closely related. Aristotle wrote, that col-
or concluded two plans: light and dark, closely related, without the existence
of light color is inconceivable [1: 690-701]. In this regard, the study of the
origin of color terms, their semantic reconstruction becomes the object of
study of etymology, semasiology, the history of language. This paper dis-
cusses the semantic, connection between semantics of color (green, yellow,
blue) and light semantics of derivatives of Indo-European root *ڀhel-.

Indo-European root *ڀhel-(*ڀhel-) has the meaning 1) to shine, to
sparkle, 2 ) name of color: yellow , green, blue. This Indo-European root is
difficult to determine because it has uncertainty or instability the initial
sound [2: 429-433]. Pokorny suggests such words as zeleniy ‘green’, zheltiy
zlak ‘cereal’, glyadet’ ‘to look’, gladkiy ‘smooth’ to be derivatives of the
root *ڀhel-. Chernyh adds the word goluboy ‘light blue’ to this list [3].

First of all, color words zeleniy, zheltiy, goluboy have been considered.
In the color spectrum these colors are associated with each other: when cyan
and yellow are mixed, green color is formed. In the dictionary of modern Russian language, this fact is reflected: in the DRL zeleniy is ‘having a color of one of the primary colors of the spectrum – the middle between yellow and blue, the colors of grass’, besides, the adjective can have the meaning ‘pale, greenish tint’ (in the conversational speech) and figuratively ‘immature, inexperienced’ [4].

Trace the history of this “color word”. The adjective was recorded in the Russian language in the XI century. Zelenъ, zeleniy [5: 969] in Old Russian language is ‘green, dull green, muddy’, the adjective could occur in combination of words zelenaya boleznъ ‘jaundice, icterus’, it is also called zheltaya boleznъ [6. V. 5]. Thus, in the ancient texts zeleniy is not just the color of grass, green, but yellow, muddy color, e. g. in the contexts of the XVII century: kasha zelenaya s maslomъ (green cereal with butter), vino zeleno (green vine), urina zelenostna est (green urine), also zeleniy in Old Russian means ‘pale’, denoting a sick person, e.g. in the context zelenъ narechemъ litsa ego radi bleda (he is called green because of his pale face) [7].

Traces of semantics ‘dark’ are traced in the dialects, e.g. zelenaya vorona ‘green crow’, zeleniy ‘Devil for some superstitious notions’ [8. V. 11: 250], there is sinets with the same meaning, also zelenъ ‘fumes, smoke, stench’ [Ibid: 251], v glazah zeleno ‘green is in the eyes’, ‘dark is in the eyes’ [Ibid: 249], in these contexts, obviously, zeleniy is color of dark marking. In the context, where the adjective has meaning ‘about lean, sickly child’ [Ibid: 251], is illustrated the connection with the old meaning, expressed in the context zelenъ narechemъ litsa ego radi bleda, where zeleniy is very pale man, with a yellowish tinge of the skin disease.

In the dialects of the Russian language zelenъ ‘squirrel, which has not lost red color’ is met, where connection with the meaning ‘bright red’ is seen.

In other Slavic languages, the adjective means green color, the color of grass, greenery, e.g., Ukrainian zeleniy, Belorussian zyal’ony, Bulgarian zelén, Serbian, Croatian zéleni, Slovenian zelen, Czech zeleny, Slovak zeleny, Polish zielony, Upper Sorbian zeleny, Lower Sorbian zeleny [3, 9]. In Old Slavonic zelenъ, zeleniy [10] were associated primarily with the color of grass, compare the context: na trave zelene (on the green grass) [10]. Proto-Slavic form *zelenъ, *zelennъ is rebounded [3, 9] with the suffix -en-, as in *čьrvenъ, palatal variant Indo-European root ġhel- is realized in the word.

Obviously, there is a spectrum of spread color values in the Baltic languages from green to yellow, blue and gray, which is similar to the history of semantics and Russian *zeleny*. In the Russian adjective *zeleny* such meanings as ‘green’, ‘yellow’, ‘pale’, ‘muddy, dark’ are observed.

Etymologically adjective *zheltiy* is close to the *zeleny*, which in the modern Russian language has meaning ‘having the color of one of the colors of the spectrum – the average between orange and green, the color of egg yolk, gold’ [4]. In this definition is also present connection with the green. This adjective as a nickname is known since the beginning of the XIII century: *Dmitry Zheltoy, s pskovitin, 1216 z.* (Dmitry Yellow from Pskov region) [5: 887]. Here, obviously, *zheltiy* refers to the color of a person’s hair, as in the XI-XII centuries the adjective with this root was infrequent and was served here for hair color: *Elena bo telom.predobra ...dobralika, rusovlasa, nazhelto* (Elena had a good body, good face, blonde yellow hair) [Ibid]. In the dialects this semantics is survived, where yellow ‘blonde (about hair color)’ [8. V. 9: 116]. In folklore this adjective often occurs in the word combination *zheltye kudri* ‘yellow curls’. Thus, in the time of the first fixation of the adjective, it was the symbol of light color hair [7]. In the XVII century using of this adjective becomes wider, it occurs with words, meaning tissue, clothing, rocks, vegetation. Adjective *zheltiy*, like *zeleny*, could mean a yellowish skin tones of sick person, in this case *zheltiy* means ‘is not rosy, not white, pale’ [Ibid].

Proto-Slavic form *žьltъ, *žьltъjъ* is rebounded with velar version of Indo-European root, with ž-of g-, cf. Lithuanian geltas ‘daffodil’. In Slavic languages the form *zheltiy* correspond to forms: Ukrainian *zhovtiy*, Belarusian *zhouty*, Bulgarian *zhъlt*, Serbian, Croatian *zhûti*, Slovenian old *žolt*, Czech *žlty*, Slovak *žlty*, Polish *żółty*, Upper Sorbian, Lower Sorbian *žołty*, in Old Slavonic *zhlъty*, *zhlъtiy* are recorded [3. V. 1; 9].

In the dialects of the Russian language besides the meaning associated with hair color, *zheltiy* means ‘a product of the yellow metal’, ‘often in the names of plants: herbs, mushrooms’ [8. V. 9: 116], also it is found in the combination *zheltaya pshenica* (yellow wheat) ‘mottled brown, with a larger grain and thicker rind than white wheat’ [11]. Thus, in the old time adjectives *zeleny* and *zheltiy* could interfere with color naming in disease passing meaning of very pale skin with a yellowish-green tint, that’s why there are two names of jaundice, icterus – *zelena bolezn’ u zheltaya bolezn’*. In ancient Russian texts *zeleny* was closer to the designation of dark colors; *zheltiy* was closer to the designation of light tone, but not white. In the semantic structure of the adjective *zheltiy* may be present meanings ‘yellow’, ‘green’, ‘light’, ‘mottled’.

It should be mention words like ancient Greek χόλος ‘bile, anger’, Latin fel ‘bile’, Lithuanian *geltas* ‘yellow’, Latin *galbus* ‘yellow Bird’, *galbinus* ‘green-yellow’, Old Irish *gel* ‘bright, white’, Cymric *gell* ‘yellow’, Breton
gell ‘brown’, continuing to consider vocabulary of Indo-European languages, which is a continuation of Indo-European root *ghel-.

In this list color words are found with meanings ‘brown’, ‘green-yellow’, ‘bright, white’. From the same root in the ancient Indian language there are hari ‘light (about hair)’, ‘yellow’, ‘green-yellow’, ‘pale’, harita- ‘pale, whitish’, hiranya- ‘gold money’ in Avestan zari- ‘yellow, yellow’, gold color’, zära ‘bile’. Sunlight could be associated with the color of gold, yellow, so the root of the primary meaning of ‘light’ could appear color word zheltiy and word meaning ‘gold’, which, as you know, has a yellow color, it can be compared zheltiye kudri ‘yellow curls’, zolotye kudri ‘golden curls’.

In connection with the Russian adjectives it’s interesting to pay attention to semantic of Greek χλωρός, which also dates back to the Indo-European root *ghel-. The dictionary gives such spectrum of meanings: ‘green’, ‘yellow-green’, ‘yellow’, ‘pale greenish or yellowish-pale’, ‘suggestive pallor’, ‘bright, shining’, ‘fresh’.

This spectrum contains meanings close to the Russian zheltiy, zeleniy, while in the semantic structure of the adjective χλωρός the meaning ‘light’ is found, which is explained by the actualization of the ancient Indo-European root meaning *ghel-, the meaning ‘light’ occurred in such contexts: αχλύς (Hesiod) ‘darkness’, αδάμας (Hesiod) ‘steel diamond’, δάκρυ (Euripides) ‘tear’, ύδωρ (Palatine Anthology) ‘water’ [12]. The bright darkness may be is not strong dark. In other meanings – ‘green’, ‘yellow-green’ – lexeme was combined with the lexemes that refer to different phenomena and objects of reality: ‘branch’, ‘forest’, ‘grass’, ‘bread’ etc. In the ancient Greek word, as in the Russian zheltiy, goluboy, is observed in the presence of chromatic color words achromatic color meaning.

Another color word in this world series is adjective goluboy ‘light blue, clear color of the daytime sky, azure’ [4]. The adjective goluboy is unknown for all Slavic languages, in the most Slavic languages to express the concept of ‘light blue’ there are other lexemes: Bulgarian svietlosin, Serbian, Croatian plav, Czech lazurový, Polish błękity, modry [3]. In old Russian adjective goluby is recorded [5: 546].

Goluboy in the dictionary of XI-XVII centuries means ‘light blue’, ‘ash, light gray (about animal suit)’: kobylka goluba ‘blue mare’ [6. V. 4], zemlya aki goluba ‘land like blue’ [5: 546]. This adjective occurs as a symbol of color in relation to the suit of animals, e.g. in the context of zemlya aki goluba, where it can mean ‘gray’, as part of the phrase-toponym goluboy les ‘light blue forest’ [7].

In Slavic languages, this root is documented in the following languages: Serbian, Croatian golubij ‘pigeon, light bluish-gray, dove color’; Old Polish golęby ‘on horse color’; ‘grayish, ashen, blue-gray or dove-colored’; Ukrainian golubi ‘light-blue / goluboy, ox color (dark gray)’ [13:
Semantic processes in derivatives of the etymological root *ghel-

Taking into these constructions, it can be concluded that the original words with this root designated gray with a light bluish hue animal color. Comparing contexts in Russian dialects, it is found that goluboy sometimes is equal to gray, for example, horse color (raven-black); goluboy kon’ ‘ashen horse color’; goluboy lis ‘black-silver fox’; golubaya kurica ‘gray smoky whitish’ [8. V. 6: 340]. In addition, in some dialects goluboy means ‘yellow’ (zhelty) when talking on bird color, e.g., “In Nizhny Novgorod and other (provinces) goluboy sometimes people name yellow color; it is remarkable that these colors are opposite to each other” [Ibid]. This observation strengthens relationship between goluboy and zhelty. Crossing the semantics of goluboy and zhelty can be traced also in the Serbo-Croatian word plav (that can designate both goluboy and zhelty).

Nechipurenko notes that peculiarity of color naming / labeling that is a derivative from Indo-European *ghel is a syncretic concept of green and yellow in one color term [14]. This can be seen on meaning of adjectives zhelty / yellow and zeleny / green. As it was shown, meaning of zhelty / yellow coincide with meaning of goluboy combining these color terms.

In semantic structure of color naming / labeling zheltiy, zeleniy, goluboy that in modern Russian refer to chromatic colors a presence of achromatic color semantics: dark, light, gray is noticed. Presence of these meanings strengthens ties meaning of light / svetlyy, which has an Indo-European root *ghel-. As for the meaning dark / temnyy, in etymological nests of other «light» roots are found meanings of darkness, dark. For example, for derivatives of *mer-(sparkle) we have twinkle, fade; for derivatives of *sk,āį / *sk,ōį / *sk,i- (dim light, shadow, reflection) we have shine, blue. Semantic shift from shine to dark is implemented within Indo-European root meanings of irregular, intermittent light. It seems that we are dealing with the development of semantics of irregular lighting and shining → blink → dark. In this semantic scale is reflected gradual decay of light (more on this in [15]). In Indo-European roots derivatives with meaning of irregular lighting and shining can also be transferred into bright shining as in the case of the verb to shine [Ibid].

Etymological nest *ghel- also has meanings that are associated with semantics of dark, for example, Lithuanian žlėja ‘twilight’, from the other stages of the root *ghel- is in Old English glōm ‘twilight’, in the words zeleniy, goluboy there are semantics of dark too.

Thus, we can assume that the light expressed derived from *ghel-in Indo-European languages was increasing or decreasing as in derivatives of the root *sk,āį / *sk,ōį / *sk,i-. For derivatives of the root *ghel- such models are the usual: ‘to shine with uneven light’ → ‘to lose light’ → ‘to go dark’ (e.g. zeleniy, žlėja ‘Twilight’, glōm ‘Twilight’), ‘to shine with uneven light’ → ‘shine brightly’ (e.g. Icelandic glan ‘gloss’, ‘shine’, Norwegian dialectal glana ‘bright, shining’, German glühen ‘brilliant’, gluot ‘heat’, Old Norse glöra ‘sparkle’, also German Glanz ‘shine’).
Light passed by derivatives *ğel-, probably also was uneven, faltering, so such meanings as ‘Twilight’, ‘dark’ are possible. It is difficult to define the mechanisms of connection of meanings ‘dark’, ‘light’ and ‘yellow’, ‘blue’, ‘green’, but it may be the perspective of this study.

**Literature**

THEORY AND METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

UDC 373.167.1

MOBILE TECHNOLOGIES IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE TO NON-LINGUISTIC MAJOR STUDENTS

K.V. Kapranchikova

Voronezh State Agrarian University named after Emperor Peter I (Voronezh, Russian Federation)
E-mail: ksenialive@rambler.ru

Abstract. The paper addresses methodological potential of mobile technologies in teaching a foreign language to non-linguistic students. The author a) gives definition of the term “mobile education”, b) suggests a list of mobile technologies used in foreign language teaching; c) develops a list of non-linguistic major students’ language abilities and language skills, which can be developed via mobile technologies.

Keywords: informatization of education; informatization of language education; mobile teaching; language abilities; language skills.

Informatization of a modern Russian society could not but influence the informatization of education in general and language education informatization in particular [1-3]. The beginning of the XXI century is characterized by an intensive process of introducing new information and communication technologies in foreign language teaching, creating new and innovative forms of education and training. Mobile foreign language teaching is a form of organization and control of the learning process based on the use of mobile communication devices (smart phones, tablets, etc.), in which students in any place and at any time can shape and improve language skills, develop oral skills (by means of synchronous and asynchronous communication), to form the sociocultural and intercultural competence in order to use a foreign language as a means of communication in the social and domestic and professional spheres.

The term “mobile learning” is inextricably linked with the concept of “distance education”. This concept should be described as a form of learning in which the interaction between teachers and students and between students is carried out at a distance and involves all the typical components of the educational process (objectives, content, methods, organizational forms, and learning tools). Depending on the means of implementation of distance learning, the latter can be divided into types: a) correspondence model of distance learning, based on the use of printed materials in hard-copy form; b) multimedia model, based on the study of printed, multimedia, video, audio materials, local computer programs; c) tele-education, based on the establishment of communication
between teacher and students using TV systems (audio teleconferencing, videoconferencing, audiographic communication, TV broadcast); d) Web-based training, carried out through a variety of communication and presentation of educational content suggested by Internet (access to Web resources, interactive multimedia), e) intellectual model of learning, including interactive multimedia, access to Internet resources, computer communication between all participants of the educational process. It is obvious that mobile learning is the latest form – intellectual model – of the distance learning.

In practice, mobile learning is implemented by mobile technologies – mobile means of communication between people or obtaining instant access to relevant information. In foreign language teaching you may use the following mobile technologies: e-mail, blogging technology, wiki technology, podcasts, web forum, linguistic corpus, electronic dictionaries, reference Internet resources, tools of synchronous video Internet communication and navigators. Each of the mobile technologies has distinctive didactic properties, didactic and methodical features. According to P.V. Sysoyev [4], the didactic qualities of mobile technology should be interpreted as “main characteristics and features that distinguish one information technology from the other” [Ibid: 13]. Didactic functions are interpreted as representations of mobile technologies. Within the framework of different courses the same mobile technologies with their inherent properties and relevant didactic functions will represent different methodological functions within the discipline. Accordingly, methodical functions within foreign language teaching will be the methodical abilities of these technologies in the development of oral skills and language skills as well as the formation of students’ socio-cultural and intercultural competences [5].

Let us briefly examine each of the technologies and denote types of performance or aspects of the language being developed on its basis.

A) E-mail or electronic mail group – Internet service for the exchange of written communications between users. On the basis of E-mail, this can be organized by telecommunication projects based on information exchange among participants. Methodological potential of e-mail and e-mail group was covered in dissertations by V.G. Apalkov [6] and N.A. Sushkova [7]. As a result, techniques have been developed for implementation of language telecommunication projects aimed at the development of writing skills of pupils and students, as well as the formation of their socio-cultural and intercultural competences.

B) Blog technology is a modern Internet technology that allows users to submit information on the page in multimedia format in the form of a diary or journal, as well as to comment on reports of users. Researches provided by P.V. Sysoyev, M.N. Evstigneev [8, 9], I.A. Evstigneeva [10] and O.V. Borscheva [11] indicate that on the basis of blog technology can be developed some of pupils’ and students’ writing skills (levels B1 – C2) and socio-cultural skills.
C) **Wiki technology** – one of the modern Internet technologies, enabling one person or group of persons located an indefinite (and unlimited) distance from each other to work on a common written (multimedia) document. Empirical studies of P.V. Sysoyev, M.N. Evstigneev [12, 13], Y.Y. Markova [14], I.K. Zabrodina [15] indicate that on the basis of wiki technology can be developed some of pupils’ and students’ writing skills (levels B1 – C2) and socio-cultural skills.

D) **Podcasts** – modern Internet technology, on the basis of which you can discover, listen, browse featured podcasts, and record and host your personal podcast. In the Internet there are a large number of academic and non-academic (authentic) podcasts services that can be used for the development of students’ listening skills. There are also services that allow users to post podcasts and arrange discussion of shared network podcasts in micro-blog or forum. The scientific literature lacks for methodological papers on the use of podcasts in the development of students’ verbal skills. P.V. Sysoyev and M.N. Evstigneev [12] identified a range of oral and listening skills developed on the basis of podcasts service. This nomenclature has been extended in the thesis of A.G. Solomatina [16], which also paid attention to the socio-cultural content of foreign language teaching based on this service. Thus, we can conclude that on the basis of podcasts service it is possible to develop oral and listening skills, as well as social competence of students.

E) **Web Forum** – section of the site, developed for network users to discuss any issue. In his study A.K. Cherkasov [17] developed a methodology for the development of students’ socio-cultural skills based on a web forum. The analysis of this study and other studies leads to the conclusion that based on a web forum we can develop writing and reading skills, as well as social competence components. However, we must note that a web forum gave out a bit after the development of blog technology that has additional technological capabilities.

F) **Means of synchronous video online communication**, which, according to D.A. Ezhikov, should be classified as “technology providing the ability to communicate in real-time on the basis of Internet programs securing video and audio communication” [18: 8]. Means of synchronous video online communication have distinctive didactic functions: organization of remote synchronous learning; development of students’ cognitive activity; developing abilities for learning in cooperation; developing abilities for autonomous learning. D.A. Ezhikov’s study testifies that mobile technologies allow developing language skills (reading, writing, speaking, listening) and socio-cultural and cross-cultural skills. The researcher proved the methodological potential of means of synchronous video online communication in the development of all components of foreign language communicative competence under conditions of tele-education as a form of distance learning. Therefore, in pure technology, this technology can be used in the implementation of the model of comprehensive mobile learning.
G) **Electronic dictionaries.** On the basis of electronic dictionaries we can organize students’ research (during reading), develop their cognitive activity, develop skills of cooperative learning and develop students’ abilities for autonomous learning. Electronic dictionaries are used to develop students’ lexical skills and to form their competence at translation.

H) **Linguistic corpus** – arrays of texts in electronic form, grouped according to certain parameters (chronology, author, region, etc.). On the basis of linguistic corpus we can organize students’ research work, develop their cognitive activity, develop skills of cooperative learning and develop students’ abilities for autonomous learning. Recently there appeared a sufficient number of methodological papers [19, 20] indicating the possibility for developing students’ grammatical and lexical skills on the basis of monolingual corpuses and corpus of parallel texts.

I) **Informational and reference network resources** are available for all users of mobile devices through mobile applications of the Internet browsers. The informational and reference network resources include encyclopedias, directories, online media, virtual tours of museums, galleries, theaters, cities, etc. Informational and reference resources have the following common didactic properties: accessibility, multimedia, hypertext structure. This allows us to organize students’ research work, to develop their cognitive activity, to develop skills of cooperative learning and abilities for autonomous learning.

Methodological papers on the use of network reference resources in foreign language teaching testify that on its basis we can develop a whole range of productive and receptive language skills, as well as develop aspects of socio-cultural and intercultural competence [21, 22].

J) **Navigators** – mobile applications, allowing to determine the optimal path from one place in a particular locality to another. They are characterized by accessibility and multimedia. Traditionally, drivers use navigators to determine the desired route. In the educational process the use of navigators will facilitate the organization of students’ research, development of their cognitive activity, development of their abilities for learning in cooperation and skills for autonomous learning. In foreign language teaching navigators can be used for developing productive language skills (speaking and writing) (under discussion in a foreign language the route in one of the towns in Russia or abroad), as well as for developing student’s sociocultural skills.

Analysis of studies dedicated to the use of the above mentioned technologies in foreign language teaching testifies that on their basis we can develop productive (speaking and writing) and receptive (listening and reading) types of speech activity, develop students’ language skills (grammatical and lexical) and their sociocultural and intercultural competence.

One of the main goals in foreign language teaching at various stages is to develop communicative competence in all the diversity of its components [23, 24]. According to the Federal Standard of Higher Education in nonlin-
guistic areas of training, such as the area of training 030900 “Jurisprudence” (qualification / degree “bachelor”), graduates must possess the necessary skills for professional communication in a foreign language (OK-13) (GEF VPO on the area of training “Jurisprudence”). Graduates should possess foreign language competence of the level B 2 (threshold advanced level (Vantage)) on the European scale of language proficiency. This level of language proficiency is characterized by understanding of general content of professional texts, fast and spontaneous speech, ability to produce clear, detailed reports on professional issues, express original views on the basic problem of the text, revealing the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

On the basis of identified didactic properties, didactic functions and methodological functions of mobile technology we can develop a range of students’ oral and language skills formed on the basis of this type of technology (table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oral skills formed on the basis of mobile technologies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oral Skills / Mobile technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make reports containing the most important information on the issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>summarize briefly the received information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak about oneself, one’s relations, one’s plans, providing arguments for one’s intentions / actions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speculate about facts and events, giving arguments and examples, making conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>describe the specifics of life and culture of one’s own country and country of native speakers of a foreign language being studied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exchange information in the process of dialogic interaction on the content of a text been read / heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>start, keep on and finish conversation in typical communicative situations, observing rules of communicational etiquette, addressing clarification questions if necessary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify informational value of semantic accent in sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify shortened lexical and grammatical forms</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify word order for various types of sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify active vocabulary while listening a text on a certain topic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify key words in audio-text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>define the meaning of unknown words from the context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify connective words in audio-text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciate audio-text varying in rate and recorded by bearers of various accents and dialects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify registers of sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify and interpret variability of linguistic realization of statement depending on involvement of the speaker to a certain social / cultural group (age, social, ethnical, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand the goal of communication / audio-text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand the subject of audio-text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify the participants of communication / speaker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand logic in representing information or argumentation (sequence of facts, events)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand interconnections between facts, reasons, events, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify speaker’s attitude towards the subject of discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predict the course of events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>express one’s own judgment, opinion about the matters been heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>define structure and communicative orientation of the whole text and its parts, functions of paragraphs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>identify subject, to single out the main thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pick out the basic facts from the text, skipping the minors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predict the contents of the text on the headline, beginning of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>single out the key points and landmarks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>predict the meaning of key words and escape unknown words which do prevent from understanding of the basic contents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>have an accurate understanding of the text on the level of sense and meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>understand structure and organization of the text, and therefore to be able to formulate (in one’s mind) a coherent and contiguous whole</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Mobile technologies in teaching a foreign language

Writing skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Linguistic corpus</th>
<th>Electronic dictionary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fill in forms (name, surname, sex, age, citizenship, address)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write formal letters;</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carry on personal / e-mail correspondence</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write applications</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fill in various types of forms</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present information about oneself in the form adopted in the native</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speakers’ country (curriculum vitae/resume)</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make up a plan, theses</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the basis of linguistic corpus and electronic dictionaries we may develop students’ lexical and grammatical skills. Table 2 represents students’ lexical and grammatical skills developed on the basis of these two mobile technologies.

Table 2

Students’ lexical and grammatical skills developed on the basis of mobile technologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexical and grammatical skills / Mobile technology</th>
<th>Linguistic corpus</th>
<th>Electronic dictionary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Productive lexical skills in the sphere of professional communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose correctly professional terms and polysemantic words, one of the meanings of which is used in professional communication, to express thoughts in written or oral statement on professional subject</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>combine new terms with already adopted lexical units</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>make equivalent substitutions of terms, to use paraphrase</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receptive lexical skills in the sphere of professional communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>correlate acoustic (during listening) or graphical (during reading) image of a term with its semantics</td>
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<tr>
<td>identify and understand professional terms and polysemantic words one of the meanings of which is used in professional communication, under perception audio or graphical text and during communication on professional subject</td>
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<td>single out meanings of polysemantic words one of which is referred to sphere of professional communication</td>
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<td>identify distinctions in the functioning of terms similar in meaning</td>
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<td>reveal meaning of professional term or polysemantic words one of the meanings of which is used in professional communication with the help of the context</td>
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<td>understand meaning of terms or commonly used polysemantic words relying on their acoustic / graphical features</td>
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<td>understand meaning of commonly used polysemantic words relying on the context of professional communication</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students’ productive grammar skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>make up grammatical forms and constructions</td>
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<tr>
<td>choose and use grammatical constructions depending on the communicative situation</td>
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vary grammatical representation of the statement under variation of communicative intension + +
formulate grammatical rule relying on the results of search in the linguistic corpus or electronic dictionary + +
single out grammatical representation of oral and written texts; to use grammatical phenomena in oral speech + +
be competent at the interpretation of meanings and translation of the basic grammatical categories into native language + +

Students’ receptive grammar skills
be competent at the interpretation of meanings and translation of the basic grammatical categories into native language + +
differentiate and identify grammatical phenomena (on formal criteria and function words) + +
correlate the meaning of grammatical forms / constructions with their semantics + +
predict grammatical forms of the word / construction + +
set up logical, temporal, causal, coordinative and subordinate relations and connections between the elements of the sentences + +

In conclusion it should be noted that regular use of mobile technologies in foreign language teaching will facilitate the development of the aspects of communicative competence.

**Literature**

FEATURES OF DEVELOPMENT OF STUDENTS’ SUBJECT POSITIONS IN THE PROCESS OF EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY DESIGN

I.Yu. Malkova, P.V. Kiseleva

Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: malkovoi@yandex.ua; polinakisss@mail.ru

Abstract. The concepts “subject”, “subjectivity” and “subject position” as well as characteristics of the subject are considered. Stages of subjectivity development in education and features of students’ subject positions in design are analyzed. Design types in educational practice are singled out.

Keywords: design; educational activity; educational design; subject; subjectivity; subject position.

In the age of social reformation a person’s ability to manage and construct social practices becomes particularly important. This ability characterizes a person as a subject of social practice and designing activity and gives an idea of design as a means of human influence on social reality, a person’s foundation and education in the process of constructing social practice. In design research precedence is taken by such design participants’ subjectivity characteristics as the ability to influence education through constructing its ideal image and activity based on its achievement. In competency-based learning design is viewed as a condition of forming a competence of a subject of education by means of organizing the reflection of goals, contents and results of education activity participants in the process of working on a project. However, the educational design studies nowadays do not specify the task of setting a subject position of design participants as a special educational result.

Modern researchers treat the notions “subject”, subjectivity” and “subjective position” in the context of psychological, pedagogical and philosophical problems. In psychology the notions “subject” and subjectivity” are singled out. The notion “subject” originally came into common use in German classical philosophy where it was connected with the evolutionary idea of its emergence and transformations in the course of matter development, when the subject was active and partial towards the object [1: 137]. The content of the term “subject” (its psychological meaning) includes the “active beginning of a person in his life, when he or she is viewed not a “passive” being dependent on external conditions and situation requirements but as an author, initiator and director of his activity, who is able to master the surrounding conditions and the requirements posed by the environment” [2: 140].

In A. Brushlinsky’s works this category is also associated with “the highest degree of the manifestations of a person’s psychological characteristics, his initiating his own actions, his active creative self-expression” [3: 94].
A subject is a qualitatively defined way of self-organization and self-regulation of an individual, a means of coordinating external and internal conditions of carrying out an activity in time, a center of coordinating all psychological processes, states, features, as well as capabilities, abilities and limitations of an individual towards objective and subjective goals, pretentions and tasks of an activity” [4: 284].

Along with the notion “subject”, Russian psychologists deal with the notion of “subjectivity”. It is used in psychology to refer to “the ability of a person to be a subject of this or that activity, including his own life”. Subjectivity is “a special feature of a person (an individual) which characterizes their ability to organize and carry out an activity. The more expressed are the activity and independence of a person (as compared to circumstances), the more expressed is this subjectivity” [5: 210].

T. Solodkova also points out that we resort to the notion “subjectivity” when we need to “describe subjective features of a person, specific activity character, the ability to use one’s psyche to fulfill one’s goals, to occupy an author’s position towards one’s psyche and object activity, to achieve one’s goals, to alter oneself and the environment; the ability to carry responsibility” [6: 347].

The analysis carried out by L. Stakhneva enables to single out several views on the notion of subjectivity in Russian psychology.

First, “subjectivity is a special personal quality connected with actively transforming properties and abilities”. Second, this is “a substantial active characteristic of a person”. Third, this is “the central formation of human reality that emerges at a certain stage of development of an individual and represents its new systematic property implying the ability of independent life activity and the ability to change the world and oneself” [7: 349].

Thus, by “subject” we also mean a person at a high level of his activity who is characterized by some features that enable him to initiate and carry out various activities and realize oneself as a personality and an individual, whereas “subjectivity” implies a fundamental quality or a system of qualities that make a person a subject.

Having analyzed the works devoted to the definition of a fundamental quality that make person a subject, we can draw the following conclusions.

Characteristics of a person as a subject are connected with and manifested through the activity that he or she performs as well as through his attitude towards this activity. Besides, they are associated with different stages of the performed activity and can be described using quality indicators.

Most researches attach the primary importance to the activity of a subject. This quality enables him or her to initiate, create and control the conditions under which it takes place and to overcome emerging difficulties. Besides, significant characteristics of a subject include responsibility, creativity, goal-setting, reflection, self-regulation, self-control, self-esteem, initia-
tive, the conditioning by the inner situation, single-mindedness, autonomy, inner control locus, striving for self-development, the ability to realize oneself, productive mastering of different activities, constructive interaction with the environment, action design, i.e. all the whole range of the qualities “enabling to achieve results of an activity that correspond to the subjective criteria of successfulness” [8: 158].

In the subject-activity approach the qualities of a person as a subject are manifested in their various activities. Thus, these two notions are interconnected. It also enables us to analyze the development of subjectivity by means of observing external features of the activity and its motives, goals, conditions of organization, evaluation criteria, etc.

Moreover, I. Yurov points out that according to A. Brushlinsky’s theory, a person is not born as a subject but becomes one in the course of performing actions, communication, and other activities [9: 228].

A number of researches (G. Prygin, V. Shadrikov, E. Nekrasova) also note that subjectivity is manifested through the activity caused by inner motives in the process of its purposeful organization.

Particular attention should be paid to the interconnection between the development of subjectivity and the ability to design one’s own activity thus changing one’s existence. Noteworthy is also the “the goal of revealing the role of the subjectivity in providing the ability of an individual to explore and productively alter the objective reality (including one’s own psyche), to design one’s life activity and course of life” [10: 162]. It is the ability design that determines one’s life activity, for this ability (which implies consciousness, purposefulness, objectivity, practicality and similar features) differentiates a subject’s activity from similar behavior types typical of animals. The principle of the unity of consciousness and activity suggested by S. Rubenstein only further proves the designing and self-developing character of activity in the course of its planning and realization” [2: 141].

The development of subjectivity occurs in the process of moving from the development of a perception subject, imitation subject and unconditioned implementation towards the development of creativity. Besides, an important part is played by the development of inner motivation and inner sources of control over the activity [11: 305].

A. Zhilinskaya sees the development of a subject in implementing the following inner transitions:
- from the perception of situation as the only possible option which is entirely pre-determined from outside and beyond personal influence towards the perception of the situation as one of the options that could be influenced by the person;
- from blurred towards clear foundations of an action (consciously accepted norms of activity or values);
– from suggesting occasional actions towards making well-grounded assumptions about an object of transformation (these assumptions are based on the knowledge about activity and situation);

– from participating in activity because of its characteristics other than its goal towards the participation based on self-determination about norms and values that are realized in it [12: 86].

In the analysis of a subject’s features from psychological viewpoint one could see the prospects of the interdisciplinary interaction of such sciences as psychology and pedagogics, when “one science can explain and the other can change the reality based on the provided explanation” [13: 170].

Studies of subject position as a foundation of the professional development of a student stress that self-determination in the educational and professional environment takes place during adolescence (in the course of professional training). During this period a person not only chooses his or her profession but also develops the attitude towards the subject he or she studies, towards the professional activity and towards oneself. This context should feature the development of the subject position of a student as “his own master, the master of his actions and aspirations”. This is quite a long process, and the less systematically it unfolds, the safer it is to say that the subject position of a student is undeveloped and fails to meet the up-to-date requirements for the competence of a specialist.

T. Barysheva also points out that “the development of students’ subject position in the course of their professional growth is an important and relevant goal of modern higher education” [14: 234]. Among the factors affecting the possibility of subject position development particularly notable are the role of the reflective teaching methods and the creation of pedagogical conditions for nurturing students’ need to reflect upon their own professional and personal experience [Ibid: 235].

However, our studies have shown that many researchers (both in Russia and abroad) point out the lack of proper development of students’ subject position. Today the accepted objective of a university is to provide relevant knowledge and skills. At the same time skills connected with the development of education are not sufficiently marked. It is due to the fact that the learning process is organized as a learning activity whereas the development of a subject position implies the transition to educational activity.

The conducted analysis suggests that students are, in essence, mature people who have consciously chosen their future profession and have already mastered the techniques of self-organization, self-education, and self-control; therefore they are also responsible for the quality of their training and are not active subjects of their educational activity [15]. Empirical findings reveal the orientation of students towards reproductive ways of performing the tasks they face, a low level of motivation (mainly external motivation), insufficient readiness to organize the learning process on their own
and tailor it to their own needs. Besides, students do not participate in determining and controlling their educational activity and do not have adequate means of doing it.

Nor do students attach sufficient importance to the design of activity and its organization on their own. Thus, in order to develop a subject position it is necessary, among other things, to create the conditions that would enable a student to take their own initiative, set their goals, design and control their activity, be the creator and the subject of activity, not its object that is externally influenced by teachers, parents, administration, etc.

Many theory and practice oriented educators believe that a prerequisite for a transition to a new educational culture should not be the introduction of new academic disciplines that set the goal of developing new skills. Besides, suggestions are put forward to reduce the number of disciplines and the translated information which doesn’t provide the basis for gaining new knowledge so that academic classes are not overloaded and more time is given for students’ independent work.

Other authors stress that in order to solve this issue some kind of extra-subject component should be included into educational practice that would promote active and responsible mastering of educational content.

The practice of organizing educational process at university often shows that the teaching and learning process leaves little space for students’ independent design of contents and forms of activities. The key components of students’ actions are determined by educational standards, curricula, faculty administration, and teachers. Quite often students begin to solve actual professional tasks only when they undertake pedagogical internship or placement, and like learners, they consider themselves insufficiently prepared for it.

The notion “subjectivity” implies that a person can independently initiate, organize and control his activity, including educational activity. However, it is feasible only when the person becomes the subject of the activity, can operate the techniques and means of its organization, is familiar with the stages of its design and realization and the relevant methods, and also can control, evaluate and, if necessary, correct his or her actions in accordance with the set goal.

Thus, changes in the education system should first of all affect educational methods and technologies the objective of which is to develop practical skills of working with information, self-education, projecting one’s own activity of achieving results, etc. Besides, it is necessary to provide students with the opportunity to actively influence the actual process of their education, to make choices, to be able to close their educational gaps, to structure their individual trajectory of gaining and developing relevant knowledge and skills and to be consciously responsible for the results of their actions whilst mastering their profession.
In this respect, it is particularly important to address the issue of developing and introducing pedagogical technologies that enable to effectively fill in this gap which determines the content quality and results of modern education.

Today, among other major goals of higher education, specialists stress the importance of teaching not only separate competences, but also such activities as programming, monitoring, expert examination and, last but not least, designing [16: 5].

Designing is of particular interest when we speak about working with interdisciplinary content. The project method presents itself as a potential component of didactic methodology of the future, which is “the introduction of students to the problems and their gaining experience of independently solving these problems based on free information search in global information networks and comparison of their solutions with cultural models and precedents” [Ibid: 9].

Among the advantages of the project method different researchers (E. Olkers, E. Polat, V. Lutkovsky, V. Guzeev et al.) highlight the changing of students’ role towards active participation and conscious responsibility, the development of students’ investigation skills, the ability to independently design their knowledge, to orient themselves in informational environment, and also the development of critical and creative thinking, independent creative work in workgroups, personal orientation, the opportunity for everyone to find their thing according to their interests and abilities, and also the development of different social skills connected with the need to learn self-education techniques, gaining communicative skills, team skills, the topicality of maintain extensive contacts, getting acquainted with different viewpoints, developing the abilities to collect information from different sources, put forwards hypotheses, search for solutions, etc.

Some of the disadvantages and limitations of using the project method are formalistic attitude towards working on a project (as a way of presenting the studied material), exhaustion effect caused by the related difficulties, the growing number of challenges and demanding requirements, the complication of evaluation procedure, the difficulty of conforming to modern educational standards and curricula.

The project method has been used in foreign language teaching for a long time. Most theory and practice oriented researchers (A. Konysheva, L. Podoprigorova, T. Dysheina, E. Polat, R. Frolova, N. Kocheturova et al.) are of the opinion that the major advantages of using this method in secondary and high school institutions are as follows:

1. It can be used in learning any lexical topic.
2. It enhances the motivation and the interest to learn a foreign language.
3. It enables to bring together students’ knowledge from different areas of study in order to solve a problem as well as to apply the knowledge practically.
4. It promotes active usage of a foreign language in oral and written speech.

5. It helps develop the skills of students’ independent work, including extracurricular work.

6. It fosters going beyond the classroom.

7. It bridges the gap between the language that students learn and the actual language as a means of communication and cross-cultural interaction, foreign language communication with native speakers, the use of language in situations as close to real communication situations as possible.

8. Based on linguistic, cultural and sociocultural competence, it boosts communicative skills and competence which is the main objective in learning a foreign language; it develops different speech activity skills (listening, speaking, writing and reading), enables to integrate special teaching goals and involuntary memorization of lexical and grammatical material into design activity.

9. It promotes thinking and solving problems, discussing possible solutions.

10. It shifts the focus from doing various exercises onto active participation of language learners.

11. It develops such skills as working with information, searching for relevant information in the target language, working with texts, analyzing information, making summaries, drawing conclusions etc., and working with references. It also enhances communicative skills of debating, listening to one’s partners, supporting and defending one’s viewpoint, presenting one’s ideas laconically, arriving at a compromise and so on.

12. It fosters team spirit, leadership and a sense of responsibility.

13. It familiarizes students with the culture of project designing which includes independent planning of one’s own activity, foreseeing potential outcomes of solving a problem, implementing different ways and means of working, evaluating results.

14. It enables the individualization and differentiation of learning by providing the freedom to choose a project topic, means and ways of activity, one’s own role in realizing the project, pace of work, the form of presenting the results, etc.

However, nowadays we observe a lack of a holistic system of organizing design activity based on gradual development and oriented towards purposeful achievement of relevant educational results. Here the activity itself is not a subject for discussion, i.e. designing is viewed as a means of working with certain materials and creating a product. Evaluated, compared to each other and analyzed are the actual visible results of designing process, i.e. products of activity.

It is also interesting to project how design methods can be used for achieving relevant educational results, namely for developing students’ sub-
The analysis of education process organization practice suggests that students commence to learn the contents of their education at the very first stage of educational activity development, i.e. the activity directed at the studied material, subject or branch of knowledge. This activity is dynamic and independent in its nature, not just formal. Back in 1982 a monograph by psychologists concerned with teaching and learning issues emphasized that learning activity should be treated as any other human activity [17: 5]. In other words, learning activity should include motives and learning objectives (motivation and orientation sphere), learning actions (operational sphere) and controlling and evaluating actions (control and evaluation sphere) [Ibid: 6].

As we see it, the major feature of learning activity (that differentiates it from educational activity, for instance) is its position towards a concrete academic subject. That is to say, this activity is about the studying of material which results in acquiring relevant skill.

The next level of a student’s activity sphere development is educational activity. The object of this activity is not an academic subject but one’s general activity, the conditions that it takes place in, its stages, results, etc. Educational activity is supersubject in its nature. Its goal is not to gain some branch-related knowledge, skills and specific competences (e.g., mathematical, linguistic, or any other) but to build up competences connected with the ability of an individual to carry out an activity that is relevant personally to him. In this particular example it would be the activity of designing and implementing a project of one’s education in general. Such an interpretation of activity implies a fundamentally new approach to setting its goals, its organization, evaluation and analysis.

In modern educational methodology the differentiation between learning and educational activity is also a topical question. Remaining within the scope of learning situation and carrying out only learning actions students do not venture to change the situation by these actions of their own, do not take any responsibility, which automatically means that they are unable to acquire some kinds of competences (for example, a number of social competences such as making responsible decisions, choices and so on).

In case of some formalization (including from the teacher’s part), a student’s learning may lack crucial stages of wholesome activity, beginning with the stage of goal-setting and finishing with the process of comparing the outcome to what was initially desired and expected. That is to say, this activity will not be an activity in its general educational sense.

Nevertheless, learning activity backed up by the teacher and directed at an academic subject but specifically organized will promote the acquirement of a certain range of competences, namely those associated with the participant-of-the-activity and the performer-of-certain-actions sphere. Thus,
learning activity is a key component in creating and developing competences because the transition to the conscious educational activity is impossible without a well-formed students’ learning activity sphere.

By educational action we mean an activity the content of which is represented by educational process organization. So, this is the joint activity of the teacher and the learner directed at achieving the common goal and carried out within the scope of the subject-object relationship. Here the learner is rather the object of the teacher’s actions (at least the actions of organization, implementation, control and improvement of the learning process).

Nonetheless, a learning action must be treated as an important stage in educational process. It is a prerequisite for acquiring and developing certain skills and abilities, some procedural knowledge, which is also part of competences (in this particular case execution level competences). These basic skills enable to build up the pyramid of competences while setting increasingly more complicated goals and getting more and more involved in the activity.

Thus, designing nowadays can be viewed as a resource that enables to manage, control and organize one’s own activity in any sphere of life. Designing can be taught only where it becomes a special branch of activity, which requires creating conditions for organizing educational activity and the participants’ awareness of their role in this process that depends on the autonomy and complexity level of the performed activity. So, there is an awareness of the fact that the subject of the activity can affect and change his activity, be it learning, educational or professional activity.

Designing enables students to set their own goals, to implement their plans, to put their own sense into learning and educational activity, i.e. to identify the personal content of their activity as well as the joint activity of the teacher and the learner as subjects of activity. Beginning with setting the design goals, defining task and means of their fulfillment, and finishing with the evaluation and results presenting stage, all the stages of designing involve active participation of the subjects of the educational process, i.e. learners, their ultimate engagement into the activity of goal setting, choosing the best ways of task fulfillment, etc.

The result of this activity is not only a visible product but also the changes in the subjective characteristics of the participants of this process, the acquirement and development of new qualities, i.e. competences, and, as has been mentioned above, their establishment as the subjects of activity. It also indicates that the organization of the educational process with the use of design technique promotes the transition to the self-organization, self-development, self-education and self-realization of learners, which provides them with a special resource that they will be able to use during the rest of their lives.

Thus, designing can be viewed as a means of modifying the activity content in educational process, as well as a means of changing the results of
Features of development of students’ subject positions

education. At the same time, gradual and purposeful transition from learning activity towards educational activity characterized by different degrees of the learner’s independence, involvement in the organization of activity and determination of its content, suggests that this method can be used for the development of subject position of the education participants.

In educational practice we therefore can single out various types of design teaching that provide different levels of the teacher’s and the student’s involvement and the setting of goals and objectives of the education that respectively reflect different levels of their subject position development.

1. A learning project as a type of educational design can be represented by the following characteristics. The topic, the goals and the means of their achievement are given to the participants of the project. Their influence on the setting of the project goal is limited by the given project task. The organization of the joint design activity is represented by the distribution of the functions in creating a definite product; the learners are to comprehend and, if necessary, to revise these functions. The educational position of the learner is defined as “The performer of project tasks”. The educational results are represented by academic achievements.

2. An educational project as a type of educational design is characterized by the involvement of the learners in the setting of project goals, objectives and tasks, in the mastering of technologies and the reflection of design means for creating joint design activity. Necessary are the competences of organizing joint activity of developing and implementing a project. Much attention is paid not to the product of designing, but to the analysis of designing as an effective means of developing and implementing a project. Designing here is viewed as a means of establishing the subject of the project development and implementation, while the means of organizing joint activity are incorporated into the contents of education.

Designing itself becomes the subject of education and a discussion topic. In teaching project development techniques the organization of joint activity and design is elevated up to the level of reflective comprehension of the contents of the project techniques as a special type of activity. The educational position of project participants is defined as “The developer of project activity”.

An educational project reflects the contents of designing in the concept of competency-based teaching in which designing is used both as a means of developing various competences and as a special unit of the contents of education. Competency-based teaching which is grounded on the reflective reconstruction of educational results implies that the content of the project activity is created in this or that way by the participants of education; it is not defined from outside prior to action. In competency-based teaching the organization designing includes the inspection and reflection of design activity. The degree of mastering of design competency becomes one of the
educational results in case the teacher organizes the reflective comprehension of the contents and methodology of this type of work.

3. Besides, we single out pedagogic internship designing as a separate type of profession-oriented design. This kind of work promotes the realization of a student’s subject position in a real situation, with the student being “The organizer of educational activity”, which, in its turn, should confirm a definite level of competency development necessary for effective professional activity and successful functioning in different areas of life.

Designing an individual program of pedagogic internship enables students to set educational goals, to implement their educational plans, to structure the contents of educational activity, which is the joint activity of the teacher and the learner as the subjects of education. It also enables to independently organize educational interaction with the use design technologies.

In the process of comprehending and mastering educational modules design competences are gradually developed and students’ subject is established.

This happens due to the following:

– the influence of the participants of designing on the content of activity (the creation of a plan, the definition of problems, the setting of project goals);
– consecutive enlargement of design objective and functions in the process of the establishment of their action sphere.

The ultimate goal is reached due to the realization of the following contents of designing:

– the inclusion of the experimental program participants into the design practice;
– the mastering of the activity contents in learning design;
– the comprehension of one’s own educational activity as an object for designing desired changes in one’s educational environment, the experience of designing one’s own educational trajectory;
– the enlargement of the view of the situation in which this method can be used and the further use of this resource for designing the activity of achieving one’s goals in general and implementing the first project of one’s professional activity in particular.

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A COMPARITIVE ANALYSIS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING IN MODERN EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT IN BRITISH AND RUSSIAN UNIVERSITIES (THE CASE OF DURHAM UNIVERSITY, UK, AND TOMSK STATE UNIVERSITY, RUSSIA)

O.A. Obdalova, E. Logan

Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation); University of Durham (Durham, UK)
E-mail: O.Obdalova@mail.ru; emma.logan@durham.ac.uk

Abstract. Foreign language teaching methods applied in the UK and Russia are reviewed, using as an example Durham University (UK) and Tomsk State University (Russia) in the conditions of the modern educational environment. The new educational environment is defined. The specificity of the language environment for teaching foreign languages is characterized. A comparative analysis of approaches and methods to foreign language teaching is conducted. Conclusions are made on the effectiveness of the approaches to organizing the modern educational process.

Keywords: foreign language teaching; foreign language teaching methods; British HEI; Russian HEI; educational environment; language learning environment.

Introduction

For as long as there have been multiple languages in the world people have been teaching them so that we might learn to better communicate with one another. In the 21st century foreign language multicultural education is an important issue [1]. Our improved understanding of how humans acquire language has led to a greater range of approaches to language teaching and today universities are better equipped to teach languages than they were in previous decades. Nowadays teaching foreign languages embraces ideas which range from using conventional, but well-proven, methods, to integrating innovative techniques and means of learning process organization, which appeared due to the emergence of new technologies and resources. Those new techniques are focused on worldwide communication, easy access to knowledge, a greater role of the learner and of the language in one’s career development.

Language degrees continue to be offered by universities around the world. They differ from country to country, with Britain and Russia no exception. This paper specifically compares two universities’ teaching of second languages. The cases of Durham University (DU) and Tomsk State University (TSU) are offered as examples of the new learning environment. We will look at the new learning environment, which has both common and
distinct features in these different sociocultural and educational contexts and define its basic components and qualities leading to a more effective process of teaching / learning a foreign language to comply with the high requirements of our societies to a new generation of competent professionals capable of communicating with each other in the globalized multicultural world.

**Method**

The combination of methods both theoretical and empirical focusing on gaining insight into the educational situations in the natural educational settings is used, such as historical analysis of evolution of foreign languages teaching approaches and methods, a review of current teaching practices, a comparison between particular language environments, generalization, and case-study as well as observation in the naturally occurring educational situations. The approaches and methods that each university employs in language teaching as well as practical aspects such as learners’ needs, classroom hours, homework hours and its amount, and forms of work with course materials, and resource availability as principal components characterizing the particular language learning environment will be focused on. In addition to these things theory about language acquisition and various techniques for language teaching are being compared so that the specific focus on the universities is relevant. It is also important to note that ‘language teaching’ refers specifically to foreign language teaching (FLT), where students attempt to study and acquire a language that is not native language and the language of the community.

**Defining Learning Environment**

Conceptually speaking, the Learning Environment (LE) refers to the whole range of components and activities within which learning occurs. Learning environment refers to the diverse physical locations, contexts, and cultural and human dimensions in which students learn. According to T. Warger, G. Dobbin “The term learning environment encompasses learning resources and technology, means of teaching, modes of learning, and connections to societal and global contexts” [2]. We need to specify an LE that supports “optimal” conditions for effective learning and teaching a foreign language in an institution of higher education, taking into account particular physical, cultural and language contexts [3]. In this article a rich and effective LE for acquiring by the student the communicative competence in a foreign language is defined as a composite of conditions and circumstances of learning, including a range of methods and approaches to teaching, a variety of in-class and self-study activities, pedagogically sound learning materials, an efficient combination of learning modes, sufficient authentic input of
the target language tailored to the student’s specific needs, personalized learning, maximized knowledge acquisition, skills and strategies development through the introduction and appropriate use of pedagogical and technological innovations relevant to the learning outcomes and the requirements of the modern society, that complement each other and work as a whole.

We will focus on defining some crucial factors and components of the LE that help a teacher to support an environment that the most of the learning opportunities available based on the experiences of DU and TSU.

Language Teaching Methodology

Here the aim of our specific research interest is not to provide a comprehensive description of all the approaches and methods used in the teaching practice, but to focus on some trends common to British and Russian methodology schools of EFL teaching that have had a decisive impact on the quality of teaching foreign languages. Language teaching philosophy is the crucial backdrop of the methodology upon which the language learning environment is created and affects its quality.

The common core of the new challenges for TFL (Teaching a Foreign Language) at any modern university brought about by the quickening pace of globalization, informatization and the increasing prominence of languages for effective communication in the global arena is knowing how to model a language course into the educational environment so that students’ skills in a foreign language grow in a way that enhances their education, language and personal development and matches their general field of expertise; how to design and apply teaching materials and tasks; what relevant resources to choose that improve the learners’ ability to interact with people from other cultures in a foreign language. Nowadays for university students of all specialties it is very important that the content of TFL includes related themes and problems, and is aimed at the development of not only different types of knowledge but also some specific target skills. They include study skills, critical thinking, communication skills, cognitive skills, self-reflection skills, and individual and team-work models of communication [4]. In fact the strategic goal of modern educational system is to nurture a competent professional who can effectively and independently work in any uncertain context in the global society. So today the competence-based approach [5] has been accepted according to which learning a foreign language is an essential element in the wide range of target competencies which lead the learner towards the development of an overall communicative competence. This integrative competence can be described as a framework including grammar / linguistic competence (knowledge of grammar rules, lexis and phonetics), pragmatic competence (the ability to use language appropriately in different social situations), strategic competence (knowledge of how to get out a mes-
sage in a variety of circumstances). Also of importance is social-cultural competence (knowledge of national culture and behaviour, national mindset and values etc.) [6]. The basis of it is linguistic competence, which has always been and still is the cementing foundation of the ability to use a foreign language in an appropriate way.

The field of second language acquisition is one that has received a great deal of study, despite it being a relatively young field, having its systematic origins in the 1950s and 1960s [7]. It is the study of how we are able to learn languages and an understanding of it is important in order to know how to teach effectively. The methodology has come through the evolution of different approaches and methods towards communicative teaching, gradually shifting from focus on the language as a systematic code to language as a means of communication with the search for effective ways of instruction and consideration of the learner’s personality [8-11]. An fundamental concept in second language acquisition is the fact that language learners create a language system that they use to structure the information that they are presented with and thus develop and internalize it [12]. The creation of language systems for learning by the learners also can help explain why sometimes there seems to be a regression or decrease in knowledge or in skill formation; this might be because a principle previously developed in the learner’s own system has to be re-learned with the introduction by the teacher of a grammar rule in the second language and a relevant language context. This phenomenon in the methodology of teaching foreign languages is known as ‘de-automation of the skill’. It is the classical issue in skill and activity theory (L.S. Vygotsky, A.N. Leontiev, W.J.M. Levelt) [13-15] postulating that under certain conditions such as lack of practice, fatigue, a highly emotional state, a high tempo of work, the automated skills can fail, so that they have to be re-automated again [16]. Thus the system is developed and continued by the learner. The actualization can take place only when the learner involves own knowledge and gets vast experience through practice. This therefore makes the actual acquisition of a second language driven by the learners themselves independent from the teacher. This fact is important to keep in mind when we look at some of the methods of language teaching as not all of them place the learner at the centre of the system despite the acquisition of a second language being determined by them.

With an increased understanding of how second languages are acquired, over the years there have been developments in the ways in which languages are taught. Healey wrote in the 1960s that there was a greater focus on the study of literature in the universities of Britain at that time. This was partly because the courses in modern languages had been developed from the courses that had taught classical languages like Latin or Greek [17].

There was also less focus on speaking the second language and a greater emphasis on translation of literary texts between the native language and the target second language. Therefore in the grammar translation method
A comparative analysis of foreign language teaching

there is a greater emphasis on the reading of the written word and translating it into the students’ native language. This approach is still in demand in some educational contexts because many consider a fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature in the target language [18]. That was a typical situation in methods of teaching at that time everywhere. In Russia consciousness-raising and the comparative method as a modification of grammar-translation method was commonly used in teaching foreign languages (L.V. Scherva, I.V. Rakhmanov, Z.M. Tsvetkova, A.A. Mirolyubov) [19], which was based on structural linguistics, the cognitive approach and a teacher-centered model.

Language pedagogy has come a long way since that time. Over time there has developed a greater emphasis, particularly when starting to learn a second language, on speaking it and being able to communicate effectively in the target language. Communication has become a key focus of language teaching in order to get students to be able to use their language skills effectively outside the classroom [18]. The Communicative Approach developed in the 1970s and this in turn became Communicative Language Teaching as it was applied in the classroom with the aim of giving students communicative competence [17]. Such is the case with the Audio-Lingual Method outlined by Larsen-Freeman in her book on language teaching. In this method the language is drilled, with the students learning through a great deal of teacher-led repetition, the aim of which is to get the students to use the target language automatically without stopping to think [Ibid]. The main focus of this method is therefore being able to use the target language communicatively and uses techniques in the classroom such as memorising dialogues by repeating them and then manipulating the given phrases to answer rapid fire questions from the teacher. Though it has been criticized for its mechanical nature of learning it still remains a method in-demand when there is a need to form language skills which are responsible for linguistic competence.

Communicative strategy is probably closest to what might be found in universities today given that the aims of this approach are to make the students effective speakers of the language in the “real world”. However it is not without problems, according to Widdowson, since learners do not very readily infer knowledge of the language system from their communicative activities [20]. Today, learner-centered, project-based, problem-based and task-based approaches are widespread, emphasizing individual and research work, communication and practical uses of language. Therefore a combination of approaches and methods is necessary to ensure that students understand the language fully and are also able to use it properly outside the classroom, particularly, on the world-wide context. In this respect teaching a foreign language through different discourses relevant to the learner’s professional field allows for development of target competencies [21]. These various strategies should be kept in mind as we move to a discussion of our chosen universities.
A comparative analysis of the cases of Durham University and Tomsk State University

We will now analyze the particular learning environments in Durham and Tomsk, paying attention to several major factors and components of LE, affecting the effectiveness of the teaching process, namely exposure to languages, modes of teaching, use of technology and facilities, methodology of teaching, and human and cultural dimensions.

Many universities around the world, including DU and TSU, offer languages at beginner’s level that can be incorporated into a degree. Many of the teaching methods used with students beginning to learn a new foreign language focus on speaking and listening because of the natural order of acquiring skills that occurs when learning a native language i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The School of Modern Languages and Cultures at DU is made up of six different language departments offering courses in Arabic, French, German, Hispanic Studies, Italian and Russian [22]. Although each department is different, based on the fact that it offers a different language and different languages require slightly different styles of teaching, there are still elements of teaching and learning that are present across all departments and the same can be said for other universities too. For example, all students at DU studying for a degree in Modern Languages and Cultures are expected to choose six different modules each year. The general pattern is to study two foreign languages, therefore two of these will be a core language module and the remaining four can be made up of a variety of language-focused and culture-focused courses depending on the student’s preference. Each module will have approximately two hours of lectures a week, giving an average of 12 contact hours a week but only four that are language-focused, by which is meant classes specifically geared towards the learning of the foreign language and not reading the country’s literature or studying its history. The rest of the time during the week is made up of independent study. To enhance self-study mode of learning The Study Skills booklet has been developed [23], and is available to students online. It recommends that each module requires 200 hours of study in total and that each module should have roughly seven hours per week spent on it. This time is usually divided into two hours of classroom time and five hours of reading and preparation of assignments.

The teaching staff at DU is made up of a large number of native speakers of nearly all the languages that are offered. This allows for conversation classes to be conducted in a more natural way and pronunciation can be corrected accurately. As for pedagogical tools, during the first year of study at DU there is a greater focus on grammar teaching than in later years. Students have specific classes in which grammar is covered and the rules of
the target language grammar will be stated and explained. This is to ensure that all students are at a similar level before progression to subsequent years. This is an example of the Grammar-Translation Method which can be seen continuing into the fourth year of study where students are often required to translate from the target language into their native language to understand passages.

We also see elements of Communicative Language Teaching at DU. Students have dedicated oral classes entirely focused on speaking the language. Additionally students are expected to produce presentations throughout the year in the target language on a wide variety of topics. This, combined with specific grammar teaching, in theory solves the problem of a communicative approach not giving learners adequate knowledge of the target language system. As well as the presentations students produce other work, such as homework, that includes short essays and translations, grammar exercises and other written tasks. The style of teaching at DU, particularly in the language classes, is quite interactive, with students expected to use the target language in conversations. Other modules on literature and history follow a weekly lecture and seminar format in which students are expected to take notes in the lecture and then prepare material to discuss for the seminar. These lectures and seminars are often carried out in the target language as well.

At TSU, the Faculty of Foreign Languages (FFL) is made up of 5 different departments offering the English, French, German, Chinese, Greek, Italian and Spanish languages [24], the choice of which depends on high demand for the language as a means of communication for Russians abroad. It should be mentioned that the number of foreign languages taught at the university has grown in the last few years, which demonstrates the ongoing process of adapting to the multicultural world and globalized economy [25, 26]. All foreign languages students study two languages and have a language-focused degree; non-language students study one foreign language as part of their obligatory program, but they can learn as many other foreign languages as they want by taking extra-curricular courses. The FFL offers all students of the university, as well as teachers, additional courses in foreign languages to match their professional fields and particular interests. For that purpose there is a special educational structure at the FFL, the Department of Continuing Education, which offers learners deeper language knowledge and experience in translation of texts dealing with the sphere of their professional communication. This department is in great demand with students of practically all faculties of the university. More than one hundred students are recruited annually to get this additional qualification at the Faculty of Foreign Languages. This fact demonstrates the great role of foreign languages as a means of access to the global world and better employment for the TSU graduates.
Teaching at Tomsk follows a very interactive style, based on the Principles of Interactive Language Teaching written by Harvard professor Wilga Rivers in 1997 [27]. New approaches and methods are being introduced to create an environment in which interaction is free of stress and focus is made on the learner’s involvement in thinking, speaking and doing. A number of different teaching methods are also employed including Communicative Language Teaching based on Wilga Rivers’ third principle that it is important to be able to use the language ‘normally’ and communicate effectively in both written and oral formats. Special pedagogic tools are trialed such as Storyline [28], project-based teaching, cognition-focused technologies [21]. Students are also taught the structure of the language and how it works in order to gain better knowledge of the language; this is an example of elements of the Grammar-Translation Method being used.

Making use of time is also decisive for the choice of methodology. On average students of FFL at TSU have ten 45 minutes classes per week for language classes, which amounts to five double classes lasting 90 minutes each. Students at TSU are expected to complete work outside of lectures and are given homework assignments at the end of classes. These might be translation or grammar exercises, writing essays in the target language or preparing reading for the next class. Inside the classroom language development is encouraged through interactive, participatory activities such as discussions, presentations and small group work. Lessons are also conducted in the target language where possible and students are expected to participate. This makes the teaching style generally student centred yet also interactive, which is in keeping with the Principles of Interactive Language Teaching.

Information technology and resources are being integrated into the language environment. Together with conventional ways and means of teaching, new communication and information tools can create an environment that allows for more individualization of the learning process and the presence of native speaking communicators in the virtual mode. Due to this new ubiquitous technological environment it is possible to use relevant authentic materials, different types if input (aural, visual, combined, hypertext technology) to make the learning-teaching process more effective [29]. In this respect at DU there are various facilities to help students complete their studies such as language laboratories and computer rooms that are available during and outside of class time. At TSU there are also facilities available at the university to help students, including the first centre in Siberia for simultaneous interpreting, MOODLE-based courses [30, 31], and computer classes. But in general the learning environment lacks available technical resources, which constrains incorporation of various technology options into learning and teaching process, as well as special laboratories for self-study to make learning supported at most.
The teaching staff at TSU are mostly native Russian speakers. A rich language environment is not possible without the participation of native speakers and language specialists. The language environment created for teaching foreign languages at TSU in this respect differs greatly from that of the DU or any European university, because not many native speakers come to work, study and live in Siberia, a cold and rather distant place from everywhere. The process of learning another language under the conditions when the natural environment of the target language and its cultural context are detached from the learner is rather specific and more difficult. That means that on the one hand, the teacher bears a lot of responsibility for creating such a learning environment which will enable the learners of the target language to master it as an effective means of communication, on the other it is the learner’s activity and involvement in the learning process. In spite of the above mentioned objective obstacles the language environment at TSU includes native-speaking teachers who make a very important contribution to creating a more authentic environment for both subjects of the educational process – the learner and the teacher [32].

At TSU it is understood that cultural penetration is important and that in order to fully understand a foreign language there must be an understanding of the culture behind it. Therefore communication with native speakers is important and is guaranteed to all students in the course of their education. So in LE for teaching foreign languages at TSU at present a more emphasis is being given to the development of the pedagogical framework to foster active learning and achieving the target competencies by the students through face-to-face communication, effective instruction, innovative pedagogical tools, development of teaching materials and activities, and involvement of native speaking members of the staff. On the technical side, it is mostly the use of the Internet as a source of information and computer-mediated environment for organizing teaching grammar and carrying out testing of linguistic competence. Consequently, the need for designing and utilizing the advancements of technology is clearly realized. It is worth noting that according to the “road-map” leading TSU to join the list of top research innovative universities in the world, a lot of attention nowadays is being paid to the development of a learning environment based on conceptually grounded methodology, a setting appropriate context for rich learning experiences, making use of various relevant resources both physical and virtual, widening students’ learning space and creating additional opportunities for personal and professional development.

Concluding Remarks

When we compare the language environments of the two universities, DU and TSU, side by side we can see that there are many similarities in the
approach of modelling. The two universities are both modern and leading higher educational establishments with a lot to offer students wishing to study foreign languages not just as a university subject but as a means to better functioning in the modern world.

The organizational structure of the universities’ divisions responsible for teaching foreign languages is very similar and is based on a highly professional staff. Furthermore both universities recognize the importance of communication with native speakers and employ native speakers of the target languages in both places.

At both institutions the students study a number of foreign languages and also courses in culture and history. There are certain superficial differences, for example with regards to teaching hours and also the type of degree that is offered by each institution. Nevertheless, there are many similarities in the teaching methods used in both. For example elements of the Grammar-Translation Method such as learning grammar rules and working with the written language, reading and translating are still present in both TSU and DU. Both institutions combine the grammar translation method, which is used to foster linguistic and sociocultural competences, with a communicative approach in order to teach students how to use the language practically and usefully. This is evidenced by the specific oral classes in DU and the interactive teaching style in TSU. The most widely used common pedagogical techniques are problem-solving, collaborative tasks, case-based study, and discussions. The didactic approaches focus on the learner’s active role, the competence-based model, and the dialogue of cultures in the process of teaching foreign languages nowadays are the dominant trends in the educational environments of both institutions.

Thus the FLT in British and Russian universities has much in common and only minor differences. Emerging trends towards more individualized and flexible forms of learning, and a strategy of teaching catering to the learners’ needs and interests result in improvements relating to student progress and motivation. The language environment modelled by each institution comprises conventional and innovative pedagogical and technological bases, stimulating students and teachers – to work hard in the reciprocal educational process. The universities in both countries are equal in their ability to educate well-qualified linguists and professionals in different majors prepared to function in the global multicultural world.

In addition, more research is needed on the design of a rich and effective environment for teaching foreign languages for the purposes of personal and professional development of students. Teachers have to design an environment which will be a specific mix of learning experiences, resources, media and technology to expand learning time and to bring in the class speakers of different languages, to balance all the strengths and weaknesses of the physical and virtual environments, to create reusable digital resources to lessen the
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teacher’s workload and personal costs, to find ways to carry out ongoing pedagogical and technical support in order to achieve of the outcomes.

**Literature**

22. DURHAM UNIVERSITY. SCHOOL OF MODERN LANGUAGES AND CULTURES. [Online]. Available from: https://www.dur.ac.uk/mlac
The intensive integration process in the modern world has influenced the educational sphere. When talking about language education, it is important to mention that the 21st century definitely requires scientific and methodological integration in the sphere of all language studies (foreign languages, mother and non-mother tongues), as the problems concerning the co-learning of languages and cultures, while preparing a person for living in the modern multicultural world, becoming more topical. Moreover, it is hardly possible to solve the most difficult problems in the process of preparation for intercultural communication using only special methods of studies in this or that language, therefore we need to expand the scope of special methodology.

It is obvious that language pedagogy, which reveals the nature and logic of bilingual and multilingual multicultural education in the modern
world, should develop more intensively. In fact, it also defines the scope of variation in the ways, principles, strategies and methods of co-learning of languages and cultures depending on sociocultural factors that considerably influence the effectiveness of intercultural interaction in the multilingual and multicultural world of the 21st century that is marked by political, economic, cultural conflicts and global interdependence. It is also important to keep in mind that the individual boundaries of intercultural communication have extended significantly for everyone with the help of the constant intensive growth of the multilingual and multicultural World Wide Web.

Figure 1 shows the most important components of this pedagogical branch of knowledge. It is considered that language pedagogy is oriented to:

- **defining** philosophical, pedagogical, psychological, sociological, culturological and didactic bases of multicultural language education;
- **revealing** its nature, logic and principles taking into account the personality forming potential of ALL the co-studied languages and cultures in different didactic contexts of school and higher education institution and their interdisciplinary connection with other topical areas;
- **discovering** the factors that can lead to cultural discrimination and/or cultural expansion while co-learning languages and cultures at school or higher education institution;
- **elaborating** multilevel and split-level models of sociocultural description of co-studied languages and cultures for didactic purposes;
- **revealing** the content of the stages forming and developing a multicultural personality at school or higher education institution;
- **elaborating** split-level systems of language teaching of intercultural communication norms while co-learning native and foreign languages in the context of the dialogue of cultures and civilizations;
- **investigating** socializing properties of a) languages as school subjects in their didactic interconnection; b) pedagogical communication in mother and non-mother tongues (including foreign languages); c) educational materials.

Taking into consideration the results of the analysis of theory and practice of language education at the end of the 20th and in the beginning of the 21st century in the European and North American countries [5, 7, 11-13, 15, 17, 26, 29-32, 34, 36, 37, 41, 47, 48, 50] and on the other continents, we can name the following positive world tendencies in the development and standardization of modern language education:

1) acknowledgement and definition of multiculturalism as one of the most essential components of modern lifestyle and therefore acknowledgement of the need to develop intensively the multiculturally oriented language pedagogy and define its most effective psychological, pedagogical and methodological ways of cultivating the multiculturalism in a modern person in the process of co-learning languages and cultures at school or higher education institution;
2) expansion of the didactic scope of multilingualism in the modern educational systems (i.e. promoting the principle of didactic linguistic pluralism) and gradual extension of the area of the bilingual / trilingual education at school or higher education institution, where the co-studied languages are used as tools of education and self-education in different fields of knowledge and spheres of activity;

3) recognition of the multi- and split-level nature of language education (and also of its multicultural orientation) as a component of modern multifunctional language training at school or higher education institution and providing its variation in the context of educational rights of a person, interaction of his / her interests, interests of the government, and cultural and linguistic communities, included in the united educational system;

4) finding the ways of standardization of language education, on the one hand, and the effective ways of its practical individualization, on the other, while focusing on the well balanced interaction of linguistic, commu-
nicative, cognitive, culturological, linguoculturological and informational-communicative components in the language education systems that prepares people for intercultural interaction and cooperation in the modern world; therewith we can see the gradual transition from the communicative pragmatic models to the communicative activity models of language education that are culturologically marked;

5) intensification of the positive interaction and integration of interests of supranational communities, government, cultural and linguistic communities that exist in a united educational area or educational areas that influence each other and an individual while solving the problems of standardization and development orientation of language education;

6) awareness of the contradictions that arise between the content of language education, sociocultural context of co-learning of languages and cultures in the Internet environment and beyond its boundaries and the ways of quality evaluation of language education in general and educational progress evaluation of an individual in some certain educational establishment, taking into consideration inter- and supersubject results of language education at school or higher education institution, in particular;

7) a shift from the exaggeration of the pedagogical innovations and realization of the necessity for interaction of educational traditions and innovations, considering cultural heritage of national models of language education and their integration.

The tendencies mentioned above make us specify and sometimes reconsider the aims, purposes, content, systems and models of language education that existed in the 20th century, as well as the requirements to its methodological base in the Internet era that is considered to be one of the life environments of an individual in search for some ways of settling the modern informational-educational contradictions and harmonizing the systems of education and self-education.

It is undoubtedly impossible to elaborate some pedagogic model of language education (which is purposefully oriented to co-learning of languages and cultures that contact each other didactically) without turning to questions of its target purpose. It’s common knowledge that the modern models of language education claim to be purposefully oriented to the intercultural communication [8, 11, 12, 16, 21-26, 28, 30, 35-39, 44, 46, 49]. However, it is not clear what kind of intercultural communication is meant. Is it intercultural communication that is limited by interaction with the neighboring countries only, as it is stated in M. Byram’s communicative ethnographic approach [26]? Or is it intercultural communication in the scope of one continent or even one of its parts, European or North American, for example?

Or should we discuss some other approach to co-learning of languages and cultures? An approach in the scope of which an individual acquires not
only special strategies of culturally acceptable behavior in the country of the studied language, but also the general strategy of orientation in a multicultural world, global norms of interaction and cooperation, means of communicative and cultural personal development for the purpose of successful intercultural communication in any new cultural or cultural-linguistic community? And what are the purposes of teaching a person in this or that educational system to communicate in some certain new languages? May be this or that approach stimulates covert value oriented assimilation or acculturation of an individual to the benefit of some certain cultural and linguistic community without taking into consideration the value of his / her own culture, as it is shown in details by R. Phillipson in his monograph “Linguistic Imperialism” [42].

The existence of different culturologically oriented approaches in the modern language pedagogy and therefore different models of cultural development of an individual by means of learned and co-learned languages depends directly on the way the intercultural communication is understood. In the scope of sociocultural approach to co-learning of languages and cultures [11, 12] the intercultural communication means functionally determined communicative interaction of people who represent different cultural communities on account of the fact that they or some other people realize their belonging to different geopolitical, continental, regional, religious, national, ethnic communities or social subcultures. Therefore, the communicative partners can differ in the following characteristics during the intercultural communication:

- value-oriented worldview;
- lifestyle;
- models of verbal and non-verbal communication.

Therewith the participants of intercultural communication are oriented to the cultural dialogue between them and between cultures and civilizations without opposing one culture to another.

If we consider this interpretation of intercultural communication, then the preparation for it in the sphere of language education should be practiced in the process of co-learning of all the didactically interconnected languages and cultures. On the one hand, it should be performed basing on the principle of an expanding circle of cultures: from ethnic to national, from national to continental cultures and geopolitical layers in the direction of world culture and cultural heritage, of course, without ignoring the socially important subcultures. On the other hand, the process should develop in the context of the dialogue of cultures and civilizations [12]. In other words, the global aspect of world culture is modeled with continental, geopolitical, regional, national, ethnic and socially stratified aspects for the didactic purposes and all that is directed to:

- cultural enrichment of an individual in the process of his / her multi- and subcultural socialization (including educational environment);
development of his / her bilingual skills: on the level of a cultural mediator as minimum [29] (in the scope of school education), and on the level of an interpreter in the professional environment (at a non-linguistic higher education institution) and a professional interpreter (at a linguistic higher education institution) as maximum;

development of skills and characteristics that are necessary for playing the social roles of a cultural intermediary as minimum (after finishing high school) and of a participant in the dialogue of cultures as maximum [11, 12] (after finishing a master’s programme at a linguistic higher education institution).

The development of ideas of culturologically oriented education (including language education) in Europe contributed to the emergence of such an important all-European political and now pedagogical term as “intercultural dialogue” that has occupied the top position in the modern all-European educational policy [34, 45, 50].

It should be mentioned that on the European continent the intercultural education was used for a long time for harmonizing relations between the representatives of the cultural-linguistic communities and social subcultures in the context of humanitarian law enforcement and fight against different types of discrimination in the society, as well as means of forming some all-European ideas such as “European identity”, “European citizenship” and “European cultural heritage”. In the all-European area the term “intercultural dialogue” became a political priority in 2008 and therefore, a number of countries and not only European ones began searching for some pedagogic ways of preparing their citizens at school or higher education institution for the intercultural dialogue in Europe and beyond its boundaries [45].

The intercultural dialogue (fig. 2) presents a process based on the orientation to mutual understanding and respect, a process that implies an open exchange of opinions between individuals, as well as between social groups with different ethnic, cultural, religious, linguistic belonging and historical and cultural heritage. Freedom, readiness and ability to express oneself, to listen and understand other people’s opinions are required for its implementation. The intercultural dialogue contributes to political, social, cultural and economic integration and solidarity of culturally different communities. It instills the feeling of human dignity, understanding of the mutual aim and striving for equality. It is aimed at developing deep understanding of different worldviews and practices of human existence. It increases the chances of cooperation between people (or freedom of choice in it), contributes to personal development of an individual and his / her transformation and induces mutual respect and tolerance [50: 17].

It is also important to single out three levels of the intercultural dialogue: “It (Intercultural dialogue) operates at all levels – within societies, between the societies of Europe and between Europe and the wider world” [Ibid: 10, 11].
However, the analysis of the all-European report “Sharing Diversity. National Approaches to Intercultural Dialogue in Europe Study for the European Commission: report” of 2008 [45] shows that the first of the three above mentioned levels prevails in the practice of intercultural European education. This level is focused on the mutual intercultural understanding between the traditional national culture and the cultures brought to a certain country by the immigrants.

The term “intercultural dialogue” helps to eliminate the West-European terminological opposition of multi- and intercultural education. In fact, the first level of the intercultural dialogue correlates with the West-European term “multicultural education”, while the second and the third levels correlate with the all-European term “intercultural education”. They are different in the degree of orientation to the development of multiculturalism as a life philosophy in an individual, however, in the all-European document
“White Paper on Intercultural Dialogue “Living Together As Equals in Dignity” [50] they are considered from the same conceptual point of view.

It should be pointed out that the concept of intercultural dialogue as a basis of modern education (including language education) became a priority in the European pedagogy only in the 21st century. However, in Russia the ideas¹ of teaching different subjects in the context of the dialogue of cultures and civilizations in Russian education [11, 12, 20] have begun developing intensively since the beginning of the 90s. This process concerns educational materials for studying foreign languages, developed on the basis of the sociocultural approach [11, 12] to studying languages of international communication.

Moreover, the principle of teaching foreign languages on the basis of the dialogue of cultures can be found in Russian pedagogy [2, 11, 12] much earlier than the principles of intercultural dialogue and multilingualism, included in the all-European documents [29, 50]. Solutions to a number of purposes of preparation for the intercultural dialogue of the second and the third levels are found both in theoretical and practical spheres of Russian language education² since 1995. First of all, these educational innovations were promoted by the philosophic interpretation of types of interaction between the representatives of different cultures presented by M. Kagan [4] in the scope of philosophic opposition “dialogue of cultures – non-dialogue of cultures”.

In addition, the Russian variant of education with a multicultural component in the scope of sociocultural approach was never limited by the European orientation and developed and is still developing on the basis of the principle of the extending circle of continental cultures in the direction of world cultural heritage [11, 12, 15].

At the same time in Russia of the 21st century the system of preparation for intercultural communication at school or higher education institution definitely requires specification and sometimes reconsideration of the aims, the content, the systems and models of language education that seemed flawless until recently. It is obvious that the focus should be placed on the creation of the models of co-learning of all the didactically interconnected lan-

¹ The idea of creating the didactic model of language education oriented to the preparation for the intercultural communication appeared from time to time in the methodology of teaching foreign languages in different countries [2, 43], however, it wasn’t examined in details, until certain culturologically-oriented approaches to co-learning of languages and cultures appeared in the methods of language education and until they were realized in the practice of language teaching.

² For example, it was realized in the academic programmes of studying English for the 2nd, 11th grades, teaching materials for 8th-11th grades for classes with enhanced learning of English language, elaborated in the scope of sociocultural approach, in the practice of teaching foreign languages at gymnasiums, lyceums and schools with enhanced learning of English language.
languages and cultures (cultures of mother and non-mother tongues) that provide the correlation of psychological-pedagogic and methodological principles. For example, in language pedagogy with a multicultural dominant the communicative orientation and culturologically marked learning of Russian language as a native one and the majority languages of Russian republics should take place.

There’s no doubt that the educational modeling of bilingual / trilingual intercultural communication, first of all, requires didactic correlation in the description of the aims of every co-studied language at school or higher education institution (as the aims define the general strategy of preparation for the intercultural communication) and their description in terms of all the components of the communicative competence in order to eliminate the irrational contradictions between the methods of teaching mother and non-mother tongues, as those contradictions tend to hinder the fully-fledged development of the communicative culture of the students that is performed by means of all the co-studied languages.

In fact, the first try on the state level to eliminate at least some of those contradictions was undertaken through the Russian federal standards of foreign and Russian languages in 2004. On the basis of the didactic agreement in both cases one of the aims of learning languages at school was described in terms of “competence” [18, 19]. In order to describe the Russian language the following components of communicative competence were used: language and linguistic competence, verbal competence, culturological competence [19].

The communicative competence was also one of the crucial points in describing a foreign language as a school subject; however, it also comprised language / linguistic, verbal, sociocultural, compensatory, self-educational, informational-communicative competences. The strategy of communicative development of pupils was regarded in the context of close interaction with the strategies of their development and education in the sphere of intercultural cooperation in the modern world. And though there is no unanimous agreement on the terminology, it should be admitted that the orientation to the communicatively and culturologically oriented language education was recognized as a didactic dominant in learning foreign and native (Russian) languages.

It should be noted, that in the didactic plan of the specialized higher education the composition of the communicative bilingual competence is, of course, more complicated, than at school. In Figure 4 the generalized description of bilingual communicative competence is given in its development from the all-European level C1 to the level C2³ that can be considered to be

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³ To know more about the all-European levels of communicative competence, please, read Common European Framework of Reference: Learning, teaching, assessment, 2001. Cambridge: CUP.
one of the purposes of the intercultural preparation of a student at a linguistically-oriented higher education institution. Here every component of communicative competence is detailed considering professional field-oriented preparation of a student in a certain higher education institution.4

We will not pay much attention to the language and verbal competences, as they are thoroughly examined and described in the methodological materials. Therefore, we should turn to discussing the bilingual sociocultural competence (fig. 3, 4) which is essential to every intercultural interaction.

The bilingual sociocultural competence (beginning with the all-European level B2 of the communicative verbal competence, that is a threshold advanced level) gives a person an opportunity:

- to be able to differentiate between various sociocultural markers of the authentic linguistic environment and sociocultural characteristics of the communication participants;
- to predict probable sociocultural obstacles in conditions of intercultural communication and the ways of their elimination;
- to assimilate into the foreign environment, following the rules of courtesy of the other culture and showing respect to the traditions, rituals and lifestyle of this culture.
- to perform a role of a cultural mediator as minimum and of a party of a dialogue of cultures as maximum during the interaction of his/her compatriots with the representatives of other cultural and linguistic communities;
- to use sociocultural knowledge, skills and abilities in the process of collaboration with the representatives of other cultural and linguistic communities.

It also creates the basis for:

- to self-study other countries, nations, cultural communities and fulfill one’s own cognitive and informational needs and interests;
- to acquire the effective methods and means of presenting one’s native culture in the environment belonging to another language or culture;
- sociocultural self-education in any other unknown spheres of communication (on the basis of individual’s demands);
- to develop new kinds of sociocultural competence, for example, professional or field-oriented;
- to work with the Internet resources and communicate in the global network both with native and non-native speakers of the studied languages.

4 When talking about multicultural communicative preparation at the higher education institution, we should remember that it implies preparation for the intercultural interaction not only with the native speakers, but also with the non-native speakers and not only in the foreign language, but also in the native language, to which, as we have noticed, little attention is paid in the language education.
Sociocultural competence (as any other component of the communicative competence) is subdivided into levels. However, until recently mainly language and verbal types of competence were regarded as a subject of the multilevel description [28, 30-32]. At the same time there is no all-European multilevel description, we can examine only Russian four-level description of this component for the educational purposes [3]. However, it is hardly possible to solve the problems of standardization of language education with the multicultural component without clear understanding of the levels of cultural development of an individual by means of co-studied languages in the process of transition from one educational step to another, from monolingual to bilingual sociocultural competence and then to multicultural competence.

Fig. 3. Bilingual communicative competence from the level C1 to the level C2
We can also single out several levels of cultural development of an individual, included in the process of bilingual education with a multicultural component. These levels are distinguished on the basis of: a) the level of command of the native and non-native language (including foreign languages), based on the all-European scale of communicative competence [29] and b) social role that a person can perform in a society (possessing certain level of command of the co-studied languages).

Figure 5 shows that a person can perform the social role of a cultural mediator largely when he/she acquires bilingual communicative competence at the all-European level starting with the level B2 (threshold advanced...
level) on the all-European scale\(^5\) [Ibid]. However, in order to perform it effectively, an individual should develop from a monolingual observer to a bilingual observer, then to an amateur researcher and a guide in the culture of the co-studied languages. Before becoming a bilingual participant of the dialogue of cultures in a multicultural environment, a person, performing the role of a cultural intermediary, is also required to pass several levels of cultural development. Every social role can be described in terms of all the components of the communicative competence. This description would be oriented to the secondary and professional higher education and it would be as detailed as it is didactically necessary for the intercultural preparation in some certain didactic context.

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\(^5\) To know more about the all-European levels of communicative competence, read Common European Framework of Reference: Learning, teaching, assessment, 2001. Cambridge: CUP.
It is also worth mentioning that the multicultural competence is a special subtype of sociocultural competence that can be monolingual and/or bilingual/trilingual. It consists of common cultural competence, on the one hand, and of culturological and/or linguoculturological (depending on the level of language education), socially stratified and sociolinguistic types of competence (that can be ethnically, nationally, regionally, continentally, civilizationally or even geopolitically marked), on the other hand.

The modern intercultural communication is expanding intensively on the continents and because of:

- international cooperation of the cultural and linguistic communities and their representatives searching for the solutions to the global challenges of the 21st century;
- positive development of the modern civilizations, education and humanitarian law enforcement (wherever a person is situated);
- realization of the professional and other interests for the purpose of cultural development and polycultural enrichment and protection of the global cultural heritage (including protection from cultural vandalism and so forth).

The polycultural educational model in the scope of the sociocultural approach is based on the following principles:

- the principle of cultural and linguistic interdisciplinary complementarity of the educational communication in any language, while all the components of the communicative competence are being formed and the common culture of an individual and professionally relevant types of culture are undergoing the process of development;
- the principle of the taken into consideration communicative personality development in the language education system and during self-education in Russian and foreign languages;
- the principle of orientation to the gradual bilingual development of an individual considering his/her communicative and verbal demands and abilities, as well as to the special features of the sociocultural context of co-learning of Russian and foreign languages in Russia;
- the principle of creating the conditions for the verbal creativity in any of the studied language (including the translation practice);
- the principle of using the acquired knowledge and skills in the practical activity of students (in their educational and professional activity), as well as in the process of modern direct and indirect intercultural interaction (including the Internet environment);
- the principle of co-learning of languages based on the dialogue of cultures and civilizations and oriented to the gradual and methodologically justified extending circle of cultures which are didactically used in the educational process (from the ethnic, supraethnic, stratified subcultures to the regional, continental and global ones);
the principle of didactic cultural conformity;
the principle of creating an adequate linguodidactic basis for co-
learning of languages considering the sociocultural and linguocultural fac-
tors of their development, existence and functioning in the society;
the principle of humanistic and irenic nature of the pedagogic com-
munication in the process of co-learning of languages and cultures;
the principle of intensive and didactically reasonable using of the In-
ternet and its intercultural potential.

However, we should also pay attention to the negative tendencies in
the development of modern language education:

(a) cultural and linguistic expansion in the educational sphere and
“PRization” of language education (in the published materials and/or in the
administrative nomenclature) [13, 40, 42];

(b) the dominance of the disguised language policy over the policy
that is officially stated in the supranational and national educational docu-
ments [13];

(c) the exaggerated role of the English language in language education
therefore, a disguised disregarding of linguistic pluralism) as one of the fea-
tures of linguistic imperialism [40, 42];

(d) the growing amount of educational and methodological materials
of poor quality and with the negative socializing features [12];

(e) the developing cultural imperialism [42] that stimulates cross-
cultural and cultural-political conflicts;

(f) informational-communicative vandalism;

(g) informational-communicative suppression of the creative potential
of an individual, in the educational environment as well.

The list of negative tendencies in language education described above
is not full. And if we do not try to overcome those difficulties in the scien-
tific and practical spheres, then the positive phenomena of language peda-
gogy will lose their influence in the course of training an individual for the
communicative, intellectual and polycultural self-development in the society
and in the professional environment. This unfavourable course of events is
especially probable if the world tendencies in language pedagogy are not
adequately understood and if the national educational priorities and values of
language policy and language education of some certain country are not tak-
en into consideration.

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Technology of national stereotypes’ relativization in teaching German based on the intercultural approach

N.V. Sorokina
Zabaikal State University (Chita, Russian Federation)
E-mail: sorokinachita@mail.ru

Abstract. The author of the article shows the important role of national stereotypes as a factor of intercultural communication and proposes to integrate the problem of stereotypes into the context of teaching foreign languages. She suggests considering relativization of stereotypes as an educational goal. Relativization of national stereotypes means realization, acceptance of stereotypes’ relativity and taking it into account in intercultural communication. The article presents the technology of stereotypes’ relativization for the upper-level courses at universities, which consists of three stages: ethnodifferentiating, ethnointegrating and ethnorelativizing ones. The process of stereotypes’ relativization is combined with developing intercultural sensitivity through the step-by-step declining of ethnocentrism and increasing of ethnorelativism in the out-group attitudes of the students. Ethnodifferentiating phase is focused on realization of national stereotypes as manifestations of cultural specificity. It includes entering diagnostics, building up a notional base, detection and relativization of cultural and individual stereotypes, and studying of stereotype formation mechanisms. The goal of the phase is achieving the stage of Polarization of differences. The orientation of the next phase – the ethnointegrating one – is the opposite of the previous one. It focuses not on the differences but on the common issues uniting cultures and people. The phase includes studying cultural universalities, developing the culture of evaluation, developing the skills of shifting perspective, considering the problem of the stereotypes’ truth or falsity, their functions, and the role in communication. At the end of the phase the students achieve the stage of Minimization of differences. The final phase of the technology – the ethnorelativizing one – is focused on the recognition of relativism of cultures, cultural values, and national stereotypes. It includes studying the theses of cultural relativism, developing perceptive ability to keep a double perspective, developing compensating skills, skills of self-regulation, and of stereotype suspending. The ethnorelativizing phase ends with achieving the stage of Acceptance of differences and moving to the stage of Adaptation to them.

Keywords: national (ethnic) stereotype; relativization of stereotypes; intercultural competence; developmental model of intercultural sensitivity.

National (ethnic) stereotypes are one of the most important factors of intercultural communication. They are stable images or conceptions which one nation has of the others (out-group stereotypes, for example the Germans value order) or of itself (in-group stereotypes, for example the Russians trust to luck). Stereotypes influence the whole process of intercultural intercourse: beginning with the perception of an out-group partner, his words...
and actions, and up to programming one’s own conduct. The influence of national stereotypes can be positive or negative. In one case stereotypes can be more adequate and help the communicator to orient himself to the situation, to predict its development, to understand what is going on, in other case stereotypes can be absolutely wrong and distort communicative process causing misunderstanding, mistakes, conflicts, and even total refusal to communicate. In spite of the important role of stereotypes in communication they are neglected in teaching foreign languages. The stereotypes of the students which were formed during their socialization and education and the problem of stereotypes’ activation in intercultural context often remain unconscious for the students and for the teachers. But efficient intercultural communication is hardly possible without taking this factor into consideration.

Another educational problem connected with the attempts to introduce the issue of national stereotypes into teaching foreign languages is setting incorrect teaching goals, such as intention to destroy, to eliminate, to overcome, to erase, to extirpate stereotypes. These goals are unrealistic, unreasonable, and inconsistent. You can’t destroy a stereotype because a new one immediately appears at the same place. The attempts to suppress stereotyping lead to the opposite effect and enhance stereotypes. Besides that stereotyping is a natural mechanism of human thinking, without it normal information processing and social interaction are impossible. That is why the educational goals mentioned above can’t be accepted. There is a need of defining a new vector to solve this pedagogical problem.

To my mind this vector must be relativization of national stereotypes in teaching foreign languages. Before grounding this goal it should be mentioned that the term “relativization” (from lat. relativus – relative) was used in Russian science mainly in mathematics, cybernetics, logics, linguistics to define different phenomena of relativity. Much more often this term is used abroad. In this study relativization is defined quite broadly and is considered to be the goal of working on stereotypes, the process of its achieving and the final result. As educational goal relativization of stereotypes means realization, acceptance of stereotypes’ relativity and taking it into account in intercultural communication. So there are three levels of the planned result – a cognitive, an affective, and a behavioral one. The stereotypes’ relativity lies in their dependence: on the context of activation – whether they are activated relating a group or a separate individual; on the grade of their truth or falsity in a concrete communicative situation; on their affective component – whether it is positive or negative; on the subject of stereotyping – whether the stereotypes are cultural or individual conceptions; on their role in communication – whether it is positive (constructive) or negative (destructive).

The technology of national stereotypes’ relativization is methodologically based on the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS),
created by M. Bennett and his colleagues [1-5]. The main advantage of this model is the clear direction in solving intercultural problems: the move from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism. Bennett uses the term “ethnocentrism” to refer to the experience of one’s own culture as central to reality. “Ethnorelativism” is used by Bennett as the opposite of ethnocentrism. This is an experience of one’s own beliefs and behaviors as just one organization of reality among many viable possibilities. Bennett points out six stages in the continuum from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism: three ethnocentric stages (Denial, Polarization, Minimization of cultural difference) and three ethnorelative ones (Acceptance, Adaptation, Integration). The distinguishing mark of each stage is the kind of the individual’s experience of cultural differences and his / her attitude towards them.

The move from one stage of intercultural sensitivity to the next one is accompanied by the transformation of the stereotype system: from the most polarized to relativized images, which are becoming conscious in the context of general cultural values’ relativity. So relativization does not mean destroying the students’ stereotypes. The system of stereotypes changes because of their explication and realization of their relativity. Parallel to the process of stereotypes’ relativization ethnorelativism is being developed upgrading the students’ intercultural competence.

The technology of national stereotypes’ relativization will be represented in the context of teaching German as a main subject. This technology was implemented in a series of textbooks [6, 7]. The work on national stereotypes consists of three phases: ethnodifferentiating, ethnointegrating, and ethnorelativizing ones. Each phase will be described as follows.

I. Ethnodifferentiating phase

The main goal of this phase is realization of national stereotypes as manifestations of cultural specificity. National stereotypes are taken into consideration as images representing cultural differences and reflecting cultural values. During the whole phase students are exposed to cultural differences and deal with them, that develops their interest to the differences and forms the students’ endurance of them. Due to the growing awareness of cultural diversity on the planet and of its value the worldview of cultural pluralism can be formed as a foundation for developing intercultural competence. Another goal of this phase is developing critical thinking and sensitivity to explicit stereotypes.

Before starting teaching some entering tests should be done. The first direction of diagnostics measures the students’ knowledge about national stereotypes and appropriate skills they already have in this sphere. This can be done with the help of specially developed achievement tests: receptive, analytical, and communicative compensating ones. The second direction of
diagnostics measures the level of ethnocentrism / ethnorelativism in the students’ ethnic attitudes. To do this several ethnopyschological techniques can be used: semantic differential of Ch. Osgood [8: 193-196], social distance scale of E. Bogardus [8: 177-179], free associative description, national peculiarities test [9: 213-214], self-attitudes test of M. Kuhn and T. McPartland [8: 173-175], ethnocentrism / ethnorelativism questionnaire based on the publications of M. Bennett [1–3], J. Bennett [4], and M.R. Hammer [5]. The results of the entering diagnostics should be used later for comparing them with the final learning achievements and demonstrating the dynamics of the stereotypes’ relativization to the students.

The first teaching step of the ethnodifferentiating phase is an introduction to the problem of national stereotypes in the intercultural context. The goal of the introduction is to arouse interest in the problem, to promote realization of stereotypes as generalizing phenomena and of their universal nature. The introduction should be practical, and the introductive exercises should be based on real life examples. These could be tasks to define nationalities of people shown in the pictures or described verbally. Accomplishing the tasks one can’t but notice rapidity and uniformity of the answers while guessing nationalities. In that way it can be vividly shown that everybody has stereotyped conceptions. After that students can be asked to answer the question: “Where do these stereotyped conceptions come from to our minds?”. As a result of this discussion students will realize that stereotypes are acquired by individuals while their socialization process, like any other social information.

The next step is building up a notional base as a theoretical foundation for considering stereotypes during the whole course. The students are suppose to study the key notions of the stereotype theory, such as stereotype, national / ethnic stereotype, prejudice, stereotypes’ structure, features, types, sources, and mechanisms of their building. These notions can be acquired with the help of the explanation-and-illustration method while working on scientific literature and doing exercises on developing critical thinking. Some elements of the research method can also be used for theoretical analysis and summarizing literary sources. To develop critical thinking of the students the teacher should give them not one largely accepted definition of a certain notion, but many different definitions reflecting different positions of the researchers. The students should critically analyze those definitions, point out their key words and make up their own definition. There are a lot of theoretical materials at this phase, which is why the technology of team teaching is one of the best to be used here. This technology supposes that every student individually studies a part of the material to be acquired and then teaches it to all the small group mates switching from being a teacher to being a student and back. The information about the history of the stereotype research can be efficiently studied with the help of the problem method
where the teacher tells the students about the ways that the researchers chose to solve different problems doing research on stereotypes.

All theoretical notions should be acquired practically, in context. This is an important feature of the developed relativization technology. For example, to realize the flexibility of the stereotype’s affective component students are asked to find a positive or a neutral equivalent for negative stereotype labels: *wasteful* – *generous*, *hot-tempered* – *energetic* and so on. The practical contexts of this exercise are essays and interviews of the students who have been to Germany. These materials show the changes in the affective component of the students’ stereotypes which occurred after the trip, for example “*the Germans are greedy – the Germans are economical*”.

Working on different stereotype classifications should also be practical. The following task can be an example of such work. The students are given many cards with verbal expressions of different stereotypes: “*All the functionaries are corrupt*”, “*The elder people like classical music*”, “*The Finnish are terse*”. The students are to classify these stereotypes according to the object of stereotyping. In this way the students acquire different kinds of stereotypes: gender, age, professional stereotypes and others. This is an example of implementing the principal of a broad social context. Students realize that national stereotypes are only one kind of many different stereotypes. They can add their own examples of other stereotype kinds and expand the classification completing it with stereotypes about sexual minorities, corpulent people, the disabled or other social groups.

Having built up a notional base, we can proceed to the next technological step focusing on stereotypes’ detection and realization. Individual and cultural national stereotypes spread in Russia and other countries will be taken into consideration. This phase has an empirical research character. At the beginning students’ knowledge about different research methods should be activated. It can be brain storming where students suggest different techniques to research stereotypes. After that they do practical research work. All the techniques are acquired by the students while they experience them first as respondents and then as researchers. So the students learn such research methods as associative experiment, questionnaire, content analysis, document analysis, psychosemantic, and graphical methods. Then they do their own research on national stereotypes of a certain group working out necessary materials and summarizing the results.

As teaching experience shows, students react very emotionally when they get to know stereotypes about Russians. Many of these stereotypes are quite negative and the students are often surprised, embarrassed or even feel insulted. So there is a great need to develop a tolerant attitude to the stereotypes spread in different countries and to promote realization of the necessity to accept their existence as reality. The students don’t have to agree with them, they just should take into consideration the possible activation of these stereotypes while communicating with foreigners. It might be profitable to
look for the explanations of why the image of Russia and the Russians is like that in Germany or in other countries.

Besides the research tasks there are a lot of exercises to develop perceptional skills, the sensitivity to stereotypes’ activation in particular. At this phase the work should be focused on the explicit stereotypes’ representation. Doing these exercises students realize peculiarities of stereotypes’ activation in different contexts. Different kinds of texts can be used as teaching materials: printed texts (newspapers, magazines, literature, travelers’ notes), audio texts (interviews with foreigners who visited certain countries), video films showing the every day life of the native speakers. The students can be asked to detect stereotypes in these materials and say what the means of their expression are.

Reflexive exercises also play a very important role at this phase, exercises on identification and explication of one’s own stereotypes in particular. The students gather their answers, notes, drawings which they made being respondents while testing different research techniques, then they compare them and present their own image of German and Russian people. For a better differentiation of cultural and individual stereotypes students have to do exercises on comparing their own stereotypes with those spread in Russia. Afterwards the students are suggested to consider the emotional component of their stereotypes, to detect what kind of labels they use, and to think about the possibility of replacing them by neutral or more positive labels.

The final step of the ethnodifferentiating phase is working on the stereotypes’ formation. The aim is to realize historical genesis of any stereotyped conception and the existence of many social agents which influenced its formation. The exercises are focused on developing hypotheses about some stereotypes’ origin based on historical data, on analyzing its possible sources, on realizing the main role of the language in its formation. For example there can be tasks to match an ethnopolism (a slighting name of an ethnic group) and an ethnonym, to explain the origin of an ethnopolism (Iwans – Germ. Russians, Iwan – a common male name in Russia; Makkaroni – Germ. Italians; macaroni – a famous Italian dish). There is another language tool to form and transport stereotypes – idioms and proverbs with national or geographical components, for example Dutch courage, Chinese compliment, Greek gift. The students are supposed to detect stereotypes formed by these idioms. After that they can discuss the permissibility and the extent to which these idioms and proverbs have spread in Russia, Germany, and other countries.

At the end some reflexive exercises should be done, they focus on realization of the students’ stereotypes and analysis of their possible sources. Some students have relatives or acquaintances who visited Germany, their descriptions and stories might have influenced the image of the country and its people. Some students learned German at school, some of them liked to
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watch films about World War II, and so on. Discussing all those questions the students realize the uniqueness or the typicalness of their situation concerning the factors which influenced their own stereotypes. The task to differentiate the primary and the secondary sources of ethnocultural information seems to be very useful. Many students of elder semesters have already had their own experiences with Germans and have visited Germany, so they can analyze the influence of the first-hand communication on their stereotypes and compare it with the influence of the secondary sources.

To develop flexibility, productivity, and independence of the knowledge and skills gained at the ethnodifferentiating phase the teacher has to organize creative activities where the students can use the acquired stuff in new situations. One of the directions of creative activities can be different art technologies which demonstrate creative interpretations of national stereotypes in general and the content of some specific stereotyped images. For example students can create products of different arts: drawings of a “typical representative” of a certain nation, symbolic maps of different countries, computer presentations, video films, comics, poems, short stories, dramatizations about stereotypes, etc.

Another direction of creative activities at the ethnodifferentiating phase is doing research on national or ethnic stereotypes in a new ethnopsychological context – not in the context of intercultural communication between Russians and Germans any more, but between other national or cultural groups (Russians and Buryats, Caucasians, Chinese, etc.). This work will be especially efficient and useful when done in the context of a cultural diversity of the region. As teaching practice shows, studying national and ethnic stereotypes at a regional level students come across not only positive examples of forming national images but also different problems connected with negative stereotypes, prejudices, tensions in interethnic relations. All of these problems shouldn’t be ignored or embellished. Dealing with interethnic problems may increase emotional tension which might be quite strong even before that. It can be caused by the immersion into cultural differences at the ethnodifferentiating phase. This increasing tension is to be considered as a favorable circumstance which is necessary to develop tolerance to differences. Tolerance can be developed only if the differences are big and evident enough, if there is a necessity to overcome negative emotions caused by them.

The ethnodifferentiating phase is an opening one in the stereotypes’ relativization technology, which is why the goals of the phase are not very ambitious in developing intercultural sensitivity. The target stage of intercultural competence at this phase is Polarization, the second one after Denial cultural of differences. As diagnostics show, most students beginning the course are at this very stage. Many of them are at Reversal as a variation on Polarization, where German culture is experienced as superior to Russian culture. Reversal is common among the students who study German as their
first foreign language and have visited Germany. The ethnodifferentiating phase does not assume going further than Polarization, but it prepares the move to the next stage of intercultural competence. At this phase students compare in-group and out-group stereotypes, so they can see examples of ethnocentrism in their own conceptions inclusively. Realizing ethnocentrism as a problem is the first step to solving it. That builds up conditions for the move to the next phase of stereotypes’ relativization.

II. Ethnointegrating phase

The orientation of this phase is the opposite of the previous one. It focuses not on the differences but on the common issues uniting cultures and people. The common base should be built in spite of the differences found before by overcoming resistance of the differences. Overcoming these difficulties leads to the development of the students’ intercultural competence. This logic goes with natural intercultural communicative processes where, after identifying a partner as an “alien” and activating conceptions of his differences from the in-group, people start looking for a common platform to communicate and to cooperate. Another aspect of dealing with the commonality is decreasing of psychological tension caused by intensive work on cultural differences at the previous phase.

An important feature of this phase is shifting the focus from national and cultural communities as big social groups to an individual as a unique person. National and cultural differences are neither denied nor eliminated, but they are moved to the background. To the front comes a Person and its Individuality. The main goal is to form a dominant of a factor evaluation [10], which means evaluating a person as it is, as personality, not as a representative of a group. Focusing on common human problems builds up a context for formation of a humaneness worldview, for realizing the value of a human and human culture, for developing empathy.

National stereotypes are seen in a new way, taking a new perspective. While the ethnodifferentiating phase dealt with stereotypes as social phenomena at the most generalized level, the ethnointegrating phase deals with stereotypes as perceptional frameworks in concrete situations with certain communicative partners. There is a shift from the abstract level to the concrete one. Thanks to that students can recognize the stereotypes’ ambivalence, their ambiguity, possible prevalence of a true or false content in them, their possible positive or negative influence on communication. To promote the recognition of these aspects, critical thinking and sensitivity to the implicit stereotypes must be developed. These are supplemental goals of the ethnointegrating phase.

The first step of the ethnointegrating phase is realization of cultural universalities. A rather large scale of cultural universalities to describe value
orientations of a concrete culture can be found in the work of G.V. Elizarova [11: 30-41]. These universalities are relations to nature, time, space, work, communication, etc. Each universal issue is not a strict opposition of two mutually exclusive variants, but a continuum of relations stretching from one pole to the other, for instance, relation to nature – humans control nature vs. depend on it; relation to time – time is limited and irreversible vs. time is unlimited and inexhaustible. The specifics of each culture can correspond with any point of this continuum, not only with its poles. The students can be asked to match the stereotyped features of Germans and Russians studied at the previous stage and the scale of cultural universalities. For example, such features as punctuality, good organization, and orderliness of Germans correspond with the value of controlling nature and circumstances and the monochronic time in German culture. Time is understood as a limited source and a great value in this culture, so it is very important to act according to agreed plans, not to be late, keep one’s word. In this way students can take into consideration all the other in-group and out-group stereotypes of Russians and Germans. This kind of work promotes recognition of the fact that stereotypes are grounded in reality and depend on cultural values.

Working on cultural universalities can be continued by studying European culture as a culture uniting Russian and German cultures. Different points of view on this issue can be presented and discussed at this phase. It is also useful to study the history of mutual cultural influences and contemporary European values which build up a common platform for the Russian-and-German dialogue of cultures.

Besides working on European values and comparing cultures with a scale of cultural universalities, it can also be very efficient to consider universalities of human existence in the context of commonality. These are spheres of life and elementary situations which are familiar to all people regardless of their cultural identity. G. Neuner [12] gives a list of such universalities remarking that it is incomplete and abstract: main issues of living, personal identification, social identification in private and social life, human relations, etc. The list of the universalities can be used as a reference for selecting teaching materials focused on cultural commonality. It is advisable to select situations and texts reflecting every day life of German students, their problems, and interests. In this case literary texts are especially efficient, for instance, short stories on different topics. Due to their emotional impact and identification with characters, situations, and ideas, literary texts give the reader an opportunity to see the every day life of contemporary Germans, their values, attitudes, and acute problems from their own point of view. It allows the reader to realize the fact that the Germans are just people to whom “nothing human is alien”, that they come across different problems in their lives. While discussing the stories the students’ attention should be focused on the primary factor evaluation of the characters, of their human
qualities. The criterion, evaluation of people as group representatives, plays a secondary role at this phase. Some very important perceptional skills, the skills of shifting perspective in particular, are also developed during this work on texts.

The next methodological step of the ethnointegrating phase is focused on the recognition of the stereotypes’ ambivalence. One of the directions of this work is considering the problem of the stereotypes’ truth or falsity. The following issues are the key notions of the phase: stereotypes’ verification, sociotype, in-group stereotype, out-group stereotype, the kernel-of-truth hypothesis, the contact hypothesis, stereotypes’ truth criteria, deep stereotype, interethnic conflict, image of enemy, basic personality, modal personality, national character, mentality. The problem of the stereotypes’ truth or falsity should be considered in a situational context. Students are suggested to evaluate the known stereotypes as true or false and to discuss this in groups. After discussing, the students resume addressing whether their opinions were the same or different, what kind of arguments were used. Then the students can proceed to studying the evolution of the researchers’ opinions on the problem of the stereotypes’ truth or falsity and the contemporary condition of the problem.

After considering the problem in general, students have to study the stereotypes’ truth criteria described in scientific literature. The students can be asked to apply those criteria to the known stereotypes. To do that they have to compare the in-group stereotypes of a certain people with the out-group stereotypes about it (criterion 1), to compare the out-group stereotypes of different peoples (criterion 2), to analyze the history of the inter-group relations of certain peoples (criterion 3), to define the extent to which certain stereotyped conceptions have spread (the uniformity criterion), to follow the changes of stereotypes taking place in history (the depth criterion). Then they have to range the stereotypes according to the degree of their truth or falsity and to discuss the results.

The next step is considering the problem of stereotypes’ truth or falsity in various communicative contexts. The exercises of this phase are focused on developing students’ analytical skills. They learn to analyze situations concerning the truth or falsity of a concrete stereotype and to doubt stereotypes when applying them to a certain person. The students are asked to detect a stereotype activated in a certain situation and to define the degree of its truth or falsity in this context from their own point of view and from that of the participants.

Practical analytical work on situations leads to the next stage which deals with the functions of stereotypes and their role in communication. The goal of this stage is to realize the ambivalence of the functions and the influence of stereotypes on communication. The logic of the stage is the same as that of the previous: it goes from acquiring theoretical knowledge as orienta-
tion base for activities to its practical implementation. There are series of exercises to achieve this. First of all, these are *perceptual* exercises focused on developing sensitivity to implicit stereotypes’ representation. There are also *analytical* exercises at this stage. They develop the students’ abilities to analyze communicative problems caused by stereotypes and to detect the reasons of failures. Perceptual and analytical exercises are based on situations depicting real life or taken from the literature. Besides that, there are series of *reflexive* exercises focused on analysis of the stereotypes’ influence on one’s own intercultural experiences. It is important that the students reflecting their experiences realize themselves both as subjects and objects of stereotyping.

It is advisable to dramatize different communicative situations so that the students may act out various alternatives to solve communicative problems. It’s more efficient to first do individual analysis of situations, to write down the conclusions, and then to dramatize them. This technique can help to form the discipline of judgments [10], which is the ability not to express one’s own judgments outwardly, but to keep them unseen, unexpressed. After dramatizing, the students can reflect and compare their inner judgments with the outer conduct in the situation. This is how the students gain knowledge about the special functions of the stereotypes in mono- and intercultural communication, about their possible positive and negative role. So the stereotypes are getting more and more relativistic due to the deeper understanding of their ambivalence.

The acquired knowledge and skills are to be implemented in creative activities. At the ethnointegrating phase this should be done in non-standard situations. The whole work of this phase will bring the students to the Minimization stage. Having realized the inhomogeneity of human cultures and the ambivalence of stereotypes at this stage, students may tend to deny such categories as Russians, Germans, Englishmen and so on, tend to deny stereotypes and to have a negative attitude toward them. These tendencies are to be accepted calmly because they are indications of the Minimization stage. However it is important not to let students remain at this stage, but to help them to move further and to develop a more useful approach – a neutral approach to the cultural differences and to the stereotypes reflecting these differences.

Minimization is a very important stage of developing intercultural competence but it still remains an ethnocentric one. Ethnocentrism of this stage is more flexible and softer than that of the Polarization stage. At the ethnointegrating phase many elements of one’s own culture are experienced as common for different nations. This may cause an ethnocentric tendency to perceive one’s own culture as universal. To relativize this position you have to refer to cultural differences one more time but in a new way, on a new turn of the spiral of developing ethnorelativism. There is a need of a deep
cultural self-awareness, of recognition of one’s own thinking and conduct as influenced by one’s own culture. It helps you to see your own culture as one of many equal cultures where each culture is special and not universal. The universalism needs to be resolved to move to the ethnorelative stages and to the final phase of the stereotypes’ relativization technology.

III. Ethnorelativizing phase

This phase is focused on the recognition of relativism of cultures, cultural values, and national stereotypes. The essence of the phase is dialectic uniting of cultural similarities and differences, both of which are needed to sustain intercultural dialogue. The main goal of the phase is ethnorelative worldview based on a deep recognition of one’s own culture experienced as just one of a number of possible organizations of reality. Cultures are considered to be fundamentally equal, inhomogeneous, dynamic, built up in relation to each other. An important task of this phase is the recognition of cultural conditionality of one’s own beliefs, judgments, and actions. Each student has to realize himself a person formed by his own culture.

The ethnorelativizing phase is also focused on developing the students as subjects of cultural dialogue. There is a transition from pragmatic purposes of efficient intercultural communication to a higher spiritual level of personal development and enrichment through the dialogue of cultures. Educational process is focused on encouraging the students to enlarge their intercultural contacts, to interact with differences, to see them as a precious opportunity to exceed the framework of one’s own culture, to expand their worldview, and to enrich themselves as personalities. Due to the conscious perception of cultural similarities and differences students recognize all the aspects of stereotypes’ relativity.

The first methodological step of the ethnorelativizing phase is working on the main theses of cultural relativism, including Relativistic Nation Theory [13] and Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity [1]. Students study different publications on this topic and present them in small groups. This work is based on the technology of team teaching. After that the teacher organizes a discussion, where the students debate different points of view on the notions and theses studied before. Then they try to build up correlations between the notions. For instance, it is advisable to consider ethnorelativism in its relation to ethnocentrism and the functions of stereotypes. The students are asked to answer the following questions: “What functions of the stereotypes are related to ethnocentrism? What kinds of consequences do ethnocentrism and ethnorelativism have for one’s own group and for intercultural communication? What position is more productive for intercultural communication? How do you evaluate ethnocentrism and ethnorelativism: as something positive, negative or neutral?” To create a practical con-
text for this work you can use the results of the entering tests done at the beginning of the course. The students are supposed to detect the level of ethnocentrism in their ethnic attitudes and their distance to other groups.

The following work is focused on analysis of communicative situations whose basics students have already acquired at previous phases. At this phase analytical skills are developed at advanced level. One of these skills is a perceptive ability to keep a double perspective, which means to perceive the situation from two points of view – that of one’s own and that of the other culture, to exceed the framework of the native culture without losing the initial cultural identity. This perspective change allows moving to a higher level of communication, to the level of cultural dialogue where both cultures are equal and mutually enrich each other. Shifting perspectives students realize themselves as representatives of their own culture, recognize cultural conditionality of their interpretations and of interpretations of foreign communicative partners. At the end of the situational analysis the students are suggested to decide how to act in this situation, which strategy of conduct to choose – a native or a foreign one, whether to explain their point of view to a foreign partner or not.

The next step is developing reflexive skills of self-regulation and of stereotype suspending. The skills can also be developed in a communicative situational context. The essence of these skills is the ability to suspend an activated stereotype and to check its adequacy in the current situation, the ability to delay the uncritical usage of stereotypes. To develop these skills the teacher can use rather large passages from films or literature interrupting their demonstration / reading in order to switch on the mechanism of stereotype suspending. During the pause the students can share their opinions about the stereotypes activated in this situation. Then they continue watching the film or reading the text, so they can see whether their conclusions were right or wrong.

Developing compensatory communicative skills is the next step of the ethnorelativizing phase. These skills are needed if stereotypes have caused a communicative failure. To the compensatory skills belong the following: the ability to discuss the stereotypes of both cultures, to explain implicit stereotypes to a partner if necessary, to define the nuances, to find the necessary information in appropriate sources, to get the feedback, to achieve mutual understanding in spite of any disturbance, to explain one’s own opinion and peculiarities of one’s own culture. Working on these skills the students develop their readiness and ability to overcome difficulties of intercultural communication.

The ethnorelativizing phase continues with creative project work. Working on projects should be done in small groups. These should be research projects. The methodological goal of the project work is to summarize the stuff studied before and to use it in the research context. The topics
of the projects done by the students in the years of implementing the represented technology were various: “The image of Germans in Russian films about World War II”; “Stereotypes of Germans in Russian advertisements”; “The image of Russians and Russia in Japanese comics”; “The image of the French in Russian jokes”; “national stereotypes in British advertisements”; and others. After presenting the results of the project students are asked to create problem situations or cases where the researched stereotypes are activated. Other project groups are supposed to solve the problem of the case.

At the end of the ethnorelativizing phase the students have to sum up the results of the whole course. They have to do some tests which diagnose the quality of the content acquisition and the level of ethnocentrism / ethnorelativism of each student. The diagnostics can be done with the help of the same techniques as at the beginning (see the first step of the technology). The results should be announced to the students. After that the students are given some creative tasks to reflect upon the results and to compare the studied materials with personal experiences in intercultural communication. The tasks can be done in different forms: essays, poems, posters, dramatizations, letters to the teacher, to a foreign friend, and so on.

The minimal sufficient educational result by the end of the ethnorelativizing phase is achieving the stage of Acceptance of cultural differences. Peculiar features of the stage are the following: high interest in differences; experience of culture as a context; recognition of stereotypes’ relativity; critical attitude toward one’s own stereotypes; and tolerant attitude to the stereotypes of the partners in intercultural communication. A more advanced result of implementing the relativization technology is the stage of Adaptation to cultural difference. The issue that needs to be resolved to move to this stage is the recognition of values’ relativity and of the fact that human perception and conduct depend on these values. To my mind it is possible only to start working on this stage during the educational process, but not to finish it, because to form the behavioral level of Adaptation, one needs a lot of communication practice with representatives of other cultures, which is not always possible to acquire outside the country of the language studied.

So we considered all the components of the stereotypes’ relativization technology such as the goals, the content, the progression of actions, the complex of exercises, and the planned results of each phase of educational process. The presented technology was approved in experimental empirical work at Zabaikalsky State University in 2010-2013. Pedagogical diagnostics were focused on measuring the following parameters: the complex indicator of acquisition of knowledge and skills which belong to the content of teaching stereotypes’ relativization; the complex indicators of ethnocentrism, and that of ethnorelativism. The technological efficiency was assessed by comparing the results of the appropriate tests before and after experimental teaching with the help of mathematical statistical methods. The results
proved the efficiency of the developed technology in relativization of national stereotypes, reduction of ethnocentrism, increasing ethnorelativism and intercultural competence in general.

**Literature**

THE DEVELOPMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHER'S COMPETENCE IN USING INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES

P.V. Sysoyev, M.N. Evstigneev

Moscow State Humanitarian University named after M.A. Sholokhov (Moscow, Russian Federation), Tambov State University named after G.R. Derzhavin (Tambov, Russian Federation)
E-mail: psysoyev@yandex.ru; maximevstigneev@yahoo.com

Abstract. This paper addresses the issue of foreign language teachers' ICT competence development. The author (a) states the importance of the problem; (b) defines terms “ICT competence” and “ICT competency” of foreign language teachers; (c) suggests components and content of ICT competency of foreign language teachers; (d) develops criteria, indicators, and levels of ICT competence of foreign language teachers.

Keywords: ICT competence; ICT competency; informational competence; structure of foreign language teacher's ICT competence; components and content of foreign language teacher's ICT competency; criteria and indicators; levels of ICT competence of foreign language teachers.

Nowadays computerization is one of the dominant trends in the development of the modern society. The rapid development and spread of Internet technologies in Russia has been reflected in the state education policy. The informatization of education has become one of the priorities of modernization of Russian educational system, and has aimed at developing a methodology, technologies, methods and organizational forms of education to improve the educational system control mechanisms in today's informational society [1-5]. Over the past 5-10 years such Federal programs as Electronic Russia, Computerization of rural schools, Computer in every school were implemented in Russia. Their aim was the computerization of general secondary, special and higher education, in particular the creation of the information and education environment where pupils and students could intensively use information and communication technologies (ICT) in the educational process.

However, the incompetence of high school teachers to use the entire didactic potential of modern ICT hinders the process of informatization of education in general, and the intensification of teaching specific subjects in particular. It should be noted that at present in the pedagogical literature the properties and methodical didactic functions of many common Internet technologies are described (blogs, wikis, podcasts, concordances, educational Internet resources, Internet reference resources, etc.) [5-7]. Depending on the discipline, given its specific set of ICT and the extent of their use in the educational process may vary. It is necessary to consider the use of specific ICT techniques exclusively within specific subjects, as the same tool can be used to develop different skills and competences and in different forms, depending on the learning objectives (within a particular subject).

Foreign language is one of the required subjects in all curricula (bachelor's degree). One of the main goals of foreign language teaching in high school is to develop students' foreign language communicative competence in all its manifold
components (linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, sociocultural, strategic), needed for students to communicate in social and professional areas. That is why the use of ICT in foreign language learning will be focused on the development of verbal skills (reading, speaking, writing, listening), language skills (vocabulary, phonetics, grammar) and the formation of socio-cultural and intercultural competences, and ICT competence of foreign language teachers is the ability to use the entire arsenal of ICT in learning a foreign language aspects and kinds of verbal activity [4, 7].

The key concepts in this paper are the terms “competence” and “competency”. According to A.V. Khutorskoy under the competency we mean “a set of interrelated personality traits (motivation, knowledge, skills, ways of working), defined with respect to a particular range of subjects and processes necessary for high-quality and productive activities in relation to them”. And the competence is “a possession of a certain competency by a qualified person, including his personal attitude to it and to the subject of activity” [8]. In other words, competence is the level(s) of formation of competency as a theoretical construct.

Thus, under the ICT competency of the foreign language teacher we understand a construct consisting of theoretical knowledge of modern information and communication technologies and practical skills to create and use Web-based educational resources, Web 2.0 social networks and other ICT in the process of the development of students’ language and verbal skills in learning language and culture of the target country [9, 10].

Moreover, it should be noted that in recent years there are a number of studies in which scholars revealed methodological potential of Internet training resources and social services and online services of the new generation of Web 2.0 in the development of language skills and verbal abilities of students to develop their intercultural and foreign language communicative competences. Taking into account the results of these studies, we suggest a list of components of foreign language teacher's ICT competency (table 1).

<table>
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<th>Table 1</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>The components of foreign language teacher's ICT competency</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Knowledge of</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>– the basics of students' information security in the implementation of Internet projects [11];</td>
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<tr>
<td>– the major search engines and the general rules of search and selection of information in a foreign language in the Internet for academic purposes [12];</td>
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<tr>
<td>– criteria for evaluation and selection of information obtained from the Internet in a foreign language for teaching purposes [Ibid];</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– structure of five types of author's educational Internet resources (in a foreign language and about L2 culture) (Hotlist, Multimedia Scrapbook, Subject Sampler, Treasure Hunt, WebQuest) and their teaching potential [Ibid];</td>
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<tr>
<td>– types of synchronous and asynchronous Internet communication used in learning a</td>
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The specific use of this components of foreign language teacher's ICT competency lies in its knowledge and ability to form certain language skills and develop students' verbal skills on the basis of a certain technology. In particular, the ability to use blogs in teaching can be a universal skill, which is a part of the specialists' ICT competency in various disciplines. However, the ability to develop specific writing skills based on a particular type of blogs is already a hallmark of foreign language teacher's ICT competency.

It should be noted that ICT competency is not static, but dynamic construct that is in constant progress under the influence of technical progress and the development of methods of foreign language teaching. Components of foreign language teacher's ICT competency proposed in this paper, with the development of information and communication technologies will inevitably undergo objective changes, and go to the next level of educational opportunities.

Under the foreign language teacher's ICT competence we mean the ability to use Web-based educational resources, Web 2.0 social networks and other information and communication technologies in order to create the language skills and to develop students' verbal abilities in learning foreign language and culture.

Structurally, the foreign language teacher's ICT competence includes the following five interrelated components: value-motivational, cognitive, operational, communicative and reflective components. The value-motivational component involves awareness of the importance and necessity of using ICT in teaching, taking the initiative in the use of ICTs to achieve educational and professional goals, self-improvement in the use of new ICT while learning a foreign language. The cognitive component is characterized by the presence of certain knowledge of how to use a range of modern ICT in learning a foreign language and culture of the target language. The operational component is determined by the implementation of knowledge into practice in the foreign language teaching. The communicative component involves the ability of the teacher to share their knowledge and skills, and to discuss with colleagues the experience of using ICT in the foreign language teaching. The essence of reflective component is the ability of the teacher to carry out
The development of foreign language teacher's competence

self-esteem and self-awareness of his or her activities on the use of ICT in the educational process for continuous improvement of innovative methods [7, 10].

The problem of measuring ICT competence of the teacher is related to the question of defining criteria-attributes on which adequate assessment can be made in this type of ownership competence. In the academic literature, there are requirements for the allocation and justification of criteria: 1) the criteria should reflect the basic laws of identity formation and dynamics of ICT competence; 2) using the criteria should be established between all components of the system studied (ICT competence structure); 3) the criteria should be revealed through a collection of qualitative features – indicators on which to judge a greater or lesser degree of this criterion; 4) the need for definitions of indicators and levels of their display; 5) the system must meet the criteria of sufficiency condition for correct fixing qualitative certainty state ICT competence of the teacher (ICT competence levels).

The criteria and indicators of formation of foreign language teacher's ICT competence, based on the components of ICT competence, are presented in table 2 [7].

<table>
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<tr>
<th>ICT component</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Indicators</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value-motivational</td>
<td>Teacher's awareness of needs and interest and motivation formation to use ICT in their professional activities</td>
<td>Awareness of the importance of using ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Activity in the use of ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Theoretical knowledge of the use of ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
<td>Representations of modern ICT</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Formation of theoretical knowledge of the use of ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operational</td>
<td>Ability to choose and use modern ICT in teaching</td>
<td>Use of modern ICTs to achieve professional goals</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Organization of foreign language teaching through ICT</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Creativity in solving professional activities through ICT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative</td>
<td>Professional activity in receiving and disseminating among teacher's colleagues the existing knowledge and experience in the use of ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
<td>Study experience of colleagues in the use of ICT in foreign language teaching (self-education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in the discussion and dissemination of methodological building their own experience of foreign language teaching through ICT with colleagues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflexive</td>
<td>Evaluation and self-evaluation</td>
<td>Implementation teacher self-ownership methods of using ICT in foreign language teaching</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Implementation of teacher assessing the effectiveness of the methodology of foreign language teaching through ICT in a particular class</td>
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Due to the fact that competence is a tier category defining specialist's ownership of relevant competency, including his / her personal attitude to it and an activi-
ty, foreign language teacher's ICT competence levels can be distinguished. It should be emphasized that in psychological and pedagogical literature according to the allocation of competence levels, researchers traditionally divide competence into three levels: low, medium and high. However, the division of possible qualitative characteristics of the personality into three groups, in many cases simply do not provide an adequate picture of competence formation. In particular, experts who have some skills refer to the lowest level of competence formation, along with those who do not own any knowledge in this area. Therefore, we can identify not three but five levels of foreign language teacher's ICT competence formation that clearly show the qualitative stage of the development of foreign language teacher's professional competence in the field of ICT.

In order to verify the effectiveness of the proposed components of the foreign language teacher's ICT competence the experiment retraining 72 hour course for in-service teachers was conducted. The experiment took place on the base of Sholokhov Moscow State University for Humanities, Derzhavin Tambov State University and National Research Tomsk State University. Upon completion, the majority of teachers developed ICT competence levels to 4-5 at five-point scale. The results indicate that the formation of foreign language teacher's ICT competence allows the following:

– use well-known and widely-spread Internet technologies in practice, thereby improving students' motivation to learn a foreign language;
– show a significant amount of material studied in extracurricular form of work that seems relevant in reducing hours into a foreign language teaching;
– put into teaching practice a technology of “cooperative learning”;
– develop the students' skills of independent learning through ICT activities necessary for self-education throughout life;
– teach students a foreign language on individual ICT-based trajectories, depending on their interests, needs and abilities.

**Literature**

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TEACHING RUSSIAN TO CHINESE STUDENTS-PHILOLOGISTS: GRAMMATICAL ASPECT

Yang Fang

Confucius Institute of Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russian Federation)
E-mail: mashahengyu@gmail.com

Abstract. The acquisition of the grammatical system is a necessary precondition of forming foreign language linguistic awareness. The nature of Russian and Chinese languages is completely different, so the problem of learning Russian grammar is particularly acute for the Chinese audience. To improve the skills of grammatical processing of Russian speech, it is necessary to identify functional semantic features of Russian case forms in relation to the Chinese grammatical forms in order to prevent errors caused by interference.

Keywords: grammatical system; language; consciousness; interference.

Any methodology-making requires elaboration of principles and techniques of studying. Principles of studying are the rules and directions which, when followed, make the studying process effective [1: 132]. On the basis of the principles of studying, techniques are developed which, first and foremost, include material explanation methods and exercise complexity.

Learning foreign languages has several aspects. One of them is grammar. It plays an important role in learning how to speak a different language, being a kind of framework on which vocabulary is based. Learning grammar, as well as sentences formation and spoken and written grammar forms recognition, is performed by creating grammar skills.

Grammar has a very crucial meaning in the studying process and in forming practical skills for the use of a foreign language. Apparently, no language-learning aspect has been so controversial and discussed for many years. Grammar has played unequal role not only in studies of mother tongues and foreign languages, but also in education systems of different countries [2: 4].

In the last decades of the twentieth century, the communicative aspect of learning Russian as a foreign language was acknowledged worldwide. Correlation of grammar content and the communicative aim of study is one of the main problems in the communication-oriented Russian course. Communication skills include skilful usage of the language material in producing or receiving information. However, some courses in teaching Russian lack grammar aspect, although studies in psycholinguistics, speech acts theory, cognitive psychology established that the possibility of practical language usage in communication is based on one’s ability to perform speech acts relying on speech act program knowledge, as well as language means and language material usage knowledge in realization of speech intention in differ-
ent situations. Here, grammar rules have a great significance in realization of speech creation ability of a person.

Russian language teaching experience of the Russian language faculty at Shenyang Ligong University shows that first-course students have major difficulties in acquisition of grammar. This is due to the fact that almost 90% of university-entering students did not learn Russian in primary school, thus, it is very hard for them to acquire Russian grammar. Nevertheless, we shall once again outline that grammar is an essential base for proper language usage as a means of communication.

Language skills are an important component of Russian as a foreign language study content, as it includes the ability to express an idea and understand a statement on the basis of knowledge and language means usage. Grammar skill is described as one of the speech skills, an automatic action or operation with grammar material.

It is well-known that grammar is a complicated multiplex object, a huge quantity of objects for a student to acquire, each of which requires a special method of presentation and processing. Moreover, grammar is closely connected with lexis and phonetics. So a grammar mistake is often a phonetic or lexical as well. Grammar, lexis and phonetics interconnection is taken into account in the aspectual-composite principle of work with grammar material.

From the middle of the twentieth century new methods of grammar presentation have been created to reflect practical aims of studying and to help overcome the formal approach. Functional-semantic principle is one of the most important. According to it, the material is organized “from the ideas seeking to be expressed” [3: 65] and is aimed at realization of speech intention (communication goal). This principle requires the material to be presented on the syntactical basis. The sentence construction, text unit structure scheme (in a dialogue or monologue) is usually used as this basis. The construction is filled with typical lexical-morphological content to form a speech pattern. Speech pattern filling variations stimulate automation of forms and constructions usage, as well as generalization of separate language patterns which makes a basis of a rule.

The practice of Russian language teaching to Chinese students and a few researches on this subject allow us to state that the largest quantity of systematic mistakes is made during the process of phonetic, grammatical and syntactical speech design in Russian due to linguistic and extralinguistic factors. It is mostly related to the negative influence of the mother tongue (interference), because, as it is known, Chinese and Russian languages are not genetically related and are typologically different systems. In Chinese there are no person, time, gender, number or case forms and the word order plays a significant role. The absence of a case system may act as one of the main reasons.
The inflectional nature of the whole language system and combination of inflectional forms of word-changing with prepositional forms, the complicated aspect-time verbal system, features of word-formation connections, words and sentences combinations, the word order and rhythmical-vocal design of the sentences are known to be specific features of the Russian language. These specific features are especially topical for Chinese students learning Russian. Chinese language, apart from Russian, has nominative structure and grammatically important word order, preposition of the attribute, agglutinative structure: no gender, person, case, number categories used with inflexions, no prepositions. As Tan Aoshuang states, the Chinese grammar system is “not opened” for the direct observation due to the syllable-morpheme form of its main word unit and the absence of internal inflexion [4: 72]. Furthermore, the specific grammar connection means are used in Russian and Chinese word combinations. It is not a secret that “the knowledge of grammar connection means and grammar categories usage skills are all necessary for language proficiency” [5: 77]. All this determines the complexity of studying Russian grammar by Chinese students and requires solutions to many questions on methodology leading to perfection of Russian-teaching technique in a Chinese audience.

The work on formation and perfection of the right and stable speech grammar skills, Russian case usage in particular, is more effective if performed on the basis of the two languages comparison and particular skills learning technique.

The study process not in the language environment undoubtedly has its specific features, because the formation of speech skills is only determined by a study model. The final result mostly depends on the extent to which a model contributes to an aim and helps to use a language and communication competence in real situations of communication. However, the fact that foreign language speech activity is limited by classroom, outside of which students use their mother tongue, and a teacher is usually not a native speaker, do not provide proper conditions for language and speech skills automation, and seriously affect the formation of grammar skills [6: 46]. The striking example is grammatical structure of the sentence in Russian language produced by Chinese students.

We assume that the grammar system acquisition of a foreign language is an essential precondition for language consciousness formation, as fluent speech activity can be taught only after studying the grammar features of a language. The speech norms acquisition is possible only on the basis of study-speech situation, which implies several conditions for stimulating verbal activity on a topic that includes certain grammatical means. This is especially topical for the grown-up audience, where the rational and active comparison of language features (Chinese-Russian in our case) is used in teaching grammar system. Rational-comparative analysis is not only psychologi-
cally reasonable for teaching grown-ups a foreign language, but also extremely important in teaching Russian out of the language environment, in Chinese language dominance conditions. The process of acknowledgement requires the analysis of the forms in their usage, conscious construction of phrases and sentences, understanding of language material usage rules in speech, generalization and systematization. The language system acknowledgement is especially important in a philological audience that not only has to learn, but also to further teach a language.

Thus, the urgency of the research is based on the scientists’ attention to the problem of teaching Russian as a foreign language and not sufficient amount of works concerning linguistic and methodological bases of teaching Chinese students Russian verb-noun phrases, the lack of tutorials based on this material.

For the grammatically correct speech skills perfection in Russian language, it is necessary to show functional-semantic features of Russian case forms in comparison with the Chinese grammatical forms, which will help to prevent the mistakes caused by interference and to create an exercise complex for correction and overcoming numerous wrongs appearing when Chinese students speak Russian, when they mix the meanings of different cases or meanings of one case. The exercise complex for correction is a hierarchically structured unity of definite exercise types, the amount and sequence of which is predetermined by correction’s patterns of the skills mentioned, relatively to the stages of skills’ components formation in different types of the speech activity [7: 127].

The methodology created in the research can be used in teaching Russian grammar to the Chinese students-philologists on the basis of verb-noun phrases in order to correct and then perfect productive and receptive skills in study-professional sphere when teaching the teachers-to-be. Nation-oriented model will be useful for teaching Chinese students-non-philologists as well.

**Literature**

INFORMATION ABOUT THE AUTHORS

_Gural Svetlana_ – DSs, PhD, professor, Dean of the Faculty of Foreign Languages, National Research Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: gural.svetlana@mail.ru

_Evstigneev Maxim_ – PhD, Assistant professor at the ELT Department at Derzhavin Tambov State University (Tambov, Russia).
E-mail: maximevstigneev@yahoo.com

_Zavarzina Galina_ – PhD, Associate Professor of Russian, Modern Russian and Foreign Literature Faculty of Humanities of the Voronezh State Pedagogical University (Voronezh, Russia).
E-mail: zga1311@mail.ru

_Zakharov Juliana_ – Graduate student, Department of General and Slavic-Russian Linguistics and Classical Philology, Faculty of Philology, National Research Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: ulyana.zakharova@gmail.com

_Kapranchikova Kseniya_ – senior lecturer at the Department of foreign languages and business international communication at Voronezh State Agrarian University named after Peter I (Voronezh, Russia).
E-mail: ksenialive@rambler.ru

_Kiseleva Polina_ – Senior Lecturer, Department of English Philology Faculty of Foreign Languages of Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: polinakisss@mail.ru

_Kravtsov Elizabeth_ – Graduate student, lecturer in Linguistics and Intercultural Communication Department of Linguistics, South Ural State University, Chelyabinsk (Chelyabinsk, Russia).
E-mail: ayo-tech@rambler.ru

_Kryukov Larisa_ – PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Russian Philology, National Research Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: Larisa@seversk.tomsknet.ru

_Logan Emma_ – graduate of the Department of Russian, University of Durham, UK (Durham, UK).
E-mail: emma.logan@durham.ac.uk
**Malkova Irina** – DPs, Associate Professor, Department of General and Educational Psychology Faculty of Psychology of the Tomsk-state of University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: malkovoi@yandex.ua

**Moshcheva Svetlana** – PhD, Associate Professor of Foreign Languages and Linguistics, Faculty of Humanities of the Ivanovo State University of Chemical Technology (Ivanovo, Russia).
E-mail: moshevasv@mail.ru

**Obdalova Olga** – Associate Professor, Department of English for Natural Science, Physics and Mathematics Faculties, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: O.Obdalova@mail.ru

**Pshenkina Tatiana** – DPhs, Professor, Head of the Department of Translation and Intercultural Communication, Linguistic Institute of Altai State Pedagogical Academy (Barnaul, Russia).
E-mail: t_pshenkina@hotmail.com

**Safonova Victoria** – DPs, Professor, Department of Methods of Teaching Foreign Languages, Moscow State Pedagogical University (Moscow, Russia).
E-mail: euroschool@mail.ru

**Smokotin Vladimir** – DSs, PhD, associate professor, Head of the Department of English for Natural Science, Physics and Mathematics Faculties, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: vladimirsmokotin@yandex.ru

**Sorokina Natalia** – PhD, Associate Professor of European Languages and Linguistics Faculty of Philology and Mass Communications of the Trans-Baikal State University (Chita, Russia).
E-mail: sorokinachita@mail.ru

**Sushkova Valentine** – PhD, professor, Head of Department of Foreign Literature, Institute of Philology and Journalism Tyumen State University (Tyumen, Russia).
E-mail: sushkovavn@mail.ru

**Sysoyev Pavel** – PhD, EdD, Professor, Head of ELT Department at Derzhavin Tambov State University, Professor at Foreign Language
Department at Sholokhov Moscow State University for Humanities (Tambov, Moscow, Russia).
E-mail: psysoyev@yandex.ru

Chomutov Tamara – DPhs, Professor, Head of the Department of Linguistics and Intercultural Communication Department of Linguistics, South Ural State University (Chelyabinsk, Russia).
E-mail: tnh@susu.ac.ru

Tsaregorodtseva Oksana – PhD, senior lecturer, Department of General and Slavic-Russian Linguistics and Classical Philology of Philological Faculty of Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: caregrad@yandex.ru

Yang Fang – PhD, Professor of the School of Foreign Languages, Shenyang Ligong University, Chinese Director of Confucius Institute TSU (Tomsk, Russia; Shenyang, China).
E-mail: mashahengyu@gmail.com