Language and culture

CONTENTS

LINGUISTICS

THEORY AND METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING
FOREIGN LANGUAGES

LINGUISTICS

ON CLARIFICATION OF THE TERM "LANGUAGE GAME" IN LINGUISTICS

E.B. Lebedeva

Vladivostok State University of Economics and Service (Vladivostok, Russia).
E-mail: Strelenko55@mail.ru

Abstract. The paper presents an overview of the most popular approaches to the phenomenon of "language game" in contemporary linguistics. Though the term "language game" is broadly used in today's academic publications, it has so far remained ambiguous. It is mostly correlated with the poetic function of language (the function of impact) and so a limited number of written varieties of speech restricts its functioning. The author argues that "language game" has a far greater sphere of functioning - in fact, the communicative space as a whole. Hence, "language game" should be actually considered as a self-sufficient, "gamely" function of language.
Keywords: language game; word humour; humour of situation; intentional deviations from language norms; communicative space; inventory of word-formation means; the function of impact (poetic function of language); "gamely" function of language.

In the mentality of language speakers, language game is associated with deliberate playful use of language in the broadest sense of the word, with multiform flippant misuse of words and sounds, with play based on attaching new unexpected and therefore jocular meanings to words, with all sorts of puns and witty jokes and popular humorous aphorisms. Every language speaker has got an idea of the games with language from the beginning of his language acquisition and they occupy a considerable place in his everyday experience throughout his life [1: 63-64, 249]. In childhood, all of us were fond of putting in extra syllables into words to make our utterance secretive to strangers and just for fun, as for example, ab-let's -ab-go ab-for -ab-walk. By the by, a few days ago the author of this paper happened to hear the following conversation of the two young girls:

"A - Do you know there is such a funny new language?

B - What sort of language?

A - A very simple one, but nobody will make out what you say…

You merely pronounce ordinary words but leave out the first letter in each word.

B - It sounds like this:

-iza, -ive -e -e -ed -encil, -lease. Sounds funny. And what's this to be done for?

A - Just for fun".

That laconic is the children's explanation of the phenomenon of "language games".

Linguists assume "language games" include a whole list of various imaginable deviations from what is viewed as language and speech norms. They include into this list all sorts of puns and witticisms, humorous play on words and their hidden meanings, flippant parodying [2: 1-4], secretive childish types of speech, gibberish, encoded slangs of criminals [1: 58-59, 62-65]. Language game may take various shapes.

Scholars also refer to language game the cases of play upon complete texts, which are made deliberately meaningless and devoid of logic just for fun. The examples of these are tongue twisters, roundelays, funny riddles, and childish gobbledygook nursery rhymes well known in any culture. Humorous types of popular folklore and popular playful ritual speeches (crooked language) are also instances of language games [Ibid: 41].

Such playful folklore texts as humorous sayings, cock-and-bull stories, zaigryshes, popular aphorisms are referred to by philologists as special variety of texts - non-coherent texts [3: 121-126].

Every English child knows fairly well the nonsensical gobbledygook nursery rhymes, as the following:

☼

Oh, the grand old Duke of York,
He had ten thousand men;
He marched them up to the top of the hill,
And he marched them down again.

And when they were up, they were up,
And when they were down, they were down,
And when they were only half-way up,
They were neither up nor down.

☼

Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water.
Jack fell down and broke his crown,
And Jill came tumbling after.

☼

> Mary, Mary, quite contrary,
> How does your garden grow?
> With silver bells, and cockle shells,
> And pretty maids all in a row.

☼

> There was an old woman who lived in a shoe.
> She had so many children, she didn't know what to do;
> She gave them some broth without any bread;
> Then whipped them all soundly and put them to bed [4].

Language game as both language and cultural phenomenon has attracted the attention of home scholars relatively recently. Nevertheless, its popularity is gaining force.

Philosophers and specialists in cultural studies were the first to make attempts of scientific explication of the phenomenon of "language games". The term itself, Sprachspiel dates back to L. Wittgenstein's classical paper "Philosophical Investigations" (1945). The work became known to a wide range of Russian specialists after it had been translated into Russian and published in the 16th issue of the series "The News of Foreign Linguistics" in 1985. Later on, the work has been re-published in separate issues in Russia several times [5]. Wittgenstein, as is known, elaborated a theory of communication by means of language and language evolution resulting from language functioning in speech. He believed the practical implementation of language in actual speech in a variety of situations, the linguistic behaviour of the speakers in the process of speaking, which he termed "the language game", makes up the core of language and its subsequent evolution. In his theory Wittgenstein likened any speech act to a specific "language game" of the speakers with meanings of words, word combinations and phrases which are subject to changes and transformations in a new situationa bound speech act. The existing inventory of language units, models and structures is not fixed. New language forms and structures emerge because of the interaction of speech and situation in which it occurs. Thus, new language units and models supersede the former ones. Wittgenstein terms the situation in which communication takes place "language game".

It was shortly after the issue of Wittgenstein's paper in this country when the work "Language game". Russian everyday speech: Phonetics. Morphology. Vocabulary. Gesture by the Russian scholars E.A. Zemskaya, M.V. Kitaigorodskaya and N.I. Rozanova was published [6]. This work initiated the settling of the term "language game" in home linguistics for a full

due. The authors suggested that the term "language game" should denote those cases of intentional deviations from the language norms "which take place when the speaker plays on a language form, when the speaker's free attitude to a language norm is motivated by his desire to produce aesthetic impact, however small the impact may be. This play may take shape of a plain joke, a well-turned witticism, a pun and all sorts of tropes (metaphors, similes, periphrases etc.)" [6: 175]. Thus, on the one hand the authors quite justly concluded that language game takes place in everyday speech, but on the other hand, they inconsistently argued that language game is, in fact, realization of the poetic function of language. They seem to have overlooked the fact that from the time immemorial poetic function of language was viewed as inherent to a restricted variety of speech acts - initially to the oral epic genres and subsequently to the written texts of folklore epos and finally to verbal art. Thus, having equated "language game" and poetic function of language the authors unintentionally created a contradiction: they implicitly restricted "language game" by a certain limited variety of written texts - works of verbal art aimed to realize the function of aesthetic impact. The term "the function of impact" dates back to the acad. Vinogradov's classical work "Stylistics. Theory of poetic speech. Poetics" [7: 6-14].

Following in his steps, the majority of Russian scholars correlate the function of impact with poetic function of works of verbal art. It is clear that the linguists in question have not added something on principle new to the notion of "language game" that had not already been in the notion "poetic function" of language. In fact, in their theory they did not draw difference between the two notions: "the poetic function of language" and "language game". The more so the argue that the arsenal of devices employed both in poetic works and in "language games" is basically the same. They failed to explain the difference between the use of a set of stylistic devices (tropes) and figures of speech in literary works where they realize the function of impact and "language game" phenomenon. In fact, they automatically transferred the sonorous term "language game" from Wittgenstein's philosophical theory and employed it to the description of language facts. The term naturally lost its primary philosophical meaning in the new linguistic context, but it has failed to acquire any new linguistic meaning. Having ignored the primary philosophical meaning of the term the authors, in fact, gave to it no coherent linguistic substantiation. Thus, the term "language game" entered linguistic usage but it did not receive any new meaning that might differ it from the traditional linguistic term "stylistically marked use" of language units…

In the course of time, the term has become habitual in home linguistics. However, from time to time there emerged researches aimed to clarify the term "language game". The work "Russian language in the mirror of language game" by the Russian scholar V.Z. Sannikov [8] deserves special

mentioning as the one marked by the new details related to the notion of "language game". In his paper, Sannikov draws difference between the "language jokes" employing the inventory of language models as such i.e. all sorts of intentional deviations from language norms for the sake of fun that the terms word humour and humour of situation contained in the so-called situational jokes. The latter are based on the harping of real life situations for the sake of humour. Life situations, which are deliberately forced to lose sense or logic, frequently result in humorous effect. Sannikov warns against confusing of these two types of humour [8: 108-114]. Popular nonsense folk-lore as cock-and-bull stories, all sorts of malarkeys, nonsensical nursery rhymes, English gobbledygook and Russian gobbledygook stories adduced above in the present paper, are, in his opinion the instances of the humour of situation.

It follows from Sannikov's reasoning that "language jokes" are based on the deliberate misuse of the units of the basic language inventory, on the intentional breach of grammatical patterns and rules for the purpose of producing comic effect. Like previous researchers Sannikov, however, also insists that the process of gaming with language inventory is inspired wholly by creative impulse of the select few - authors of written texts. Again he restricted the "language game" phenomenon by creative use of language units within written variety of texts. Situational jokes, in his view, are beyond the scope of linguistic research. What Sannikov overlooked was the fact that in reality both situational jokes and verbal humour are sometimes so closely interrelated that it is not always easy to draw hard and fast distinction between them. Everyday experience of ordinary language speakers is full of both language jokes and situational humour. Let us consider a few instances where the two types of humour seem to be inseparably connected (the examples were heard by the author of this paper "in the street"):

1. "- Have you heard that the offices' keys will since now on be given to the employees through the electronic card-file only? It won't be possible to come back to the office after the lunch late… In addition, it won't be possible to go home before the working day is over… We will be clocked in and clocked out in the file.

- However... Nothing doing. There's no place to leave this submarine for…"

Actually, the joke is not a situation based one. It is the instance of a language joke in the true sense of the word. It is based on metaphor: the meaning "life" is transferred to the word "submarine", thus the two notions are likened: our life is made the equivalent of being present on a submarine.

2. "- Oh! The frost has been - 30 degrees already longer than a fortnight. When will it end at last?

- We will hardly live to it… Russia is cold to us, you know".

The play on the nominative and transferred meanings of the word "cold" in this case results in the stylistic device known as pun.

The two above instances are cases of word humour.

Unlike them, the following example is ambiguous.

3. A young man in a worn padded jacket gets on the bus. There is an inscription in big letters on the back of his padded jacket "sheepskin coat".

On the one hand, we deal here with the metaphoric transference of the name from one object to another (from a sheepskin coat to the worn padded jacket). On the other hand, visualization of the scene of action, of the situation, of the characters and objects involved in the situation is a necessary condition for the emergence of the metaphor and for its adequate interpretation by the addressees. In this respect, the example under consideration is undoubtedly a situational joke (humour of situation in Sannikov's classification).The last example differs from the previous two by the fact that in a situational joke a metaphor is not created in speech alone. It is created by the addresser (the young man in a worn padded jacket) and can be adequately interpreted by the addressee only in a certain situation - events that are really going on, people and things involved in the situation. This interpretation is in keeping with Sannikov's classification of humour into word humour and situational one. Language jokes are facts of speech alone, whereas situational jokes result from the play with events and require a progressing action.

Nowadays the vast majority of linguists concerned with "language game" are largely concerned with accumulation of new data about the arsenal of linguistic devices employed in language games. True, they elaborated a rather vast list of language devices used in language games at all levels of language including phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic, graphic devices [2-14]. However, the notion itself "language game" has not been so far clearly defined. The linguists keep on identifying it with poetic function of language (the function of impact) without reasonable grounds. Such misinterpretation of the language phenomenon in question unduly restricts sphere of its functioning in language. Moreover, in keeping with the long lasting linguistic tradition the data about the phenomenon in question are collected exclusively in written sources: printed media materials, publicist prose, and fiction, written advertisement texts. Thus, only a limited number of speakers is implicitly supposed to be able to "play" with the inventory of language units within a limited number of speech contexts and with the only aim of special artistic impact.

The author of the most recent paper still more impoverishes the notion of "language game" asserting that it is a purposeful manipulation with expressive resources of language, aimed at achieving comic effect [14: 3]. Respectively she draws a conclusion that language game can be either an attribute if the individual style of a writer, or a genre-relevant mark. The latter argument completely ties the phenomenon of "language game" to certain

genres of written texts exclusively. Thus the linguists have so far failed to overcome the contradiction: the term "language game" cannot evidently be a doublet to mean exactly the same as the artistic function of language means, whose meaning incorporates noncanonical use of language resources for extra expressivity, or for the special artistic impact.

The linguists evidently overlook that clarification the term "language game" as a linguistic term should take into consideration the space which "language game" occupies within the complete communicative space. The outstanding British linguist D. Crystal had every reason to state that the space taken by "language game" in a language is practically as unlimited, as is the whole space occupied by language as a tool of human communication. The following is his characteristic of "language game" (in Crystal's terminology "verbal game") which we find in one of his fundamental works "The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language": Playing with words is a universal human activity… People delight in pulling words and reconstituting them in a novel guise, arranging them into clever patterns, finding hidden meanings inside them, and trying to use them according to specially invented rules in enormous diversity." [1: 64]. He defines "language game" as "intonational, rhythmic, phonetic, lexical, morphological et.al. modifications of language norms which use the same principle, of deviating from language norms." [Ibid: 62]. The encyclopedia contains abundant illustrations of "language game" in different languages and in various spheres of communication: in children's speech, in criminals' argots, in ritual religious hymns of some Indian tribes, in public speeches, oratory and ceremonial debates of some folks of the North Philippines, in congratulatory speeches of wedding rites of some folks of Malaysia [Ibid: 41, 58, 62-64]. This is where the obvious difference between the artistic (poetic) function of language and "language game" clears up.

Since the phenomenon understudy is viewed as sort of the game, we consider it of utmost importance to define the essence of "game" among other types of human activity. What we mean is the semantics of the word "game" itself can in no way be ignored since we aim at clarification of the term "language game". With this in view we performed semantic analysis of the meaning of the word "game" both in Russian and English monolingual explanatory dictionaries. In the fundamental Russian explanatory Dictionary by V. Dal "game" is defined as «забава, установленная по правилам и вещи для того служащие (игра в горелки, в кости, в бабки, в карты...)». «Играть – шутить, тешиться, забавляться, веселиться от скуки, безделья» [15: 7]. In S. Ozhegov's "Dictionary of Russian Language", the definition runs as follows: «Играть – резвясь, забавляться, развлекаться, проводить время в каком-нибудь занятии, служащем для развлечения, отдыха» [16: 193]. In the Oxford explanatory Dictionary the noun "game" is defined as "what is done for amusement, recreation" [17: 649]. Longman

Dictionary of English Language and Culture defines "game" as "activity for amusement only" [1: 1025].

The comparative analysis of the adduced definitions proves that all definitions have the common core meaning of the word "game" and it is the nuclear semantic component of the word "game". "Game" - is a specific human activity whose chief purpose is pleasure. To be more precise, it is a pastime, which has no other purpose but making fun just for its own sake. Besides, all the definitions we analyzed mention some other qualities of "game" as a specific type of activity. Gaming requires a certain set of instruments and certain rules of their implementation. Some definitions point out the necessity of certain skills for gaming.

Pursuit of pleasure had been an inherent quality of man since the time he was a biological something. However, the deliberate pursuit of pleasure by means of special instruments and tools, and which is more the one requiring special skills is solely the characteristics of the so-called Homo sapiens. J. Huizinga undertook etymological analysis of the verbs denoting "game" in some European languages [19]. As a result, he concluded that "game" had settled in the Man's experience and consequently in his mentality as far back as in mythological pre-Christian period. Pleasure is one of the Man's mind most persistent qualities. Persistent settling of "game" in the man's experience is accounted for by its most essential quality - to be an instrument for obtaining pleasure. Therefore, games accompanied Man throughout the whole history of his existence. Man's mind grew more and more complicated, so did the games.

The inventory of games was increasing alongside.

We agreed that game - is a purposeful pursuit of fun and pleasure. It presupposes a playing somebody, a certain set of tools for playing and a set of certain rules. The language units can obviously become the tools of "language games". It cannot be known when exactly language units and models became the tools of "language games". Formally, it was a transition from certain already existent types of games to other, yet new types. Language game was obviously one of the new types. Essentially this was the process of formation of the principally new quality if mind - conscious use of language (its units and structures) as a tool for the pursuit of pleasure through fun. A set of certain rules for "language games" is a necessary condition [1: 62].

If we look as far back as Aristotle's "Poetics", we will see that his theory of metaphor is based upon the thesis that the chief aim of metaphor is - entertainment and fun [20: 162]. Poets seem to have been the first and most vigorous "gamers" with the units of language. Perhaps, they were the first to join the two indispensable properties of mind - language and pursuit of pleasure through play with language. They seem to be among the first to find that language component units could easily become tools of a game of a special type - language game. Thus, it is not surprising that since times im-

memorial everything that might look like deliberate play with language units was included into the specific spheres of study - poetics, rhetoric, stylistics.

For centuries, linguists viewed all sorts of deviations from language norms as being motivated exclusively by writers' artistic or aesthetic considerations. Thence such deviations were considered part and parcel either of written texts or at least of high oratory and public speeches, were picked up predominantly in them and further on studied, analyzed and classified by linguists. In keeping with the centuries-old logic of the construct all deliberate deviations from what was considered the norm of lexical or grammatical usage were included into the inventory of stylistic devices: tropes and figures of speech. The complete inventory of the stylistic devices in question was traditionally attributed to the variety of speech termed as poetic language [21]. Any actualization of language units [22: 353-356] was limited uniquely by the frames of works of verbal art. In other words, viewed as such "language game" was recognized an elitist property of the "Men-of letters". Such concept of game with language units eliminated its very essence - fun achieved through playing with language units. It was about when and how ordinary language speakers were excluded from the potential "language gamers". It was largely owing to the fact that linguistics had for centuries remained a text-oriented science.

Does that mean that "gaming with language" takes place exclusively in written varieties of speech (texts) and in public speeches? The analysis of current reference books and dictionaries of new words, dictionaries of slang yields every reason to state that "language games" are deeply rooted into the speakers' everyday experience, into the communicative space of ordinary language speakers. Moreover, it had been rooted in everyday life of speakers much before it walked into written varieties of speech and he more so into works of verbal art. D. Crystal, for example, detects the remains of ancient language games in various ritual talks of some tribes of Malaysia and North Philippines [1: 41]. Only a small portion of "prizes" i.e. successful cases of "language game" becomes accessible for linguistic study. That portion are new words or new meanings that get into written texts and later on find a lodgment in printed dictionaries and hence in Lexicon. However, as the analysis of reference books in Vocabulary evolution and of Dictionaries of new words proves this portion is a rather voluminous one [23-26]. With this in mind, we set the task ahead to reveal instances of "language game" of unknown authors, ordinary language speakers on the lexical level - in word-formation and in semantic development of word meanings. Our sources were both Russian and English reference books and Dictionaries of new words.

The conducted research allows to conclude that large arrays of modern slang, slang in general use, youth slang, political slang, journalists' slang - are, so to speak, products of language game" which in many cases does not aim at filling in lexical lacunas (katahrezae) [20: 162]. We found out that

modern dictionaries of new words are full of such instances: *грузить (изла-гать информацию, которая заставляет задумываться о неприятных вещах), провисать (не принимать участия в разговоре), прикид (модная одежда), прикинутый (модно одетый), подкрученный (не очень состоятельный молодой человек), туз, крутой (очень богатый молодой человек), фуфло (ерунда, что-то некачественное), чмо (урод, негодяй), нормалёк (нормально), попса (пренебрежительное название представителей шоу-бизнеса), жесть (что-то «жестокое»), наезжать (предъявлять претензии кому-то), башли (деньги), башлять (зарабатывать деньги), напряг (что-либо, требующее усилий), мобила (мобильный телефон), кранты (конец чему-либо), офигенный / офигительный (потрясающий), тупить (1. говорить что-либо глупое, непонятное; 2. не понимать того, что говорят), глючить (видеть то, чего нет, галлюцинировать), глюк (что-то кажущееся), потрясный (потрясающий), отпад(ный) (нечто потрясающее), пипл (люди, народ), непыльный (нетрудный, не связанный с приложением усилий), неуют (неуютно), прибабах (что-либо ненормальное в психике), наворот (нечто вызывающее, кричащее, как правило во внешнем виде человека), пофигизм (наплевательское отношение), движняк (предпринимаемые скрыто действия), папик (богатый любовник преклонных лет)), понты (наигранность, притворство, вранье), гнать (врать, выдумывать, говорить неправду), рукопашник (драка), точняк (точно), ништяк (очень хорошо), фишка (преимущество в чем-то), одурительный (потрясающий), стыбзинг (мелкое воровство), хипстерский (как у хиппи), кипеж (скандал)* and many alike [24].

It should be mentioned that new words, the products of language game do not always have pejorative, rude or ameliorative connotations. Not infrequently they acquire adherent ironic connotations, as for example in the following cases: *адвокатесса, прокурорша, трудоголик, априорно, физик (физическое лицо), позиционировать (представлять), провокативный (провоцирующий), инжиниринг (открытый список всего, что может относиться к инженерной деятельности), паркинг (парковка), процессинг (процесс), маскулинность (мужественность), феминность (женственность), феминный (женственный), депрессионный (находящийся в депрессивном состоянии), брутальный (загадочный, таинственный), континуальный (длительный), культуральный (связанный с культурой), парфюм (духи), мэм (мадам), вариабельность (вариативность), комфортность (вместо комфорт), уютность (вместо уют), ложноположительный (кажущийся положительным, или выдающий себя за положительного), интенциональность (намерение), послевкусие (?), полуактивный (?), подписант (подписавшийся), витальность (жизненность?), гипердействительный (**очень** (!) действительный)* etc. [Ibid].

Much has been written about the unpredictability of language game among computer programmers, their originality in language games seems to have no borders: *думер (человек, играющий в игру "Doom"), батон, жать батоны (работать на компьютере от английского button), Егор (от английского error), шаровары (англ. shareware), лазарь (англ. laserprinter), заплатка (англ. patchfile), форточки (англ. Windows), живность (англ. virus), сидюк (англ. CD), програмить (англ. to program), писюк (PC), кликать (от англ. to click), ромка (ROM), виндовоз (англ. Windows), автогад (англ. AUTOCAD), банить (англ. ban запрещать доступ к какому-либо ресурсу), реал (реальная жизнь)* and the like [27: 21-27].

There is an axiom in linguistics that Vocabulary changes in the language are called forth either by linguistic or by social factors [28: 44]. But not infrequently deliberate flippant playing with words, their component parts or with their meanings just for fun of it calls forth the emergence of new words which enrich Vocabulary. Currently this tendency is gaining marked strength.

The book "The Language report" [26] by an outstanding modern British linguist S. Dent devoted to the evolution of the English Vocabulary is full of new words with jocular connotations. They are evidently the products of language game with inventory of word-formation models - derivation, compounding, blending, abbreviation and semantic development of word meanings.

It follows from the analysis of the book that the most productive model of word-formation game in English is currently blending. Blending based on the potential possibility of combining unpredictable and often semantically incompatible components - is a grateful field for language game:

farmageddon (food + armageddon) - the conflict over genetically or otherwise modified food; bloglish - the hyperbolical and inventive language used in online weblogs or diaries; guyliner - eyeliner for men; quillow (quilt + pillow) - a pillow that unfolds into a quilt [26: 12-13]; *chugger (charity + mugger) - a canvasser for charity who stops passers-by* [Ibid: 143]; *Jafaikan - Jamaikan + African + Asian - multicultural London English* [Ibid: 73]; *fobbit - a soldier or other military employee at a forward operating base; a person who is reluctant to move from a military base. The word is a blend of the acronym "FOB" (forward operating base) and "Tollkien's hole dwelling "hobbit"* [Ibid: 22]. *Alterpreneurs (alternative + entrepreneurs) - those who place more importance on their quality of life than on profit-making* is one more recent instance of blending [Ibid: 36].

Suffix of Greek origin - *ism* which some time ago served to coin new words with the meaning "some doctrine", as for example, Byronism, Carlylism, and was also used to coin new medical terms as alcoholism, deafmutism, was quite recently used to coin a witty facetious neologism *lookism* - attaching too much importance to person's appearance.

Highly popular in today's English is language game based on abbreviation. By the way, language game in principle exploits more willingly the most productive for the period models of word-formation. We detected some interesting newly coined initial abbreviations. They are: *Plu / p.l.u.* - an abbreviation of "*people like us*". This snobbish phrase is used by the upper society people to stress status relations: "I am afraid they're not really plu". [29: 406]. The phrase "*P's and q's*" as part of a fixed word-combination "*to mind one's p's and q's*" means "be cautious and discreet in one's speech or behavior": "You'd better mind your p's and q's with him". The expression was coined by metaphoric transference from the phrase addressed to English pupils who are learning writing and reading not to mix up the letters "p" and "q" [Ibid: 418]. One cannot but mention a highly original neologism which was coined in scientific usage "*iff*" - is the result of bold and original abbreviation of the clichéd phrase "*if and only if*" - "only under the given circumstances" [30: 16].

Special mention should be made of the so-called creolized abbreviations, which are gaining more and more popularity among all language speakers nowadays. They are sort of hybrid graphic complexes in which a new word is made up either of a queer mess of the letters of the English alphabet or of mess of the letters with characters: *ANY1(anyone); 4U (for you); B4U (before you); U1 (You Won); IOU (I owe you); U2 (you too); R (are); 8 (Ate); 2B (to be); YU? - (Why you?); B4 (before); U1 (you won); F2f (face-to-face); ICQ (I seek you); 4X – FOREX (foreign exchange); T + (think positive)* etc. Such facetious abbreviations are especially broadly used in virtual environment to substitute both words and complete phrases.

It was in the bowels of offices where facetious semantic innovation "to bake into" came into being. The new meaning it acquired was "to include": "An idea may be baked into a strategy" [26: 35]. By strange ways, the compound word "the third space" came to mean, "leisure values away from home and office" [Ibid: 36]. "Chairplug" has come to mean "a person present at the business meeting who does not participate in the discussion". "Square-headed girlfriend" has come to mean "a computer". "Kissing one's sister" is a phrase that acquired metaphoric meaning "unpromising enterprise". "Long tail" is used to denote "goods having small but steady demand on them". It is evident that facetious newly coined words or phrases, which received new meaning through metaphoric shift, have not always come into being in order to fill in lexical lacunas. Sometimes new words or phrases with new meanings were created just for fun of it. The authors of these new coinages were motivated by the stimulus to play with words or their component parts (potential meanings) and as a result, they produced witty or jocular coinages. Particularly illustrative in this respect is the flippant phrase of teenage slang "yeah-but-no-but". This phrase is a specific emblem of their careless attitude to life [Ibid: 144]. It presents a bold experiment with lan-

guage units from the point of view of word-formation. The author of the funny eponym "Pavlova" was most unlikely a professional writer or a poet. However, he is evidently a gifted "language gamer" and an admirer of the outstanding Russian ballet dancer A. Pavlova. He employed a bold meta-phoric shift to immortalize A. Pavlova. He used the ballet dancer's name to call by it merengue with fruit [1: 155].

Being a bold experiment with language units and models just for fun of it language game is in fact getting more and more involved in the process-es of word formation - derivation, abbreviation, compounding, and in the processes of semantic changes of word meanings. It thus is an important fac-tor of language system evolution.

Language game is flippant experimenting with language units and el-ements is scattered everywhere in everyday speech experience of language speakers: in the streets, in supermarkets and cafes, in restaurants and in pub-lic transportation, in the bowels of offices etc. Language game as we view it - in an attribute of everyday speech communication. The underlying stimu-lus of language game is conscious and deliberate playing with language units, elements and models. Its sole aim and purpose is gaming for the sake of gaming, for the sake of getting pleasure from the process of gaming itself. It is not always within the reach of observation of linguists because ordinary language gamers have no special aim to fix the "products" of their game in written sources. Moreover, the "products" of language game are predomi-nantly "one use" ones. This makes up the principle difference between "lan-guage game" and poetic function of language.

Impact-oriented manipulation with imaginative resources of language within written forms of speech is an indispensable attribute of imaginative writing. "Language game" in contrast is some activity for pleasure and fun. Viewed this way "language game" is present anywhere in the communica-tive space: it is to be found in everyday speech and may as well get from oral communication into written varieties of speech. However, one should keep in mind that primarily "language games" had arisen in oral, not in written forms of language, and it had existed quite long before written forms of speech appeared. It is testified by the wide use of various language games by children who cannot yet write [Ibid: 249]. Everyday speech has remained its main area of functioning. However, some of its "products", as we were try-ing to prove above, may not infrequently linger in the language and become common property of language speakers at large. "Language game" cannot be a relevant feature of style or genre - it is the property of both oral varieties of speech, including argots and slang and of the refined samples of artistic prose, or of popular ads. It may either produce or do not comic or humorous effect. It may be random, but it may equally take shape of fixed speech codes, which were formed as such because of long lasting regular use in cer-tain communicative situations. The instance is crooked language of ritual

rites of the Filipinos and of the Malaysians wholly based on the language game [Ibid]. Language game is potentially or actually everywhere where there is speech. If we assume that there is a certain set of language functions within which language is employed [31: 14-27], "language game" should be naturally recognized as a self-sufficient "gamely" function of language as a whole. Any language resources, units, models, structures can be involved into it. In our paper, we have attempted to briefly describe how "language game" works on the lexical level.

References

1. CRYSTAL, D., 2006. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language.* 2nd ed. Cambridge University Press, 487 p.
2. RIVLINA, A.A. *On the chief devices of the Englsh-Russion language game*. Publications HSE. URL: http://publications.hse.ru/chapters/80291961
3. PHILIPPOV, K.A., 2003. *Text linguistics*: a course of Lectures. Saint-Petersburg: SPbSU Publishers, 336 p.
4. KRASNOSHTANOV, S.I., 1989. *Drove past the village peasant. Russian folk songs, riddles, proverbs, fables*. Khabarovsk: Khabarovsk Book Publishers, 33 p.
5. WITTGENSTEIN, L., 1994. Philosophical Investigations. *Philosophical Studies.* Moscow: Gnozis Publishing House, pp. 77-319.
6. ZEMSKAYA, E.A., KITAIGORODSKAYA, M.V, and ROZANOVA, N.I., 1983. *Language game. Russian everyday speech: Phonetics. Morphology. Vocabulary. Gesture.* Moscow: Nauka, pp. 172-214.
7. VINOGRADOV, V.V., 1963. *Stylistics. Theory of poetic speech. Poetics.* Moscow: Academy of Sciences Publishers, 256 p.
8. SANNIKOV, V.Z., 1999. *Russian language in the mirror of language game.* Moscow: Languages of Russian culture, 544 p.
9. BIRIUKOVA, E.O., 2012. *Linguistic identity in the context of language game (based on the Russian talk show.* Thesis of Candidate of philology science. Vologda, 23 p.
10. ILYASOVA, S. Language game in newspaper texts. *Relga: scientific and cultural studies journal.* URL: http://www.relga.ru/Environ/WebObjects/tgu-www.woa/wa/Main?textid
11. KIRILENKO, N.P. and SAFRONOVA, T.I., 2013. Language game in current advertising texts. *Electronic scientific magazine "Current issues of science and education"*, 5. URL: www.science-education.ru/111-10447
12. NEGRISHEV, A.A. 2006. Language game in mass media: text-organizing mechanisms and discourse functions. *Inter-Cultural-Net: Scientific electronic magazine*, 5, pp. 66-79.
13. NUKHOV, S.Zh., 1997. *Language game in word-formation.* Synopsis of PhD thesis. Moscow, 39 p.
14. TSIKUSHEVA, I.V. 2009. Language game phenomenon as an object of linguistic investigation. *News. Ros. reg. ped. zap them. A.I. Herzen*, 90, pp. 169-171.
15. DAL, V., 1979. *Explanatory Dictionary of the live Russian Language*, 2. Moscow: Russkij Jazik, 544 p.
16. OZHEGOV, S.I., 2008. *Dictionary of Russian Language.* Moscow: Russkij Jazik, 1200 p.
17. HORNBY, A.S., 1978. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English.* Oxford University Press, 1054 p.
18. 1998. *Longman Dictionary of English Language and Culture.* Longman, 1569 p.
19. HEIZINGA, J., 1997. *Homo Ludens: Articles on History of Culture*. Moscow: Progress-Tradyciya, 377 p.
20. BLACK, M. 1990. *Metaphor. Theory of Metaphor.* Moscow: Progress, 512 p.

21. MUKARZHOVSKY, L. 1967. Literary language and poetic language. *Prague linguistic circle*. N.A. Kondrashov (ed.). Moscow: Progress, pp. 406-432.
22. HAVRANEK, B., 1967. The tasks of literary language and its culture. *Prague linguistic circle*. N.A. Kondrashov (ed.). Moscow: Progress, pp. 338-377.
23. New words of Russian language. *House of the Sun: Tips*. URL: http://www.sunhome.ru/recommendations/novie-slova-v-russkom-yazike.html
24. GRISHINA, E.A. and LYASHEVSKAYA, O.N. Russian grammatical dictionary of New Words. *Dictionaries created from the Russian National Corpus*. URL: http://dict.ruslang.ru/gram.php?act=search
25. TROFIMOVA, Z.S., 2006. *English Dictionary of new words and new meanings*. Moscow: AST: East-West, 320 p.
26. DENT, S., 2006. *The Language Report*. Oxford University Press, 164 p.
27. LIKHOLITOV, P.V., 1997. Computer slang. *Russian Speech magazine*, 3, pp. 21-32.
28. VOLODARSKAYA, E.F., 2004. Language change: linguistic and extralinguistic factors. Innovation processes in modern English. *Philology issues*, 2, pp. 35-51.
29. LOCKETT, B., 2005. *English: yesterday, today and tomorrow*. Moscow: Russkij Jazik Media, 602 p.
30. BORISSOVA, L.I., 2005. *Lexical peculiarities of English-Russian technical translation*. Moscow: NVI "Tezaurus", 216 p.
31. METCHKOVSKAYA, N.B., 2000. *Social Linguistics*. Moscow: Aspekt Press, 207 p.

THE REPRESENTATION OF THE PAGMATICALLY MEANINGS IN THE SHORT NOVEL OF IVAN SERGEYEVICH SHMELYOV "THE LETTER OF THE YOUNG COSSACK"

J.A. Murashova

Federal State Budgetary Educational Institution of Higher Professional Education
"Rostov State University of Economics" (Taganrog, Russia).
E-mail: shenetschka@rambler.ru

Abstract. The comprehensive study of subject's explication in the field of the Cossack discourse on the whole and epistolary Cossack discourse in particular to meet the needs to preserve the national identity, the cultural and language self-identification of the Cossack ethnos at this conjuncture of the modern globalization. At the same time the problem of the detailed description of the representation of the pragmatically meanings of the speech instruments and the comprehensive interpretation their textual realization remains overt and consequently of current importance.

In the presented paper the attempt of the linguopragmatical interpretation of the different types of the pragmatically meanings, which are united of the unified textual area, is illustrated on the short novel of Ivan Sergeyevich Shmelyov "The letter of the young Cossack".

The linguopragmatical interpretation of the novel "The letter of the young Cossack" have to help to solve a problem of the more precise and documentary evidence of the peculiarities of the substantial and semantic textual area as well as of the wide linguocultural context of his creation.

Keywords: pragmatically meaning; linguopragmatical interpretation; the short novel of Ivan Sergeyevich Shmelyov "The letter of the young Cossack".

I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack" [1] it was for the first time published in 1925 in Berlin in the fourth issue of the magazine "Time". The lyrical hero formally acts as the subject sender. "Letter" is written on behalf of the Don Cossack I.N. Dumakov to parents, has a traditional epistolary form (the introduction, the main part, the conclusion, has a date and a place of writing - March, 1925, Paris), saturated Cossack lexicon and the Cossack realities.

The analyzed I.S. Shmelyov's story was segmented on the actualized syntactic unities. The actualized syntactic unity is a simple sentence, part of a compound or complex sentence, the isolated participial or verbal adverb phrase, the isolated infinitive group, the address. As the separate actualized syntactic groups we consider also homogeneous parts of the sentence and elliptic (incomplete) designs which can be restored to full simple sentences, parts of compound and complex sentences. In each of the allocated syntactic unities the existence / lack of markers of six actualized subject-marked references (i.e. the correlation of speech units initiated by the sender with objects and subjects of reality, their qualities, actions, etc.): deictic, estimated, emotive, contact, regulatory and interrogative was recorded.

In the beginning we will illustrate updating of each type of a reference separately. We will begin with a deictic reference.

So, in 417 "The letter of the young Cossack" actualized syntactic unities 540 markers of a deictic reference were recorded.

The greatest number of markers of a deictic reference 248 (45,93%) treats a personal type of a deictic reference and, respectively, points to the active subject interpreting reality (the sender of the letter), and objects of speech activity to which the active subject for the purpose of representation of this interpretation to recipients of the letter addresses. If to take for 100% the total of markers of a personal deictic reference (248), a ratio of the markers indicating the sender and recipients of the letter looks as follows: the sender of the letter - 177 markers (71,37%), recipients of the letter - 71 markers (28,63%). Such distribution, from our point of view, is quite justified by specifics of a genre (letter) and the main characteristics of a communicative situation (distance position of communicants in time and in space initiates such situation when the sender is compelled to write about himself for the lack of information on recipients). The lyrical hero (I.N. Dumakov) so characterizes a communication situation:

Example 1

Девятое письмо гоню. Что ж от вас позыва не слышу, досыла не получаю? [1: 3].

I write the ninth letter. What from you I don't hear an answer, I don't receive a letter?

It is interesting that actualizing markers of a personal deictic reference, the sender regularly emphasizes own belonging to the Cossack community and positions the Cossacks as separate subethnos in structure of the Russian society (cf. positioning of the Cossacks as separate social group in structure of the Russian society: [2: 25; 3-5]). For example:

Example 2

Кланяемся вам, бесценные родители, от бела лица до сырой земли. И так что извещаем. Молитвами вашими и благословением, как оглушали на бранный бой, жив ваш сын **Казацкий сокол** Иван Николаевич Думаков [1: 1].

We bow to you, invaluable parents, from the white person to the crude earth. And so we inform. Your prayers and blessing as deafened on abusive fight, your son the **Cossack falcon** Ivan Nikolayevich Dumakov.

The quantity of the speech means (28) postulating belonging to the Cossack community makes 15,82% of total number of the speech means of a personal deictic reference indicating the sender.

The atmosphere of belonging of Cossack I.N. Dumakov to a community of Cossack fellow countrymen is emphasized with repeated updating of a personal pronoun of the first person of plural (*we, to us*) and a possessive pronoun of the first person of plural (*ours, ours*). We will give an example.

Example 3

Да встало мне: а кто ж за все, за кровь **нашу**, за Степь горевую **нашу**, за Коня, боевого друга, за ваши горя, родители мои, ответа стребует? [1: 2].

It rose to me: and who for everything, for **our** blood, for the Steppe cinder **ours**, for the Horse, the fighting friend, for yours burning, my parents, the answer will demand?

We will note that in ten actualized syntactic groups the sender of the letter directly or indirectly postulates own belonging to the Don Cossack community.

Example 4

Ворочусь на Родину, на **Тихий Дон**, на Казацкую Волю новую! [1: 2].

I am turned back home, on **the Quiet Don**, on the Cossack Will new!

Indicator of updating of a personal pronoun and possessive pronoun of the first person of plural is 20 (11,3% of total number of the speech means of a personal deictic reference indicating the sender). Such high rate confirms that fact that horizontal communications in the Cossack community are supported not only at the level of social and religious institutes [2], but also at the level conventional and individually caused speech behavior of his certain representatives. Designation of as parts of a community (by means of personal and possessive pronouns of the first person of plural) brought to automatism (11,3% of total number of the speech means of a personal deictic reference indicating the sender) corresponds to the high level of intra group Cossack solidarity, twinning, collective (community) destiny and responsibility, they become basic principles of formation and functioning of the Cossack communities in the XVIII-XIX centuries.

On such background the episode of tragic loss of the Cossack cap is indicative.

Example 5

Но не печальтесь. Я стою во весь рост, **шапка** только на мне чужая, шляпа мятая, а не **шапка** наша. Пропала моя Казацкая, утопил ее, в море скинул, как потчевал нас на чужом корабле красным вином французским. Не в чужом море кинул, в нашем Чёрном, как мое горе. Плыви – тони! [1: 2].

But don't mourn. I stand in all growth, a **cap** only on me others, a hat crumpled, but not our **cap**. I was gone my Cossack cap, I drowned it, in the sea I sent as treated us by others ship to French red wine. Not in others sea I threw, in our Black, as my grief. Float - sink!

For the Cossack the Cossack cap is a symbol of a communal share [2: 37]. It's to loss is a shame, violation of inviolable foundations of the Cossack community, loss of communication with it.

The identification the sender of with image of a falcon is so symbolical (see the Example 2). A falcon in the Cossack mythology a being is connected with "a

life tree", with a ship mast, with metal and the weapon, with blood and the world of the dead. The unrealized will of a falcon (here Cossack I.N. Dumakov) to seek to return to the general share of the sort left to them [2: 43].

On the second place by quantity of markers there is a temporal deictic reference (174 markers of a temporal deictic reference (32,22% of total number of markers of a deictic reference)). Thus 86 markers (49,42% of number of markers of a temporal deictic reference) indicate directly temporal positioning of the active communicating subject. For example, in the following fragments:

Example 6

Так что горюете по сыну вашему молодому Казаку Ивану Николаевичу Думакову, а я **жив**. **Гляжу** на вашу сторону. Как ветер на вас дует, **гляжу** – **сторожу** [1: 2].

So you will grieve on the son your young Cossack Ivan Nikolayevich Dumakov, and I **am living**. I **look** at your party. As the wind on you blows, I **look** - I **guard**.

Distribution of a deictic reference on a temporal axis looks as follows: the subject-subject temporary deictic reference: the present - 39, the future - 22, past tense - 25; the subject-object temporary deictic reference: the present - 42, the future - 9, past tense - 37, average values of a temporary deictic reference: the present - 81 (46,55%), the future - 31 (17,82%), past tense - 62 (35,63%). It means that communicative activity of the subject is directed, first of all, on judgment of a momentary state of affairs, in the second, - on experience of the past, and is rather rare - on understanding of the future.

By results of the frequency analysis the local deictic reference is on the third place (118 actualized markers of a local deictic reference (21,85% of total number of markers of a deictic reference)).

In the letter the author actualizes the deictic markers indicating his own real or desirable location concerning recipients of 38 times (32,2% of total number of markers of a local deictic reference). For example:

Example 7

Ворочусь **на Родину, на Тихий Дон, на Казацкую Волю** новую! [1: 2].

I am turned **back home**, **on the Quiet Don**, **on the Cossack Will new**!

Thus the lyrical hero approximately equally often positions the real location in the foreign land (20 (52,63%)) and wished on the homeland (18 (47,37%)).

Here I.N. Dumakov's destiny appears in the traditions of the Cossack legends of the primogenitors derelicts who were ("at fault"), torn off from the Homeland, wandering by the seas and overcoming series of tests to be cleared, surely to return and with honor to serve the Homeland [2: 42].

Further we analyzed updating of axiological estimated references. In total 213 markers of updating of axiological references were recorded.

Reactions of the sender were divided by us on their basis on: the all-estimated - 138 (64,79%), intellectual - 5 (2,35%), esthetic - 24 (11,27%), ethical - 19 (8,92%) and practical - 27 (12,67%).

We will give example of the all-estimated axiological references:

Example 8

И стою на посту-дозору, хочь и давно пику перворядную сломило не стыдным ветром, а **безвинным горем** [1: 1].

Also I stand on a post patrol, although and long ago to peak broke the **guiltless not** a shameful wind, but an innocent grief.

Esthetic references:

Example 9

Пал мой **Голубенок серолобастый**, шелкова **шерстка**, белы **ножки**, **крапина** на груди **как перцем** [1: 2].

My **dove silver**, **silk hair fell**, **white legs**, a **spot on a breast as pepper**.

From 213 (100%) the actualized markers of an axiological estimated reference 43 (20,19%) express the valuable attitude of the sender towards themselves (the subject-subject axiological reference) and 170 (79,81%) the sender's attitude towards other objects or the facts of reality. In this regard it is obviously possible to speak about a social (not egocentric) orientation of axiological estimation of reality by the author of the letter.

Subtype of an estimated reference is the estimated reference. Having analyzed updating of markers of this subtype in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack", we found out the following.

Subject the sender estimates the reality facts represented by it as reliable in 225 cases (75,76% of total number of markers of an estimated reference), as doubtful in 26 cases (8,75% of total number of markers of an estimated reference) and as problem reliable in 46 cases (15,49% of total number of markers of an estimated reference), including as allegedly reliable - in 31 cases, allegedly doubtful - in six cases, allegedly possible - in nine cases.

The estimated reference of reliability is realized in such fragments as:

Example 10

А **никто не слышить. Никто не понимает** нашего Казацкого языку [1: 2].

And **nobody hears. Nobody understands** our Cossack to language.

Thus expression of individual installations to degree of probability of various facts of reality directly connected with the subject (the subject-subject estimated reference), happens almost twice less than expression of installations of the sender to degree of probability of the reality facts not related directly (the subject-object estimated reference) (cf. updating indicators the subject-subject estimated reference - 110 (37,04%), updating indicators the subject-object estimated reference - 187 (62,96%)).

In the text we recorded also 123 markers of an emotive reference. We will give an example:

Example 11

И вот утирайте **слезы**, не попинайте, Коня вашего споминайте, а моего друга Голубенка! [1: 2].

And here wipe **tears**, do not remember, your Horse remember, and my friend Golubenk!

We will note that the emotional or mental condition of the subject of the sender (the subject-subject emotive reference) becomes apparent in 24 cases (19,51% of total number of markers of an emotive reference). An emotional or psychological state of partners of communication (the subject-object emotive reference) - in 99 cases (80,49% of total number of markers of an emotive reference). Thus in 25 cases (20,33% of total number of markers of an emotive reference) the sender sympathizes with about what reports, and in 98 cases (79,67% of total number of markers of an emotive reference) become apparent own antipathy in relation to the reported.

Contact references are actualized in "The letter of the young Cossack" of 87 times, thus the instruction on active subject contains in 18 syntactic groups, doesn't contain - in 69 syntactic groups. Respectively, the ratio the subject-subject and the subject-object the contact of references looks as follows: 20,69% and 79,31%.

We will give an example.

Example 12

Кланяемся вам, бесценные **родители**, от бела лица до сырой земли. И так что **извещаем** [1: 1].

We **bow** to you, invaluable **parents**; from the white person to the crude earth. And so we **inform**.

The sender calls for establishment of contact in 28 syntactic groups (32,18% of number of all actualized contractive). Such high percent is explained by long absence of letters from addressees and aspiration of the sender to initiate mutual communication (to receive news from parents).

Having investigated regulatory references, we found out that an indicator of their updating in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack" - 47 units. The updating percent the subject-subject regulatory references, that is references marking need of performance of action by the sender equals to three (6,38% of total number of markers of regulatory references). Respectively the subject-object regulatory references are actualized 44 times (93,63% of total number of markers of regulatory references). Most often regulatory references are actualized by means of verbs in the form of an incentive inclination - 36 times (76,6% of total number of markers of regulatory references). We will illustrate updating of regulatory references with example.

Example 13

Голос **подайте** мне – и вот и я!.. [1: 3].
Give a vote to me - and here and I!

Interrogative references are actualized 32 times, thus in seven cases replenishment of volume of the present information is initiated from the sender (an updating indicator the subject-subject interrogative reference - 7 (21,87% of total number of markers of an interrogative reference)), in 25 cases - from partners in communication (an updating indicator the subject-object interrogative reference - 25 (78,13% of total number of markers of an interrogative reference)). We will give example of updating of an interrogative reference.

Example 14

А я молодой Казак, **какую** песню спою, и **где** моя шапка, и **где** мой Конь? [1: 3].

And I am the young Cossack, **what** song I will sing, and **where** my cap, and **where** is my Horse?

Having illustrated updating of various types of a reference, we will present their average values in the summary table (table 1).

T a b l e 1

The subject marked references in I.S. Shmelyov's story
"The letter of the young Cossack"

The appearance of subject marked references / The actualizations index	Deictic			Evaluative		emotive	contact	regulatory	interrogative	sum total
	personal	local	temporal	axiological	estimated					
The subject-subject reference	177	38	86	43	110	24	18	3	7	506 (37,79%)
The subject-object reference	71	80	88	170	187	99	69	44	25	833 (62,21%)
The subject-subject reference + the subject-object reference	248	118	174	213	297	123	87	47	32	1339
The middle index	540 (40,33%)			510 (38,09%)		123 (9,19%)	87 (6,49%)	47 (3,51%)	32 (2,39%)	1339 (100%)

According to data of table 1, first place in hierarchy of updating is won by deictic references (40,33%), the second - estimated references (38,09%), the third - emotive references (9,19%), the fourth - contact references (6,49%), the fifth - regulatory references (3,51%) and the sixth - interrogative references (2,39%).

Indicator of updating it is subject the marked references in I.S. Shmelyov's story it is equal 3,21 (cf. 1339 marker of updating of references and 417 actualized syntactic groups).

It is interesting that unlike texts of nuclear part of an epistolary Cossack discourse in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack" an updating indicator the subject-subject references (37,79%) is much lower than an updating indicator the subject-object references (62,21%). It shows the low level of pragmatically activity of the sender, his aspiration to an objectivization of the represented.

If to recognize that the subject-subject references are realized in the form of pragmatically values of units of the speech, the hierarchy of pragmatically meanings in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack" looks as follows (table 2).

T a b l e 2

The subject-subject reference in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack"

The appearance of subject marked references / The actualizations index	Deictic			Evaluative						sum total
	personal	local	temporal	axiological	estimated	emotive	contact	regulatory	interrogative	
The subject-subject reference	177	38	86	43	110	24	18	3	7	506
	301 (59,49%)			153 (30,24%)		(4,74%)	(3,56%)	(0,59%)	(1,38%)	(100%)

If to compare data indicators to results of the expert analysis [6: 14-21] it is possible to note coincidence of the main tendencies in updating of pragmatically meanings: on the first place there are deictic, on the sixth - interrogative. It confirms a success of mystification of I.S. Shmelyov who created the work answering to the general pragmatically tendencies of an epistolary Cossack discourse.

We will note that in updating of pragmatically values in "The letter of the young Cossack" there are also differences, so on the second place in the story there are evaluative (30,24%), on the third - emotive (4,74%), on the fourth - contact (3,56%), on the fifth - regulatory (0,59%). Thus percentage indicators of updating of emotive and contact are rather close. Differences in updating of pragmatically meanings in the Cossack letters analyzed above and in I.S. Shmelyov's story are explained, first, by the small volume of work, secondly, features of speech experience of the author (the author isn't Cossack, he only writes on behalf of the Cossack).

The coefficient of updating of pragmatically meanings is equal in I.S. Shmelyov's story 1,21 (506 actualized pragmatically meanings (ascending to the subject-subject references) are the share of 417 syntactic groups). It confirms the supervision stated earlier [Ibid] that pragmatically meanings of various types (but connected genetically and possessing functional similarity) can be expressed by the same speech means.

Having generalized these interpretations of the actualized pragmatically meanings, it is possible to draw also following conclusions.

The pragmatically background of the story of I.S. Shmelyov "The letter of the young Cossack" represents not homogeneous graduated education.

Addressing to recipients of the letter, the lyrical hero (I.N. Dumakov) positions himself as the active subject interpreting reality. Thus the speech means marking the intra group solidarity actualized by the sender, solidarity of the Cossack community are regularly actualized (a noun *the Cossack*, an adjective *Cossack*, the personal and possessive pronouns of the first person of plural actualized for designation of the sender).

Speech activity of the sender is characterized by regular judgment of the present and the frequent address to the past.

The lyrical hero (I.N. Dumakov) positions the present abroad, but the future doesn't think without the Homeland.

I.N. Dumakov characterizes a reality situation as reliable, but undesirable, defiant steady antipathy.

The subject sender seeks to initiate bilateral communication, induces recipients to reciprocal actions, as speech (to answer a question), and to not speech (to betray bows to relatives and acquaintances, etc.).

The conclusions of interpretation of pragmatically values given above in I.S. Shmelyov's story "The letter of the young Cossack" mean that use of lingvopragmatically approach promotes studying of mechanisms of functioning of pragmatically meaning in indissoluble unity with the bases of its updating (references bases), and also the extra linguistic phenomena caused by a situation of communication and features of informative and cogitative activity of communicants.

References

1. SHMELYOV, I.S., 2001. The letter of the young Cossack. *Collected works in five volumes*, 2. Moscow: Russian book. URL: http://fstanitsa.ru/category/menyu/kultura/pismo-molodogo-kazaka-shmelev-novye-rasskazy-o-rossii

2. RYBLOVA, M.A., 2009. *Men's communities of the Don Cossacks as a sociocultural phenomenon of XVI - the first third of the XIX century: abstract of the doctor of historical sciences.* Saint-Petersburg: VGMU, 51 p.

3. ERMAKOVA, L.R., 2011. *Glyuttonic pragmatically words and national character (on material Russian and English linguocultures)*: Thesis of Candidate of Philology. Belgorod: BLGU, 236 p.

4. KAPLYA, O.V., 2011. *Historical folklore in culture of the Don Cossacks*: Thesis of Candidate of Historical Sciences. Volgograd: VGMU, 204 p.

5. RUNAYEV, R.Yu., 2011. *Cossacks as cultural and historical group*: Thesis of Candidate of Philosophical Sciences. Volgograd: VGMU, 25 p.

6. GORLO, E.A., 2012. Experience of the empirical analysis of pragmatically meaning. *Messenger of MSU. Philology. Cultural science. Pedagogics. Technique. Scientific magazine.* Moscow: TsMO of Lomonosov Moscow State University, 1, pp. 14-21.

EROTIZATION AS THE BASIS OF FEMALE METAPHOR IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

L.P. Murashova[1], L.V. Pravikova[2]

[1] Southern Institute of Management (Pyatigorsk, Russia).
E-mail: L-P-Murashova@mail.ru.
[2] Pyatigorsk State Linguistic University (Pyatigorsk, Russia).
E-mail: pravikova@mail.com

Abstract. The article presents a logical-semantic analysis of metaphors, encoding women in English from the erotic standpoint. In the erotic metaphor a female image is revealed in a binary division: the woman as a passive object that is to meet the needs of men, and as an active agent, when she lures men, manipulates them, cheats, uses them to her own advantage, that is, her sexual behavior is in opposition to the ideas of stereotypical hierarchical patriarchal structure and phallocentricity of the universe. Important areas of erotic feminine metaphors refer to coding the semantics of women of easy virtue and lesbians. The analysis has shown that representativeness and semantic density of these metaphors are high enough and they are cognitively foregrounded in the English language and mind. The metaphoric projections of women move from bodily sensations (with the emergent scheme) to mental, epistemic or logical domains.

Keywords: erotic metaphor; gender; culture; society; the English language.

Speaking of metaphors in connection with the representation of the female worldview, we can agree with B. Fraser, that metaphors are "black holes in the universe of language" and that they are often used as a means of disguising sexual information [1: 339-340]. As a scientific term the "black hole" refers to a hypothetical body in space, to an invisible collapsed star that has shrunk so much that nothing can escape its gravitational field, but in a broader sense, the term is also frequently used by machos to besmirch women as empty-headed or all devouring monsters [2].

Sex is a division of species to masculine or feminine, in particular in relation to the reproductive function. The word sex in English was first noted in the 1350-1400. It was formed from the Latin word sexus, probably from the same root as secāre 'divide' (compare with Russian. "sech" - to cut to pieces) and was used in relation to two main categories of mankind - men and women. At the end of the 14th century the word sex meant "males or females collectively". The lexeme sex began to be used not only to refer to the separation of sexes, but to indicate qualities of being male or female. The meaning "quality of being male or female" was first recorded in the 1520s. The meaning "sexual intercourse" appeared in 1529 (in the works of D.H. Lawrence), sex object - 1901 sex appeal - in 1904, sex drive - in 1918;

sex symbol - in anthropology in 1871; first person to whom the latter term has been applied, was apparently Marilyn Monroe (1959) [3] Speaking about men in general, people used such expressions as the better sex, the sterner sex, which stress positive characteristics of men, for example, strength. Women, on the contrary, are described as the weaker sex: fair sex, gentle sex, as the sex that has a secondary position in relation to a man: the second sex, contrary sex.

Metaphorical constructions are the part of culture and are rooted in society and discourse. Roland Barthes in Le Plaisir du Texte [4] states that "the text has human form" that it is "an anagram" of our "erotic bodies". The metaphor "woman as a text" has been often cultivated by metaphysical poets.

Objectivation of feminine essence in metaphor is based on patriarchal practices and is often associated with sexual or erotic characteristics of a woman's identity and her behavior. Simone de Beauvoir in her book "The Second Sex" ("Le deuxième sexe") [5] first made a statement that woman is defined as "the other one", she is an object in relation to the male subject and thus - the object of marginalization.

Women, according to the ideas of ancient Greeks, do not apply to the human race. They should obey men without question, they have to keep their virginity only for lawful wedded husband, to keep the family hearth and give birth only to sons [6-8].

Reification of women, nominative conceptual transformation of them from people into objects of consumption, the evaluation from the point of functionality, and in the latter case, the identification of women with regard to their bodies, leads to their dehumanization, depersonalization and sexual humiliation of their human dignity. For example, the word piece "woman" (in its primary meaning "bit", "part", "thing") implicitly indicates the deficiency and insufficiency of women relegates women to the level of things. The expression "Miss Thing" refers to a woman perceived only from the point of view of her role as a sexual partner, "warm body" positions woman as a sex object exclusively, the noun "maness", meaning woman (archaic.), shows the secondary position of a women in relation to men (man + -ess).

"Identity" is a central concept for many contemporary cultural, social and linguistic studies. The term "identity" is paradoxical in itself and means identity and originality, and this contradiction is increased in relation to the description of women. The notion of identity is the recognition that a person embodies a special combination of attributes and capabilities. These attributes and abilities influence the interaction of the individual with others, which in turn affects the identity of a person. Identity can be viewed at as the interpretation of person's experience and the world around him. It indicates multi-faceted nature of individual personal identification, experience and associations.

The woman is identified with creation and protection. She is described in terms of fertility / fecundity and reproduction; she is the mother, creating

a man from her own material, and then supporting, defending and protecting him. In order to exist in society, women are forced to identify themselves with the images created for them by patriarchal ideology. These include, among others: the image of the mother, the Virgin, the femme fatale, the prostitute, all of whom are the subject of men's desire.

According to Freud's theory, sexual symbolism refers to many ordinary things, in particular, to flowers, fruits, different artifacts, etc. The list can be continued: to animals, food, objects of nature, etc.

Associations of women with flowers as metaphors of fertility are old and are used in many languages. Flowers are used as both positive and negative symbols of female sexuality. Instrumental and symbolic role of women are projected on "universal" values of motherhood and femininity in form of fetishised body parts of a woman. The association of woman with flower evokes a vision of a defenseless beautiful creature in need of protection.

Floristic terminology, bearing floral symbolism, often uses parallel analog correlation between flowers or their parts and aspects of female sexual anatomy, such as the bosom, womb, labia and vagina, and also nominates the stages of women's sexual and reproductive activity and sexual status and actions. If we extrapolate this symbolism further, mankind is born from the womb of a woman, which means that the sexual and reproductive organs of women are the "essence" or "flower" of humanity. Puberty, female physiological processes that happen in the body, first sexual experience, fertility, pregnancy and motherhood are conceptualized through floristic terms: enclosed buds, ripe blossoms. The lexeme "flowering" is sometimes used to describe a particular period for a woman - in the phrase "menstrual flowering".

"Rosebud" is a nomination of a beautiful blossoming young lady. The verb deflower is a euphemism for the name of the act of rupturing a hymen through sexual penetration. The internal form of the verb "to pluck the petals of a flower" correlates with the meaning of the transition from the state of a blossoming organism as an essence of an innocent girl to the loss of this essense and its transformation into a female flowering. The phrase "to cop a cherry" (to be the first one to have sex with, to f *ck a virgin) means to be the first sexual partner of a virgin. The verb "to bloom" has the same root as "to blow".

The lack of female sexuality - innocence, chastity, virginity has secondary nomination through floral codes when concepts such as "rose", "lily", "enclosed garden" symbolize the ideal of feminine beauty and impregnability.

The concept Garden serves as a metaphor both for the female body as a whole, and for the female sexual organ. Garden where fragrant herbs, fruits, flowers or trees grow, is a symbol of fertility, a symbol of place for enjoyment. The word garden has the same etymological meaning as "paradise" (see Persian. Pardec (paradeisos) "paradise"). The garden is a metaphor of sexual paradise (Song of Solomon 4: 12-16) [9]. A cloistered garden became a symbol of sexual integrity, virginity, impermeability to the outside

world. A woman's body is perceived as an enclosed garden. Words "A garden enclosed is my sister..." relate to Shulamith's body. In verse 16 of the canticle of canticles, the word garden refers not only to the body of a woman in general, but also to her genitals in particular. The interpretation of the passage is clear: Shulamith metaphorically compares her female sexual organ to a garden. Eating sweet fruits of this garden symbolizes a metaphor for lovemaking. Eden Gardens in the biblical tradition are images of paradise lost and paradise regained.

The word flower is used as a euphemism for women selling their bodyes, and the phrase flower market for the nomination of prostitution. The expression flower smoke rooms means rooms in which customers could smoke opium and communicate with the ladies of the demimonde at the same time. And the patron, who paid dearly for the privilege of "defloration" of a girl that had been introduced to the profession for the first time arranges a feast for his friends in a brothel to celebrate a procedure known as celebrating the flower "a celebration of the flower" [10].

Food in conceptual metaphor often has euphemistical meaning of exploitative sexual attitude towards women: dish, seafood, tart, cookie, cheesecake, tuna, etc. Food and its consumption are symbolically associated with sex. Associative figurative parallels stimulate the creation of gender-specific metaphors. Body language is translated into the language of hunger, desire and lust. A Source domain "Sweets" creates metaphorical expressions, in which woman is conceptualized indirectly as an erotic object, an object of sexual and aesthetic admiration and desire to possess: honey, angelcake, bit of jam, peach, and other.

Anatomy and physiology of sex. Women and female organs are seen as edible objects for male consumption. For example, the female reproductive organs are represented in English by the names of vegetables: artichoke, cabbage (garden); meat: beefbox, bit of pork; dessert: basket of goodies, bit of jam, cake, etc.

A part of a woman's body - breasts as a special manifestation of femininity is an attractive sexual object. It symbolizes femininity, motherhood, fertility, prosperity, and it is also a sexual weapon. Metaphorically, in English slang, they have many names, only 2% of which neutrally describe female biology, while others are rude nicknames or sexual names. Priority is given to the nomination based on visual similarity with some fruits and vegetables of rounded shape and of pleasant taste and / or pleasant to touch: apples, melons, cantaloupes, cherries, bell peppers, chestnuts, coconuts; with sweets and candies: bonbons, basket of goodies, cakes, cherry-topped sundaes, raspberry tart, cupcakes; with milk containers and products: dairies, cream jugs, milk cans, milk wagons, baby's dinners; with meat products: bangers, animals: piggies, weapons: barbettes; bazookas, with a device for knocking at the door: knockers; musical instrument: maracas; et al. [11].

The domain "animals" is one of the most productive for depicting sexual aspects of a woman metaphorically. Human beings are most often understood in terms of the (alleged) properties of animals [12: 19]. Thus, metaphors formed from the names of pets: kitten, pussy, young pets: filly, birds: chick, dove, nightingale, beetles and butterflies: beetle, butterfly, bear sexual connotations. The performance of femininity - weakness, small size, youth - stresses the masculinity of the stronger sex, make it possible to create the illusion of love - ladies do not always sell sex, and often give affection and love. Some metaphorical names may carry both positive and negative connotations applied to women: bird, pigeon, pussy, fox, vamp.

The roles of women are different - a passive object, a giver, a destroyer and creatress.

Musical instruments symbolize potential of a person physically and socially express his needs, desires, passions and creative forces in the harmony of sounds. Musical instruments are important cultural artifacts that bear a wide meaning and have a certain power resources. Their presence, the sounds they produce, images that they evoke, make it possible to change cognitive states and tuning of recipients, ie to transform consciousness. The meanings of musical instruments are encoded in their forms, their use, their purpose. Visual metaphor is often based on visual images. For example, a woman's body is a violin, her breasts are maracas - a South American percussion instrument of precussion type, kind of a rattle. Conceptually, music is understood as a metaphor of emotions, thoughts, perpetual motion, life and beauty. Gender meanings are built in the framework of relationships between a human and musical instruments.

Gender meaning can be applied to any artifact. The meanings of physical objects are derived from the relationship between objects and people. They can serve as markers of asymmetric evaluation of the functioning of women and men in the genital area from the point of stereotypes that exist in society. For example, a man thinks that a woman behaves reprehensibly, if she has casual sexual affairs. In this case, it is acceptable to call the female a slut. According to the logic of men, women are associated with a lock, and men - with a key. If a key opens a lot of locks it's a good key but if a lock opens up to a lot of keys then it's a shitty lock [13]. This metaphorical nomination of a woman shows that woman has no value on her own, and is a complex device, a mechanical problem that must be solved. At the same time, to solve the problem is the task of a man, who is believed to have the necessary physical and physiological resources. These associations reinforce outdated sexual double standard that is rooted in archaic notions of masculinity and female chastity.

In the erotic metaphor female image is revealed in binary splitting. On the one hand, the woman is shown as a passive object that exists to meet the needs of men, on the other, the woman represents an active source: she

evokes certain emotions in men, lure them, manipulate them, mystifies, deceives, uses them for her own purposes.

From the active plans as a deconstructive being a vampire, monster, dangerous opponent in sexual battles: vampire, monster, houri; as a domineering agent: virago, dragoness. Sexual influence and power of a woman are conceptualized in metaphors witch, sorceress, enchantress, sibyl, wise woman, charmer, beldam, hex, femme-fatale, in which woman is presented as a sorceress and a witch who lures a man into her arms. She is a seductress, a ruthless hunter, who draws a man into sex using her beauty, various tricks, traps and direct violence, something smashing and awesome: temptress, Delilah, siren, beauty dish, knockout, looker, lulu, mantrap, peach, ravisher, smasher, stunner, sweetheart. Metaphors, in which woman actively displays her sexuality, are in opposition to the idea of stereotypical patriarchal hierarchical structure and phallocentrism of the universe in which a female desire is limited and historically has no right to exist. Negative connotations are connected with amazons, mythical women in whose world men have a small role of impregnation, and then are subjected to utilization. These are woman, wanton and impetuous, who pose a threat to traditional marriage. Their behavior is masculine, because they are engaged in traditionally male activities - riding on horseback and military affairs.

One of the most important areas of gender feminine metaphor refers to the encoding of the meaniing of a women of easy virtue, who lives idecent life. Prostitute is a person, most often a woman who earns on paid sexual services, the one who lives partly or wholly on prostitution. The lexeme prostitute is derived from the Latin verb "prostituere", which means to expose publicly, to offer for sale by public exposure.

Metaphors nominating women with low standards of sexual purity are numerous in the English language. The following names mean women professionally engaged in sex on demand for money, ie representatives of the oldest profession, prostitutes. Features on which generalization is based are the following:

1) generalization of prostitution as work or activity of women: business girl, working girl, body worker, sporting girl;

2) external features: cock-eyed jenny, bob tail, painted woman, dirtyleg, lowheel, blue gown, bluefoot, flesh pot;

3) functional professional prototypical actions and sexual techniques: call girl, cum-catcher, window tapper, vent renter, pintle-twister, ass peddler, butt-peddler, poker climber, foreskin hunter, hooker, merry-legs, flatbacker, needle-woman, speedy sister, fast-fanny, coffee grinder;

4) social value: mattress, hat-rack, hay-bag, hose-bag, garbage can, garbage woman, barrack hack, village bicycle;

5) place in the hierarchy: bottom woman;

6) insignificance: moth, cheap thing, dirty thing;

7) target purpose: sailor's bait, common sewer, piece, piece of trade, dress for sale, lease-piece, company girl, joy boy;

8) attendant temporal and local circumstances: woman about town; moonlighter; streetwalker, night jobber, camp follower, ammunition whore, nymph of darkness, alley cat, pavement princess, overnight bag, red-light sister, escort, lot lizard, apartment girl, fly-by-night;

9) ethical evaluation: vice sister, bad girl, bad woman;

10) ayment methods: coke whore, dope whore;

11) professionalism: amateur, etc.

Another use of feminine metaphors is the nomination of a gay woman [14]. Terminology for homosexual women often includes lexical units or complexes in which there are nominations, pointing to the opposite sex: male proper names: amy-john [late 1950s], derrick, jasper [NYC late 1960s]; simple and complex nominations, that include the names of men: brother-girl; fellow; king; king stud; manflora; marimacho; she-male; she-man, masculine pronouns: he-she; as well as nominations with direct and indirect reference to the prototypical actions and moods of lesbians: girl kisser; lady-lover; horsewoman; shesexual; penis-envy queen; names that describe the intensity of contacts: big diesel; big diesel dyke; external features of agents: pansy without a stem [mid 1960s], or their function: dyke; proximity type: collar-and-tie [1040s], and others.

Metaphor is the result of projecting, or displaying of conceptual scheme from one domain to another. Logical-semantic and cognitive-frame analysis of metaphors that conceptualize women, showed that these cognitive metaphors are highlighted in the consciousness of English language speakers. Their representativeness and semantic density are sufficiently high. They rely on comparisons and analogies between the real world objects and abstract concepts and fix both ontological aspects of figurative representation of women in general, and their gender-specific portraits from the point of view of men within the framewwork of the dominant-dependent asymmetric model of relations between the sexes.

Reflection of the actual state of affairs in the world through metaphorical code identifies the particularities of ethno-national and gender language picture of the world, reveals particularities of etnospesific thinking within the system of values, shows the dependence of the verbalization of the world picture from the stereotypes in society. Metaphorical projections of women shift from bodily sensations (with emergent scheme) to the mental, epistemic or logical domains.

References

1. FRASER, B., 1993. The interpretation of novel metaphors. *Metaphor and Thought.* A. Ortony (ed.). N.Y.: Cambridge University Press, pp. 329-341.

2. MANSBRIDGE, P., 2000. *Metaphor, Male / Female Theorists, and the "Birth Rites" of Women: The Reclamation Projects of Sylvia Plath, Anaïs Nin and Maya Deren*: A Thesis Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts. Ottawa. URL: http://mspace.lib.umanitoba.ca/bitstream/ 1993/2572/1/MQ59915.pdf

3. *Sex. Dictionary.com.* URL: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/sex?s=ts

4. BARTHES, R., 1973. *Le Plaisir du texte.* Paris: Le Seuil, 105 p.

5. BEAUVOIR de, S., 1949. *Le deuxième sexe.* Paris: Gallimard, 2 volumes.

6. GOLOSOVKER, Ya.E., 1993. *Tales of the Titans.* Moscow: Niva of Russia, 136 p.

7. PUBLIUS, V.M., 1971. *Bucolic. Georgics. Aeneid.* Moscow: Hudozhestvennaya literatura, 462 p.

8. *Amazons.* Encyclopedia of fictional creatures. URL: http://www.bestiary.us/blogs/ dmitrij/amazonki

9. *Song of Solomon* 4: 12-16. URL: http://www.biblestudytools.com/nkjv/song-of-solomon/passage.aspx?q=song-of-solomon+4: 12-16

10. FROWNFELTER, A., 2010. *Flower Symbolism as Female Sexual Metaphor.* Senior Honors Theses. Ypsilanti: Eastern Michigan University Paper, 88 p.

11. *262 Names for Boobs.* URL: http://mycampustalk.com/262-names-for-boobs

12. KÖVECSES, Z., 2010. *Metaphor: A Practical Introduction.* N.Y.: Oxford University Press, 375 p.

13. *On a disgusting metaphor.* URL: http://dearcoquette.com/post/1585403701/on-a-disgusting-metaphor

14. *A Brief Dictionary of Queer Slang and Culture.* Submitted by Rebecca Scott. URL: http://www.oocities.org/westhollywood/stonewall/4219

SENSORY INTERACTION DURING PERCEPTION OF VERBAL SIGNS (EXPERIMENTAL STUDY)

E.D. Nekrasova

National Research Tomsk State Universiry (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: nekrasovaed@gmail.com

Abstract. This paper deals with the problem of multimodal perception of verbal signs. Human perception is multimodal. The study of multimodal texts and multimodal perception of words is a step towards the study of multimodal perception in general. The author presents information about a series of experiments aimed at identifying the influence of background audio information on the perception of visual information. The article touches a leading modality in multimodal perception of verbal stimulus.
Keywords: multimodal perception; multimodal text; multimodality.

Introduction

Human perception is multimodal. This character of human perception was repeatedly recorded in the works of leading researchers. Many researchers have pointed multimodal nature of human perception (L.M. Vekker, B.G. Ananyev, S.V. Kravkov, Ye.Yu. Artemyeva, etc.). V.A. Labunskaya, O.V. Abdullina, N.A. Bayeva, M.V. Anisimova, etc. discussed the problems of studying multimodal structures. A. Kibrik, G. Kreidlin, etc. wrote about the role of various components in perception.

Images of reality objects are believed to be formed through a complex fusion of multimodal information coming through multiple sensory channels. Such complex images may exist in the following forms:

- separate verbal units, implicitly combining information from different perceptual nature (e.g. dry type [type], dry [touch]);

- texts with heterogeneous semiotic nature, so-called multimodal texts, involving different perceptual channels for self-representation (e.g. cinetext).

The problem of multimodality became topical in linguistics only by the end of the 20th century when the transition to the anthropocentric paradigm and interest to a cognitive component of language took place. This transition caused a conceptual turnabout in the field of text linguistics concerning its research object (E.E. Anisimov, G. Babenko, N.S. Valgina, V.B. Kashkin, etc). Since then the text has been studied not only as an integral segment of a verbal code, but as a unity with non-verbal means of communication.

The researchers focused their attention on the texts of visual-verbal nature (verbal and iconic texts), the study of which has been exercised in

European tradition for quite a long period (N.W. Levie, J.R. Levin, R. Lentz, J. Reinwein, etc). However, research aimed at multimodal texts, involving different perceptual channels of perception (auditory-visual) for their representation, has been scarce. To name a few one can mention the study of the relationship between video and audio tracks of the movie (Hayes, Birnbaum, 1980), a comparison of the amount of acquired movie text information through verbal, visual and audio "tracks" (Kibrik, 2010), the study of cognitive peculiarities of perception of clips (Sharifulin, 2013).

Other researchers have also studied the coexistence of signs of visual and audial nature (L.S. Bolshakova, T.M. Rogozhnikov, E.G. Nikitin, T.A. Vinnikov and others).

Experimental study of regularities of intermodal interaction is an important step in the research of texts of multimodal nature.

1. Research Design

1.1. The problem

We conducted a series of experiments aimed at the study of competition of audial and visual channels while homogeneous verbal information is being presented in the condition of modality conflict.

We pursued the following research objectives:

- to study characteristics of bimodal perception of verbal stimuli in conflict modalities;

- to identify the impact of conflict "background" information on the perception of information extracted from the field of voluntary attention;

- to select a leading modality in bimodal (audial-visual) perception.

1.1.1. The hypothesis

Based on the objectives stated, we made an assumption that in case of voluntary attention being focused on verbal information of one of the modalities (visual), information acquired automatically via the second modality (audial) will affect the perception of the former original modality as well as the solution of the tasks related to this original modality.

1.2. Experiment one

The main experiment presupposed parallel bimodal presentation of words that contain identical or conflicting information in animateness category, and consisted of preparatory (pretest) and primary stages.

1.2.1. Pretest

In the preparatory phase we selected 120 nouns with different frequency of use, which is controlled by the "New frequency dictionary" (O.N. Lyashevskaya, S.A. Balls), created on the basis of NCRA. The ipm index was introduced for each word (number of usages per million).

During the pretest we asked respondents to rank all selected stimuli in accordance with animacy category using a Likert scale (N = 63, students aged 18 to 23 years) to scale subjective animacy in the mind of native speakers basing on a seven point system from 1 to 7 (1 - very inanimate, 2 - inan-

imate, 3 - rather inanimate, 4 - equally inanimate and animate, 5 - rather animate, 6 - animate, 7 - very animate).

1.2.2. Stimuli

The most and least animate words were used to form 80 stimuli (40 pairs) for the main experiment. Bilateral significance (t-test for independent samples) by the animacy factor between the groups of maximum and minimum animateness words was made $p < 0,0001$).

We have also eliminated the influence of frequency on the occurrence of functional asymmetry of modalities: bilateral significance (t-test for independent samples) of the groups of stimuli in each modality (audial and visual) amounted to $p = 0,755$.

Further the stimuli were paired (one for audio and one for visual modality), taking into account both factors. Pairing was based on the categoryies of animateness (O-animate, N-inanimate): a total of four cases, two matches (O-O, N-N) and two mismatches (O-N, N-O).

The types of stimuli in experiment one

	Visual modality (screen)	**Audial modality (headphone)**
The type of pairs	animate	animate
	animate	inanimate
	inanimate	animate
	inanimate	inanimate

We also controlled the length (number of syllables) in each pair of words (number of stimulus syllables in audial modality coincides with the number of syllables of visual stimulus).

Thus, the design of the experiment was 2×2, where independent variables were the ratio of modalities and animacy category. Dependent variables were presented by reaction time (RT) and accuracy of the task on categorization (ACC).

1.2.3. Sample

Students from different faculties, only those who did not participate in the pretest, aged 19 to 23 years, with normal or corrected to normal vision and normal hearing, N = 26 people, of which 10 were men.

1.2.4. Procedure

The experiment consisted of parallel bimodal presentation of words containing identical (match) or conflicting (mismatch) information with regard to animacy category (one of the most powerful semantic categories for lexical decision).

After a fixation cross (500 ms) pairs of stimuli were randomly presented (responses were counterbalanced), one of which appeared on the screen for a maximum of 3 000 ms before the following keys were pressed: 1 (animate) or 2 (inanimate). Another verbal stimulus sounded in the head-

phones with the overlying surface simultaneously with the appearance of a word on the screen. A new trial was preceded by a blank screen (500 ms). The experiment included a training session (10 pairs of stimuli), the data from which were excluded from the analysis.

During the experiment participants had to determine whether a word appearing on the screen was animate or not. This way voluntary attention was focused on visual modality.

1.2.5. Analysis of results

All data were analyzed, except for technical errors of respondents (pressing "space" instead of the correct keys, etc/). Prior to the analysis response times lying more than ± 2 standard deviations from the mean per condition (4,7%) were excluded.

In the first experiment the hypothesis about the modalities ratio in match and mismatch pairs of stimuli was tested. We also focused voluntary attention on visual modality.

Repeated measures ANOVA of the RT showed a significant effect (F (1, 24) = 7,5; p = 0,01) by factor ratio modalities: at the mismatch pairs RT increased significantly (fig. 1a).

Factorial analysis (ANOVA) of the ACC showed a significant effect (F (1, 36) = 7, p = 0,01) by factor ratio modalities: the probability of choosing the wrong option in cases of mismatch pairs increased significantly in comparison with the case of match ones (fig. 1*b*).

a   *b*
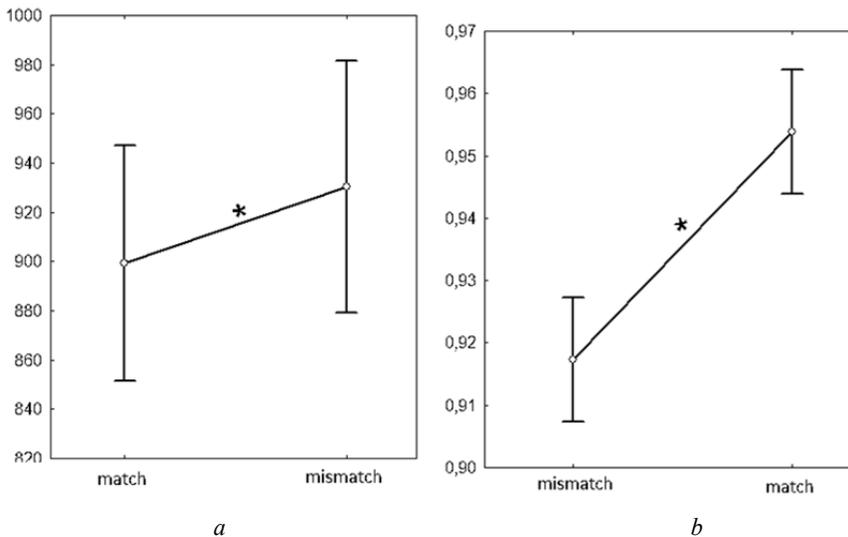
Fig. 1. The mismodal ratio of pairs of stimuli by RT factor (*a*), by ACC factor (*b*)

1.3. Experiment two

We also conducted an additional experiment aimed at identifying a dominant modality in multimodal perception of verbal stimuli.

1.3.1. The stimuli were the original stimuli from the first experiment, reclassified in accordance with a new task.

1.3.2. Procedure

The respondents were required to determine in which of the modalities an animate stimulus was presented, respondents had to press 1 for a visual and 2 for an audial modality. Thus, voluntary attention has not been set on visual modality, it was distributed in both sensory channels: visual and audial. So we had a one-way ANOVA: factor modality. Reaction time (RT) and accuracy task on categorization (ACC) served as dependent variables.

1.3.3. Analysis of results

To analyze the choice for a response all data were used, except for technical errors of respondents (pressing "space" instead of the correct keys, etc). Prior to the analysis response times lying more than ± 2 standard deviations from the mean per condition (4%) were excluded.
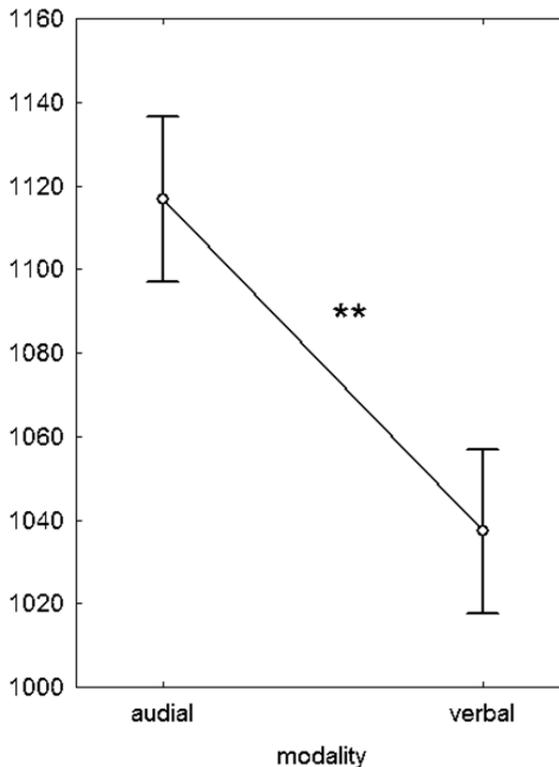
Fig. 2. The RT of perception of visual and auditory information

The data analysis of this experiment (One-way ANOVA) concluded that visual modality is a leading modality for perception $(F(1,38) = 8,1244, p = ,007)$. Respondents are more sensitive to stimuli from visual modality (fig. 2).

2. Conclusions

We investigated multimodal perception of verbal stimuli in conflict modalities and came to the following conclusions.

Visual modality proves to be a leading modality for the perception of verbal information. The results obtained confirmed our previous psycholinguistic experiment [1-5]. In other words, modality has a leading role in modality - type of the information opposition in case of multimodal perception.

The experimental data show that the existing functional asymmetry of intermodal verbal perception (visual modality playing a leading role) does not depend on the type of category (no interaction between factors). Therefore, this result should be replicable in terms of other semantic factors.

However, the difference in speed during the perception of audio-visual pairs with conflict and identical information (mismatch pairs are perceived significantly faster) shows significant effects of type of information on perception: the background information (which sounds outside voluntary attention of respondents) accelerates or slows down the perception of information from the field of voluntary attention.

Thus, it is possible to speak about some cognitive processes, accompanying the perception of information, which are not determined by a leading modality.

The question about multimodal perception, and the perception of multimodal texts is rather broad, and our study is only a step on the way to its further study.

References

1. LYASHEVSKAYA, O.N. and SHAROV, S.A., 2009. *A Frequency dictionary of modern Russian language (on the material of the National corpus of Russian language)*. Moscow: Abbuchung.
2. NEKRASOVA, E.D., 2014. About multimodal perception of the text. *Vestnik by Tomsk State University*, 378, pp. 45-48.
3. DANZ, A.D., 2011. Visual and audial impact on the determination of changes in the temporal frequency. *Experimental psychology*, 4 (2), pp. 48-61.
4. SONIN, A.G., 2006. *Modeling mechanisms understanding policedog texts*: dis. ... the topic of Dr of Science degree work. Moscow, p. 310.
5. LAKOFF, G. and JOHNSON, M., 1987. *Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things. What Categories Reveal about the Mind*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

METAPHORIC TERMS OF HYDROTECHNICAL TERM SYSTEM (IN RUSSIAN AND ENGLISH LANGUAGES)

A.G. Shirokolobova

Kuzbas State Technical University (Kemerovo, Russian Federation).
E-mail: nastja_shirokolo@rambler.ru

Abstract. The article deals with comparative analysis of Russian and English hydrotechnical terms in cognitive aspect. A metaphor is one of the most usual ways of nomination of facts in a language, so it is analyzed as the way of nomination of technical objects, and this allows making conclusions about peculiarities of mental processes of representatives of different nations. The paper presents a comparison of the metaphoric terms nominative models in Russian and English hydrotechnical term system. The analysis material of Russian and English term systems proves that metaphorical transfer of meaning is carried out by means of function, technical characteristics and external characteristics nomination. The material shows that semantic spheres of borrowing are: the man's world, the world of flora and fauna, the spatial orientation in the world, the world of objects and their states and the world of the exact sciences.
Keywords: concept; term; metaphor; comparative aspect; term systems; metaphorical transfer of meaning.

The purpose of this paper is a comparative analysis of the metaphorical Russian and English terms of hydrotechnical term systems with cognitive positions; this analysis allows comparing fragments of scientific knowledge in language processing and following the trends of mental processes of English and Russian cultures' representatives.

The role and the importance of a metaphor in organization and nomination of a term system are difficult to overestimate. A metaphor is often one of the most adequate ways of nomination of facts in a language; it allows conveying the essence of any phenomenon that has no established concept.

The material of analysis was based on Russian and English monographs and scientific articles about the construction of tailing dams and their functioning, and accidents at these dams [1-14]. The second block of sources was reference and educational literature; that is why special dictionaries were analyzed: English-Russian Polytechnic Dictionary (2001); English-Russian Dictionary of Hydraulic Engineering (1983); textbook for high schools "Hydrology and Hydraulic Structures" (1988); collection of standards 34.21.308-2005 "Hydraulic Engineering. The Basic Concepts. Terms and Definitions" (2005). The empirical basis of the study became Russian and English data file of hydraulic term systems, containing 920 term units (460 in each).

The material description is done by the following scheme: the basic concepts are defined at the first stage of the analysis; the selected concepts are analyzed on the material of the Russian language, and then on the material of the English language at the second stage. The analysis is based on the number of terms. Thus, the cognitive aspect of a description is based on the term "concept". Like Z.D. Popova and I.A. Sternin, we understand the term "concept" as a "quantum of structured knowledge" - a semantic category of the highest abstraction degree, including specific meanings of concretization of general semantics of a separate notion" [15: 4]. The term "concept" is used in the article to describe the deep semantics of terms in Russian and English hydrotechnical term systems, demonstrating "clusters of meaning" in transferring of special knowledge through the nominative function of terms, which is closely related to their significative function, and the ratio of processes refer to objects (object classes) and notions of objects. Without prejudice to the primary meaning of the term "concept", we see it as a set of semantic units of cultural specialized field, reflecting the specific worldview of native speakers.

Concepts' definition in Russian and English term systems is an important step because a scientific concept gives an idea of the conceptual construct which makes the analyzed term systems. To conduct the comparative cognitive analysis of hydrotechnical term systems it is necessary to identify the direction of grouping the nominative units. A concept, as a mental unit, is traditionally described through the means of analyzing its language objectivation, as the scientific concept description methodology is being developed; we define our position regarding the definition of the main concepts of hydrotechnical term system.

The construction of the nominative field of a scientific concept is the establishment and description of a set of linguistic resources nominating the investigated concept and its individual features. There is always a problem of a concept correct structuring because of the heterogeneity of the nominative field. When constructing the nominative field of a concept sphere of a hydrotechnical term system, we were not limited by the direct nomination, but revealed all available nominative fields of defined concepts, including the nomination of their denotations sorts for which we have established key terms-representatives - lexical units that describe the process of hydraulic structure construction.

Thus, the term-representative of the concept "The dam's type" is the term "dam" because of its frequent use in the analyzed material sources. The core of the nominative fields was determined through the synonymous expansion of the key term: for the term "dyke" they are: "dike", "embankment", "dam dike", "bund", "water storage tank", "settler".

The next step in the concept definition was to determine the features of the concept on the basis of the analysis definition of the term, verbalizing

this concept. The term "dam" means "hydraulic structure in the form of a mound of periodic action for the preservation of the territory from the effects of water" [16] or "a barrier preventing the flow of water or solids (such as soil or snow), or a barrier locking water flow in order to prevent flooding" [17].

The definitions show that nuclear components of the term "dam" are presented in semes: "barrier", "partition / fence", "water or solids", "waters", "flooding". The definitions' analysis of the term "dam" suggests speaking about the semantic opposition: on the one hand, this is a barrier from water or solids overflow, on the other it is a device for the accumulation of large amounts of water. Such opposition of meanings founded in one term, allows suggesting that it combines various features or functional characteristics: on the one hand it is a protecting object, on the other - a cumulative one. Consequently, the terms, including the term-representative "dam" in their structure and having the above features and characteristics, verbalize the concept "The dam's type". Thus, this concept is characterized by the following conceptual features: "hydrotechnical object", "technical features of the object" and "functional role".

The concept "The dam's structure" is verbalized by terms indicating a hydrotechnical structure in their semantics. From the definition of the term-representative "structure" - "location and connection of parts that make up the whole" [16] - the basic conceptual features are seen, namely: "location", "part of the whole". Consequently, it can be assumed that the terms verbalizing this concept, contain in their semantics an indication how this part makes up the structure and where it is in regard to the whole unit.

The concept "Equipment" is verbalized by units nominated objects or physical resources serving to equip a person or some technical things. The definition allows concluding that the nuclear feature of the concept is manifested through "set of items" or "set of things" which are used for equipment. Consequently, the division of three subconcepts, intending a certain set of parts ("Filters", "Weir", "Pipe system"), is justified and is made from the basic concept "Equipment". The concept "Equipment" in regard to its subconcepts actualizes "part - whole".

Thus, the concepts "The dam's fill type", "The material saved by dam" and "Minerals" were identified on the basis that the terms verbalizing them, manifest features such as "material" and "kind of material". The concept "The types of dam's failure" was defined on the basis of the analysis of the term-representative "emergency". An accident is a random act or situation which results in negative consequences. The nuclear feature of the concept is a mark of "accident" in the definition of terms verbalizing this concept.

Thus, the hydrotechnical sphere of concepts is verbalized by seven leading concepts:

• "The dam's type";

- "The dam's structure";
- "Equipment";
- "The dam's fill type";
- "The material saved by dam";
- "Minerals";
- "The types of dam's failure".

The determined hydrotechnical concepts of the sphere of concepts can be attributed to the main concepts due to the fact that they reflect the general idea of dam building field of knowledge; they display the system of components and relationships with each other, indicating the complex of functional characteristics of tailing dams and the mechanisms of their functioning.

Let us turn to the analysis of the Russian term system. First of all it should be mentioned that, as in the English term system, in Russian one, the term "dam" is the family of words forming the term, which is a part of 44 terms of the concept "The dam's type". This term was borrowed from Dutch, and maintained its original form and initial root. The term "dam" has two synonyms: "dyke" and "dam dyke". The term "dyke" means dyke, it is the native English word "dyke", which means a barrier from earth or stones. It should be noted that for Russian, the term "dyke" is a trace borrowing, which exists and is used with the term that appeared as a result of descriptive translation. The term "dam dyke" is also a trace borrowing from the German "Buhne", which has retained its original form in the process of transition to the Russian language, as well as the term "dyke". The term "embankment" is derived from the verb "embank" - it is embank mass of water that received the terminological name.

Analyzing the concept "The dam's type" it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that almost all terms have "talking" inner form, which can clearly demonstrate the purpose of an object, for example "water raising dam", "water storage dam", "spillway", "water supply dam" and so on. The group is also presented by the terms whose internal form shows us not only the purpose of the dam, but also its technical characteristics, such as "overflow weir", "blind dam", "slime dam" and so on. In the analyzed context there are terms which have indication of the external features of a technical object in their name, for example: "low dam", "timber dam", "arch dam in series" and so on.

Let us analyze the term the "tailing dam", derived from the term "tails", which means the waste from mineral processing. The investigated term appeared on the basis of a common word "tail" as a result of transferring of a metaphorical meaning. The term "gabion dam" was formed by the first element borrowing from the Italian word "gabion", which means a wire box filled with stones to protect coasts from erosion, i.e. this object is braided grating. Why, then, this type of dam is not called, for example, grating or braided dam? Obviously, in the nomination process an attempt was made to

save the name of the design structure, since a "gabion dam" is a "dam, which is a setting of two-way boxes (gabions) which are filled with stone material. Boxes are made of high-tensile wire with a special anti-corrosion coating and they are designed so as to use the strength properties of the metal" [16].

Let us refer to the following concept - "The dam's structure". Here, as in the first concept, most of terms have "talking" inner form, which indicates the object destination. For example, the terms "slope", "grade", "fill", "shaft". The term "dam's body" occurred by metaphorical transfer of meaning of a common word "body, corpus" on the hydrotechnical object. In the terminologization process an object got some animation, i.e. the name "body", associating with the largest part of a living organism, was fixed to the object.

The concept "Equipment" is verbalized by the term "filter" and its derivatives, which are part of a significant amount of term combinations. The term "filter" is derived from the Latin "filtrum" by a metaphorical transfer of the meaning by similarity; and any filter was used to designate a material that looks like felt and as a result of practical usage the word "filter" got new meanings, which the word "felt" couldn't have.

Concepts "The dam's fill type" and "The material saved by dam" are verbalized mostly by terms appearing in the process of terminologization of common words. The term "slurry" (powdered product, containing noble metals precipitated in electrolysis of copper and other metals) is the borrowing from the German language, and in common usage means "dirt"; and the term "pulp" (dispersed system (smaller than $1 \pm 0,5$ mm) of mineral with water) appeared thanks to metaphorization of the Latin word "pulpa", meaning "flesh".

In the concept "Minerals" there are no examples of terms metaphorization, but there is metonymy process, as the concept is verbalized (90%) by borrowings from classical and other languages, for example "copper" was taken from the name of the country "Media", "bauxite" was named after the name of a place where its deposits were found for the first time, "kaolin" was named after the name of the hill where there were its deposits, "gypsum" - from the Greek "chalk", "potash" - from the English "pot" and "ash", "fluorite" - from the Latin "fluorine" and so on.

Referring to the concept "The types of dam's failure" it should be noted that this concept is represented in 95% by common words with "transparent" inner form which became terms. For example, the term "landslide", flood", "collapse", "wear", "break", "capping".

Let us turn to the analysis of the English term system. Analyzing the concept "The dam's type", it is necessary to draw attention to the fact that the term "dam" is the family of words forming term in this concept; it is a borrowing from Dutch, and the term retained completely its original form in the transition to English. The term "dam" has two synonyms: "dyke" and

"bund". The term "bund" is a borrowing from the German word "buhne". The term "dyke" is originally an English word; it means a barrier of earth or stones. A metaphorical transfer is obvious in the term's semantics; it is a complex hydrotechnical object, performing the same protecting function.

Let us analyze the term "tailing dam". As in Russian the English term "tailings" is derived from the word "tail", which, of course, is associated with a part of the animal's body with the object placed behind, or with something not used in everyday life. With the use of imagination these associative meanings were transferred, and the term "tailings" was formed, denoting waste from mineral processing. The term "tailing dam" denotes the type of a dam that holds liquid wastes, remaining after minerals processing, i.e. the term semantics has the meaning of vestigiality. The nomination of this phenomenon shows primarily the role of imagination because the word "tail" is perceived as unnecessary.

Let us consider the term "impounding dam". It's possible to say that it was resulted from the word "pond", or its dialect meaning "damming, filling the dam". It is clear that the practical application of this type of dam played an important role in nomination of the object: this dam is used to raise the water level. Consequently, imagination and associative thinking were involved in the term nomination, as the meaning to "fill with water" turned into the meaning to "raise the water level".

Let us analyze the term "water retaining dam" from the point of view of motivating internal form. The first component of the term is "water", the second - "retaining" - from the verb "to retain" and the third - "dam", and the meaning 'save' is the central component of a given term. Therefore, we can assume that a significant role in nomination of the term was played by such processes as perception and creative thinking, and a practical application of the technical object caused that the specified type of a dam is perceived as holding or water retaining.

Here are some more examples. For example, an "overtopped dam", where the "overtopped" is a compound word consisting of the adverb "over" and the noun "top". The nomination peculiarities of this phenomenon / object is that it accents the direction - "up" qualified by the adverb "too much", i.e. the water level in the dam is high above measure. One could argue that in this example sensory perception of the object can be seen, which indicates the need to drain water. The feature of overtopping in the nomination process was transformed into functional characteristics of this type of a dam, i.e. the dam which stored a lot of water and which must be emptied. Thus, it is possible to say that there was a revaluation of reality, and fullness was seen as something that must be drained.

One more example is the term "basket dam". The word "basket" means "a woven container" or, rarely, to "braid by wire". The term "gabion" is a borrowing from the Italian word "gabion", which means "a box of wire

filled with stones, which protects the coast from erosion" [16]. This term is metaphorical, since the nomination of the object makes actual a certain way of construction of the object on the basis of similarities.

The term "check dam" denotes a dam to protect the area and structures located on it from flooding at high levels of water in the watercourse. In the process of nomination there was a transformation of the verb "check", resulting in a reconsidered term which means protection of something due to low pressure. Let us analyze some more terms. It seems that in the process of nomination of the term "soil saved dam" a person primarily actualized the functions of the object, so a dam saves, protects the soil from erosion, hence, the estimated characteristics of the protective type of a dam affected the nomination process of the term.

In the term "butterfly dam", interpretation and imagination also played an important role. It is obvious that the constructions of water gates of this kind of dam resembles a butterfly and are compared with wings. The given term is a prime example of a metaphorical transfer on the basis of similarities with the animal world. Another term created in the same way is the "beaver type dam. The metaphorical transfer is done on the similarity to the animals work, i.e. this dam looks as if it was built by beavers - natural dam builders.

Let us analyze the terms actualizing the concept "The dam's structure". In contrast to the previous concept "the dam's type", this concept is verbalized by one word terms appearing from the process of terminologization. Here are some examples. The term "slope" is derived from a common word "slope"; as a result of rethinking, the term "slope" has fixed the original meaning of a common word. It should be noted that in the process of nomination of the term a successful attempt was made to retain its original lexical meaning, seen in the form and shape of the object, since the slope is an inclined surface.

The term "head of the dam" has also descended from a common word "head". We can assume that in the nomination of this term the importance of the object is primarily actualized, and then there was the metaphorical transfer (with subsequent representation) to a new object of a particular notion of common vocabulary in the form of linguistic signs, i.e. the word "head" became a term with the meaning of "upper part", "the main element". Moreover, imagination pointed that this element of the construction is the main by analogy with the head - the upper part of a human body.

The same processes can be observed in analyses of the terms "body" or "toe". The term "body" appeared by metaphorical transfer of meaning of a common word "body" on the hydraulic object. It is also obvious that in the process of terminologization there was some object animation, i.e. the word "body" associated with the human body was fixated for the object, but not, for example, the "corpus".

Let us analyze the term "toe", which descended from a common word "toe", and means "big toe, sole". As a result, under the influence of reflec-

tion and imagination the initial meaning "sole" transformed into the "base" in the form of a prism, and the function of the thumb which is used to support and stop while walking, transformed into the "stop".

The term "tree" has also appeared from a common word "tree". It is a very good example of how perception influenced the semantic meaning of a term. A tree is a vertical object and can be used as a support, hence, the metaphorical meaning of the term - "vertical diaphragm, support". The term "foundation" comes from the Latin "fundamentum". However, in Russian hydrotechnical term system, only the term "foundation" is used for the word "foundation", although in other areas of knowledge other translations are possible.

Let us analyze the terms, actualizing the concept "Equipment". As it was noted previously, the term system has a family of words forming terms that create special microsystems constructed on separating any distinguishing objects features or phenomena. In the investigated group, such terms are "pipe" and "drain" and their derivatives. Consider these terms' semantics.

The term "pipe" is derived from the French word "pipette", indicating a narrow glass tube. The original word, according to the phonetic rules, was reduced to "pipe", and the original meaning has also undergone significant changes - the word "pipe" came to mean "smoking pipe", "musical instruments in the form of tubes", "water pipe". The terminological meaning of the word "pipe" is a pipe, a pipeline, and a canal. Thus, the word "pipette" was transformed in the course of practical activity under the influence of imagination, and later the meaning of the term saved the image of the original form of the tube in its semantics, transmitting liquid, gas and sound.

The term "drain" came from English into French - "drainage", and then into Russian [18], and in all languages it has preserved its original form. The word "drain" means to "dry", to "drain", the "system of branch pipes", as the term "drain" is translated as "drainage ditch", "filter". The meaning to "drain" was transformed into the meaning to "pass through itself or absorb liquid".

The term "decant" was derived from the French "decanter", which means to "filter off" [Ibid]. It can be assumed that the process of fluid pumping was rethought, and based on the meaning "purified by straining through something (tissue paper)" As a result, the notion of the filter appeared, which was fixed as the first meaning of the term "decant".

The term "filter" derived from the Latin "filtrum" [Ibid]. In the process of practical activity humans needed words to describe the process of passing various suspensions through felt, as well as the term to describe materials that replaced the felt. It seems that the choice of this form of the word occurred as a result of the metaphorical transfer, and the main properties of felt were actualized signs: strength and its passing capacity. In addition, the borrowed word "filter" refers to the general concept, while naming as "felt" materials that have nothing in common with it, is illogical.

Let's pay attention to the term "blanket". The word "blanket" is commonly used and means a "blanket cover". In transition from the common words in terminology, a metaphorical transfer occurred based on real similarities, when under the influence of imagination an object (filter), which also has a flat shape, was called "blanket", and the perception prompted that any protective layer may also be referred to by the term "blanket", as a blanket is a protection against cold cover, noise, light and so on.

The term "outlet" is also an example of an orientation metaphor, consisting of spatial preposition "out" and the verb "let", indicating the direction outside. The motivational sign of the object nomination is obvious – it's a pipe, draining water. The family of words forming term "pipe" produces a metaphorical term 'outlet pipe", which is also an example of an orientation metaphor with a "transparent" inner form. The term "runoff" is formed by the verb "run", and postfix "off", indicating the action termination. Consequently, the term can mean quick removal, and since we are talking about hydrotechnologies, it becomes obvious that only liquid can be removed quickly. Thus, understanding of the inner form of a term allows us to trace the nomination process, and a selection of actualized feature in a term metaphorization is not accidental, and provides insight into the worldview perception of a particular ethnic group.

The concept "The dam's fill type" is a small group that includes 15 terms, composed mainly of common words that became terms as a result of terminologization and metaphorical transfer. For example, the term "slime", derived from the German "Schlamn" [18]. The term "slime" means "sludge", i.e. the word preserved the original form and semantics in transition from the common word to a term.

The term "fill" is a result of terminologization of a common word which means "a sufficient amount to fill anything", i.e. it is possible to say that the term retains its original semantics, and its internal form is transparent. The term "bulk" shows the same process. As a common word, "bulk" means "heap", "mass", as the term it means "bulk", preserving the original semantics. The term "bitstone" is formed from the noun "bit" and "stone". On the basis of metaphorical transfer, the term "bitstone" appeared i. e. small loose stone.

Let us analyze the concept "The material saved by dam". The term "scrap" as a common word means a "piece", "clipping", and "balance". After terminologization, the word "scrap" underwent a metaphorical transfer - small residual pieces were called crowbar.

The word "beach" in terminological usage means "alluvial material". It is possible to assume that the initial meanings of the coastal rocks under the influence of perception and imagination were compared, and there was a metaphorical transfer of meaning of sea pebbles in the term "beach", which must not necessarily be of marine origin. Coastal stones are constantly

washed by water, get polished, and, therefore, the word "beach" can be called a material that is sluiced.

The term "crushed rock" has a very interesting semantics. The word "crushed" is the participle II of the verb "crush". "Rock" is translated as stone, rock. The process of metaphorical transfer is obvious, i.e. the meaning of fragmentation was extended to a part. The term "faulty water" consists of the word "fault" which means "deficiency", "error", and "guilt". During terminologization a negative meaning of water occurred - water that cannot be used.

The concept "Minerals" is verbalized by borrowings from different languages: Greek, Latin, French, Chinese, and German. For example, the term "zink" is borrowed from German. Latin "zincum" is translated as "white patches". The origin of this word is not precisely determined. Presumably, it comes from the Persian "cheng", though this name refers not to zinc, but to all stones. The word "zinc" is found in the works of Paracelsus (1493-1541) and other researchers of the 16-17th centuries, and it dates back probably to the Germanic "zinc" (bloom, an eyesore). The term "bauxite" derived from French, from the village name "Les Baux", where it was discovered (the south of France). The term "kaolin" was borrowed from Chinese, from the name of the hill where it was found, and means "white clay". In nomination of these terms, the tendency to name the object on the current feature is seen.

Let us analyze the terms describing the concept "The types of dam's failure". First of all, it should be noted that all names of the thematic group appeared in the process of terminologization of common words. For example, the term "slide" originated from a common word "sliding". As a result of the associative transfer of meaning and under the influence of imagination the original meaning of maintaining the essence of the process, moving forward, touching the surface changed. Thus, the word "slide" became the term "slide", which means "the mass of anything that creeps down, forward, sag". The "landslide" became a synonym of this term; it was formed by adding words "land" and "slide", i.e., the term means "slip of the soil".

A number of terms deserve special attention. For example, the English term "capping" originated from "cap" as an "object, located on the top that protects against external influences" [18]. However, the term refers to the lower part of the foundation, distributing the load on the ground. It is possible to assume that due to differences of attitude among native speakers, one perceives an important element of the structure to be the top, and the other - the base. The term "boil" derived from the common word; the terminological meaning of "boil" is the process of removal of fine particles of water filtered in rock mass or soil. A process of boiling looks like water boiling; thanks to imagination and perception, a metaphorical transfer occurred on the similarity of features and the word "boil" became a term, and preserved the original

semantics. The term "sloughing" occurred from "slough", which means "slough off", "peel off", "break off a habit". Under the influence of imagination there was the comparison of the outer layer of the dam with the skin, and the word "sloughing" got terminological meaning "collapse", "slide" - rather slow process, which can be compared with the shedding of the skin by reptiles. The process of rethinking of the word "bulging" is interesting, the original meaning of the word "bulge" is inflated leather bag, sack. Thus, under the influence of imagination, a metaphorical transfer occurred and the term "bulging" originated.

The investigated material confirms the activity of metaphor as one of the most adequate ways of objects' nomination and allows conveying the essence of phenomena which have no well-established concepts. As a result, the comparative analysis has revealed regularity in nomination of metaphorical terms, reflecting the characteristic features of both term systems (see table).

**Comparison of metaphoric terms nominative models
of Russian and English hydrotechnical term system**

Metaphoric terms nominative model of Russian term system	Metaphoric terms nominative model of English term system
Function nomination	Function nomination
Technical characteristics nomination	Technical characteristics nomination
External characteristics nomination	External characteristics nomination

As it is seen from table 1, metaphorical transfer of meaning in Russian and English term systems is carried out by means of function, technical characteristics and external characteristics nomination. Models of metaphorical transfer of meaning are the same in both languages, but the English model of external characteristics nomination corresponds to all three models of nomination in Russian. In other words, the formation of metaphorical terms is a complex creative process, which uses such cognitive processes as perception, imagination, conceptualization and nomination of objects and phenomena of the world, reflecting the world vision and scientific worldview of representatives of two different cultures. A distinctive feature of a hydrotechnical term system is the presence of several metaphorical terms to refer to similar phenomena, objects and processes, but in most cases the difference between terms is due to the necessity to distinguish various features that are crucial for hydrotechnical professionals in different language cultures. The presence of several metaphorical terms to name similar phenomena, objects and processes became a distinctive feature of term systems, but in most cases the difference between the terms is due to the peculiarities of fundamental importance.

Another distinctive feature identified in the analysis of Russian and English term systems is the presence of metaphorical terms borrowed from various fields of knowledge. Semantic spheres of borrowing are: the human world, the world of flora and fauna, the spatial orientation in the world, the world of objects and their states, the world of the exact sciences. Metaphorical terms created by transfer of meaning are typical for English (32%), and Russian (26%) term systems. An individual, as a rule, sees the form of the object like the structure of a human body, i.e. giving objects a head, body, legs, feet, and so on. For example, this feature is clearly visible in the nomination of the following English terms: "head", "body", "toe" and so on. Russian terms are formed using such metaphors less often, but there are a few examples of terms: "body", "crest of the dam", "toe". In terms of compared term systems, the color palette of the real world is not reflected, i.e. the objects are colorless, indicating that the color is less important than the form or function of an object.

References

1. 2005. *Water Engineering. Basic concepts. Terms and definitions: CO 34.21.308-2005 / JSC. Company "All-Russian Scientific Hydraulic Inst. Vedeneev with the participation of JSC "Institute of Hydraulic Engineering" and JSC "Teploelectroproject".* Saint-Petersburg: RAO "UES of Russia".
2. 1988. *Hydrology and Hydraulic Structures. Study guide for high schools.* Moscow: Vyshaya Shkola.
3. *Industrial Safety Requirements for the Slime and Tailing Dams' Operation,* 2008. Moscow: Approved by the Order of Emergency Situations Minister of Russia № 189, 29.10.2008.
4. SOBOLEV, E.G., 1994. Influence of ravine beam system in the development of emergency situations on the ground dams (dikes), water, slime and tailings dams. *Theses of International scientific-technical conference "Ecology of Chemical Production"*, 1. Severodonetsk: Fizinter, pp. 51-54.
5. SOBOLEV, E.G., 1995. Effect of geodynamic processes on the origin and development of accident dangerous areas on the dams (dikes), water, slime and tailings dams. *Theses of VI International scientific-technical conference "Ecology of Industrial Region".* Donetsk: DNTU publishing house, pp. 79-81.
6. SOBOLEV, E.G., 1994. Complex of new geophysical techniques to assess the ecological safety of operation of water, sludge and tailings. *Theses of International scientific-technical conference "Ecology of chemical industry products".* Severodonetsk: Fizinter, pp. 52-53.
7. 1994. *Technical Report on the Construction and Operation of Tailings Dams*. Published by the United States Environmental Protection Agency, the Department of Solid Waste, Special Western Branch. Washington: FENSTER.
8. 1994. *Technical report. Design and Evaluation of Tailing Dams*. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency. Office of Solid waste. Special Waste Branch. 401 M Street, SW, Washington, DC 20460.
9. Tailings Dams: Risk of Accidents, Lessons Learned in Practice, 1995-2001. *Bulletin of the British Council*, 121. Published by the International Commission on Large Dams and the Committee on the Technical Facilities and Storage of Liquid Industrial Wastes. Washington: FENSTER.
10. *Safety of tailings dams*. Last updated 21 Aug. 2004.

11. 1994. *Tailings Dam Incidents, U.S. Committee on Large Dams*. USCOLD (compilation and analysis of 185 tailings dam incidents). Denver, Colorado. *Environmental and Safety Incidents concerning Tailings Dams at Mines: Results of a Survey for the years, 1980-1996 by Mining Journal Research Services,* 1996. A report prepared for United Nations Environment Programme, Industry and Environment (compilation of 37 tailings dam incidents). Paris.

12. *1996. Environmental and Safety Incidents concerning Tailings Dams at Mines: Results of a Survey for the years, 1980-1996 by Mining Journal Research Services; a report prepared for United Nations Environment Programme, Industry and Environment (compilation of 37 tailings dam incidents)*. Paris, 129 p.

13. 1997. *Trends in tailing dam safety*. Iain G. Bruce (Ed.), Clint Logue, Lori-Ann Wilcheck, Bruce Geotechnical Consultant Inc.

14. 1997. *Damage Cases and Environmental Releases from Mines and Mineral Processing Sites*. U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, Office of Solid Waste (62 summaries illustrating recent mining and mineral processing damage cases in a variety of mineral commodity sectors and states, including several tailings dam failures). Washington, DC.

15. POPOVA, Z.D. and STERNIN, I.A., 2001. *Essays in Cognitive Linguistics*. Voronezh: Origins.

16. http://www.glossary.ru

17. http://ru.wikipedia.org

18. 1988. *Dictionary of Foreign Words*. Moscow: The Russian Language.

MEANS OF SHOWING THE LINGUISTIC DESIGNATIONS
OF STAGES OF LIFE IN DIALECT COMMUNICATION
(THE SPEECH GENRE OF THE AUTOBIOGRAPHICAL STORY)

S.V. Voloshina

Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: vsv1304@yandex.ru

Abstract. The aim of this paper is to reveal the means of linguistic designation of stages of life in the speech genre of the autobiographical story for dialect speech. This speech genre provides information about the speaker's life from the date of birth to the moment of communication. The main focus of attention is on the speaker's stages of development (childhood, youth and old age).
Keywords: Autobiographical story; speech genre; concept; life journey; dialect communication.

Interest in various types of human communication increased markedly in the 1980-1990s. Colloquial speech is one of the most popular subjects of study in modern linguistics. The genre aspect, based on the concept of speech genre, has been actively developed over the last decades among approaches to its study. The study of speech genres, in turn, is carried out using different materials and in various aspects: cognitive [1-2], linguopersonological [3-4], psycholinguistic [5], gender [6], functional [7-9], etc. The functional aspect involves identification of the characteristics of speech genres in any sphere of communication and determination of means which take part in the formation of the speech genre. The functioning of language units of different levels is considered in close connection with an individual and linguistic identity and it attempts to identify speech characteristics of a speaker in the context of involvement of modern linguistics in the anthropocentric paradigm. Along with the study of reflection of an individual in language, it is no less important to study the reflection of language in an individual.

Thus, the subject of this research (the speech genre of the autobiographical story) is one of the ways to express the relationship between language and an individual - the human element in language, an individual in his or her self-fulfillment is fully realized in the speech genre.

The autobiographical story is a complex informative speech genre, which provides information about the informant's life from the date of birth to the moment of communication. Unlike autobiography as an official document, this speech genre is informal, it exists in oral form and it is not always characterized by the chronological order of a story. However, one of the basic concepts which constitutes the model of this genre is "life" with its

fluidity and numerous events, that is why autobiographical story is a description of life.

In this paper, the linguistic designation of individual's stages of age and life is considered using the Russian dialects of the Middle Ob. The source of this material is dialect speech (111 texts), which are stored in the Laboratory of General and Siberian Lexicography of TSU, and audio records of dialect speech made by the author of this paper in 2008 during an expedition to Pervomayskoye settlement of Pervomaisky District of Tomsk Region. The informants were dialect speakers, representatives of the folk type of speech culture, who were born between the end of the nineteenth and the first half of the twentieth century (1893-1946).

The dialect speakers describe their life as a line from birth to death through the most important moments and events.

The units of lexical-semantic field "age" are some of the key ones in the designation of the stages of individual's life and, therefore, in building of a speech genre of the autobiographical story. In our opinion, the concept "age" accompanies an individual throughout all his or her life and it gives an indication of an individual's self-perception and his or her understanding of reality and their self-understanding in the world.

The investigation of verbalization methods of the concept "age" in the Russian language, conducted by F.A. Marzouk, suggests that "the concepts of "childhood" and "youth" represent the greatest number of lexical units in the Russian language. This indicates the major importance of these concepts for native speakers of Russian" [10: 6].

While studying the concept "age" in Russian and French linguocultures, N.V. Kryuchkova considers age as an ordered sequence of the main periods: childhood, adolescence, youth, maturity and old age [11]. The way the approaches of linguistic designation of stages of life are described in dialect communication allows us to make a conclusion about the significance of the three periods - childhood, youth and an old age for the dialect speakers. What is more, in the material there are no lexical units, nominating adolescence and maturity. The analysis of a speech genre of the autobiographical story in dialect communication showed that the concept "life" is closely associated with the concept "work" in the minds of the representatives of the peasant culture [12]. Consequently, life is divided into periods which are associated with working ability, that is why, the periods of adolescence and maturity, when people can work, may probably be equated to youth and they are not highlighted in a special way.

Childhood is the first stage of an individual's life. It is represented in the autobiographical story from the point of view of an adult. The reflection of this stage of life is also reflected in its nominations.

The stage of childhood is nominated with abstract nouns.

- *childhood*: *"This is how our childhood passed"* (Tom. Kolp.); *"I had to work from my childhood, there was no time to study"* (Tom. Nikolsk.).

- *pupilage*: *"We lived poorly, the family was big. We asked people for help from pupilage"* (Tom. Bat.).

Informants call themselves with such lexical units as *an orphan, a stripling, a kid, a girl, a late bloomer, a small fry*: *"Mother Agrippina Nikolayevna died early, there were five orphans left"* (Tom. B. Yar); *"I also remember the Civil War, but I was a stripling at that time"* (Tom. Bat.); *"We worked day and night. I was a kid, I stood on a field stack"* (Tom. Bat.); *"My father died, my mother moved here, there were 2 of us girls left"* (Tom. Zyr.); *"We left school after the 3rd form, when I came to the first form, I was a late bloomer. There was only one school"* (Tom. B. Yar); *"The table was very long, there was a grandfather at the beginning of it, and we - a small fry - were at the end of the table"* (Tom. Kolp.).

It should be noted that the informant is aware of age changes and often divides stories according to the stages and events in their life. Thus, there is a movement of an individual through time and his or her self-identification, which has an influence on self-designation and the choice of lexical unit for it. V.V. Nurkova notes that an individual expresses him or herself in the way he of she remembers, but not the way he or she actually is [13: 9].

In addition to nouns used for self-designation at the stage of childhood, adjectives can be used as well: *little. "I was brought here when I was little"* (Tom. B. Yar).

The use of different collocations should be noted on the phraseological level: *one smaller than the other. "There were 12 of us in the family: 7 children, who were one smaller than the other, a grandfather, mother, father, a daughter-in-law, a grandmother and a sister-in-law"* (Tom. Kolp.).

The next period of an individual's life is youth. A noun *youth* is used for its nomination: *"After the Civil War we were poor, there was little land, the family was big, there were seven children, I lived in peasant's family in poverty till my youth. For example, I was 17 and I had no trousers, no shirt, and it was necessary to go to my girlfriend"* (Tom. B. Yar).

The following nominations are used by dialect speakers to designate an individual during youth:

- *preteen*: *"Earlier when you got a passport you could not find a job. A preteen, they said"* (Tom. Togur); *"I knew my future husband for a long time. He was older then us. And we, preteens, gathered in our own company"* (Tom. Bat.);

- *girl*: *"Father cried and took flour to sell, it was necessary to prepare tocher for the girl"* (Tom. Bat.);

- *chappy:* *"And then I got married. An unattractive, but good chappy came to hand…"* (Tom. Kolp.).

It should be noted that a collective noun *the young* is used in addition to the mentioned units: *"The life was interesting, we often gathered in companies. And the young were never bored" (Tom. B. Yar)*.

The use of an adjective *young* is also typical: *"I had lived with him for 3 years, and the War began. I was young when I became a widow" (Tom. Meln.); "I was young when we got married" (Tom. Bat.)*.

Another way of designation is to use such word-combinations as *young lad, young girl*: *"I lost my health there, although I went there being a young lad" (Tom. M. Bab.)*.

The dialect speakers associate this stage, first of all, with the following events:

- army service: *"I was called up for military service in 1920. It was hard to serve; nobody spared our brother-soldier" (Tom. Bat.)*;

- study: *"It wasn't possible to study. I left school after the third form and went to work" (Tom. Zyr.)*;

- wedding: *"We didn't have a mighty wedding. We had a small wedding party and this is how we celebrated it" (Tom. B. Yar)*;

- birth of children: *"The first baby, daughter Nadya, was born after 11 months. When she was three, another daughter Lyuba was born. After three years one more daughter appeared" (Tom. Meln.)*;

- work: *"When they knew, who I had worked as earlier, they sent me to work as an associate director of a fish factory. I was still young then, I was 38 years old" (Tom. Nikolsk.)*.

The dialect speakers describe the events of their youth mainly with the help of perfective past tense verbs:

"I was called up for military service in 1942, I took discharge in 1947" (Tom. B. Yar); *"We went and registered" (Tom. Meln.)*.

As we noted earlier, there are no lexical units nominating the age of maturity in the material. Only a substantivized adjective *adult* and the nouns *baba (woman)* and *muzhik (man)* are used in texts: *"And then she (grandmother) taught me and told that there was some Lazarus, and he was indeed in the Bible. When I became an adult, after the War, I found that Bible" (Tom. Pervomaysk.)*. The nouns *baba (woman)* and *muzhik (man)* are usually used while speaking about somebody, participants of some events, to whom (participants) the informant adds himself or herself: *"People were hungry and got tired of the War. It was necessary to raise farms, there was no money. All men were killed, only women left. We worked hard, all days and nights, and 5 years passed this way. And then it seemed to become easier" (Tom. Kolp.)*.

The next stage of an individual's life, which, as a rule, is opposed to youth, is denoted by the phrase *old age*: *"Old age has come, I have lived till old age, and God forbid living till death - as people say" (Tom. Kolp.); "Everything hurts in old age" (Tom. Bat.)*; by the phrase *get old*: *"I became a widow when my son was five. And I got old with him" (Kem. N.-Rom.)*.

An individual who came to this age is named by the nouns *grandfather, grandmother*, and the phrases *an old man, an old woman*: *"Grandfather will be 70 years old" (Tom. Meln.); "We lived with grandfather and then he died" (Tom. Bat.); "We had lived here for 34 years, and then the old woman died" (Tom. Togur); "I am one for myself, my old man is old" (Tom. Meln.); "And now my old woman receives a pension and works as a caretaker" (Tom. B. Yar)*.

The informants can use the adjective *old* to nominate a person of this age: *"Sometimes they visit their mother, but they don't pamper the old one, they are busy" (Tom. Bat.); "I also worked at kolkhoz, then I got old and then retired" (Tom. B. Yar)*.

The dialect speakers consider old age as a period of reckoning: *"I have seen everything in my life…" (Tom. B. Yar); "I have done everything in my lifetime, and now I have a rest, and I have been granted a pension" (Tom. M. Bab.)*.

It is believed that those who have reached old age are experienced, wise, they can give advice: *"Now I don't do anything by myself, but I can give advice, people come to me for advice how to locate fishing-nets and when it is better to pull them out" (Tom. Kolp.); "People come to me and ask when they should plant" (Tom. B. Yar)*. An old person is respected: *"Isn't it pleasant to me that I am so respected" (Tom. Bat.)*.

This stage is accompanied by health deterioration: *"I am very old now, everything hurts. I have a headache" (Tom. Bat.)* and it is characterized as a stage of approaching death by the following collocations:

- *to pass away*: *"We were born here and we will die here. The time is running out and we are going to pass away" (Tom. Bat.)*;

- *to depart this life*: *"I have lived here for 67 years. It's enough! I should depart this life. I have not got a lot of vivacity. I don't go berry-picking in the forest..." (Tom. Bat.)*;

- word combinations *to prepare to be taken*: *"All my life left behind, we prepare to be taken, let the young people live and enjoy the life, we have lived our life and it's time to die" (Tom. Bat.)* and etc.

This stage of life is characterized by lack of strength, working capacity: *"I don't go fishing, I left it, fishing is also a hard work, and I don't have any strength" (Tom. B. Yar)*; health: *"And now we live out our life, we have not got health. What can we do? We live and waste life" (Tom. Bat.)*; memory: *"I have become an old woman and started to forget everything" (Tom. B. Yar)*.

While describing life in old age, the dialect speakers use comparative constructions to show comparison with the life in youth: *"We have become old, it is difficult to treat us, it is easier to treat young people, you are healthy, and you can recover soon" (Tom. B. Yar)*.

The most frequently used constructions are the syntactical ones: *"then … now", "earlier … now", "to waste life"*: *"When I was young, everything*

was easy. And now I don't live, I drudge. I <u>waste life</u>" (Tom. Bat.); "My strength was spent on work. And now I sit as a telega. But <u>earlier</u> I worked hard" (Tom. Bat.).

While comparing two stages of life, the dialect speakers can use implicit comparative constructions, where only one period can be expressed: *"I had lived here for one year and then I got married. I was not even 17. <u>I didn't have mind</u>" (Tom. Bat.); "<u>It is good now</u>. Children are mature, healthy, they live well. And that is all we need, we have lived and suffered during our life for it" (Tom. B. Yar).*

Apart from self-nomination and identification of stages of life in the autobiographies, the authors speak about age relations in family: *"Our family was big, and I was <u>the youngest</u>" (Tom. B. Yar); "I was <u>the last but one</u> girl by age" (Tom. Nikolsk.).*

The change of stages of age and stages of life may be indicated by means of perfective verbs used in the past tense. For example, *had passed, had grown up*: *"My 16 years <u>had passed</u>, I went to work at a fish factory" (Tom. B. Yar); "<u>I had grown up</u>, I didn't want to study: we had horses, cows, we began to work" (Tom. Kolp.).*

The dialect speakers can indicate the stages of life with the help of numerals, which nominate age, the year of event, designate stages of life, the beginning and the end of a stage of life: *"I had worked from <u>13</u> till the old age" (Tom. Bat.); "After the Virgin of Mercy I will be <u>68</u> years old" (Tom. Bat.); "I am <u>67</u>" (Tom. Nar.); "I am <u>70</u> without <u>2</u> years" (Kem. Mitrof.).*

Cardinal and ordinal numerals are used in order to nominate all the above mentioned stages of life:

- childhood: *"When I was <u>12</u>, my mother and father died" (Tom. Kolp.)*;
- youth: *"I got married when I was <u>22</u> in 1947..." (Tom. B. Yar)*;
- old age: *"I will be <u>85</u> from the 10th of September" (Tom. Bat.)*.

There is no clear separation of stages of life in the informants' speech. An individual does not always imagine their life within the mentioned stages of life; it can be divided into pre-war and post-war life, before marriage and after it, independent life and life with parents. However, there are two clearly defined marks: birth and death.

The speech genre of autobiography is used for the description of life, that is why the units, which point on two main life marks - birth and death, appear to be the main ones among those forming the genre.

Thus, a group of lexical units naming the fact of birth is revealed. First of all, we should note the use of the verb "to bear" in Passive form past tense – "was / were born". The main construction, which points on the year and the place of birth, is a construction with "was / were born" + the preposition "in" + a year / a place of birth: *"I was born in 1918" (Tom. Kolp.).*

In addition to this construction the fact of birth can be nominated by using:

- lexical units <u>native</u>: *"I am <u>native</u> of Batkat" (Tom. Bat.)*;

- construction "personal pronoun "I" + was born + noun "year" + numeral: *"I was born in the year 1921" (Tom. Zyr.)*.

The informants mention the place and the year of birth while speaking about the fact of their birth.

In addition to the designation of their own birth, the informants tell about the birth and death of their relatives (parents, brothers, sisters, and children): *"I was born in 1924. My mother <u>died</u> at once. There was no food. My father <u>died</u> a year later; my brother and I left alone" (Tom. B. Yar); "Mother <u>buried</u> father, children left. The elder brother was 18 years old, another brother was 16, the third brother was 14, and there were some more, one smaller than the other. After <u>father's funeral</u> mother came and <u>gave birth</u> to my sister Manya. And I was the last but one" (Tom. Meln.)*.

Our study showed that the dialect speakers speak about their life dividing it into three main stages: childhood, youth and old age. Identification of units representing these stages of life allows us to indicate the specificity of the peasant worldview and means of language expression of the speech genre of the autobiographical story.

The list of abbreviations:
Bat. - Batkat
B. Yar - Belyy Yar
Zyr. - Zyryanskoye
Kem. - Kemerovskaya Oblast
Kolp. - Kolpashevo
M. Bab. - Maloye Babarykino
Meln. - Melnikovo
Mitrof. - Mitrofanovo
Nar. - Narym
Nikolsk. - Nikolskoye
N.-Rom. - Novo-Romanovo
Pervomaysk. - Pervomayskoye
Tom. - Tomskaya Oblast

References

1. DEMENTYEV, V.V. and FENINA, V.V., 2005. Cognitive genre studies: intracultural speech genre values. *Speech genres: collection of scientific articles*. Saratov: Publishing house of State academic center "College", issue 4. Genre and concept, pp. 5-34.
2. SLYSHKIN, G.G., 2004. *Linguocultural concepts and metaconcepts*. Volgograd: Peremena, 340 p.
3. KAZAKOVA, O.A., 2007. *Dialect language personality in genre-study aspect: monography*. Tomsk: Publishing house of Tomsk Polytechnic University, 200 p.
4. LEBEDEVA N.B. and KORYUKINA E.A., 2013. *Naive author as writing personality: genre-study aspect*. Kemerovo: Publishing house of Kemerovo State University, 179 p.
5. SEDOV, K.F., 2002. Psycholinguistic aspects of speech genres studies. *Speech genres: collection of scientific articles*. Saratov: Publishing house of State academic center "College", 3, pp. 40-52.

6. GOROSHKO, E.I. and SAENKO, A.N., 2005. Gender and genre (attempt of reflection). *Speech genres: collection of scientific articles.* Saratov: Publishing house of State academic center "College", 4, pp. 122-136.

7. SALIMOVSKY, V.A., 2002. *Speech genres in functionally stylistic interpretation (scientific academic text).* Perm: Publishing house of Perm University, 236 p.

8. GALLYAMOVA, N., 2002. Elementary speech genre "Promise, pledge": functionally-pragmatic aspect. *Specific questions of the Russian language and linguodidactics.* Poznan, pp. 39-47.

9. KARPOVA, N.A. and MOREVA, A.V., 2010. The perceptive communicative tactics in a speech genre of administrative announcement (On material of Russian and German). *Language and Culture*, 1 (9), pp. 24-32.

10. MARZUK, F.A., 2008. *Verbalization of "Age" concept in the Russian language*: Thesis of Candidate of Philological Sciences. Kaliningrad, 21 p.

11. KRUCHKOVA, N.V., 2003. *Concepts of age: On material of Russian and French*: Thesis of Candidate of Philological Sciences. Saratov, 23 p.

12. VOLOSHINA, S.V., 2008. *Speech genre of autobiographical story in dialect communication*: Thesis of Candidate of Philological Sciences. Tomsk, 26 p.

13. NURKOVA, V.V., 2000. *Accomplishing continues: Psychology of personality's autobiographical memory.* Moscow: Publishing house URAO, 320 p.

14. DEMESHKINA, T.A., 2002. *Methods of dialect culture concepts description. Picture of the world: models, methods, concepts. Materials of All-Russian interdisciplinary school for young scientists "Picture of the world: language, philosophy, science" (November 1-3, 2001).* Tomsk: Publishing house of Tomsk State University, pp. 59-67.

15. BLINOVA, O.I., 2009. Components of traditional speech culture (on pages of Middle Ob dictionaries). *Language and Culture*, 2 (6), pp. 5-10.

THEORY AND METHODOLOGY OF TEACHING FOREIGN LANGUAGES

EXPERIENCE IN DEVELOPING A SYSTEM OF EXERCISES AIMED AT TEACHING LITERARY TRANSLATION BASED ON COGNITIVE-DISCOURSE TEXT ANALYSIS

S.A. Boyko

Abstract. In modern methodology, the problem of teaching literary translation is very topical. In this paper, a new approach to overcoming difficulties in teaching literary translation by applying cognitive-discourse analysis is presented. A variety of exercises aimed at teaching literary translation is introduced. Attention is focused on the necessity of important translation competences in the process of cognitive-discourse analysis of literary text.
Keywords: discourse; text; discourse analysis; cognitive-discourse analysis; cognitive paradigm; structure of discourse; literary text.

Nowadays the research of such scholars as N.K. Garbovsky [1], N.I. Gez [2], Yu.V. Artemyeva and V.V. Alimov [4] has contributed to the creation of a significant number of various exercises aimed at the development of skills when working with texts. There are certain principles that build the basis of such exercises.

1. The principle of organizing work in a certain thematic environment.

2. The principle of overcoming psychological, linguistic and translation problems of comprehending original text.

3. The principle of sequencing of exercises from simple towards more complex ones.

4. The principle of comprehension of authentic material on a level of lexical meaning presented in text and on a level of understanding in general.

5. The principle of active fulfillment of different exercises.

6. The principle of loss minimization.

There are exercises in raw methods of literary translation teaching based on cognitive-discourse analysis aimed at professional competence formation of a translator. These exercises could be categorized into three groups according to the aforementioned principles:

1. Exercises aimed at formation of skills using different strategies for text analysis and text construction in conditions of literary translation: pre-translation analysis, translation analysis, discourse analysis, and cognitive analysis.

• Exercises aimed at development skills of pre-translation analysis with revealing key information of a text.

• Exercises aimed at development skills of pre-translation analysis and revealing of basic concepts in the literary text both in English and Russian.

• Exercises aimed at revealing lexical units in the concept sphere of text.

2. Exercises aimed at the formation of skills using knowledge of language system, of rules of functions of language units in speech: work with national text corpora, work with explanatory and etymological dictionaries, and determination of frequency of words use in context of a literary work.

• Exercises aimed at displaying / revealing of words usage frequency that form nominal field of key concept.

• Exercises aimed at determination of word meanings that form nominal field of key concept.

• Exercises aimed at development of skills of work with national text corpora.

3. A combinatory type of exercises aimed at the development of professional translation competence in the sphere of literary translation and also aimed at the formation of knowledge of language system and function of language units in speech.

Due to the choice of technology, learning a literary translation system consisting of tasks and exercises focused on the development of translation competence is the ability to apply them in the training of literary translation for the development of the important components of skills in the learning process, as well as in the professional activities of an interpreter. Exercises are introduced as a unit of teaching.

Scientific organization of training is essential for specialist training in the field of literary translation. It is the combination of learning models literary translation with the important components of cognitive-discourse text analysis. Such an organization of the learning process involves the creation of suitable curriculum conditions of modern educational system. The curriculum should consist of relevant sections and rely on the system of tasks and exercises. As part of each section there is a series of stages, such as:

1. Introductory:

- study of linguistic, cognitive, psychological foundations of professional activity of a translator in the field of literary translation;

- acquisition of skills with the proposed authentic material.

2. Practical:

- identifying in the source text essential, repeating, clarifying, additional and even zero information;

- identifying in the text of the key and basic concepts, as well as their verbalizations;

- work with the body of texts in English and Russian (ability to find information about the concept and make a table of data);

- work on the selection of vocabulary that is equivalent to the original, taking into account the difference in the values of concept nominees in Russian and English.

3. Final:

- full implementation of the process of translation of a literary text using cognitive discourse analysis;

- assessment of translation by students;

- assessment of translation by a teacher.

In each of these stages, a system of exercises and activities whose primary purpose is to teach literary translation based on cognitive-discourse analysis of a literary text is applied.

At the opening stage, students are introduced to the text and its discourse; they perform pre-translation analysis to identify key concepts, as well as to obtain the necessary information and rules for the implementation of tasks under the proposed literary text. It is important to perform the following tasks and exercises:

- read a literary text and run its pre-translating analysis;

- identify in the source text key information, as well as repeating, clarifyingadditional and even zero information;

- identify the key concept of the work and its nominees;

- exchange information with classmates, comparing and contrasting it;

- make a pictorial diagram of the proposed conceptual sphere of the literary text on the basis of the data obtained;

- specify basic problems of the analysis of a suggested literary text.

On a practical level, students develop various translation skills by performing practical tasks and exercises in the framework of the rules already known to them, thus concentrating their attention only on automation of the translation action:

- secure key information of the original text and perform its translation;

- write down the key and basic concepts of work, their nominees and lexical verbalizations;

- locate in the national texts' corpora original language units;

- collect available information on basic concepts, as well as their nominees;

- compare the set of lexical verbalizations of key and basic concepts of the original text with the samples from the national text's corpus of original language;

- locate in the national text's corpus of the language of translation available information identifying the key and basic concepts, as well as their nominees;

- compare and contrast the set of lexical verbalizations of key and basic concepts of the original text with samples from the national texts' corpus of the target language;

- make a clear scheme of conceptual sphereof the proposed literary text;

- translate the literary text, taking into account similarities and differences of verbalization key values and basic concepts in the source and target languages, as well as features of conceptual sphere text and its discourse;

- compare received text translation options with your classmates, analyze the differences and similarities;

- match your scheme of conceptual sphere of a proposed literary text, analyze the differences and similarities;

- specify your joint variant of the scheme of conceptual sphere of a proposed literary text, as well as its translation.

At the final stage, students are obtaining practical skills of the process of translating a literary text using cognitive-discourse analysis; the students are also getting better prepared for their professional career:

- perform pre-translation analysis of original literary text, identify key information in it, basic and key concepts, as well as lexical verbalizations of these concepts;

- prepare available information on the identification of key and basic concepts, their nominees, a set of lexical verbalizations of samples from national corpus of the source and target language;

- present visual diagram of concept sphere of the original literary text;

- prepare a translation of the original literary text, taking into account similarities and differences of verbalization and the basic values of the key concepts in the source and target languages, as well as features concept spheres of text and its discourse;

- analyze other options of proposed translation of the original literary text based on three factors:

1) adequacy and equivalence of the translated text;

2) accuracy of the identification of key information and concepts of the original literary text;

3) reliability of the scheme of the concept sphere of the original literary text in accordance with the national text's corpus of the source language.

It is necessary to approach written literary translation from the perspective of synergetic theory. This means perception of the components of literary translation (literary text, translator and reader) and their open nature, which are regarded as a communicative relationship: the author of a literary text - translation - reader, using two languages (source language and target language).

Literary translation, as mentioned above, includes discourse categories: mental lexicon, interference, presupposition, implicature, explicature, references and proposition. Synergetic approach to the study of discourse, as well as the category of mental lexicon applied in our study were fully disclosed in the dissertation research of S.K. Gural "Learning Foreign Lan-

guage Discourse as Highly Complex Evolving System" [5]. It should be noted that the students studying these components and categories in each of the stages of learning acquire the ability to carry out deep and comprehensive analysis of the text, based on the results of which they master the process of translation.

It is worth mentioning that the principles proposed by N.I. Gez [2], have been used to develop a system of tasks and exercises with the use of cognitive-discursive analysis of a literary text. These tasks and exercises are based on the content of teaching literary translation based on cognitive discourse analysis, which includes:

- training to work with the literary text (original and translated version), namely with various methods of analysis and review of presented material;

- training of grammatical and stylistic aspects of literary translation in two languages: English and Russian;

- training of main types of translation correspondences and methods of translation of not equivalent linguistic units;

- training translational transformations and techniques of cognitive-discursive analysis of the text in order to achieve the adequacy and equivalence, as well as the pragmatic purpose of the translated text;

- training in discourse analysis and its components when working with the original and its translation;

- training in modern translation ethics, based on socio-cultural components of communication between the author of the original text and the reader.

The following principles of selection of teaching materials, exercises and assignments to train students on the basis of literary translation based on cognitive-discourse analysis are assumed in the development of the above-mentioned model of learning:

- use of authentic text materials;

- selection of literary texts of various authors and historical periods;

- presence in the text of a sufficient number of lexical units - means of concepts' verbalization that form the conceptual sphere of the text and express its meaning;

- use of exercises and activities that contribute to the formation of competences underlying professional competence of the translator in literary translation;

- consideration of students' age, personal traits and characteristics and logical progression of their development.

The main groups of tasks and exercises aimed at the formation of professional competence of the translator in literary translation were identified. Among them are exercises aimed at the formation of the ability to use certain strategies for the analysis and design of a test, exercises on the formation of mechanism of switching from one language to another, as well as on the ac-

quisition of knowledge of the language system, the rules of functioning of language units in speech. When choosing the means of learning literary translation, these groups of exercises were taken into account.

According to A.N. Shchukin [6], teaching aids can be called a set of training and technical devices by which the activities of a teacher and students can be managed. We consider it necessary to divide all means of learning into basic and additional. The first are mandatory and regularly used in the learning process, the second ones are used only in certain situations, for students' individual work.

Given the need for students to work with the authentic structure of the text, the primary means of teaching literary translation based on cognitive-discursive analysis are literary texts of English and Russian authors, which can be found at: Goodreads (http://www.goodreads.com/shelf/show/classic-english-literature) [7], Englishliterature (http://www.readliterature.com/english.htm) [8], Literature.org (http://www.literature.org) [9], Allbest.ru (http://allbest.ru/hud.htm) [10], LiveLib.ru (http://www.livelib.ru) [11].

The basic principles of material selection were: authenticity, availability of terminology corresponding to the selected historical period of the narrative, and the reliability of sources. As a result, there were selected 20 texts in English and Russian languages, which develop skills needed for literary translation. As part of each individual text, students had to learn the algorithms of text analysis, to visualize its concept sphere and perform a series of tasks, resulting in their being able to perform literary translation based on cognitive-discursive analysis.

As an additional means of teaching, Internet technologies are used in the process of learning literary translation based on cognitive-discourse analysis. According to P.V. Sysoyev [12], Internet technology means the totality of forms, methods and techniques of learning a foreign language using the resources of the Internet and social services. In his paper "Methods of Teaching a Foreign Language Using New Informative and Communicative Internet Technologies", P.V. Sysoyev argues that in didactic terms the Internet includes: forms of telecommunication (communication through Internet technologies), as well as informational resources containing texts, audio and video materials on a variety of topics in different languages.

P.V. Sysoyev believes that text, audio and visual materials on various topics aimed at the formation of foreign language communicative competence and the development of communicative and cognitive skills prompt students to search selection, classification, analysis and synthesis of information. We assume, along with Professor Sysoyev, that existing Internet resources of corpus linguistics of English and Russian languages may serve as a basis for the analysis of cognitive structures of literary texts and identify nominative fields of concepts presented therein.

This kind of educational online resources include: the British National Corpus(http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk) [13], the American National Corpus (http://corpus.byu.edu/coca) [14], and the Russian National Corpus (http://www.ruscorpora.ru) [15]. They represent a worldwide collection of samples of speech and writing from a wide range of sources, provided with links to these sources that facilitate finding the necessary data.

This type of educational online resources, according to P.V. Sysoyev, allows students to develop the following language skills: 1) find in the needed information; 2) identifying key words; 3) separating essential information from non-essential; 4) recording the necessary information; 5) detailing or summarizing the content; 6) compiling the information.

These skills are necessary for literary translation based on cognitive-discourse analysis. However, they contribute to the training of students not only in the educational process, but also in their subsequent careers as translators.

Presented in this Internet resource, data contribute to the development of understanding of the worldview of native speakers, as well as to the structure of the work with the cognitive structure of the literary text; they are all necessary for teaching literary translation based on cognitive-discursive analysis.

The degree of mastery of program material by the students is reflected in the different levels of formation of competences within the professional competence of the translator in literary translation. These competences must comply with the requirements for the phased control of the teacher and principal training objectives.

It is important to note that the formation of communicative competence meets general educational goals of learning literary translation based on discourse analysis of English texts. This is learning of "the language of universal communication and a global culture as a component of the global identity, which is a part of multiple (множественной) identity, and has caused ethnic groups to penetrate global economic, political, educational and cultural space..." [16: 12].

In this context relevant training of literary translation based on discourse analysis of the text becomes topical as a means of in-depth analysis of the country's culture and the target language to overcome the difficulties of intercultural communication because "failures in inter-lingual communication are inevitable in the case of insufficient mastery of communicants, not only as to purely linguistic means, but also to its cultural aspects, which are reflected in the idiomatic units" [17: 105].

We list the competences and skills that make up the professional competence of the translator in literary translation:

• Core competences and skills:

1) Communicative competences and skills are abilities to form correct conclusions from the message of the text, or speech situation and also ability to perceive and reproduce different types of discourse.

2) Linguistic competences and skills are abilities to apply knowledge of the language system, the rules of functioning of language units in speech, and with the help of this system to understand the thoughts of others and express their opinions in oral and in written form.

3) Text forming competences and skills are abilities to create various types of texts in two languages, taking into account stylistic features.

4) Technical competences and skills are abilities to apply theoretical knowledge on strategies of translation, translation and transformation methods, and the practical aspects of translation.

• Additional competences and skills:

1) Discourse competences and skills are abilities to use certain strategies for the design and interpretation of the test, as well as knowledge of the identities of the different types of discourse.

2) Strategic competences and skills are abilities to compensate for the lack of knowledge of other verbal / non-verbal means to achieve your goals.

3) Socio-cultural - the ability to take into account the students' national and cultural characteristics of the social and verbal behavior of native speakers: their customs, etiquette, social stereotypes, history and culture, as well as ways to use this knowledge in the process of communication.

4) Sociolinguistic competences and skills are abilities to select the appropriate linguistic form and mode of expression, depending on the conditions of the speech act: situation, communicative goals and intentions of the speaker.

5) The mechanism of code switching (from one language to another) competences and skillsare abilities to decide automatically.

On the basis of the skills listed above andincluded into competences, one can define criteria for the determination of level of development of translators' competences in literary translation:

1) ability to analyze the structure of the text, be skilled in working with national texts' corpora of two languages;

2) ability to extract key information when dealing with literary texts of the original language, as well as visualize the proposed scheme of concept sphere of a literary text;

3) ability to transmit properly and correctly the information obtained through text in the translation of a literary text.

Denoting the level of formation of competences in the professional competence of the translator in literary translation, we can identify types of monitoring in the process of teaching literary translation based on cognitive-discursive analysis.

By control, we mean the following: the need to determine the level of formation of competences in the professional competence of the translator in the field of literary translation that students reach after a certain stage of learning. The course of literary translation based on cognitive discourse analysis assumes an introductory, practical, and the final stages of training:

I. At the introductory stage of training, knowledge and skills of students are checked that are important in the study of the analysis of a literary text. For example, basic knowledge of pre-translation text analysis identifying the key information in the text, the ability to use this knowledge in the process of literary translation. The introductory stage has the following control requirements:

1) control is carried out both by students and by the teacher;

2) regular monitoring is carried out in order to optimize the learning process;

3) training phase determines the optimal form of control. Means of control are: pre-translation and translation of a literary text analysis, analysis of its conceptual sphere, text translation, etc.

II. At the practical stage, the efficiency of students' absorption of previously studied material is controlled. For example, it is established how well students have acquired the strategy of identifying concepts in the literary work, as well as have determined their lexical units.

The practical stage has the following control requirements:

1) control requires objectivity;

2) regular evaluation of students' work by a teacher.

The means of control are: pre-translation and translation analysis of literary text, identification and analysis of key concepts of basic literary text, construction of visual scheme of concept sphere of a literary text, and translation of a literary text.

III. At the final stage the level of formation of professional competence of the translator in literary translation is identified. For example, how well students can apply their knowledge in the field of text analysis in the process of literary translation.

The final stage has the following control requirements: 1) control requires objectivity; 2) teachers' assessment of the level of formation of competences within the professional competence of a translator in the field of literary translation. Means of control are: translation of the original literary text in view of the similarities and differences of their verbalization, and the basic values of the key concepts in the source and target languages, as well as peculiarities of concept sphere of the text and its discourse.

Subsequent work on the literary text is considered as communicative and cognitive activities that take into account peculiarities of this perception and interpretation and building of a solid foundation for further learning of

foreign language discourse, as well as for the development of cognitive-discursive approach in teaching foreign languages.

In the future, for testing quality and efficiency of the developed methods of teaching literary translation based on cognitive-discourse analysis, which is grounded on the system of exercises described above, experiential learning is to be planned, its main characteristics are to be identified and its main results are to be presented.

References

1. GARBOVSKY, N.K., 2007. *Theory of Translation: Proc.* 2nd ed. Moscow: Publ. Mosk. Univ. Press, 544 pp.
2. GEZ, N.I., 1985. Formation of Communicative Competence as a Foreign Object of Methodological Research. *Foreign Languages at School*, 2, pp. 17-23.
3. KAZAKOVA, T.A., 2003. *Imagination in Translation. Workshop on Literary Translation: Practicum in English*. Saint-Petersburg: Union, 320 p.
4. ALIMOV, V.V. and ARTEMYEV, U.V., 2010. *Literary Translation: A Practical Course in Tanslation: Textbooks for Higher Educational Institutions*. Moscow: Academya, 256 p.
5. GURAL, S.K., 2009. *Learning Foreign Language Discourse as Overcomplicated Self-developing System*: Doctoral Dissertation. Tomsk, 589 p.
6. SHCHUKIN, A.N., 2004. *Teaching of Foreign Languages. Theory and Practice*: Textbooks for Teachers and Students. Moscow: Filomatis, 408 p.
7. *Popular Classic English Literature Books*. URL: http://www.goodreads.com/shelf/show/classic-english-literature
8. *English Literature*. URL: http://www.readliterature.com/english.htm
9. *Literature.org* (The Online Literature Library). URL: http://www.literature.org
10. *Allbest.ru*. URL: http://allbest.ru/hud.htm
11. *LiveLib*. URL: http://www.livelib.ru
12. SYSOYEV, P.V. and EVSTIGNEEV, M.N., 2010. *Methodology of Teaching a Foreign Language Using the New Information and Communication Technologies Internet: Manual for Teachers and Students*. Moscow: Glossa-Press, 182 p.
13. *British national corpus*. URL: http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk
14. *The corpus of contemporary AmericanEnglish (COCA)*. URL: http://corpus.byu.edu/coca
15. *Russian National Corpus*. URL: http://www.ruscorpora.ru
16. GURAL, S.K. and SMOKOTIN, V.M., 2014. World Language of Communication and Language and Cultural Globalization. *Language and Culture*, 1 (25), pp. 4-13.
17. NYMAN, E.A., GURAL, S.K., SMOKOTIN, V.M., and BOVTENKO, M.A., 2013. The Relationship of Language and Culture and the Role of Culture in Language Education. *Language and Culture*, 1 (21), pp. 90-106.

EMOTIONAL ASPECT
OF THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING CONTENT

S.V. Chernyshov

Linguistics University of Nizhny Novgorod (Nizhny Novgorod, Russian Federation).
E-mail: chernish25@yandex.ru

Absract. The article analyses the models of the content of foreign language teaching presented in the works by N.D. Galskova, A.N. Shchukin, R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev and others from the point of view of the emotional aspect reflection. By results of the analyses the author proposes to include emotional concepts into the structure of the content of foreign language teaching as didactic units, ensuring completeness and consistency of representation of the linguistic emotional picture of the world, on the one hand, and sustainable motivation of the students to learn foreign languages, on the other hand.
Keywords: emotions; emotional competence; the content of foreign language teaching; emotional conceptual approach in teaching foreign languages.

Despite numerous methodological research works in the field of designing the content of foreign language education, questions of defining the notion of "the content of foreign language teaching" and the component structure of the content of foreign language teaching continue to be controversial. This article does not claim to be comprehensive research on all problems and disputable moments connected with this important methodological category. It aims to analyze the representation of the emotional aspect in the models of the content of foreign language teaching created by Russian methodologists and to offer the version of its representation from the position of emotional conceptual approach.

The content of foreign language teaching is interpreted in different ways in the methods of foreign language teaching. In a broad sense, "the content of foreign language teaching" means the total amount of what "students should learn to achieve the required by this or that educational institution level of knowledge of a language" [1: 5].

The analysis of numerous methodological works (by I.L. Bim, M.L. Vaisburd, M.N. Vyatyutnev, N.D. Galskova, N.I. Gez, P.V. Gurvich, A.A. Mirolyubov, E.I. Passov, S.K. Folomkina, V.S. Tsetlin, S.F. Shatilov, A.N. Shchukin and others) allows us to establish the fact of the lack of a common definition that could reflect all aspects of this notion and be accepted by all the scientific community in the sphere of foreign language education.

E.I. Passov and N.E. Kuzovleva propose to refuse from the usage of the notion "the content of foreign language teaching" and to replace it with

the notion "the content of foreign language education". They also make no difference between the notion "the content of foreign language education" and "the foreign language culture" [2: 60]. There is certain logic in such approach to understanding of the content of foreign language teaching because the strategic goal of teaching foreign languages is the formation of the students' traits of the multicultural personality that cannot be associated without foreign language culture, certain moral, ethical and emotional personal qualities that allow the individual to exist in the multicultural space.

Meanwhile, we preferably use the notion "the content of foreign language teaching" because the notion "the content of foreign language education" still means the process and result of cognition of foreign language culture. In our understanding, the content of foreign language teaching is a continuum for successful implementation of the foreign language education and, accordingly, for cognition of the foreign language culture by students. It includes: 1) a system of knowledge represented in topics, texts, situations, language material and so on; 2) a system of skills and abilities forming the basis of features of the multicultural personality.

The diversity of definitions of the content of foreign language teaching is caused by the difficulties of disclosure of the component composition and by its main characteristics: multidimensional character, dynamics, temporary and situational variability.

In various methodological sources the question of the component composition of the content of foreign language teaching is solved in different ways. The most common point of view on the content of foreign language teaching is based on the general pedagogical interpretation of the structure of the educational content that includes the following components: 1) the experience of the cognitive activity represented in the form of knowledge; 2) the experience in the reproductive activity implemented in the form of a variety of skills and abilities; 3) the experience of the creative activity with the skills to take non-standard solutions to problem situations; 4) the experience of the emotional-value-relations, realized in the form of personal orientations (V.V. Kraevsky, I.A. Lerner, M. Skatkin and others).

Thus, A.N. Shchukin proposes to include into the content of foreign language teaching the following elements: 1) means of communication (phonetic, lexical, grammatical, cultural, linguo-cultural); 2) knowledge how to use these means in the process of communication; 3) skills and abilities formed during the training and providing a possibility to use the language as a means of communication; 4) spheres, topics and situations in which the content of teaching can be implemented; 5) the culture forming the material basis of the content [3: 122].

N.D. Galskova gives a similar, but more detailed interpretation of the component composition of the content of foreign language teaching, considering in it: 1) spheres of the communicative activity, topics, situations and

the plans of their representation, communicative and social roles, the actions of speech and the language material (texts, speech patterns etc.); 2) linguistic material, the rules of its design and the skills of operating them; 3) a complex of special (speech) skills characterizing the level of mastering of the foreign language as a means of communication; 4) the system of knowledge of the national cultural characteristics and realities of the country, etiquette-usual forms of speech and ability to use them in various spheres of speech communication; 5) training and compensating abilities, rational methods of mental work, leading to a high level of culture of learning the language in educational conditions and the culture of communication with native speakers [4: 103].

The model of the content of foreign language teaching presented by N.D. Galskova reflects, in our opinion, most fully a wide set of components that provide a high level of communicative competence.

It should be noted that unlike A.N. Shchukin, N.D. Galskova does not include such component as the culture into the content of foreign language teaching. In our opinion, it is quite legitimate, because the culture as a set of material and spiritual values of the society should be the space within which the structural elements of the content of foreign language teaching are selected and represented. In our opinion the culture can't be considered as an independent and discrete entity. At the lessons of foreign language the culture is represented in different knowledge transmitted through topics, situations, units of the language, texts of the social-cultural content, material objects illustrating these or those phenomena of the foreign language reality.

That's why R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev considers the composition of the content of foreign language in the following way: 1) knowledge as a product of public, material and spiritual activities of people; 2) skills and abilities. He includes into the knowledge: a) the linguistic and speech materials; b) concepts about the methods and techniques of speech activity; c) lexical background; d) themes and e) *the national culture* (the emphasis is added by us) [5: 40-44].

The interpretation of the component composition of the content of foreign language teaching presented by R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev has a general nature. The author actually points to the existence of two aspects in the content of foreign language teaching: objective and procedural. I.L. Bim has the same view on the content of teaching. She defines it as "a complex dialectical unity resulting from the interaction of organized teaching material and the process of foreign language teaching" [6: 180].

The most interesting element of the content of foreign language teaching presented by R.K. Minyar-Beloruchev [5] is a lexical background. Including it into his component composition of the content of foreign language teaching the author points to the necessity of learning not only lexical notion of a word, but also additional information associated with it [Ibid: 42].

In the methods of teaching foreign languages the amount of background knowledge (including the lexical background) that the student has to

learn is connected with the notion "presupposition" (V.P. Furmanova, I.I. Khaleeva and others).

I.I. Khaleeva defines presupposition as "a nonverbal component of communication, as a sum of conditions preceding an utterance and as a national specific indicator of the intracultural communi"ation' [7: 310-312].

We propose to introduce the term "emotional presupposition" because a significant layer of emotive meanings have a national cultural character. These meanings can be presented in the forms of linguistic and non-linguistic signs.

Thus, the consideration of the lexical background as an important element of the knowledge included in the content of foreign language teaching indicates the necessity for teaching of going beyond the semantic system of a language and of expanding it towards the national cultural meanings (including emotive meanings of the national cultural character), forming a wide presupposition and providing a high degree of understanding of partners in the intercultural communication.

An attempt to present the composition of the content of foreign language teaching systematically was undertaken by G.V. Rogova, F.M. Rabinovich and T.E. Sakharova. They consider it in the unity of the following components: 1) the linguistic component including the linguistic and speech materials; 2) the psychological component containing a variety of skills and abilities and 3) the methodological component associated with methods of learning [8: 39].

We believe that this approach to the selection of the components of the content of foreign language teaching is not very successful because the methodological component is one of the subcomponents of the psychological component and, accordingly, it cannot be regarded in one line with it. Moreover, after E.I. Passov we believe it to be erroneous to use the term "methodological" because the methodology as a science about the methods of scientific cognition as "a phenomenon of a higher level" cannot be an element of the content of foreign language teaching [9: 58].

In our opinion, it is possible to consider in the framework of the psychological component a technological subcomponent including the skills and abilities of independent work, a work with a book, a dictionary and illustrative material forming the basis of the learning competence.

The results of the overview above show that none of the models of the content of foreign language teaching reflects the emotional and evaluative elements in their components. Meanwhile emotions are an integral part of the individual and his / her speech activity; they are one of his / her most important characteristics; the individual as a language personality cannot be taught out of his / her verbal representation of emotions [10]. Ignoring the emotional factor in teaching foreign languages leads to a decrease of the motivation of students to learn a foreign language, on the one hand, and to the

emergence of cultural and emotional gaps, on the other hand, which can cause serious problems of the intercultural communication: from a cognitive confusion to a cultural conflict.

In all fairness it has to be added that N.D. Galskova together with N.I. Gez note that "in the methodological interpretation of the content of foreign language teaching the experience of the emotional attitude is often limited to an emotional assessment by the students of their speech partners, their perception of the necessity of learning a foreign language and their assessment of its role in a society. Obviously, this approach demonstrates the underestimation of the factors contributing to the development of the students empathic abilities, actualization of their language personalities in the situations of the intercultural communication and their identification in a foreign language environment" [11: 124].

S.F. Shatilov considers the following components of the content of foreign language teaching: 1) the linguistic material; 2) rules of formation and usage of linguistic phenomena; 3) skills and abilities to use different types of the speech activity; 4) texts and themes and 5) **an emotional aesthetic aspect** (the emphasis is added by us) [12: 51-52].

Nevertheless, the author does not reveal the content of the last component, but the fact of its inclusion by a well-known scientist proves the importance of the emotional aspect in the methods of teaching foreign languages. It is essential for the achievement of the strategic goal of foreign language teaching - the developing students' features of the multicultural personality, which includes an extensive emotional sphere of the national cultural character.

Thus, we can come to the conclusion that, as a rule, in the works of many researchers involved in designing of the content of foreign language teaching, the emotional and evaluative aspect is ignored, or mentioned without revealing its content.

We believe that the lack of representation of the emotional component in the content of foreign language teaching is explained by its vagueness in the structure of the content, by complexity of its separate representation. Obviously, the elements of the experience of the emotional-value-relations are found in all aspects of the content of foreign language teaching. Meanwhile, its separate allocation in the content of foreign language teaching is caused by the necessity of a more systematic and more complete representation of the emotional knowledge at the lessons of a foreign language, of the development of student's motivation and of the formation of his / her emotional intelligence, providing an opportunity to adapt to conditions of a foreign language reality.

In our opinion, comprehensive coverage of national cultural emotive meanings, breadth of the representation of emotional presupposition and, more generally, the depth of emotional aspect of the foreign culture in the

process of teaching foreign communication can be provided through inclusion into the content of foreign language teaching of emotional concepts, integrating the amount of both universal and nationally specific meanings.

N.A. Krasavsky gives the following definition of the emotional concept: "It is a complex, ethnically and culturally determined mental construct that is verbalized lexically and / or phraseologically, based on a conceptual basis. It includes the following components: a notion, an image and a cultural value, and it identifies the real objects of the world in the process of human reflection with a definite emotional attitude to them" [13: 60].

The emotional concepts as didactic units can be represented in a variety of verbal and non-verbal emotional means of their explication in the content of foreign language teaching.

To verbal explication of emotional concepts we refer both lexical and phraseological units and the whole emotive texts of different genres and styles. From the point of view of methods of foreign language teaching, the emotional texts of small forms have the greatest importance because they ensure motivation and creativity of the students at the lessons of foreign language (especially aphorisms, sayings, proverbs, fables, poems, songs, sonnets, anecdotes and etc.).

Nonverbal explication of emotional concepts can be presented by a variety of works of painting, music, sculpture, etc. in the content of foreign language teaching. They have a huge cognitive and acting potential and provide the formation of non-explicational part of emotional concepts.

So, the wide explication of emotional concepts allows representing more systematically the emotional part of the content of foreign language teaching in the forms of different categories that are typical for foreign language picture of the world.

We believe that emotional concepts can become a productive basis for the formation of the emotional component of the personality of students and provide them a success in learning of foreign language culture.

References

1. LAPIDUS, B.A., 1986. *The content of language teaching in the linguistic university*. Moscow: Vysshaya Shkola.
2. PASSOV, E.I. and KUZOVLEVA, N.E., 2010.*The basics of communicative theory and technologies of foreign language education*. Moscow: The Russian Language.
3. SCHUKIN, A.N., 2004. *The foreign language teaching: theory and practice*. Moscow: Filomatis.
4. HALSKOVA, N.D., 2004. *Modern methods of foreign language teaching*. Moscow: ARKTY.
5. MINYAR-BELORUCHEV, R.K., 1990. *Methods of teaching French*. Moscow: Prosveshchenie.
6. BIM, I.L., 1977. *Methods of teaching of foreign languages as a science and the theory of the school textbook*. Moscow: The Russian Language.

7. KHALEEVA, I.I., 1991. Some problems of teaching of intercultural communication on the basis of the cognitive approach. *Psycholinguistics and intercultural relations*. Moscow: USSR Academy of Sciences, Institute of Linguistics, pp. 310-312.

8. ROGOVA, G.V., RABINOVICH, F.M., and SAKHAROVA, T.E., 1991. *Methods of teaching foreign languages in the secondary school*. Moscow: Prosveshchenie.

9. PASSOV, E.I., 2010. *Methods and technology of foreign language education*, 1. Yelets: ESU named after I.A. Bunin.

10. SHAKHOVSKY, V.I., 1990. Emotive semantics of a word as a communicative essence. In: *Communicative aspects of meaning*. Volgograd.

11. HALSKOVA, N.D., and GEZ, N.I., 2004. *Theory of teaching of foreign languages: Didactics and methods of teaching*. Moscow: Academya.

12. SHATILOV, S.F., 1986. *Methods of teaching of the German language in the secondary school*. Moscow: Prosveshchenie.

13. KRASAVSKY, N.A., 2001. *Emotional concepts in the German and the Russian language cultures*. Volgograd.

SUBJECT ORIENTED AND PROBLEM BASED TEXT MATERIALS AS A SUBJECT OF FLEXIBLE FOREIGN LANGUAGE READING IN RESEARCH PROJECTS

T.S. Serova, E.L. Pipchenko

Perm National Research Polytechnic University (Perm, Russia).
E-mail: serowa@pstu.ru; elenapipchenko@yandex.ru

Abstract. The article introduces the academic research work of students within the competence based approach, the models of academic problem based research projects taken up as a means to develop flexible foreign language reading skills. The authors reveal selection principles and corpus didactic design of text materials in the form of a macrotext, hypertext, and video course.
Keywords: problem based research projects; skills; flexible reading; selection principles; macrotext; hypertext; video course.

Currently research work is considered one of the main types of professional activity of any specialist that is taken into account in the third generation federal state educational standards and is deemed as an important task in higher institutions of different profiles. I.A. Zimnyaya stresses that "the task of training students in research goes in line with the general European goal of improving the quality of higher professional education in general" as research work of each student is a must at this academic level; only in this situation can education be determined as vital and considered as a driving development force of economics, culture and the society in general [1: 8].

Information basis is considered as a necessary part of any research activity. The necessity for students to study information search strategies is highlighted in competence oriented program of teaching bachelor students and specialists when "the students are supposed to master the skills of working with profession oriented foreign language texts, be able to perceive, analyze and summarize information" [2].

When doing research we have to refer to text materials of different types (printed, e-media) that contain required information. That is why it is crucial for students to study efficient reading strategies in order to share this information and hence make an individual or team based decision.

Through the organization of academic research activity of future engineers it is essential to create a corpus of didactically designed texts as a subject of flexible foreign language reading [3]. The necessity of viewing the text as a communication unit and main exercise component lays the fundamentals for designing the corpus of a problem based material [4: 43]. Researchers believe that the text is a "short instant of time (moment) of a creative linguistic process presented as a particular product" [5: 524], "the unity

of more or less complete content (meaning) and speech that generates and expresses this content" [6: 13], which is determined by "a semantic and structural completeness and a certain attitude of the author to the given content" [7: 4].

Being considered as a communication center within communicative approach for teaching process the text initiates mediated interaction of a person with other individuals that results in the exchange of thoughts, knowledge, information and leads to the mutual enrichment of individuals. Talking about the role of a text as a training material unit E.I. Passov underlines that it is considered as "food" for discussions, as "any good text bears a gold-mine of situations" [8: 200]. In the policy of teaching foreign languages texts are considered particularly as an important training content component along with situations, topics, language means of all levels, skills, and abilities.

In the research dedicated to the issue of teaching profession oriented reading, including a flexible foreign language one, the following principles were introduced and implemented for the didactic design of text corpus: profession and information significance, problem orientation, novelty, topic linkedness, notional synonymy, the presence of different and many authors, maintenance of author's own intellectual creation, functional dependency, genre adequacy and representativeness, functional-semantic language consistency, quantitative sufficiency [9: 46-48].

The design of subject and problem oriented text corpus is required for providing the process of flexible foreign language reading and building particular speaking skills. Text corpus should be designed in accordance with didactic targets taking into account semantic, linguistic and composition components as well as the general principles applied in macro- and hypertext. Besides it is essential to link these types of texts with the main tool of building flexible foreign language reading skills and namely problem based research projects.

Through the implementation of problem based research projects the principles of subject linkedness and problem based selection of corpus are especially essential for building flexible foreign language reading skills.

By the actualization of subject and topic linkedness of corpus, by the selection, analysis and assessment of information value as well as the sequence of the use of textual information logical and semantical topic pattern (LSTS) represented as a diagram gets a special value. For example we have selected for the students of the Oil and Mining Faculty at Perm Tech LSTS based texts (fig. 1) in English and Russian linked by the general subject content "Oil and Gas as Energy Sources" as the students got especially interested in the issues related to the methods of mineral exploration, enhanced oil recovery, offshore drilling, environmental impact of oil and gas production etc.
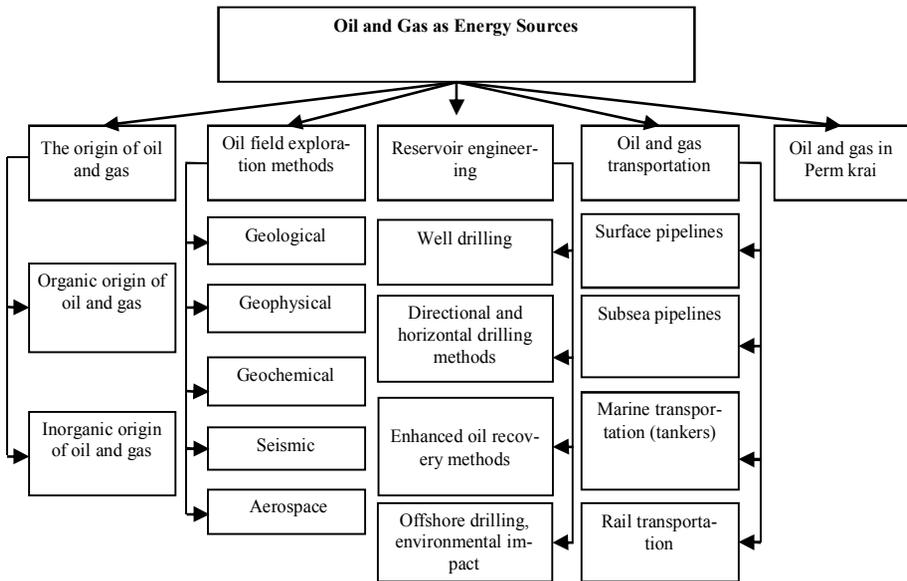
Fig. 1. Logical and semantical topic pattern "Oil and Gas as Energy Sources"

Based on such a figure the students learn perceive the information of a particular nature, specific information from texts, based not on the design of each particular text itself but on logical and semantical patterns of high generalization level [10: 78]. By the perception of information students go from general to the specific and back to a higher level of generalization that contributes to building flexible reading skills.

Due to logical and semantical pattern based reading the students start to use the internal mechanism of "generalization" [11], which means they understand the coherence of links and relations between objects and phenomena of the world around. As scientific research activity is impossible without generalization skills we believe that logical and semantical topic pattern can be deemed as a basis for creating didactic corpus of texts in order to build flexible foreign language reading skills by the implementation of problem based research projects. Thus foreign language and Russian texts or their fragments can be used as an external information basis required for performing problem tasks on the phase of moving from goal-task to goal-outcome within a particular problem based research project.

According to the principle of topic linkedness the whole text corpus is considered as a content whole unit that contributes to gaining specific knowledge about real objects, phenomena and processes. The topics as a subject of an academic activity help integrate selected original texts designed for reading in accordance with the subject content as well as manage the identification process in terms of content. By reading we can identify the

topic in the subject matter of the text and linguistic material, and then based on the title of the text we can predict its content [12: 86; 13: 90]. When selecting the topic we should consider the level of foreign language proficiency, the level of foreign language reading skills built, and future professional activity of students.

It should be noted that the work on the subject matter of text increases mental activity of students, which results in a purposeful and meaningful nature of information perception. Besides if thematic pattern of any topic or the whole field of knowledge represented as some ordering of speech elements is formed in memory, then it will be possible to appropriately forecast particular text events by reading [10: 84].

Thematic pattern kept in a long-term memory will operate as an internal information basis for the development of all the types of speech activity. By the design of an intellectual product of a problem based research project these patterns can turn into the program of a notional development of a statement from the general to the specific and vice versa. In the teaching process we should recognize that the students will be able to use in problem situations logical and semantical topic patterns in order to solve their research problems [14: 109].

The didactic corpus of printed texts is defined as macrotext (T.S. Serova, E.V. Krylova, A.S. Balakhonov, N.K. Syulzhina, S.G. Ulitina, T.G. Agapitova, I.V. Perlova, L.P. Raskopina, M.A. Mosina, T.A. Kovaleva etc.) that presents according to notional, language and composition components derived from different types of texts of many authors a part of the total information about the topic.

When talking about the consistency of each particular text and the corpus of text materials it is necessary to differentiate between their notional, communicative and structural consistency [15]. Notional consistency of macrotext is defined as a theme unity of all the units of its external pattern; communicative consistency is determined as the presence of all the constituents when each following text of macrotext adds, specifies, clarifies, or summarizes the contents of the previous one; and structural consistency is specified as macrotext divided into its component parts, units, interconnected by subject, logically and compositionally. Based on the external pattern of a foreign text the consistency of two macrotext patterns (external linguistic and internal notional) is actualized in the possibility to penetrate into it deep pattern, to understand the notional content and perceive meaningful information [16: 7].

We use professionally oriented texts in our research as we deal with future engineers and their academic and research activity should be focused on studying a specific professional area and gaining professional competences. That is why reading should also be professionally oriented together with its special features and functions [17].

The organization of an academic research activity requires actual and diverse text information derived from different materials (journal articles, leaflet texts, newspaper articles, technical manuals, conference materials, excerpts from legislative articles). It should include different views on the same issue; meet information needs of students, lead to the assignment and the subsequent use of the information in order to create an intellectual product in the form of a website as an information resource, e-training material, video, brochure, conference presentation, article and others.

Novelty and diversity of information in synonymous texts for a single topic is defined as a communication process between text authors and readers and provokes the exchange of this information. The creation of own information, fixation of thoughts, ideas, knowledge during interaction process brings about the formation of new concepts [11], which means new knowledge that is a must for the research work in any scope of activity.

Developed and theoretically grounded arguments, functions and the pattern of e-didactic text corpus for teaching foreign language reading is considered as hypertext which presents a special method, size and the technology for presenting, organizing and designing information. Digital texts have several characteristics that set them apart from traditionally printed linear texts; it is a supertext, a new way and method to capture information, a personalized world cognition model [18: 25]. Hypertext comes out as a technology of presenting designed information, the set of interlinked elements via key words of e-text hyperlinks or text fragments.

Being an available information source hypertext is determined as a reading object that gives students the opportunities to find, select information and thus engender individual micro-hypertexts on research topics for the following in-depth studies in order to create own intellectual product. A didactically designed hypertext refers to the scope of knowledge, includes pattern units of macro-hypertext, information fragments interrelated on the level of theme and rheme relations as well as global, basic and local key semantic points as hyperlinks in a form of words and word-combinations [Ibid: 8].

Student research activity is directly connected with Internet information resources; hence hypertext taken as a didactically designed text corpus is defined as an essential object of flexible foreign language reading. Internet information resources have certain advantages over printed texts: access to Internet information resources at any time, rapid transmission of data of any amount and type for any distance, long-time storage of information, images and video in computer data, editing, processing etc., the transfer of the materials obtained on own media and rapid exchange of materials, working with the materials in convenient places, data search from diverse resources and data use for educational purposes; more than that it gives the possibility to use teaching audio and video records, animation, graphic inserts, slide-show, training classes on Skype, etc.

For the students who are involved in problem based research projects there should be a didactically designed hypertext both in English and Russian because when doing research a student needs to study and compare different points of view for the same topic. Scientists from different countries usually carry out research on similar topics, thus the more information the better project outcome. The study of research topic materials in the native and foreign language helps students express their own point of view on the issue with confidence and assess the thinking of other students.

Quantity specifications of text materials required for performing problem based research projects are stipulated by flexible foreign language reading where different authors present diverse views on the same topic as only "the synthesis of information from many resources and its translation into the native language helps get knowledge and polish the opinion about the object" [17: 3]. Thanks to the accumulated experience of methodologists who studied the functions and specifications of macro and hypertext we can suggest combining subject and problem based designed printed texts together with digital texts (on discs, flash cards etc.).

Problem based text materials are a necessary part of work on academic research projects as up-to-date information lets students search, assign new information and use it in their project work. Speech is determined as "an act in a problem based situation", as "speech act starts with a need. This act-engendering link complies with the break out of a problem based situation" [19: 25-29]. "Thinking along with the speech is grounded on a problem based situation" [20: 19]. By comparing different thinking experience, the system of evidence and argumentation derived from different texts students learn deploy the idea about same issue in different ways and distinguish new contrasting data.

Problem based text material and its value help students greatly activate the process of flexible reading as in academic process all the attention of students is focused on identifying the main idea, real phenomena and processes. Selected texts should represent diverse statements of authors on debated issues. Students should read the texts very attentively, grasp the meaning of how different authors handle the issue, take most efficient ways of solving the problem and produce individual or team based creative ways for dealing with a problem. Only active interaction of a student with text authors and their joint thinking activity engendered by reading, the process of solving mutual professional issues and problems of social value contribute to the development of new ideas, new intellectual product and flexible reading skills.

In our research we have selected for the students of the Oil and Mining faculty the issues related to the general subject content "Oil and Gas as Energy Sources" that lets the students find a way to handle the key issue stated in the text title:

- The age of hydrocarbons or information technologies?

- Exploration of hydrocarbons and the selection of field development methods.

- Enhanced oil recovery of deep depleted reservoirs.

- Economic impacts of oil and gas industry.

- Environmental impact of oil production.

- Geopolitics and energy resources.

Thanks to the diversity of types of chosen problem based research projects, and namely: **1) academic information and linguistic, 2) academic information and cognitive, 3) academic communicative and information projects** - we can ensure a constant involvement of students in the process of information exchange in speech communication. Developed and theoretically proven models of flexible foreign language profession oriented reading guarantee efficient information exchange [21]. It is defined as "a dynamic interaction of the subtypes of reference and informative reading that shows up in their shifting and matching and is specified by an individual and team based goal-task and goal-outcome" [Ibid: 35].

Interaction form, the value and urgency of different student research project topics, orientation on the joint result that involves each team participant altogether create the conditions for active students' involvement into working process, subject-subject interaction, and active information exchange. Selected texts and problem oriented tasks performed during academic research project work expand students' knowledge in the professional area, contribute to the development of professional discourse and build flexible foreign language skills.

Based on research carried out in the sphere of video discourse [22] we can say that video discourse can be taken as an information basis (video fragments about oil and gas transportation, mineral exploration methods) as well as one of the ways to design the corpus of text materials. The content of video materials has informational, practical and emotional value for students and helps consider individuality as one of the leading teaching characteristics in terms of individuality and activity based approach [23: 98].

Thus didactically designed corpus of subject oriented and problem based texts as well as theme designed video course which are used in academic research projects for building flexible reading skills represent content and emotional fundamentals for searching, assigning and transferring data that helps determine information and identify communicative-cognitive needs of students. Thanks to subject and problem orientation of given information we can ensure the involvement of individuals into interaction in order to achieve mutual outcome in a form of a joint intellectual product. This process intensifies academic research activity, improves flexible foreign language reading skills and determines efficient and purposeful professional activity of students.

References

1. ZIMNYAYA, I.A., 2010. *Student research activity in a higher institution as a design object in competence based general academic program of higher professional education / For the advanced training of the instructors of higher institutions in the sphere of the design of general academic programs that execute federal state educational standards of higher professional education*. Moscow: Research center of the quality of teaching specialists, 38 p.

2. *Third generation federal state educational standards of higher professional education (bachelor)*. URL: http://window.edu.ru/recommended (date of access: October 14th, 2014)

3. SEROVA, T.S. and RASKOPINA, L.P., 2011. Business intercultural communication in the professional activity of a specialist. *The bulletin of Perm national research polytechnic university. The issues of linguistics and pedagogics*, 5 (36), 247 p.

4. KOLSHANSKY, G.V., 1984. *Communicative function and structure of language*. Moscow: Nauka, 175 p.

5. GALPERIN, I.R., 1977. Text Grammar Category. Proceedings. *APN USSR. The series of literature and language*, 36 (6).

6. GOLOVIN, B.N., 1980. *The fundamentals of speech culture*. Moscow.

7. LOSEVA, L.M., 1980. How text is designed: the manual for teachers. Moscow.

8. PASSOV, E.I., 1977. *The basics of foreign language teaching methods*. Moscow: The Russian language, 216 p.

9. SEROVA, T.S., 1989. *Theoretical background of teaching profession oriented reading in a non-linguistic higher institution*: Thesis of Doctoral of Pedagogical Science. Perm.

10. SEROVA, T.S., 2001. *The psychology of interpreting as a complicated type of communication activity*. Perm, 210 p.

11. VYGOTSKY, L.S., 2008. *Thinking and speech*. Moscow: Labyrinth, 352 p.

12. MOSINA, M.A., 2001. *Teaching profession oriented informative reading - the dialogue of English scientific methodological texts*: Thesis of Candidate of Pedagogical Science. Perm, 160 p.

13. KOVALEVA, T.A., 2005. *Handling communicative and cognitive tasks by teaching future teachers profession oriented reading*: Thesis of Candidate of Pedagogical Science. Perm, 207 p.

14. MITRYUKHINA, I.N., 2010. *The methods of building communicative and cognitive interest by teaching interpreters foreign language speaking in the sphere of professional communication*: Thesis of Candidate of Pedagogical Science. Yekaterinburg, 236 p.

15. MOSKALSKAYA, O.I., 1981. *Text grammar*. Moscow, 183 p.

16. KRYLOVA, E.V., 1994. *Didactic basics of macrotext design for teaching foreign language informative reading / English language, first level*: Synopsis of PhD Thesis in Pedagogics. Moscow.

17. SEROVA, T.S., 2013. Characteristics and functions of profession oriented reading in the academic and research activity of students, PhD students and instructors of higher institutions. *The bulletin of Perm national research polytechnic university. The issues of linguistics and pedagogics*, 7 (49), pp. 3-12.

18. SYULZHINA, N.K., 2006. *Development and didactic design methods of hypertext based on studying theoretical subjects in the professional training of an interpreter (specialist)*: Synopsis of PhD Thesis in Pedagogics. Perm, 25 p.

19. LEONTYEV, A.A., 1972. Foreign language thinking as a psychological and methodological issue. *Foreign languages at school*. Moscow, 1.

20. KOVALEVSKAYA, E.V., 1999. *Problematical character of teaching foreign languages: current situation and perspectives*. Textbook for higher institutions. MNPI, 120 p.

21. SEROVA, T.S. and RASKOPINA, L.P., 2009. *Teaching flexible profession oriented foreign language reading in business intercultural communication.* Perm: Publishing House of Perm State Technical University, 242 p.

22. RUZKAYA, E.A., 2012. *Building information based speaking skills by listening activity for future interpreters.* PhD Thesis in Pedagogics. Nizhny Novgorod, 221 p.

23. KOVALENKO, M.P., 2003. *Information basis of speaking activity in building lexical listening skills based on a foreign language monologic utterance*: Thesis of Candidate of Pedagogical Science. Yekaterinburg, 210 p.

24. SYSOYEV, P.V. and KOKOREVA, A.A., 2013. Teaching students profession oriented vocabulary on the base of parallel texts. *Language and Culture*, 1 (21), pp. 114-124.

25. MINAKOVA, L.U. and PILUYKOVA, A.V., 2014. Innovations in EFL curricula in a non-linguistic higher institution. *Language and Culture*, 3 (27), pp. 157-165.

26. MAKSAEV, A.A., 2014. Methods of students sociocultural interaction skills development by means of International Academic Language Projects. *Language and Culture*, 3 (27), pp. 146-156.

THEORETICAL BASICS OF THE COMMUNICATIVE-ETHNOGRAPHIC APPROACH TO TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

P.V. Sysoyev

Moscow Sate 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

Abstract. The paper describes theoretical basics of the communicative-ethnographic approach to teaching a foreign language and culture. The author a) states the importance of the problem; b) defines key concepts of the research "ethnography", "communicative competence", "intercultural competence", "communicative-ethnographic approach"; c) describes the content of teaching intercultural communication; d) defines methods of the communicative-ethnographic approach to teaching a foreign language and culture; e) defines characteristics and positions of this approach.
Keywords: communicative-ethnographic approach; intercultural competence; communicative competence; problem-solving methods of teaching.

Introduction

The increase in international contacts in the fields of education and tourism every year allows greater and greater number of Russian pupils and students to travel abroad. Immersion into an authentic socio-cultural and linguistic environment has a great didactic and methodological potential, which can and should be used by the learners to continue their linguistic and sociocultural education. It should be noted that currently implemented in the Russian system of secondary and higher professional education sociocultural, multicultural and communicative and cognitive approaches are focused on the systemic teaching the foreign language and culture of the country of the target language to the pupils and students outside the cultural and linguistic environment [1-11].

Developed in the 90s of the twentieth century by Michael Byram and his colleagues, the ethnographic approach focuses specifically on the studies of culture of the country of the target language in immersion [12-13]. However, the analysis of a number of studies devoted to the implementation of this approach in practice suggests that the educational process is reduced to the study of specific, in some cases, discrete facts or realities of culture [14]. The case-method is often used as a methodological solution. As such, the ethnographic approach does not allow students to develop a complete view on the culture of the target language country, but only reveals the features of

its culture on the certain specific aspects. It is obvious that at the modern stage of development of the society in general and methods of teaching foreign languages in particular the study of cultural facts without considering them in relation to the historical and social context is not enough in the didactic and methodological, and in social and cultural plans, as well as teaching a foreign language can't be considered apart from teaching culture. Immersion into the cultural and linguistic environment of the country of the target language has a significant didactic potential to enrich the modern sociocultural education. In this connection, there is a need to expand and adjust the possibilities of the ethnographic approach, so that it should continue and enrich socio-cultural education of the Russian pupils and students during their staying abroad.

Operational definitions

It should be noted that in various fields, in spite of the differences in the subject and object of research, there are no significant differences in the interpretation of the term "ethnography". Let's view some definitions and express our understanding of the term "ethnographic approach" in relation to the methods of teaching foreign languages.

In the dictionary of the Russian language "ethnography" is interpreted as "1. Science studying ethnogenesis, material and spiritual culture, specifics of everyday life of a certain nation (nations). 2. Integrity of all the features of everyday life, customs and culture of a certain nation, area" [15: 770]. A similar conceptual meaning of the term can be found in many dictionaries.

The subject of analysis of cultural studies is a phenomenon of culture as a historically-social experience of the people embodied in the specific rules, laws, features of their activity, transferred from generation to generation in the form of values and ideals, and is interpreted in the "cultural texts" of philosophy, religion and the arts [16]. In cultural studies, the ethnographic approach deals with the study of culture as integrity of values, knowledge, customs and beliefs of a particular ethnic group. By an ethnic group we mean a historically developed stable group of people called a tribe, people or nation. In this case, an obligatory condition for the origin of an ethnos is a common territory and language. A cultural unity of the members of an ethnos leads to the unity of their psychological mindset [17: 549]. Representatives of an ethnic group recognize their common origin, speak the same language, and share the same system of values and norms. It is this combination of characteristics that distinguishes the members of one ethnic group from another. Within the framework of the ethnographic approach, researchers *can* examine the mutual influence of cultures of different ethnic groups living in a particular area, but these issues will be of fragmental nature since the focus will be at the study of a specific, often the dominant in the area ethnic

group. In this regard, the study of an ethnic group most likely has a dia-chronic character (change and development in different historical periods).

The implementation of the ethnographic approach in cultural studies has much in common with its implementation in sociology. The object of study of sociology is the social life of the community, which consists in the set of social phenomena arising from an interaction of people, social groups and associations, their social ties and social relations. Therefore, in sociology the ethnographic approach is aimed at studying ethnos - community of peo-ple, the formation of which is based on the process of cultural self-identification (uniting people into groups on certain grounds). Studies of ethnos are focused on ethnic identity, which is studied in sociology as a so-cial construct [18].

It should be noted that none of the definitions of the ethnographic ap-proach in cultural studies or sociology refers explicitly to "immersion" as an essential condition for the implementation of this approach. It is represented implicitly in the description of the methods of the ethnographic approach that can be implemented only in the target cultural environment and in direct contact with its representatives.

Of particular interest for the analysis is the doctrine of the American anthropologist and sociolinguist Dell Hymes on "ethnography of communi-cation", which he proposed to consider as an approach to the study of lan-guage patterns in the speech of the representatives of a language community. [19]. Work by D. Hymes was a response to the conception of N. Chomsky on "ideal speaker-hearer" having an innate knowledge of the native language grammar (generative grammar). D. Hymes argued that language competence is not only the competence in grammatical structure and vocabulary, but also the conception of social and cultural context of communication, which will determine the process and outcome of a dialogue: "there are rules of func-tioning without which the grammar rules are useless" [Ibid: 278]. Consider-ing the fact that the "use" in the real life can never directly represent compe-tence (knowledge) (except non-existent ideal conditions), this term and its didactic content, according to D. Hymes, can't be used in the descriptive linguistics. In contrast to the concept of N. Chomsky, Dell Hymes intro-duced the concept of "communicative competence", which is suggested to consider as an ability to understand the use of linguistic competence in dif-ferent social contexts. Competence is a modular construct that includes both knowledge and an *ability to use knowledge* in practice in the social and cul-tural context [Ibid: 282]. Thus, D. Hymes has transformed the conception of N. Chomsky, moving the use of language from the ideal into the real social conditions of communication. In this, ethnography will be an effective method to study the social and cultural context of language use.

Development of foreign language communicative competence in a va-riety of its components (linguistic, verbal, compensatory, socio-cultural, ed-

ucational and cognitive) and intercultural competence is one of the main goals of foreign language teaching at the various stages of training, along with the education and personal development [1-2, 5-7]. In this regard, in the methodology of foreign language teaching it would be appropriate to speak on communicative ethnographic approach as ***one of the cultural studies approaches aimed to study foreign language and culture in immersion of the students into the linguistic and socio-cultural environment***. The combination of the two key concepts - "communicative" and "ethnographic" in the approach name highlights the importance of these two components. The "communicative" component represents one of the main goals of education - teaching a foreign language as a *means of communication through communication* with representatives of different countries and cultures. The "ethnographical" component emphasizes an important condition for the implementation of the process of teaching foreign language and culture - students must be in the linguistic and socio-cultural environment and to act as ethnographers who observe and study a foreign language and culture by observing the communicative behavior of representatives of the country of the target language and communicating with them. Direct immersion in an authentic linguistic and socio-cultural environment and contact with its representatives is a distinctive feature of this approach in comparison to other culturological approaches. In addition, unlike other areas of scientific knowledge, the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach in foreign language teaching should not be limited to studying only one ethnic group living in the country of the target language (e.g. culture of the establishment), though in some cases it can be the purpose of the study. At the modern stage of studying multicultural communities of the countries of the native and target language, of special importance is the acquaintance with a number of people living in the same area, and the study of their interaction and mutual influence in the diachronic and synchronic aspects. In this case, pupils and students can form not false stereotypes and generalizations, but the ideas of multiculturalism as a normal coexistence of cultures in the modern multicultural world [5-7].

Intercultural competence

Communicative-ethnographic approach creates didactic conditions for the development of students' intercultural competence more effectively than other culturally-oriented approaches. This is possible due to the real contact with people in second language countries. The importance of the development of the intercultural competence is emphasized in the papers of many scientists dealing with the issues of language and culture teaching. One of the first models of intercultural competence (in relation to foreign language teaching) was represented by the famous British methodologist M. Byram

[20]. The scientist proposed to include five components in the construct of intercultural competence:

Attitudes

They are most often described in terms of curiosity and openness towards other cultures. Other key words are "cultural sensitivity", "tolerance of ambiguity", "respect of otherness", and "empathy". This involves a certain willingness with learners to relativize their own culture by questioning their existing values and beliefs. In the classroom it makes sense to focus on what cultures have in common and to start from similarities and common perspectives instead of looking for differences in order not to reinforce existing stereotypes and prejudices.

Knowledge

You can only change your attitudes and values if you have socio-cultural knowledge. English as a lingua franca plays an important role in a global world where the focus is no longer on the Anglo-Saxon countries. Cultural difference might therefore create mighty cultural communicative challenges. Knowledge is important not only in everyday behavior situations, but also in terms of religious beliefs, values and attitudes. Knowledge in a wider sense therefore goes far beyond "background studies" (so-called *Landeskunde* in Germany) - it covers not only literature and well-known pieces of art (so-called high culture or Culture with a capital C) - but also everyday phenomena in relation to time, distance and nearness.

Skills (I) of interpreting and relating

These skills include text-based learning and working with documents. It is a main aim in the classroom to enable students to analyze the cultural meaning being conveyed to them by classic literature and other sorts of texts, documents or events, to explain it and to relate it to documents from their own culture.

Skills (II) of discovery and interaction

They are the ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication (face-to-face-encounters) and interaction. Social interaction in real time can of course also take place via Internet. Foreign language skills are a central element here. In order to cope with such encounters, students need to be able to interpret, to explain, to enquire and they also need strategies of politeness.

Critical cultural awareness

Critical cultural awareness / political education is the aim of intercultural learning. Students should be able to perceive (see, hear and feel) and critically evaluate perspectives, practices and products in their own and the target cultures and countries. In a process of balancing their own perspective in relation to the other perspectives, students should develop intercultural sensitivity which is acceptance as well as tolerance towards intercultural phenomena [20: 9].

In spite of the extensive use of M. Byram's model in the Western academic literature, it is not without controversial moments and raises some questions. *Firstly*, the content of the knowledge-component, in our opinion, refers rather to the socio-cultural competence, i.e. knowledge of the social and cultural groups of the native country and country of the target language, rather than intercultural. The knowledge component of intercultural competence should include knowledge about the phenomenon of culture, about the types of relationships between cultures, etc., because everything that is universal for "cultural interaction" is not tied to a particular country or culture of the country of the target language.

Secondly, the skills of interpretation and critical evaluation are inextricably linked with each other and should therefore be considered as a whole. The ability for critical interpretation is the key to comparing and contrasting cultures.

Thirdly, the development of skills to acquire information about the culture of the target language country is not a component of intercultural competence. It is a universal skill which is formed in the student from the beginning of the school period, regardless of the subject, and traditionally constitutes the content of educational and cognitive competence.

Thus, in his model of intercultural competence M. Byram failed to allocate and put together only the unique components that are relevant only to the interaction between cultures and to the ability of a person to be a mediator between cultures. The inclusion of some non-unique and invariant but universal components, or components that are also relevant to other types of competence, on the one hand, raises the question: why just those and not other known components that are no less important in the intercultural interaction were included in the model? On the other hand, the component structure of the model of intercultural competence blurs the edges of this theoretical construct, which also has a negative value for both theory and practice.

However, the diachronic perspective on M. Byram's conception and doctrines of many of his colleagues indicates a lack of clear understanding of the different types of competences and the boundaries between them at an early stage of research on intercultural communication. According to some scholars, the ability to interact with people of different cultures can be achieved on a specific cultural material and, as a result, socio-cultural and intercultural aspects of verbal interaction should be interrelated [21-22]. Undeniable merit of the scholar is focusing the attention of the wider scientific community on the problems of intercultural interaction and formation of intercultural competence, which has stimulated a series of research in this area.

Speaking about the importance of cross-cultural component of foreign language communication, Claire Kramsch in her works introduced the term "intercultural speaker", which in its conceptual content combines the simultaneous development of the two types of competences: foreign language

communicative and intercultural competencies. Kramsch criticized many existing models of foreign language communicative competence [23, 24] because of their orientation to the native speaker as a model of the linguistic norm [25]. It should be noted that scientists still have not reached an agreement on representative of which ethnic group, social class, education, age, occupation, etc. can act as a "native speaker".

Therefore, instead of seeking to trying to achieve the competence of an ideal native speaker, students need to be taught how to become "intercultural speakers" [26: 16-17]. Under the ***intercultural speaker*** the scholar proposes to understand the learner who retains his / her social, cultural and linguistic identity, who in his / her communicative behavior does not imitate a "native speaker" and who, being competent in the culture of his / her native country and the countries of the target language, is able to be a kind of mediator between the two cultures.

It should be noted that partially this theory has a kernel of truth. C. Kramsch draws scholars' and practitioners' attention to the fact, that methodology focuses on the desire to achieve perfection in foreign language competence (aspects of the language and kinds of speech activity), and in many cases it is done at the expense of other more important aspects of professional communication. In particular, why spend a lot of time on the formation of phonetic or grammatical skills, when in fact, in most cases the student does not get rid of the accent or grammatical errors. And what is the meaning to identify oneself as "native" in the country of the target language? The status of a "foreigner" or "speaking in a foreign language" gives the learner a number of advantages and privileges. For example, the right not to know certain lexical units or cultural realities, etc. On the other hand, in her works, the author does not say to what extent it is possible to move away from the "linguistic norm" (classical version of the language, which is presented in the textbooks, grammar references, etc.). And whether it will lead to chaos in the use of a language and, as a result, a partial or complete lack of understanding between the interlocutors? Do not complicate the process of understanding and communication? In addition, when it comes to training in the field of foreign language teaching (teachers and professors), focus on the "norm" is paramount, because today's students later on will teach this language to the new generation. And if everyone will depart in one or the other side of the linguistic norm and it would be considered normal, what will be the result?

Certainly, the concept by Claire Kramsch raises an important problem of determining the goal of teaching a foreign language and culture, which, obviously, can be adjusted from time to time. Nevertheless, the teaching of an "intercultural speaker" has contributed to the appearance of a new construct in the academic literature - intercultural communicative competence [27-28]. According to this teaching, the intercultural component intertwines

with all the components of a foreign language communicative competence. Of course, the foreign language and intercultural communicative competences are closely interrelated and in some cases we can talk about the formation of intercultural communicative competence when it comes to a particular target language and when the level of foreign language skills and intercultural communication is high enough. However, the desire to combine the intercultural and foreign language communicative competences into a single construct often leads to confusion in the conceptual meaning of the terms when intercultural competence is put on a level to the socio-cultural and is considered as a part of the foreign language communicative competence [11] or when the knowledge-component of the socio-cultural competence (knowledge of history and traditions of the country of the target language) is attributed to intercultural competence.

However, in this study, while not denying the relationship between the two types of competences, for didactic purposes we consider it appropriate to separate them. This distinction is due to the different nature of these types of competences. ***Foreign language communicative competence is the ability and willingness to interpersonal communication in a foreign language with the representatives of different linguistic and cultural communities. Intercultural competence is the ability of an individual to successfully communicate with the people of different cultures, being aware of his cultural identity.***

Thus, foreign language communicative competence is limited to one specific foreign language and intercultural competence in this perspective includes universal knowledge, skills of intercultural communication and attitudes no matter with representatives of what cultures to interact. So, according to his / her ability to communicate with representatives of different countries and cultures one person can possess intercultural competence. In this case, his / her foreign language communicative competence will be formed only in English. In French, German, Japanese, Chinese and other languages his / her foreign language communicative competence will not be developed. This separation of foreign language and intercultural communicative competences can be found in the works of other researchers involved in issues of formation of intercultural competence and training students to intercultural communication [1, 4-5, 7, 29-36].

Of particular interest for the methodology of foreign language teaching is a thesis by V.G. Apalkov [30] in which the author suggested the component structure (educational content) of intercultural competence. Following the traditional structure of intercultural competence (knowledge, skills and attitudes), the author avoids including elements of sociocultural competence (within the framework of foreign language communicative competence) and highlights only the distinctive elements of intercultural competence.

In particular, the component "knowledge", according to the author, should not include information about the culture of the target language country or directly the foreign language, as it is represented in the papers of many researchers. Conversely, the component "knowledge" includes information on how the different cultures can interact through their representatives. The frameworks of culture are defined by the characteristics that unite people into the groups (race / ethnicity, social class, gender, place of residence, religion, language, etc.). On this basis, the culture will not be limited by the political boundaries of the country. Furthermore, within a country, each of us belongs to several types of cultures in accordance with the unifying features. Culture also has the characteristics to which scientists refer the following. Culture is dynamic, it has a framework, culture can be taught, it can be transmitted, culture is ethnocentric, and there is integrity of all the components of culture.

The component "skills" is composed of universal skills to contact with representatives of different cultures and interpret the gathered information, regardless of what culture comes into contact. To the crosscultural communication skills we refer the skills to initiate intercultural dialogue, to interpret cultural facts and events, to identify cultural similarities and differences between the people of different cultural groups, to resolve cultural conflicts, to identify situations of intercultural conflicts, to critically evaluate contacting cultures from the viewpoint of their own value systems, to act as a representative of his / her native country / culture.

The component "attitudes" represents the ability of an individual to display openness, curiosity, tolerance, a willingness to initiate communication, to act as a representative of the native culture, to take a different culture and understand that the other culture may have different values and norms.

This model forms the basis for the development of the methods of intercultural competence development with secondary school (profile level) pupils (V.G. Apalkov) [30], university students majoring in linguistics under conditions of immersion into the culture of the target language country (N.A. Sushkova) [35] and on the basis of the case method (V.V. Filonova) [36].

N.I. Almazova [29] in her thesis distinguishes the intercultural component of the formation of linguistic personality by the material of the linguistic higher school students. The author argues that the purpose of foreign language teaching in a higher school is the formation of a linguistic personality that is able to interact effectively in the context of a particular culture. In the structure of foreign language communicative competence that a linguistic personality should possess, a special place belongs to the intercultural competence related to filling cultural gaps, and to adaptation of communicators to the realities of the new foreign culture.

Dominant methods

The methodological dominant in the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach should be, in the first place, the basic methods of ethnography, which include observation, interviewing, questionnaires and interviews. However, for a complete and systematic linguistic and socio-cultural education the methods of ethnography are not enough. Depending on the age of the students, stage of foreign language teaching and level of their cultural training along with the four methods of ethnography we recommend using different kinds of problematic culturological assignments. Let us dwell on the methodological component of the implementation of the communicative-ethnographic approach.

Method of observation is one of the most effective methods of ethnography, it involves immersing the student into the real linguistic and socio-cultural environment in which he / she takes part in the life of the cultural community under study, observes the communicative behavior of its members, gathers information on the issues under study, makes an analysis and draws conclusions.

Questioning is the second method of the ethnographic approach. The student-researcher prepares a questionnaire with the questions on the target aspect of language or culture, offers the respondents (representatives of linguistic and cultural community) to answer the questionnaire, analyzes, classifies, summarizes and interprets the data. Questioning is conducted both face-to-face (with the personal participation of the student), and distantly by Internet services or e-mail.

Survey is a third method of ethnography, aimed at gathering the necessary primary information for subsequent classification, synthesis, analysis, and interpretation. At first, the student creates a questionnaire on the target aspects of a language or culture, and then questions the respondents. The survey can also be both face-to-face - during interpersonal contact of the respondent with the interviewer and distant, when the respondents answer questions by Internet services.

Interview is the fourth (the most difficult in terms of language training) method of ethnography, consisting in a personal conversation of the student with representatives of a language and culture. First, the student prepares questions on the target problem, and then talks on them with the representatives of the community under study. The conclusions are made on the basis of the discussion.

Obviously, the choice in favor of one or another method of ethnography should be made taking into account the age and cognitive features of the students, the general level of foreign language communicative competence and general cultural competence. In particular, interviewing requires a higher level of foreign language communicative competence than a survey or poll. The

observation method can be used at any level of foreign language teaching. For the purpose of systemic formation of foreign language communicative and intercultural competences, along with the described methods of ethnography, it is necessary to use different kinds of problematic culturological assignments.

Problem-solving cultural tasks and assignments are described illustratively and in sufficient detail in the works by V.V. Safonova [37], which have also been implemented into the teaching materials for grades 8-11 of the secondary schools with advanced exposure to the English language (team of the authors led by Prof. V.V. Safonova (1995-2008). In her work, the author distinguishes three main types of problem-solving assignments: a) search-and-play, b) cognitive-searching, c) cognitive and research tasks) [Ibid]. Search-and-play tasks are aimed at developing students' subject and subject-situational observation, thinking, intelligence, recreating and creative imagination in the process of formation and improvement of communicative skills. According to the characteristics of cognitive development and communicative abilities of the students, the most effective use of search and play assignments will be in the 3-7 grades. At a higher stage - in high school - "search-and-play" assignments will be somewhat complicated, and will be transformed into cognitive-searching or cognitive-research culturally-oriented assignments. Cognitive and communicative abilities of the high school and university students allow active using in foreign language teaching the cognitive-search and cognitive-research culturally-oriented assignments, culturally-oriented communicatively-oriented role plays and culturally-oriented projects.

It should be noted that if some continuity can be observed in the purpose of foreign language teaching between secondary school and university, then the continuity should also be observed in the implementation of methods of problem-based teaching between the school and the university. In particular, role-playing games aimed at the development of communicative skills and the ability to implement the search, selection of the material, its systematization, analysis, synthesis, representation in the form of a written project or presentation will be used at the middle and high levels of secondary education in accordance with the characteristics of students' cognitive development, cognitive-search and cognitive-research culturological assignments (grades 8-11) [37-38]. In the system of higher professional education, the chain of problem-solving types of the students' educational activities should continue, and the level of independence should rise.

In the context of the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach to teaching language and culture the dominant place should be given to the problem-solving and research assignments or projects which are implemented in extracurricular time through the four methods of ethnography. Preparation for observation, questionnaires, surveys and interviews can be carried out at the seminars, problem-solving lectures of research nature using individual and

group work. Moreover, it is crucial that culture studies assignments should alternate with the methods of ethnography, complementing each other and enriching students' linguistic, socio-cultural and crosscultural practice.

During their stay in the country of the target language, of course, the emphasis in teaching should be made on using methods of ethnography. Preparation for their implementation, as well as students' immersion in the context of linguistic or socio-cultural issue, depending on the training program and the period of immersion into the cultural environment, can be conducted both in the host country and in the native country. At the final stages of using all four methods of ethnography, it is important that students together with the teacher a) interpret the information with a view of further formation of the components of foreign language communicative and intercultural competence, and avoid creating false perceptions and stereotypes about the cultural community; and b) produce a cultural reflection on the native culture. According to some empirical studies (P.V. Sysoyev) [5-7], the students will be able to come to a better understanding of themselves as the cultural and historical subjects through reflection and interpretation. Problem-solving assignments and additional materials used in ethnographic research should be aimed at creating a holistic view on the target aspect of culture in relation to other aspects within a particular historical, cultural or social context.

The teacher's role in the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach is to facilitate the educational process. While preparing for the use of the methods of ethnography and at the final stage of data interpretation and reflection, the teacher's role, at the first glance, will be more pronounced. All students' educational and cognitive activity using problem-solving assignments will be in the classroom in the presence of a teacher. At the stage of implementation of ethnographic projects, the function of the teacher will be reduced to monitoring educational and cognitive activity of the students. And it can be done both face-to-face when the students make a poll or make observations in the presence of the teacher, and distantly, when students communicate with the teacher for advice while implementing the ethnographic project or for phased reporting.

Characteristics of communicative-ethnographic approach at the present stage

Communicative-ethnographic approach has a number of characteristics which, on the one hand, distinguish it from the other culturological approaches, and, on the other hand, show the didactic and methodological potential of immersion into the language and cultural environment for the purpose of teaching foreign language and culture (table). All of them should be taken into account while developing training programs and training materials for teaching language and culture under conditions of immersion.

Characteristics of communicative-ethnographic approach
to teaching foreign language and culture

№	Characteristics	Description
1	Individualization and differentiation of teaching	1) taking into account individual abilities, interests and needs of the students in the field of linguistic and sociocultural education
2	Conditions of immersion	2) immersing students into the linguistic and sociocultural environment of the country of the target language with a view to perform the role of researchers-ethnographers, observing, exploring and interpreting the phenomena of language and culture
3	Methodological dominant - methods of ethnography	3) the main methods of ethnography (observation, interviewing, questionnaires, interviews) as well as different kinds of problem-solving assignments a) search-and-play, b) cognitive-search, c) cognitive and research tasks serve as the methodological dominant
4	Context teaching	4) studies of the phenomena of language and culture in the real social and cultural context in diachronic and synchronic aspects
5	Communicative teaching	5) research work of the students on the basis of the methods of problem-based teaching involves direct communication in a foreign language with the representatives of the language and culture (principles of communicative orientation and functionality); 6) the constant change of the methods of ethnographic research, techniques, forms of work, and communicative tasks aimed at forming the competence in the foreign language and culture of the target language country; 7) changes in the content of training considering the individual needs and interests of the students; 8) analyzing the variation of verbal statement (lexical, grammatical, stylistic, and other aspects) depending on the situations of both formal and informal communication
6	Sociocultural education	9) studying the systems of values, the values and norms of different cultural groups (according to territorial, ethnic, social, religious, etc. characteristics) and identifying the dominant values of the cultural community in a particular area; 10) studying the ethnic culture in relation to the regional (continental) culture (e.g. examining the culture and lifestyle of the religious Amish communities in relation to the Anglo-Saxon culture in the USA); 11) studying nationally specific social characteristics and peculiarities of communicative behavior of the representatives of the target culture; 12) studying the influence of cultural background (according to the territorial, social, economic, religious and other features) on the image and style of life in the country of the target language; 13) formation of intercultural competence of the students
7	Multicultural education	14) studying the spectrum of cultures of a target culture (based on social, ethnic, religious, etc. factors); 15) students' awareness of themselves as representatives of the native culture with multi-group affiliation (according to religious, territorial, social, political, and other aspects); 16) using in the educational process the assignments on analysis, comparing and contrasting the data (linguistic, verbal or sociocultural material) on different cultural groups when comparing native and target cultures; 17) students' reflection; 18) development of students' intercultural competence

Characteristics of communicative-ethnographic approach presented in the Table 1 testify that at the present stage, due to the revision of the didactic and methodological possibilities of the communicative-ethnographic approach, its objectives are much more detailed and complicated in comparison with the objectives that were set in the 1990s. In particular, if the initial description of the approach indicated its separate existence, nowadays communicative-ethnographic approach in the didactic terms should continue communicative and cognitive, socio-cultural and multicultural approaches, creating a unique environment for teaching a foreign language and culture. In addition, the objectives in the modern version allow forming the aspects of foreign language communicative competence and intercultural competence of the pupils and students in a systematic and integrated way. Analysis of the proposed characteristics of the communicative-ethnographic approach indicates the continuity between the approaches used in Russia and an in the language and cultural immersion environment. In other words, communicative-ethnographic approach can solve a number of educational tasks that were previously assigned to the communicative method of language teaching (positions 5-8) (E.I. Passov) [39], socio-cultural approach to teaching languages of international communication (positions 9-13) (V.V. Safonova) [3-4] and multicultural approach (positions 14-18) (P.V. Sysoyev) [5-7]. All these provisions in their integrity create didactic conditions for the formation of the students' intercultural competence.

Directions of the communicative-ethnographic approach

On the basis of the selected characteristics we can identify the main directions of the communicative-ethnographic approach to teaching a foreign language and culture.

1. Communicative-ethnographic approach is one of the culturological approaches to teaching the foreign language and culture of the target language country, implemented fully or partially during students' immersion in the linguistic and socio-cultural environment of the country of the target language. It is implemented in cooperation with the competence, systemic, personal and pragmatist, cognitive-communicative, sociocultural and multicultural approaches and is focused on the further development education of the students and development of their foreign language communicative competence and intercultural competence.

2. Communicative-ethnographic approach to teaching a foreign language and culture involves systemic and contextual study of the linguistic and cultural realities. The students study the phenomena of language and culture in the real social and cultural context in diachronic (observing changes in the different historical periods and analyzing reasons for these changes) or synchronic (studying the interaction and mutual influence of the target aspects of language and culture in a series of the similar) aspects.

3. The choice of educational content should be based on the following methodological principles: didactic culture-conformity, dialogue of cultures (V.V. Safonova) [37], cultural diversity (P.V. Sysoyev) [5-7], cultural opposition (V.G. Apalkov) [30].

4. Methodological dominants in the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach are the four methods of ethnography: observation, questionnaires, surveys and interviews. Alternating with the problem-solving assignments (a) search and play, b) cognitive-searching, c) cognitive and research), they create backgrounds to enriching the linguistic and cultural practices of the students and to developing their foreign language communicative and intercultural competencies.

5. A considerable amount of time in the implementation of communicative-ethnographic approach is assigned to independent educational activities of the students. This, firstly, would contribute to the development of their abilities of independent educational activities for self-study and "learning throughout life" (N.F. Koryakovtseva) [40]. Secondly, it allows implementing the models of training on individual paths, including the use of modern information and communication technologies (P.V. Sysoyev) [41-47].

6. An essential step in the application of communicative-ethnographic approach is reflection that allows students, on the one hand, to compare the target aspects of the language and culture with the native language and culture with a view to adopt linguistic and cultural diversity as a norm of multiculturalism in the modern multicultural world. On the other hand - to identify successful aspects of their own cognitive activity while using methods of ethnography and performing problem-solving assignments and aspects requiring further improvement.

References

1. GURAL, S.K., 2008. Worldview, picture of the world, language: linguistic aspect of interaction. *Language and Culture*, 1, pp. 14-21.
2. GURAL, S.K. and MITCHELL, P., 2008. Development of professional discourse based on the principles of interactive language teaching, developed by the Harvard professor Wilga M. Rivers for non-linguistic specializations. *Language and Culture*, 4, pp. 5-10.
3. SAFONOVA, V.V., 1991. *Sociocultural approach to teaching foreign languages.* Moscow: Vysshaya Shkola.
4. SAFONOVA, V.V., 1996. *Study of modern languages in the context of dialogue of cultures and civilizations.* Voronezh: Istoki.
5. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2003.*Theory of foreign language polycultural education.* Moscow; Euroschool Press.
6. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2004. *Theory of foreign language polycultural education (based on US cultural studies):* Doctor of Education Dissertation. Moscow: Lomonosov Moscow State University.
7. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2006. Language polycultural education. *Foreign Languages at School Journal*, 4, pp. 2-14.

8. SHAMOV, A.N., 2005. *Cognitive approach to teaching vocabulary*: Doctor of Education Dissertation. Tambov.

9. SHCHEPILOVA, A.V., 2003. *Communicative-cognitive approach to teaching French as a foreign language. Theoretical basics.* Doctor of Education Dissertation. Moscow: Russian Academy of Education.

10. *Federal State Educational Standard of Higher Professional Education.* Major "Linguistics". Moscow, 2010.

11. *Federal State Educational Standard of General Secondary Education.* Moscow, 2010.

12. BYRAM, M. and ESARTE-SARRIES, V., 1991. *Cultural studies in foreign language teaching.* Clevedon, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.

13. BYRAM, M. and FLEMING, M., 1998. *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective: Approach through Drama and Ethnography.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

14. BARRO, A. and SHIRLEY, J. and ROBERTS, C., 1998. Cultural practice in everyday life: the language learner as ethnographer. In: *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective: Approach through Drama and Ethnography*, ed. by M. Byram and M. Fleming. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 76-97.

15. *Dictionary of the Russian Language*, 1988. In 4 volumes. Moscow: Russky Yazyk Press.

16. DERKACH, G.V., 2012. *Cultural Studies.* Rostov on Don.

17. SOLONINA, Y.N. and KAGAN, M.S., 2010. *Cultural Studies.* Moscow: Vysshee Obrazovanie.

18. Kistova, A.V., 2013. Ethnographic method in social studies. *Current Issues in Science and Education*, 6. URL: http://www.science-education.ru

19. HYMES, D., 1972. On Communicative Competence. *Sociolinguistics.* Harmondsworth: Penguin.

20. BYRAM, M., 2000. Assessing intercultural competence in language teaching. *Sprogforum*, 18, 6, pp. 8-13.

21. SAVIGNON, S.J. and SYSOYEV P.V., 2002. Sociocultural strategies for a dialogue of cultures. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86 (4).

22. SAVIGNON, S.J. and SYSOYEV, P.V., 2005. Cultures and comparisons: strategies for learners. *Foreign Language Annals*, 38 (3), pp. 357-365.

23. CANALE, M. and SWAIN, M., 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1 (1).

24. EK, J.A. van, 1986. *Objectives for foreign language learning.* Strasbourg: Council of Europe.

25. KRAMSCH, C., 1993. *Context and culture in language teaching.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

26. KRAMSCH, C., 1998. The privilege of the intercultural speaker. *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective: Approach Through Drama and Ethnography.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 16-31.

27. ELIZAROVA, G.V., 2005. *Culture in teaching foreign languages.* Saint-Petersburg: Karo.

28. BYRAM, M., 1997. *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence.* Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.

29. ALMAZOVA, N.I., 2003. *Crosscultural Component of Foreign Language Communication: cognitive and didactic aspects.* Saint-Petersburg: Nauka.

30. APALKOV, V.G., 2008. *Methods of the development of students' intercultural competence via e-mail*: Doctoral dissertation. Tambov: Tambov State University.

31. BARYSHNIKOV, N.V., 2013. *Basics of professional intercultural communication.* Moscow: INFRA-M.

32. GALSKOVA, N.Y., 2008. Foreign language education; new challenges and priorities. *Foreign Languages at School Journal*, 5, pp. 2-7.

33. PLUZHNIK, I.L, 2003. *The development of intercultural communicative competence in the process of professional training.* Moscow.

34. SAFONOVA, V.V., 2004. *Communicative competence: modern approaches to multi-level description for educational purposes.* Moscow: Euroschool Press.

35. SUSHKOVA, N.A., 2009. *Methods of the development of intercultural competence in immersion (English, linguistic university):* Doctoral Dissertation. Tambov.

36. FILONOVA, V.V., 2013. *Case-method in the development of students' intercultural abilities:* Doctoral Dissertation. Moscow.

37. SAFONOVA, V.V., 2001. *Problem-solving assignments in the English language lessons.* Moscow: Euroschool Press.

38. SAFONOVA, V.V. and SYSOYEV, P.V., 2005. US Cultural Studies elective course in the system of profile oriented teaching. *Foreign Languages at School Journal*, 2, pp. 7-16.

39. PASSOV, E.I., 1985. *Communicative method in teaching foreign language speaking.* Moscow: Russky Yazyk.

40. KORYAKOVTSEVA, N.F., 2002. *Modern methods of organizing independent work in learning a foreign language.* M.: ARKTI Press.

41. SYSOYEV, P.V., 1999. *Sociocultural component of teaching American English*: Doctoral Dissertation. Tambov: Tambov State University.

42. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2013a. Individual education path. *Language and Culture*, 4 (24), pp. 121-131.

43. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2014a. System of teaching a foreign language using individual paths based on modern information and communication technologies. *Foreign Languages at School Journal*, 5, pp. 2-11.

44. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2014b. Podcasts in teaching a foreign language. *Language and Culture*, 2 (26), pp. 189-201.

45. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2012. Blogs in foreign language teaching. *Language and Culture*, 4 (20), pp. 115-127.

46. SYSOYEV, P.V., 2013b. Using wiki in teaching a foreign language. *Language and Culture*, 3 (23), pp. 140-152.

47. SYSOYEV, P.V. and PUSTOVALOVA, O.V., 2014. Development of learners' writing abilities via "Twitter". *Language and culture*, 3, pp. 176-186.

INFORMATION ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Boyko Stepan A. - post-graduate student, Department of English Philology, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: ste-bojko@yandex.ru

Chernyshev Sergey V. - Ph.D., Department of Linguistics and Foreign Language Teaching, Nizhny Novgorod State Linguistic University (Nizhny Novgorod, Russia).
E-mail: Chernish25@yandex.ru

Lebedeva Elena B. - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Intercultural Communication and Translation Studies, Foreign Languages Institute, Vladivostok State University of Economics and Service (Vladivostok, Russia).
E-mail: Strelenko55@mail.ru

Murashova Eugene A. - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of German and French, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Taganrog Institute (branch) of The Federal State Budgetary Educational Institution of Higher Professional Education "Rostov State University of Economics" (Taganrog, Russia).
E-mail: shenetschka@rambler.ru

Murashova Ludmila P. - post-graduate student, Pyatigorsk State Linguistic University, Senior Lecturer, Department of Linguistics and Translation, Southern Institute of Management (Pyatigorsk, Russia).
E-mail: L-P-Murashova@mail.ru

Nekrasova Elena D. - post-graduate student, Department of General and Slavic-Russian linguistics and Classical Philology. Junior researcher, laboratory "Cognitive Study of Language" Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: nekrasovaed@gmail.com

Pipchenko Elena L. - Assistant Professor of the Foreign Languages, Linguistics and Translation Faculty Perm National Research Polytechnic University (Perm, Russia).
E-mail: elenapipchenko@yandex.ru

Serova Tamara S. - Doctor in Pedagogics, Professor of the Foreign Languages, Linguistics and Translation Faculty, Perm National Research Polytechnic University (Perm, Russia).
E-mail: serowa@pstu.ru

Shirokolobova Anastasia G. - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Economics and Management, Kuzbass State Technical University (Kemerovo, Russia).
E-mail: nastja_shirokolo@rambler.ru

Sysoev Pavel V. - Doctor of Education, Professor, Head of the Department of Linguistics and Didactics of Tambov State University, Professor of the Department of Foreign Languages of the Moscow State Humanitarian University (Moscow, Tambov, Russia).
E-mail: psysoyev@yandex.ru

Voloshina Svetlana V. - PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Russian Language, Faculty of Philology, Tomsk State University (Tomsk, Russia).
E-mail: vsv1304@yandex.ru

Academic periodical journal

Language and culture

Number 4   2014