

## "Naive anatomy" in the Kazakh language world picture in comparison with English and Russian

Zifa Temirgazina – Sergey Nikolaenko – Marzhan Akosheva – Malgorzata  
Luczyk – Gulmira Khamitov

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.01

### **Abstract**

The article explores the naive and anatomical representations of native speakers of Kazakh in comparison with English and Russian languages. For comparative study, the method of cross-linguistic analysis using descriptors - comparison parameters was chosen. Quantitative and qualitative comparison of descriptors allows us to identify common and different signs in the conceptualization of the liver and lungs. The liver, the most important concept of the naive anatomy of the Kazakhs, is the focus of kinship relations, which are the dominant social and clan organization of nomads. The liver is the main organ in Kazakh naive anatomy. It undergoes a multifaceted, versatile conceptualization in this culture. Lungs are a significant component of the naive anatomy of Kazakhs. They appear to be the carriers of exclusively negative emotions and qualities. The naive anatomy of different peoples (Russians, English) reveals common features based on the unity of the physiological and anatomical structure of a person, and features determined by national history and culture. The cross linguistic analysis of vocabulary and phraseology of the Kazakh, English, Russian languages underlines the unique picture of the world of Kazakhs concerning their perception of a liver and lungs.

**Key words:** naive anatomy, cross linguistic analysis, idiom, metaphorical conceptualization, metonymy

---

### **Introduction**

The interaction of a human with the outside world, its knowledge takes place at different levels, including everyday life. The results of this knowledge are laid down in his/her everyday consciousness. It is understood as the practical consciousness of people that goes beyond any narrowly specialized professional field and is the basis of everyday cognitive activity. Naive knowledge goes back to the scientific, acting as its concrete, worldly, practically oriented refraction. However, the logic, clarity, relative completeness inherent in scientific consciousness in ordinary consciousness can manifest to a lesser extent. Ordinary knowledge is not only rational, but also irrational, based not only on the logical perception of the world, but also on the mythological one. Ordinary consciousness of the surrounding reality forms a naive picture of the world. According to Y.D. Apresyan, a naive picture of the world “presents the ways of perceiving and conceptualizing the world reflected in natural language, when the main components of the language are combined into a single system of views, a kind of collective philosophy that is imposed as mandatory on all native speakers of the language” (1995: 350). Indeed, the linguistic picture reflects to a greater extent the knowledge of the pre-scientific stage of development of society, everyday ideas, which is why it is called “naive” (Apresyan, 2006: 35; Yakovleva, 1994: 10). In a naive picture of the world, one can distinguish naive geometry, physics of space and time, ethics, psychology, anatomy, etc. (Apresyan, 2006: 35). Scientists see the slow evolution of the language compared to culture and knowledge of the world as the reason that the language has an archaic, surviving picture of the world. Even E. Sapir (1963: 101, 102) pointed to the reflection by the language of the culture of the past.

The article considers a fragment of a naive world view of one of the modern Turkic peoples - Kazakh - in comparison with similar fragments of a world picture of native speakers of English and Russian. This fragment includes naive and anatomical ideas about the human body, its structure, internal organs, due to the specificity of the mentality of the people, their historical, cultural and spiritual development.

A person in the history of philosophical and religious teachings has traditionally been understood as a unity of body and spirit, and if spiritual (emotional, mental) is intangible and difficult for direct study, then body, on the contrary, is material and open to observation (Sukhorukova, 2017: 168). Verbalized ideas about the body and the human organism are formed into a "naive anatomy". The term used by E.V. Uryson, by analogy with naive geometry, physics by Apresyan (Uryson, 1995). Uryson notes that "naive anatomy" differs from the usual ideas about a person in at least two points. This is, firstly, a list of organs, and secondly, their functions" (Uryson, 1995: 7).

The Kazakhs, whose main occupation was cattle breeding, lived in constant close contact with animals, which served as their means of transportation, food, a source of clothing and other household items. Accordingly, the anatomical views of the Kazakhs, like among many other peoples, have been formed since ancient times on the basis of observation of animals.

The main object of the study is the naive and anatomical views of the Kazakhs, reconstructed on the language material. In the semantics of linguistic units - words, idiomatic expressions - traces of pagan, mythological representations of ancient Turkic nomads, their traditions, rites and rituals are preserved. The names of body parts (somatisms), structures, innards of a person belong to the oldest layer of the lexical universum of world languages, are included in the basic vocabulary of languages, form many stable phraseological expressions - idioms and proverbs. "Anatomical vocabulary is included in the oldest and most stable layer of the national language" (Temirgazina, Akosheva et.al., 2019: 150). The idioms with the component - the anatomical name of the innards - reflect "archaic concepts that have survived to this day as echoes and relics of the distant past of the Kazakh people. But at the same time, idioms that are "archaic" in their origin, due to their semantic nature - abstractness, portability, etc. - actively function in the language, expressing quite modern concepts that are accessible to perception" (Kozhakhmetova et.al., 1988: 5). Material for the study was collected in lexicographic sources: explanatory and phraseological dictionaries of the Kazakh language, as well as English and Russian languages, including electronic. The number of analyzed Kazakh language units was 61, English - 8, Russian - 5. A small amount of material related to the concepts of "liver" and "lungs" in English and Russian is explained, in our opinion, by the insignificance of the place of the liver and lungs in the naive anatomical representations of native speakers of these languages, as it will be shown later in the article.

## **Research methodology**

### **1. Cross linguistic analysis**

An important methodological basis of our study is the cross cultural approach, which allows us to compare the naive and anatomical views of the native speakers of Kazakh culture with the views of native speakers of English and Russian cultures. The aim of cross cultural analysis is to identify common and differing features in the naive anatomy of the carriers of such different cultures on linguistic material. "The objects of the vast majority of such studies are polar cultures, which is designed to verify the theoretical models of collectivism and individualism as cultural types. Such studies have not only a theoretical, but also an applied aspect, including establishing business relations in multi-ethnic groups, overcoming ethnic conflicts" (Bespamyatnyh, 2008: 17). The effective use of cross linguistic analysis in relation to different cultures and

languages can be seen in many contemporary works (Pit, 2007; Krawczak, 2014; Fernandez-Martinez, Faber, 2019 and others).

The object of comparison is the “cultural unit”, in the interpretation of which we follow H. Triandis. He included three parameters in the characterization of a “cultural unit”: time, place, and language: “Time, since we are usually interested in a specific historical period; place, as we focus on interpersonal contact or political organization; language as we focus our attention on mutual misunderstanding” (Triandis, 1980: 2). From the point of view of Triandis, the boundaries of a cultural unit are revealed in its external explicit forms, and one of these forms, first of all, is language. Thus, cross cultural analysis is necessarily supplemented by a linguistic aspect. This allows for a cross linguistic analysis of linguistic units (lexemes, idioms), which are forms of external explication of a cultural unit - myths, traditions, customs and forms of behavior. A.H. Khan wrote about the influence of cultural patterns on thinking and the process of interpretation (2018).

## **2. Metaphor and metonymy as cognitive mechanisms of analogy**

Other important ideas that formed the methodology of our study are the theory of conceptual metaphor and metonymy. The study of metaphor and metonymy as meaning-generating phenomena helps to form an idea of the picture of the world of different people and its features.

The object of analysis, the founders of the theory of conceptual metaphor, J. Lakoff and M. Johnson (2003) considered the so-called erased or dead metaphors. Speaking about the correspondences in experience that underlie conceptual metaphors, they had in mind not individual, but collective experience, understandable to all representatives of this society. Another manifestation of the cognitive mechanism of analogy is metonymy (Lakoff, Johnson, 2003; Radden, Kövecses, 1999). Metonymy is a cognitive phenomenon, but with a different basis than a metaphor. In conceptual metonymy, two entities are connected in such a way that one replaces the other. From the point of view of cognition, in conceptual metonymy A replaces B, while in conceptual metaphor A is understood as B. It should be noted that often metaphor and metonymy are syncretic in nature, and they are quite difficult to distinguish. In this regard, works that consider the metaphor from a synergetic point of view are of interest (Muryasov, Samigullina, et al., 2018).

## **3. The human body in the process of metaphorization and metonymization**

The opinion of Lakoff and Johnson (2003) that the body is a tool of metaphor and metonymy is significant for us. The conceptual system of language and culture is based on the body's perception of itself, as well as on the basis of the interaction of its body with other bodies. On the basis of a figurative rethinking of physicality, fundamental cognitive transfer models are structured in the following way: “internal - external”, “receptacle - accommodated”, “upper - lower”, “right - left”, “front - back”, “part - whole”, “center - periphery” and others. Such ideas “penetrate” into culture, social relations, reflected in linguistic forms. It is precisely on this conceptual potential of metaphorical-metonymic modeling of social processes, relationships, mental phenomena based on the experience of corporeality that we rely on in the cross linguistic analysis of the naive anatomy of Kazakhs, English and Russians.

Z. Kövecses (2001) listed the source areas from which knowledge is most often borrowed by the analogy mechanism. These are the areas of HUMAN BODY, ANIMALS, PLANTS, FOOD, FORCES (PHYSICAL INTERACTIONS). The target spheres are most often EMOTIONS, MORALITY, THINKING, HUMAN RELATIONS, TIME. As we see, the human body, knowledge about it, its structure, organs, parts and functions, according to many reputable scientists, are a truly inexhaustible source for understanding, learning more abstract, less familiar to a human areas.

The universal trend in the naive anatomy of the peoples of the world includes the establishment of a connection between the body (parts of the body, internal organs) and the mental world of a person (emotions, will, desires, thoughts). In 2002, a special issue of «The Body in Description of Emotion. Cross-linguistic studies» of the journal “Pragmatics & Cognition” was dedicated to the study of this relationship (2002).

In various internal organs, according to the indicated trend, various emotions, will, desire are localized, moreover, the constant properties of a person’s character. “Studies of emotions and individual emotional concepts, carried out by linguists and linguoculturologists within the framework of different linguocultures, allow us to assert that at all times the human mind seeks to connect the experienced feelings and emotions with any parts of the human body, to establish the place of their “localization” inside a person” (Zayats, 2017: 4). Thus, the internal organ is the habitat of any emotions, human qualities, and other mental processes. The established relationship between the internal organ and mental processes is of an idio-ethnic nature and reflects the culturally specific views of a particular nation. From a cognitive point of view, this relationship is represented as metonymic or metaphorical. “Physicality” in the process of the cognitive mechanism of analogy (metaphor and metonymy) is attributed not only to emotions, desires, but also to other mental properties of a person - constant character traits.

#### **4. Descriptors: the ways to derive and interpret them**

For the cross-linguistic description of the mental interpretation of the anatomical parts in the language, descriptors are used in this study. Descriptors are understood as parameters transmitting the most typical interpretations of anatomical phenomena in the cognition of various mental phenomena and processes of native speakers of Kazakh, English, and Russian languages. Identified descriptors contain generalized signs of metaphorical-metonymic understanding of anatomical concepts in three languages, fixing their commonality. Differences between cultures are found, firstly, in the quantitative coverage of the descriptor complex in the cultural interpretation of the anatomical phenomenon - the internal organ; secondly, in the peculiarity of the implementation of individual descriptors.

Descriptors are derived based on the analysis of the metonymic or metaphorical use of the names of internal organs (words, phrases) in the phraseology of three comparable languages (Kazakh, English and Russian). That is why descriptors contain culturally determined, rather than direct, objectively motivated meanings of the names of internal organs. So, for example, the descriptor “ability to have color” determines not the actual color of the organ, but the color attributed to it by native speakers due to the mechanism of analogy with mental phenomena, concepts and processes.

The internal organ is viewed through the prism of the identified descriptors in quantitative and qualitative respects in each language. The methodology for using the descriptors we obtained allows us to see common, similar features in the naive anatomy of different peoples, as well as differences. In this study, we consider only two internal organs - liver, lungs as the most interesting from cultural and anthropological points of view.

Moreover, the frame and scope of the article do not allow us to present the cultural and anthropological point of view of native speakers on other internal organs. The descriptors that we developed based on the semantic analysis of two organs mentioned above can be applied to the cultural interpretation of other names of internal organs, body parts, for example, heart, kidneys, spleen, stomach, etc. in various languages.

#### **Results and discussion**

Internal organs have a peculiar hierarchy and ethnocultural significance in the naive and anatomical representations of different peoples. The specific mechanisms of metonymization and metaphorization allowed them to realize a cognitive

understanding of internal organs and verbalize their relationship with mental phenomena and entities.

### 1. Liver

From the point of view of the Kazakhs, the most important internal organ of man is *bauyr* - the liver, and not the heart, as in most European languages. A lot of culturally specific ideas are associated with the liver, reflecting the peculiarity of the worldview of the ancient nomads, affecting not only the mental and emotional sphere, the character of a person, but also the social and tribal way of life.

Thus, the concept of the liver is primarily directly associated with kinship in the metaphorical model of "LIVER" - "CLOSE RELATIONSHIP" (metaphorical models at: (Temirgazina et al., 2016)). Blood kinship, family ties were the most important socio-forming factor among the Kazakhs - representatives of Turkic nomads. The Kazakhs believe that it is the liver that is "responsible" for human feelings in the human body. It is liver that allegedly "worries" and hurts for relatives" (Kazaksha soyle, 2004).

For Kazakhs, the word *bauyr* metaphorically means "brother; blood relative; kinsman". Frequency is the appeal of *Bauyrym!* meaning "My brother!" (lit.: 'my liver'). The deceased is also mourned with cries of *Oh, bauyrym!* and the process of mourning the deceased is indicated by the verb *oj bauyrymdau*. "According to the custom of the Kazakhs, the rider notifies everyone about the death of a man, loudly wailing: "*Oh, bauyrym!*" (lit.: 'Oh, my dear!)" (Kozhakhmetova et al., 1988: 142). The most precious and important things Kazakhs call *bauyr et* (lit.: 'liver meat'), they say that about a child, children, blood and closest relatives - meaning "dearest; native" (Kenesbaev, 2007). See the Kazakh proverb: *Bala - adamnyn bauyr eti* (lit.: 'a child is the meat of the liver for a person') with the meaning "A child is the most precious for a person".

Kazakhs still have the ancient tradition of "*bauyrna salu*". Ethnographers write: "There was a practice when the first-born of the newlyweds were taken to their grandfather and grandmother for education - the husband's parents. This was called "*bauyrna salu*" (lit.: 'cuddle it to the liver')" (Kazaksha soyle, 2004). The verb *bauyrna salu*, in addition to the meaning "to adopt", also has the additional meaning of "bring the calf to the cow; to feed the calf", associated with the main occupation for Kazakhs - cattle breeding.

From the point of view of the Kazakhs, the liver also participated in the process of establishing fraternal, family relations, for example, the verb *bauyr lasu* with the meanings "to be related", "to fraternize", formed from the word "bauyr".

Many other verbs denoting affection, empathy are formed in the Kazakh language from the word *bauyr* in the framework of the metaphorical model mentioned above:

*bauyr tartu* (regret; treat like a blood relative; sympathize);

*bauyry elzhireu* (to regret);

*bauyr basu* (get used to; get attached strongly; shelter; adopt);

*bauyrna kiru* (to trust); *bauyrna tartu* (to attract to your side; to win over);

*bauyr syrau* (yearning for relatives) (Kasaksha-oryssha sozdik, 2013).

The phraseological expression *er-tokymyn bauyrna alu* (lit.: 'cling to the front of the saddle') has a syncretic metaphorical-metonymic meaning "to rebel; protest; disagree in every way" (Kenesbaev, 2007). The semantics of expression is constructed by the metonymic transfer "liver instead of the front of the object" and a metaphorical interpretation of the visual image of the rider, clinging to the bow of the saddle and preparing for a battle leap, to fight.

The adjective *bauyrmal*, formed from the word "bauyr" (liver), has the following meanings: 1) respecting relatives, welcoming to relatives; 2) responsive, kind (in relation to anyone) (Kasaksha-oryssha sozdik, 2013). An alienated person who does not recognize his relatives is also indicated by the word *bauyr*: *zhat bauyr*.

The health of a person, his family and loved ones is also metaphorically associated with the idea of the integrity of the liver. The expression *bauyry bytin* (lit.: 'liver is in sound condition') characterizes a person who is healthy and whose family and relatives are alive and well.

The concept of "liver" is actively used to describe such important qualities of a horse — the nomad's main asset as strength and endurance acquired as a result of training, according to the model with the source domain "LIVER" and the target domain "STRENGTH, ENDURANCE OF A HORSE ACQUIRED DURING TRAINING":

*bauyr zhazu* (long run - about a horse);

*bauyry tartylu* (to be trained; to be ready for horse racing - about a horse);

*bauyrynan zharau* (to be trained; to be ready for horse racing - about a horse) (Kenesbaev, 2007).

Kazakhs say about a stronger baby (and also about a foal): *bauyry katu* - get stronger (lit.: 'the liver has hardened / got stronger'). Metaphorical expressions with the word *bauyr* characterize the moral qualities of a person:

*kara bauyr* (lit.: 'black liver') - cruel; malicious;

*tas bauyr* (lit.: 'stone liver') - cruel; unmerciful; stale (Kenesbaev, 2007).

In the Russian language consciousness, the concept of "heart", not "liver", is usually used for similar characteristics of a person:

*chernoe serdce* (lit.: "black heart") is cruel, unkind;

*kamennoe serdce* (lit.: 'a stone heart') - merciless; stale.

In the liver, from the point of view of the Kazakhs, such human qualities as responsiveness, kindness, warmth are placed, see the noun *bauyrmaldyk* (lit.: 'liveriness'). In the naive and anatomical representations of the Russian people, similar qualities are localized in the heart - *serdechnost* (lit.: 'cordiality'), *serdechnyy* (lit.: 'cordial').

In English, "the liver appears as the center of fear: "the liver is the seat of fear" (2): *lily liver* 'a person who's afraid; a coward', *lily-livered* "extends to observation that a person's skin can turn pale with fear to suggest that all his / her organs do as well by using a lily, traditionally white, to convey the comparison" (Podgornaya, 2016: 117). Thus, the white liver (*lily*, *white*) is associated with cowardice and fear among the British: *white liver* in the meaning of "a coward" (Power Thesaurus, 2019).

In the Russian language, a negative attitude to the liver is also noted; see, for example, the idioms

*v pechenkah sidit* - "very tired, constantly disturbing" (lit.: 'sitting in the liver');

*vsemi pechenkami* (to hate, to want) (lit.: 'to want/ to hate with the whole liver') in the meaning "very strong" (Tikhonov, 2007).

In the dictionary of V.I. Dal' (1990: 108-109) the following idioms are recorded:

*govorit' pechenkoj* (lit.: 'speak with the liver' in the meaning of "angry");

*Ne hvatilo legkih, tak zagovoril pechenkoj* (lit.: 'Not having enough lungs, he spoke with the liver' in the meaning of "There wasn't enough loudness of the voice in the argument, so he became very angry");

*Ne gnevajsa, pechenku isportish'* (lit.: 'Do not be angry, you ruin your liver').

In all these idioms, the liver seems to be the place of localization of such negative emotions as anger, irritation, which, according to Russian speakers, can damage this organ.

In English, the noun *free-liver* (n.) functions with a specific meaning not noted in the Kazakh and Russian languages: "one who indulges the appetites" 1711, from free (adj.) + liver (n.2). Related: Free-living" (Etymological Dictionary of English, 2015).

The liver, in accordance with its localization in the human body, forms in the Kazakh language a kind of metonymy such as "the liver instead of the front of the body". That

is why *bauyr* has the figurative meaning "belly; abdomen", as well as "the front of the body", "chest". See, for example, the expressions:

*bauryrna basu* - to press to the chest;

*bauryrna kysu* - to press against you;

*bauryrn tosep zhatu* - lie on one's stomach (Kenesbaev, 2007).

The location of the liver in the body is also the basis for the metonymy "the location of the liver in the body instead of the slope / foothills": *taudyń bauryrynda* - located on the side of the mountain (lit. "near the mountain's liver") (Kenesbaev, 2007).

The burial place, a man's grave is figuratively called by the Kazakhs as *bauryry suyk kara zher* – lit.: 'a black earth with a cold womb' (Kenesbaev, 2007). This meaning is syncretic metaphorical and metonymic in nature. The syncretic meaning is characterized by the Kazakh idiomatic expression *ayak-kolyn bauryrna alu* – lit.: 'safely give birth to a baby (about a pregnant woman)' (Kenesbaev, 2007). Literally, this idiom is practically impossible to translate; it reflects a deeply specific perception of the process of childbirth of Kazakhs.

The significance of the liver in human anatomy is also manifested in the fact that the names of other internal organs are formed using the word *bauyr*:

*bauyr et* - diaphragm (lit.: 'liver meat');

*kokbauyr* - spleen (lit.: 'blue liver') (Kasaksha-oryssha sozdk, 2013).

Thus, the concept of "*bauyr*" (liver) was of extremely great importance in the world picture of the Kazakhs, denoting not only the most important internal organ of the human body, but also an essential concept in the description of family relationships within a nomadic society, in the reconstruction of the mental world - emotions, desires and other. This is evidenced by a significant number of idioms and words with figurative meaning, which include the "liver" component in the Kazakh language in comparison with English and Russian. See Table 1.

<i>Kazakh Language</i>	<i>English Language</i>	<i>Russian Language</i>
42	4	3

**Table 1. The number of idioms with the component "Liver"**

We emphasize that, according to the Kazakhs, mainly positive emotions and qualities of a person are concentrated in the liver - attachment, trust, pity, kindness, responsiveness, and cordiality. In contrast to the representations of Russians and English, Kazakhs also believe that it is in the liver that strength, endurance of a person and a horse nests, acquired over time during training.

Among Europeans in contrast to Kazakhs liver is not considered the habitat of kindred feelings. From the point of view of importance in the body and in the localization of human emotions and qualities, the liver in Kazakh naive anatomy is comparable to the role and place of such an organ as heart in Russian and English naive anatomy. A negative attitude towards the liver prevails in them: according to native English speakers cowardice and fear are concentrated in it; and according to the native speakers of the Russian language, anxiety from someone's annoyance is revealed there.

Table 2 shows the descriptors defined during the analysis of metaphorical and metonymic use of the name of the organ "liver" and the characteristics of the liver in accordance with the indicated parameters in three comparable languages. The first in the hierarchy of descriptors is "kinship", since this parameter is the most important in the nomadic Kazakh culture, whose foundation has been tribal relations since archaic times. The concepts of "kinship", "consanguinity" penetrates into all spheres of

managing, life, mentality of Kazakhs. The naive anatomy also reflects the primacy of this concept: it is localized in the largest internal organ of a person - the liver.

	<i>Internal body descriptors</i>	<i>Kazakh</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Russian</i>
1	<i>LIVER</i>			
1.1	<i>Kinship</i>	blood relationship, close relationship		
1.2	<i>Positive emotions</i>	love for family, friends; empathy, trust, pity, homesickness		
1.3	<i>Negative emotions</i>		Fear	annoyance from someone's importunity; anger
1.4	<i>Positive human qualities</i>	kindness, cordiality, responsiveness, courtesy		
1.5	<i>Negative human qualities</i>	cruelty, maliciousness, callousness	Cowardice	
1.6	<i>Physical characteristics</i>	strength, man / horse endurance		
1.7	<i>Ability to have a colour</i>	ability to have blue colour	ability to have white colour	
1.8	<i>The ability to be made from any substance</i>	can be made from stone		
1.9	<i>Place in the hierarchy of values</i>	the most valuable, the most expensive for a person		
1.10	<i>Softness/ Hardness</i>	able to be solid, strong		
1.11	<i>Localization of something</i>	denotes the front of the body; foot, mountainside		
1.12	<i>Lifestyle</i>		free lifestyle	

**Table 2. Descriptors of the internal organ "Liver" in Kazakh, English, and Russian**

## 2. Lungs

*Okpe* (lungs) have an extremely specific feature in the consciousness of Kazakhs in terms of localization of emotions. They are the habitat of exclusively negative emotions - resentment, grief, discontent, and reproach. This is confirmed by numerous idioms:

- okpe saktau* - hold a grudge; murmur;
- okpe ajtu* - take offense; make a grudge;
- okpe artu* - take offense; be discontented;
- okpe tarkatu* - stop being offended;
- okpe - renish* – reproaches;
- okpeli pishin* - offended look;

*okpeli saryn*- offended tone.

It is no coincidence that in the Kazakh language verbs with the meaning *okpeletu* «offend», *okpeleu* «take offense» formed from a noun *okpe* (lungs).

In the phraseology *okpesi kara kazandaj bolu* in the meaning of “strongly offended” (lit. ‘he has an offense the size of a black cauldron’) (Kozhakhmetova, et.al., 1988) reflects the archetypal opposition “white” - “black”, in which the term “black” characterizes negative values, phenomena, realities, in this case, emotions. In the phraseology *okpe ajtyp kysu* (lit. ‘crush, expressing resentment, reproaches’) with the meaning “seize reproaches”, the situation of intense verbalization of resentment using the word *okpe* is transmitted (Kenesbaev, 2007). The expression *bez okpe* (lit. ‘lungs hard as glands’) has the meaning 1) “cruel; heartless” (a person); 2) “hardy; strong” (about a horse).

Kazakhs imagine that, firstly, the lungs can be picked up: the idiom *okpesin ala zhygiru* literally translates as ‘running with the lungs in your hands’ and means 1) running very quickly; 2) to express an insult; secondly, the lungs can move and hide in the mouth: *okpesi auyzyna tygyly* literally translates as ‘lungs have risen to the mouth’ and means “suffocating from an excess of feelings, emotions” (Kenesbaev, 2007).

The lungs (*okpe*) have magical powers and are traditionally used by Kazakhs to treat the patient from the evil eye and other diseases. The Kazakh ethnographer S. Tokhtabaeva writes about it: “A common method of treatment (in particular, getting rid of the evil eye) is patting the patient’s naked body with the lungs of a freshly cut black sheep. After this procedure, the lungs that “took” the disease themselves had to be buried in the ground. This practice is still alive” (2017: 133). Perhaps such a negative idea of the human lungs is associated with this tradition of treatment, widespread in the culture of Kazakhs, when it was believed that the lungs absorb negative phenomena, diseases and emotions.

From the point of view of Europeans, lungs do not appear at all as the location of any emotions and, accordingly, are in no way connected with them; they perform vital, but purely physiological functions: they absorb and exhale air, ensure human breathing. Perhaps it was the connection with physiology that caused the concept of “lungs” meaning “voice power” in the English language; the etymological dictionary records the appearance of this meaning since 1900: “Lung-power” strength of voice “is from 1900” (Etymological Dictionary of English, 2019). The British believe that having good lungs means having a strong and loud voice:

*good lungs* - strong / loud / voice;

*he has a good pair of lungs* - he has a tinned throat (Akademik, 2019).

They also believe that the strength and volume of the voice are located in the upper part of the lungs: *at the top of one's lungs* - at the top of the voice, out of all urine (Akademik, 2019).

We have already cited the proverb *Ne hvatilo legkih, tak zagovoril pechenkoj*, in which the lungs mean “strength and volume of voice”.

A metaphor for the function is also recorded in English and Russian:

*urban lungs* (pl.) - gardens, parks, and squares (Sirotnina, 2006);

*cities lungs* - gardens, parks, and squares.

The insignificance of such an internal organ as the lungs in the naive and anatomical representations of native speakers of English and Russian is evidenced by the small number of phrasological units with the “lungs” component in comparison with the Kazakh language.

<i>Kazakh Language</i>	<i>English Language</i>	<i>Russian Language</i>
19	4	2

**Table 3. The number of idioms with the component “Lungs”**

Table 4 presents the interpretation of the lungs by using descriptors.

<i>Internal body descriptors</i>	<i>Kazakh</i>	<i>English</i>	<i>Russian</i>
2	<i>LUNGS</i>		
2.1	<i>Negative emotions</i>	resentment, grief, discontent, reproach	
2.2	<i>Negative human qualities</i>	cruelty, heartlessness	
2.3	<i>Physical properties</i>	force; human / horse stamina	
2.4	<i>The ability to move</i>	up to the mouth from an excess of feelings, feelings	
2.5	<i>The ability to have colour</i>	the ability to have black colour	
2.6	<i>Connection with voice</i>		voice power is connected to the upper part of the lung
2.7	<i>Transference to something</i>		voice power is associated with the lungs in general
		supplying oxygen for breathing	supplying oxygen for breathing

**Table 4. Descriptors of the internal organ "Lungs" in Kazakh, English, and Russian**

We note once again that the idioms of English and Russian languages are not characterized by the use of the names of such internal organs as liver, lungs (Denisova, Gulyaeva, 2015: 66; Podgornaya, 2016: 106-107; Guancze, 2013), unlike the Kazakh language, where the use of the names of liver and lungs in phraseological units is a widespread practice. This indicates the importance of these organs in the naive anatomy of the Kazakhs.

### **Conclusion**

Thus our cross linguistic analysis of naive anatomy in three radically different cultures and unrelated languages using descriptors allows us to draw the following conclusions.

A liver has 12 descriptors, the most important of which for the Kazakh language consciousness is the ability of the liver to enclose kinship relations and feelings (see table 2). The significance of this internal organ in the naive anatomy of the Kazakhs is evidenced by the fact that the name “liver” is used to denote the highest value in the hierarchy of values of Kazakh culture. A liver contains positive emotions, constant positive and negative qualities of a person, physical characteristics of a person and a horse acquired as a result of training. The blue color is attributed to liver by the carriers of the Kazakh culture; liver can be made of stone.

In English, a liver has 4 descriptors - “negative emotions”, “constant negative qualities”, “the ability to have color” and “lifestyle”, which are semantically related. The white color liver, besides, indicates fear and cowardice. The last descriptor is unique and does not occur in the functioning of the name of the liver in the Kazakh and Russian languages.

In Russian, a liver has 1 descriptor - "negative emotions."

All of the above indicates the importance of such an internal organ as a liver in the cultural representations of the Kazakhs, in comparison with the role and place of this organ in English and Russian speaking cultures where the concept of “liver” plays an insignificant role.

Lungs are a very significant component in the naive anatomy of the Kazakhs, the number of descriptors by which they are objectified in the language is 5, see table 4. The lungs appear in the linguistic consciousness of Kazakhs as carriers of extremely negative emotions and human qualities: resentment, discontent, cruelty and heartlessness. At the same time, such positive physical characteristics of a person and a horse as strength and endurance can be concentrated in them. The lungs may be black if the feeling of resentment is very high. They are also able to move in the body towards the mouth.

In English and Russian, the linguistic and cultural burden of such an internal organ as lungs is less significant, because the number of descriptors in them is 2. The strength of the voice is concentrated in the lungs, and they are associated in function with green spaces, parks, squares, forests that supply cities with oxygen.

Note that out of 5 descriptors, the concepts of “lungs” in the Kazakh language are not the same as those in the English and Russian cultures. The same can be said of 2 descriptors in English and Russian. In other words, the Kazakh culture in the interpretation of the concept of “lungs” is opposed to English-speaking and Russian-speaking cultures.

It should be noted that there is such a feature in the linguistic conceptualization of internal organs in Kazakh culture as the parallel correlation of their metaphorical and metonymic interpretation in humans and in domestic animals, primarily in the horse - the main property of a nomad. This indicates the importance of these organs in the naive anatomy of the Kazakhs, as shown by cross linguistic analysis of vocabulary and phraseology of the Kazakh, English, Russian languages.

The approach proposed in our article to identify the specifics of naive and anatomical views can be used on the basis of different languages and continued in further study in the Kazakh language picture of the world of all the names of internal organs that have linguocultural significance. This will allow scientists to recreate the full “naive anatomy” of native speakers of the Kazakh language or native speakers of some other language. The selection of descriptors for comparing the semantics of names in different languages clearly demonstrates the similarity and difference of naive-anatomical representations of carriers of different cultures.

### **Bibliographic references**

- AKADEMIK. 2019. (Academician). Available online: <https://dic.academic.ru/dic.nsf/>.
- APRESYAN, Y. D. 1995. Integralnoe opisanie yazyka i sistemnaya leksikografiya. (Integral language description and systemic lexicography). Moscow: Yazyki russkoj kultury. ISBN 5-88766-045-7.
- APRESYAN, Y. D. 2006. Ustanovka na rekonstruktsiyu yazykovoj kartiny mira. In: Yazykovaya kartina mira i sistemnaya leksikografiya, Moscow: Yazyki slavyanskikh kultur, pp. 34-36. ISSN 1726-135X, ISBN 5-9551-0135-7.
- GUANCZE, Ch. 2013. Frazeologizmy s komponentom "organy bryushnoj polosti" v russkoj i kitajskoj lingvokulturah. In: Filologicheskie nauki. Voprosy teorii i praktiki. Tambov: Gramota, n. 10 (52): v 2-h ch. Ch. I, pp. 199-202. ISSN 1997-2911.

- DAL, V.I. 1990. Tolkovyy slovar zhivogo velikoruskogo yazyka. vol. 3 Moscow: Russkiy yasyk. ISBN 5-200-00165-X.
- DENISOVA, E. S. – GULTYAEVA, A. V. 2015. Somaticheskie frazeologizmy v sisteme kitajskogo i russkogo yazykov: psiholingvisticheskiy aspekt izucheniya. In: Vestnik Kemerovskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta, vol. 4, n. 64, pp. 64-69. ISSN 2078-8975 (Print), ISSN 2078-8983 (Online).
- ETYMOLOGICAL DICTIONARY OF ENGLISH. 2019. Available online: <https://www.etymonline.com>.
- FERNANDEZ-MARTINEZ, N. J. – FABER, P. 2019. Who stole what from whom? A corpus-based, cross-linguistic study of English and Spanish verbs of stealing. In: Languages in Contrast. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1075/lic.19002.fer>. ISSN 1387-6759; E-ISSN 1569-9897.
- KAZAKSHA-ORYSSHA SOZDIK. 2013. Available online: <https://sozdik.kz/ru>.
- KAZAKSHA SOYLE. 2004. Available online: <https://www.soyle.kz>.
- KENESBAEV, I. K. 2007. Frazeologiyalyk sozdik. Almaty, Arys. ISBN 9965-17-467-9.
- KHAN, A. H. 2018. Kierkegaard Americanus: towards establishing a comparative analysis unit. In: XLinguae, vol. 11, n. 4, pp. 2-10, DOI: 10.18355/XL.2018.11.04.01. ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X.
- KOZLOVA, L. A. Metafora i metonimiya: skhodstvo i razlichiya. In: Voprosy kognitivnoj lingvistiki, vol. 4, n. 029, pp. 137-144. ISSN 1812-3228.
- KÖVECSES, Z. 2001. Metaphor and Emotion: Language, Culture, and Body in Human Feeling. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 0-521-64163-2.
- KOZHAKHMETOVA, H. K. – ZHAJSAKOVA, R. E. – KOZHAKHMETOVA, S. O. 1988. Kazakhsko-russkiy frazeologicheskij slovar'. Alma-Ata, Mektep. ISBN 5-625-00562-1.
- KRAWCZAK, K. 2014. Shame, embarrassment and guilt: Corpus evidence for the cross-cultural structure of social emotions. In: Poznan Studies in Contemporary Linguistics, vol 50, n. 4, pp. 441-475. DOI: 10.1515/psicl-2014-0023. ISSN 1732-0747.
- LAKOFF, G. – JOHNSON, M. 2003. Metaphors We Live by. Chicago; London In: University of Chicago Press. ISBN 0-226-4680 1-1.
- MURYASOV, R. Z. – SAMIGULLINA, A. S. – BAKIEV, A. G. Metaphor through the lens of linguosynergetics (Exemplified by the concept "DEATH" in Terry Pratchett's discourse). In: XLinguae, vol. 11, n. 3, 2018, pp. 136-145. DOI: 10.18355/XL.2018.11.03.13. ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X.
- PIT, M. 2007. Cross-linguistic analyses of backward causal connectives in Dutch, German and French. In: Languages in Contrast, vol. 7, n. 1, pp. 53-82. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1075/lic.7.1.04pit>. ISSN 1387-6759; E-ISSN 1569-9897.
- PODGORNAYA, V. V. 2016. "Naivnaya anatomiya" v anglijskoj yazykovoj kartine mira. Sankt-Peterburgskij gosudarstvennyj universitet.
- POWER THESAURUS. 2019. Available online: <https://www.powerthesaurus.org>.
- RADDEN, G. – KÖVECSES, Z. 1999. Towards a theory of metonymy. In: Metonymy in language and thought. T. 4, pp. 17-60. ISBN 9781556192043.
- SAPIR, E. 1963. Language and Environment. In: Selected Writings of Edward Sapir in Language, Culture and Personality. Berkley; Los Angeles: University of California Press, pp. 89-103.
- SIROTININA, T. A. 2006. Bolshoy sovremennyy anglo-russkiy, russko-angliyskiy slovar. Moscow: Bao-press. 688 p. ISBN: 978-5-91314-048-7.
- SUKHORUKOVA, Y. S. 2017. K voprosu o naivnoj anatomii serdtsa vo francuzskoj frazeologii. In: Filologicheskie nauki. Voprosy teorii i praktiki. Tambov: Gramota, vol. 3, n. 69 in 3 parts. Ch. 3, pp. 168-170. ISBN: 1997-2911.
- TEMIRGAZINA, Z. – BAKHTIKIREEVA, U. – SINYACHKIN, V. – AKOSHEVA, M. 2016. Cognitive Mechanism of Metaphorisation in Zoological Terms. In:

American Journal of Applied Sciences, vol. 13, n. 12, pp. 1385-1393. DOI: 10.3844/ajassp.2016.1385.1393. ISSN Print: 1546-9239; ISSN Online: 1554-3641.  
TEMIRGAZINA, Z. – AKOSHEVA, M. – SHAKAMAN, Y. – SHAHARMAN, A. – KURMANOVA, Z. – KAIROVA, M. 2019. Metaphors in Anatomical Terminology. Space and Culture, India. vol. 7, n. 1, pp. 143-153. Available online [12, Aug, 2019]: <https://doi.org/10.20896/saci.v7i1.528>. ISSN 20528396.  
THE BODY IN DESCRIPTION OF EMOTION. CROSS-LINGUISTIC STUDIES. 2002. Special issue of Pragmatics and Cognition. 10:1/2. ENFIELD, N. J. – WIERZBICKA A. (Eds.)  
TIKHONOV, A. N. 2007. Frazeologicheskij slovar russkogo yazyka. Moscow. ISBN 5-9576-00067.  
TOKHTABAEVA, S. 2017. Etiketnye normy kazahov. Ch. II. Semya i socium. Almaty. ISBN (EAN): 9786010640153.  
TRIANDIS, H. C. 1980. Introduction to Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, vol. 1: Perspectives.  
URYSON, E. V. 1995. Fundamental'nye sposobnosti cheloveka I naivnaya anatomiya. In: Voprosy yazykoznanija, vol. 3, pp. 3-16. ISSN 0373-658X.  
YAKOVLEVA, E. S. 1994. Fragmenty russkoj yazykovej kartiny mira (modeli prostranstva, vremeni i vospriyatiya). Moscow: Gnozis. ISBN 5-7333-0424-8.  
ZAYATS, I. G. 2017. Predstavleniya o «lokalizatsii» emotsij v srednevekovom yazykovom soznanii (na materiale srednevekovoj nemetskoj literatury). In: Filologicheskie nauki v Rossii i za rubezhom. Sankt-Peterburg. ISBN 978-5-4386-1201-8.

*Words: 6695*

*Characters: 43 637 (24,24 standard pages)*

Prof. Zifa Temirgazina  
Pavlodar State Pedagogical University,  
Pavlodar, 60 Mir Str.  
Republic of Kazakhstan  
Scopus ID: 55776658000  
<http://www.orcid.org/0000-0003-3399-7364>  
temirgazina\_zifa@pspu.kz

Prof. Sergey Nikolaenko  
Vitebsk State University named after P. Masherov  
Moscow ave., 33. 210038, Vitebsk  
Republic of Belarus

Prof. Malgorzata Luczyk  
Zielona Gora University  
Institute of Modern Languages  
65-762 Zielona Gora, al. Wojska Polskiego 71a  
Poland

Assoc. prof., PhD Marzhan Akosheva  
Kazakh Agrotechnical University named after S. Seifullin  
avenue Zhenis, 62, Nur-Sultan, 010011  
Republic of Kazakhstan  
Scopus ID-57192211941  
<http://www.orcid.org/0000-0001-8393-309>

Assoc. prof. Gulmira Khamitova  
Innovative university of Eurasia  
Pavlodar, Lomov Str. 45  
Republic of Kazakhstan

# Linguistic analysis of the peculiarities of the French-language legal task texts

Ivan I. Sinyakin – Ekaterina A. Samorodova – Irina G. Belyaeva

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.02

## Abstract

Juridical linguistics is a particular branch of linguistics which studies the linguistic aspects of interaction between language and law. This research is devoted to the analysis of linguistic peculiarities of legal task texts in French, as well as to some other aspects of juridical linguistics. Legal tasks in a foreign language are a crucial component of the language material used in professionally-oriented training of international lawyers, representing a particular category of legal texts, including the characteristics of normative texts and the texts of judicial decisions, but having a sort of emotional colouring which differentiates it from other types of legal documents.

The authors of the present research have managed to carry out a holistic grammatical, lexical and syntactic analysis of the legal task texts, to reveal the peculiarities of the text structure and to establish the basic principles of creating a legal task text in the French language.

**Key words:** linguistic analysis, linguistic peculiarities, text structure, juridical linguistics, case studies, legal task, professional discourse, international law

---

## Introduction

Language and law have been inextricably linked for a long time. The interrelation and interaction between language and law, as well as the linguistic aspects of law represent the object of study for a relatively new interdisciplinary science - juridical linguistics, which appeared at the end of the 20th century. The field of juridical linguistics also includes studying the patterns of natural language, which form the basis of the legal text, and in many respects, determine both its creation and its use in legal practice.

A legal task in the context of this research is considered as a particular type of a legal text, combining the characteristics of various kinds of legal documents and representing an interesting subject for linguistic analysis and for juridical linguistics in general.

The purpose of this article is to analyze the linguistic peculiarities of foreign-language legal task texts which are used in classes specialist French language classes for international lawyers.

The topicality of this research is best explained by the necessity to analyze the grammatical, lexical, syntactic content of French-language legal educational tasks texts in detail, to identify the linguistic peculiarities of legal task texts of various types and language levels for these texts to be correctly written in the future.

The present research attempts to find a solution to the following issues:

- to determine the most common typological variety of the legal task texts;
- to determine the lexical, grammatical, syntactic and stylistic specifics of the typical language constructions in the legal task texts;
- to establish how the legal task texts correspond to the general characteristics of the legal text.

The main methods used during the current research were comparative method, contrastive method, system analysis method.

The subject of the study is presented by those linguistic, grammatical, and stylistic peculiarities of legal task texts as a particular type of legal documents, which are used in teaching the French language of the international law to students learning French as the first or the second foreign language.

### **Literature review**

Despite the fact that juridical linguistics, which studies the functioning of a language in law, is a relatively new branch of linguistics, the interaction of language and law has been the subject of research for many years. A significant contribution - about 40 scientific works - to the study of the linguistic aspects of legal texts, their typology, the semantics of legal concepts and documents, the statutory language as a specialist language, was made by Dietrich Busse, for example: (Busse, 1991), (Busse, 1992a), (Busse, 1992b), (Busse, 1993), (Busse, 2000a), (Busse, 2000b), (Busse, 2005), (Busse, 2018a), (Busse, 2018b), (Busse, 2019). The typology of legal texts (Engberg, 1993), their translation (Prieto, 2011), the role of particles (Leung John, 2009), legal terminology (Alwazna, 2018), the functions of interrogative sentences (Sala, 2019), lexemes (Irkova, 2019) have been studied as well. Linguists have been addressing to the studies of the language of legal processes (Levi, 1990), the characteristics and functions of the statutory language (Charrow, Crandall, Charrow, 1982), the analysis of legal texts (Auer, Berteloot, Mielke, Schikora, Schmidt, Wolff, 2019), court documents (Yao, Ge, Li, Yao, Li, Zeng, Chang, 2019), the jury language (Johansen, 2018). Computer-assisted legal linguistics (Vogel, Hamann, Gauer, 2018) has become a separate branch of linguistics.

Professional discourse in the framework of the current article is studied as verbal communication, based on the theoretical and practical knowledge necessary for professional activity in order to solve a professional task (in this case, legal.)

Case study (Bratseva, Kovalev, 2015) is a method which fully implements the legal task in the process of professional training of international students, within the framework of the competency-based approach, which has established itself as the most effective one for 148 years (Garvin, 2003), allowing to bring the training closer to real professional discourse.

In various studies, the concept of a case study is interpreted differently. Sometimes a case study is considered as a passive activity, which serves as an example to demonstrate the solution of a legal situation to a student (Moskovitz, 1992: 246). In this case, we can point out the distinction between the concepts of case-method and method-problem methods: "While the case-method shows the student how others solve problems, method-problem allows students to learn how to solve problems on their own" (Moskovitz, 1992: 246).

With regard to professionally-oriented training, the effectiveness of the problem method, which finds itself outside the framework of the case study, is proved in scientific works by Wilfried Admiraal, Theo Wubbels, Albert Pilot (Admiraal, Wubbels, Pilot, 1999); Myron Moskovitz (Moskovitz, 1992); Philippa Ryan (Philippa, 2017). In other studies, case studies are considered in a broader sense as a method that allows students to independently find effective solutions to problems that they may encounter in similar real professional situations (Cakmak, Akgün, 2017). Case studies can combine the elements of such methods as gaming (imitation of professional situations), problem-search (acquisition of knowledge by resolving problematic situations), cooperative training (collective interaction to solve a problem), scenario-situational (modeling standard professional situations), heuristic (researching a question by reasoning), discussion (discussing a problem), brainstorming (finding a solution by putting forward various options), CLIL (development of language skills through interdisciplinary relations).

The success of case studies is determined by its correlation with practical professional activity, and the increased number of methods which have now become its components contributes to the training of highly qualified professionals who are able to independently solve the problems posed to them by their profession. This explains the continuous improvement of the case method as a result of its application in the framework of new modern methods and its leading position among the most effective teaching methods not only for lawyers, but also for specialists in various fields.

The case method is based on a legal task. A legal task, in turn, is a legal text.

Whereas a legal task in legitimate science is considered as a problematic situation created by certain circumstances which demand the use of lawful means to immediately solve the problem (Zhalinskij, 2009), then in the context of linguistic analysis a legal task stands for a statutory text created for educational purposes in accordance with the teaching aim. Such text has its own linguistic peculiarities at grammatical, lexical, terminological, semantic and syntactic levels.

### **Materials and methods**

The texts of legal tasks are legal texts which can be the subject of research as a source of law and as a particular text demonstrating the characteristic peculiarities of using lexical, morphological and syntactic language means. Despite the significant differences between law and linguistics, between studying legal documents and fulfilling legal tasks, these areas of knowledge are not mutually exclusive. As we have already mentioned in this research, the basis of juridical linguistics is represented by combination, interaction and mutual influence of language and law.

This interconnection especially affects the implementation of law and its functioning, because the creation of a legal text is a language problem. In order to understand what types of legal text are included in a document of a legal task, we should address relevant studies.

Juridical linguistics commonly classifies legal texts according to the areas of legal activity in which these texts are created and used. According to this principle, there are reasons to highlight law-making or law constituting texts (texts of the charters, conventions, treaties, resolutions), administrative texts (circular notes, ordinances, departmental and subordinate documents, correspondence, business letters, notifications, announcements) and legal texts related to the administration of justice (court decisions, opinions, complaints, lawsuits (Eriksen, 1999).

Regarding the logical nature and structure of the legal text, S. Sarcevic (Sarcevic, 1997) proposed a criterion of descriptivity and prescriptivity. A prescriptive legal text prescribes, and a descriptive text describes. Correspondingly, three types of legal text can be distinguished:

- Prescriptive – i.e. texts of laws, decisions, decrees
- Descriptive – i.e. doctrinal texts, scientific research
- Mixed type – i.e. texts combining the characteristics of the two previous types (lawsuits, circular notes, directives)

The German researcher V. Otto proposed a special structure of the legal language, according to which the structure of legal texts is based on the peculiarities of the language content, accuracy, conciseness of terms. Thus, there exist the following types of the legal language:

1. the language of laws (treaties, conventions, pacts, or documents containing the rule of law);
2. the language of judicial decisions (court decrees, comments)
3. the language of legal science and expert examinations (scientific research in the field of law, scientific comments, discussion of special legal issues between specialists);

4. the language of departments;
5. administrative jargon (informal discussion of legal matters between specialists) (Otto,1981).

According to another European researcher, T. Gizbert-Studnicki, there exist: 1) the texts of regulatory legal acts; 2) the writings of judicial decisions; 3) the texts of legal doctrine; 4) the texts formulated in the process of implementing broadly understood legal activities (legal customs) (Gizbert-Studnicki, 1986: 139). In addition, the researcher allowed the possibility of dividing these groups into subgroups, since the main criterion is the legal context: to whom the statutory text is addressed, what it is aimed at (Gizbert-Studnicki, 1986).

The documents of legal tasks are unique since they combine the characteristics of all types of legal texts and include the distinguishing special features, thus presenting an interesting subject for study.

Therefore, the main components of the legal text are:

- Lack of expression
- Coherence and consistency
- Accuracy, clarity, and conciseness
- Simplicity of presentation
- Use of terminology

If we are not implying the text of a lawyer's speech during the defense of the accused, the legal text is remarked and valued for its neutrality, impartiality, emotional "coldness," and lack of any originality. Normative texts are not characterized by "splendor of phrases" and eloquence; sentences are to be non-exclamatory and narrative in the nature and type of utterance. In other words, the even tone of the text should not provoke any emotions and associations.

The coherence and consistency of the constituent parts of a legal text compose its basic requirement and its most essential features. A break in thoughts, incomplete phrases, inconsistent presentation of facts, and materials are unacceptable, since the result, the use of such text in legal practice is directly dependent on these text parameters.

The accuracy and clarity of the legal text make up the irrefutable evidence of its reliability.

Here, linguistic content plays an important role. The correctness of the terms used, the compatibility of words and expressions in the text provide semantic unity and, thus, effective use in the regulation of particular relations.

The legal text is characterized by its linguistic standardization. The use of common and fixed phrases, which are inherent to the statutory language, standardized phrases and clichés give a unique stylistic charm to the legal jargon. Creating a legal text, its author must remember that its further application depends on its accuracy. It should also be taken into account that a legal text is to be understandable and straightforward. Long and sophisticated phrases, the use of complex grammatical tenses and constructions complicate its perception and lead to an incorrect interpretation of its content.

One of the key characteristics of a legal text is the use of terms as the primary lexical means of expressing the normative content of the right. As an example, we may consider the following terms in French: Droit aérien (air law), Droit de l'Espace (space law), Droit privé (private law), succession (succession), traité (an international treaty), reconnaissance (recognition). The legal language is also characterized by the polysemy of terms; when the same term can be used to denote several concepts. In this case, there is a need in clarifications. The person interpreting the contract must clearly understand what the legislator intended to say. In addition, legal vocabulary includes a large number of words which, apart from legal texts, are used in ordinary language.

For example:

- Personne – Individual - a person
- Succession - Succession - Inheritance
- Devoir - Debt - homework
- Siège - Headquarters – apartment - armchair

Legal texts present a very interesting subject in terms of their compositional structure. The texts of normative acts are divided into sections, parts, chapters, and paragraphs. International conventions and treaties include the preamble, the main body, and annexes.

Judicial decisions and judicial acts, particularly the decisions of the UN Court, represent a particular type of legal documents and require a more detailed study.

The text of judicial decisions consists of several parts: the first part of the text is usually descriptive and devoted to the accurate and complete presentation of the facts of the case. The second, operative, part is descriptive and contains imperative forms.

As to the lexical content, the texts of judicial decisions are characterized by dry language, lacking expressiveness. The text is dominated by bureaucratic language, which does not occur out of context (plaintiff – demandeur, defendant – défendeur).

The style is full of standard phrases, clichéd expressions, e. g:

- dans le cas contraire – otherwise
- à l'expiration de – upon the expiry of
- s'il n'en convient autrement – unless agreed otherwise
- en conformité de – pursuant to
- sous réserve de – subject to
- en vertu de la loi – under the law

Personal pronouns are not used in the texts of court decisions; the actors of the facts are named according to their status or by name. (Ms. Durois, plaintiff, – Mme Duroy, demandeur).

The text of court decisions also recognizes predominating impersonal forms of verbs (it must be noted – (passive voice – il est à noter, il est à décider etc.). This, to some extent, expresses the philosophy of international law, since impersonal forms convey the predominance of the will of the state, not of an individual.

The syntax of a judicial decision is rich in lengthy and complex sentences. This can be explained by the intention to fully reflect the necessary information without losing a single fact and by the need for brevity.

### **Research results**

As we have mentioned above, the texts of legal tasks are also legal texts and have identical characteristics, as well as their own stylistic, grammatical, semantic features. In terms of content, the texts of legal tasks most often resemble the texts of judicial decisions in their structure, since the authors of the texts of legal tasks are guided by the practice of international courts and tribunals in order to create a current legal situation.

As an example of this research, we may analyze the option of extracting a legal task prepared by the Leiden Institute of International Air and Space Law for the international competition in air law.

DE SAISINE DE LA COUR INTERNATIONALE DE JUSTICE,  
AU SUJET DU DIFFÉREND ENTRE LA RÉPUBLIQUE DU CARPANIA  
ET LE ROYAUME DE GONDOUR RELATIF À L'USAGE DE LA  
FORCE CONTRE LE VOL HHP 1234

INTRODUCTION	INTRODUCTION
<p>1. Carpania is a tranquil island in the far reaches of the Turquoise Ocean. It is poor but beautiful. The mainstay of its economy is agriculture, but it has recently become the 'go to' destination for rich tourists and has built several 5 star resorts that are always full to overflowing.</p> <p>2. Carpania's nearest neighbour is Gondour, a large State stretching along the coast of the continental land mass some 100km away from the territorial border of Carpania There is one airway established under the Reginal Air Navigation Plan that connects Carpania to the wider world, Airway 666. It runs across Gondour's airspace, crossing its coast near the Pom-Pom nature reservation.</p> <p>3. Gondour is a rich industrial country, but does not attract as much tourism as Carpania. Although it does have some tourist resorts, they are less developed than those of Carpania and have increasingly lost custom to them. As reported by national newspapers, "this has hurt Gondour national pride greatly, much to the anger of its King, Miguel III."</p> <p>4. As a rich State, Gondour has been able to equip its one airline, GonAir, with the latest fuel- efficient electric jet aircraft known as the Electra 230. The Electra 230 has a maximum take off mass (MTOM) of 56,000 kg and is certified to Chapter 4 of Part II of Volume I of Annex 16 to the Chicago Convention.</p> <p>5. In contrast, as a poor State Carpania's one airline, Carpa Airline, continues to use gas- guzzling propeller driven aircraft, known as the Conquest 4, that were first acquired in the 1950s and registered in Carpania ever since, that is, since 22 June 1956. In 2005, the aircraft</p>	<p>1. Carpania est une île tranquille située dans l'océan Turquoise. C'est assez pauvre pauvre mais beau. Le pilier de son économie est l'agriculture, mais elle est récemment devenue la destination incontournable des touristes riches et a construit plusieurs complexes hôteliers 5 étoiles toujours pleins à déborder.</p> <p>2. Le voisin le plus proche de Carpania est Gondour, un grand État qui s'étend le long de la côte de la masse continentale à une centaine de kilomètres de la frontière territoriale de Carpania. Il y a une voie aérienne établie dans le cadre du Plan de navigation aérienne Regional qui relie Carpania au monde plus large, la voie aérienne 666. Elle traverse l'espace aérien de Gondour, traversant sa côte près de la réserve naturelle de Pom-Pom.</p> <p>3. Gondour est un pays industriel riche, mais n'attire pas autant le tourisme que Carpania. Bien qu'elle possède quelques stations touristiques, elles sont moins développées que celles de Carpania et ont de plus en plus perdu leur habitude. Comme le rapportent les journaux nationaux, «cela a considérablement nui à la fierté nationale de Gondour, à la grande colère de son roi, Miguel III».</p> <p>4. En tant qu'État riche, Gondour a été en mesure d'équiper sa seule compagnie aérienne, GonAir, du dernier avion à réaction électrique à faible consommation de carburant connu sous le nom d'Electra 230. L'Electra 230 a une masse maximale au décollage (MTOM) de 56 000 kg et est certifié conforme au chapitre 4 de la partie II du volume I de l'annexe 16 de la convention de Chicago.</p> <p>5. En revanche, en tant que seule compagnie aérienne d'un État pauvre de Carpania, CarpaAirline, continue d'utiliser des appareils à hélice à essence, connus sous le nom de Conquest 4, qui ont été acquis pour la première fois dans</p>

<p>owned and operated by Carpa Airline were modified to improve their performance and reduce the noise from their propeller engines. The modifications allowed the aircraft to meet the requirements laid down in Chapter 3 of Part II of Volume I of Annex 16 to the Chicago Convention on Environmental Protection. On 22 December 2006, the competent civil aviation authorities of Carpania have re- certificated the Conquest 4 aircraft owned by Carpa Airlines to Chapter 3 of Annex 16. The Conquest 4 has a maximum certificated take-off mass of 34,670 kg.</p>	<p>les années 50 et enregistrés en Carpanie depuis, c'est-à-dire depuis 22 juin 1956. En 2005, les avions détenus et exploités par CarpaAirline ont été modifiés pour améliorer leurs performances et réduire le bruit de leurs moteurs à hélices. Les modifications ont permis à l'aéronef de satisfaire aux exigences énoncées au chapitre 3 de la partie II du volume I de l'annexe 16 de la convention de Chicago sur la protection de l'environnement. Le 22 décembre 2006, les autorités compétentes de l'aviation civile de Carpania ont recertifié l'avion Conquest 4 appartenant à Carpa Airlines au chapitre 3 de l'annexe 16. Le Conquest 4 a une masse maximale certifiée au décollage de 34 670 kg</p>
---	---

<p><b>C. BACKGROUND</b></p> <p>7. On 25 March 2018, a pair of Dodo birds was allegedly found nesting in Gondour's Pom- Pom nature reserve by a scientist from its Nature Institute, Dr Doolittle, although he was not able to capture them on camera. This caused great excitement as the species had previously been thought to be extinct.</p> <p>8. On 1 April 2018, Gondour's Parliament passed into force the Dodo Act 2018, one of the provisions of which was that in order to preserve the Dodo:</p> <p>(1) aircraft may only fly on Airway 666 between Gondou City and the end of Gondour's territorial waters in the Turquoise Ocean if:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. (a) they are powered by electric motors; and</li> <li>2. (b) they fly on that route at a height of no less than 20,000 feet above ground level (agl); and</li> </ol> <p>(2) any aircraft not meeting these requirements wishing to fly between Gondou City and the end of Gondour's territorial waters in the Turquoise Ocean must use a new route, Airway 777 as established in accordance with ICAO Annex 11 on Air Traffic Serviced, the Procedures for Air</p>	<p><b>C. CONTEXTE</b></p> <p>7. Le 25 mars 2018, une paire d'oiseaux Dodo aurait été trouvée en train de nicher dans la réserve naturelle de GondourPom-Pom par un scientifique de son Institut de la nature, le Dr Doolittle, bien qu'il n'ait pas pu les capturer à la caméra. Cela a provoqué une grande excitation car l'espèce était auparavant considérée comme éteinte.</p> <p>8. Le 1er avril 2018, est entré en vigueur la loi de 2018 sur le Dodo adoptée par le Parlement de Gondour , dont l'une des dispositions était celle visant à préserver le Dodo:1) les aéronefs ne peuvent voler sur la voie aérienne 666 entre la ville de Gondou et la fin des eaux territoriales de Gondour dans l'océan Turquoise que si:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>a) ils sont alimentés par des moteurs électriques; et</li> <li>b) ils volent sur cette route à une hauteur d'au moins 20 000 pieds au-dessus du sol (agl); et</li> </ol> <p>(2) tout aéronef ne répondant pas à ces exigences souhaitant voler entre la</p>
---	---

<p>Navigation Services (PANS) on Air Traffic Management, and the applicable Regional Air Navigation Plan.</p> <p>(3) Any aircraft flying below a level of 5000 feet agl, and/or using an airport on the territory of Gondour, must meet the certification requirements of Chapter 4 of Part II of Volume I of Annex 16 to the Chicago Convention.</p>	<p>ville de Gondou et la fin des eaux territoriales de Gondour dans l'océan Turquoise doit emprunter une nouvelle route, la voie aérienne 777, établie conformément à l'annexe 11 de l'OACI sur le trafic aérien desservi, les procédures de Services de navigation aérienne (PANS) sur la gestion du trafic aérien et le plan régional de navigation aérienne applicable.</p> <p>(3) Tout aéronef volant au-dessous d'un niveau de 5000 pieds agl et / ou utilisant un aéroport sur le territoire de Gondour, doit satisfaire aux exigences de certification du chapitre 4 de la partie II du volume I de l'annexe 16 de la convention de Chicago.</p>
STATEMENT OF FACTS	LES FAITS
RELIEF SOUGHT	DECISION DEMANDÉ

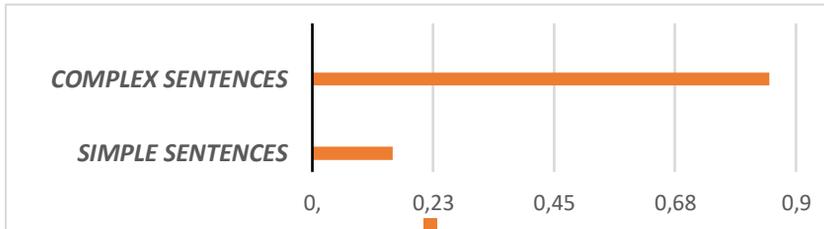
In the research, we have presented only several aspects of this legal task. The task is arranged according to the scheme and structure of the suit filed to the UN Court. The text complies with all the syntactic rules for creating a similar type of legal texts. The text is divided into two parts: descriptive and prescriptive (operative).

The results of the syntactical analysis of the text of this task can be presented in the following table 1 and figure 1.

<i>Task text</i>	<i>Result in %</i>	<i>Example</i>
Simple sentences	15	Carpania est une île tranquille située dans l'océan Turquoise.
Complex sentences	85	En revanche, en tant que seule compagnie aérienne d'un État pauvre de Carpania, CarpaAirline, continue d'utiliser des appareils à hélice à essence, connus sous le nom de Conquest 4, qui ont été acquis pour la première fois dans les années 50 et enregistrés en Carpanie depuis, c'est-à-dire depuis 22 juin 1956.

Arrangement in parts, paragraphs and sub-paragraphs	+	
---	---	--

**Table 1: The structure and syntax of the legal task text**



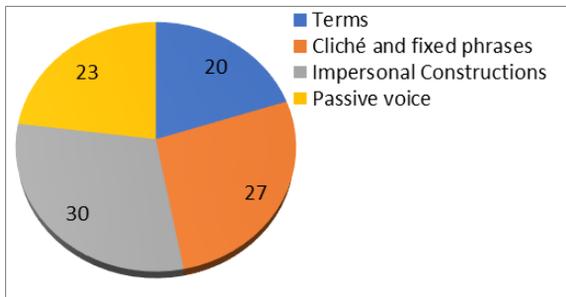
**Figure 1: The structure and syntax of the legal task text**

Figure 1 shows the number of simple and complex sentences in the text of the legal task in percent.

The lexical and grammatical features of the text and the use of terminology are presented in percent in Table 2.

	<i>Result in %</i>	<i>Example</i>
<i>Terms</i>	20(100)	<i>Annexe certificat loi aéronef</i>
<i>Cliché and fixed phrases</i>	27(100)	<i>Entre en vigueur En conformité de Loi en tant que telle</i>
<i>Impersonal Constructions</i>	30	<i>Il est procédé Il est à noter Il est défini</i>
<i>Passive voice</i>	23	<i>Ont été acquis(documents) A été adoptée (loi)</i>

**Table 2: Lexical and grammatical features of the legal task text**



**Figure 2: Lexical and grammatical features of the legal task text**

Figure 2 demonstrates the harmonious interaction between various lexical and grammatical structures of the text. Impersonal constructions and fixed phrases prevail, which is typical of a legal text.

The total volume of terms does not make up more than 20% of the text. This makes the text of this legal task easily understandable.

In order to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the linguistic peculiarities of the legal task text, we have studied 250 legal task texts presenting various types of legal tasks - research, search, evaluation, and correction – belonging to different branches of international law: air law, the law of the sea, space law, environmental law, nuclear law, commercial law, criminal law, as well as private law.

The research has shown that all types are characterized by the features of a legal, regulatory text, such as

- Coherence and consistency
- Accuracy, clarity, and conciseness
- Simplicity of presentation
- The use of industrial terminology
- Corresponding syntactical structure

The linguistic analysis of the texts of legal tasks has demonstrated an equal presence of impersonal constructions and passive voice, terms, fixed phrases.

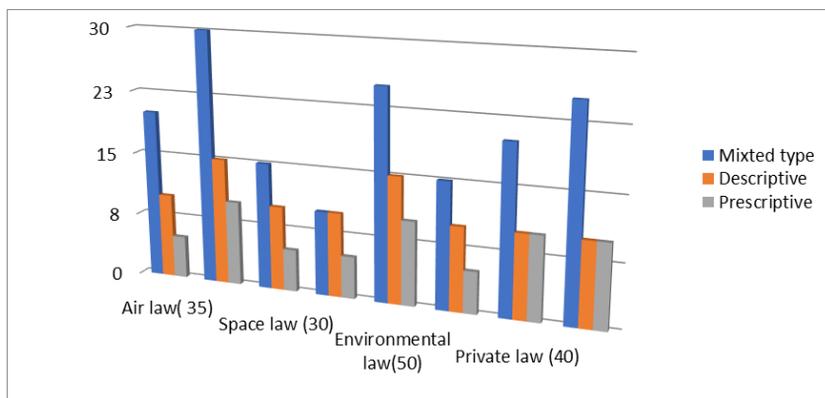
The content of the texts of legal tasks in its structure, syntax, and lexical content includes the features of judicial acts: judicial decisions, orders, lawsuits, as well as the elements of normative acts (treaties, conventions) and doctrinal research.

The results of the research are presented in table 3.

<u>The types of legal task texts 100%</u>			
<u>Branch of law</u> <u>(250 texts)</u>	<u>Mixed type</u>	<u>Descriptive</u>	<u>Prescriptive</u>
1. <i>Air law (35)</i>	20	10	5
2. <i>The law of the sea (45)</i>	30	15	10
3. <i>Space law (30)</i>	15	10	5

4. <i>Economic law (25)</i>	10	10	5
5. <i>Environmental law(50)</i>	25	15	10
6. <i>Commercial law (30)</i>	15	10	5
7. <i>Private law (40)</i>	20	10	10
8. <i>Criminal law (45)</i>	25	10	10

**Table 3: The types of legal task texts**



**Figure 3: The types of legal task texts**

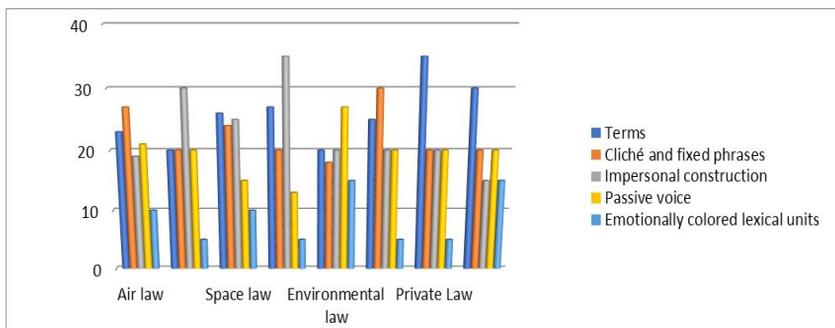
From table 3 we may conclude that mixed types of legal tasks, based on descriptive and prescriptive texts, are the most common. The texts of this type of legal tasks include the elements of normative and doctrinal texts, as well as judicial acts (decisions, lawsuits, orders)

The results of the linguistic analysis of legal tasks texts are presented in table 4.

<i>Branch of law</i>	<i>Terms</i>	<i>Cliché and fixed phrases</i>	<i>Impersonal constructions</i>	<i>Passive voice</i>	<i>Emotionally colored lexical units</i>
<i>Air law</i>	23	27	19	21	10
<i>The law of the sea</i>	20	20	30	20	5
<i>Space law</i>	26	24	25	15	10
<i>Economic law</i>	27	20	35	13	5
<i>Environmental law</i>	20	18	20	27	15

<b>Commercial law</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Private Law</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>5</b>
<b>Criminal law</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>20</b>	<b>15</b>

**Table 4**



**Figure 4: Linguistic analysis of legal tasks texts**

The analysis has shown that the main linguistic and stylistic peculiarities of the texts of legal tasks, unlike other types of legal texts, are emotionally colored lexical units, exclamatory sentences, interjections.

E.g:

*Le 12avril 2017, le vol régulier `VVV1576 de BonbonAirline a décollé de Bonbon et s'est dirigé calmement vers l'est le long de la voie aérienne 911. En passant au-dessus de la fameuse réserve naturelle Crocodile, il a été abattu par un missile, ce qui a provoqué un écrasement inévitable de l'avion, faisant 89 morts à bord. Peu de temps après, un message est apparu brièvement sur le compte de médias sociaux de dece bandit Alfonco Draconien disant: «Je les ai eus !!!» accompagné d'une photo de la silhouette d'un homme tenant un lance-missiles.(calmement-bandit)*

Another example is taken from an environmental law task:

*Le Royaume de White Wave demande à la Cour de satisfaire le procès contre la République de Frozen Heart, avec laquelle elle a malheureusement des frontières maritimes communes, dans le cas de l'extermination brutale d'hippocampes dans la zone de son plateau continental, en raison de l'empoisonnement des eaux de l'océan Rose par les déchets de vilains navires du Frozen Heart, qui sont contrôlés par des personnes sans cervelle ni âme.*

Such linguistic phenomena, unacceptable in normative legal texts and court decisions, play an important role in the training of young professionals due to an emotional coloring, making the learning process more effective and memorable. Emotions in law are permissible in some legal contexts. For example, when we imply civil proceeding, the speech of a lawyer or prosecution.

One of the main goals of educational legal tasks, in addition to creating the international lawyers' professional competences, is also the in-depth study of the legal (French) language, which often differs from the common one in terms of its special

language means and structure. The skills such as translation, correct use of legal terms of a particular area of the international law, the preparation of documents are acquired faster via working with a legal task.

A thorough analysis of the texts of legal tasks from the position of their linguistic content allows structuring the lexical material - terms, clichés, phraseological units with the aim of creating new similar texts.

### **Conclusions**

The authors of the research have managed to carry out a holistic grammatical, lexical, and syntactic analysis of the texts of legal tasks, to reveal the peculiarities of the text structure and to establish the basic principles of creating the text of the legal task in the French language.

The linguistic analysis of the texts of legal tasks as a special typological variety of legal texts has shown the following. The texts of legal tasks have a specific text structure, combining the elements of both normative (treaties, conventions, pacts) and procedural documents (court decisions, lawsuits). A linguistic study of the texts of legal tasks has revealed the interaction between their grammatical and semantic features.

Possessing all the necessary characteristics of a legal text, such as coherence and consistency, accuracy, clarity and conciseness, legal task texts also include the expressive elements which are not characteristic of other types of legal texts. We can say that the text of the legal task has been considered from the point of its semantic, grammatical and stylistic unity, in which the interaction and mutual influence of semantic, grammatical and lexical factors create a new style of legal texts in the context of its educational focus, aimed at forming the professional competences of international lawyers.

The scientific and practical significance of the research and its results lies in the creation of principles for carrying out the functional linguistic analysis of legal texts, and of recommendations for creating legal documents and didactic materials in the training of future international lawyers.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ADMIRAAL, W. – WUBBELS, T. – PILOT, A. 1999. Research in Higher Education 40: 687. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1018712914619>
- ALWAZNA, R. 2018. Translation and legal terminology: Techniques for coping with the untranslatability of legal terms between Arabic and English. International Journal for the Semiotics of Law. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11196-018-9580-y>.
- AUER, A. – BERTELOOT, P. – MIELKE, B. – SCHIKORA, C. – SCHMIDT, T. – WOLFF, C. 2019. Stylometry in legal linguistics: Use of corpus-linguistic methods for the analysis of german-language decisions. [Nutzung korpuslinguistischer Verfahren für die Analyse deutschsprachiger Urteile] Jusletter IT, (February) Available online: [www.scopus.com](http://www.scopus.com)
- BRATTSEVA, E. F. – KOVALEV, P. 2015. The power of case study method in developing academic skills in teaching Business English (time to play)/Liberal Arts in Russia, vol. 4, n. 3, pp. 234-242. DOI: 10.15643/libartus-2015.3.7
- BUSSE, D. 1991. Juristische Fachsprache und Öffentlicher Sprachgebrauch. In: Liedtke F., Wengeler M., Böke K. (Eds.) Begriffe besetzen. VS Verlag für Sozialwissenschaften. DOI [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-322-92242-7\\_10](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-322-92242-7_10)
- BUSSE, D. 1992a. Der Bedeutungswandel des Begriffs "Gewalt" im Strafrecht. Über institutionell-pragmatische Faktoren semantischen Wandels. In: Dietrich Busse (Hrsg.): Diachrone Semantik und Pragmatik. Untersuchungen zur Erklärung und Beschreibung des Sprachwandels. (= Reihe Germanistische Linguistik, Bd. 113) Tübingen: Niemeyer, 1991, pp. 259-275. [Busse-1991-04]

- BUSSE, D. 1992b. Recht als Text. Linguistische Untersuchungen zur Arbeit mit Sprache in einer gesellschaftlichen Institution. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, p. 366 (Reihe Germanistische Linguistik Bd. 131)
- BUSSE, D. 1993. Juristische Semantik. Grundfragen der juristischen Interpretationstheorie in sprachwissenschaftlicher Sicht. Berlin: Duncker & Humblot, p. 318. (2. Auflage 2010)
- BUSSE, D. 2000a. Textsorten des Bereichs Rechtswesen und Justiz. In: Gerd Antos/Klaus Brinker/Wolfgang Heinemann et al. (Hg.): Text- und Gesprächslinguistik.
- BUSSE, D. 2000b. Textlinguistik und Rechtswissenschaft. In: Gerd Antos/Klaus Brinker/Wolfgang Heinemann et al. (Hg.): Text- und Gesprächslinguistik. Ein internationales Handbuch zeitgenössischer Forschung. 1. Halbband (Handbücher zur Sprach- und Kommunikationswissenschaft. Bd. 16.1). Berlin/New York, pp. 803-811.
- BUSSE, D. 2005. Ist die Anwendung von Rechtstexten ein Fall von Kommunikation? Rechtslinguistische Überlegungen zur Institutionalität der Arbeit mit Texten im Recht.  
In: Kent Lerch (Hrsg.): Die Sprache des Rechts. Band 2: Recht vermitteln. Strukturen, Formen und Medien der Kommunikation im Recht. Berlin / New York: de Gruyter, pp. 23-53. [Busse-2005-04]
- BUSSE, D. 2018a. Michaela Felden/Detmer Wulf: Bedeutungs- und Begriffswissen im Recht: Frame-Analyse von Rechtsbegriffen im Deutschen. (= Reihe Sprache und Wissen Bd. 34) Berlin/Boston: de Gruyter, p. 382.
- BUSSE, D. 2018b. Sprache und Recht. In: Liedtke F., Tuchen A. (Eds) Handbuch Pragmatik. J. B. Metzler, Stuttgart. DOI [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-476-04624-6\\_37](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-476-04624-6_37)
- BUSSE, D. 2019. Sprache und Recht. In: Frank Liedtke/Astrid Tuchen (Hrsg.): Handbuch Pragmatik. Stuttgart: Metzler, pp. 383-393.
- CAKMAK, Z. – AKGÜN, I. 2017. A Theoretical Perspective on the Case Study Method. *Journal of Education and Learning*. 7. 96. 10.5539/jel.v7n1p96.
- CHARROW, V. R. – CRANDALL, J. A. – CHARROW, R. P. 1982. Characteristics and functions of legal language. In: R. Kittredge & J. Lehrberger (Eds.), *Sublanguage: Studies of language in restricted semantic domains* (pp. 175–190). Berlin: Walter de Gruyter. *Criminal Justice Newsletter*. July 1, 1985. Problems cited in greater use of court interpreters, vol. 16, n. 13.
- ENGBERG, J. 1993. Prinzipien einer Typologisierung juristischer Texte. In: *Fachsprache* 1/2, pp. 31-38.
- ERIKSEN, L. 1999. Einführung in die Systematik der juristischen Fachsprache//Juristische Fachsprache. *Kongressberichte des 12-th European Symposium on Language for Special Purposes*; hrsg. L.Eriksen, K. Luttermann. Bruxelles, Bressanone, Munster: LIT Verlag, 2002, pp. 1-19.
- GARVIN, D. A. 2003. "Making the Case: Professional Education for the World of Practice." *Harvard Magazine* (September–October 2003), pp. 56-65; 107.
- GIZBERT-STUDNICKI, T. 1986. *Jezykprawny z perspektyw y socjolingwistycznej* In: *Zeszyty Naukowe Uniwersytetu Jagiellonskiego. DCCCL XXVII. Prace z naukpolitycznych. Zeszyt 26*. Warszawa, Krakow: PWN, p. 139.
- IRKOVA, A. 2019. Prejudicial and juridical meanings of a lexeme “grazhdanin” (a citizen) in social-political discourse. *Sibirskiy filologicheskii zhurnal*, pp. 215-224. Doi: 10.17223/18137083/68/19.
- JOHANSEN, L. V. 2018. Using legal language as a non-lawyer: Danish lay judges’ linguistic strategies during criminal trials. *Nordic Journal of Linguistics*, vol. 41, n. 2, pp. 227-246. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0332586518000124>

- LEUNG, E. – JOHN, G. 2009. Interpreting Cantonese utterance particles in bilingual courtroom discourse. *Interpreting*, vol. 11, n. 2, pp. 190-215. DOI: 10.1075/intp.11.2.05leu
- LEVI, J. N. 1990 The Study of Language in the Judicial Process. In: Levi J. N., Walker A. G. (Eds.) *Language in the Judicial Process. Law, Society and Policy*, vol 5. Springer, Boston, MA DOI: [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-3719-3\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-3719-3_1)
- MOSKOVITZ, M. 1992. Beyond the Case Method: It's Time to Teach with Problems. *Journal of Legal Education*, vol. 42, n. 2, pp. 241-270. Available online: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/42893216>
- OTTO, W. 1981. Die Paradoxie einer Fachsprache In: *Deröffentliche Sprachgebrauch. Band. II*. Stuttgart: Klett-Cotta, pp. 44-57.
- PHILIPPA, R. 2017. Teaching collaborative problem-solving skills to law students, *The Law Teacher*, vol. 51, n. 2, pp. 138-150, DOI: 10.1080/03069400.2015.1111580
- PRIETO RAMOS, FERNANDO. 2011. Developing Legal Translation Competence: An Integrative Process-Oriented Approach. In: *Comparative Legilinguistics - International Journal for Legal Communication*, vol. 5, pp. 7-21. Available online: <https://archive-ouverte.unige.ch/unige:16166>
- SALA, M. 2019. Interrogative engagement as a pragmatic and textual function in legal studies *Pragmatics and Beyond. New Series*, 301, pp. 101-117, DOI: 10.1075/pbns.301.06sal , Available online: [www.scopus.com](http://www.scopus.com)
- SARCEVIC, S. 1997. *New approach to legal translation*. Den Haag: Kluwer, P. 282.
- VOGEL, F. – HAMANN, H. – GAUER, I. 2018. Computer-Assisted Legal Linguistics: Corpus Analysis as a New Tool for Legal Studies. doi:10.3233/978-1-61499-726-9-195
- YAO, L. – GE, J. – LI, C. – YAO, Y. – LI, Z. – ZENG, J. – CHANG, V. 2019. Word Segmentation for Chinese Judicial Documents. In X. Cheng, W. Jing, X. Song, & Z. Lu (Eds.), *Data Science - 5th International Conference of Pioneering Computer Scientists, Engineers and Educators, ICPCSEE, Proceedings* pp. 466-478. (Communications in Computer and Information Science; Vol. 1058). Springer-Verlag. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-0118-0\\_36](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-0118-0_36)
- ZHALINSKIY, A. E. 2009. Vvedenie v specialnost "YUrisprudenciya". Professional' nayadeyatellnostt yurista: ucheb. - 2-eizd., pererab. idop. - "Prospekt", 362 p.

*Words: 6287*

*Characters: 40 925(22,74 standard pages)*

Ivan I. Sinyakin, Phd  
 Assistant Professor  
 International Law Department  
 Moscow State Institute of International Relations  
 (MGIMO University)  
 119454, Moscow, Prospekt Vernadskogo, 76  
 Russia  
 ORCID: 0000-0002-8899-4219  
 ilc48@mail.ru

Ekaterina A. Samorodova, Phd  
 Assistant Professor  
 French Language Department  
 Moscow State Institute of International Relations  
 (MGIMO University)  
 119454, Moscow, Prospekt Vernadskogo, 76  
 Russia

ORCID : <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0702-0253>  
samorodova.ekaterina.78@mail.ru

Irina G. Belyaeva, Phd  
Senior Lecturer  
German Language Department  
Moscow State Institute of International Relations  
(MGIMO University)  
119454, Moscow, Prospekt Vernadskogo, 76  
Russia  
ORCID : <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7083-3564>  
irinatomakova@mail.ru

## Communicative strategies in modern linguistics (on the material of English travel blogs)

Aizhan M. Kurkimbayeva – Bagila A. Akhatova – Galina N. Gumovskaya –  
Irina B. Kotenyatkina – Anvar N. Khuziakhmetov

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.03

### Abstract

The study of communicative strategies and communicative tactics are in central attention in modern linguistics. The article is devoted to the study of communicative strategies that are encountered in travel blogs. The main purpose of the article is to analyze communicative strategies applied in English language tourism blogs. Empirical materials are taken from “BBC Travel”, “Two monkeystravel” blogs, which are considered as the best travel blogs according to 2019 and to show that the strategies aligned with travel blogs can definitely assist tourism destinations competitively. The theoretical and practical significance of the study lies in the fact that the results will not only expand the study of the problem of "communicative strategies and tactics," but will be useful as recommendations for creating tourist promotional materials aimed at tourists. Travel blogs as an integral part of media communication play a significant role through interacting directly with addressees via different internet platforms to promote tourism destinations using persuasive communication strategies and tactics. Reacting to visitor’s opinions and satisfying their demands are also peculiar to travel blogs.

**Key words:** tourist discourse, communicative strategies, tactics, travel blogs, posts, pragmalinguistic features

---

### Introduction

#### The Actuality of the Problem

Language and communication are rapidly developing taking advantage of new technologies. Year by year, tourism discourse is shifting to social networks opt to the fact that social networks relate to media, as they have become the essential tool and a channel of spreading information that is available for wide recipients that subscribed to them.

The object of the investigation is travel blogs, as a hybrid genre of blogging discourse and tourism discourse.

This study is based on the following hypothesis: communication strategies and tactics are not universal according to various cultures.

The subject of the study is the realization of communicative strategies and tactics in travel blogs.

The purpose of the article is to conduct a linguistic analysis of seven communicative strategies (self-presentation strategy, strategy of respecting traditions of host country, strategy of quick response, strategy of appealing to the tips, strategy of positioning tourist destination, strategy of cooperation, strategy of persuasion).

For mass audience travel blogs are the main means of obtaining tourism information as they qualitatively cover every aspect of a visitor’s trip, from the overall experience of traveling, the anticipation, planning, packing, departure, driving, flying, and delays are all reflected in the travel blogs. Another reason is due to the fact that tourism turned into a massive global socio-economic phenomenon, since the rapid development of new technologies and economic growth influencing the easy movement of tourists from one country to another country, experiencing so many

different cultures. Owing to tourism, socio-cultural information is exchanged between different nations, countries around the world, which leads to the mutual enrichment of cultures.

One of the most popular interactive storytelling genres on various social networks as Facebook, Instagram are travel blogger's stories. Travel bloggers try to make proper impressions on their interlocutors through actively created persuasive strategies. Some travel bloggers write about their perceived experiences just for pleasure and share them with the audience, while others have definite aims to attract potential future tourists using both communicative strategies and marketing strategies. According to D.R. Azariah (2012), various writing techniques and voices are used when tourists record their impressions in a blog. Travel blogs are characterized by different narrative styles. Travel blogs relate to social media. Consequently, travel blogs impact travel planning (Fotis, Buhalis, Rossides, 2012).

Travel writing can be considered as a textual manifestation of the Self and the other confrontation (Bassnett, 2003; Thompson, 2011; Youngs, 2013). Travel blogs are unique free online diary, which enables the creation of discursive zone between addresser and addressee. Travel blog websites such as BBC Travel has 1,5 million followers and 4123 blog entries that offer different interesting contents to their followers worldwide and carry out friendly interaction with its recipients. Blogging is one of the most widely used but less studied Internet sites in Kazakhstan, particularly in media linguistics and journalism. Therefore it is worth studying the language features of travel blog texts.

### **Literature Review**

The bibliography that is dedicated to the problems of communicative strategies is immeasurable. The concepts "communicative strategy" and "tactics" are actively used today in studies of various types of discourse. The publications of foreign and domestic scholars (Dijk, Kintsch, 1983; Tarasova, 1992; Vereshagin, Kostomarov, 1999; Karasik, 2002; Issers, 2008; Akisheva, 2008; Goykhan, Nadeina 2009; Shie, 2010; Goncharova, 2011; Sternin, 2015; Zheltukhina et al., 2016; Gumovskaya, 2017; Ponomarenko et al., 2017; Zheltukhina et al., 2018a,b; Aleshchanova et al., 2019; Shabalina et al., 2019) have become priorities in studying communicative strategies in linguistics. Interlocutors in the process of communication to achieve their goals use definite types of strategies and tactics.

Tourism is defined as a complex phenomenon with psychological, social, and cultural dimensions (Urry, 2002). Communication in the tourism sector has national specificity and multidimensional character. In intercultural communication, a special role is played by the national-specific features of the linguistic picture of the world, as well as the correlation of national self-consciousness and language. It is in tourism that the collision and interaction of different cultures occur (Filatova, 2012a; 2012b).

A considerable number of researchers contributed to the development of the concept "tourist discourse" (Urry, 1995; Tyuleneva, 2008; Pogodaeva, 2008; Thurlow, Jaworski, 2011; Duffy, 2015; Sakaeva, Bazarova, 2014; Filatova, 2012b) as tourism has become huge industry in the 21 century, which generates advertising and informative texts that are accessible to different target groups.

Communication strategies and tactics are not universal for all cultures in the world, but represent nationally and culturally determined patterns of speech behavior in a specific situation (Demyankov, 1982; Trufanova, 2001; Ulanov, 2014). However, we think that communication strategies used in tourism discourse sometimes coincide, as an increasingly wide array of purposes of this discourse is the promotion of tourist destinations.

Travel bloggers create authentic content from their personal experience and form a mental picture of the tourism destination via their reasoned and emotional interpretation (Konecnik, 2004; Kavoura, Bitsani, 2013). In comparison with the

traditional paradigms of tourist communication, travel blogs are enabling strategic communication, thus implementing the promotion of tourist places applying explicit and implicit linguistic tools.

The usage of communicative strategies in promoting tourism products can have a great impact on tourists. Therefore, the contents of travel posts cover information on key sights, eating, romantic spots, travel connections, popular destinations, visa application tips, accommodation etc.

According to T. Ambrose and C. Paine (2006), word of mouth communication is more persuasive and more comprehensive and reliable. In many cases, tourists are influenced by the comments and opinions of friends and relatives. L. Guernsey (2000) defined blogs as online word-of-mouth communication based on informal communication between consumers (Guernsey 2000). Moreover, in addition to the communicative strategies, classical word of mouth (WOM) turned into e-WOM hence it enables bloggers to express their feelings and opinions without any restrictions.

American linguist G. Myers (2010) underlined that people used to read narrations with clear structures, but blogs do not have such restrictions. Nowadays, customers prefer brief and concise content than big text content (Myers, 2010).

Speech manipulation is also central in tourism discourse; hence this strategy affects cognitive models of potential tourists. According to S. Kara-Murza (2000), manipulation is a temptation. Therefore, the contents of travel posts are persuasive even in some cases, emotionally manipulative relating to the advertised tourist destination in order to fulfill their specific purposes.

Travel bloggers are opinion leaders; therefore travel marketers need to target them to distribute online information using efficient and effective communication strategies and tactics to advocate tourism (Yoo, Gretzel, Zach, 2011). The same opinions are observed in Lyons and Henderson's interpretations (Lyons, Henderson 2005) as online opinion leaders possess significantly higher levels of enduring involvement, innovativeness, exploratory behavior, and self-perceived knowledge.

### **Methodology**

This study was carried out on communicative strategies used in the English tourism language. In this study, we used different methods and techniques of linguistic research: a semantic and discursive analysis, content analysis of travel posts, and lingua-pragmatic analysis in order to identify how communication strategies are implemented in travel blogs.

To identify the linguopragmatic features of communicative strategies and tactics, we reviewed 150 blog posts published on Twomonkeystravelgroup.com and BBC travel.com: JTB, where the main seven communicative strategies were identified.

### **Results and Discussion**

Nowadays tourism industry is facing tough competition because a lot tourism companies moved to social media, and the media platforms are already overcrowded and oversaturated with information. It definitely causes problems in attracting potential tourism clients. The tourism industry started to appeal to travel blogger's assistance in order to enhance strategic communication with recipients. They try to use various strategies like self-presentation, appealing to the uniqueness of the destination, appealing to celebrities, discount and bonus strategy, the strategy of appealing to tips etc.

In the course of the research, we identified some popular communication strategies in travel blogs.

The first strategy that is applied by travel bloggers is the **strategy of self-presentation**. The self-presentation strategy in the tourism discourse has

professionally directed specifics - the addresser submits himself as an expert, a connoisseur of the region. In linguistics, self-presentation is usually regarded as a specific speech strategy (Axhausen, 2006; Dubskikh, 2008; Tsibizov, 2009; Shishkova, 2010; Dotdaeva, 2011; Zavyalova, 2011; Bolotnov, 2012; Karpovskaya, Shiryaeva, Zheltukhina, 2019). This strategy is based on a combination of conventional and creative tactics. By their nature, they are divided into rational and emotional. We have chosen travel blog “Two monkeys travel” which is written by married couple-bloggers Kach and Jonathon Howe who decided to leave the nine-to-five career lifestyle, sell off their possessions, and have been traveling the world together since 2013 to show the realization of the self-presentation strategy. Researchers E.E. Jones and T.S. Pittman (1982) proposed five self-presentation tactics: self-promotion, ingratiation, supplication, intimidation, and exemplification. In their work, self-representation is understood as the behavioral realization of the desire for power.

We think among the tactics that can implement **self-presentation strategy**, the following two tactics are central in blog posts of tourism discourse:

- *Ingratiation*;

- *Self-promotion*.

The first **ingratiating tactic of self-presentation strategy** (“trying to please”) is an attempt to present yourself as attractive in the eyes of others (power of charm). This can be done with the help of such acts as emphasizing the potential personal advantages of the object, praise the dignity and identity of the object.

From the examples below, it is seen that blogger’s nickname used in a metaphorical way like “white monkey” which makes the object more attractive. The collocational patterns of noun+preposition+noun structure is illustrated with the corpus examples of *love for lakes, mountains, waterfalls, black pudding and gravy*, and descriptive adjective patterns *as tropical beaches, adventure sports* makes travel post more attractive.

**Example 1.** BBC Travel (2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d) tells awe-inspiring, immersive travel stories to curious, passionate readers who want to learn about the world as much as they want to travel there. It is fuelled by new, unexpected, and emotionally engaging stories from a global community of editors, writers, photographers, and video journalists who provide a trusted perspective on the world of travel. We are independent, impartial, and honest (Banas, 2019).

**Example 2.** John is the Old White Monkey. Born in the south of England, Jon spent much of his early childhood in Kenya and Malawi, before moving to the Lake District in North West England aged 13 where he acquired a northern accent and a love for lakes, mountains, waterfalls, black pudding, and gravy! After 14 years of studying and working in various (very various!) jobs, he too felt the need to get out and see the rest of the world. He loves tropical beaches, surfing, hiking, the outdoors, yoga, adventure sports and motorbikes! (Howe, 2016e).

**Example 3.** Still adjusting with the time zone but very happy to attend the WTM yesterday to attend meetings.

I’ve finally met Sir Gerry, our Philippines Tourism Attache, in UK Europe. One of my Filipino diplomat idols and who helped connect me with hotel and tour companies during our visit in the Philippines in 2017!

I’ve also met Summer of Visit Florida, who is the one who arranged my first ever trip to USA in 2015 and also made sure we’d have an amazing time at Disneyworld!

Happy monkey.. few days here to attend meetings and getting important documents then we’ll be flying back home to Montenegro to be with our little boys! 😊 (Howe, 2019e).

### **Self-promotion tactic**

If the effort to please, this is a strategy that aims to elicit sympathy, the self-promotion tactics aimed at getting respect from other people (expert power). The most effective way of self-promotion demonstration of their knowledge and skills in tourism texts is to show their achievements in the tourism field as a respectable and competitive establishment using adjective+noun lexical collocations as *gold award*, *silver award*. Metaphors are very popular in travel posts to produce a suasive effect. For example, *global culture pole fall in love with the world*. Tourism texts often appeal to facts and figures focusing on the company's presence in the market of tourist services, and numerals are used as a means of language tool.

**Example 1.** For the third year in a row, BBC Travel (2019a, 2019b, 2019c, 2019d) has won the **Gold Lowell Thomas Award** for the best travel journalism website. Previous **accolades include the Gold award for The US National Parks** turn 100 special projects in 2017, **Silver awards** for our Travel Pioneers series in 2016 and 50 Reasons to **#LoveTheWorld package** in 2015 (Banas, 2019)

**Example 2.** *Two Monkeys Travel Group – Community Travel Blog is a travel blog and website. We quickly grew into a valuable source of* inspiring travel stories, advice, itineraries, and travel guides, with the aim of demonstrating how to live a sustainable life of travel, whilst living your own definition of success. If you'd like to contribute and write a guest post, contact us at [kach@twomonkeystravel.com](mailto:kach@twomonkeystravel.com) (Howe, 2019a)

**Example 3.** Vienna is a **global culture pole**. Vienna is home to around **120 music** and theatre stages, as well as more than **100 museums**.

### **The strategy of respecting traditions of the host country**

The strategy of respecting traditions of host country used in travel blogs demonstrate a benevolent, soft attitude towards interlocutors, trying to build enthusiasm by appealing to customer's emotions, values via respecting traditions of visiting countries applying various tactics. Hence, interlocutors praise, agree with addressers. Travel blogger's goal is to satisfy addressers, with emphasis done for quick results. Each year, an increasing number of tourists on a journey around the world, with tourists seeking not only to relax but also to learn about the traditions, history, economic, scientific and cultural achievements of the visiting country. Applying such colorful, informative contents with photos in traditional costumes of the host country definitely deserves respect among their discursive communication platform.

The post was published a week ago liked by 2555 people on a blog platform. This blog post collected over two hundred comments.

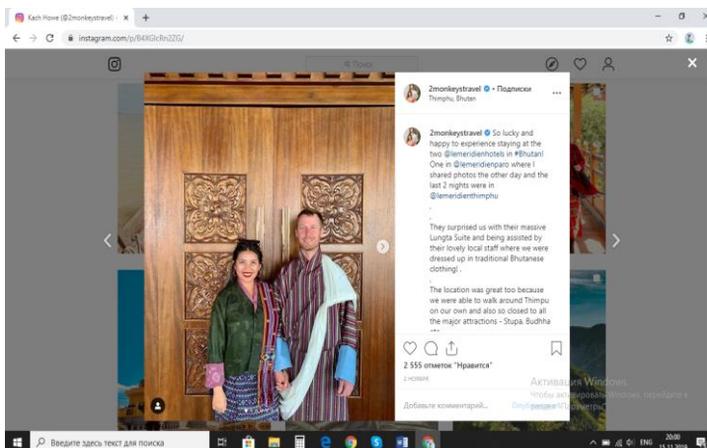


Figure 1. Thimphu, Butan.  
Source: 2monkeystravel (Howe, 2019c)

**Example 1.** *So lucky and happy to experience staying at the two @limeridienhotels in #Bhutan! One in @limeridienparo where I shared photos the other day and the last 2 nights were in @limeridienthimphu They surprised us with their massive Lungta Suite and being assisted by their lovely local staff where we were dressed up in traditional Bhutanese clothing!* The location was great too because we were able to walk around Thimpu on our own and also so close to all the major attractions - Stupa, Buddha etc. Their chef @gauravnarayan58 even prepared a 6 course meal for our last dinner in the country where we tried Authentic Indian and Bhutanese cuisine! (Howe, 2019e). Aside from our local cultural experience, glad to experience the luxury and hospitality in Bhutan!

This short blog post with beautiful nonverbal elements followed by comments where receivers supported and praised them. There observed a quick reply for comments. Any comment have not been left without reply. This quality represent blogger's friendly attitude for her clients.

Comments:

- ✓ Bhutan is definitely in my bucket list! 🙌
- ✓ Love the hotel! And the palace in pic #3
- ✓ Wow! This is the first time I'm seeing Bhutan photos and I'm loving it ♥️

Reply

Yess!!!👏😊

The comment is accompanied with the emoji of two hands raised in the air, which symbolizes celebrating success or another joyous event. From this comment, we can see that the addresser wearing traditional clothes of the host country could definitely impact the addresser showing respect to the traditions. As a result, the addresser wanted to visit this country. Moreover, positive feedback from addressees is crucial in terms of tourism promotion.

### The strategy of quick response

This strategy involves some cognitive information like comments, opinions. The blogger used the strategy of quick response for addressee's comments applying some semiotic information in the form of hundred points emoji to show that she agrees with the decision and the word 'yes' is written with double s and 3 exclamation marks which symbolize vitality, energy, and confidence of the country. Emoji is now

the world's fastest-growing graphical language, and we can see various emoji appliance in online travel reviews, travel posts accompanying texts. The usage of smiling faces with heart eyes showing teeth in the answer can be interpreted as the adoration of the addresser's opinion.

For example, from this opinion, we can see that post written by the blogger with fantastic photos could convince the future tourist as we see supporting techniques.

**Example 1.** #ASHGABAT, Turkmenistan *Definitely the most beautiful city I've ever visited in this part of the world. They even called it the white city because of the marble buildings, beautiful parks and a lot of statues! The road here is perfect.. yes, perfect - no holes, no construction just perfect!! Never seen a road like this in Europe or even in USA! Hahaha! Super clean as well and my guide told me that dirty cars are illegal inside the city, locals should wear good clothes and be presentable, no street animals (no dogs or cats!!) and no smoking in any public places (they are only allowed at their home, hotels or some facilities)... driving around the city at night is just wonderful— it looks like Las Vegas as it's too colorful and bright! Will post more photos during my night tour 😊* (Howe, 2019d)

Comments:

- ✓ Such a beautiful city ❤️👍
- ✓ Wow an amazing place
- ✓ where is this 😊😊😊
- ✓ What an amazing place
- ✓ Very underrated countries when it comes to the progress of tourism but I agree with you. They have the most beautiful and not to mention the widest roads. Drove around Egypt into the borderline of Libya, and the road is also awesome. It may not be soon but someday; I will be able to visit these places 🍷🍷



Figure 2. Ashgabat. Turkmenistan.

Source: 2monkeystravel (Howe, 2019d)

From the above-mentioned examples, we can notice the interactive nature of speech communication where dialogical communication is central.

### **The strategy of appealing to the tips**

Having analyzed the posts in travel blogs, we have come across many tips offered by travel bloggers. Therefore we consider the strategy of appealing to the tips as a vital one. Consequently, addressers as future tourists before planning their destinations search for advice, read reviews of tourists. Moreover, blog posts try to give detailed tips on where to stay, how to get to the destination, how to communicate with local people, how to arrange honeymoon trips, etc. We have chosen tips for romantic travelers. The verbal text is presented with bright, lovely photos, and videos. Tourists are related to VIPs in the content. Travel blogger Kash Howe often gives tips and advice in the blog posts, writing from an experts' perspective.

For example, the post under the headline "Plan the Ultimate Romantic Getaway with These Four Tips" offers the addressers the next tips:

#### **Example 1. Book a Limo to Pick You Up from the Airport**

When your plane arrives, the last thing that you and your wife are going to want to do is try to find a taxi to take you to your hotel. Instead, choose an upgrade in luxury with a hired limo. Booking one is easier than you think. For example, couples visiting the Six can book a limo from Toronto Limo Service to pick them up from Pearson and take them to the hotel. You can have champagne and flowers waiting for your wife in the limo to make it extra special (Howe, 2017).

#### **Example 2. Arrange for a Romantic Arrival to the Hotel**

Make arrangements with a local hotel to have the room romantically decorated for your arrival. Have flower petals scattered on the bed in the shape of a heart. Consider having soft, romantic music playing, champagne waiting on the rocks, and strawberries waiting to be fed to your lady love. The hotel can take care of all of the arrangements, so you and your love can simply enjoy one another company every minute that you are together.

#### **Example 3. Book Fun Adventures to Experience While You are Away**

Plan exciting things for you and your wife to do during your trip. Niagara Falls is a very romantic place for couples to go to when they are on vacation. It is even possible for you to renew your vows at Niagara Falls if you feel that it is something that your wife would enjoy doing.

You need to be sure to make arrangements to renew your vows before you arrive at the falls, though. You will not be able to walk up and renew them when you get there. The cost is very minimal and well worth the cost when you consider the memory that you will make for your wife and yourself.

#### **Example 4. Take Time for Peace and Relaxation**

While going out and seeing romantic sites is nice, don't be afraid to take the time to stay in and enjoy one another's company, as well. You can book a romantic couples massage for you and your wife to enjoy together.

You can have two masseuses come to your room and massage you and your wife at the same time. You can lay side by side and talk during the massage if you want to. It can be a great way to grow the bond between the two of you and be able to relax at the same time. (Howe, 2017).

### **The strategy of positioning tourist destination**

Lexical features reflected in blog posts characterized by the use of evaluative vocabulary with expressive-emotional coloring as *colourful seaside towns*, *cliff-hanging dwellings*, *unique vertical landscape*, *dramatic cliff walls*, *historic medieval buildings*, *flavoured liqueur*. The colorful description of the destination contributes to the creation in the eyes of the tourist image of the unique origin of the monument, made by nature, a unique find in the world.

Active use of expressive-evaluative connotations in promotional texts could facilitate the creation of only positive emotions. Due to the usage of tropes and various stylistic devices, tourism texts become more attractive, colorfully described tourist places

(attractions, landscapes, country) certainly cause tourists to desire to see everything with their own eyes and thus acquire the services offered.

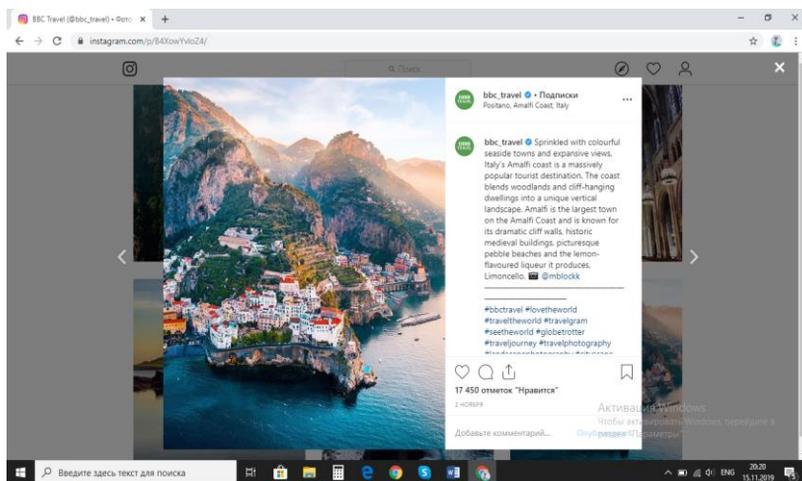


Figure 3. Positano, Amalfi coast. Italy.  
Source: BBC Travel (2019a)

#### Example 1.

Sprinkled with **colourful seaside towns** and expansive views, Italy's Amalfi coast is a massively popular tourist destination. The coast blends woodlands and **cliff-hanging dwellings** into a **unique vertical landscape**. Amalfi is the largest town on the Amalfi Coast and is known for **its dramatic cliff walls, historic medieval buildings**, picturesque pebble beaches and the lemon-**flavoured liqueur** it produces, **Limoncello** (bbc\_travel).

The blog post is followed with positive comments.

For instance:

- ✓ So beautiful! 😊 A view to wake up to every morning. @emmacrooks we need to go here.
- ✓ And is the home of the great @malfygin , one more reason to visit this beautiful coast!

**Example 2.** With its pink tower and giant encircling dragon, the Buddhist temple Wat Samphran looks like something plucked straight from a fairy tale. Located in the Samphran district of Thailand, this temple measures 80m high, representing the age of Buddha when he died. Stairs to the 17-floor temple wind through the body of the dragon, and visitors can climb all the way to the dragon's hollow head (BBC Travel.com).

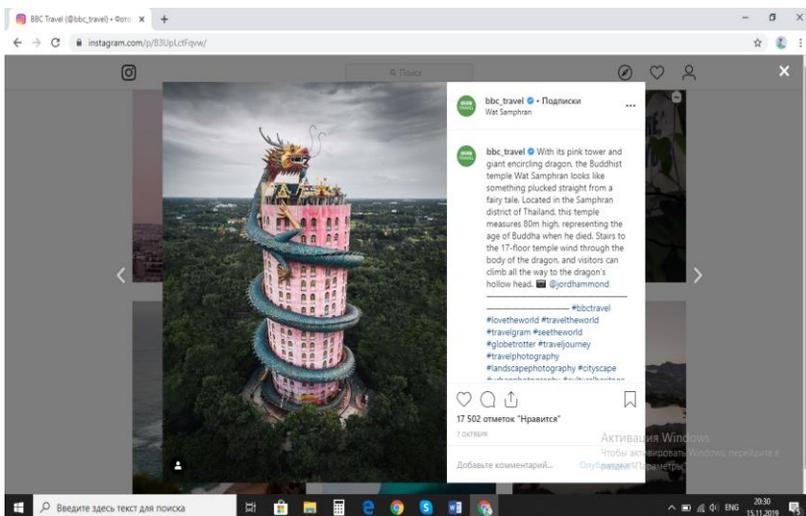


Figure 4. WAT Samphan.  
Source: BBC\_Travel (2019b)

**Example 3.** The world is full of so many romantic destinations that choosing a perfect getaway spot for couples can prove to be quite a challenge. One thing, however, almost everybody will agree that being near the sea rekindles the element of togetherness in a relationship. Blessed with ample sunshine, luxurious resorts, the freshest seafood, and nearly 825 miles of white powdery perfect sand, Florida is just the place for partners to keep igniting their sparks of love. So be ready to park your toes in the sand, as you head to the Sunshine State, hand in hand with the one you love to experience the vacation honeymoon of a lifetime (Howe, 2019a,b,c,d,e,f,g).

Texts with accompanying images, as illustrated above, can only inspire addressees' imaginations of visiting these destinations. It can be considered as non-verbal effects on the recipients. Many researchers (Evans, Fox, Johnson, 1995; Holloway Humphreys, Davidson, 2009) have discussed competitive tourism destination strategies.

### Strategy of cooperation

The pragmatic aspect of tourist discourse is characterized by a combination of strategies of domination of the subject of speech and cooperation with the addressee. Cooperation is carried out by dialogization, de-automatization speech perception by addressee forming its emotional state, harmonization correlation shaped, and forms factual knowledge transfer. This strategy with the addressee is implemented by using the following tactics:

**Dialogization tactics** is to use rhetorical, dubitative, meditative, metacommunicative, inducing questions, and simulation of various types of situations involving addressees. This is certainly due to a number of pragmatic characteristics of the recipient: firstly, the consumers of tourism services - people tend to have a certain social status (level of education, income level, professional status, etc.).

**Example 1.** Paris is a classic destination on any bucket list, but what's a must-see most people don't know about?

Tell us in the comments! (BBC Travel). **Comment 1.** Paris is a beautiful city with much to offer solo travelers, couples, and families. It is definitely on my list of places to visit again.

**Comment 2.** There are much more beside Eiffel tower and my recent trip I came to know that many historical places like Napoleon Bonaparte tomb, art galleries, churches, and streets of Paris more amazing.

**Comment 3** We won't tell, we do not want tourists to come in the good places Addressees reacted to the sender's rhetorical question. One hundred forty comments have given. It can be said that the strategy of cooperation carried out successfully. Some comments contain joking contents.

**Example 2.** With its expansive views of the #bayarea, Mission Dolores Park is a favorite spot for many San Franciscans.

What's the best park you've found along your travels? (BBC Travel)

**Comment 1.** In California: Balboa Park (San Diego), the ratio of open space and museums is just right. In Vancouver: Stanley Park: old-growth forest in the middle of a cosmopolitan city is hard to beat.

**Comment 2.** How can you post such a bland caption given how much this area is suffering from the wildfires???

### **The strategy of persuasion**

It is observed that the language use by tourism texts are highly persuasive. Imperatives often appear in blog posts as an implementation technique of persuasions. A specific feature of the communication strategy of verbal persuasion in destination promoting is the prevalence of representational-policy speech utterances, the purpose of which - "push" the recipient to action - buy here and now. The persuasive strategy is implemented by means of persuasive communication techniques. Persuasive techniques can be a voice, non-voice (graphic, visual, paralinguistic) or complex, uniting voice and non-verbal techniques. A.V. Golodnov (2010) investigated the usage of persuasive strategies and tactics in advertising.

**Example 1.** Have you ever thought of going to a destination wedding? Well, you should consider Mexico as there are a lot of unique wedding venues in Cancun! *Tulle, tiara, tequila*, repeat, but *make it unique!* (Howe, 2019g).

**Example 2.** Health-conscious and luxury travelers find refuge in the Bergland Hotel Sölden. Thai yoga is practiced here amidst the powder-covered slopes of Austria. Many active travelers and adrenaline-seekers come here every year to ski or simply to unwind, surrounded by the gorgeous woodwork of the resort. Pamper yourself after your daily yoga practice and sink into the luxe womb-like woodwork bath area for a spa experience right in your own room. Wellness guaranteed! (Howe, 2019g).

**Example 3.** Located in the Himalayas, Anada Yoga in Rishikesh is a dream destination. The view of the Ganges greets you every day, along with peacocks and monkeys roaming the hotel grounds. Reflective and private, this place reverts your health and wellness, from the food, the yoga practice, to every tiny detail about your stay. Attend the Hatha yoga classes in the morning and learn other techniques like *pranayama* and *jai neti* to deepen your practice (Howe, 2019g).

From examples of persuasive strategy in blog posts, we can see the use of an exclamation mark as a means of activation refers to the attention of the recipient, the most common methods of allocation of important information in advertisements.

Flexible, hybrid nature of the blog format, in general, create such contents, which are responsive to people's daily needs and communicative needs of its users (Herring et al., 2004). Epithets are also central in these posts refining the image in the addressee's presentation of the destination. They definitely give special nature to the subject of advertising. Using epithets provides the difference from the standard, familiar shapes, and patterns that emphasize the uniqueness and singularity of the proposed destination: refined furniture, *magnificent views*, *impeccable service*, *luxurious design*, *a romantic vacation*, *luxury hotel*, etc. Persuasiveness is considered as a potential pragmatic meaning of individual language units.



Figure 5. 10 best hotels with yoga retreat in USA.  
Source: mrandmrshowe.com (Howe, 2019g)

### **Conclusion**

Review of Literature has shown that social media as blogs play a significant role in tourism promotion from information search to decision-making behaviors of potential tourists. Travel bloggers as discursive language personalities not just enable to develop the tourism potential of their own country but also help the tourism service providers in focusing the best practices through the feedback they get from tourists and the public via social media.

While studying “Two monkeystravel” blog and “BBC travel” blog, we have noticed that bloggers not just limit producing creative and unique contents, but they thought all aspects of production. They use technology to their advantage in order to create audio and video, visual contents through editing or making quality Insta graphics.

As a result of studying two travel blogs, we have revealed seven communicative strategies on these travel blogs. The more frequently used communicative strategies are the communicative strategy of self-representation, the strategy of positioning tourist destination, the strategy of cooperation, the strategy of persuasion.

The analysis shows bloggers employing linguistic techniques while implementing self-presentation strategies in their travel narratives.

The strategy of appealing to advice (tips) on these travel blogs is also part of communication since the advice is a pragmatic phenomenon.

It is revealed that posts implementing strategy of quick response usually end with an open invitation to participate in the discussion.

It can be concluded that communicative strategies in travel blogs are essential to be investigated and to look at insights of linguistic formulations.

### **Acknowledgments**

The publication has been prepared with the support of the RUDN University Program 5-100.

The publication has been prepared with the support of the “HSE University Program 5-100”.

The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.

## **Bibliographic references**

- AKISHEVA, A.T. 2008. Diskurs-analiz rechevykh strategiy kommunikantov: PhD Thesis. Astana: Yevraziyskiy nats.un-t im. L.N.Gumileva.
- ALESHCHANOVA, I. – FROLOVA, N. – ZHELTUKHINA, M. 2019. Teaching resources in professionally oriented foreign language learning. IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering. ISSN 1757-899X
- AMBROSE, T. – PAINE, C. 2006. Museum Basics. New York: Routledge. ISBN 9780415366335.
- AXHAUSEN, K.W. 2006. Social factors in future travel: A qualitative assessment, In: IEE Proceedings Intelligent Transport Systems, vol. 153, n. 2, pp. 156-166. ISSN 1748-0248.
- AZARIAH, D.R. 2012. Mapping the travel blog: A study of the online travel narrative: Doctoral dissertation. Bentley: Curtin University.
- BANAS, A. 2019. What is BBC Travel? Available online: <http://www.bbc.com/travel/story/20160106-bbc-travel-author-brief>
- BASSNETT, S. 2003. "Introduction". In: Literature of Travel and Exploration. London: Routledge. ISBN 9780203505335.
- BBC TRAVEL. 2019a. Positano, Amalfi coast. Italy. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B4XowYvloZ4/>
- BBC TRAVEL. 2019b. WAT Samphran. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B3UpLctFqvw/>
- BBC TRAVEL. 2019c. Eiffel Tower Paris, France. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B3XOjJLlzgG/>
- BBC TRAVEL. 2019d. Mission Dolores park. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B4NSZ-HI-MK/>
- BOLOTNOV, A.V. 2012. Samoprezentatsiya yazykovoy lichnosti v publichnom diskurse: kognitivno-stilisticheskiy aspekt. In: Vestnik Tomskego gosudarstvennogo pedagogicheskogo universiteta, vol. 10, pp. 169-173. ISSN 1609-624X
- DEMYANKOV, V.Z. 1982. Konventsii, pravila i strategii obshcheniya (intepretiruyushchiy podkhod k argumentatsiyam) In: Izvestiya AN SSSR. Ser. lit. i yaz.. vol. 41, n. 4, pp. 327-337. ISBN 9965-9746-3-2.
- DIJK, T.A. – WALTER KINTSCH. 1983. Strategies of Discourse Comprehension. New York: Academic Press. ISBN 9780128118870
- DOTDAEVA, F.I. 2011. Samoprezentatsiya prezidentov SSHA (na materiale amerikanskogo prezidentского diskursa). In: Politicheskaya lingvistika, n. 4, pp. 87-96. ISSN 1999-2629
- DUBSKIKH, A.I. 2008. Sredstva realizatsii kommunikativnoy strategii samoprezentatsii lichnosti v massovo-informatsionnom diskurse. In: Vestnik Chelyabinskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta, vol. 30, n. 131, pp.50-54. ISBN 1994-2796
- DUFFY, R. 2015. Nature-based tourism and neoliberalism: concealing contradictions. In: Tourism Geographies, vol. 17, n. 4. pp. 529-543. ISSN 1461-6688 Available online: <http://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/107455/>
- EVANS, M.R. – FOX, J.B. – JOHNSON, R.B. 1995. Identifying Competitive Strategies for Successful Tourism Destination. In: Journal of Hospitality and Leisure Marketing, vol. 3, n. 1, pp. 37-45. ISSN 1473-8376
- FILATOVA N.V. 2012a. Zhanrovoye prostranstvo turisticheskogo diskursa. In: Filologicheskoye nauki, n. 2, pp. 76-82. ISSN 1997-2911
- FILATOVA N.V. 2012b. Turisticheskoye diskurs v ryadu smezhnykh diskursov: gibridizatsiya ili polifoniya? In: Vestnik Moskovskogo gosudarstvennogo oblastnogo universiteta, Seriya: Lingvistika, n. 3, pp. 41–46. ISSN: 2072-8352

- FOTIS, J. – BUHALIS, D. – ROSSIDES, N. 2012. Social media use and impact during the holiday travel planning process. In: *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, n. 1, pp. 13-24. Springer-Verlag. ISBN 978-3-030-05940-8
- GOLODNOV, A.V. 2010. *Persuazivnaya kommunikatsiya: strategii i taktiki vozdeystviya*. St.Petersburg: Asterion. Available online: <https://www.litres.ru/a-v-golodnov/persuazivnaya-kommunikaciya-strategii-i-taktiki-vozdeystviya-na-materiale-sovremennoy-nemeckoyazychnoy-reklamy-4919749/>
- GONCHAROVA, L.M. 2011. Strategii i taktiki reklamnykh tekstov turistskoy sfery. In: *Servis v Rossii i za rubezhom*, vol. 7, n. 26, pp. 202-209. ISSN 1995-042X
- GOYKHMAN, O.Y., – NADEINA, T.M. 2009. *Rechevaya kommunikatsiya: uchebnyk*. Moscow: Infra-M. ISBN 5-16-002657-6
- GUERNSEY, L. 2000. Suddenly, everybody's an expert on everything. In: *The New York Times*. Available online: <https://archive.nytimes.com/www.nytimes.com/library/tech/00/02/circuits/articles/03info.html> ISSN: 0362-4331
- GUMOVSKAYA, G.N. 2017. Secondary Text: Author's Conception and Translator's Individuality. In: *Journal of Literature and Art Studies*, vol.7, n. 9, pp. 1192-1201. ISSN 2159-5844
- HERRING, S.C. – SCHEIDT, L.A. – BONUS, S. – WRIGHT, E. 2004. Bridging the gap: A genre analysis of weblogs. In: *Proceedings of the Thirty-Seventh Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences*. ISBN: 0-7695-2056-1
- HOLLOWAY, J.C. – HUMPHREYS, C – DAVIDSON, R. 2009. *The business of tourism*. London: Pearson Education Limited. ISBN: 978-0-273-71710-2
- HOWE, J. 2016. Reasons you should stay in the luxurious Orestone manor – Devon, Southwest England. Available online: <https://twomonkeystravelgroup.com/reasons-stay-orestone-manor-devon-southwest-england/>
- HOWE, J. 2017. Plan the ultimate romantic getaway with these four tips. Available online: <https://twomonkeystravelgroup.com/romantic-getaway-tips/>
- HOWE, K. 2019a. Life on the road day 193: We're back in London. Available online: <https://mrandmrshowe.com/lifestyle-blog/were-back-in-london>
- HOWE, K. 2019b. 10 Reasons why you should travel with your mom. Available online: <https://twomonkeystravelgroup.com/reasons-travel-with-your-mom/>
- HOWE, K. 2019c. Thimphu. Butan. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B4XGlcRn2ZG/>
- HOWE, K. 2019d. Ashgabat. Turkmenistan. Available online: <https://www.instagram.com/p/B0GNHIIHHJc/>
- HOWE, K. 2019e. Travel guide for couples visiting Florida – 10 things you must do. Available online: <https://twomonkeystravelgroup.com/florida-travel-couples/>
- HOWE, K. 2019f. Destination wedding guide to Mexico – 5 unique Cancun wedding venues. Available online: <https://mrandmrshowe.com/lifestyle-blog/cancun-wedding-venues>
- HOWE, K. 2019g. 10 best hotels with yoga retreats in USA. Available online: <https://mrandmrshowe.com/lifestyle-blog/best-hotels-yoga-asia?rq=yoga%20travel>
- ISSERS, O.S. 2008. *Kommunikativnyje strategii I taktiki russoj rechi*. Moscow: Editorial URSS. ISBN 978-5-382-00698-7
- JONES, E.E. – PITTMAN, T.S. 1982. Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In J. Suls (Eds.), *Psychological Perspectives on the Self*, vol. 1, pp. 231-262. Hillsdale: Lawrence Erlbaum. Available online: [http://web.mit.edu/curhan/www/docs/Articles/15341\\_Readings/Self-presentation\\_Impression\\_Formation/Jones%20&%20Pittman%201982.pdf](http://web.mit.edu/curhan/www/docs/Articles/15341_Readings/Self-presentation_Impression_Formation/Jones%20&%20Pittman%201982.pdf)
- KARASIK, V.I. 2002. *Yazyk sotsial'nogo statusa*. Available online: <https://www.twirpx.com/file/827748/>
- KARA-MURZA, S.G. 2000. *Manipulyatsiya soznaniyem*. Moscow: Exmo. ISBN: 978-5-04-102834-3.

- KARPOVSKAYA, N.V. – SHIRYAEVA, O.V. – ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. 2019. Stylistic means of headline creating in the information-analytical media text: pragmasemantic aspect of metaphor. In: *XLinguae*, vol. 12, n. 4, pp. 173 - 182. ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X
- KAVOURA, A – BITSANI, E. 2013. E-branding of Rural Tourism in Carinthia, Austria. In: *Tourism, International Interdisciplinary Journal*, vol. 61, 289-312. ISSN 1332-7461.
- KONECNIK, M. 2004. Evaluating Slovenia's Image as a Tourism Destination: A Self Analysis Process Towards Building a Destination Brand. In: *Journal of Brand Management*, vol. 11, n. 4, pp. 307-316. ISSN: 1350-231X
- MYERS, D.G. 2010. The discourse of blogs and wikis. Wiltshire: Continuum International Publishing Group. ISBN 13: 9780485121001.
- POGODAEVA S.A. 2008. Yazykovye sredstva argumentatsii vo frantsuzskom turisticheskoy diskurse: PhD Thesis. Irkutsk: Irkutsk State Linguistic University Publ. Available online: <https://www.dissercat.com/content/yazykovye-sredstva-argumentatsii-vo-frantsuzskom-turisticheskoy-diskurse>
- PONOMARENKO, E.B. – ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. – SLYSHKIN, G.G. – BORZYKH, L.A. – GARCIA CASELLES, C. 2017. Markers of the Affecting Model in Contemporary Political Media Communication. In: *XLinguae Journal*, vol. 10, pp. 58-68. ISSN 1337-838.
- SHABALINA, O. – TIMOFEEV, G. – DAVTIAN, A. – ZHELTUKHINA, M. – MOFFAT, D. 2019. Investigating Regional Heritage Through the Development and Playing of AR Games. In: *Proceedings of the European Conference on Games-based Learning*, vol. 1, pp. 631-638. ISSN: 2049-0992
- SAKAEVA, L.R. – BAZAROVA L.V. 2014. Ponyatiya «turizm» i «turisticheskii diskurs» v sovremennoy nauchnoy paradigme. In: *Filologicheskiye nauki. Voprosy teorii i praktiki*, n. 6, pp. 159–161. ISSN 1997-2911.
- SHIE, J.S. 2010. Lexical Feature Variations between New York Times and Times Supplement News Headlines. In: *Concentric: Studies in Linguistics*, vol. 36, n. 1, pp. 79-103. ISSN 1810-7478.
- SHISHKOVA, A.R. 2010. Samoprezentatsiya pol'zovateley sotsial'nykh setey WEB 2.0. In: *Sovremennyye issledovaniya sotsial'nykh problem*, n. 4, pp. 221-225. ISBN 9789224286612.
- STERNIN, I.A. 2015. Modeli opisaniya kommunikativnogo povedeniya. Voronezh: «Garant». Available online: [http://sterninia.ru/files/757/4\\_Izbrannyye\\_nauchnye\\_publicacii/Kommunikativnoe\\_povedenie\\_narodov\\_mira/Modeli\\_opisanija\\_kommunikativnogo\\_povedeniya.pdf](http://sterninia.ru/files/757/4_Izbrannyye_nauchnye_publicacii/Kommunikativnoe_povedenie_narodov_mira/Modeli_opisanija_kommunikativnogo_povedeniya.pdf)
- TARASOVA, I.P. 1992. Struktura smysla i struktura lichnosti kommunikanta. In: *Voprosy yazykoznaiya*, n. 4, pp. 103-110. Available online: <http://vja.ruslang.ru/archive/1992-4.pdf>
- THOMPSON, C. 2011. *Travel Writing*. New York: Routledge. ISBN-13: 978-0415444651
- THURLOW, C. – JAWORSKI, A. 2011. Tourism discourse: Languages and banal globalization. In: *Applied Linguistics Review*, pp. 285–312. ISSN 1868-6303.
- TRUFANOVA, I.V. 2001. O razgranichenii ponyatii: rechevoy akt, rechevoy zhanr, rechevaya strategiya, rechevaya taktika. In: *Filologicheskiye nauki*, n. 3, pp. 56–65.
- TSIBIZOV, K.S. 2009. Samoprezentatsiya yazykovoy lichnosti v nemetskom molodezhnom chat-diskurse: sobstvenno molodezhnoye i natsionalno-spetsificheskoye: PhD Thesis. Saratov: Saratov University. Available online: <http://cheloveknauka.com/samoprezentatsiya-yazykovoy-lichnosti-v-nemetskom-molodezhnom-chat-diskurse-sobstvenno-molodezhnoe-i-natsionalno-spetsificheskoye>
- TYULENEVA N.A. 2008. Lingvokognitivnye strategii pozitsionirovaniya i prodvizheniya turisticheskikh uslug v rossiiskoi i angloamerikanskoi reklame.

Available online: <https://www.dissercat.com/content/lingvokognitivnye-strategii-pozitsionirovaniya-i-prodvizheniya-turisticheskikh-uslug-v-rossi>

ULANOV, A.V. 2014. Kommunikativnyye strategii v voyennom diskurse. In: Yazyk i kul'tura. n. 28, pp. 246-254. ISSN 1999-6195

URRY, J. 1995. Consuming Places. New York: Routledge. ISBN-13: 978-0415444651

URRY, J. 2002. The Tourist Gaze. London: Sage. ISBN 0761973478, 9780761973478

VERESHAGIN, E.M. – KOSTOMAROV, V.G. 1999. V poiskakh novykh putey razvitiya lingvostranovedeniya: kontsepsiya rechapovedencheskikh taktik. Moscow: Academia. ISBN 978-5-91327-586-8.

YOO, K.H. – GRETZEL, U. – ZACH, F. 2011. Travel Opinion Leaders and Seekers. In: R. Law, M. Fuchs & F. Ricci (Eds.). Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism. New York: Springer. ISBN 978-3-540-92887-4

YOUNGS, T. 2013. The Cambridge Introduction to Travel Writing. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN: 9781108702843.

ZAVYALOVA, Z.S. 2011. Samoprezentatsiya lichnosti v chat-kommunikatsii: PhD Thesis. Tomsk: TPU. Available online: <http://cheloveknauka.com/v/367026/d#?page=11>

ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. – BUSYGINA, M.V. – MERKULOVA, M.G. – ZYUBINA, I.A. – BUZINOVA, L.M. 2018a. Linguopragmatic aspect of modern communication: main political media speech strategies and tactics in the USA and the UK. In: XLinguae Journal, vol. 11, n. 2, pp. 639-654. ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X

ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. – SLYSHKIN, G.G. – PONOMARENKO, E.B. – BUSYGINA, M.V. – OMELCHENKO, A.V. 2016. Role of Media Rumors in the Modern Society. In: International Journal of Environmental and Science Education, vol. 11, n. 17, pp. 10581-10589. ISSN 1306-3065.

ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. UKRAINSKAYA, A.V. – PONOMARENKO, E.B. – FANYAN, N.YU. – TALYBINA, E.V. 2018b. Stylistic Means of Influence in the Contemporary Chinese Sports Media Advertising. In: XLinguae Journal, vol. 11, n. 1, pp. 152-162. ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X

*Words: 6788*

*Characters: 47 498 (26,39 standard pages)*

Aizhan Muratovna Kurkimbayeva  
Department of Foreign Philology  
Kazakh Ablai Khan University of International Relations and World Languages  
200 Muratbayeva Street  
050022 Almaty  
Kazakhstan  
aizhan--k@mail.ru

prof. Bagila Abilmazhinovna Akhatova, Doctor of Philology  
Department of International Communications  
Kazakh Ablai Khan University of International Relations and World Languages  
200 Muratbayeva Street  
050022 Almaty  
Kazakhstan  
bagilakh@yahoo.com

prof. Galina Nickolaevna Gumovskaya, Doctor of Philology  
Foreign Languages Department  
National Research University Higher School of Economics

20 Myasnitskaya Street  
101000 Moscow  
Russia  
goumovskayagaln@mail.ru

assoc. prof. Irina Borisovna Kotenyatkina, PhD in Philology  
Institute of Philology  
Peoples' Friendship University of Russia (RUDN University)  
6 Miklukho-Maklaya Street  
117198 Moscow  
Russia  
koteniatkina@gmail.com

prof. Anvar Nuriakhmetovich Khuziakhmetov, Doctor of Education  
Institute of Psychology and Education  
Kazan (Volga region) Federal University  
18 Kremlyovskaya Str.  
420008 Kazan  
Russia  
hanvar9999@mail.ru

# Cognitive-pragmatic features of ethno-specific vocabulary characterizing monetary relations in the German language

Mariya A. Kulkova – Albina R. Shaidullina

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.04

## Abstract

The key problems of modern linguistics are the establishment and description of the relationship between the semantic foundations of the language, the national mentality, and the culture of a particular ethnic group. At this point, ethnospecific vocabulary is of great interest to linguists, as well as for representatives of cultural studies, sociology, and ethnography. In this regard, this article is aimed to identify the features of national currency nominations that have a number of quantitative and qualitative characteristics in the German language, which is manifested at the level of frequency of use, as well as in terms of combinability at the level of syntagmatics. The methodological basis of the study were the main provisions of the theory of cognitive linguistics and the use of corpus technologies in the analysis of lexical units. The author compared data from paremiographic sources with data from the German language corpus "Digitales Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache" (DWDS) on ethnospecific lexical units with subsequent identification of cognitive-discursive features of the analyzed group of lexemes. The obtained data can be taken into account when describing the mechanisms of formation and maintenance of national identity, translation of norms and values in the German-speaking ethnocultural society.

**Key words:** paremiological unit, ethnospecific vocabulary, German language, corpus linguistics

---

## Introduction

At the new stage of development of modern German studies, the following trends of linguistic research are noted: interdisciplinarity and integrativity, anthropo- and cultural-centricity, discursivity and explanationality. At the same time, the study of language manifestation, taking into account current scientific trends, is incomplete without the interaction of such phenomena as language, society, consciousness, and culture.

Today, the cognitive paradigm of scientific knowledge is being intensively developed in modern linguistic research (Fillmore, 1982; Lakoff, Jonson, 1980; Langacker, 1991; Talmy, 1977; Jackendoff, 1983; Demiankov, 1994; Dobrovol'skij, 2016; Zamaletdinov, Gabdrakhmanova, Zamaletdinova, 2018; Kibrik, 1992; Kibrik, 2003; Kubryakova, 2004a,b; Demiankov, Zabotkina, Poppel, 2017; Rakhilina, 2010; Boldyrev, 2000; Zakharov, Bogdanova, 2011, etc.). Cognitive-discursive research allows us to penetrate deeper into the value-semantic space of an individual, subjecting the surrounding world, represented by the cognitive signs of the code system of the language personality, to a detailed examination through the prism of the personal worldview (Maslova, 2011).

An important role in describing the language means of objectification of human mentality is played by ethnospecific vocabulary that covers a large language layer and reflects the national identity of the language, culture, and way of thinking of the people as a whole (Kayumova, Konopleva, Safina, 2014; Kulkova, Fattakhova & Zinecker, 2015; Husnutdinov et al., 2019). Ethnic features of the verbalization of ideas about the world of a particular people are determined by the mentality,

geographical, cultural, and historical prerequisites, spiritual and material values of representatives of a certain ethno-cultural society.

This article presents the results of a linguocognitive analysis of the realities of the material culture of the German people, and the founding is based on the example of the German-language proverbial material, as well as the corpus of the German language "Digitales Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache" (DWDS).

Detailed consideration are subjected to ethnic-specific lexemes, which represent currency paremiologically and their implementation in the German language. The results of the linguistic analysis are supplemented by data obtained during the application of modern German-language corpus data. Studies on the analysis of language means of verbalization of the concept "Money" in German have already been conducted by a number of scientists (Safina, 2002; Fedyanina, 2005; Kamyshanchenko & Nerubenko, 2012; Zalavina et al., 2019, etc.). Nevertheless, there is lack of scientific research devoted to the study of ethnospecific lexemes that nominates monetary units in the German-language paremiological discourse by using corpus technologies, which allows comparing the qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the studied German-language lexemes in different language registers on the material of a large array of texts.

### Research Methodology

In the analysis of the paremiological corpus study, we have identified the following tokens are nominees of monetary relations, reflecting the specific ethno-cultural realities of German society: *Pfennig*, *Groschen*, *Taler*, *Dukaten*, *Gulden*, *Heller*, *Batzen*, *Kreuzer*, acting cohyponymy in relation to the hypernym *Geld*, nominator money in the aggregate and not related to ethno-specific vocabulary. However, in the course of the study, in some cases, we resort to paremiographic and corpus data using the *Geld* lexeme due to the high frequency of use and wide information content, which contributes to a deeper linguocognitive analysis of sogiponyms. It should be noted that in the German paremiological units (here and after referred to as PU), there are numbers of terms denoting monetary units, as well as a variety of their axiological characteristics.

According to the German explanatory dictionary Duden (Duden, 2003: 1202), the lexeme *der Pfennig* (*pfenning*) (*mhd. pfenni(n)c*, *ahd. pfenning*, *pfentin*), is etymologically related to the Latin word *pannus* 'piece of matter', which is explained by the fact that the fabric was previously used as a method of payment or exchange of goods. The pfenning was a German monetary unit that was used in monetary circulation as a small change from the 9th-10th centuries until 2002.

*Der Heller* (*mhd. heller, haller* comes from the name of the Swabian city Hall 'Halle,' where the coinage was made) was a bargaining chip of the German States in the Middle ages, as well as in Modern times (Duden, 2003: 740). The first coins contained silver; later Geller was minted from copper; the value and quality of the coin changed. In the 16th century, 1 Geller was equated to ½ pfenning.

*Der Groschen* (*groschen*) (*mhd. grosse*, *mlat. grossus* = *Dickpfennig* 'literal: fat pfenning', *zu lat. grossus* = *dick* 'thick') is a medium-denomination coin that was widely distributed in Central and Eastern Europe, including Germany, during the late middle Ages and Modern times (Duden 2003: 679-680). 1 penny was equal to ten pfenning.

*Der Taler* (*Taler*) (derived from the name of the Czech city *Joachimstaler* = *Joachimstal*) is the designation of one of the most valuable coins minted from silver, which was in circulation in European countries (Duden, 2003: 1560). In Germany, the Thaler was used until the mid-18th century.

*Der Gulden* (*Gulden*) (*mhd. guldin*, *vom lat. guldin pfenni (n)c* = *goldene Münze* 'gold coin') represented a large monetary unit. The coin was originally minted in

gold, later in silver, and was used in circulation in Germany and other European countries from the 14th to the 19th centuries (Duden, 2003: 404).

*Der Dukaten (Ducat)* (derived from the Latin word *ducatus 'Duchy'*) is a gold coin that was in circulation in European countries from the 13th to the 19th centuries (Duden, 2003: 689).

*Der Kreuzer (Kreuzer)* (*niederl. kruiser = hin und her fahrendes Schiff, mhd. kruizer = Kriegsschiff* – is the name of silver and copper coins that were in circulation from the 13th to the 19th centuries in the southern part of Germany, Austria, and Switzerland. It is named because the cross was depicted on one of its sides (Duden, 2003: 963).

*Der Batzen (batzen)* (derived from the *batzen* lexeme ‘sticky, soft’) denoted a coin that was in circulation in the 15th and 19th centuries in Switzerland, Austria, and Germany. In terms of cost, batzen occupied an intermediate position between Gulden and Kreuzer (1 batzen = 4 kreuzers, 1 goldgulden = 72 kreuzers) (Duden, 2003: 236). From the point of view of verbalization of monetary relations in paremiological discourse, the most popular use is noted for *the Pfennig* and *Taler* tokens that nominate coins of low and high value: „*Der eigene Pfennig zahlt am besten*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Der Pfennig ist gut angewandt, der einen Groschen erspart*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Ein ersparter Pfennig ist zweimal verdient*“ (Beyer 1989: 196), „*Vor dem Pfennig zieht man den Hut*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Wer den Pfennig nicht spart, kommt nicht zum Groschen*“ (Beyer, 1989: 197), „*Wer keine Pfennige hat, lästert die Dukaten*“ (Beyer, 1989: 197) u.a.

In some cases, both lexemes that enter into oppositivity relations are found in the paremic: „*Besser heute ein Pfennig, als morgen ein Taler*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Ein täglicher Pfennig gibt einen jährlichen Taler*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Wer den Pfennig nicht ehrt, ist des Talers nicht wert*“ (Duden, 1998: 543), „*Ein ehrlicher Pfennig ist besser als ein gestohlener Taler*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Des Talers Geheimnis sitzt im Pfennig*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196).

## Results and Discussion

We present the results of the analysis of the frequency of use of tokens that nominate monetary units in German paremias in the following table.

Table 1. The frequency of use of lexical items, nominator of the monetary unit in the German paremias

The name of a lexeme denoting a monetary unit in German	Frequency of use in paremiological discourse in quantitative and percentage ratio
Geld	143 (53 %)
Pfennig	58 (21 %)
Taler	19 (7 %)
Gulden	14 (5 %)
Heller	12 (4 %)
Groschen	12 (4 %)
Batzen	6 (2 %)
Kreuzer	3 (1 %)
Dukaten	1 (0,4 %)

As can be seen from the table, the high-frequency constituents of German paremias that characterize material and monetary relations are the lexemes Geld (143 PU), Pfennig (58 PU). The average frequency components of the analyzed group of paremias include the lexical units Taler (19 PU), Gulden (14 PU), Heller (12 PU), and Groschen (12 PU). The low-frequency components are the Batzen (6 PU), Kreuzer (3 PU), and Dukaten (1 PU) tokens.

In the case of German, it is possible to identify several similarities in terms of semantic groups of word-combinations characterizing the monetary unit. The positive connotation is observed in the following lexemes that enter into attributive relations with words-nominees of monetary units: *viel Heller*, *viel Kreuzer*, *viele Pfennige*, *viel Geld*, *ein guter Heller*, *ein guter Pfennig*, *ein guter Gulden*, *das liebe Geld*: „*Viel Heller* machen auch Geld“ (Simrock, 2003: 238), „*Viel Kreuzer* machen den Gulden“ (Simrock, 2003: 305), „*Viele Pfennige* machen einen Taler“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „*Viel Geld*, *viel Freunde*“ (Simrock, 2003: 180), „Es ist *ein guter Heller*, so einen Taler bringt“ (Simrock, 2003: 238), „Es ist *ein guter Pfennig*, der einen Gulden erspart“ (Simrock, 2003: 402), „Es ist *ein guter Pfennig*, der hundert einbringt“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „Es ist *ein guter Gulden*, der hundert erspart“ (Simrock, 2003: 216), „*Das liebe Geld* kann alles“ (Simrock, 2003: 177) etc.

German paremias that characterize monetary units from the point of view of pejorative connotation include paremiological units containing the following phrases: *keine Pfennige*, *kein Kreuzer*, *kein Gulden*, *kein Geld*, *klein Geld*, *böser Heller*, *böser Pfennig*. A negative attitude towards money, especially small coins, is usually associated with the inability to accumulate a large amount: „*Wer keine Pfennige* hat, lästert die Dukaten“ (Beyer, 1989: 197), „*Kein Kreuzer*, kein Schweizer“ (Simrock, 2003: 305), „*Wer den Kreuzer* nicht achtet, wird *keinen Gulden* wechseln“ (Simrock, 2003: 305), „*Wo kein Geld* ist, da ist auch keine Vergebung der Sünden“ (Simrock, 2003: 177), „*Klein Geld*, kleine Arbeit“ (Simrock, 2003: 181), „*Böser Heller*, so *einen Gulden* schadet“ (Simrock, 2003: 238), „*Zwei böse Heller* finden sich gern in einem Beutel“ (Simrock, 2003: 238), „*Böser Pfennig* kommt allzeit wieder“ (Simrock, 2003: 402), „Es ist *ein böser Pfennig*, der *einen Gulden* schadet“ (Simrock, 2003: 402) etc.

In paremiological picture of the world of the German language, we find a reflection of the value category of the German mentality associated with abundance and strong financial position. Proverbs give emphasis to success, prosperity, good friendships, understanding when you have a large amount of money: „*Viel Geld* – *viel Freunde*“ (Simrock, 2003: 180), „*Hat der Bauer Geld*, hat’s die ganze Welt“ (Beyer, 1989: 106), „*Geld* regiert die Welt“ (Beyer, 1989: 106), „*Wer Geld* hat, wird überall verstanden“ (Beyer, 1989: 106), „*Das liebe Geld* kann alles“ (Simrock, 2003: 177).

The value of friendship, which is a more important priority in relation to money, is reflected in the following PU: “*Besser in der Tasche kein Geld*, als *ohne Freunde* in dieser Welt” (Beyer, 1989: 106).

In the German-language paremiological discourse, the relevance of monetary units not only of large but also of small denomination is indicated, which reflects the frugality of the German people, which is one of the key characteristics of this linguistic culture: “*Viel Heller* machen auch Geld” (Simrock, 2003: 238).

At the same time, the paremiological material also describes the negative consequences of big money: the breakup of friendly relations, the adoption of hasty and unreasonable decisions, and the loss of a sense of responsiveness, harmony, and satisfaction from existing goods, calmness, and the presence of troubles. Proverbs “*Geld macht stumm (taub)*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), “*Wo Geld* redet, muß *Verstand schweigen*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), “*Viel Geld* – *wenig Verstand*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), „*Beim Gelde hört die Freundschaft auf*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), “*Geld stillt keinen Hunger*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), “*Wenig Geld* – *wenig Sorge*” (Beyer, 1989: 106), “*Je mehr Geld*, desto *mehr Sorgen*” (Beyer, 1989: 106) are examples.

Special attention in the paremiological corpus is paid to the economical attitude to money. The significant role of thrift as a key characteristic of German linguoculture is established in a number of proverbs. The accumulation of material wealth is described in German paremias according to the semantic model "from small to large": „*Viele Pfennige* machen einen *Taler*“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „Es ist *ein guter Pfennig*, der *hundert* einbringt“ (Beyer, 1989: 196), „Es ist *ein guter Gulden*, der *hundert* erspart“

(Simrock, 2003: 216), *Ein guter Batzen, der einen Gulden erspart*“ (Simrock, 2003: 59), *„Viel Kreuzer machen den Gulden“* (Simrock, 2003: 305).

In the system of monetary relations verbalized in the German-language paremiological corpus, the following axiological characteristics of money are noted: "the ability to earn money quickly" (*frisch Geld, ein geschwinder Batzen*), "belonging to money" (*der eigene Pfennig*), "honestly earned / illegally acquired money" (*ein ehrlicher Pfennig, ein ehrlicher Groschen, ein gestohlener Taler*), "regularity of income (daily, annual)" (*ein täglicher Pfennig, ein jährlicher Taler*): *„Frisch Geld, frischer Held“* (Simrock, 2003: 179), *„Besser ein geschwinder Batzen als ein langsamer Sechser“* (Simrock, 2003: 59), *„Der eigene Pfennig zahlt am besten“* (Beyer, 1989: 196), *„Ein ehrlicher Pfennig ist besser als ein gestohlener Taler“* (Beyer, 1989: 196), *„Ein ehrlicher Groschen ist besser als ein gestohlener Taler“* (Beyer, 1989: 118), *„Ein täglicher Pfennig gibt einen jährlichen Taler“* (Beyer, 1989: 196).

We present the syntagmatic relationships of tokens that nominate monetary relations in German PU in the form of the following table:

Table 2. Attribute relationships of tokens that nominate monetary units, in the proverbial corpus of the German language

		Batzen	Dukaten	Geld	Groschen	Gulden	Heller	Kreuzer	Pfennig	Taler
1	alt			+						
2	böse	+					+		+	
3	ehrlich				+				+	
4	eigen								+	
5	erspart								+	
6	frisch			+						
7	geschwind	+								
8	gestohlen									+
9	gut	+				+	+		+	
10	jährlich									+
11	kein			+					+	
12	klein			+						
13	lieb			+						
14	täglich								+	
15	versprochen					+				
16	viel			+			+		+	

Using the electronic corpus of the German language DWDS allows us to present systematic data on the quantitative indicators of lemmas that nominate monetary relations in the German language in table 3.

Table 3. The frequency of use of lexical items, nominating monetary units, in the electronic corpus of the German language DWDS

Lemma	Absolute and relative frequency (ipm) in the main corpus of the DWDS (1900-1999)	Absolute and relative frequency (ipm) in the German-language DWDS text archive (1473-1927)
Geld	17 245 (142,05)	40 689 (185,95)

Pfennig	2 129 (17,54)	3 013 (13,77)
Taler	698 (5,75)	7 882 (36,02)
Gulden	1 044 (8,60)	5 059 (23,12)
Heller	491 (4,04)	1 548 (7,07)
Groschen	729 (6,00)	2 062 (9,42)
Batzen	3 (0,02)	403 (1,84)
Kreuzer	4 (0,03)	2 152 (9,83)
Dukaten	137 (1,13)	2 740 (12,52)

As can be seen from the table, the ipm index of lemmas that nominate monetary units is much higher in the German-language archive of texts created in the 15-20 centuries when the studied monetary units were in circulation in Germany and German-speaking countries, compared to the corpus of DWDS containing texts of the 20th century (from 1900 to 1999).

The characteristic of syntagmatic relations of lemmas that nominate monetary relations in German is shown in table 4.

Table 4. Attribute relationships of lemmas that nominate monetary units, in the electronic corpus of the German language DWDS

		Batzen	Dukaten	Geld	Groschen	Gulden	Heller	Kreuzer	Pfennig	Taler
1.	acht				+	+			+	+
2.	achtzig				+					
3.	alt				+				+	
4.	angelegt			+						
5.	bar		+							
6.	benötigt			+						
7.	blank									+
8.	deutsch								+	
9.	drei	+			+	+	+		+	+
10.	dreißig							+	+	
11.	dreitausend		+							
12.	eigen									
13.	ein paar							+		
14.	eingonnen			+						
15.	ingespart			+						
16.	einzig						+		+	
17.	entwertet	+								
18.	erst				+					+
19.	erwachsen					+				
20.	fehlend									
21.	frisch			+						
22.	fünf				+	+			+	+
23.	fünftausend									+
24.	fünfzehn				+					
25.	fünzig					+			+	
26.	ganz				+				+	+

27.	geliehen			+					
28.	geschwind								
29.	gespart			+					
30.	golden		+						+
31.	groß								
32.	gut				+				
33.	halb				+	+		+	+
34.	hart					+			+
35.	holländisch					+			
36.	hundert		+			+			+
37.	hunderttausend					+			+
38.	investiert			+					
39.	jung						+		
40.	knapp			+					
41.	letzt				+		+	+	+
42.	lieb			+					
43.	neu				+			+	
44.	neun								
45.	niederländisch					+			
46.	nötig			+					
47.	öffentlich			+					
48.	preußisch								+
49.	rheinisch					+			
50.	rot						+		
51.	schmutzig			+					
52.	schnell			+					
53.	sechs				+	+		+	+
54.	sechzehn				+				
55.	sechzig								+
56.	sieben					+		+	
57.	tausend		+			+			+
58.	teuer			+					
59.	verdient			+	+				
60.	verloren				+				
61.	vier				+	+		+	+
62.	weit							+	
63.	wirklich								+
64.	zehn				+	+	+	+	+
65.	zusätzlich			+					
66.	zwanzig				+	+		+	
67.	zwei				+	+	+	+	+
68.	zweihundert								+
69.	zwölf					+		+	

These tables indicate a much larger volume and variable nature of left-hand collocates of lemmas that nominate monetary units in the DWDS corpus, which is formed by literary works, scientific and professional texts, and newspaper articles. Sixteen varieties of collocates were recorded in the paremiological corpus, while 69 different lemmas were found in the DWDS electronic corpus that denotes monetary units in German. The nature kolokatov revealed six cases of matches of attribute

characteristics associated with the overall evaluation of reclamation and the love of money (gut, lieb), and the date of receipt of the money, the time spent to obtain a certain amount of money, supplies, deadline for receiving money (*alt, eigen, frisch, geschwind*). Differences are manifested in the attributive characteristics of nominees of monetary units in the paremiological corpus, related to the presence / absence of money (*viel, kein, klein, jährlich*), the nature of accumulation (*erspart*), the nature of receiving money (*ehrlich*). The electronic corpus mainly uses collocates that reflect the quantitative indicators of monetary units (*acht, achtzig, drei, dreißig, dreitausend, fünf, fünftausend, hundert, hunderttausend, neun, sechs, sechzehn, sechzig, sieben, tausend, vier, zehn, zwanzig, zwei, zweihundert, zwölf*), or the territory of their distribution (*deutsch, holländisch, niederländisch, preußisch, rheinisch*). This fact is explained by the functional purpose of texts that use to analyzed words' forms. The communicative and pragmatic orientation of paremiological units is primarily associated with modeling human behavior, which is reflected in ridiculing human vices (greed, evasion of the law, obtaining material profit by dishonest means) or encouraging his virtues (thrift, economical and rational attitude to business management, hard work). In the artistic, scientific, professional, or commercial discourse, the reflection of the facts of objective reality plays a significant role, in our case, it is a description of commodity-money relations between quantitative indicators and country currency distribution.

### **Conclusion**

Thus, comparison of data paroemiographic sources, as well as basic information about ethno-specific vocabulary of the German language allowed us to determine some features of nominations of the national currency units, having a number of quantitative and quality characteristics manifesting at the level of the frequency of use and in terms of co-occurrence relations at the level of syntagmatics. The identified cognitive-discursive features of lexemes that nominate monetary units in the German language can be taken into account when describing the mechanisms of formation and maintenance of identity, translation of norms and values in the German-speaking ethno-cultural society.

### **Acknowledgments**

1. The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.
2. The study was conducted with the financial support of the grant of the government of the Republic of Tatarstan "Algarysh" in 2019.

### **Bibliographic references**

- BEYER, H. 1989. Sprichwörterlexikon. Nemeckie poslovyicy i pogovorki: Sbornik. Moscow: Vysshaya shkola. ISBN: 978-5-7598-1102-2
- BOLDYREV, N.N. 2000. Kognitivnaya semantika: (Kurs lektsiy po angl. filologii): Uchebnoje posobiye. Tambov: Izd-vo TGU. ISBN 978-5382-00494-5
- DEMIANKOV, V.Z. 1994. Kognitivnaya lingvistika kak raznovidnost interpretiruyushchego podkhoda. In: Voprosy yazykoznaniya, n. 4, pp. 17-33. ISSN 0373-658X
- DEMIANKOV, V.Z. – ZABOTKINA, V.I. – POPPEL, E. 2017. Repräsentatsiya sobytij. Integrirovannyj podkhod s pozitsii kognitivnykh nauk: kollektivnaya monografiya. Moscow: Izdatelskiy dom YaSK. ISBN: 978-5-94457-309-4
- DOBROVOLESKIJ, D. 2016. Kognitive Aspekte der Idiom-Semantik. Studien zum Thesaurus deutscher Idiome. Tübingen: Narr. ISBN: 978-3-86057-368-6

- DUDEN. 2003. Deutsches Universalwörterbuch. 5., überarb. Auflage. Mannheim, Leipzig, Wien, Zürich: Dudenverlag. ISBN 10: 3411055057. ISBN 13: 9783411055050
- DUDEN. 1998. Redewendungen und sprichwörtliche Redensarten. Band 11. Mannheim, Leipzig, Wien, Zürich: Dudenverlag. ISBN 3-411-04111-0
- FEDYANINA, L.I. 2005. Kontsept Geld v nemetskoy yazykovoy kartine mira: PhD Thesis. Kemerovo.
- FILLMORE, CH.J. 1982. Frame semantics. In: *Linguistics in the morning calm: Selected papers from the SICOL*. Seoul: Hanship.
- HUSNUTDINOV, D.H. – SAGDIEVA, R.K. – SAYFULINA, F.S. – GATIN, R.G. 2019. Phraseological Units in the Tatar language containing the component of can (künel) (Soul). *XLinguae*, vol. 12, n. 2, pp. 41-50. ISSN 1337-8384
- JACKENDOFF R.S. 1983. *Semantics and cognition*. Cambridge: Cambridge Mass. ISBN 0 262 54027
- KAMYSHANCHENKO, E.A. – NERUBENKO, N.V. 2012. Sopostavitelnyy analiz poslovits i pogovorok angliyskogo i nemetskogo yazykov. reprezentiruyushchikh kontsept «dengi». In: *Filologicheskiye nauki. Voprosy teorii i praktiki*, n. 1, pp. 78-80. ISSN 1997-2911
- KAYUMOVA, A.R. – KONOPLEVA, N.V. – SAFINA, R.A. 2019. Lingvokulturologicheskie osobennosti frazeologicheskikh edinic s komponentom «ogon» v angliyskom, russkom, ispanskom, tatarskom i nemeckom yazykakh. In: *XLinguae*, vol. 12, n. 3, pp. 55-65. ISSN 1337-8384
- KIBRIK, A.A. 2003. *Analiz diskursa v kognitivnoy perspective: Doctoral Dissertation*. Moscow: RAN IYA.
- KIBRIK, A.E. 1992. *Ocherki po obshchim i prikladnym voprosam yazykoznaniya: (universalnoye. tipovoye i spetsificheskoye v yazykoznanii)*. Moscow: Izd-vo MGU. ISBN 5-211-04924-1
- KUBRYAKOVA, E.S. 2004a. Ob ustanovkakh kognitivnoy nauki i aktualnykh problemakh kognitivnoy lingvistiki. In: *Voprosy kognitivnoy lingvistiki*, n. 1, pp. 6-17. ISSN 1812-3228
- KUBRYAKOVA, E.S. 2004b. *Yazyk i znaniye: Na puti polucheniya znaniy o yazyke: Chasti rechi s kognitivnoy tochki zreniya. Rol yazyka v poznanii mira*. Moscow: Yazyki slavyanskoy kultury. ISSN 1727-1630. ISBN 5-94457-174-8
- KULKOVA, M.A. – FATTAKHOVA, N.N. – ZINECKER, TH. 2015. *Paremiological text hermeneutics (in Russian and German)*. In: *Journal of Language and Literature*. May, vol. 6, n. 2, pp. 356-360. ISSN 0963-9470
- LAKOFF, G. – JOHNSON, M. 1980. *Metaphors We Live by*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- LANGACKER, R. 1991. *Concept, imadge and symbol: The cognitive basis of grammar*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter. ISBN 3-11-012863-2
- MASLOVA, V.A. 2011. *Vvedeniye v kognitivnuyu lingvistiku: uchebnoye posobiye*. 5-e izd. Moscow: Nauka. ISBN 978-5-02-033564-6.
- RAKHILINA, E.V. 2010. *Kognitivnyy analiz predmetnykh imen: semantika i sochetayemost*. Izd. 2-e. ispr. i dop. Moscow: Azbukovnik. ISBN 978-5-91172-031-5
- SAFINA, R.A. 2002. *Frazeologicheskkiye edinitsy. vyrzhayushchiye materialno-denezhnyye otnosheniya. v nemetskom i russkom yazykakh: PhD Thesis*. Kazan: gos. un-t. Kazan.
- SIMROCK, K. 2003. *Die deutschen Sprichwörter*. Düsseldorf: Albatros Verlag. ISBN 10: 3491960800 ISBN 13: 9783491960800
- TALMY, L. 1977. Rubber-sheet cognition in language. In: *CLS*, vol. 13, pp. 612-628. ISSN 1997-2911
- ZAKHAROV, V.P. – BOGDANOVA, S.YU. 2011. *Korpusnaya lingvistika: uchebnyk dlya studentov gumanitarnykh vuzov*. Irkutsk: IGLU. ISBN 978-5-88267-316-0

ZALAVINA, T.YU. – DERINA, N.V. – POLYAKOVA, L.S. – YUZHAKOVA, Y.V. 2019. Kontsept dengi v kontekste natsionalnykh lingvokultur. In: Vestnik Kemerovskogo gosudarstvennogo universiteta, vol. 21, n. 1, pp. 191-196. ISSN 2078-8975

ZAMALETDINOV, R.R. – GABDRAKHMANOVA, F.H. – ZAMALETDINOVA, G.F. 2018. The language nomination and the turkic conceptual system (on the material of the tatar language). In: National Academy of Managerial Staff of Culture and Arts HERALD, n. 3, pp.896-898. ISSN 2226-3209

*Words: 4032*

*Characters: 26 236 (14,58 standard pages)*

Prof. Mariya A. Kulkova  
Department of theory and practice of teaching foreign languages  
Institute of Philology and Intercultural Communication  
Kazan Federal University  
420008 Kazan, Kremlyovskaya Street 18  
Russian Federation  
Mkulkowa@rambler.ru

Prof. Albina R. Shaidullina  
Department of Foreign Languages  
Almetyevsk State Oil Institute  
2 Lenin Street,  
423450 Almetyevsk,  
Russian Federation  
albina-plus@mail.ru

# The curious case of translating German modal particle *wohl* into English and Albanian

Vjosa Hamiti – Muhamet Hamiti

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.05

## Abstract

This paper shall examine the translation of the German modal particle (MP) *wohl* into English and Albanian, using a literary corpus, namely the first three chapters of Thomas Mann's *The Magic Mountain*; 80 occurrences of the MP *wohl* in German. This is of particular interest, as German is considered a language rich in particles, whereas English and Albanian are poor in this respect. MPs in German belong to the linguistic means that serve to express modality. Modality is a semantic category that expresses the speaker's attitude on the validity of the facts to which the statement relates. One could also conceive of modality as the expression of the speaker's attitude to a proposition. The object of this research paper, therefore, is to determine the equivalents in English and Albanian of German MP *wohl*. The paper establishes the palette of linguistic means available in English and Albanian, respectively, to transfer the meaning of the German MP *wohl*. The results of our corpus analysis, based on the English and Albanian translations of Mann's novel, prove that there are no direct equivalents of the German MP *wohl* in the two translating languages, but that there are varying degrees to which the speaker attitude is translated into English and Albanian.

**Key words:** modal particles (MPs), German, English, Albanian, translation, modality

---

## Introduction

„In der Tat gilt die deutsche Sprache als besonders partikelreich im Verhältnis zu anderen Sprachen; dieser Umstand führt zu Schwierigkeiten bei der Übersetzung der deutschen Partikeln, weil diese zumeist keine direkten Äquivalente in anderen Sprachen haben.“ (Helbig, 1994: 11)<sup>1</sup>

As Helbig's statement above indicates, German has a considerable number of words that are virtually untranslatable into languages that are poor in terms of particles compared to German. Particles cannot be readily equated to other uninflected words such as prepositions, conjunctions, adverbs, and interjections. The literature on German particles – focussing on semantic, pragmatic, translational, didactic, and lexicographical aspects – is very extensive (Thurmair, 1989; Beerboom, 1992; Meibauer, 1994, Helbig, 1998; Diewald, 2006, etc.).

Erben (1980: 178) translates the Latin *particula* into German as *unveränderliche Rede-teilchen* (invariant speech components). By virtue of this translation, he exposes two important features of particles: on the one hand, they are invariant, and, on the other, they occur mainly in spoken language. Many contrastive research articles and translation comparisons of German texts translated into other languages suggest that

---

<sup>1</sup> Our translation: In fact, the German language is considered to be particularly particle-rich in relation to other languages; this circumstance leads to difficulties in translating German particles, because these usually have no direct equivalents in other languages.

modal particles (MPs) are found exclusively or predominantly in German (Weydt, 1969, Feyrer, 1998; Braber, 2006). This body of scholarship has shown that for a German MP often no equivalent is found, giving the first impression that MPs exist in German only. As Waltereit (2001: 1392) observes, “it seems difficult to conceive of the function of MPs as being restricted to particular languages.” Thus, English and Albanian languages, for instance, which lack such particles, must have “other means for expressing the same thing.” Fischer (2000: 27) maintains that English tag questions have been used as translation equivalents for German MPs.

MPs in German belong to the linguistic means that serve to express modality. According to Bußmann (2008: 442) modality is a semantic category that expresses the speaker's attitude on the validity of the facts to which the statement relates. The speaker's attitude is the opinion of the speaker on what is expressed. One could also conceive of modality as the expression of the speaker's attitude to a proposition. For Bublitz (1978: 9), speaker attitude is the modal attitude of the speaker “[...] which refers to his views, attitudes, expectations, assumptions, emotions and that of his listener as well as to the respective social role distribution”.<sup>2</sup> Epistemic modality in German is mainly expressed on the lexical level – such as through MPs. In other languages, however, syntactic, morphological, and phonetic levels are employed to convey this effect.

In our paper, we work on the basis of Calbert's idea that it is reasonable to assume the existence of a basic system of modality, which is realized in various ways in different languages:

“By a basic system of modality, we understand the types of semantic relationship realized in language by modal verbs, moods, and a variety of syntactico-semantic structures involving for example non-modal verbs (such as *verba dicendi*) and certain adverbs, which express various degrees of “possibility” or “necessity”, whether as the modality of the propositional content of the utterance itself, or as the modality, within the speech context, of the attitude of the speaker or somebody else toward the likelihood of the information reported in the utterance.” (Calbert, 1975: 1)

The purpose of our paper is to establish the palette of linguistic means available in English and Albanian, respectively, to transfer the meaning of the German MP *wohl*. It will be of interest to establish which language means are used since both languages have no direct equivalents of the German MP *wohl*. We shall examine how the speaker's attitude is translated into both languages.

### **Methodology and Corpus**

Although MPs had in the past been considered indicative of lousy style and used mainly in spoken language, Weydt (1969) asserts that famous German-language writers such as Goethe, Schiller, Kafka, Thomas Mann, etc., used MPs in their works. Goethe used the MP *denn* very frequently (Weydt, 1969: 84). Thomas Mann used particles for characterization; the particle *effektiv* (actually) is used extensively by the

---

<sup>2</sup> For emotion and emotive language see Braber, 2006.

character Senator Hagenström in his novel *Buddenbrooks*. The narrator's reflections in Mann's *Joseph und seine Brüder* abound in the use of particles (Weydt, 1969: 86). Franck (1980: 30) labels this the *Image- Funktion* of style, which implies that the frequent or specific use of a particular MP points the hearer to certain characteristics of the speaker, and she speculates whether the use of MPs in such a manner could indicate insecurity, aggressiveness, dominance, etc. Hentschel (2010: 115), in her research work on the usage of MPs in eleven theatrical plays from three centuries, concludes that their usage is considerably high, adding that there is indeed something like the "particle profile" of a literary text.

The corpus selected for this paper consists of 80 occurrences of the MP *wohl* in German in the first three chapters of Thomas Mann's novel, *The Magic Mountain*. We have used a corpus analysis to examine English and Albanian translations of the MP *wohl* in Thomas Mann's novel *Der Zauberberg* (2012, first published in 1924) and its translation into English (*The Magic Mountain*, translated by John E. Woods, 2005) and Albanian (*Mali magjik*, translated by Afrim Koçi, 2009), the latter the only translation in the language. There are two famous translations of this novel into English, done decades apart, but this one, originally published in 1995, is considered more accurate.<sup>3</sup>

We have opted for English and Albanian translations (rather than French or other translations) because English belongs to the Germanic language family, whereas Albanian, while part of the Indo-European family, just like German and English, forms a subgroup of its own, being neither Latin, nor Slavic or Germanic in its roots.<sup>4</sup>

### Overview of research on MPs

MPs in German are distinguished by their brevity (Weydt, 1969), which has made German linguists call them variously "kleinen Wörter" (little words), "Flickwörter" (flick words), "farblose Redefüllsel" (colourless speech fillets), "Würzwörter" (spice up words), "Läuse am Pelz unserer Sprache" (lice on the fur of our language).<sup>5</sup> MPs had been ignored by linguists for a long time, as they were considered to be of particularly "low-importance" and were treated as if they had no function (Baerentzen 1989: 19). However, Helbig (1994) draws attention to their communicative importance. With the "communicative-pragmatic turn" (in the 1970s), particles and especially MPs gained in importance in German linguistics. Beerbom (1992) rightly calls this time the 'particle boom'. Harald Weydt's (1969) dissertation on the particles is seen by many linguists as a ground-breaking work and trend-setting in German particle research. German particles and especially MPs are considered to be particularly "meaningless" in linguistics. This makes the description of the semantic aspect of MPs not an easy task. They often express - sometimes even crucial - communicative nuances which (even if they often add little factual information to the statement) should by no means be considered insignificant because they: make the language juicy, express a certain 'anchoring', and indicate how the interlocutors relate to each other, as well as the conditions and expected reactions (see Helbig, 1994: 12-

---

<sup>3</sup> See the first translation: Thomas Mann, *The Magic Mountain*, translated by H. T. Lowe-Porter, Secker & Warburg, London, 1971 [1928].

<sup>4</sup> More for the Albanian language see: Newmark et al., 1982; Buchholz-Fiedler, 1987; Breu, 2009, 2010.

<sup>5</sup> For more, see Reiners, 1943; Thiel, 1962; Bublitz, 1978; Beerbom 1992.

13). Heringer (1988: 739) maintains that the semantic description of particles is difficult, underlining that explicit paraphrases appear to be especially problematic. Meanwhile, Helbig (1994) draws attention to the fact that this is not a reason for their communicative insignificance because they often express communicative nuances. According to him, particles control the conversation and anchor it in the context of interaction (Helbig, 1994: 12-13).

The fact that particles are very common, especially in the spoken language, and that they fulfil different functions, is emphasized by DUDEN-Grammatik (2016), which states as follows:

[...] Als Gradpartikeln geben sie Auskunft über die Intensität von Eigenschaften, als Fokuspartikeln heben sie bestimmte Teile eines Satzes hervor, als Negationspartikeln verneinen sie einen Satz oder Teilsatz, als Abtönungspartikeln geben sie Auskunft über die subjektive Einstellung ‚die Haltung des Sprechers‘ zum geäußerten Sachverhalt, als Gesprächspartikeln steuern sie den Ablauf von Dialogen, als Interjektionen dienen sie dem Ausdruck von Emotionen, und als Onomatopoeitika imitieren sie Geräusche. (DUDEN-Grammatik, 2016: 588)<sup>6</sup>

Our paper draws on the division of the particles that DUDEN-Grammatik (2016) makes, which has uninflected parts of speech as a generic term. Beerbom (1992) is also of the view that particles should have “Nichtflektierbarkeit” (uninflected) as a generic term. For Beerbom (1992: 24) particles are not a type of word as the others, but a so-called “recycle bin category” for very heterogeneous elements. Diewald observes that “[a]mong non-inflecting linguistic items, membership in a specific word class is primarily defined via functional criteria, with concomitant morphosyntactic features providing additional criteria” (Diewald, 2006: 406).

According to *Grammatik der deutschen Sprache* (Zifonun et al., 1997: 1209) the German word-class MPs covers a core area of 16 words: *aber, auch, bloß, denn, doch, eben, etwa, halt, ja, mal, man (regional), nicht, nur, schon, vielleicht* and *wohl* as well as a border area of 6 words: *eh, eigentlich, einfach, erst, ruhig* and *überhaupt*. As we can see, the word-class MP is clearly delineated.<sup>7</sup> According to Weydt (2010: 12) German MPs are very language-specific. They occur only in a limited number of languages; for speakers of other language communities, they are particularly difficult to understand, to grasp, to learn, and to use actively. In the linguistic literature on German, the MPs are named differently. In addition to modal particle (Abtönungspartikeln), they are also referred to as *modale Partikel* (Krivonossov, 1977: 40), *Modalpartikeln* (Bublitz, 1987: 10), *Satzpartikeln* (Hartmann, 1979:121), *Einstellungspartikeln* (Doherty, 1985: 62).

---

<sup>6</sup> Our translation: [...] As degree particles they give information about the intensity of properties, as focus articles they emphasize certain parts of a sentence, as negation particles they deny a sentence or subset, as MPs they give information about the subjective attitude, the ‘attitude of the speaker’, as an object of conversation, as conversation particles they control the course of dialogues, as interjections they serve the expression of emotions, and as onomatopoeitics they mimic noises.

<sup>7</sup> For more, see Weydt, Hentschel, 1983 “Kleines Abtönungswörterbuch” and Helbig ,1994 “Lexikon deutscher Partikel”.

MPs are no longer referred to as filler words, as in the past. They express very different attitudes, assumptions, assessments, and expectations of the speaker with regard to expressed facts, and, in part, also the speaker's expectations of the listener. MPs do not refer to individual phrases, but to the predicate and thus to the entire sentence. They have different types of functions that are not primarily semantic but rather communicative (for more see Helbig, Buscha, 2001)

MPs have the following morphological and syntactic features<sup>8</sup>:

- MPs are uninflected und unstressed words. Lexemes functioning as MPs do not inflect even if their heterosemes do. This is a feature MPs share with all other particles of German;
- MPs refer to the entire sentence. Because of these functions, most MPs are fixed to specific types of sentences (statements, demands and questions). They do not have referential meaning. Very often, this feature sets them in sharp contrast to their heterosemes in the class of adjectives or adverbs;
- MPs are syntactically restricted to the midfield;
- MPs very often display an affinity with a particular sentence type, either with structural types, or with illocutionary types, or with complex constructions, in German called *Satzmodi* (sentential moods);
- MPs cannot answer questions;
- MPs have *sentential* scope or *utterance* scope (illocutionary scope); they have the widest scope of all sententially-integrated particles. Therefore, they cannot function as the reference point of a negation particle;
- MPs cannot build phrases;
- MPs are combinable.

The word-class of particles and especially MPs are different/specific in every language. They have various kinds of affixes or function words, and this is why this class of words must be defined separately for each language:

“The fact that the function of MPs is a grammatical function in German, of course, does not mean that it must be realized as a grammatical function in other languages, or that this function must be expressed by a separate set of items in a language at all.” (Diewald, 2013: 36)

To sum up: we can say 1) that particles are (single) words, which have no dissecting (lexical), deictic, or word class meaning, but they do have semantic content which they deploy in connection with other elements of the utterance, and 2) that MPs and related linguistic elements are used as specific instruments for the partners' cooperation, helping them make the actual intention of an utterance clear and assign its function in the developing interplay.

## **Albanian**

Unlike German, Albanian does not have a word-class for MPs. However, the Albanian language system has a word group of particles classified as invariable parts

---

<sup>8</sup> For more see Weydt, 1969; Thurmair, 1989; Abraham, 1991b; Helbig, 1994; König, 1997; Zifonun et al., 1997; Helbig, Buscha, 2001; Molnár, 2002; Möllering, 2004; Autenrieth, 2005; Hentschel, Weydt, 2013; Diewald, 2013.

of speech. They impart an additional meaningful or emotional coloring of a word or a sentence. In Albanian (Agalliu et al., 2002, Buchholz, Fiedler, 1987) some words that originally belonged to other parts of speech, but over time have lost their lexical and grammatical features, are seen as belonging to the word group of particles. They have long been used as a means of forming grammatical word forms, such as: *u, do, të, me, për, pa, duke* and *më*. Because of their unspecified meaning, particles resemble the morphologically bound particles that are firmly bound to the verb forms: *le, mund, dot, a, në, po, nuk, mos*. In Buchholz, Fiedler (1987: 392), they are regarded as “morphological or morphological tendencies”. In this grammar, they are treated as verb forms.<sup>9</sup>

The word class of particles does not signal syntactic relationships and has no independent lexical meaning. Particles have referential or complementary functions in a sentence. Their lexical meaning is conditioned by the context in the sentence. Like in German, particles are mainly used in the spoken language in Albanian.

### English

In English, just like in Albanian, there is no word class of the sort of German MPs. This does not mean that the speaker would not be able to perform this function verbally in English. In English-language literature, this type of phrase is called variously: *pragmatic markers, discourse particles, discourse markers, interpersonal markers, argumentative markers*, etc.<sup>10</sup>

However, these phrases cannot be equated with the German MPs. This is explained by Cuenca (2013):

[...] discourse markers are a set of expressions that include different word classes. The same can be said of modal markers and, among them, of MPs. Waltreit (2001), for instance, convincingly argues that the functions of German MPs can be equivalent to the effects created by lexical and morphological devices in English or Romance languages, which lack for such particles. (Cuenca, 2013: 195)

Meanwhile, this is how Diewald (2006) explains the difference between discourse markers and MPs:

[...] MPs, which are an important grammatical device of contemporary spoken discourse, cover an intermediate domain between the functions of text-connecting elements such as conjunctions and conjunctive adverbs on the one hand, and discourse-structuring elements such as turn signals, hesitation markers, etc., on the other. That is to say, MPs are treated here as the link between strictly textual functions and strictly discourse-relational functions. Taking into account that languages like English, which have been the object of extensive research concerning their discourse marking devices, do not have a functional class comparable to MPs in German, the latter

---

<sup>9</sup> For more see Buchholz, Fiedler 1997: 64-70.

<sup>10</sup> On the differences and similarities between MPs and discourse particles see also Weydt, 2006; Abraham, 1991; Molnár, 2002, Haselow, 2011.

might even be called the ‘missing link’ to deepen our understanding of the interrelations between ‘text-connecting’ and ‘discourse-marking’ elements. (Diewald, 2006: 408)

In short, scholarship so far has validated the idea that there is a distinction between discourse markers and MPs, but there is no agreement on terminology. The object of our paper is to examine how translators into languages which are lacking in MPs, English and Albanian, have grappled with the difficulty of rendering the meaning of German MPs in the respective languages.

### **Problems with the translation of German MPs**

The difficulty of translating MPs has long been recognized in translation theoretic studies.<sup>11</sup>

These studies offer valuable insights, but a mere observation of what translators do does not resolve the crucial question of what are the specific linguistic properties of the chosen equivalents, that enable them to perform the same function as the translated particle. (Waltereit, 2001: 1393)

It is generally impossible to translate these particles into a different language with single, specific functional equivalents, as pointed out by Weydt (1969). In truth, while there are no word-to-word equivalents in these cases, the connotation and the subjective coloring of the propositions have to be translated (see also Krivosov, 1989: 32). MPs have no lexical meanings per se, but meanings that refer to whole sentences and color them subjectively. Therefore, German MPs cannot be explicitly translated, but propositions and speaker attitudes must be taken into account (For more see Krivosov, 1989: 32-33).

Die Abtönungspartikeln können Träger pragmatischer „Bedeutungen“ werden. In diesen Fällen muss die pragmatische Funktion Ziel der fremdsprachlichen Wiedergabe sein. Sie muss in partikelarmen Sprachen mit den spezifischen Mitteln der Zielsprache erreicht werden, in den meisten Fällen gar nicht mit Hilfe von Partikeln. (Weydt, 1989: 247)<sup>12</sup>

As Weydt's quote suggests, the problem of the translatability of German MPs in other languages is due to two points. On the one hand, the pragmatic meaning has to be translated into the target language, and on the other hand, in poor-particle languages, other means of language should be used to reproduce the same meaning in the target language. This is why the German MPs are based on a pragmatically-oriented translation concept. The pragmatic aspect takes into account the primacy of the purpose and the efficient equivalence and considers the communicative-functional aspect of the text as the translation's starting point. In such cases, the meaning that has developed in the interaction between MPs and context can be well rendered.

---

<sup>11</sup> See the studies of Stolze, 1982; Weydt, 1989; Beerbom, 1992; Liefländer-Koistinen, 2004.

<sup>12</sup> Our translation: MPs can become carriers of pragmatic ‘meanings’. In these cases, the pragmatic function must be the goal of the foreign language reproduction. It must be achieved in particle-poor languages using the specific resources of the target language, in most cases not with the help of particles.

Translation of MPs is not about word equivalency, but rather about (con)text equivalence. As (Feyrer, 1998: 107) suggests, the context must be fully considered in the translation work.

Therefore, the greatest challenge remains for the translator because he/she has to convey a modal meaning in the target language. Stolze (1982: 356) makes it clear that it is not the text structure that is translated, but the underlying, over-summative sense of the whole, where the whole is more than the sum of its parts.

Translation of MPs is not only about a language transfer but, above all, a cultural transfer.<sup>13</sup> As a result, the translator assumes the role of a mediator between the cultures of the source and target languages. Stolze (1992: 35) calls this “double enculturation.”

In translation practice between a rich-particle language (German) and poor-particle languages (e.g., English or Albanian), null correspondences may also be considered as adequate correspondences for MPs, if the modality expressed by these elements is rendered through other means.

### **Contrastive analysis of *wohl***

Let us determine the meaning of the MP *wohl*<sup>14</sup> in German before conducting the corpus analysis. Previous research indicates this modal particle is used to express presumption. Molnár (2002:72) describes MPs as “Hypothesenfunktor” (‘hypotheses functor’). Obviously, the speaker’s attitude should be conveyed in the other language. A lot of scholarship in the field suggests the MP *wohl* when rendered in English is used for toning down – expressing *I think/suppose/should imagine* – as well as expectation which is rendered by means of *I expect, no doubt, by any chance*. MPs have several meanings, i.e. they can express several statements. This can occur in determination questions, decision questions, dependent decision questions, and assertion sentences. Evidence has shown that the epistemic modality in German reinforces the epistemic speaker’s attitude.

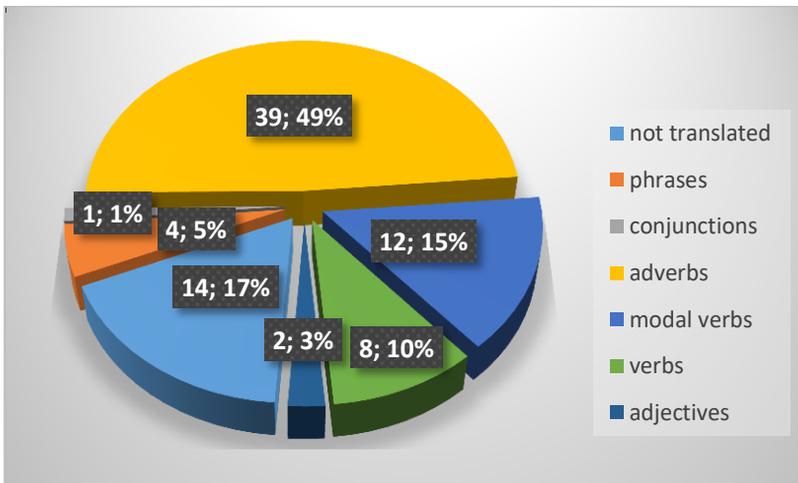
*The Concise Oxford - Duden German Dictionary* (1998) features the following description of the MP *wohl*: the first meaning is *wohl* as an adverb, which is translated into English as *well*. Whereas as an article, two possibilities are given: (a) probably, and (b) reinforcing a sentence. Meanwhile, Ali Dhrimo/Hamlet Bezhani’s dictionary *Deutsch - Albanisches Wörterbuch/Fjalori Gjermanisht - Shqip* (1996) translates *wohl* as an adverb and provides variants of its usage in German where *wohl*’s function is not of an adverb, but instead of an MP.

Our corpus analysis for this paper reveals that the palettes of words that have been used in translation in the two languages – English and Albanian – are very different. Therefore, before conducting the analysis of the corpus, let’s bring the charts here.

---

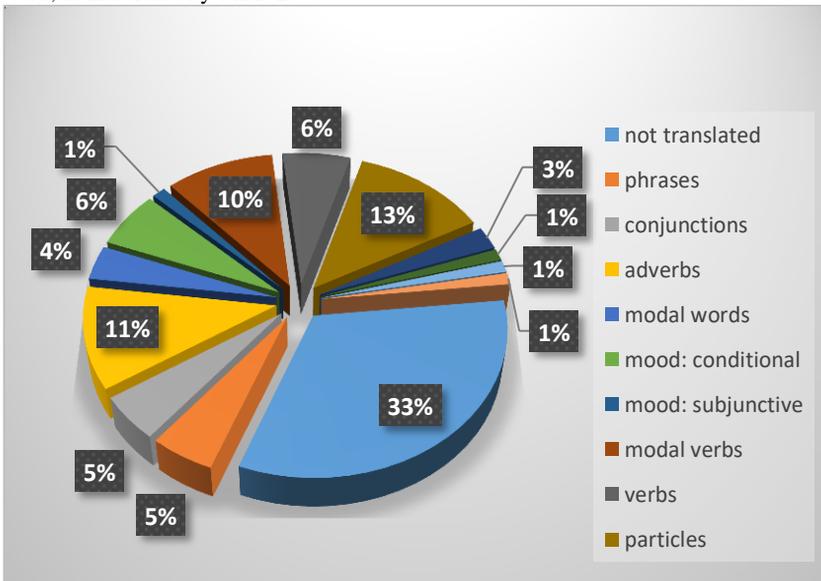
<sup>13</sup> More for “cultural transfer” see Bednarova-Gibova, 2017.

<sup>14</sup> The article by Asbach-Schnittker, 1977 provides a comprehensive description of this MP.



**Chart 1. English translations of the German MP *wohl***

Meanwhile, in Albanian these linguistic means have been used to translate the MP *wohl*, as illustrated by Chart 2:



**Chart 2. Albanian translations of the German MP *wohl***

The analysis shows that the MP *wohl* has not been translated at all into English in 14 cases, amounting to 14.17 % of the corpus. In Albanian, this number is higher, 26 cases, or 33 %. Such instances lead one to the conclusion that the epistemic modality has been lost in both English and Albanian languages during the translation process. The following examples illustrate this:

1. Hans Castorp hatte den Großvater zu Anfang von dessen letzter Krankheit *wohl* mehrmals, gegen das Ende hin aber nicht mehr gesehen. (p. 51)
  - 1.a. Hans Castorp had seen his grandfather several times in the early stages of his last illness, but then no more toward the end. (p. 30)
  - 1.b. Hans Kastorpi e kishte parë shpesh gjyshin para kësaj sëmundjeje të fundit, por asnjë herë përpara fundit të saj. (p. 44)
2. „Gute Nacht!” und „Erfriere nur nicht!” und „Zum Frühstück holst du mich ja *wohl* wieder” und schwankte über den Korridor in sein Zimmer hinüber. (p. 126)
  - 2.a. “Good night. Don't freeze out there, and call me again for breakfast” - and staggered out to the corridor and into his room. (p. 104)
  - 2.b. Së fundi u ngrit nga kolltuku, e hodhi përsëri mbi krevat batanijen e Joahimit, mërmëriti me një gojë të shpërvjelur “natën e mirë!” dhe “kujdes me sos ftohesh!” dhe “nesër eja të më marrësh përsëri” dhe u kalamend nëpër korridor drejt dhomës së vet. (p. 145)

It should be underscored that cases, when MP *wohl* has not been translated, are not the same in both languages. In (3.a) the speaker's attitude has been translated into English with the verb *assume*, whereas in Albanian (3.b) it has not been transferred at all.

3. „Wir essen *wohl* gleich? Mir scheint, ich habe Hunger. Isst man denn anständig bei euch hier oben?” (p. 32)
  - 3.a. I *assume* we'll be eating soon? I think I'm getting hungry. Do they feed you properly up here?” (p. 11)
  - 3.b. Do të hamë tani shpejt? Më duket se më ka marrë uria. Hahet mirë tek ju këtu lart? (p. 19)

Chart 1. indicates that adverbs have been used most, in 39 cases, or in 36.49 % of the total corpus when translating the MP *wohl* into English. Chart 2. indicates that adverbs have been used in Albanian translation only 9 times, or in 11% of the corpus:

4. Hauptsächlich aber war es doch *wohl* für den Alten bezeichnend, der ohne Frage die eigentliche Charakterfigur, die malerische Persönlichkeit in der Familie gewesen war. (p. 47)
  - 4.a. Probably the most significant factor, *however*, was that without question the old man had been the central figure in the family, its picturesque personality. (p. 26)
  - 4.b. *Duhet thënë* se këto ndjenja i zgjonte edhe vetë gjyshi, pa dyshim figura me karakterin më të mirëfilltë, personaliteti më piktoresk në familje. (p. 39)
5. Weder das eine noch das andere war Hans Castorps Fall, und so war er denn doch *wohl* mittelmäßig, wenn auch in einem recht ehrenwerten Sinn. (p. 58)
  - 5.a. Neither the former nor the latter was the case with Hans Castorp, and he *probably* was mediocre after all, though in a very honorable sense of that word. (p. 37)
  - 5.b. Hans Kastorpi nuk e kishte as njërën, as tjetrën dhe nuk *mund të ishte* pra veçse një i rëndomtë, ndonëse në një kuptim tepër pozitiv. (p. 54)

Modal verbs play an important role during translation into both languages. In English, they have been used 12 times, or in 12.15% of the corpus. In Albanian in 8 cases, or

in 8.10 % of the corpus. For example (6.a.) the modal word *may*, and the adverb *well* have been used to enforce the epistemic modality. This example in Albanian sees the usage of the modal word *ka të ngjarë*. In the examples (4.b) and (5.b.), modal verbs *mund* and *duhet* have been used.

6. [...]gefriedete Stille solcher hallender Orte glaubte er zu hören; geistliche Empfindungen mischten sich mit denen des Todes und der Geschichte beim Klang der dumpfen Silbe, und dies alles mutete den Knaben irgendwie wohl tuend an, ja, es mochte *wohl* sein, daß er um des Lautes willen, um ihn zu hören und nachzusprechen, gebeten hatte, die Taufschale wieder einmal betrachten zu dürfen. (p. 46)

6.a. At the sound of those somber syllables, religious feelings got mixed up with a sense of death and history, and all of it together somehow left the boy with a pleasant sensation - indeed, it *may well* have been that it was solely for the sake of that sound, just to hear it and join in reciting it, that he had once again asked to be allowed to see the baptismal bowl (p. 25)

6.b. Tek dëgjonte atë tingull të kësaj rrokjeje të mbytur ndjenjat e shpirtit të tij përziheshin me ndijimin e vdekjes dhe të historisë dhe të gjitha këto sikur i bënë mirë djalit dhe *ka të ngjarë* që ai ndaj edhe të ishte lutur që t'ia tregonin edhe një herë kupën, për hir të atij tingulli, për ta dëgjuar dhe shkërbyer atë. (p. 37)

In both languages, phrases have also been used in translating the modality of the German MP *wohl*. In each of the two languages, phrases have been used four times, or in 4.5% of the overall corpus. In the example 7.a the phrase in English is *at least*. In Albanian, this example has been translated with the particle *thujajse*.

7. Es schimmerte weiß im Saale vor lauter Milch: an jedem Platz stand ein großes Glas, *wohl* ein halber Liter voll. »Nein«, sagte Hans Castorp, als er wieder an seinem [...] (p. 100)

7.a. The room glistened with white from all the milk - a large glass at every place, *a good pint of it at least*. "No," Hans Castorp said, taking his seat again at the end of the table between the seamstress. (p. 78)

7.b. Salla dukej si e zbardhur nga qumështi i shumtë nëpër tryeza: pothuaj para çdo karrigeje ishte vënë një gotë e madhe, *thujajse* gjysmë litroshe me qumësht. (p. 110)

Meanwhile, in example 8, phrases have been used in both languages for transferring epistemic modality:

8. Da der Aufenthalt Ihnen nicht zuträglich zu sein scheint, da Sie sich körperlich und, wenn mich nicht alles täuscht, auch seelisch nicht *wohl* bei uns befinden, - wie wäre es denn da, wenn Sie darauf verzichteten, hier älter zu werden, kurz, wenn Sie noch heute nacht wieder aufpackten und sich morgen mit den fahrplanmäßigen Schnellzügen auf- und davonmachen?« (p. 123)

8.a. Since your stay here appears not to be good for you - neither physically *nor, if I am not mistaken, mentally* - how would it be, if you were to forgo the pleasure of growing older here, in short, if you were to pack your things tonight and be on your way with one of the scheduled express trains tomorrow morning?" (p. 101)

8.b. Në qoftë se qëndrimi këtu nuk po u shkon për shtat, meqenëse si trupërisht, *por siç më duket mua*, edhe shpirtërisht nuk ndjeheni mirë tek ne, si thoni sikur të hiqni dorë nga moçnimi këtu, shkurt, sikur që sonte në mbrëmje

të mblihdni plaçkat dhe nesër në mëngjes t'ia mbathni me trenin e parë? (p. 123)

Verbs have been used in both languages for the translation of MP *wohl*. In English, they have been used 8 times, or in 8.10% of the corpus, whereas in Albanian 5 times or in 6% of the corpus.

9. „Wir sind *wohl* wirklich etwas versimpelt. Aber man kann sich schließlich wieder zusammenreißen.” (p. 88)

9.a. “We do become rather tedious, *I suppose*. But one can always pull oneself together again.” (p. 66)

9.b. *Është e vërtetë* që jemi fundosur ca, por me disa përpjekje edhe mund të ngrihemi përsëri. (p. 94)

Adjectives have been used twice, or in 2.3 % of the corpus, to translate the MP *wohl*:

10. Das war schade, denn dem kleinen Hans Castorp gefiel es besonders *wohl*, wie der Großvater das Kinn in die hohe, schneeweiße Binde lehnte; noch in der Erinnerung, als er erwachsen war, gefiel es ihm ausgezeichnet: es lag etwas darin, was er aus dem Grund seines Wesens billigte. (p. 44)

10.a. What a shame that was, because little Hans Castorp was *delighted* by the way his grandfather could rest his chin in the high, snow-white necktie; and even as an adult, the memory of it pleased him no end - there was something about it that found approval in the very depth of his soul. (p. 23)

10.b. Por sa keq; se Hans Kastorpi të vogël i pëlqente *aq shumë* se si gjyshi mbështeste mjekrën në jakën e lartë dhe dëborë të bardhë. Edhe kur u rrit kënaqej pa masë kur i kujtohej kjo gjë. Kishte aty diçka që e pëlqente vetë thelbi i genies së tij. (p. 34)

In Albanian conjunctions have been used 4 times, or in 5% of the corpus, whereas in English only once, or in 1.1% of the corpus:

11. Hans Castorp hatte den Großvater zu Anfang von dessen letzter Krankheit *wohl* mehrmals, gegen das Ende hin aber nicht mehr gesehen. (p. 51)

11.a. Hans Castorp had seen his grandfather several times in the early stages of his last illness, *but* then no more toward the end. (p. 30)

11.b. Hans Kastorpi e kishte parë shpesh gjyshin para kësaj sëmundjeje të fundit, *por* asnjë herë përpara fundit të saj. (p. 44)

As shown by Chart 2., the Albanian has a wider palette of linguistic means to translate the MP *wohl*. Grammatical moods occupy a special place in Albanian. The results of the analysis demonstrate this: the conditional mood has been used 5 times or in 6% (12.b.), whereas the optative (13.b.) and the subjunctive (14.b.) only 1 time each, or in 1 % of the corpus.

12. Na, und auf der gereizten Haut tut das Salzwasser natürlich weh, da war er *wohl* vom Dienst her gewöhnt, Coldcream anzuwenden, es fällt mir nichts auf daran. [...] (p. 33)

12.a. And, of course, salt water does smart on chafed skin, so he *probably* got in the habit of using cold cream while he was in the service, that doesn't seem at all peculiar to me. (p. 13)

12.b. [...] është e vërtetë që në një lëkurë të acaruar lëngu i kripur të djeg, këtë ai *do ta kishte ditur* nga shërbimi i tij, por përdorimi i goldkremit nuk do të më kishte shkuar ndërmend, të them të drejtën [...] (p. 21)

13. „Nun, so schlafen Sie denn *wohl*, Herr Castorp, - im Volle- fühl Ihrer untadeligen Gesundheit! Schlafen Sie *wohl* und auf Wiedersehn!” - Damit entließ er die jungen Leute und setzte sich wieder zu seiner Zeitung nieder. (p. 40)

13.a. “In that case, sleep *well*, Herr Castorp - in full enjoyment of your impeccable health. Sleep *well*, and I'm sure we'll see more of one another.” And then he dismissed the young men and sat back down to his newspaper. (p. 19)

13.b. Atëherë *bëfshi* gjumë të embël, zoti Kastorp, me vetëdijen e shëndetit tuaj të përkryer! Gjumë të ëmbël dhe mirupafshim!,- me këto fjalë ai i la djemtë dhe shkoi e u ul sërish për të lexuar gazetën. (p. 30)

14. Das humanistische Gymnasium, - nennen Sie mich rückschrittlich, Ingenieur, aber grundsätzlich, in abstracto, ich bitte, mich *wohl* zu verstehen, bleibe ich sein Anhänger [...] (p. 96)

14.a. Schools based on humanistic education -you may call me backward if you like, sir, but on principle and in abstracto, do understand me *correctly*, I beg you - I remain their firm supporter [...] (p. 74)

14.b. Gjumnazi klasik, - mund të më quani të prapambetur, inxhinier i dashur, por në parim, in abstracto, ju lutem *të më kuptoni*, unë mbetem ithtar i tij [...] (p. 105)

Particles have been used in Albanian 10 times, or in 13% of the corpus (15.b.) for transferring the epistemic modality in this language. Meanwhile, modal words have been used 3 times, or in 4% of the corpus (16.b.).

15. „Gar nicht zynisch”, antwortete Joachim achselzuckend. „Wieso denn? Das ist den Leichen doch einerlei . . . Übrigens kann es *wohl* sein, daß man zynisch wird hier bei uns. (p. 30)

15.a. “That's not cynical at all,” Joachim replied with a shrug. “Why do you say that? It doesn't matter to the bodies. All the same, *it may well be* that we do get cynical up here. (p. 10)

15. b. Pse cinik? - u përgjigj Joahimi duke mbledhur supet, - ku e sheh cinizmin? Sidoqoftë, në një farë mënyre kufomat do të duhej ... por, *mbase* edhe mund ta pranojmë që këtu lart njeriu bëhet cinik. (p. 17)

16. [...]gefriedete Stille solcher hallender Orte glaubte er zu hören; geistliche Empfindungen mischten sich mit denen des Todes und der Geschichte beim Klang der dumpfen Silbe, und dies alles mutete den Knaben irgendwie *wohl* tuend an, ja, es mochte *wohl* sein, daß er um des Lautes willen, um ihn zu hören und nachzusprechen, gebeten hatte, die Taufschale wieder einmal betrachten zu dürfen. (p. 46)

16.a. At the sound of those somber syllables, religious feelings got mixed up with a sense of death and history, and all of it together somehow left the boy with a pleasant sensation - indeed, *it may well* have been that it was solely for the sake of that sound, just to hear it and join in reciting it, that he had once again asked to be allowed to see the baptismal bowl (p. 25)

16.b. Tek dëgjonte atë tingull të kësaj rrokjeje të mbytur ndjenjat e shpirtit të tij përziheshin me ndijimin e vdekjes dhe të historisë dhe të gjitha këto sikur i bënin mirë djalit dhe *ka të ngjarë* që ai ndaj edhe të ishte lutur që t' ia

trigonin edhe një herë kupën, për hir të atij tingulli, për ta dëgjuar dhe shkërbyer atë. (p. 37)

In one case (17.b.) a preposition has been used, whereas in another the noun *gjasë* which expresses probability (18.b.) for the transfer of epistemic modality which in the original German has been expressed with MP *wohl*:

17. [...] Leichtsinziges, was sich ihren Mienen, ihrer ganzen Erscheinung mitteilte, so daß man *wohl* wünschen konnte, zu ihnen zu gehören. (p. 78)

17.a. [...] there was a kind of nimble frivolity to their gait, which spread even to their faces, until the whole effect *might* very well have made you want to join their party. (p. 57)

17.b. [...] ecja e tyre kishte diçka frymëzuese dhe të shkujdesur, gjë që e shprehnin më së miri fytyrat dhe *që* të zgjonte dëshirën për të qenë pjesë e tyre. (p. 81)

18. Auch mochte *wohl* sein, daß Stabsarzt Dr. Eberding, der am Harvestehuder Weg verkehrte, von Consul Tienappel gesprächsweise gehört hatte, daß der junge Castorp in der Nötigung sich zu bewaffnen eine empfindliche Störung seiner soeben auswärts begonnenen Studien erblicken würde. (p. 61)

18.a. It may *also* be that Dr. Eberding, the staff surgeon, who was a regular on Harvestehuder Weg, had heard in casual conversation with Consul Tienappel that young Castorp, having just left for the university, would regard being forced to bear arms as a serious disruption in his studies. (p. 40)

18.b. Por mund të ketë shumë *gjasë* edhe që mjeku ushtarak, doktor Eberdingu, që banonte në rrugën Havershtuder, ta kishte dëgjuar konsullin Tinapel të thoshte se detyrimin për tu thirrur nën armë djaloshi Kastorp do ta kishte përjetuar si një goditje të ndjeshme ndaj studimeve të tij që sapo kishin filluar të merrnin për mbarë. (p. 57)

## Conclusions

German MPs are translatable, not as word equivalency but as textual equivalence, as scholarship has established, and our analysis of the corpus of MP *wohl* translated into English and Albanian has corroborated. Palettes of different linguistic means are available to these two languages poor in MPs compared to German.

Both English and Albanian translators have used adjectives, adverbs, verbs, modal verbs, phrases, and conjunctions to transfer the epistemic modality of German *wohl* in the translations of Thomas Mann's *The Magic Mountain*.

The Albanian language has a broader palette of linguistic means to transfer German MP *wohl*'s nuances of meanings; the selected corpus has shown. Albanian uses the grammatical moods: conditional, subjunctive, and optative. Besides, the Albanian translator uses particles, modal words, prepositions, and nouns to transfer the epistemic modality of *wohl*.

The corpus analysis shows that in 14.17 % of the cases in English, and in 33 % of the cases in Albanian, the epistemic modality of the German *wohl* has not been transferred at all.

In view of the present research work and its outcome, we can conclude that the Albanian translator has not made adequate use of the otherwise wide palette of linguistic means available in his language to transfer the subjective coloring of the MP *wohl*.

It is up to the translator to make use of the most appropriate linguistic means as he/she is the ultimate decision-maker in the translation process. The translator's knowledge of the source and target languages and cultures are key assets in this decision-making and the quality of the translation work.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ABRAHAM, W. 1991a. Discourse particles in German: How does their illocutive force come about? In: ABRAHAM, W. (Ed.) Discourse particles: Descriptive and theoretical investigations on the logical, syntactic and pragmatic properties of discourse particles in German. Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp. 203-252. ISBN 9789027250223.
- ABRAHAM, W. 1991b. The Grammaticalization of the German Modal Particles. In: TRAUGOTT, E. C. – HEINE, B. (Eds.) Approaches to Grammaticalization. Amsterdam: Benjamins, vol. 2, pp. 331-380. ISBN 9789027228994.
- AGALLIU, F. – ANGONI, E. – DEMIRAJ, Sh. – DHRIMO, A. – HYSA, E. – EMIL, L. – LIKAJ, E. 2002. Gramatika e gjuhës shqipe Vëllimi I, Morfologjia. Tiranë: Maluka. ISBN 99927-761-6-1.
- ASBACH-SCHNITTKER, B. 1977. Die Satzpartikel *wohl*. In: WEYDT, H. (Ed.) Aspekte der Modalpartikeln. Studien zur deutschen Abtönung. Konzepte der Sprach- und Literaturwissenschaft. Tübingen: Niemeyer, vol. 23, pp. 38-61. ISBN 3484220236.
- AUTENRIETH, T. 2005. Grammatikalisierung bei Modalpartikeln. Das Beispiel *eben*. In: LEUSCHNER, T. – MORTELMANS, T. – DE GROODT, S. (Eds.) Grammatikalisierung im Deutschen. Linguistik. Impulse & Tendenzen. Berlin: de Gruyter, vol. 9, pp. 309-334. ISBN 978-3-11-092536-4.
- BAERENTZEN, P. 1989. Syntaktische Subklassifizierung der Fügewörter im Deutschen. In: WEYDT, H. (Ed.) Sprechen mit Partikeln. Berlin: Walter de Gruyter, pp. 19-29. ISBN 3-11-011532-8.
- BEDNAROVA – GIBOVA, K. 2017. Minority in English literary translation: the case of Slovak culturebound Items. *XLinguae*, vol. 10, n. 3, pp. 202-217. ISSN 1337-8384 202.
- BEERBOM, C. 1992. Modalpartikeln als Übersetzungsproblem: eine kontrastive Studie zum Sprachenpaar Deutsch-Spanisch. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. Heidelberger Beiträge zur Romanistik 26. ISBN 9783631446645.
- BRABER, N. 2006. Emotional and emotive language: Modal particles and tags in unified Berlin. *Journal of Pragmatics* 38, pp. 1487-1503. ISSN 0378-2166.
- BREU, W. 2009. Modals in Albanian. In: HANSEN, B. – DE HAAN, F. (Eds.) Modals in the Languages of Europe: A Reference Work. Empirical approaches to language typology 44. Berlin, New York: De Gruyter, pp. 229-266. ISBN 078-3-11-021921-0.
- BREU, W. 2010. Mood in Albanian. In: ROTHSTEIN, B. – THIEROFF, R. (Eds.) Mood in the Languages of Europe. Studies in Language Companion Series, V. 120. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins, pp. 447-472. ISBN 978-9027205872.
- BUBLITZ, W. 1978. Ausdrucksweisen der Sprechereinstellung im Deutschen und Englischen: Untersuchungen zur Syntax, Semantik und Pragmatik der deutschen Modalpartikeln und Vergewisserungsfragen und ihre englische Entsprechungen. *Linguistische Abreiten* vol. 57. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag. ISBN 3484102950.
- BUCHHOLZ, O. – FIEDLER, W. 1987. Albanische Grammatik. Leipzig: Enzyklopädie Verlag. ISBN 3324000254.
- BURKHARDT, A. 1994. Abtönungspartikeln im Deutschen: Bedeutung und Genese. In: *Zeitschrift für germanistische Linguistik*, vol. 22, n. 2, pp. 129-151. ISSN 0301-3294.
- BUSSMANN, H. 2008. *Lexikon der Sprachwissenschaft*. Stuttgart: Kröner Verlag. ISBN 9783520452047.

- CLARK, M. – THYWN, O. 1998. *The Concise Oxford - Duden German Dictionary*. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press. ISBN 019864230X.
- CUENCA, M. J. 2013. "The Fuzzy Limits between Discourse Marking and Modal Marking." In: DEGAND, L. – CORNILLIE, B. – PIETRANDREA, P. (Eds.) *Discourse Markers and Modal Particles. Categorization and description. Pragmatics & Beyond New Series*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins B.V., vol. 234, pp. 191-216. ISBN 9789027256393.
- DHRIMO, A. – BEZHANI, H. 1996. *Deutsch - Albanisches Wörterbuch/Fjalori Gjermanisht - Shqip*. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz. ISBN 3447034858.
- DIEWALD, G. 2006. *Discourse Particles and Modal Particles as Grammatical Elements*. In: FISCHER, K. (Ed.) *Approaches to Discourse Particles*. Amsterdam: Elsevier, vol. 1, pp. 403-426. ISBN 0-08-044737-6, ISSN 1750-368X.
- DIEWALD, G. 2007. *Abtönungspartikel*. In: HOFFMANN, L. (Ed.) *Handbuch der deutschen Wortarten*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 117-141. ISBN 978-3-11-021507-6.
- DIEWALD, G. 2013. "Same same but different" – Modal Particles, Discourse Markers and the Art (and Purpose) of Categorization. In: DEGAND, L. – CORNILLIE, B. – PIETRANDREA, P. (Eds.) *Discourse Markers and Modal Particles. Pragmatics & Beyond New Series, 234*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins B. V., pp. 19-46. ISBN 9789027256393.
- DOHERTY, M. 1985. *Epistemische Bedeutung*. *Studia grammatica* 23. Berlin: Akademie-Verlag. ISBN 3050016051.
- ERBEN, J. 1980. *Deutsche Grammatik. Ein Abriss*. München: Max Hueber Verlag. ISBN 9783190017133.
- FEYRER, C. 1998. *Modalität im Kontrast: ein Beitrag zur übersetzungsorientierten Modalpartikelforschung anhand des Deutschen und des Französischen*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. ISBN 978-3-631-32360-1.
- FISCHER, K. 2000. *From Cognitive Semantics to Lexical Pragmatics. The Functional Polysemy of Discourse Particles*. Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter. ISBN 9783110168761.
- HARTMANN, D. 1979. *Syntaktische Eigenschaften und syntaktische Funktionen der Partikeln eben, eigentlich, einfach, nämlich, ruhig, vielleicht und wohl*. Zur Grundlegung einer diachronischen Untersuchung von Satzpartikeln im Deutschen. In: WEYDT, H. (Ed.) *Die Partikeln der deutschen Sprache*. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter, pp. 121-138. ISBN 978-3-11-086357-4.
- HELBIG, G. 1994. *Lexikon deutscher Partikeln*. Leipzig: Verlag Enzyklopädie. ISBN 978-3324003100.
- HELBIG, G. – BUSCHA, J. 2001. *Deutsche Grammatik. Ein Handbuch für den Ausländerunterricht*. Berlin, München: Langenscheidt Verlag Enzyklopädie. ISBN 978-3468494932.
- HENTSCHEL, E. 2010. *Partikelprofile literarischer Texte*. In: HARDEN, T. – HENTSCHEL, E. (Eds.) *40 Jahre Partikelforschung*. Tübingen: Stauffenburg. *Stauffenburg Linguistik*, vol. 55, pp. 97-118. ISSN 1430-4139, ISBN 9783860571934.
- HENTSCHEL, E. – WEYDT, H. 2002. *Die Wortart Partikel*. In: CRUSE, D. A. et al. (Eds.) *Lexikologie. Lexicology. Ein Internationales Handbuch zur Natur und Struktur von Wörtern und Wortschätzen. An International Handbook on the Nature and Structure of Words and Vocabularies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 646-653. ISBN 3110171473.
- HENTSCHEL, E. – WEYDT, H. 2013. *Handbuch der deutschen Grammatik*. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter. ISBN 978-3110286694.

- HERINGER, H. J. 1988. "Ja, ja, die Partikeln! Können wir die Partikelbedeutungen prototypisch erfassen?": In: Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung, vol. 41, n. 6, pp. 730-754. ISSN 0044-331X.
- KÖNIG, E. 1997. Zur Bedeutung von Modalpartikeln im Deutschen. In: DEBUS, F. – ODDLEIF, L. (Eds.) Studien zu Deutsch als Fremdsprache vol. 3. Aspekte der Modalität im Deutschen – auch in kontrastiver Sicht. Germanistische Linguistik. Hildesheim u. a.: Olms. Germanistische Linguistik, vol. 136, n. 97, pp. 57-75. ISBN 3487103729.
- KRIVONOSOV, A. 1989. Zum Problem der Klassifizierung der deutschen Partikeln. In: WEYDT, H. (Ed.) Sprechen mit Partikeln. Berlin, New York: De Gruyter, pp. 30-38. ISBN 3110115328.
- LIEFLÄNDER-KOISTINEN, L. 2004. Modalpartikeln als Übersetzungsproblem. In: KITTEL, H. – FRANK, A. P. – GREINER, N. – HERMANS, T. – KOLLER, W. – LAMBERT, J. – PAUL, F. (Eds.) Übersetzung – Translation – Traduction: Ein internationales Handbuch zur Übersetzungsforschung/An International Encyclopedia of Translation Studies/Encyclopédie internationale de la recherche sur la traduction. 2004. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter, pp. 550-554. ISBN 978-3-11-019408-1.
- MAN, T. 2009. Mali magjik. Tiranë: Shtëpia Botuese "55". ISBN 978-00043-56-58-4.
- MANN, T. 2005. The Magic Mountain. New York: Everyman's Library. ISBN 9781400044214.
- MANN, T. 2012. Der Zauberberg. Frankfurt am Main: S. Fischer Verlag. ISBN 978-3-10-348128-0.
- MEIBAUER, J. 1994. Modaler Kontrast und konzeptuelle Verschiebung. Studien zur Syntax und Semantik deutscher Modalpartikeln. Tübingen: Niemeyer. Linguistische Arbeiten, vol. 314. ISBN 9783484303140.
- MÖLLERING, M. 2004. The Acquisition of German Modal particles. A Corpus-Based Approach. Bern [etc.]: Peter Lang. ISBN 978-3039100439.
- MOLNÁR, A. 2002. Die Grammatikalisierung deutscher Modalpartikeln. Fallstudien. Frankfurt am Main: Lang. Metalinguistica, vol. 12. ISBN 3-631-38190-5.
- NEWMARK, L. – HUBBARD, P. – PRIFTI, P. 1982. Standard Albanian – a reference grammar for Students. Stanford: University Press. ISBN 0804711291.
- REINERS, L. 1943. Stilkunst. Ein Lehrbuch deutscher Prosa. München: Beck. ISBN 3406025250.
- STOLZE, R. 1982. Grundlagen der Textübersetzung, Heidelberg: Groos. ISBN 10 3872762796.
- STOLZE, R. 1992. Hermeneutisches Übersetzen. Linguistische Kategorien des Verstehens und Formulierens beim Übersetzen. Tübingen: Narr. Tübinger Beiträge zur Linguistik, vol. 368. ISBN 3823342231.
- THIEL, R. 1962. Würzwörter. In: Sprachpflege: Zeitschrift für gutes Deutsch in Schrift und Wort, n. 4, pp. 71-73. ISSN 0049-2019.
- THURMAIR, M. 1989. Modalpartikeln und ihre Kombinationen. Tübingen: Niemeyer. Linguistische Arbeiten. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter, vol. 223. ISBN 3-484-30223-2, ISSN 0344-6727.
- WALTEREIT, R. 2001. "Modal Particles and their Functional Equivalents: A Speech-Act-Theoretic Approach." In: Journal of Pragmatics, vol.33, n. 9, pp. 1391-1417. ISSN 0378-2166.
- WEYDT, H. 1969. Abtönungspartikel. Die deutschen Modalwörter und ihre französischen Entsprechungen. Bad Homburg: Gehlen. Linguistica et Litteraria, vol. 4. Verbund-ID-Nr. AC02641916.
- WEYDT, H. 1989. Was soll der Übersetzer mit deutschen Partikeln machen? – „Nachts schlafen die Ratten doch“ als Beispiel. In: KATNY, A. (Ed.) Studien zur kontrastiven Linguistik und literarischen Übersetzung. Frankfurt am Main, Bern, New York, Paris: Peter Lang, pp. 235-252. ISBN 978-3-631-41990-8.

WEYDT, H. 2006. What are particles good for? In: FISCHER, K. (Ed.) Approaches to discourse particles. Studies in Pragmatics, vol. 1, pp. 205-217. ISBN 0080447376.  
WEYDT, H. – HENTSCHEL, E. 1983. Kleines Abtönungswörterbuch. In: WEYDT, H. (Ed.) Partikel und Interaktion. Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, pp. 3-24. Reihe germanistische Linguistik 44. ISBN3-484-31044-8. ISSN 0344-6778.  
WÖLLSTEIN, A. (Ed.). 2016. Duden: Die Grammatik. Unentbehrlich für richtiges Deutsch. 9., vollständig überarbeitete und aktualisierte Auflage. Mannheim u. a.: Dudenverlag. ISBN 978-3-411-04049-0.  
ZIFONUN, G. – HOFFMANN, L. – STECKER, B. 1997. Grammatik der deutschen Sprache, vol. 1, 2, 3. Berlin, New York: de Gruyter. ISBN 978-3-11-087216-3.

*Words: 8097*

*Characters: 51 880 (28,82 standard pages)*

Prof. ass. dr. Vjosa Hamiti  
Department of German Language and Literature  
Faculty of Philology,  
University of Prishtina “Hasan Prishtina”  
10 000 Prishtina  
Kosovo  
vjosa.hamiti@uni-pr.edu

Prof. asoc. dr. Muhamet Hamiti  
Department of English Language and Literature  
Faculty of Philology,  
University of Prishtina “Hasan Prishtina”  
10 000 Prishtina  
Kosovo  
muhamet.hamiti@uni-pr.edu

# The principles of inference in discourse comprehension

Elena Suvorova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.06

## Abstract

A substantial research has been undertaken to reveal the principles of inference in the course of discourse comprehension. The research bases upon a new approach to the inference as a dynamic, changeable, ecologically compatible phenomenon which involves not only the processing of semantic content of linguistic units comprising the discourse, but also depends upon, firstly, a human being as “a receiver”, who is capable of highlighting some part of semantic content and downplaying the other, thus, arbitrarily changing the focus of comprehension, and, secondly, a communicative situation, which interferes into a comprehender’s subjective selection of the most relevant semantic data to be included in the inference and, thus, either supports or, vice versa, interferes and transforms the senses intended in the discourse. An important emphasis is made on the anthropocentric nature of inference and its close link to the cognitive restoration of the environment hidden in the discourse. The virtual environment indirectly influences the discourse comprehension and makes an impact on the inference. The action of the identified inferential principles is illustrated on the examples of understanding of some short dialogues and pieces of literary writings and has been verified by an associative experiment that builds upon the subjects’ written, sensory and graphical feedback in the course of comprehending three small pieces of discourse.

**Key words:** anthropocentrism, comprehension, discourse, inference, principle, reasoning

---

## Introduction

Nowadays, in the framework of the discourse comprehension problem, there is a lot of discussions, devoted to the search for an answer to the question: “How and why in the course of comprehension do separate linguistic elements become cognitively fused into an entity having much more semantic sense than the semantic content of all these elements taken together?” Inference study might throw light on this scientific puzzle, as these are the inference mechanisms and regularities that lie in the heart of the semantic metamorphosis. The inference is a result and a process of cognitive treatment of the limited, but dynamically changing and, to some extent a chaotic number of perceived linguistic and extra-linguistic senses, in the course of which new knowledge appears, enriched by personal senses, evaluations, and emotions. As a consequence, the identification of the main mechanisms of inference, the reveal of the nature, structure, and content of the inferred knowledge, the development of the common view on the dependence of the inferred knowledge from the linguistic and extra-linguistic factors, and the identification of the principles of the inference action itself are the pieces of the abovementioned puzzle, which needs a solution. Nevertheless, the vagueness, subjectivity, fragmentation of the existing knowledge about the inference phenomenon, the interpretation of the inference only as a mechanism of text perception, and, as a consequence, lack of attention to the anthropocentric essence of inference, the disregard of such important features of the inference as dynamism and changeability do not allow articulating a uniform objective picture of this dimensional phenomenon, simultaneously related to language, cognition, and reasoning. Hence, the main purpose of the paper is to study the inference as a phenomenon related simultaneously to both the cognition and discourse; to reveal and characterize the main principles of its action. The reveal of

the principles will allow getting inside the nature of the inference phenomenon and identifying its possible mechanisms of action.

To reach the purpose, firstly, we make a review of the theoretical and practical philosophic, psychological, and linguistic literature on the cognition, reasoning, and inference; secondly, give phenomenological characteristics of the probabilistic principles of inference and describe their action in a comprehension process; thirdly, verify the revealed principles by means of an associative experiment in order to illustrate the work of the principles while comprehending a piece of narrative discourse. Short dialogues, some small text passages from literary writings as well as an empirical observation of the common human communication serve as the material for the theoretical analysis and the description of the essence of the principles. At the same time, an associative experiment verifies the proposed hypothesis and illustrates the action of the principles when drawing inferences under the conditions of real discourse comprehension. The methods used in a theoretical part of the conducted research are the method of analysis and synthesis of theoretical and practical literature on the inference problem; a discourse-analysis of the passages taken from original fiction literature, which implies the analysis of the probabilistic variants of semantic inferences, regarding the linguistic and extra-linguistic content of the comprehended material.

### **The theoretical analysis of philosophic, psychological and linguistic literature on the problem of principles of reasoning**

The tries to identify inference principles have resulted in the necessity to address to human reasoning as a process, including inference as one of the forms of this reasoning. Philosophy has always been the starting point and the basis of other sciences' development, thus, the first philosophic work, which mentions and defines a principle, is the essay "About nature" written by Anaximander, who characterizes it as the heart of the matter (Asmus, 1998). Besides Anaximander's works, the philosophic reflection about the essence of a principle can be found in the works of Aristotle (a principle is a root cause of everything), Descartes (a principle is a self-evident basis for any reasoning and cognition (Philosophical writings of Descartes, 2012), and Kant (a principle is a set of constructive and regulative rules of Pure Reason (Philosophical writings by Immanuel Kant, 1997). Nevertheless, the necessity to study the notion "principle" in the frameworks of cognition and discourse comprehension has confined its philosophic understanding to the idea (based on the integration of Descartes and Kant's reflection) that a principle is a certain cognitive law regulating thinking process.

Reviewing psychological and linguistic literature on reasoning, we proceed from the assumption that language and thought are inseparable and that thinking rests upon inner speech, enriched by images, schemas, emotions, etc. (Vygotkskey, 2019). In the psychological literature, the descriptions of principles of reasoning are rarely met, and in these few cases, they are closely connected with the logic laws. In considering the reflective thinking, Dewey (1933) proceeds from the main characteristics of thinking, which can be referred to the principles of induction and deduction; analysis and synthesis; the periodical shift between apprehension and comprehension (which are considered to be direct and indirect ways of comprehension correspondingly). In its turn, the process of thinking or reflection consists of five distinct logical steps: "a felt difficulty, then, its location and definition, later a suggestion of possible solution; then, the development by the reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion, and finally, some further observation leading to its acceptance or rejection, i.e., the conclusion of belief or disbelief" (Dewey, 1933, p.71). Another psychological study completely replaces the laws of thinking by the Aristotle's syllogisms, thus, neglecting such

features of reasoning as creativity, dynamism, ecological compatibility (i.e., dependence on the environment, the speaker and the object of the thinking process) (Korotkov, 2011). There is also one more similar theory which considers most of the human thought to be based on such principles underlying language as causal primacy ("when x happens, y happens" is construed as "x causes y to happen") and identification (any event is interpreted as an action with a causal agent) (Bickerton, 1995). Obviously, the laws of formal logic can be applied to thinking, but only to one type of it – rational thinking (Emets, Baryshnikova, Trutnev, Suvorova, Achmetzyanova, 2018).

In this regard, it should be noted that there are also a few significant works that articulate their own original approaches to the process of thinking (most of them focus on some special kind of thinking – a figurative one). In the book "Metaphors we live by" thinking \ reasoning (we do not differentiate between these two terms) is associated with a conceptual mapping, metaphoric or metonymic cognitive interpretation of one conceptual domain in terms of another (Lakoff, Johnson, 2008). In this way, metaphor becomes a cognitive, not merely linguistic, activity. There is also a similar approach associating reasoning with a conceptual blending, where "a structure is selectively projected from "input" mental spaces to a "blended" space that also develops its own emergent structure" (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002). These works propose a view on reasoning as a whole process but help little in articulating the principles (rules, laws) that frame and regulate the processes/mechanisms of thinking.

A brief analysis of the principles of thinking regarding philosophic, psychological and linguistic approaches shows that in spite of the fact that inference is a form of thinking and should be considered in the framework of its description (logic), it cannot comply with the common logical ways of thinking, because inference does not depend on any primary assumptions and can transform under the influence of indirect, peripheral factors sometimes having extra-linguistic character (e.g., prosody; emotions that are implied in the utterance; disbalance between the speech situation and the utterance, and so on). Consequently, to reveal the nature of inference, it is necessary to find other principles than those that characterize the thinking process as a whole.

The review of the linguistic literature shows that the problem of identification and description of the inference principles remains insufficiently studied in this field. One of a few works mentioning inference principles is "Discourse analysis" of G. Brown and G. Yule discussed below (Brown, Yule, 1983). The lack of study of the inference principles makes an address to the works describing the inference phenomenon in general. In pragmatics, the study of the process of inferring implicit information is closely connected with the semantic theory of P. Grice, who is the first to introduce the technical term "implicature" (the process of implication) and its cognates "to implicate" and "implicatum" (i.e., that which is implicated) (Grice, 2001). Later on, the concept of inferred semantic knowledge is tightly associated with such notions as syllogism, deduction, implicature, presupposition, and inference (Odintsova, 2016). These notions overlap in many ways, but, nevertheless, characterize different sides of the inferred semantic knowledge. In particular, the term syllogism (deduction), suggested by Aristotle, means a conclusion made on four (sometimes five) differentiae: (i) there are at least two premises which are posited; (ii) the conclusion is different from the premises; (iii) the conclusion follows necessarily from the premises; (iv) the premises imply the conclusion by themselves; they are jointly necessary and sufficient for the conclusion to be produced (Aristotel, 1984). In other words, a syllogism is a form of logical reasoning that joins two or more premises to arrive at a conclusion. For example: "All birds lay eggs. A swan is a bird. Therefore, a swan lays eggs." But this kind of logic is scarcely compatible with every day speech, that is full of implicit senses, colloquial expressions, understatement,

grammar and stylistic irregularities, that is why, a syllogism or a deduction is generally an inappropriate word to characterize the mechanism of a semantic inference, based upon a dynamic, changeable system of linguistic and extra linguistic data (Suvorova, Polyakova, 2018) being processed in the course of speech comprehension. Nevertheless, an inference can have formal logic nature, provided its result is an objective and precise conclusion made on true to life facts or premises. In this connection, Makarov (2003) considers two types of inference: (i) a formal, logical inference based upon true premises and (ii) a probabilistic, inductive inference having a pragmatic character and including guesses, associations, reflecting the communicative situation, emotions, and common knowledge. The terms inference and implicature are not interchangeable too. Some researchers consider implicature as a formal bridge between propositions which appear in the course of discourse formation and comprehension (Zavarzina, 2016). This approach allows comparing implicature with a bridging or gap-filling inference (Rickheit & Strohner, 1985); nevertheless, the main difference between the notions is in the way of their action. If implicature is related to the terms of the formal logic and implies a direct logical approach to the inferred semantic knowledge, the inference should be considered as an arbitrary conclusion based upon the processing of some semantic content in parallel with personal, situational, contextual extra-linguistic data.

To sum up, the inference is an inner, mostly unconscious process of getting inferred knowledge, with the use of guess, intuition, personal experience, and based upon contextual, situational, dynamic and changeable extra-linguistic information. It becomes obvious that the reviewed principles of reasoning often replaced by logic laws are inappropriate to characterize the inference action, and, as a consequence, there is a need to search for other principles, which might completely characterize the inference nature.

### **Principles of inference when comprehending a narrative discourse**

According to the Oxford Dictionary, the word principle has several meanings: 1) a fundamental truth or proposition that serves as the foundation for a system of belief or behavior or for a chain of reasoning; 2) a general scientific theorem or law that has numerous special applications across a wide field; 3) a fundamental source or basis of something (2005). But above all, the inference is a cognitive process, arising from a human being's exceptional capabilities. Hence, the process is primarily implemented in those spheres which characterize human behavior: biology, physics, chemistry, physiology, linguistics, sociology, etc. interconnected on the platform of philosophy. According to the Philosophical Dictionary, a principle is an initial phase, leading idea, a major rule of behavior, expression of necessity, or law regulating phenomena (1981). In logic, a principle is a central notion, a system foundation, which is generalized and applied to all the phenomena in the sphere from which it is abstracted (Korotkov, 2011). As a consequence, inference principles are the rules which accompany the whole process of coming to a cognitive conclusion, which rests upon the human ability to process the internal and external dynamic information simultaneously, often unconsciously, illogically relying upon arbitrary peripheral factors (such as the interlocutor's intonation, mimics, his/her well-being, the speech situation, etc.).

As it has been mentioned before, one of the few works describing principles of inference is the study carried out by Brown and Yule (1983). They describe the inferential principles of local interpretation and analogy. The principle of local interpretation instructs the reader not to construct a situational or conversational context any larger than he needs to arrive at an interpretation (Brown, Yule, 1983, p.59). In particular, analyzing the following dialogue between a mother and a child:

Mother: Is the father in?

Child: No, he is out (the example is taken from a real family communication),

one can see that the child understands that the focus of the conversation is on his own father. Though Brown and Yule think that it is the knowledge of the world that constrains the local interpretation (Brown, Yule, 1983, p.61), it is more natural to think that it is the conversational and situational context accompanied by one's own life experience that really influences our comprehension (for example, the same answer will be made in the dialogue which takes place between a visitor and a child who has no father but has an elder brother. In this situation, the child will infer that the visitor implies his sibling). Thus, the principle is better to be called a principle of situational (conversational) economy, because the speaker does not construct a context, but chooses a shortcut to achieve understanding, picking up the only sustainable (to his mind and at the precise moment) detail that will lead him to the possibly appropriate conclusion – the visitor speaks about his brother. But imagine another situation – a child feels ill, and a random visitor asking him about his father can trigger the same answer but an absolutely different inference:

Visitor: Is the father in (Is there an adult at home to help)?

Child: No, he is out,

implying that nobody can help. (Thus, another detail becomes “the first violin” and in this role interferes into the inference. It is the child's state of health).

The principle of analogy implies that the interpretation of the text would more likely rest upon addressee's personal experience than on any encyclopedic knowledge. When we are asked a puzzle, we firstly start seeking for an answer in our experience, but not in the encyclopedic knowledge. For instance, some answers to the puzzle “clean, but not water, white, but not snow, sweet, but not ice-cream. What is it?” can be “cream,” “sugar,” “lemonade,” “and so on. A similar example is taken from teachers' practice. When several little Russian children are asked to draw a picture illustrating a verse from Pushkin's poem “Evgeny Onegin”: *And now the dashing kибитка (an old Russian carriage) flies in the powdery snow*, (they are not familiar with the word *kибитка*), they draw a flying machine, as they rely upon the word *fly* and their own experience of flights and flying machines (Suvorova, 2019).

The next couple of principles are the principles of cohesion and coherence, which reflect the continuity and integrity of a semantic conclusion. Though being different from ordinary human speech, inference preserves its features: cohesion and coherence (due to the tight connection between reasoning and inner speech). Besides the processed semantic content of linguistic units, the conclusion always involves a certain array of extra-linguistic data, and, that is why, on the one hand, the conclusion will always be framed in the context of the conversational situation (so-called global coherence (Graesser, Millis, Zwaan, 1997). On the other hand, it will have some shadows of emotionally charged personal evaluation of the processed content, and, on the third, it will merge the given linguistic and extra-linguistic inferred information, maintaining the cohesion of the inferred information. For instance, in a dialogue:

- We could talk to the manager of our local sports center and arrange a company membership.

- It sounds interesting, but it could be very expensive [Cotton, Falvey, Kent, 2002],

the utterance «It sounds interesting, but it could be very expensive» implies implicitly expressed disagreement. The keyword triggering this inference is the word *but* whose concept involves disagreement, a contradiction. The further conclusion builds upon processing the content of the concepts *but*, *interesting*, *expensive* regarding the previous context – the arrangement of the company membership in the local sports center. In this case, a theme is the proposal to get a membership, and a rheme is the details of its arrangement, while the other less significant details remain

out of the main focus of attention and, hence, the inference (the talk with the manager, the conditions of the arrangement and so on). In other words, the comprehender focuses on the membership in a sports club, but his / her background assessment transforms from positive to the negative one – *it is interesting, but expensive, unreasonable, and difficult to realize*. This is an example of the principle of cohesion action (in other words, it can be called the conservation of the dominant meaning). As it is mentioned above, the conclusion is expanded on the individual, personal, emotional attitude to what has been said. The word *expensive* in the utterance implies that a person disagrees with the proposal, while the word *interesting* implies that the proposal can be further discussed. Both the inferences are inseparable in time and comprise the processed semantic content of the linguistic units included in the utterance [Yi, 2009]. Thus, they preserve the cohesion of the elements of the overall conclusion and the coherence of the conclusion itself.

One more principle of inference is the principle of information conservation. It implies that a speaker and a hearer constitute a self-contained system, within which circulating inner information remains unchanged. The principle implies that when making an inference, a comprehender processes the precise information he/ she receives from an addresser. As it has been mentioned above, inference comprises two blocks of information: a linguistic (in the course of comprehension of an utterance the semantic content of all the linguistic units is processed and then integrated into some other semantic content different from the primary one) and an extra-linguistic (it comprises all the associated information that accompanies the utterance and then can be used to understand the explicit and implicit senses the utterance contains). Regarding the huge volume of direct and indirect information that an addressee has to comprehend, the idea of processing only the precise information an addresser sends to an addressee seems to be infirm. Nevertheless, the surrounding us communication speaks for this argument with a reservation that the information we speak about is subjectively selected. Comprehending a discourse, an addresser indeed processes the precise information he \she receives from the addressee, but not all this information gets into inference. For instance, it is impossible to interpret the words I would have a cup of tea as a hint that the speaker wants a cup of coffee. Of course, there might be situations in which such words can be interpreted differently, but even in these cases, the principle would work in the same way. Imagine that it is a hot day, and two companions are looking for a shadowy place where they could have a rest and drink something cold. Then, one of them says: I am thirsty. The other would understand that his \her companion wants something cold to drink. Being a self-contained system within which inner information remains unchanged, they share not only linguistic information (one of the partners is thirsty) but also extra-linguistic information which involves physical and social co-presence - the day is hot, there is a chance to have a rest somewhere in a café, the trip is tiresome and causes a feeling of irritation, etc. (Graesser, Singer, & Trabasso, 1994) and contributes to better understanding.

As a consequence, one more principle of inference becomes very important. It is a principle of mutual influence. The better the contact (mutual understanding) between an addresser and an addressee, the more efficient the information exchange will be, and, thus, the more authentic will be the inferred knowledge regarding the source. In the philosophic language, it means that in the cognitive process of crunching data, a subject assimilates himself \herself with an object of cognition to comprehend information from the latter. Thus, if cognition and the object come into a virtual contact, the latter leaves a trace on the former (Ortega y Gasset, 1980). It answers the question of why the more responsively we react to the addresser, the more precisely we comprehend what he/she says. Interlocutors influence each other leaving emotional, evaluating, even cognitive traces. Comprehending the words of our

interlocutor, we can change our mind, or opinion on some things, we can even start seeing the world through our interlocutor's eyes. Imagine a situation when one of the interlocutors speaks about serious things with a smile, the inference will apparently be dependent on the smile of the speaker than the semantic content of the words. The same concerns the written speech. The overall tonality of speech will make a considerable impact on comprehension.

Comprehension is not only the processing of written or oral speech. It often looks like a constant addition of fleeting senses, connected with inflectional elements, agglutination of which becomes a physical aspect of the occurred mental addition (Guillaume, 1984). The contemporary study of neurochemical processes, taking place in a human brain, shows that words as arbitrary symbols are based upon topographical representations, and before being pronounced or recorded, they become audio or video images in our consciousness (Damasio, 2014). Thus, it is fundamentally impossible to consider inferences regardless of a comprehending human being, i.e., a living system, whose peculiar feature is a constant circular mutual causal interrelation "a human being – an environment." These dwellings lead to one more important principle, which could be called anthropocentric. It implies the possibility of conscious or unconscious creation of a fleeting virtual environmental image of the comprehended discourse. The image rests upon a human being's biological perception of the environment. In other words, it is an individual cognitive reflection of the environment (hidden in the discourse), which is made in parallel with the cognitive treatment of the linguistic (semantic) data. Thus, a person as a human being consciously or unconsciously reconstructs a virtual discourse environment, i.e., the temperature, time, lighting, place and the statics/dynamics of the events, letting all these into his /her subconscious and then, if these factors become important, including them in the inference (Suvorova, 2019). All the above-mentioned factors become conscious at the moment a person focuses on them, and though the factors do not belong to the linguistic block, they can make a substantial impact on the inferred knowledge. The hypothesis can find a confirmation in the works of Maturana and Varela (1987), who suppose that when communicating we do not exchange thoughts, but what we hear makes an impact on us, as a structurally determined system, and our comprehension of what has been said depends entirely on our state at the moment of comprehension [Maturana, & Varela, 1987]. For instance, when comprehending the following passage from a literary work:

*«On his bench in Madison Square Soapy moved uneasily. When wild geese honk high of nights, and when women without sealskin coats grow kind to their husbands, and when Soapy moves uneasily on his bench in the park, you may know that winter is near at hand. A dead leaf fell in Soapy's lap. That was Jack Frost's card. Jack is kind to the regular denizens of Madison Square, and gives fair warning of his annual call. At the corners of four streets he hands his pasteboard to the North Wind, footman of the mansion of All Outdoors, so that the inhabitants thereof may make ready» (Henry O. The cop and the anthem),*

in parallel we create a mental image of the happening event. The created image reflects time (we mentally create the even in the present, in spite of the fact that when describing the event (Soapy's appearing in a park) O. Henry uses the verbs in the form of Past Simple: moved, fell, was); an open space; bad lighting (we associate a cold season with twilight); cold weather; and the statics of the happening event. This mental image does not automatically appear in the "window of our conscious," it is fleeting and can be quickly replaced by the following image in the course of the discourse enhancement, but when being focused on, it can be completely recreated in the subconscious, which speaks for its existence. The list of factors (temperature, time, lighting, place and the statics/dynamics of the above-mentioned environment), which fill in the mental image, seems to be complete, as these are the factors which

are the physical parameters of the environment, regarding a human being's perception of it.

The next principle of inference discussed in the paper is a principle of reciprocating movement of reflection. When making an inference, our reasoning moves from integrating separate data into a single entity and then to distinguishing those details which can complement the integration. An emerging idea inductively triggers hypotheses, involving new, additional, unnoticed details, which can abruptly transform into some subsequent inferences. The previous passage from a literary work shows that when drawing an inference, the integration of all the data (both the linguistic and extra-linguistic, conscious, and unconscious ones, those belonging to semantic, physiologic, emotional, evaluative, etc. aspects of perception and comprehension) takes place. But then, in dependence on a comprehending person, some of them become included in a new inference, and some are rejected as irrelevant.

The final of the discussed principles is a principle of an analysis and synthesis circle, which partially overlaps with the previous principle of reciprocating movement of reflection. The process of analysis cannot but accompany the inference due to the nature of the inference itself. Nevertheless, the analysis that accompanies inference does not look like an ordinary rational data analysis. Its peculiar features are speed, shallowness, randomness, independence from the current premises. Primarily, it is due to the fact that any inference occurs under time pressure. Hence, the analysis is carried out quickly and superficially.

Otherwise, if a thought clings to some data, reasoning can change its direction, but will never stop. Secondly, the process of inference is constantly being enhanced by secondary emotions, as the majority of somatic markers, used in the process of making a decision, are forming in the course of education and socialization by means of connecting specific kinds of the stimulus with specific kinds of somatic states [Damasio, 2014]. Thus, the analysis, carried out irrationally, subjectively (emotions cannot belong to objective data), does not have a predictable character by nature. Thirdly, the above mentioned randomness means a lack of consistency in making inferences. Meaning is not a product of pure reasoning, and it is only a top of a conditionally discrete fragment of the contiguous and multidimensional picture of the world in all its plurality of connections and relations, the completeness of which is provided by various direct and indirect inferred knowledge or various feelings [Zalevskaya, 2005, p. 245]. The processing of such an array of diverse data cannot be carried out consistently. With the shifting of a focus of attention, the analysis starts involving precisely the data, which subjectively (consciously or unconsciously) seem to be the most relevant at these precise moments of time and analysis. In its turn, the analysis invariably turns out into synthesis, i.e., integration of the current data to make a final inference, which later on will get into the category of analyzed data in the subsequent comprehension of discourse.

### **Materials and methods**

To verify the theoretical taxonomy of the inference principles and observe their action in discourse comprehension, the method of the associative experiment is used, firstly, because it allows tracing the way the subjects draw inferences; secondly, it provides insight into the details of the inferred knowledge; thirdly, it gives an opportunity to observe the emotional feedback from the subjects. The experiment is carried out on the material of O. Henry's novel "The Gift of Magi."

During the experiment, the first three passages taken from the novel are read with three intervals of about 10 minutes. During each interval, the subjects are to go through three stages of feedback. Firstly, they are instructed to retell what they have

heard; secondly, they are to draw, what they have imagined while comprehending the passage; and, thirdly, they are to give short, one-word answers to the following questions:

- 1) Is the action in the passage you have heard static or dynamic?
- 2) Where does the action take place?
- 3) What time of the day is it: a morning, a daytime, an evening, or a night?
- 4) Is it cold, warm, hot, cool at the moment?
- 5) Is it light or dark at the place?

The subjects are not limited in time for the feedback but are instructed not to take into consideration the grammar and stylistic correctness of their retelling and to try to retell the passage right after they have heard it, without any additional reflections. The three similar stages of the experiment are necessary, on the one hand, to verify the results, on the other hand, to observe how the subjects change their view on the novel events when receiving new details with each new passage.

The passages which are read in an ordinary tempo to the subjects are the following:

1) One dollar and eighty-seven cents. That was all. She had put it aside, one cent and then another and then another, in her careful buying of meat and other food. Della counted it three times. One dollar and eighty-seven cents. And the next day would be Christmas.

There was nothing to do but fall on the bed and cry. So Della did it.

2) Della finished her crying and cleaned the marks of it from her face. She stood by the window and looked out with no interest. Tomorrow would be Christmas Day, and she had only \$1.87 with which to buy Jim a gift. She had put aside as much as she could for months, with this result. Twenty dollars a week is not much. Everything had cost more than she had expected. It always happened like that. Only \$ 1.87 to buy a gift for Jim. Her Jim. She had had many happy hours planning something nice for him. Something nearly good enough. Something almost worth the honor of belonging to Jim.

3) There was a looking-glass between the windows of the room. Perhaps you have seen the kind of looking-glass that is placed in \$8 furnished rooms. It was very narrow. A person could see only a little of himself at a time. However, if he was very thin and moved very quickly, he might be able to get a good view of himself. Della, being quite thin, had mastered this art. Suddenly she turned from the window and stood before the glass. Her eyes were shining brightly, but her face had lost its color. Quickly she pulled down her hair and let it fall to its complete length. The James Dillingham Youngs were very proud of two things that they owned. One thing was Jim's gold watch. It had once belonged to his father. And, long ago, it had belonged to his father's father. The other thing was Della's hair. If a queen had lived in the rooms near theirs, Della would have washed and dried her hair where the queen could see it. Della knew her hair was more beautiful than any queen's jewels and gifts. If a king had lived in the same house, with all his riches, Jim would have looked at his watch every time they met. Jim knew that no king had anything so valuable. So now Della's beautiful hair fell about her, shining like a falling stream of brown water. It reached below her knee. It almost made itself into a dress for her. And then she put it up on her head again, nervously and quickly. Once, she stopped for a moment and stood still while a tear or two ran down her face. She put on her old brown coat. She put on her old brown hat. With the bright light still in her eyes, she moved quickly out the door and down to the street.

The passages used in the experiment are unequal for the sake of their logical completeness. For the sake of fairness, and to avoid the interference of languages, the passages and the tasks are presented in Russian (a well-translated Russian version of the novel is used), as the subjects are native Russian speakers.

The major target of the experiment is to trace if the drawn inferences comply with all the hypothesized principles. Due to the heterogeneity of the principles, the task for the subjects is divided into three parts. The first part of the task is focused on the action of the principles of situational economy, analogy, cohesion and coherence, reciprocating movement of reflection, and a principle of an analysis and synthesis circle. The second (graphical) part is used to trace the principles of information conservation and mutual influence. The third part is targeted at the work of the anthropocentric principle, which action is also traced in the second part of the experiment.

The subjects are a group of 8 teachers from Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University. The teachers are 40-64-year-old male and female associate professors, who work at different faculties: Economics, Physical training, Philosophy, and Foreign Languages. The number of the subjects is less important for the experiment, as the main focus of the experiment is on the content of the answers rather than on the statistic data of the recurrence of the subjects' answers.

### **Results and discussion**

The analysis of the data received according to the first task "Retell the passage" (every subject is to make three retellings of three passages in total) has shown that the subjects fully process the information, making short summaries of the passages and providing their own point of view on the comprehended situation. Nevertheless, in the majority of cases, the subjects' side of the story does not fully coincide with the plan of the author. For instance, some of the subjects' summaries of the first passage are: (i) life can be really tough for the living; (ii) poverty and need make worry about every cent; (iii) one dollar and eighty-seven cents are the prices of a person's happiness. As we see, the subjects' attitude to life, personal view on various life situations makes a great impact on the summaries they make. It speaks for the assumption that when comprehending a discourse, we search for analogous situations in our mind and, in this way, focus upon those elements in the discourse which seem to be the most relevant to our analogous life experience. This hypothesis is also confirmed by an example of misconception, which can be observed in one of the subjects' retellings when comprehending the first passage – "Della tries to change the coins when buying meat and other food." As the experiment shows, the selection of the elements to be included in the inference is arbitrary, unpredictable, and inconsistent, which reflects the dynamic and changeable nature of the inference.

Further analysis of the retellings made by the subjects verifies the same results, but there is an exception. Having listened to the second and the third passages, all the subjects enlarge the volume of their retellings and start adhering more strictly to the comprehended texts. Thus, the retellings of the second passage are: (i) Della, looking at the street, is thinking what present she can buy with one dollar and eighty-seven cents; (ii) Della wants to make a present for Jim, but she has only one dollar and eighty-seven cents. Nevertheless, some of the subjects continue expressing their own view on the described events, writing: "What can a person present a beloved one with a minuscule sum of money."

Regarding the maintenance of the principles of coherence and cohesion, of reciprocating movement of reflection, and a principle of an analysis and synthesis circle, their action can be traced on the dynamic changes in the chain of retellings. For instance, following the retelling of one of the subjects, we can see a consistent transformation of the feedback to the target passages. A poor girl Della has only one dollar and eighty-seven cents left before Christmas. – The money is not enough to buy a good present for Jim. – The wealth of the family is not money but Della's hair and Jim's watch. Having analyzed the first portion of information, the subject puts aside

some of the details belonging to the first inference and draws the next conclusion, by adding new details to those he has kept. It shows a reciprocating movement of reflection from the general to the specific and vice versa, as well as the continuity between the analysis and the synthesis which the subject makes. At the same time, the summaries maintain coherence and cohesion, which appear in the opportunity to integrate these retellings into a single one.

The second part of every task in the experiment is to draw a picture of the comprehended passage. The pictures drawn by the subjects do not differ much from each other. They are boxes decorated with ribbons; figures or a dollar sign (for instance, 1.87\$); pictures of girls; graphic depiction of tears and smiles; a mirror, etc. Thus, we can sum up that even in the graphical processing of the information, the subjects reflect the very information the author sends to them in compliance with the principle of information conservation. Even in the case of misconception, the picture has a sign of a dollar and some coins, which speaks for the above-mentioned assumption.

It is interesting that all the pictures reflect the mood the author expresses in each passage. In response to the first passage, the subjects have drawn mostly money (according to the neutral beginning of the story). Then, in the second case, the subjects have drawn presents and Christmas trees (in response to the positive words: "She had had many happy hours planning something nice for him. Something nearly good enough. Something almost worth the honor of belonging to Jim") or crying girls in response to the words: "Della finished her crying and cleaned the marks of it from her face. She stood by the window and looked out with no interest. Tomorrow would be Christmas Day, and she had only \$1.87 with which to buy Jim a gift". It should be noted that in reaction to positive or sad emotions expressed in the passage, the subjects ignore neutral information and focus on the emotional one. In response to the third passage, the subjects have drawn details pointing to movement: a ladder, a clock, a walking girl, a girl watching in a mirror, thus, reacting to the dynamics of the described events.

The third part of each task in the experiment includes answers to the questions. The subjects' answers can show whether they create a mental-physical environment relevant to the described events; what physical parameters the mental environment has; if there is any overlapping of the real environment with the cognitively processed one. The hypothesis is that if the subjects can answer these questions, then it means that a mental creation of a physical environment relevant to the discourse unconsciously occurs at the moment of this discourse comprehension. The shift in the majority of the subjects' answers to the first question "Is the action in the passage you have heard static or dynamic?" is dynamic ( $\frac{5}{3}$ ) – static ( $\frac{6}{2}$ ) – dynamic ( $\frac{6}{2}$ ), which reflects the change of the events described in the passages.

The answers to the second question, "Where does the action take place?" are similar: a house or a flat.

The answer to the third question, "What time of the day is it: a morning, a daytime, an evening, or a night?" changes. After reading the first passage, the majority of answers are "an evening" (6), and in two of eight cases, it is "a day" (2). We consider this result to be either a reaction to the past form of the verbs used in the first passage and Della's having lack of time to fulfill the plans, or the interference of the real surrounding physical environment into the comprehension of the passage (the experiment took place at 4 p.m.), as, later, answering the same question to the second and the third passages, the subjects mostly change the evening time for the day time (4 out of 3) in both cases.

The shift in the answers to the fourth question, "Is it cold, warm, hot, cool at the moment?" is constant. In all three cases, two of eight subjects characterize the environment belonging to the discourse as cold, while the rest (6) says that it is warm.

It is obvious, that the character of the answers is directly connected with the Christmas time, a winter, which is default cold.

In the majority of cases, the shift in the answers to the fifth question “Is it light or dark at the place?” is mostly dark (5/3) – light (5/3) – light (5/3). It coincides with the shift in the answers to the third question and reflects the correction of the time of the described events – from the evening in response to the first passage to the day time in the following answers.

## Conclusion

The analysis of philosophic, psychological, linguistic literature on the problem of inference has shown the necessity of studying common rules or principles, regulating the whole process of making an inference. The word “*principles*” implies common regulative rules which accompany the process of making an inference all along with the discourse comprehension and are consistent with its nature. In the course of study, it has become obvious that in spite the fact that inference is considered to be a form of reasoning and should be reviewed in the framework of its logic, it cannot fit within the common scientific understanding of logical principles of reasoning (the notions inference and syllogism are not equal, an inference can be only partially related to conclusions made on the basis of primary premises, as it is often drawn on the basis of arbitrary data of both linguistic and extra-linguistic character. The chosen approach to the inference phenomenon has resulted in an appeal to various spheres of human activities, and, mostly, to a comprehending human being in order to define the influence of external and internal factors on the inference process and to identify the principles that can underlie the discussed process.

The study of inference regarding the anthropocentric (biological, physiological, psychological) factors, physical (energy conservation, the change of physical parameters of the environment) and psychological laws have allowed identifying the following principles of inference: the principle of situational economy, analogy, cohesion, coherence, information conservation, mutual influence, an anthropocentric principle, a principle of reciprocating movement of reflection and a principle of an analysis and synthesis circle. The studied principles do not only reveal the nature of inference but point to the mechanisms of its action. The associative experiment has fully verified the above mentioned principles. An interesting assumption has been made regarding the anthropocentric principle of inference. When comprehending a discourse, a person can borrow physical parameters of the real environment to create a mental environment relevant to the described events. The practical use of the received results can be found in any sphere of intellectual work, beginning with marketing companies and finishing with the creation of artificial intelligence.

## Bibliographic references

- ARISTOTEL. 1984. Works: in 4 volumes. Moscow: Idea, vol. 4. Available online: [https://platon.net/load/knigi\\_po\\_filosofii/istorija\\_antichnaja/aristotel\\_sochinenija\\_v\\_chetyrekh\\_tomakh\\_tom\\_1\\_red\\_v\\_f\\_asmus/7-1-0-389](https://platon.net/load/knigi_po_filosofii/istorija_antichnaja/aristotel_sochinenija_v_chetyrekh_tomakh_tom_1_red_v_f_asmus/7-1-0-389)
- ASMUS, V. F. 1998. Ancient philosophy. Moscow: High school. Available online: [http://www.logic-books.info/sites/default/files/asmus\\_antichnaya\\_filosofiya\\_1999.pdf](http://www.logic-books.info/sites/default/files/asmus_antichnaya_filosofiya_1999.pdf).
- BICKERTON, D. 1995. Language and human behavior. Seattle: University of Washington Press. Available online: [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270955877\\_Language\\_and\\_human\\_behavior\\_r\\_Derek\\_Bickerton\\_Seattle\\_University\\_of\\_Washington\\_Press\\_1995\\_Pp\\_180](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/270955877_Language_and_human_behavior_r_Derek_Bickerton_Seattle_University_of_Washington_Press_1995_Pp_180).

- COTTON, D. – Falvey, D., – Kent, S. 2002. Market leader: pre-intermediate Business English course book. Pearson Longman. Available online: <https://www.amazon.com/Market-Leader-Pre-Intermediate-Course-Book/dp/0582507200>.
- DAMASIO, A. 2014. Descartes' error. Emotion, Reason and the Human Brain. New York: Penguin Group. Available online: [https://ahandfulofleaves.files.wordpress.com/2013/07/descartes-error\\_antonio-damasio.pdf](https://ahandfulofleaves.files.wordpress.com/2013/07/descartes-error_antonio-damasio.pdf).
- DEWEY, J. 1933. How we think. Boston New York Chicago: D. C. Heath & Co. Publishers. Available online: <https://archive.org/details/howwethink000838mbp/page/n8>.
- Dictionary of foreign words. 1989. Moscow: Russian language.
- EMETS, T.V. – BARYSHNIKOVA, I. V. – TRUTNEV, A. Y. – SUVOROVA, E.V. – ACHMETZYANOVA, T. L. 2018. Logical and linguistic strategies for translating complex sentences in literary texts of natural languages *XLinguae*, vol. 11, n. 2, pp. 3-16. Available online: [http://www.xlinguae.eu/files/XLinguae2\\_2018\\_1.pdf](http://www.xlinguae.eu/files/XLinguae2_2018_1.pdf).
- FAUCONNIER, G. – TURNER, M. 2002. The way we think: conceptual blending and the mind's hidden complexities. New York: Basic Groups. Available online: <https://tecfu.unige.ch/tecfu/maltt/cofor-1/textes/Fauconnier-Turner03.pdf>.
- GUILLAUME, G. 1984. Foundations for a Science of Language. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins. Available online: <https://benjamins.com/catalog/cilt.31>.
- GRAESSER, A. – MILLIS, K. – ZWAAN, R. 1997. Discourse comprehension. *Annual review of psychology*, vol. 48, n. 3, pp. 163-189. Available online: <https://www.annualreviews.org/doi/abs/10.1146/annurev.psych.48.1.163>.
- GRAESSER, A. – SINGER, M. – TRABASSO T. 1994. Constructing inferences during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological review*, vol. 101, n. 3, pp. 371-395. Available online: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/6d18/5f5cfc7e1df9105459a68e96f82fbb047f52.pdf>.
- KOROTKOV, E. A. 2011. Logic: training manual for law students. Belgorod: IPK NIU «BelSU».
- LAKOFF, G. – JOHNSON, M. 2008. Metaphors we live by. University of Chicago Press. Available online: <http://shu.bg/tadmin/upload/storage/161.pdf>.
- MAKAROV, M. L. 2003. Discourse theory. Moscow: ITDGK «Gnosis». Available online: [http://yanko.lib.ru/books/cultur/makarov-osnovu\\_teorii\\_diskursa-8l.pdf](http://yanko.lib.ru/books/cultur/makarov-osnovu_teorii_diskursa-8l.pdf).
- MATURANA, H. R. – VARELA, F. J. 1987. The tree of knowledge: The biological roots of human understanding. Boston: Shambhala Publications. Available online: <https://www.cybertech-engineering.ch/research/references/Maturana1988/maturana-h-1987-tree-of-knowledge-bkmrk.pdf>.
- ODINTSOVA, I. V. 2016. Implicature and inference in lingvo-didactics. MIRS, 4. URL: Available online: <https://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/implikatsiya-i-inferentsiya-v-lingvodidaktike>.
- ORTEGA Y GASSET, X. 1980. Two great metaphors. In: Theory of metaphor. Moscow: Progress. Available online: <http://www.lib.ru/FILOSOF/ORTEGA/ortega11.txt>.
- Oxford advanced learner's dictionary of current English. 2005. Oxford University Press.
- Philosophical dictionary. 1981. Moscow: Politpublishing.
- Philosophical writings of Descartes. 2012. Cambridge University Press. DOI: Available online: <http://doi.org/10.1017/CBO09780511805042>.
- Philosophical writings by Immanuel Kant (1997) Bloomsbury Academic. Available online: <https://www.bloomsbury.com/uk/philosophical-writings-immanuel-kant-9780826402998/>.

- RICKHEIT, G. – STROHNER, H. 1985. Inferences in text processing. North Holland- Amsterdam – New York – Oxford.
- SUVOROVA, E. V. Inference: principle of anthropocentrism in narrative discourse perception. Philological sciences. Questions of theory and practice, vol. 12, n. 5, pp. 249-252. Available online: <https://cyberleninka.ru/article/n/inferentsiya-printsip-antropotsentrizma-pri-vospriyatii-narrativnogo-diskursa>.
- SUVOROVA, E. V. – POLYAKOVA, L. S. 2018. Double inference in the processes of comprehension of Russian and English discourse complicated by an idiom. 3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature, vol. 24, n. 2, pp. 43-57. Available online: <http://ejournals.ukm.my/3l/article/view/20492>.
- VYGOTSKY, L. S. 2019. Thought and Speech. Moscow: National education press.
- YI, T. H. 2009. From meaning to inference: Exploring the Semantics-Pragmatics Interface through Online Processing and Development. Dissertation. Department of psychology. Harvard University Graduate School of Arts and Sciences. Available online: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/535d/e2b01ed221a57a687584fe2680956bcf1604.pdf>.
- ZALEVSKAYA, A. A. 2005. Psycho-linguistic researches. Word. Text: Selected papers. Moscow: Gnosis. Available online: <https://www.klex.ru/37d>.
- ZAVARZINA, S. A. 2016. On defining the role of inference in the system of text categories. Bulletin of the SUSU. Series “Linguistics”, vol. 13, n. 1. Available online: <https://vestbik.susu.ru/linguistics/article/view/4772>.

*Words: 8106*

*Characters: 53 116 (29,51 standard pages)*

Elena Suvorova  
Department of Foreign Languages for Engineering  
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University  
Russia  
[suvorlen@yandex.ru](mailto:suvorlen@yandex.ru)

## Place of phraseology in the study of foreign languages (on the example of Russian as a foreign language)

### [Место фразеологии в изучении иностранных языков (на примере русского как иностранного)]

Larisa Borisovna Katsyuba – Kholisakhon Eshmatovna Ismailova – Olga Victorovna Bondareva

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.07

#### Abstract

The paper presents a description of the methodology and some results of the use of phraseological units, proverbs, sayings to improve the efficiency of the mastering of Russian as a foreign language. The article describes the use of phraseological materials of the teacher of Russian as a foreign language in the classroom with students from different countries. Analysis of the results of the use of phraseological units, proverbs, sayings showed the prospects of the use of phraseological units for the development of students' phonetics, vocabulary, grammar, as well as the development of students' ability to listen, read and write in Russian.

**Key words:** phraseology, cultural linguistics, Russian as a foreign language, proverb, saying

#### Аннотация

В работе представлено описание методики и некоторые результаты применения фразеологизмов, пословиц, поговорок, чистоговорок для повышения эффективности освоения русского языка как иностранного (РКИ). Описано применение фразеологических материалов преподавателя русского языка как иностранного на занятиях со студентами из разных стран. Анализ результатов применения фразеологизмов, пословиц, поговорок, чистоговорок показал перспективность применения фразеологизмов для освоения студентами фонетики, лексики, грамматики РКИ, а также развитие у студентов способности аудирования, чтения и письма на русском языке.

**Ключевые слова:** фразеология, лингвокультурология, русский язык как иностранный, пословица, поговорка

---

#### Введение

Фразеологическая тема в изучении иностранных языков, в частности, русского языка как иностранного (РКИ), продолжает разработку культурологического подхода в лингводидактике. Многие исследователи (Pavlovskaya, 2000; Sokol, 2006) отмечают ценность эстетически значимой формы фразеологизмов и пословиц, их роль в формировании коммуникативной компетенции, поскольку «успешный диалог в межкультурной коммуникации невозможен без познаний в области лингвокультуры. Именно поэтому современная лингводидактика исходит из того, что в основе иноязычной коммуникативной компетентности лежат лингвокультурологическая и лингвистическая компетенции» (Farkhutdinova, 2013). Вопрос о включении фразеологического материала как части лексико-фразеологической системы в содержание процесса обучения РКИ преподаватели-практики не считают остро дискуссионным, поскольку по достоинству оценили лингвокультурологический, страноведческий, лингводидактический потенциал этих единиц: «в человеческом обществе и, в частности, в речевом общении они

(*фразеологические единицы* – Авторы) выполняют самые разнообразные функции: моделируют ситуацию, поучают, становятся магическими символами, развлекают, помогают наладить контакт или прервать его, дают возможность прогнозировать будущее и т.д. Кроме того, они имеют эстетически значимую форму, поскольку создавались по особым правилам народной культуры. Таким образом, пословицы и поговорки становятся бесценным материалом для формирования лингвокультурологической компетенции» (Farkhutdinova, 2013).

Необходимо сделать замечание о том, что в настоящей работе мы придерживаемся широкого понимания фразеологии. Говоря о фразеологическом материале, мы оперировали данными о фразеологии, которая наряду с фразеологизмами изучает устойчивые фразы разных структурных типов, в том числе пословицы и поговорки. Считаем нужным также отметить, что фразеологический материал (пословицы, поговорки, фразеологизмы) с определенными оговорками принадлежит к сфере идиоматики (Kirshenblatt-Gimblett, 1981; Dundes, 1981; Cram, 1994; Katsyuba, 2013; 2018a), если учесть, что идиомами в отечественной и зарубежной традициях (Seidl, 1997; Akhmanova, 2012; Varanov, 2007) называют устойчивые сочетания; многокомпонентные выражения с целостным значением, которое не может быть восстановлено из индивидуальных значений слов-компонентов; фразеологизмы.

## **Методы**

Широта диагностического аппарата работы определена избранными методами. Были использованы общелогические методы и приемы исследования, основанные на изучении закономерностей и раскрытии объективных законов языка:

- анализ и синтез,
- обобщение,
- индукция и дедукция,

и специальные лингвистические методы:

- лингвистическое наблюдение,
- филологический анализ учебно-научного текста,
- структурно-семантическое и прагматическое описание,
- индуктивный метод анализа от конкретных языковых фактов к установлению системных отношений между ними и обобщения на этой основе теоретических положений и выводов.

Кроме того, использовался метод педагогического наблюдения:

- наблюдение за учебным процессом.

**Цель** – анализ возможностей применения фразеологического материала на разных этапах образовательного процесса и определение значимости фразеологических единиц для формирования и развития у иностранных студентов коммуникативной и лингвокультурологической компетентности.

## **Задачи**

Фразеологические единицы играют важную роль в реализации современной коммуникации носителя русского языка; они частотны по употреблению, имеют объемную семантику и коннотацию. Однако несмотря на такие языковые особенности работа с данными единицами в иностранной аудитории встречает ряд трудностей: проводится ограниченно по времени (или не проводится совсем), нерегулярно, бессистемно и т.п. Действительно, работа преподавателя по включению фразеологического фонда в активную часть лексикона иностранца трудоемка. Вот некоторые задачи, которые в этой связи мы пытаемся решить теоретически и практически:

- определение этапа введения фразеологического материала в содержание учебного процесса;
- объем фразеологического материала, который должен стать активной и пассивной (уровень понимания) частью лексикона;
- репрезентация материала;
- место представленного материала в учебнике и тексте;
- система упражнений, направленная на исследование семантизации, грамматикализации и лингвокультурологических особенностей данных единиц и их активную реализацию в речи.

### Методика и обсуждение

Рассматривая фразеологический материал в лингво-образовательном контексте, опираясь на собственный опыт преподавания, мы отметили значение фразеологии уже на фонетическом этапе – в формировании слухо-произносительных и артикуляционных навыков при изучении русского языка как иностранного. Работа с устойчивыми единицами: пословицами, поговорками, чистоговорками и скороговорками начинается на этапе вводного фонетико-грамматического курса, т.е. в первые десять дней знакомства с русским языком, при постановке трудных для иностранцев русских звуков (например, [ы], [б], шипящих звуков [щ], [ц], [ч], [ш], парных звуков по твердости-мягкости [л], [р], и др.), при отработке навыков интонирования. Для этих целей подойдут специальные предложения – чистоговорки: *Крыса в риге грызла рис; На дворе трава, на траве дрова. Раз дрова, два дрова, три дрова; Дед делил дыню: дольку – Диме, дольку – Дине; Чуть что – тетя Тютчева читает; Купили Валерику и Вареньке варезки и валенки; Черепаха, не скупая, час сидит за чашкой чая; Два щенка щека к щеке грызли щетку в уголке* и др.

Говоря о чистоговорке, нужно сказать несколько слов о дефиниционном аспекте этого нелингвистического термина. Современные русские лингвистические словари (Yartseva, 1998; Akhmanova, 2012; Polivanov, 2015) не дают определение чистоговорки. Опыт работы и анализ специальной литературы позволил нам сформулировать рабочее определение понятия: *чистоговорка* – специально созданное ритмически выдержанное предложение с набором труднопроизносимых звуков и звукосочетаний, употребляемое в качестве фонетического упражнения, тренажера. Зачастую чистоговоркой может служить пословица.

О лингводидактической функции пословиц в постановке и коррекции некоторых звуков, например, [л'] мягкого, писала преподаватель-практик С.П. Розанова: «полезно повторять русские пословицы, крылатые выражения (Сколько лет – сколько зим! Тише едешь – дальше будешь! Дальше в лес – больше дров! и т.д.)» (Rozanova, 2015). Автор учебного пособия отмечала важность устойчивых единиц, а также поэтических форм в выработке так называемого «слухо-двигательного динамического стереотипа» у студентов-иностранцев, позволяющего беспрепятственно различать, слышать русскую речь, говорить по-русски без акцента: «разучивание песен, стихов, поговорок развивает «чувство русского языка», формирует долговременные навыки, стимулирует и мобилизует механизмы запоминания» (Rozanova, 2015). Действительно, в фонетической практике использование фразеологического материала является достаточно продуктивным. Однако главная задача преподавателя на начальном этапе изучения русского языка корректно отобрать несложные с точки зрения лексики и грамматики коммуникативно-ориентированные единицы, которые бы представляли определенную ценность для студента. В начале работы объем этих единиц должен быть минимальным.

Как справедливо отмечено, «при обучении любому иностранному языку необходимо в начале курса хорошо изучать лексику. Именно лексика,

взаимодействуя в речи с грамматикой и фонетикой, является ведущим средством речевого общения в устной и письменной формах. Лексика неразрывно связана с грамматической системой языка, одно без другого не существует, и лексика оказывает огромное влияние на грамматику. Обучение лексике – это не просто заучивание новых слов, а усвоение имеющихся между ними в языке фонетических, грамматических, смысловых и ассоциативных связей» (Ismailova, 2018b). Фразеологические единицы как специфическая часть лексикона языка в начале изучения русского языка как иностранного вводятся постепенно на уровне понимания, закрепляясь в речи в качестве пассивного запаса.

На начальном этапе в процессе прохождения учащимися вводного фонетико-грамматического курса первые пословицы (с переводом) появляются в качестве иллюстративного материала начиная с шестого-седьмого урока (по прошествии 36 часов аудиторных занятий): *Сначала думай – потом говори; Сначала думай – потом делай; И Москва не сразу строилась; Мой дом – твой дом; Тише едешь – дальше будешь; Яйца курицу не учат; Повторение – мать учения; Лучше поздно, чем никогда*. В работе с числительными актуализируются пословицы: *Одна голова хорошо, а две лучше; Не имей сто рублей, а имей сто друзей; Семь раз отмерь – один раз отрежь*.

Знакомство с русскими пословицами продолжается и на этапе работы с первыми обиходно-бытовыми глаголами, связанными с тематикой повседневной жизни: *читать, знать, делать, работать, говорить, любить, жить, быть*. Запоминаемая формы глаголов, работая со словарем глаголов (Shustikova, 2012) и основанной на его структуре глагольной тетрадью, студенты исследуют контекстное употребление глагольных лексем. Здесь в качестве примеров выступают пословицы: *Кто много читает, тот много знает; Кто хочет много знать, тому надо мало спать; Долго думай, да быстро делай; Кто не работает, тот не ест; Мало говори, да много делай; Будь что будет!* и др. Фразеологические единицы выступают не только образцами построения отдельных синтаксических конструкций современной речи, но и являются ее составной частью. На данном этапе могут быть реализованы разные возможности вопросно-ответной деятельности и самостоятельной работы. На основе работы с глаголами в пословицах актуальны первые дискуссии, активно направленные на развитие речи. Например, студенты получают задание:

- Подумайте и скажите, почему так говорят: *Кто много читает, тот много знает?*

(Ответы студентов, изучающих язык в течение первых десяти дней, приведены с соблюдением оригинальной грамматики: *Книга – (это) хорошо; Это умный человек (студент); Книги надо много (читать); Умный студент – это хорошо; Книга(-и) много учат* и т.п.).

На наш взгляд, полноценная серьезная работа с фразеологизмами и пословицами начинается на среднем этапе обучения, со второго семестра довузовской программы, и продуктивно развивается на всех последующих этапах вузовского обучения, когда студенты, магистранты, аспиранты нарабатывали более высокий уровень владения русским языком. Активная работа с текстами по общему владению языком, в которых встречаются фразеологизмы, пословицы, идиомы, может проходить во втором семестре довузовского этапа. Работа с текстом – это новая ступень в познании языка, поскольку «богатейший лингводидактический и психолингвистический потенциал текста дает возможность использовать его не только как материал для наблюдения и анализа функционирования языковых – лексических и грамматических единиц и как основной источник страноведческой и

культуроведческой информации, но и как предметно-содержательную основу для речи, а главное – как стимул для развития и совершенствования всех речевых умений» (Khavronina, 2013).

Рассмотрим фрагмент учебного материала занятия по теме «Человек», включающей разделы «Внешность и характер человека», «Мой дом – моя крепость»; «Моя семья»; «Кем быть? Где работать? Чем заниматься?»; «Мои друзья – мое богатство» и т.д. Представленные для работы небольшие тексты диалогического и монологического характера способствуют отработке как общезыковой, так и фразеологической компетенции.

Например, текст «Моя семья»:

«Любому человеку нужна семья, в которой самое главное – защита, доверие, доброта, любовь. И русский человек не исключение. Семейные ценности важны для каждого человека, поэтому в русском языке вы можете найти большое количество пословиц, которые говорят о роли семьи: *В семье и каша гуще; Семейное согласие всего дороже; Вся семья вместе, так и душа на месте; Не нужен и клад, коли в семье лад; Русский человек без родни не живёт...*

Создание семьи – один из самых важных этапов в жизни любого человека, шаг очень ответственный. Каждая семья – это свой маленький мир, мир близких, но сложных взаимоотношений. Люди ищут в браке счастья, взаимопонимания, поддержки. Но, прежде чем начать *вить гнездо* (устраивать свою семейную жизнь, создавать домашний уют), молодые люди *вступают в брак* (женятся, выходят замуж, создают семью). Перед этим мужчина *делает предложение* женщине, *просит её руки (и сердца)*, т.е. предлагает ей стать его женой.

**Пример:** *Вчера мой друг сделал мне предложение! Я ответила ему, что согласна...*

И, конечно, главная ценность в семье – дети. Известно, что родители часто любят детей больше, чем дети родителей. Но родители не становятся от этого менее счастливыми, ведь для них ребёнок – *свет в окошке*. Так говорят о самом дорогом, любимом, с кем связаны лучшие надежды.

**Пример:** *Для моей матери я всегда был светом в окошке...*

Веками жизнь русского человека состояла из трёх периодов: «расту сам – расту детей – воспитываю внуков». И для каждого периода самым главным были и остаются семья, любовь, уважение и поддержка» (Cherkova, 2015).

Период изучающего чтения включает в себя элементы работы с новой лексикой и фразеологией, разбор семантико-грамматических особенностей фразеологических единиц. Далее задания по тексту включают работу по переводу пословиц и фразеологизмов на родной язык, подборку подходящих эквивалентов; понимание прямого и переносного смысла фразеологических единиц, применение новых пословиц в устной речи; узнавание новых единиц, исправление ошибок в неверном употреблении единиц; составление пословиц и фразеологизмов из разрозненно данных лексем, восстановление формы фразеологизмов. В качестве самостоятельного творческого домашнего задания можно предложить нарисовать фразеологизмы с целью разъяснения истории создания, глубинного смысла, сопоставления с прямым значением. При этом форма предъявления фразеологического материала может быть традиционной и интерактивной (о некоторых интерактивных методах работы на занятиях по РКИ см. (Ismailova, 2018a)).

Домашнее задание студентов помимо традиционных заданий на отработку грамматических и лексических навыков упражнения по фразеологии также может включать в себя упражнения на составление обзоров на тему «Из истории одного фразеологизма» (например, *тише воды, ниже травы; волка*

ноги кормят, семеро одного не ждут, белая ворона крокодилы слёзы, глаза разбегаются золотые руки, (спать) без задних ног и др.) и его визуальное представление, при этом художественные навыки учащихся не имеют решающего значения.

Как показывает практика преподавания, «предоставление учащимся на занятии подходящих готовых фразеологизмов, с разъяснением их смысла и сопоставлением переносного значения с прямым делает задание «Нарисуй фразеологизм» востребованным и интересным. Включенные в творческие задания фразеологизмы впоследствии входят в так называемую базу данных фразеологического занятия, а рисунки фразеологизмов участвуют в выставке фразеологических работ на заключительном занятии» (Katsyuba, 2018b: 556).

Примеры выполненных студентами работ можно увидеть на рисунках, представленных ниже.



Рисунок 1: «медведь на ухо наступил»



Рисунок 2: «тянуть ко́та за хвост»



Рисунок 3: «писать как курица лапой»



Рисунок 4: «развесить уши»



Рисунок 5: «кот заплакал»

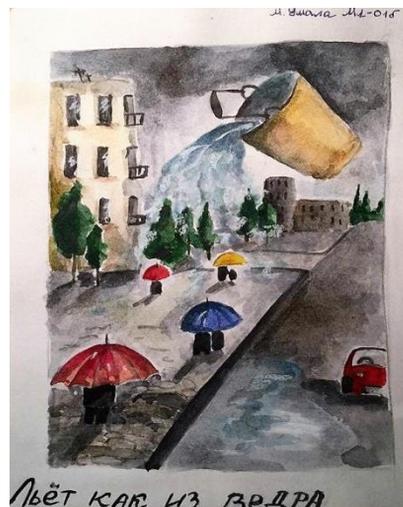


Рисунок 6: «льёт как из ведра»

Необходимо подчеркнуть, что интенсивная целенаправленная фразеологическая работа будет продуктивна в группах с достаточно высокой лингвокультурной адаптацией, которая среди прочего зависит от уровня владения языком и выбранной специальности (например, работа со студентами и аспирантами гуманитарных специальностей). В таких группах можно использовать фразеологические ресурсы в большем объеме и, как показывает практика, часть коммуникативно значимого для студента фразеологического материала, при постоянно обновляющемся материале и сбалансированной системе упражнений, закрепляется в качестве активного запаса.

### Обсуждение результатов

Обсуждая место фразеологии в изучении иностранных языков (на примере русского как иностранного) можно высказать следующие положения. Поэтапное введение фразеологического материала в содержание учебного процесса – от первых дней до любого уровня владения – благоприятно сказывается на реализации познавательного аспекта обучения иностранцев иноязычной для них русской лингвокультуре как части русской культуры. Важнейшими задачами для преподавателя на начальном этапе являются стадийная организация фразеологического материала, строгий отбор актуальных фразеологических единиц, коммуникативно значимых для студента, подбор системы упражнений, нацеленных на исследование семантико-грамматических особенностей и лингвокультурологической специфики данных единиц и их активную реализацию в речи.

### Заключение

Результаты проведенных занятий с применением фразеологизмов и пословиц по разным темам общего владения РКИ и их анализ показали, что включение такого лингвокультурологического материала в учебную деятельность повышает эффективность обучения РКИ и дает возможность реализации на фонетическом рубеже освоения языка как одного из весомых моментов, участвующих в выработке русского артикуляционно-слухо-

двигательного динамического стандарта. На этапе предвузовского рубежа фразеологизмы, пословицы, поговорки, чистоговорки в основном активно применяются в лексико-грамматических темах в качестве дополнительного иллюстративного материала и развивают навыки речевого общения, что также способствует формированию социолингвистической и лингвокультурологической компетенций. Использование русского фразеологического фонда на занятиях РКИ открывает новые возможности для аудиторной работы и самообразования студентов.

The publication has been prepared with the support of the "RUDN University Program 5-100".

Публикация подготовлена при поддержке Программы РУДН «5-100».

### **Bibliographic references**

AKHMANOVA, O. S. 2012. Dictionary of linguistic terms. Moscow: Book on demand. ISBN 978-5-458-52192-5.

BARANOV, A. N. etc. 2007. Dictionary-thesaurus of modern Russian idiomatics: about 8000 idioms of the modern Russian language. Moscow: The World of Encyclopedias Avanta+. ISBN 978-5-98986-139-2, 978-5-98986-143-9.

CHEPKOVA, T. P. – MARTYNENKO, Y. B. – STEPANYAN, E. V. 2015. Russian phraseological units. We learn and teach: a textbook for universities. Moscow: Flinta; Nauka. ISBN 978-5-9765-1733-2.

CRAM, D. 1994. The Linguistic Status of the Proverb. In: *Wise Words: Essays on the Proverb*. Ed. W. Mieder. New York: Garland Publishing, Inc., pp. 73-98.

DUNDES, A. 1981. On the Structure of the Proverb. In: *The Wisdom of Many: Essays on the Proverb*. Edited by Wolfgang Mieder and Alan Dundes. Madison, WI: The University of Wisconsin Press, pp. 43-64.

FARKHUTDINOVA, F. F. 2013. Small genres of the folklore in the development of the foreign communal competence of foreign students-philologists. In: *Genry-style approach in teaching Russian language and culture of speech. XI Ushakovsky readings. Collection of scientific articles and methodical recommendations on the materials of the All-Russian Scientific and Practical Conference*. Publisher: Ivanovo State University (Ivanovo), pp. 383-390.

ISMAILOVA, Kh. E. – ARZUMANOVA, R. A. – KATSYUBA, L. B. – PSHENICHNIKOVA, A. Y. 2018. Methodological foundations of teaching vocabulary to foreign students-nonphilologists by means of computer technologies (initial stage of training). In: *Revista ESPACIOS*, vol. 39, n. 29, p. 8. ISSN 07981015.

ISMAILOVA, Kh. E. – BONDAREVA, O. V. 2018. Learning the vocabulary of Russian as a foreign language within the elementary level through Quizlet.com. In: *XLinguae*, vol. 11, issue 3, eISSN 2453-711X 89. ISSN 1337-8384.

KATSYUBA, L. B. 2013. Determination of paremia as a unit of language and communication. In: *Bulletin of the Chelyabinsk State University. Series «Philology. Art History»*, vol. 73, n. 1 (292), pp. 53-57. ISSN 1994-2796.

KATSYUBA, L. B. 2018. The verb's face in Russian proverbs: semantic-grammatical and linguacultural aspects: monograph (Ed.) A. M. Chepasova. Moscow: Flinta. ISBN 978-5-9765-3799-6.

KATSYUBA, L. B. 2018. Work with phraseological material at the lessons of Russian as a foreign language. In: *Teaching Russian as a foreign language in higher education: experience and prospects: collection of scientific articles*. Moscow: MGIMO-University, pp. 552-558. ISBN 978-5-9228-1842-1.

KHAVRONINA, S. A – GULYAEVA, I. V. 2013. Methodology of teaching Russian to foreigners and psycholinguistics. In: *Bulletin of the Peoples' Friendship University of Russia*, n. 2, pp. 11-16.

- KIRSHENBLATT – GIMBLETT, B. 1981. Toward a Theory of Proverb Meaning. The Wisdom of Many: Essays on the Proverb. (Eds.) Wolfgang Mieder, Alan Dundes. Madison, WI: The University of Wisconsin Press, pp. 111-122.
- PAVLOVSKAYA, L. G. 2000. Russian phraseology as a fragment of the language picture of the world by the acquisition of Latvian students: thesis for the degree of doctor of pedagogical sciences: 13.00.02; (place of conservation: Pushkin State Russian Language Institute). Moscow.
- POLIVANOV, E. D. 2015. Dictionary of linguistic and literary terms. Moscow: The book house «LIBROKOM». ISBN 978-5-397-04590-2.
- ROZANOVA, S. P. 2015. For teachers of Russian as a foreign language: one hundred and forty-seven useful tips. Moscow: Flinta; Nauka. ISBN 978-5-9765-2043-1.
- SEIDL, J. English idioms. Oxford. 1997.
- SHUSTIKOVA, T. V – ATABEKOVA A. A. – KURMAEVA N. M. 2016. Russian verbs. Forms and contextual use: a textbook. Moscow: Flinta; In: Nauka. ISBN 978-5-89349-434-1
- SOKOL, M. A. 2006. Russian phraseological units as a means of forming the communicative competence of foreign students-non-philologists: thesis for the degree of candidate of pedagogical sciences: 13.00.02; (place of conservation: Nizhny Novgorod state pedagogical University). Nizhny Novgorod.
- YARTSEVA, V. N. 1998. Linguistics. Large Encyclopaedic Dictionary. Moscow: The Great Russian Encyclopedia.

*Words: 3133*

*Characters: 24 605 (13,67 standard pages)*

Associate Professor Larisa Borisovna Katsyuba  
 Department of Russian language №2  
 The faculty of Russian language and General educational disciplines  
 PEOPLES' FRIENDSHIP UNIVERSITY OF RUSSIA (RUDN University)  
 6, Miklukho-Maklay street  
 117198, Moscow  
 Russian Federation  
 larrakatz@yandex.ru  
 katsyuba-lb@rudn.university

Associate Professor Kholisakhon Eshmatovna Ismailova  
 Department of Russian as a Foreign Language  
 Institute of Fundamental Education  
 MOSCOW STATE UNIVERSITY OF CIVIL ENGINEERING  
 26, Yaroslavskoye shosse, 129337, Moscow  
 Russian Federation  
 holisa1967@mail.ru  
 Ismailova KHE@mgsu.ru

Assistant Professor Olga Victorovna Bondareva  
 Department of Russian language №2  
 The faculty of Russian language and General educational disciplines  
 PEOPLES' FRIENDSHIP UNIVERSITY OF RUSSIA (RUDN University)  
 6, Miklukho-Maklay street  
 117198, Moscow  
 Russian Federation  
 logiolya@yandex.ru  
 bondareva\_ov@rudn.university

## Understanding and explaining the meaning of words by younger age school children

[Porozumenie a vysvetľovanie významov slov u detí mladšieho školskeho veku]

Zdenka Kumorova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.08

### Abstract

Targeted communication strategies arriving from nearby surroundings form the linguistic expression of children and upgrade their speaking to a higher developmental level. Therefore, it is desirable to observe the effect of the surrounding environment on the language development of a child. Our study interprets the description of the vocabulary of chosen terms while it observes the semantic and grammatic formation of a described word by children (6 – 10 years old). We are going to notice the systematicity, analogy, or variability through semantic meaning or the connectivity of expression with other connotations. If a child experiences a lack of linguistic stimuli coming from the surrounding environment, the resulting slower development of his/her language skills can be a poor vocabulary, making it difficult to form more complex syntactic structures and limiting the child's communication to a narrow range of active vocabulary. The target group of children (6 to 10 years of age) was tested using the dictionary sub-test of the Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), consisting of 30 words designed for 6 - 17 years old children. Despite it being a sub-test of an intelligence test, for achieving more complex results, the testing will require further evaluation on a psychological level, but in the given study, we offer interpretations from the linguistic point of view - language as a pragmatic tool of communication and thinking. Using this diagnostic tool, we have studied the understanding of vocabulary in a group of respondents – pupils of the 1st to 3rd years of study at various basic schools in Slovakia. We derived from the fact that children possess more extensive passive vocabulary than the active one, which means that they understand more words than they actively use when communicating. The reflection of individual vocabulary can be observed through the expression and interpretation of words from our research dictionary. What can be a problem for children is not the recognition and understanding of a particular word itself, but the child's expressive and explaining skills. The result of measuring the understanding of the meaning of words highly depended on the expressive skills of respondents because the performance in the dictionary test was affected by respondents' expressive skills, not only the words' knowledge.

**Key words:** linguistic expression, language development of a child, passive vocabulary, active vocabulary, meaning of words, expressive skills

### Abstrakt

V našej štúdií interpretujeme opis slovníka vybraných pojmov, pričom si všímame sémantické a gramatické stvárnenie opisovaného slova u detí vo veku 6 – 10 rokov. Poukážeme na systematickosť, analógiu či aj inakosť prostredníctvom sémantického významu či spájateľnosť výrazu s inými konotáciami. Ak má dieťa nedostatok rečových stimulov od najbližšieho okolia, tak výsledkom spomaleného vývoja reči môže byť chabá slovná zásoba neumožňujúca tvorbu zložitejších syntaktických konštrukcií a obmedzenie komunikácie dieťaťa na úzky diapazón aktívnej slovnej zásoby. Respondentov vo veku 6 – 10 rokov sme testovali pomocou slovníkového subtestu Weschlerových intelligenčných škál (WISC) pozostávajúci z tridsiatich slov určeného pre deti od 6 do 17 rokov. Napriek tomu, že ide o subtest intelligenčného

testu, bude si testovanie vyžadovať ďalšie zhodnotenie na psychologickvej rovine, aby boli výsledky komplexnejšie, no v danej štúdiu poskytneme interpretácie z jazykového hľadiska ako pragmatického nástroja na komunikovanie a myslenie. Prostredníctvom tohto diagnostického nástroja sme skúmali porozumenie slovnej zásoby u respondentov 1 – 3 ročníka na troch rôznych slovenských základných školách. Vychádzali sme z toho, že dieťa má rozsiahlejšiu pasívnu slovnú zásobu ako aktívnu slovnú zásobu, s tým súvisí fakt, že dieťa viac rozumie slovám, ako ich používa v komunikačnej praxi. Odraz individuálnej slovnej zásoby je možné pozorovať aj na samotnej expresii a interpretácii slov nášho výskumného slovníka. Problematické pre dieťa môže byť nie samotné spoznanie a porozumenie významu konkrétneho slova, ale jeho vyjadrovacie a teda vysvetľovacie schopnosti. Výsledok merania porozumenia významu slov bolo vysoko závislé na expresívnych schopnostiach respondentov, lebo do výkonu v slovníkovom teste sa premietli aj jazykové vyjadrovacie schopnosti, nielen znalosť slov.

**Kľúčové slová:** jazykový prejav, jazykový vývin dieťaťa, pasívna slovná zásoba, aktívna slovná zásoba, porozumenie významu, jazykové vyjadrovacie schopnosti

---

## Úvod

Lexika detskej reči je špecifická a z hľadiska vývinu, rozmanitosti funkčného využitia, sémantizácie a tiež rozsahu. Z toho dôvodu ju nemožno porovnávať so slovníkom dospelého človeka ani z diachronického, ani synchronického aspektu (Mistrík, 1997: 86). Keďže lexika je vo vzťahu s ostatnými jazykovými jednotkami a okrem formy poskytuje jazyku aj bohaté jazykové stvárnenie významu, nemožno osvojovanie slovnej zásoby považovať za jednoduchý proces, u dieťaťa predovšetkým. Lexika v symbióze so syntaktickými a morfológickými vzťahmi je ťažko uchopiteľná pre detské jazykové myslenie. Preto pri skúmaní jazykového vývinu u dieťaťa nemožno izolovane skúmať len slovný fond dieťaťa, skúmať treba aj gramatické vlastnosti osvojenej lexiky, pretože rast lexikálnych a gramatických znalostí sú úzko previazané (Smolik, Galkova, 2014: 76). Autori sa tiež odvolávajú na výsledky výskumov kognitívnych vied v oblasti modularity kognitívnych procesov poukazujúc na relatívnu samostatnosť mechanizmov špecializovaných na spracovanie určitého typu informácie (porov. Fodor, 1984, In Smolik, Gálková, 2014: 76). Poukázaním na relatívnu samostatnosť fungovania a osvojovania si lexikálneho a gramatického modulu vziđe otázka, ako optimálne metodologicky uchopiť osvojovanie jazykových znalostí detí. V súlade s rozdielnymi kognitívnymi procesmi v rámci jednotlivých jazykových rovin osvojovania jazyka je táto teória opodstatnená pri sledovaní kombinovania a skladania lexém pomocou gramatických pravidiel. Individuálny slovný fond dieťa nadobudne pamäťovým osvojením, ktorému predchádza explicitné učenie slov ukazovaním na predmety, predvádzaním rôznych činností a imitovaním zvukovej podoby nejakého slova. Naopak, osvojovanie gramatického systému u dieťaťa explicitne neaplikujeme, dieťa si neosvojuje gramatické pravidlá uvedomovane, nepoukazuje sa na ich fungovanie v reči, napriek tomu si ich dieťa v priebehu vývinu reči samo osvojí. Tento jazykový mechanizmus naznačuje nativistická teória Chomského (1964) pri prezentovaní vrodenných štruktúr, ktoré doplnia informácie získané z prostredia a v súlade s nadobudnutou jazykovou skúsenosťou určujú podobu gramatiky. S touto teóriou pracujú viacerí psycholingvisti, teda že gramatický systém dieťa nenadobudne explicitným demonštrovaním, odvodzovaním či analyzovaním prezentovaných jazykových javov. „Pri osvojení gramatiky teda dieťa hrá aktívnu rolu, interpretuje počutý jazyk podľa obmedzenia a vzorov, ktoré sú dané vrodenným vybavením“ (Smolik, Galkova, 2014: 77).

## Diagnostika porozumenia významov slov u detí mladšieho školského veku

Rozvoj detskej reči možno sledovať v jeho vývinových štádiách, pričom možno pozorovať prudký nárast po kvantitatívnej aj kvalitatívnej stránke. Cílené komunikačné

stratégie zo strany blízkeho okolia formujú jazykový prejav dieťaťa a posúvajú reč dieťaťa na vyššiu vývinovú úroveň, preto je vhodné sledovať aj vplyv okolia na jazykový vývin dieťaťa. Gramatická a lexikálna výbava materinského jazyka u priemerných šesťročných detí by mala byť uplatňovaná v rečovej praxi obdobne ako u dospelého človeka. Možno teda povedať, že synkretizmus (nerozčlenenosť) lexiky gramatiky detskej reči trvá asi do polovice tretieho veku a až potom sa začne diferencovať lexikologická rovina od gramatickej (porov. napr. potrebujem, vjú a iné). Dieťa by už v piatom roku života malo disponovať slovnou zásobou približne 1500 až 2000 slov všetkých slovných druhov, ktoré dokáže plnohodnotne využívať v dlhších spontánnych prehovoroch a dialógoch rôznorodého komunikačného obsahu so správnou gramatikou a štylistikou (Kesselova, 2018). Z hľadiska sémantiky a gramatiky je jazykový prejav na vysokej úrovni v predškolskom veku 5.-6. roku života s rozsiahlou slovnou zásobou približne 2500 až 3000 slov. V tomto období by dieťaťu nemalo robiť problém tvoriť dlhšie súvislé prejavy v rôznych komunikačných situáciách, v ďalšom období vývinu dieťaťa sa doladuje štylistická stránka prejavu detského jedinca (Kapalkova, Slancova, 2017). V našom výskume sa zameriavame na deti nižšieho školského veku. Ak má dieťa nedostatok rečových stimulov od najbližšieho okolia, tak výsledkom spomaleného vývoja reči môže byť chabá slovná zásoba neumožňujúca tvorbu zložitejších syntaktických konštrukcií a obmedzenie komunikácie dieťaťa na úzky diapazón aktívnej slovnej zásoby (porov. Klimovic, Kresila, Liptakova, 2017). Odborníci upozorňujú aj na opačný extrém, ktorý vzniká pri nadmernom zaťažovaní detí osvojovaním si novej slovnej zásoby či zahrňovaním komunikačnej pozornosti zo strany rodičov (Kapalkova, Polisenka, 2013). Takéto deti sa môžu začať prejavovať negativisticky a môžu mať aj neurotické prejavy (Baranovska, Doktorova, Kumorova, 2018: 54).

Cieľovú skupinu respondentov sme testovali pomocou slovníkového subtestu Weschlerových intelligenčných škál (WISC) pozostávajúci z tridsiatich slov, ktorý je vekovo obmedzený pre cieľovú skupinu respondentov pre od 6 do 17 rokov. Prostredníctvom tohto diagnostického nástroja sme skúmali porozumenie slovnej zásoby u respondentov od 6 – 10 rokov, teda žiakov 1. (23 žiakov), 2. (11 žiakov), 3. (8 žiakov) ročníka (spolu 42 respondentov) na troch rôznych slovenských základných školách v Západoslovenskom (Trnava) a Stredoslovenskom kraji (Tvrdošín). Keďže, že ide o subtest intelligenčného testu, bude treba zrealizovať ďalšie testovanie a zhodnotenie prejavu detí na psychologické roviny pre komplexnejší pohľad na problematiku. V našej štúdií poskytneme interpretácie len z jazykového hľadiska ako pragmatického nástroja na komunikovanie a myslenie. Predpokladali sme, že dieťa má rozsiahlejšiu pasívnu slovnú zásobu ako aktívnu slovnú zásobu, znamená to, že dieťa viac rozumie slovám, ako ich používa v komunikačnej praxi a to možno zreteľne zachytiť pri samotnej expresii a interpretácii slov nášho výskumného slovníka. Dieťa má vo veku 6 – 10 rokov individuálnu slovnú zásobu pomerne širokú, preto pre dieťa, predpokladáme, nie je problematické samotné porozumenie slovníkovému významu konkrétneho slova, ale jeho vyjadrovacie a teda vysvetľovacie schopnosti. Výsledok merania porozumenia významu slov je vysoko závislé na expresívnych schopnostiach respondentov, lebo do výkonu u slovníkového teste sa premietnu aj jazykové vyjadrovacie schopnosti, nielen znalosť slov (porov. Hanan, 2017, Solik, Malkova, 2004: 198).

Optimálne sémantické stvárnenie slova, resp. vyjadrenie vzťahu lexikálnej jednotky ku skutočnosti, ktorá v slove odráža to, či danej jazykovej jednotke rozumieme, aj to, ako ju vhodne použijeme vo vlastnom jazykovom prejave. Pri uvádzaní optimálneho významu ako signálu porozumenia slov u detí vychádzame z porovnania výkladov s výkladovými slovníkmi Krátky slovník slovenského jazyka (2003) a Súčasný slovník slovenského jazyka (2006). Výklady slov u detí majú rôznu povahu, identifikovali sme ich s obdobnými znakmi definícií ako v KSSJ (2003):

**1. pomocou opisu**, kde sme zachytili rozhodujúce významové prvky nevyhnutné na identifikáciu daného predmetu alebo javu a zároveň na odlišenie od iných príbuzných predmetov či javov. V opisoch sme buď identifikovali všeobecné kategórie, alebo aj diferencné prvky, prípadne len jednu z týchto kritérií opisu výkladu. Opis významu sa konkretizuje uvádzaním synonym, antonym, príkladov, často sú uvádzané príklady izolovane od opisu a dopĺňané rôznymi štylistickými kvalifikátormi, najčastejšie u detí označujúce expresívnosť, hovorovosť, zriedkavo odbornosť. U detí sa vyskytoval aj opis významových odtienkov, ktorý sa objavil pri základnom opise ako pridružený spresňujúci opis, alebo sme našli len opis významového odtienka (v KSSJ sa vyskytuje po bodkočiarkach po uvedení základného významu).

**2. pomocou synonyma** (ak slovo malo podobný alebo rovnaký význam s približne rovnako štýlovou hodnotou a bolo teda členom synonymického radu so slovom v našom dotazníkovom slovníku) **alebo antonyma**. Spoluautori Smolík a Malkova (2014) upozorňujú na oslabenie či nepresnosť významu pri interpretácii významu respondentom, ak nejde o pravú synonymiu, pretože žiaci podávajú širší význam, prípadne štylistický príznak slova, ktorý posúva primárny opis lexémy. V našom výskume sme sa s týmto javom viackrát stretli, keď sme museli citlivo posudzovať vhodnosť zvoleného synonyma respondentmi, aby sme heslo mohli určiť ako správne vysvetlené, resp. objektívne zhodnotiť, či je odpoveď vyhovujúca, alebo už sa odchyľila od prvotného významu výrazne.

1. heslo HODINKY definuje výkladový slovník príkladmi (KSSJ, 2003) ako *náramkové al. vreckové hodiny*, pričom primárne vychádza aj so všeobecného opisu hesla *hodiny* poukazujúc na funkčnosť, nielen na výzor tohto prístroja s príslušnými frekventovanými konotáciami: *prístroj na meranie času; h. idú dopredu, tikajú*. Žiaci prvého aj druhého ročníka vysvetlili lexému *hodinky* najčastejšie v konotáciách *merajú čas* či *ukazujú, koľko je hodín*, pretože explicitne nevedeli vysvetliť pojem hodinky v súlade so slovníkovým výkladom. No vedeli vysvetliť funkciu, použitie a vzhľad pomocou príbuznej lexémy *hodiny*. Vzhľadom na tendenciu vysvetľovať predmet obdobným opisom u viacerých žiakov, potvrdila sa nám teória, že deti interpretujú slová určitým spôsobom (Markman, 1994), teda, že pomenávajú slová ako celé objekty, nie ich časti. Preto sa ani pri tomto opise, ani pri ďalších opisoch iných hesiel žiaci nesústredili na detaily predmetov a javov. Pri konotáciách sa objavilo slovo *tikajú*, ktoré doplnilo a umocnilo význam slova *hodinky*. Žiaci nevedeli nájsť správny názov na opis *hodínok* príkladom ako *náramkové h.*, no približoval sa k ich vlastným príkladom *na ruku*, preto sme to uznali ako signál poznania lexémy. Z hľadiska syntaktickej platnosti žiaci preferovali vysvetľovanie hesiel pomocou jednoduchých eliptických podradovacích súvetí s vedľajšími vetami prívlastkovými alebo predmetovými (1. ročník 34,4 %, 2. ročník 27,3 %); zvyšok žiakov uplatnil jednoduché rozvité vety s predmetom a zamlčaným podmetom (1. ročník 21,5 %, 2. ročník 36,4 %). Úspešnosť vysvetlenia lexémy bola u prvákov vysoká (78,1 %) a u druhákov (72,8 %).

2. heslo DÁŽDNÍK opisuje SSSJ (2006) ako roztvárateľnú ochrannú pomôcku proti dažďu pozostávajúcu z dlhšej rúčky a konštrukcie potiahnutej nepremokavou látkou. Žiaci 1. triedy z hľadiska zloženia vety vysvetlili slovo pomocou neúplných eliptických podradovacích súvetí vedľajších viet prívlastkových, predmetových či príslovkového určenia času počtom 43 % obdobne ako žiaci 2. triedy (91 %). Kesselova (2011:83) v rámci ontogenézy jazykového prejavu detí hovorí o zvýšenom formulačnom úsilí pri tvorbe prvých súvetí, čo sa prejavuje v dočasnom náraste nezrozumiteľných častí výpovede. Ostatné vety podľa zloženia u prvákov (8,6 %) tvorili jednoduché dvojčlenné neúplné rozvité vety s predmetom. Z lexikálneho hľadiska nebol u žiakov ani tak s porozumením hesla dáždňík, ako s jeho samotným optimálnym vysvetlením. Pre neúplné a nevhodné vysvetlenie sme nemohli akceptovať až 10 opisov žiakov 1. triedy a 2

opisy žiakov 2. triedy, išlo o alúzie na činnosti *zaspáť*, *zobudiť sa*, *meškanie*, resp. izolované lexémy *dážď* a *pršanie*. Ako vhodné opisy sme prijali konotácie súvisiace s ochranou pred dažďom, ktorých bolo spoločne 56,4 % u prvákov a 91 % u druhákov. Až takmer u polovice prvákov sme zaznamenali problémy s expresívnymi schopnosťami, nie skôr s porozumením. U žiakov starších ako 8 rokov sa nezisťovala znalosť významu prvých dvoch lexém.

3. heslo KRAVA vo výkladovom slovníku charakterizujeme ako *veľké prežívavé domáce zviera chované najmä pre mlieko a mäso; jeho samica*, pričom súčasne sa za opisom uvádzajú frekventované konotácie spojené s týmto slovom: *pásť kravy*, *dojná krava*. Pri prihniezdenom slove *kravský* sú rovnako uvedené konkretizujúce príklady: *k. roh*, *k. mlieko*. Žiaci prvého ročníka definovali pojem *krava* najčastejšie prostredníctvom špecifikačnej kategórie *mlieko/mliečko* (100 %) v spojení so slovesom v 3. os. sg. *dáva*, *vyrába*, *slúži na*, *tvorí*. Obdobne to bolo v 2. ročníku, kde žiaci vysvetlili pojem najčastejšie slovom *mlieko* (91 %), len 4-krát sa vyskytovalo slovo *zvíra/zvieratko*, no u jedného žiaka sa spomenuli všetky kategórie opisu slova v základnom výklade – *zvíra*, *mlieko*, *mäso*. Ide o konkretizáciu opisu prostredníctvom ustálených konotácií k danému heslu. Je to rozdiel oproti žiakom 3. ročníka, pretože žiaci 1. ročníka uplatnili zovšeobecňujúcu kategóriu opisu *zvíra/zvieratko* len 2-krát z 23. Zaujímavé je u prvákov sledovať, oproti žiakom z vyšších ročníkov, využívanie emocionálno-expressívnych príznamov v podobe zdobenín *mliečko* (55,9 %), *zvieratko* (4,3 %). Žiaci 3. ročníka ako 9 – 10 ročné deti mali vysvetliť slová až od tretieho hesla *krava*. Vysvetlenie slova *krava* v 3. ročníku žiaci volili najčastejšie lexémou *zvíra* ako zovšeobecňujúcu kategóriu (75 %). Prívlastok *domáce* možno považovať už za špecifikačný prvok, ktorý označil len 1 žiak. Slovo je z jadra slovnej zásoby, žiak sa s ním frekventovane stretáva už od útleho veku, a preto pri ňom boli uvedené aj konotácie spájajúce sa funkčne s heslom *krava*: *dobytok*, *gazdovský dvor*, *hospodárske zviera*. Tieto spojenia sa do významovej charakteristiky nezapočítavajú, ale korešpondujú s porozumením dieťaťa a potvrdzujú aj rozšírenú slovnú zásobu u detí tohto veku. Prváci (73,1 %) a druháci (81,9 %) spájali lexémy z hľadiska skladby prevažne pomocou jednoduchých dvojčlenných rozvitých viet s predmetom so zamlčaným podmetom, tretiaci na opis pojmu uplatnili zväčša eliptické podrad'ovacie súvetie s vedľajšou vetou prívlastkovou (75 %).

4. heslo ZLODEJ možno vykladať opisom s príkladmi ako *ten, kto kradne*, *okráda: vreckový zlodej*, *zlodej sa vlámal do bytu*. V hesle *zlodej* žiaci všetkých ročníkov odpovedali zovšeobecňujúcou kategóriou *kto kradne* (1. ročník 17 z 23, 2. ročník 10 z 11, 3. ročník 6 z 8), resp. prihniezdeným slovesom *vykráda* (1. ročník 3 z 23, 2. ročník 1 z 11, 3. ročník 1 z 8), *okráda* (3. ročník 1 z 8). Niektorí žiaci uvádzali aj spresňujúce konotácie, ako napr. *človek, ktorý kradne* (1. ročník 1 z 23, 2. ročník 1 z 11, 3. ročník 7 z 8). Poukázanie na osobu *človek* korešponduje so slovníkovým výkladom so zámenom *kto*. Zosobnenie konania na človeka sme v prípade žiakov 1. ročníka postrehli len v jednom prípade (4,3 %) prostredníctvom spojenia *ujo, ktorý kradne*, ale u tretiakov to bolo až 87,5 %, ostatné prípady sa nezosobňovali na konkrétnu osobu, žiaci uvádzali v ostatných prípadoch sloveso najčastejšie v 3. os. sg. alebo pl. Pri hesle sa uvádzali u všetkých žiakov frekventovane aj predmetové vzťahy: *vykráda domy*, *budovy a banku*, *kradne veci*, *peniaze*, *šperky*, *hodinky kradne* (1. ročník 22-krát, 3. ročník 6-krát). V porovnaní mladších žiakov so staršími sme si všimli rozdiel v uprednostňovaní syntaktickej konštrukcie na vyjadrenie sa. Kým pri prvákoch (77,4 %) a druhákoch (81,9 %) sa všeobecne uplatnila jednoduchá rozvitá veta, prevažne neúplná so zamlčaným podmetom ((*on*)*kradne čo?*), tak u tretiakov (87,5 %) prevažovalo podrad'ovacie súvetie s vedľajšou vetou prívlastkovou (*človek, ktorý kradne*). V jednom prípade sa vyskytol aj explicitne vyjadrený negatívny hodnotiaci parameter v podobe lexémy *zlý*. Táto lexéma je z jadra slovnej zásoby a žiaci ju funkčne využívajú v komunikácii. Pri opise hesiel slovesami sme pozorovali rôzne označovanie kategórie osoby, resp. označenie neosobnými tvarmi (*dojí*

sa, nosí sa, sa preváža, môže sa vozit'; je chované), no v prípade hesla zlodej sme pozorovali na kategórii osoby jednoznačnú osobnú distancovanosť detí k negatívnemu významu lexémy zvolením 3. os. sg.: *kradne/vykráda/okráda*.

5. heslo KLOBÚK v slovníku (KSSJ, 2003) zodpovedá dvom výkladom základného a sekundárneho významu, v prípade odpovedí detí v ZŠ odznel len základný význam s jeho príslušnými konotáciami: *prikryvka hlavy z pevnejšieho materiálu (so strieškou): založiť si k., dať si k. na hlavu*. V prípade hesla **klobúk** všetci žiaci 3. ročníka (100 %) odpovedali špecifikačnou kategóriou s predložkou *na hlavu*, no v prípade prvákov len 25,8 % a druhákov 27,3 %. Všeobecná pomenovacia kategória *prikryvka* sa objavila v slovotvorne motivujúcom slovesnom podstatnom mene *prikrytie* u všetkých žiakov len raz (3. ročník 1 žiak). Na identifikáciu predmetu žiaci využili namiesto opisu *prikryvka na hlavu* spojenie *vec* (4-krát v 3. roč.) či *oblečenie* (2 v 3. roč.), *čiapka* (2-krát v 2. roč.), čo sa príliš vzdialilo od pôvodnej pomenovacej funkcie významu slova, pretože ide o všeobecné označenie pomenovania. Žiaci zvolili aj iné doplnujúce označenia predmetu pomocou spojení *ochránenie tela pred slnkom, aby sme sa nespálili, proti slnku, aby sme nedostali úpal*, čo poukazovalo na jednostranné funkčné využitie klobúka, deti pravdepodobne nepoznali iný cieľ nosenia klobúka, ako ochrana pred nepriaznivým horúcim počasím. Zaujímavé bolo opäť porovnanie expresívnych schopností prvákov, druhákov a tretiakov: kým mladší prváci (10) a niektorí druháci (4) vysvetľovali predmet pomocou jednoduchých dvojjenných rozvitých viet s predmetom a so zamľaným podmetom (*(my) sa schovávame či chránime pred slnkom, nedostali úpal, nám nesvietilo slnko, nosí sa na hlavu a pod.*), tak tretiaci znova zvolili na vyjadrenie pojmu podradňovaciu syntagmu prívlastkovú (*vec, oblečenie, ktoré...*) (87,5 %). Niektorí prváci (8) a druháci (3) sa začali vyjadrovať už aj pomocou jednoduchších eliptických podradňovacích súvetí (3 z 11). Už len v jednom prípade sme zaznamenali využívanie kladného emocionálno-expresívneho príznaku v podobe zdobeniny *slniečko*.

6. heslo cudzieho pôvodu BICYKEL sa charakterizuje vo výkladovom slovníku opisom ako *dvojkoľosové jednostopové vozidlo poháňané nohami na prepravu osôb a športové účely* s jeho príslušnými lexikalizovanými spojeniami a frekventovanými konotáciami: *dámsky, detský b.; pretekársky b.; horský b.; jazda na bicykli*. Heslo **bicykel** opisali žiaci 3. ročníka (62,5 %) frekventovane lexikalizovaným spojením dopravný prostriedok, resp. univerbizovanú podobu prostriedok, napriek neuvádzaniu tohto spojenia vo výkladových slovníkoch (KSSJ, 2003, SSSJ, 2006) sa táto definícia môže brať ako relevantná, pretože sa žiaci učia v škole vymenovať dopravné prostriedky spolu s bicyklom. Opisy sú spájané u všetkých žiakov 1., 2. a 3. ročníka so slovesami poukazujúcimi na činnosť *vozit'/prevážať, prepraviť, športovať, jazdiť, dostať sa*, čo tento dopravný prostriedok definuje. Preto môžeme opisy považovať ako signál porozumenia u detí a môžeme ich ohodnotiť ako definované správne vo všetkých prípadoch, pretože slovo bicykel sa už od útleho detstva vyskytuje v ich aktívnej slovnej zásobe. No v prvom a druhom ročníku sa frekventovane opisoval bicykel prihnízeným slovotvorným variantom *bicyklovať sa*, tento opis sme nemohli brať ako relevantný, pretože bližšie neopisal funkciu predmetu. Žiaci síce pravdepodobne porozumeli heslu, ale zlyhala ich vyjadrovacia schopnosť optimálne vysvetliť pojem, to sa odrazilo na ich celkovom hodnotení porozumenia pojmu na 38,7 % prváci, druháci 54,5 %.

7. heslo SOMÁR je jednovýznamové podstatné meno opisované ako *zvíra s dlhými ušami, slabou vyvinutou hrivou podobné koňovi a používaný na nosenie nákladov, na jazdu al. do záprahu* s príslušnými príkladmi *hikať ako somár, nosiť sa na somárovi*. Heslo **somár** opisovali 5 prváci, 5 druháci a všetci tretiaci (8) všeobecnou kategóriou pomenovaním *zvíra*, čo hodnotíme ako signál porozumenia daného hesla. U niektorých detí sa vyskytli aj bližšie špecifikačné kategórie tohto pomenovania, čím sa pomenovacia

schopnosť tohto hesla radikálne zvýšila: *domáce, sivé, s veľkými ušami, prípadne na prepravenie vecí* (prváci 14-krát, druháci 1-krát, tretiaci 5-krát) – to je znakom dobre rozvinutej slovnej zásoby u dieťaťa. Úspešnosť porozumenia tejto lexéme je v 1. triede 63,8 %, v 2. triede 45,5 %, v 3. triede 100-percentná.

8. heslo STARODÁVNÝ sa vo výkladovom slovníku (KSSJ, 2003) definuje pomocou synonyma *starobylý* s príslušnými príkladmi *starodávne zvyky, starodávny dom*. Heslo **starodávny** žiaci vysvetľovali najčastejšie príkladom: *s. kniha, s. kolovrátok, s. vzácna vec, staré auto, staré hodiny, zámok či pyramída, s. nábytok* (prváci 4-krát, druháci 3-krát, tretiaci 4-krát) alebo synonymami: *starý, veľmi starý* (prváci 8-krát, druháci 2-krát, tretiaci 4-krát), ktoré sme ako signál porozumenia heslu schválili či už ako všeobecný znak, alebo špecifikačný znak významu. Neporozumenie slovu sme zaznamenali vo väčšom počte u prvákov 47, 3 %, druháci 54,5 % (oproti tomu tretiaci len 12,5 %). V tomto prípade by sme za nízkym skóre videli skôr rezervy v expresívnych schopnostiach respondentov ako v porozumení slovu.

9. heslo OPUSTIŤ je viacvýznamové slovo až s piatimi významami, pričom v odpovediach sa vyskytoval len jeho základný význam *zanechať (natrvalo) nejaké miesto, odísť odniekiaľ*, ako napríklad *opustiť mesto, miestnosť*, prípadne jeho prenesený eufemizmus *opustiť svet* vo význame *zomrieť* a prenesený význam *zanechať bez opory, odísť od niekoho: o. ženu, rodinu*. Heslo **opustiť** žiaci vysvetlili najčastejšie synonymom *odísť* (prváci 7, tretiaci 3), *odšťahovať* (prváci 2, tretiaci 1), *nechať* (prváci 1), *ísť preč* (prváci 1), no žiaci slovo opisali aj príslovkovým a predmetovým spojením *je sám/nechá samého; kamarát o. kamaráta; nájdeš si iného; otec o. maminu; o. manželku* (prváci 2, druháci 3, tretiaci 4). Všetky opisy zodpovedajú významom v základnom (prváci 5, druháci 3, tretiaci 1) a prenesenom význame (prváci 9, druháci 6, tretiaci 5), v dvoch prípadoch u tretiakov a jeden u prvákov nie je zreteľný, o ktorý význam ide, lebo stojí samostatne bez predmetu, a preto možno zhodnotiť slovo *opustiť* z hľadiska porozumenia ako lexému, ktorej žiaci rozumejú. Nesprávne zodpovedané výrazy boli skôr vecou nevhodného vysvetlenia ako nepoznania významu (prváci 34,4 %, druháci 27,2 %).

10. heslo STATOČNÝ je prídavné meno definované opisom s príslušnými príkladmi: *kt. koná v súlade so cťou, mravnosťou, (po)čestný, poriadny, svedomitý; svedčiaci o tejto vlastnosti: s. človek, občan; s. záchranca hrdinský, odvážny*. Heslo **statočný** žiaci charakterizovali iba pomocou synonym tak, ako to je po konkretizovaní po opise lexémy vo výkladovom slovníku. Žiaci však uvádzali aj iné synonymné slová ako *odvážny* (druháci 1, tretiaci 1), *smelý* (tretiaci 1), *dobrý* (prváci 2), pričom za správnu charakteristiku sme mohli považovať aj opisnú podobu *nebojí sa* (prváci 7, druháci 3, tretiaci 5) ako synonymum k slovu *hrdinský* (prváci 4, druháci 2), *nebojácny* či *smelý*. V tom prípade možno uviesť, že tretiaci rozumejú slovu správne a vedia ho využívať funkčne v komunikácii, prváci nevedeli vysvetliť význam slova až v 43 percentách a druháci až s 45,5-percentným podielom. Tieto nedostatky súviseli s nedostatočným a nepresným vysvetlením slova respondentom, nie pravdepodobne neporozumením významu.

11. heslo PRIEHLADNÝ je polysémantické prídavné meno, pričom žiaci uvádzali význam tohto slova v jeho základnom, teda neprenesenom význame súvisiacim s predmetmi, nie s morálkou: *priezračný, priesvitný: priezračné sklo, šaty*. Lexéma sa vysvetľovala pomocou zreteľných synonym. Heslo **prieľadný** žiaci frekventovane vysvetľovali pomocou opisu *je cez neho vidieť* (prváci 4, druháci 1, tretiaci 3), ktorý sa dá stotožniť so synonymom *priesvitný* (prváci 1, druháci 1) či *priezračný*, a preto sme túto odpoveď hodnotili ako správnu, dieťa porozumelo slovu. Za správnu odpoveď sme označili aj synonymum *čistý* (tretiaci 1). 3 žiaci z 3. triedy, 9 žiaci z 2. triedy a 11 žiaci z 1. triedy nepoznali význam slova, nerozumeli slovu *prieľadný*, preto celková

percentuálna úspešnosť je u prvákov 51,6 %, druhákov 12,8 % a tretiačov 62,5 %. Pri 10 slove sme po prvýkrát zaznamenali u detí 9 – 10-ročných väčšie problémy s porozumením, u prvákov je problém s vysvetlením alebo porozumením významu už od šiesteho hesla, podobne ako u druhákov.

12. heslo NEZMYSELNÝ je viacvýznamové adjektívum s 2 významami uvádzané s frekventovanými príkladmi: 1. *kt. nedáva zmysel, pochabý, hlúpy: n-é reči, nápady; 2. kt. sa prieči rozumu, nerozumný: n-á vojna, odpor je n.* Heslo **nezmyselný** žiaci uviedli v jeho základnom význame buď opisom korešpondujúcim so slovníkom, alebo synonymným výrazom typu *nie je pravda, nemôže byť* (3 druháci, 4 tretiaci) a mladší žiaci uviedli konkrétny nezmyselný príklad – *žaba/krava ide na bicykli, 4 + 4 = 7* (1 prvák, 3 druháci) prípadne boli uvedené aj subštandardné synonymá *blbá/blbosť/blbovina* (prváci 9, tretiaci 1). 11 prváci (47,3 %), 5 druháci (45,5 %) a 3 tretiaci (37,5 %) nevedeli reagovať na heslo vôbec alebo ho zle vysvetlili, čiže títo žiaci neporozumeli slovu, nepoznajú jeho význam.

13. heslo OSTROV opisuje výkladový slovník priamym významom a metaforicky preneseným významom s frekventovanými konotáciami: 1. *časť pevniny obkolesená vodou: o-y pri pobreží, pustý o.; 2. čo pripomína ostrov: o. snehu, o. zelene.* Heslo **ostrov** spôsobilo pri uvádzaní významu žiakom problémy, 9 žiakov 2. triedy, 5 žiakov 3. triedy buď úplne nepoznalo slovo, alebo vysvetlilo slovo vzdialenými analógiami na význam slova ostrov (more, ostrov, stromy atď.). Obdobne reagovali žiaci prvého ročníka, no tí vo svojich expresívnych schopnostiach úplne zlyhali, napriek poznaniu významu tohto slova, ako naznačili slová, ktorými označovali slovo, boli však príliš všeobecné a neúplné. Preto sme toto slovo hodnotili ako nesprávne vysvetlené, napriek tomu, že isté konotácie naznačovali, že v ich slovnom fonde niekde figuruje, ale tým, že ho aktívne nevyužívajú, majú problém vysvetliť význam slova. Celkové hodnotenie nesprávnych odpovedí u prvákov bolo 94,6 %, u druhákov 81,8 % a u tretiačov 62,5 %.

14. heslo ABECEDA je viacvýznamové slovo s tromi významami, pričom odvodené významy vznikli zužovaním, špecifikovaním podľa určitého odboru. Predpokladali sme, že tieto významy vzhľadom na úzku konkretizáciu významu žiaci nebudú poznať, preto uvádzame len priamy, základný význam, prípadne konotácie súvisiace s týmto významom, ktorý sme hľadali aj v odpovediach žiakov: *súbor všetkých písmen istej graf. sústavy v ustálenom poradí používaný jazykovým spoločenstvom: písменная slovenskej abecedy; učiť sa abecedu; usporiadať, zoradiť slová podľa abecedy.* Heslo **abeceda** vysvetľovali žiaci opisom alebo príkladom. Opis výkladového slovníka uvádza abecedu ako súbor všetkých písomných znakov, resp. písmen, preto sme odpoveď súvisiacou s týmto výkladom uznali ako signál porozumenia a výskytu v aktívnej slovnej zásobe u žiaka (prváci 10, druháci 7, tretiaci 6). Uznali sme aj odpoveď, kde sa uvádzali konkrétne písmena a poukázalo sa na poradie, ktoré je rovnako dôležitým špecifikačným kritériom výkladu významu slova abeceda. So slovom abeceda sa žiaci priebežne stretávajú už od predškolského veku, a preto je súčasťou ich aktívnej slovnej zásoby a vedú ho primerane vysvetliť, priradiť mu správne konotácie a funkčne ho definovať. Heslu abeceda porozumeli žiaci vo veľkom počte (prváci 68,8 %, druháci 72,8 %, tretiaci 87,5 %).

15. heslo BÁJKA je dvojvýznamové slovo, pričom prenesený význam je rozšírený, zovšeobecnený význam základného významu s expresívnym príznakom. Oba významy by sa mohli v odpovediach žiakov vyskytnúť, preto uvádzame obidva s niektorými príkladmi: 1. *poučne ladená rozprávka, v kt. zvieratá konajú ako ľudia: Ezopove b-y; 2. expr. nepravidivé rozprávanie, výmysel, rozprávka: nerozprávaj mi bájky!* Heslu **bájka** rozumela polovica žiakov 3. ročníka, zaujímavé je, že toto heslo vôbec poznali niektorí žiaci, pretože tento literárny útvar je súčasťou osnov na 1. stupni ZŠ až v 4. ročníku.

Najčastejšie ho žiaci definovali obdobne, ako je uvádzané v definíciách učebníc vo vyšších ročníkoch prvého stupňa ZŠ. Preto výklady typu rozprávka, v ktorej vystupujú zvieratá; poučná rozprávka; básnička alebo veršované diela; vymyslená rozprávka možno uznať ako správne výklady poukazujúce na poznanie tohto slova. U 4 detí 3 triedy (50-percentná úspešnosť) možno tvrdiť, že slovu rozumejú a vyskytuje sa v ich aktívnom fonde slovnej zásoby. Opačný prípad boli prváci, ktorí nevedeli definovať bátku ako literárny žáner, uznali sme im však odpoveď v prenesenom význame rozprávka ako niečo vymyslené (3 = 12,9-percentná úspešnosť). Druháci boli neúspešní všetci (100 %).

16. heslo PRINÚTIŤ je jednovýznamové sloveso, ktoré možno vyložiť opisom ako *násilím, mocou, nátlakom spôsobiť, aby niekto niečo urobil, donútiť*, resp. konkretizovať jeho blízkymi konotáciami *prinútiť, aby odišiel; to urobil*. Pri hesle **prinútiť** sa vyskytovali viaceré konotácie poukazujúce na slovníkový výklad slova, ktoré sme uznali ako správne na identifikáciu slova v jeho slovotvorne odvodenom dokonavom tvare: *prinútiť/donútiť, aby niečo spravil/robil/urobil/povedal* (1. ročník 9-krát, 2. ročník 9-krát, 3. ročník 6-krát). Nátlak, násilie, rozkaz je základnou špecifikačnou kategóriou tohto slova, ktoré sa explicitne vyskytujú v uvádzaných slovesných spojeniach u prvákov 9-krát, u tretiakov 1-krát. Úspešnosť porozumenia tomuto slovu bola celkovo vysoká (1. trieda 77,4 %, 2. trieda 89,9 %, 3. trieda 87,5 %), z toho možno súdiť, že slovo patrí do aktívnej slovnej zásoby detí, pretože sa s ním v rodinnom či inom sociálnom prostredí majú možnosť vzhľadom na dorozumievaciu funkciu slova stretnúť pomerne často.

17. heslo VSTREBAŤ výkladový slovník definuje základným významom s pridruženými frekventovanými konotáciami: *priať do seba, pohltiť, absorbovať: korene vstrebať všetku vlahu*. Za heslom je uvádzaný aj jeho zvrtný tvar VSTREBAŤ SA, ktorý uvádzame s výkladom a príkladmi rovnako, pretože sa vysvetlenia uvádzali aj u našich respondentov. Vzhľadom na významovú totožnosť aj synonymiu možno takýto výklad považovať za správny. Heslo **vstrebať** sme uznali ako správne vysvetlené v 5 prípadoch u tretiakov (62,5 %), pričom najčastejšie bolo vysvetlené synonymne od zvrtného slovesa *vstrebať sa = vsiaknuť*, prípadne v jeho konotácii: *vsiaknuť krém*. Za nesprávne sme považovali vysvetlenie slova prostredníctvom preneseného významu na myšlienkové obsahy typu *keď sa niečo naučím*. Ostatní žiaci 3. ročníka a všetci žiaci prvého a druhého ročníka nepoznali význam slova, pretože sa vôbec nenachádzal ani v ich pasívnom fonde slovnej zásoby.

18. heslo PÝCHA sa v slovníku charakterizuje primárne v spojení s vlastnosťou, v prenesených významoch v spojení s osobou alebo sebavedomím prisudzovanej osobe. Všetky tri významy sa vyskytovali u respondentov, preto ich uvádzame všetky tri s ich jednotlivými konotáciami: 1. *preceňovanie seba, nadmerné sebavedomie, povýšenosť, márnomyseľnosť, namyslenosť, nadutosť: nadúvať sa od pýchy*, 2. *hrdosť, sebavedomie: rodičovská p., hovoriť s pýchou o svojej vlasti*; 3. *osoba, vec, na kt. možno byť hrdý, pyšný: syn bol pýchou rodiny*. Heslo **pýcha** vedela opísať väčšina žiakov 3. triedy (75 %), menej však žiaci 1. triedy (25,8 %). Slovo sa vyskytuje u viacerých v ich aktívnej slovnej zásobe a priebežne sa s ním stretávajú starší žiaci v rámci opisu osôb a ich charakterových črt. Slovo opísali prostredníctvom opisných tvarov *myslieť o sebe viac = preceňovanie sa; že som dobrý, že on myslí na seba = povýšenosť*. Ostatné opisy zodpovedali slovníkovému výkladu identicky: *namyslený* (1. trieda 2, 3. trieda 2), *povyšovať sa* (1. trieda 1, 3. trieda 1) zodpovedajúce základnému významu. Význam zodpovedajúci tretiemu významu *hrdý, pyšný* sa objavil u prvákov 3-krát a u tretiakov 1-krát. Celkovo žiaci 3. ročníka porozumeli tomuto slovu so 75-percentným podielom, pretože vysvetľovali lexému primerane jej slovníkovým špecifikačným kategóriám významu. Žiaci 1. ročníka porozumeli slovu pýcha minimálne (25,8 %), žiaci druhého ročníka vôbec (0 %).

19. heslo HAZARD sa vo výkladovom slovníku uvádza ako jednovýznamové slovo z okraja slovnjej zásoby definované ako *riskantný al. neuvážený čin, postoj, hazardérstvo, pričom sa uvádzajú aj jeho frekventované konotačné spojenia: hazard so životom; hazardná hra, hráč hrajúci o veľké peniaze*. Heslo **hazard** žiaci vysvetlili často pomocou konotácie *hra/hry s peniazmi; hry, pri kt. sa mňajú peniaze; hra, kt. získava peniaze* (1. ročník 1, 3. ročník 4). Tento opis zodpovedá príkladom v slovníkovom výklade, preto sme odpovede označili za správne. Optimálne vysvetlenie bolo uvádzané aj pomocou lexém *risk, riziko*. Len polovica tretiaikov (50 %) vedela však slovo hazard vysvetliť relatívne správne, preto možno označiť slovo hazard ako patriace do pasívnej slovnjej zásoby, prípadne slovo vôbec nepatrí do individuálnej slovnjej zásoby našich respondentov (tak ako u prvákov 94,6 %), pretože s nim v rámci svojej komunikačnej situácie neprichádzajú do kontaktu. Druháci boli neúspešní všetci (100 %).

20. heslo IMITOVAŤ je jednovýznamové, pričom jeho výklad významu je sprostredkovaný jeho synonymami s vhodnými spojeniami: *napodobňovať, napodobniť: i. (hlas) speváka*. Ide o slovo latinského pôvodu, ktoré nestojí v jadre slovnjej zásoby, je okrajovo využívané popri jeho synonymnej dominante *napodobňovať*. Heslo **imitovať** neoznačil nikto správne v treťom ročníku (7 vôbec nereagovali na heslo a 1 označil význam slova nesprávne), ale v 1. ročníku označili správnu odpoveď 3 žiaci. Slovo *imitovať* sa pravdepodobne častejšie nevyskytuje ani v aktívnej, ani v pasívnej slovnjej zásobe. Deti v predškolskom aj školskom veku mu častejšie nerozumejú, pretože sa nevyskytuje v ich komunikačnom poli. Druháci boli opäť neúspešní všetci (100 %).

21. heslo IZOLOVAŤ má 2 významy, pričom prvý opisuje *zamedzenie osôb: oddelovať, oddeliť (na zamedzenie styku), separovať, napr. chorého (od zdravých)* a druhý význam poukazuje na materiálne izolovanie: *(o)chrániť pred tepelnými zmenami, vlhkosťou, zvukom, napr. i. stavbu*. Slovo **izolovať** u žiakov prvého ročníka naznačilo, že mu vôbec neporozumeli, u žiakov 3. ročníka sme spozorovali prostredníctvom príkladov, že mu rozumejú 2 žiaci. Celková neúspešnosť v porozumení lexémy v 3. ročníku 25 %. Prváci a druháci neboli už vôbec hodnotení, pretože už od 17 slova vstrebať začali mať problémy s porozumením a s vysvetľovaním slov, testovanie s nimi sme skončili tromi po sebe idúcimi zápornými odpoveďami.

22. heslo NAMÁHAVÝ je prídavné meno s významom *vyžadujúci námahu, únavný, vyčerpávajúci, ťažký: n-á robota, cesta, n. šport*. Žiaci tretieho ročníka vysvetlili lexému **namáhavý** viacerými spôsobmi: pomocou príkladu, ako napr. *s domácou úlohou*; pomocou priameho synonyma *ťažký* (2), pomocou opisných synonym: *človek, kt. robí veľa vecí, moc pracuje, dá do toho veľa sily* (3) = vyžadujúci námahu, resp. únavný. Tretiaci dokázali slovo vysvetliť so 75-percentnou úspešnosťou.

23. Heslo DODATOK je vyložené ako niečo  *dodatočne pripojené, doplnok s pridanými frekventovanými spojeniami: d. k dohode; napísať d. ku knihe*. Heslo **dodatok** analyzovali len niektorí tretiaci (6), pretože mnohí už skončili testovanie skôr tromi po sebe idúcimi zápornými odpoveďami. Úspešnosť správneho vyjadrenia k obsahu slova bola malá (25 %), správne rozlíšili význam slova iba dvaja žiaci pomocou príkladu.

24. heslo RIVALITA je slovo z okraja slovnjej zásoby pôvodom z latinčiny a jeho význam je *súperenie, pretekánie sa*. Čiže boj medzi protivníkmi je len skrytý, naopak, žiaci opisovali rivalitu ako priamy fyzický boj, súboj, preto boli skórovaní nulou. Úspešnosť pri opise ďalších troch slov PRECÍZNY, MIGROVAŤ, SÚZENIE tretiaikmi bola nulová, rovnako ako skórovanie pri ďalších slovách v slovníkovom subteste: JEDNOMYSELNÝ, BEZPROSTREDNÝ, ANOMÁLIA, BEZPROSTREDNÝ, ANOMÁLIA.

## Záver

Pri stanovení hypotézy sme predpokladali, že porozumenie slov v slovníkovom subteste bude výrazne závisieť na explicitných schopnostiach našich respondentov, čo sme pri interpretácii slovných jednotiek dokázali v plnom rozsahu. Naznačovali to eliptické a neúplné výpovede respondentov priebežne pri jednotlivých slovách slovníkového subtestu. Miera neschopnosti vysvetliť pojem, ako aj miera porozumenia lexéme stúpala s poradím lexémy, keď sa objavovali slová jednovýznamové, ktoré sa buď vyskytovali v pasívnej slovnej zásobe respondentov, alebo sa vôbec nevyskytovali v ich individuálnej slovnej zásobe. Pri polysémantických slovách žiaci dokázali najst' niektorý z významov lexémy a vysvetliť ho, no pri jednovýznamových slovách bola ich vysvetľovacia schopnosť vysoko obmedzená. Slová, ktorým výrazne porozumeli, boli prevažne slová z jadra slovnej zásoby ako krava, somár, prípadne išlo o konkrétne pojmy (bicykel, dážd'nik, krava, somár, klobúk), ktoré prevažovali v úspešnosti porozumenia a interpretovania nad abstraktnými pojmami. Tu možno hodnotiť lepšie vyjadrovacie schopnosti detí aj prostredníctvom duplicitných uvádzaní výkladov či už špecifikačnými, alebo konkrétnymi kategóriami opisu. Väčšina respondentov porozumela týmto heslám a vedela ich funkčne uplatňovať v komunikačnej praxi.

Štúdia vznikla v rámci riešenia projektu VEGA 1/0454/18 Logofóbia ako prekážka rozvíjania jazykovej kompetencie pri osvojení si materinského a cudzieho jazyka.

## Bibliographic references

- BARANOVSKA, A. – DOKTOROVA, D. – KUMOROVA, Z. 2018. Doležitost vztahovej vzayby pri osvojovaní si jazyka u detí. In: O dietati, jazyku, literature, vol. VI, n. 1, pp. 52- 59. ISSN 1339-3200.
- HORNAKOVA, K. – KAPALKOVA, S. – MIKULAJOVA, M. 2005. Kniha o detskej reci. Bratislava: Slniecko. ISBN 80-969074-3-3.
- HAMAN, E. et al. 2017. Noun and verb knowledge in monolingual preschool children across 17 languages: Data from Cross-linguistic Lexical Tasks (LITMUS-CLT) In: Clinical linguistics & phonetics, vol. 31, n. 11-12, pp. 818-843. ISSN 14645076.
- CHOMSKY, N. 1964. The Development of Grammar in Child Language: formal discussion. In: Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, vol. 29, pp. 35-39. ISSN 0037976X.
- KAPALKOVA, S. – SLANCOVA, D. 2017. The vocabulary profile of Slovak children with primary language impairment compared to typically developing Slovak children measured by LITMUS-CLT. In: Clinical linguistics and phonetics, vol. 31, n. 11-12, pp. 893-909. ISSN 14645076.
- KAPALKOVA, S. – POLISENSKA, K. 2013. Non-word repetition performance in Slovak-speaking children with and without SLI: Novel scoring methods. In: International Journal of Language and Communication Disorders, vol. 48, n. 1, pp. 78-89. ISSN 13682822.
- KESSELOVA, J. 2018. Speaker's reference in dialogic communication in Slovak language: Verbal person versus personal pronoun. [Referencia na hovoriaceho v dialogickej komunikácii v slovcine: verbalna osoba verzus osobne zameno]. In: Slavica Slovaca, vol. 53, n. 3-4, pp. 94-108. ISSN 00376787.
- KLIMOVIC, M. – KRESILA, J. – LIPTAKOVA, L. 2017. Factual text comprehension tasks as a tool for stimulating executive functions in 9- to 10-year-old children. Educational Studies in Language and Literature, vol. 17, n. Specialissue, pp. 1-22. ISSN 15676617.
- Kratky slovník slovenskeho jazyka. 2003.
- KACALA, J. – PISARCIKOVA – POVAZAJ, M. 4. dopl. a upr. vyd. (Eds.). Bratislava: Veda. ISBN 80-224-0750-X.
- MARKMAN, E. M. 1994. Constraints on word meaning in early language acquisition. In: Lingua, vol. 92, n. C, pp. 199-227. ISSN 00243841.

- MISTRÍK, J. 1997. Stylistika. Bratislava: SPN. ISBN 80-08-02529-8.
- POLISENSKA, K. – KAPALKOVA, S.– NOVOTKOVA, M. 2018. Receptive language skills in slovak-speaking children with intellectual disability: Understanding words, sentences, and stories. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, vol. 61, n. 7, pp. 1731-1742. ISSN 10924388.
- SLANCOVA, D. 2013. Verbs acquisition in early childhood. [Osvojovanie slovesnej lexiky v ranej ontogeneze reci]. *Jazykovedny Casopis*, vol. 64, n. 2, pp. 109-132. ISSN 00215597.
- SMOLIK, F. – SEIDLOVA MALKOVA, G. 2014. Vyoj jazykovych schopnosti v preskolnim veku. Praha: Grada. ISBN 978-80-247-4240-3.
- SMOLIK, F. – SEIDLOVA MALKOVA, G. 2011. Validity of language sample measures taken from structured elicitation procedures in Czech, *Ceskoslovenska Psychologie*, vol. 55, n. 5, pp. 448-458. ISSN 0009062X.
- Slovník súčasného slovenského jazyka. A – G. 2006. BUZASSYOVA, K. - JAROSOVA, A. (Eds.). Bratislava: Veda. ISBN 978-80-224-0932-4.

*Words: 6358*

*Characters: 44 538 (24,7 standard pages)*

Mgr. Zdenka Kumorová, PhD.  
Department of Slovak Language and Literature  
Faculty of Arts Faculty of Education  
University Ss. Cyril and Methodius in Trnava  
J. Herdu 2, 917 01 Trnava  
Slovakia  
zdenka.kumorova@ucm.sk

# Uncovering functional potential of particles in Russian, German, English in fiction

Rafael A. Gazizov – Rakhim Z. Muryasov – Liudmila A. Savelyeva – Marina R. Zheltukhina – Oksana V. Vashetina

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.09

## Abstract

The inconsistency in the speech parts classifications in related and unrelated languages present the interest for comparative linguistic research. Particular attention shall be given to function words where the controversy in existing classifications increases. Turn to function words as research subject shows that their impact on text and discourse is not fully uncovered. Looking from translation point of view, function words remain often undervalued, which can lead to failure to transmit culture-specific meanings. In this regard, particles can be called one of the most controversial classes of function words: questions on their grammatical status, semantics, and syntactical features remain open. This paper looks into the functional potential of particles in fiction and brings lights to their role in creating word pictures of literature characters in Russian, German, and English highlighting ways of particles' translation. The authors point out the impact of particles on the text and propose to look at particles in compared languages as personification tools of speech portraits of literary characters.

**Key words:** function words, auto- and syn- semantic parts of speech, particles, functional potential, personification, speech portrait, word pictures

---

## Introduction

One of the fundamental questions of philosophy and linguistics, the question on parts of speech, is widely discussed to the present day. Different classifications of speech parts existing within one language, as well as a variety of classifications proposed in different languages, prove the topicality of the ongoing discussion and initiate further debates. The classification of speech parts remains a controversial topic due to the number of issues, such as identifying classification criteria, outlining boundaries of certain speech parts, explicating its generalized meaning, and major functions. The complexity of the question increases when the attempts of synsemantic (function) words classifications are made, as synsemantic word classes present mostly open or relatively closed groups with heterogeneous functions. The presence of similar word classes of function words in related and unrelated languages can be seen as one of the pre-conditions for conducting comparative research aimed at uncovering pragmatic value and functional potential of synsemantic parts of speech. In this regard, particles can be called one of the most challenging and controversial classes of function words and therefore seen as a significant subject for comparative research.

The starting point in particle research is defining the term “particles.” The overview of topic-related studies shows significant inconsistency in the application and understanding of the term. It can be concluded that it is applied in linguistics in two ways: in the general sense, it is all synsemantic parts of speech (i.e., conjunctions, interjections, and words that generally “do not fit” in standard speech parts). Another way to look at the particles is treating them as a separate class of words that perform pragmatic and communicative functions triggered in discourse. In our research, we are following this approach, studying particles in a narrow sense. Analysis of term usage in compared languages shows that in Russian particles are recognized by most of the grammar studies as a separate part of speech. German particles are actively studied as a different group (“Modalpartikeln”). However, the number of studies classify particles as an underclass of adverbs. In English, on the contrary, particles are

generally absent in speech parts classifications, and similar lexical units are observed within discourse markers. These conclusions serve as prerequisites for a comparative study of particles in Russian, German, and English considering particles as language-specific markers.

### **Literature Review**

Particles in the Russian language have been subject of research in various studies dedicated to speech parts and function words in Shvedova (1956), Wierzbicka (1976), Nikolayeva (1985), Starodumova (2002) and others. The study of particles in English as part of discourse markers research can be found in Aijmer and Simon-Vandenberg (2004), Fraser (1976; 1999), Schiffin (1988). Substantial contribution to particle study is made by research of particles in the German language (Altmann, 1978; Weydt, 1979; Krivonosov, 1989; Thurmair, 1991; Harden, Hentschel, 2010; König, 2017; Muryasov, 2018 and others). Nonetheless of the fact that particles in Russian and German have been actively studied from the end of the 20th century, this word-class remains as one of the most debatable and vague. With regard to terminology, there are several competing terms such as “modal particles,” “identifiers/discourse particles,” / “identifiers, pragmatic particles,” “discourse markers.” A certain consensus is reached in identifying “focus particles” that relate not to the sentence in general but to certain words/groups, as well as theme (topic) identifiers. Researchers also agree on the term “final particles” as a subclass of discourse markers that come at the end of the sentence containing metapragmatic information and integrating the sentence into discourse (Panov, 2018a, 2018b). Final particles are also studied in English (such as *then, though, even*) from a pragmatic point of view, highlighting their contribution to creating a link between utterances (Haselow, 2012). Special attention is given to the final particle *but* and how it enriches the paradigm of last particles with lexical and structural persistence (Hancil, 2018). Particles’ movement in research affected the general linguistic attitude towards these function words living on the periphery of the system of speech parts: from previously seen as “language scraps” (Paducheva, 1996) they are now treated as highly-pragmatic “carriers of additional hidden semantics” (Nikolaeva, 1985). Nikolaeva (2015) also proposes to consider “linguistics of speech,” which only contains so-called “communicative fond”: interjections, *particulae*, particles, the word order, and the whole system of language prosody. Such linguistics of speech exists separately from the linguistics of language and interjections, as well as particles build up the communicative fond.

The presented issues outlined the goals of our research aimed at a comparative study of particles in Russian, English, and German, which were narrowed down to uncovering the functional potential of particles in fiction, describing discourse-driven semantics and analysis of particles translation. It should be highlighted that character-based linguistic research in fiction falls under an anthropocentric paradigm in modern linguistics (Erard, 2008; Karasik, 2016; Enfield, 2017; Zheltukhina et al., 2017; Boeva-Omelechko et al., 2018; Gazizov et al., 2018; Karpovskaya, Shiryayeva Zheltukhina, 2019, etc.). Therefore, particle analysis in speech portraits through characters provides a new angle to particles’ research.

### **Methodology**

In the current research, particles are studied from a contrastive typological perspective in Russian, English, and German language. The choice of languages is explained by the difference in the presence of particles: Russian and German possess a wide range of particles and therefore can be considered as “strong-particles language”, English is seen as “weak-particles language” (Nikolaeva, 1985). Such language selection provides an opportunity to compare particles’ functional potential and methods of its

compensation in case of particles' absence. Therefore, one of the leading methods applied in our research is the contrastive method, and the research is conducted within a typological paradigm.

It should be noted that attempts of contrastive-typological research of particles are very recent. One of the specialists in discourse particles, Foolen (1994), expressed his pessimism regarding their typological study: «...systematic cross-linguistic research on modal particles seems, I am afraid, is not a feasible goal in the near future. The reference grammars often fail to give the relevant information. That means that we first need more language-specific monographs» (Foolen, 1994). However, particles are seen from a typological perspective present a new angle to cross-linguistic research, opening new language- and culture-specific language features. At the same time, the contrastive method applied to particles presents an opportunity to identify new cross-linguistic typological categories (for example, final particles are seen as a well-defined cross-linguistic typological category in the research of Hancil (2018), Haselow (2012), Post (2018). The contrastive method can also be applied to particles with regard to their sentence position, and their scope (for example, Cardinaletti, 2011) analyzes sentence-initial and sentence-final particles in German and Italian).

The complicated nature of particles requires a careful choice of the material that could be used as fertile soil for uncovering their functional potential. Kibrik (2009), comparing written and spoken mode of discourse, concludes that spoken discourse contains considerably more particles than a written discourse. Analyzing function styles and discourse classifications, Kibrik (2009) points out the high frequency of particles in everyday speech style. Karasik (2016) notes that everyday communication is expressed in fiction; different aspects of such communication are a traditional subject of philological research (Karasik, 2016). Based on these observations, we have selected novels with a considerable number of dialogues conducted in every-day speech style by the characters of different social status and professional occupation. We have also aimed at choosing literature characters belonging to different social groups and social status to study the difference in particle usage and the role of particles in the personification of speech portrait. Complimentary methods applied in our research are quantitative and statistical methods used to analyze the number of particles in speech portraits and the percentage of different particles represented in the speech of the literary character. Based on the results gained through quantitative and statistical analysis, conclusions on the character's personality traits indicated in speech portraits were drawn.

To deepen the knowledge of the functional potential of particles in compared languages, we have chosen the following novels as material for research:

- particles in Russian are analyzed in the novel "The Master and Margarita" by Mikhail Bulgakov;
- particles in German are case-studied in the novels of Erich Maria Remarque;
- particles in English are selected from the novel "Of Mice and Men" by John Steinbeck.

Translated texts of the abovementioned novels into compared languages were used as material for studying methods of particles' translation. To reach the outlined goals of research, we have chosen a number of literary characters in the abovementioned novels. The next step was to select particles with the context in their speech portraits and analyze their functions/meanings with regard to the word pictures of literature characters. Then data on the total number of particles in speech portrait and the percentage of different types of particles were gathered. Particles were analyzed in "speech situations," the concept widely used in sociolinguistics, i.e., within the unit of communication that is relatively completed. The final step of the procedure was to analyze the methods of particles' translation in compared languages by comparing selected speech situations.

## Results and Discussion

**Particles in the novel “The Master and Margarita” by M. Bulgakov and their translation into English and German.** The novel “The Master and Margarita” by M.A. Bulgakov was chosen as research material in the Russian language due to the number of facts: first of all, the iconic novel finished in 1940 is still the subject of many literary, linguistic and philosophic discussions as one the significant pieces representing Russian culture and history. Secondly, it recreates the reality of the historical period that builds certain discourse in which a wide range of characters belonging to different social groups interacts. It should be noted that there is the recent increase in interest in sociolinguistics to so-called “regimentation” / “regimes of language” that it is not only ideologies that encompass social action, but also “the rules of the [linguistic] game” that guide social action (Costa, 2019). Therefore, a wide range of speech portraits interacting upon “the rules of the linguistic game” exist in the novel and present the valuable material for the particles’ research. Word pictures of literary heroes are formed by their speech (language) portrait, by which we understand “selection of particular words and expressions for each character to build their literary image” (Rosental, Telenkova, 1976). When analyzing speech portraits, it is possible to speak about social status, personal traits, and even professional occupation of the novel’s character. Characters in the novel “The Master and Margarita” by M. Bulgakov have been the subject of a variety of research papers analyzed from literature, linguistics, philosophy, history, and translation point of view. In our research, we are analyzing speech situations with the main characters: the Master, Margarita, a poet Homeless, Mikhail Berlioz, Woland, and his demonic entourage, Pontius Pilate, and Yeshua Go-Nozri. Examples of analyzed speech situations in Russian (original text Bulgakov, 2015) are given in sub-sections “a,” their translation into English (Bulgakov, 1979) is provided in sub-sections “b,” translation into German (Bulgakov, 1983) is in sub-sections “c.” Particles and lexical units as well as phrases compensating particles meanings (in case of their absence) are marked **in bold**.

The novel begins with the appearance of the devil in Moscow, precisely on the Patriarch Ponds, where the editor of literary magazine Berlioz and a poet Homeless spend their time discussing recent poems written by the Homeless. Word picture of the Homeless is one of the brightest word pictures in the novel. When seeing Woland, the devil, the Homeless tries to guess the nationality of the foreign guest and evaluates the guest’s outfit:

(1) а. *Англичанин, – подумал Бездомный, – **ушь, и** не жарко ему в перчатках.*

b. *“An Englishman...” thought Homeless. “**My**, he must be hot in those gloves.”*

c. *“Ein Engländer, dachte Besdomny, **du lieber Gott**, daß er nicht schwitzt mit den Handschuhen!”*

Russian particle *ушь* is common for speech portrait of Homeless and identified in our research as a word picture marker. It is a highly-expressive colloquial particle indicating that the speaker is surprised and puzzled by the situation. It should be noted that *ушь* indicates a certain intensity of the speaker’s feelings. In Russian lexicographical practice, lexical unit *ушь* is classified as colloquial particle and interjection (Ozhegov, 2011). Usage of such particle lets the readers relate Homeless to the definite social circle of people who can disregard their speech style expressing their emotions. One of the most common conclusions that can be seen in some studies of particles is their non-translatibility (Nikolayeva, 1985), which is explained by their feature of being highly culture-bound. When looking at the translation of the abovementioned remark of Homeless into English and German, it is possible to say that the expressive nature of the sentence was successfully translated, however, the

semantics of Russian particle *ушь* was not completely rendered. It should be noted that English and German translation does not contain any particles. If we analyze the means of Russian particle *ушь* translation, we see that in English, it is pronoun *my* used as an interjection that compensates the expression of surprise (short for *(oh) my goodness*). A similar construction is used in German translation (*du lieber Gott*) to translate particle *ушь*. However, if we consider the etymology of particle, we see that it has developed from the verb *видишь* (to see), particularly from its form in 2-person singular *вишь* (Fasmer, 2004). Therefore, to keep the original semantic kernel of particle *ушь* we assume that possible translation in English can be *look at his gloves, he must be hot!* In similar German construction can be applied combined with the modal verb to express speaker's presupposition: *Schau mal, er muss mit den Handschuhen schwitzen!* It should be noted that analyzed expression is an internal speech of Homeless addressed to himself, which justifies the usage of phrases *look* and *schau mal*, which are usually addressed at the interlocutor. Moreover, it is necessary to consider the general context in speech situation: Berlioz and Homeless are speaking with Woland, who is actually the devil visiting Moscow. Therefore, the usage of expressions such as *oh my goodness / du lieber Gott* applied with regard to the image of the devil evoke latent controversy and change the text paradigm built by the author. The other variant of translation is: *"Phew, he must be hot in those gloves!"* where particle *ушь* is substituted with interjection *phew* (Bulgakov, 1967). However, this interjection is mainly used to express relief or disgust. Analyzed example (1) demonstrates that particles are highly culturally bound, and their wide range of latent meanings should be taken into account in translation. The goal of a particle's translation can be formulated as "awakening echo of the original text in native language" (Faraonova, 2018).

Speech portrait of Homeless is strongly affected by particles: as the dialogue between Berlioz, Homeless, and the foreign guest goes on, Homeless wonders why Woland speaks Russian so well:

- (2) а. Где **это** он так наловчился говорить по-русски, **вот** что интересно!  
 б. "What I'd like to know is--where did he manage to pick up such good Russian?"  
 в. "Ich möchte **bloß** wissen, wo er sein Russisch herhat!"

Generally, particle *вот* is classified as a demonstrative particle (Ozhegov, 2011). However, in this expression, it performs an emphatic function, highlighting that the speaker is amazed by the ability of Woland to speak Russian so well. Therefore, particle *вот* can be classified as a focus particle, which regulates the focus of attention in the sentence. It should be noted that particle *вот* is combined with particle *это* which also increases the emphasis of the sentence. Therefore, the particles in Russian in the example (2) create a frame of expressive construction: *X + это, вот + Y!*, where X – question word, the semantic kernel of construction, Y – evaluation component. If we analyze English translation, we can see that meaning of focus particle *вот* is transferred with the construction "What I'd like to know is..." which focuses the listener's attention better than simple *I'd like to know*. It should be noted that translation in English does not contain any particles, while German translation contains particle *bloß*. Brockhaus dictionary (Brockhaus Wahrig Deutsches Wörterbuch, 2011) classifies lexical unit *bloß* as an adjective, an adverb, and a modal particle (Abtönungspartikel). As a modal particle, it is synonymic to modal particle *ja* in German with intensifying meaning. Word picture of Homeless is built throughout the novel and is often set against other characters (for example, Berlioz, the Master). Conducted analysis allows identifying particles *же, ушь, вот, -то, это* as markers that build a word picture of the poet and let the reader perceive his image as an emotional, creative person who can be careless about his speech, but honest about his feelings.

Conversation between Berlioz and the Homeless was interrupted by a foreigner. At that point, neither Berlioz, nor the Homeless understand that in front of them is

Woland, the devil, who had arrived with his entourage in Moscow. Already during the first appearance of Woland in the Patriarch Ponds, his speech portrait presents the interest for the research: his “foreign” manner of speaking is expressed with excessive formal expressions not common for everyday speech in the Russian language. His speech style transforms as he gets more engaged in the conversation – it becomes expressive, and the particles start gradually to appear. One of the first particles is particle *же*:

(3) а. – *Но, позвольте вас спросить, – после тревожного раздумья спросил заграничный гость, – как же быть с доказательствами бытия божия, коих, как известно, существует ровно пять?*

b. “*But, allow me to ask you,*” *the foreign visitor spoke after some anxious reflection, “what, then, about the proofs of God’s existence, of which, as is known, there are exactly five?”*

c. “*Aber gestatten Sie mir eine Frage*”, *sagte der Fremde nach besorgtem Grübeln, “wie steht es denn nun mit den Beweisen für die Existenz Gottes, von denen es bekanntlich fünf gibt?”*

Particle *же* in Russian is generally used for underlining the specific meaning of a word. However, in the example (3), it is functioning to introduce the opposite argument presented by the speaker. It should be pointed out that particle *же* marks the moderate discussion: it turns the attention of the interlocutors to the proposed argument in a soft and moderate way. It should be pointed out that particle *же* is an enclitic that changes its meaning with regard to its position – adversative, exemplifying, clarifying, additive meanings (see the detailed study in Valova & Sliusar, 2017). Comparative analysis of English translation shows that the particle’s function was transferred with the adverb *then* (with meaning “in that case”). The adverb successfully transfers the meaning, performs a particle’s *же* function, and preserves the expressive nature of the sentence. Analysis of German translation uncovers the combination of two particles – *denn nun*. German particle *denn* is classified as the modal particle that is often used as equivalent to Russian particle *же*. It expresses the interest of the speaker to the conversation and has an intensifying effect. It is followed by the particle *nun*, which is also classified as a modal particle. A combination of particles is used to express the speaker’s determination and persistence. It should be underlined that the combinatory power of German particle can be treated as its language-specific feature, pointed out in the works of M. Thurmair (1991). Russian particle *же* is common for the speech portrait of Woland. Combined with other lexical tools of politeness, it contributes to building the image of a foreign intellectual who is leading the sophisticated, moderate discussion.

For analysis of Woland’s word picture, it is necessary to point out that in the scene in Patriarch Ponds, he conducts the discussion mainly with Mikhail Berlioz, who is described as “an educated editor.” Previously conducted an analysis of word picture of Berlioz (Savelieva, 2019) has shown that Russian particles *именно* and *ведь* can be seen as word picture markers personifying his speech. However, particles seen within the frames of definite speech situations can sometimes “float” from one-word picture to another. To elaborate, considering speech situation as a limited piece of communication, it is possible to identify the closed group of particles repeated in the speech of communication participants (hereinafter called as “floating particles” in our research). In the dialogues between Woland and Berlioz it is possible to single out “floating” particles, which occur in the speech of both characters within the speech situation:

(4) а. – *Именно, именно, – закричал он, и левый зеленый глаз его, обращенный к Берлиозу, засверкал, – ему там самое место! Ведь говорил я ему тогда за завтраком <...>*

b. *“Precisely, precisely,” he cried, and his green left eye, turned to Berlioz, flashed. “Just the place for him! Didn’t I tell him that time at breakfast? <...>”*

c. *“Genau, genau!” schrie er, und sein auf Berlioz gerichtetes grünes linkes Auge funkelte. “Da gehört er hin! Ich hab ihm damals beim Frühstück gesagt <...>”*

As can be seen from example 4a, Russian particles *именно* and *ведь* are repeated in the speech of Woland, “mirroring” to some extent speech portrait of Berlioz. “Floating” particles contribute to picturing situations of mutual understanding between literature heroes engaged in the dialogue. Analysis of English and a German translation in 4b, 4c uncovers discrepancies in speech parts classifications: lexical unit *именно* is classified in Russian language dictionaries as particle and conjunction, at the same time its English equivalent *precisely* and German translation *genau* are classified as adverbs. Nonetheless, they perform the same function (drawing the listener’s attention) and message the same meaning in this speech situation. It should be noted that particle *ведь* was omitted in English and German translation (example 4c), expressivity was kept with inversion.

A significant impact on building speech portrait is made by negative particles. Their contribution can be demonstrated as an example in the speech portrait of Berlioz. We have used quantitative and statistical methods to analyze the total number of particles in his speech portrait and identify the percentage of different particles in his speech. Figure1 shows the results of the conducted analysis in the original text in the Russian language. As can be estimated based on Figure1, the biggest percentage of particles is made up of negative particle *не* with 28%. However, bare statistical data does not allow us to make any conclusions regarding the personal traits of the character without any context. Therefore, it is necessary to see negative particles *не* and *ни* in specific speech situation to uncover their functions and latent meanings. One of the key fragments of Berlioz speech is the following:

(5) а. – *Нет ни одной восточной религии, – говорил Берлиоз, – в которой, как правило непорочная дева не произвела бы на свет бога. И христиане, не выдумав ничего нового, точно так же создали своего Иисуса, которого на самом деле никогда не было в живых. Вот на это-то и нужно сделать главный упор...*

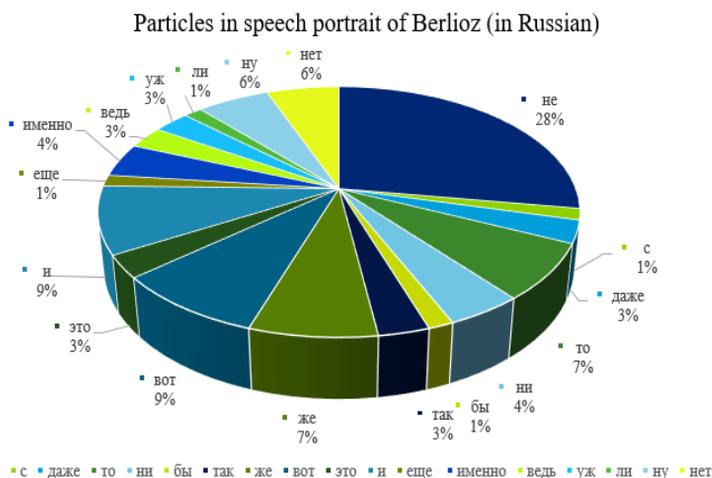


Figure 1. Percentage of different particles in the speech of Berlioz in the original text

In selected fragment lexical units such as negative particles *не* and *ни*, prefix *не*, adverb *никогда* (never), pronoun *ничего* (nothing) are contributing to expressing

high-level of denial. Their concentration in the speech of Berlioz can be treated as proof of his extreme opinion and high level of determination. Negative particles are building an accentual-semantic pattern of the fragment that is key to the storyline and character's image. Therefore, particles' impact on the speech portrait is central for the image of Berlioz: his extreme opinion expressed with negative particles and other lexical units of negation refers to the core of the storyline.

The number of particles and their type in English in the speech of selected character presents the interest for comparative research. Collected data is presented in Figure2.

Particles in speech portrait of Berlioz (in English)

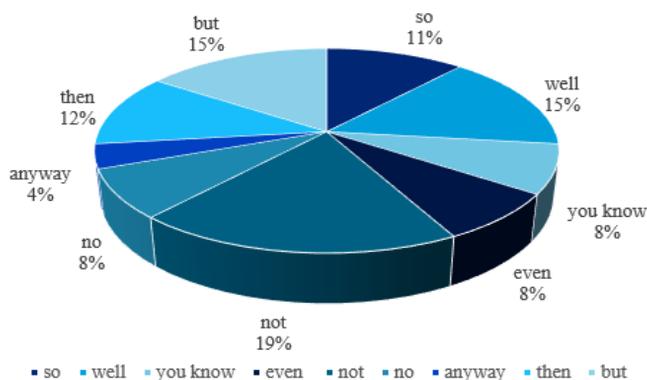


Figure 2. Percentage of different particles in the speech of Berlioz in English translation

A similar distribution of negative particles is seen in English translation: particle *not* is the leading particle with 19%. When particle *not* is analyzed within the speech situation, its impact on the speech portrait can be uncovered:

(5) b. *“There is **not** a single Eastern religion,” Berlioz was saying, “where an **immaculate** virgin does **not**, as a matter of course, bring forth a god into the world. And the Christians, displaying **no** originality **whatsoever**, followed the same pattern when they created their Jesus, who, in fact, never existed **at all**. That’s where you have to put your main emphasis...”*

In selected fragment particles, *not* comes twice performing negation. Negation is also expressed with particle *no* and adverb *never*. It should be noted that the expressivity of denial is supported by adverbs *whatsoever* and *at all*. It can be concluded that English translation is successfully transmitting the opinion of Berlioz, contributing to his general speech portrait.

The quantitative and statistical method was applied to the translation of the speech portrait of Berlioz into German (see Figure3).

### Particles in speech portrait of Berlioz (in German)

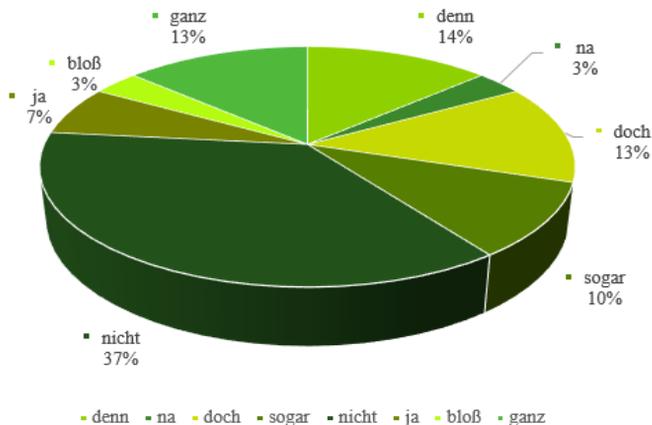


Figure 3. Percentage of different particles in the speech of Berlioz in German translation

To continue the analysis of role of negative particles, it should be said that the major part of particles in German in the speech of Berlioz is taken by negative particle *nicht* as well. Negative particle *nichts* comes with 37% and dominates the number of German particles. To uncover functions of particle *nicht* the translation of selected fragment was analyzed:

(5) c. “*Es gibt **keine** einzige östliche Religion*”, sagte Berlioz, “*in der **nicht** eine **unbefleckte** Jungfrau einen Gott zur Welt gebracht hätte. Die Christen haben sich **gar nichts** Neues ausgedacht, sondern ihren Jesus, der in Wirklichkeit **nie** gelebt hat, genauso geschaffen. In dieser Richtung mußt du den Hauptstoß führen.*”

Denial is expressed in translation with negative article *keine*, prefix *un-*, pronoun *nichts*, adverb *nie*, negative particle *nicht*. Lexical units expressing negation are presented in the translation in a lesser extent than in original text which leads to decrease in expressivity. Overall, German translation of selected fragment corresponds with original text, recreating similar speech portrait of the character.

Example (5) shows how quantitative and statistical method was applied in the current research. Similar analysis and procedure were conducted for other particles in speech portrait of selected characters.

The other brightly-painted character is a member of the demonic entourage, Fagott-Koroviev, who also appears in Patriarch Ponds at the end of the scene. He is one of the demons who is changing his appearance very often. Fagott-Koroviev appears in the novel in different roles: as a regent, interpreter, black magician’s assistant. However, his speech style remains the same in all of his images. His speech is highly colloquial, containing a large number of particles. Koroviev meets with representatives of Moscow society and reveals their misdeeds. One of the characters that he meets is Poplavsky, who was eager to inherit apartment of recently passed away nephew Berlioz:

(6) a. – *Как же, как же, – перебил Корovieв, отнимая платок от лица. – Я как только глянул на вас, догадался, что это вы! – тут он затрясся от слез и начал вскрикивать: – Горе-то, а? **Ведь** это что **ж** такое делается? А?*

b. “*Of course, of course!*” Koroviev interrupted, taking his handkerchief away from his face. “*Just one look and I knew it was you!*” Here he was shaken with tears and began to exclaim: “*Such a calamity, eh? What’s going on here, eh?*”

c. "*Aber gewiß doch, gewiß doch!*" unterbrach ihn Korowjew und nahm das Tuch vom Gesicht. "Ich hatte Sie ja kaum gesehen, da wußte ich schon, daß Sie es sind!" Ein Weinkampf schüttelte ihn, und er lamentierte: "Das ist ein Unglück, *nicht?* Was so alles passiert, *wie?*"

His speech is fragmented and abrupt, and almost every portion of it contains a particle or interjection. His reaction to the appearance of Poplavsky is expressed with a repeated combination of particles *как же*. Lexical unit *как* is classified as a particle to express astonishment or reaction to unexpected action. Combined with particle *же*, it contains high-value pragmatic effect: Koroviev interrupts the interlocutor, draws his attention fully to himself, and influences Poplavsky's actions. The combination of particles *как же* has affirmative nature, confirming the previously said statement. In English version in 5b, the combination of particles *как же* is translated with the phrase of course, which however does not contain the necessary level of colloquialism that plays an important role in the word picture of Koroviev. German translation - *Aber gewiß doch, gewiß doch* – on the contrary, fully corresponds with original text and level of its expressiveness. The phrase contains affirmative particle *doch*, corresponding with Russian particle *же*.

In the selected fragment of Koroviev's speech appears Russian particle *-mo*. The main function of this particle is underlining the word that it is attached to. Is it followed by repeated interrogative particle *a*? The noted analysis of lexicographical data shows that lexical unit *a* is classified as conjunction, interjection and particle. As a particle, it is used to address the interlocutor and draw his attention (highly colloquial). English translation in 5b contains interjection *eh*, substituting Russian particle *a*. It should be noted that interjections, as well as particles, are highly dependent on the discourse and have "discourse-oriented meaning" (Gazizov & Muryasov, 2019). According to Merriam-Webster dictionary, *Eh* is used to ask for confirmation, repetition, or to express inquiry —used especially in Canadian English in anticipation of the listener's or reader's agreement. Therefore, interjection *eh* transfers the pragmatic value of the particle. German translation in 5c contains negation particle *nicht*, expressing rhetoric question. To sum up, Koroviev's speech is one of the most expressive in the demonic entourage, and it is pictured in Russian with the help of particles and colloquial expressions. Its style is mainly transferred into English with the help of interjections into German – with corresponding particles and interjections.

Examples (1) - (6) illustrate how the proposed function of particles as personification tools is realized in building word pictures of literature characters in the novel and highlight the importance of uncovering particles' meanings in translation. Quantitative and statistical data shows that the Russian language possesses a variety of particles with a large scale of meanings, making particles and their functional potential a specific feature of the Russian language.

Translation of selected examples shows that particles in English are less common than in German and Russian, their meaning is mostly compensated by expressive lexical constructions. Diagrams also demonstrate that English contains fewer particles, using more discourse markers (as *you know*), which can be identified as satellites of word class of particles. German translation of selected phrases follows similar patterns as in original text, offering equivalents to the Russian particles. The provided examples demonstrate the impact made by function words, precisely particles, and interjections, in personifying word pictures of the novel's characters.

**Particles in the novel "Three Comrades" by Erich Maria Remarque and their translation into Russian and English.** In German, the novel "Three Comrades" by E.M. Remarque was chosen as the material for particles research. The novel reflects everyday conversations that contribute to the study of particles in dialogues as markers personifying speech portrait. Word pictures of the main heroes (Robert

Lokamp, Otto Köster, Gottfried Lenz, Patricia Hollmann) and secondary characters (Mathilda Stoss) are analyzed within speech situations. Word pictures are analyzed in original German-language text (Remarque, 1991) (examples are given in sub-sections “a”), examples of their translations into English (Remarque, 1958) are provided in sub-sections “b,” into Russian (Remarque, 1917) in sub-sections “c.”

One of the first characters that Robert Lokamp meets at the beginning of the novel is Matilda Stoss, the charwoman who appears in car workshop. She is described as “*ein Gespenst <...> Es trug ein schmutziges weißes Kopftuch, eine blaue Schürze, dicke Pantoffeln, schwenkte einen Besen, wog neunzig Kilo <...> Sie hatte die Grazie eines Nilpferdes.*” ([A ghost – stumbling about in the gloom! It had a dirty white cloth wound about its head, its skirt was hitched up to give its knees clearance; it had a blue apron, a pair of thick slippers, and was wielding a broom; it weighed around fourteen stone. With all the grace of a hippopotamus <...>]). This vivid image is painted with striking features that are expressed in the character’s speech:

(7) a. “*Herr Lohkamp – Mensch is **nur** Mensch – erst hab’ ich **nur** dran gerochen – und dann einen Schluck genommen – weil mir im Magen **doch** immer so flau is – **ja**, und dann – dann muß mir der Satan geritten haben*”.

b. “*Man is human, Herr Lohkamp, **after all**. . . I **only** smelled it at first . . . and then I took just one little nip, because **well, you know**, I always have had a weak stomach... and then ... then I think the Devil must have got hold of me.*”

c. “*Господин Локамп, человек **всего лишь** человек. Сначала я **только** понюхала, потом сделала глоточек, а то у меня с желудком неладно, – **да**, а потом, вдать, меня бес попутал*”.

To explain her behavior and the disappearance of an alcoholic beverage, Matilda starts talking with Robert Lokamp. Her main communicative goal is to persuade Robert and avoid his anger. To achieve her goal, Matilda provides the number of arguments using particles (see 7a). One of the repeated particles is particle *nur*. Analysis of lexicographic practice shows that lexical unit *nur* is classified as an adverb and modal particle (Abtönungspartikel) that increases the expressivity of the statement and contributes to the persuasive power of argument (*Mensch is **nur** Mensch*). The other modal particle used in the character’s speech is particle *doch* that possesses a wide range of meanings, among which the increase of the pragmatic value of the statement. The speaker uses *so* as an intensifier (*so flau is*). Analysis of lexicographic practice uncovers the discrepancy: Brockhaus Dictionary classifies *so* as an adverb, Duden dictionary (2020) singles out the functioning of *so* as a particle in affirmative sentences to intensify particular trait or quality. Special attention shall be given to lexical unit *ja* in selected phrases. In speech situation *ja* functions as a verbal filler that contributes to a coherent communication process and allows the speaker to take some time to consider another argument. It also indicates the latent dialogue of the speaker with herself, persuading herself about the arguments. Particle *ja* is the tool of communication: it is aimed at interlocutor who is being inclined to agree with arguments. German-language dictionaries classify *ja* as modal particle functioning in affirmative sentences to conclude and confirm a fact known for the communication participants. It should be noted that particle *ja* and its functions have been a subject of various research (Weydt, 1979). The particle is repeated further on the novel in Matilda’s speech (“*Das sind **ja** glühende Kohlen auf mein Haupt!*”) that contributes to building the image of expressive speech portrait.

In 7b, meaning and functions of particles are substituted mainly with English discourse markers *after all*, *well*, *you know*. In English grammar, particles are generally not singled out in separate word class and considered within a group of adverbs or, when studying their speech functions, discourse markers. However, usage of discourse marker *after all* leads to the shift of attention focus: with German particle *nur* focus was set on the word “Mensch” (a human), focus of *after all* lies outside of expressed sentence and presumes considering the fact in view of all circumstances.

Scope and functional potential of discourse marker (*well*) *you know* can be evaluated as equivalent to German particle *ja*, it is aimed at interlocutor and contributes to the establishment of mutual understanding. It was noted by Lakoff (1973) that discourse marker *you know* is most common for female speech because female speakers tend to support their interlocutor (Lakoff, 1973). To sum up, discourse markers transfer most of the meanings of the particle, contributing to building word pictures of a literary hero. In 6c the following Russian particles are present: (*всего*) *лишь*, *только*, *да*. Focus particle *лишь* can be seen as equivalent to German particle *nur*, regulating focus of attention on the same unit. Particles *только* and *да* function as direct equivalents to German particles *nur* and *ja* allowing to create similar word picture of Matilda Stoss in Russian. Analysis of selected text fragment lets us draw to the following conclusion: word picture of Matilda Stoss was successfully reconstructed in English and Russian translation with the help of discourse markers in English and equivalent particles in Russian.

To analyze word pictures of main heroes, three friends, a close look at their dialogues should be taken. For example, one of the important dialogues for the storyline is the dialogue between Robert and Gottfried when they first discuss the girl, Patricia Hollman:

(7) a. “Robby”, sagte er, “mir ist da was eingefallen. Wir müssen uns **mal** um das Mädchen von dem Binding kümmern.”

Ich starrte ihn an.” Wie meinst du das?”

“Genau, wie ich es sage. Aber was starrst du **denn** so?”

“Ich starre nicht...”

“Du stierst **sogar**. Wie hieß das Mädchen **eigentlich noch**? Pat, aber wie weiter?”

“Weiß ich nicht”, erwiderte ich.

Er richtete sich auf. “Das weißt du nicht? Du hast **doch** ihre Adresse aufgeschrieben!

Ich habe es selbst gesehen.”

“Habe den Zettel verloren.”

“Verloren!” Er griff sich mit beiden Händen in seinen gelben Haarwald. “Und dazu habe ich damals den Binding eine Stunde draußen beschäftigt! Verloren! **Na**, vielleicht weiß Otto sie noch.”

The selected speech situation reflects the emotions of friends regarding the girl. The results of the analysis of Gottfried’s speech show the significant number of particles: lexical unit *mal* is polyfunctional and is classified in Brockhaus dictionary as an adverb and modal particle. As a colloquial modal particle, it stands as a shorter version of *einmal* (once). However, taking context into consideration, the meaning of particle *mal* contains hidden tints: Gottfried Lenz mentions the girl for the first time, there is a certain tension between friends. To break the ice and start the conversation, he uses particle *mal*. The particle softens the perlocutionary force of sentence, forming “safe space” for the interlocutor. Nonetheless, Robert is surprised. Gottfried expresses reaction to friend’s emotions particle *denn* (*Aber was starrst du denn so?*). The significant accent is expressed by German particle *sogar* in sentence-final position. *Sogar* is classified as focus-particle, and it has presupposition of predictions about upcoming linguistic material and high expectation change contexts (Gerwien & Rudka, 2019). The particle expresses his astonishment and latent opposition. Gottfried continues the conversation; the next question contains a combination of particles *eigentlich noch*. Lexical unit *eigentlich* is classified by Duden dictionary as adjective and particle. As particle it has intensifying meaning and in questions expresses the interest of the speaker. Gottfried’s question containing a combination of particles *eigentlich noch* performs absolute pressure on the interlocutor. In response, Gottfried receives short, abrupt answers from Robert. Gottfried’s resentment is expressed with the help of particle *doch*, his disappointment is pictured with colloquial particle *na*, concluding the dialogue. It should be noted that the selected fragment contains

particular structure: sentences of Gottfried, who initiated the dialogue, are long and extended, answers of Robert are short and abrupt. Particles are present only in Gottfried's speech, and it is possible to trace accentual pictures expressed by the particles in his speech.

Translation of selected fragment into English shows the absence of particles:

(8) b. "Bob", said he, "something's just occurred to me. We must be getting busy about that girl of Binding's."

I stared at him. "What do you mean?"

"Just what I say. What are you staring for *anyway*?"

"I'm **not** staring—"

"I say you are staring. What was her name *exactly*? Pat – but Pat what?"

He straightened up. "You don't know? but you wrote down her address. I saw you myself."

"I lost the bit of paper," I explained.

"Lost!" He seized his yellow hair with both hands. "After my spending a solid hour outsize with Binding! Lost! Well, perhaps Otto knows."

Meaning of German particle *mal* was not transferred into English, which resulted in changes of questions' stylistic: from the soft-sounding question, it turned into the direct and bold sentence. Particle *denn* in question *Aber was starrst du denn so?* was translated with adverb *anyway*. Merriam-Webster dictionary provides the following description of its function: as an additional consideration or thought. It can be noted that *adverb* anyway does not fully transfer the emotional component of the original question. The analysis of English translation shows that the accentual and semantic picture underlying the original dialogue was not completely rendered.

(8) c. – Робби, – сказал он. – Знаешь, что мне пришло в голову? Нам нужно **хоть разок** побеспокоиться о той девушке, что была с Биндингом.

Я взглянул на него:

– Что ты имеешь в виду?

– Именно то, что говорю. **Ну** чего ты уставился на меня?

– Я не уставился.

– **Не только** уставился, но **даже** вытаращился. А как, собственно, звали эту девушку? Пат... А как дальше?

– Не знаю, – ответил я.

Он поднялся и выпрямился:

– Ты не знаешь? **Да** ведь ты **же** записал ее адрес. Я это сам видел.

– Я потерял запись.

– Потерял! – Он обеими руками схватился за свою желтую шевелюру. – И для этого я тогда целый час возился в саду с Биндингом! Потерял! Но, может быть, Отто помнит?

The opposite situation regarding particles can be seen in Russian translation. The translation contains almost the same accentual and semantic structure of dialogue formed by the particles. They are present in Gottfried's speech: particle *mal* was translated with the equivalent expression *хоть разок* (even once), particle *denn* was translated with Russian particle *ну*, particle *doch* – with Russian particle *же*. Therefore, it can be concluded that Russian translation transfers the original emotions implicated in the dialogue at the same level as the original text with the help of particles. The analyzed example (8) allows drawing the following conclusion: particles in German and Russian contribute to building an accentual and semantic picture of dialogues. In English, mostly discourse markers are used to transfer particles' meaning.

**Particles in the novel "Of Mice and Men" by John Steinbeck and their translation into German and Russian.** The question regarding the presence of particles in English is widely discussed and still remains open: there is a general

approach where such English words as *only, even, so, yet, also, too* are classified as adverbs, at the same time their particular functions allow identifying them as discourse markers (Shiffrin, 1987). However, the term “discourse markers” is applied to a broader group of lexical units, including phrases such as *you know, to begin with, I mean* that can hardly be seen as particles. Therefore, there is a discrepancy in terminology describing this class. Moreover, including the abovementioned lexical units to word class of adverbs can lead to the number of contradistinctions: for example, adverbs should indicate a new trait of action or event and relate to the verb, adjective, or another adverb. These features cannot be fully applied to particles that highlight specific tint of meaning and can relate to or focus on almost every sentence component. What is more, from a syntax point of view, the adverb is an integral sentence part (as adverbial modifier), while particles cannot be fully seen within the frame of traditional syntax (Nikolaeva, 1985). Due to the described discrepancy, research of particles in English should be conducted with regard to discourse markers, which successfully contribute to re-creation of particles’ meaning and functions.

The novel “Of Mice and Men” written by John Steinbeck describes the life of two brothers-workers surviving during the Great Depression. Images of two main heroes, brothers George and Lennie are opposed to each other. Their relations and main traits of their images are reflected in their dialogues. Word pictures are analyzed in dialogues in original English text (Steinbeck, 1965) (examples are given in sub-section “a”), its translation into German (Steinbeck, 2003) (examples are provided in sub-sections “b”) and Russian (Steinbeck, 2016) (examples are provided in sub-sections “c”).

(9) a. “*Jesus Christ,*” *George said resignedly. “Well- look, we’re gonna work on a ranch like the one we come from up north.”*

“*Up north?*”

“*In Weed.*”

“*Oh, sure. I remember. In Weed.*”

“*That ranch we’re goin’ to is right down there about a quarter mile. We’re gonna go in an’ see the boss. Now, look- I’ll give him the work tickets, but you ain’t gonna say a word. You jus’ stand there and don’t say nothing. If he finds out what a crazy bastard you are, we won’t get no job, but if he sees ya work before he hears ya talk, we’re set. Ya got that?*”

“*Sure, George. Sure I got it.*”

“*O.K. Now when we go in to see the boss, what you gonna do?*”

“*I... I...*” *Lennie thought. His face grew tight with thought. “I... ain’t gonna say nothin’. Jus’ gonna stan’ there.”*

“*Good boy. That’s swell. You say that over two, three times so you sure won’t forget it.*”

The selected fragment of their dialogue demonstrates colloquial speech style pictured with the help of such lexical units as *gonna, ain’t, ya, goin’, jus’, nothin’,* and discourse markers. The following lexical units can be seen as discourse markers in selected text: *well-look, now, look, O.K., sure*. These markers function as a tool of the communication process. Phrases *well-look* and *now, look* serve to attract the attention of the interlocutor. Moreover, discourse markers *well* and *well-look* can be called “text clips,” which are often at the beginning of the sentence contributing to text cohesion and indicating certain relations between sentences (Pryatkina & Starodymova, 2015). The analysis has shown that *well* can be seen as a marker of George’s word picture; it is present in his speech more than 30 times. *Well* is classified mostly as an interjection that indicates resumption of discourse or introducing a remark. Analyzing the usage of *well* in dialogues between George and Lennie it is possible to assume that discourse marker *well* functions as a tool for George to regulate the conversation and builds his image of the one who is in charge

of the situation. It should be noted that *well* is considered as “turn-initial particle” in English with “action-projecting function” as well as “forward-looking orientation” (Heritage, 2018). Discourse markers *sure* and *O.K.* are mostly used by Lennie to confirm that he listens and understands his brother. At the same time, it is possible to single out particles in their strict sense in analyzed speech situation: *right*, *sure* that function as intensifiers (*right down there, so you sure won't forget it*). These particles are present in George's speech portrait and used to increase the persuasive power and influence of his utterances. The following translation was analyzed to clarify how functions performed by discourse markers and particles in English were transferred into German in 9b:

(9) b. “*Jesus Christus*”, sprach George mit einem Stoßseufzer. “**Also** paß auf. Wir gehn auf einer Farm arbeiten, ähnlich wie die, von der wir kommen oben im Norden.”  
“Oben im Norden?”

“In Weed.”

“**Oja doch**. Ich besinn mich. In Weed.”

“Die Farm, zu der wir gehn, is **da unten**, etwa eine viertel Meile von hier. Müssen uns dem Chef vorstellen. Jetzt **gib acht**. Ich werd' ihm unsre Arbeitsbücher geben, aber du wirst einfach kein Mucks sagen. Mußt einfach dastehen und 's Maul nich aufmachen. Wenn er rauskriegt, was für 'n verrückter Bastard du bist, dann kriegen wir keine Arbeit, aber wenn er dich schaffen sieht, eh du redest, dann sind wir gemachte Leute. Kapiert?”

“**Jawoll**, George. Hab' s bestimmt kapiert.”

“**Gut so**. Also wenn wir zum Chef gehn, was tuste dann?”

“*I c h . . . i c h . . .*”, Lennie dachte nach. Sein Gesicht wurde straff unter der Anstrengung des Denkens. »Ich werde kein Mucks sagen. **Bloß** so dastehn.”

“Guter Kerl. Großartig. **Nu** sag das zwei-, dreimal vor dich hin, daß de's nich vergißt.”

The conducted analysis of speech situations shows that translated text contains particles *also*, *ja*, *doch*, *bloß*, *nu*. German particle *also* functions as an intensifier and focuses on the interlocutor's attention. The particle is also frequent in the translation of George's speech portrait. Therefore, based on this function, it can be seen in the selected speech situation as equivalent to interjection *well* in English. A combination of particles *Oja doch* in Lennie's reply expresses Lennie's confirmation and adds value to the utterance the meaning of persuasiveness. The presence of such a particle's combination increases the expressiveness of Lennie's reply. It should be noted that Lennie's replies contain other colloquial German particle *jawoll* (*jawohl*), classified as the particle of dialogue (Gesprächspartikel) with intensifying meaning. In the analyzed speech situation, particle *nu* is derived from particle *nun* increasing imperative power of George's utterance. Therefore, comparative analysis of word pictures in original text and translated text shows that in English, particular traits of novella's heroes are expressed with the help of discourse markers, while in German, they are reconstructed in particles' meanings and functions. Comparative analysis was also conducted in selected text fragment of translation into Russian in 9c:

(9) c. – **Вот** наказание, – сказал Джордж со смирением. – **Слушай же**. Мы будем работать на ранчо, как там, на севере.

– На севере?

– В Уиде.

– **Ах да**. Помню. В Уиде.

– Ранчо **вон** там, четверть мили отсюда. Мы придем туда и спросим хозяина. Слушай внимательно: я отдам ему наши расчетные книжки, а ты помалкивай. Стой себе и молчи. Ежели он узнает, какой ты полумный дурак, мы останемся без работы, а ежели сперва увидит, как ты работаешь, наше дело во шляпе. Понял?

– **Конечно**, Джордж. **Конечно**, понял.

– Ладно. **Так вот**, стало быть, когда придем к хозяину, что ты должен делать?

– Я... я... – Ленни задумался. Лицо его стало напряженным. – Я... должен молчать. Стоять и молчать.

– Молодец. Очень хорошо. Повтори два, три раза, чтобы лучше запомнить.

Selected text of translation contains the following Russian particles: *вот, же, вон, так*. It should be noted that particles are only present in George's speech, indicating that he is the one who leads the conversation and regulates it. Particle *же* as part of the phrase *слушай же* functions as equivalent to phrase *well-look* to draw Lennie's attention. Demonstrative particle *вон* can be seen as equivalent to English particle *right (right down there)*. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that particles in the translation of the selected text into Russian perform similar functions as discourse markers in English.

## Conclusion

Conducted analysis of speech portraits from the novel "The Master and Margarita", "Three Comrades" and "Of Mice and Men" brings us to one of the research conclusions: particles, as well as discourse markers, function as personification tool highlighting particular features of speech portraits.

When studying elements of speech portrait, it is important to focus on the smallest and, at first thought, insignificant units – function words, precisely, particles and interjections. Generally unnoticed or underestimated, they preserve high pragmatic potential, which, when uncovered, can lead to a complete shift in meaning.

Comparative analysis of original texts and their translation shows that in the translation process, particles are not given sufficient attention, and as a result, their cultural-bound meaning is often left not fully uncovered. Examples provided in our comparative research demonstrate particles' meanings and functions and contribute to identifying specific traits of compared languages from a typological perspective.

## Acknowledgments

The work is performed according to the Russian Government Program of Competitive Growth of Kazan Federal University.

## Bibliographic references

AIJMER, K. – SIMON-VANDENBERGEN, A.M. 2004. A model and a methodology for the study of pragmatic markers: the semantic field of expectation. In: *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 36, n. 10, pp. 1781-1805. ISSN: 0378-2166

ALTMANN, H. 1978. To the problem of particles of intensity. Description of particles *gerade, genau, eben, ausgerecht, vor allem, insbesondere, zumindest, wenigstens*. Tübingen: Narr. ISBN 3-87808-808-6

BOEVA-OMELECHKO, N.B. – ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. – RYABKO, O.P. – MATVEEVA, G.G. – MURUGOVA, E.V. – ZYUBINA, I.A. 2018. Unusual Antonyms: Inter-Part-Of-Speech Interaction in English Fictional Discourse. In: *Space and Culture, India*, vol. 6, n. 4, pp. 112-121. E-ISSN: 2052-8396

BROCKHAUS WAHRIG DEUTSCHES WÖRTERBUCH. 2011. Gütersloh; München: Wissenmedia in der Inmedia-ONE-GmbH. ISBN-10: 3577075953

BULGAKOV, M. 1967. *The Master and Margarita*. Translated from Russian by Michael Glenny (In English). London: Collins and Harvill Press. ISBN 13: 9780002615044

BULGAKOV, M. 1979. *The Master and Margarita*. Translated from Russian by Richard Pevar and Larissa Volokhonsky. <https://www.masterandmargarita.eu/> (In English).

BULGAKOV, M. 1983. *Der Meister and Margarita*. Translated from Russian by

- Thomas Reshke. Berlin/Weimar: Aufbauverlag (In German). ISBN 13: 9783630620930
- BULGAKOV, M. 2015. The Master and Margarita. Saint-Petersburg: Azbuka. (In Russian) 5-352-00019-2
- CARDINALETTI, A. 2011. German and Italian modal particles and clause structure. In: *Linguistic Review*, vol. 28, n. 4, pp. 493-531. ISSN: 1613-3676.
- COSTA, J. 2019. Introduction: Regimes of language and the social, hierarchized organization of ideologies. In: *Language and Communication*, vol. 66, pp. 1-5. ISSN: 0271-5309
- DUDEN DICTIONARY ONLINE: <https://www.duden.de/>
- ENFIELD, N.J. 2017. *How We Talk: The Inner Workings of Conversation*. New York, NY: Basic Books. ISBN-10: 0465059945
- ERARD, M. 2008. *Um...: Slips, Stumbles, and Verbal Blunders, and What They Mean*. New York City: Anchor. ISBN-10: 1400095433
- FARAONOVA, D.S. 2018. Walter Benjamin: from the Theory of Translation to the Theory of Culture. In: *Studia Litterarum*, vol. 3, n. 4, pp. 10-25. ISSN: 2500-4247
- FASMER, M. 2004. *Etimological dictionary of the Russian language*. Translated and expanded by O.Kh. Trubachev. Moscow: AST. ISBN-10: 1853994146
- FOOLEN, A. 1994. A pragmatic analysis of Norwegian modal particles. In: *Lingua*, vol. 93, n. 4, pp. 307-312. ISSN: 0024-3841
- FRASER, B. 1999. What are discourse markers? In: *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 31, pp. 931-952. ISSN: 0378-2166
- FRASER, J.B. 1976. *The verb-particle combination in English*. New York: Academic Press. ISBN-10: 0122658507
- GAZIZOV, R. – MURYASOV, R. – SAMIGULLINA A. 2018. Sensory metaphor in V.V. Nabokov's "Ada, or Ardor". In: *REVISTA PUBLICANDO*, vol. 5, n. 15-1, pp. 383-394. EISSN: 1390-9304
- GAZIZOV, R. – MURYASOV, R. 2019. On the functional aspect of interjections. In: *Bulletin of the Bashkir University*, vol. 24, n. 1, pp. 81-88. ISSN: 1998-4812
- GERWIEN, J. – RUDKA, M. 2019. Expectation changes over time: How long it takes to process focus imposed by German *sogar*. In: O. Loureda, I.R. Fernandez, L. Nadal, A. Cruz (Eds.) *Empirical Studies of the Construction of Discourse*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 230-251. URL: <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.305> ISBN: 9789027203472
- HANCIL, S. 2018. (Inter) subjectification and paradigmaticization. The case study of the final particle *but*. In: S. Hancil, T. Breban, J.V. Lozano (Eds.) *New Trends in Grammaticalization and Language Change. Studies in Language Companion Series*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 291-314. ISBN: 9027263434 9789027263438.
- HARDEN, T. – HENTSCHEL, E. 2010. 40 years of particles research. *Stauffenburg Linguistik*: vol. 55. Tübingen: Stauffenburg Verlag. ISSN 1430-4139.
- HASELOW, A. 2012. Subjectivity, intersubjectivity and the negotiation of common ground in spoken discourse: Final particles in English. In: *Language & Communication*, vol. 32, n. 3, pp. 182-204. ISSN: 0271-5309
- HERITAGE, J. 2018. Turn-initial particles in English: The cases of *oh* and *well*. In: J. Heritage, M.-L. Sorjonen (Eds.) *Between Turn and Sequence: Turn-initial particles across languages*. In: *Studies in Language and Social Interaction*, vol. 31, pp. 155-190. ISBN-13: 978-0415761659.
- KARASIK, V.I. 2016. Discourse manifestation of personality. In: *Russian Journal of Linguistics*, vol. 20, n. 4, pp. 56-77. ISSN: 2312-9182
- KARPOVSKAYA, N.V. – SHIRYAEVA, O.V. – ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. 2019. Stylistic means of headline creating in the information-analytical media text: pragmasemantic aspect of metaphor. In: *XLinguae*, vol. 12, n. 4, pp. 173-182. DOI: 10.18355/XL.2019.12.04.15 ISSN 1337-8384, eISSN 2453-711X

- KIBRIK, A.A. 2009. Modus, genre and other parameters of classification. In: Topics in the study of language, n. 2, pp. 3-21. ISSN 0373-658X
- KÖNIG, E. 2017. Syntax and semantics of additive focus markers from a cross-linguistic perspective. A tentative assessment of the state of the art. In: A.M. De Cesare Greenwald, C. Andorno (Eds.) Focus on Additivity. Adverbial modifiers in Romance, Germanic and Slavic languages. Pragmatics & Beyond New Series. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 23-44. ISBN 9789027256836
- LAKOFF, R. 1973. Language and Woman's Place. In: Language in Society, n. 2, pp. 45-70. ISBN-13: 978-0198731924
- MURYASOV, R. 2018. Grammatical features of particles. In: Bulletin of the Bashkir University, vol. 23, n. 2, pp. 515-521. ISSN: 1998-4812
- NIKOLAEVA, T.M. 1985. Functions of particles in sentences (based on Slavic languages). Moscow: Nauka. ISBN 5-06-000191-1.
- NIKOLAEVA, T.M. 2015. On the "linguistics of speech". In: Voprosy Jazykoznanija [Topics in the study of language], n. 4, pp. 7-20. ISSN 0373-658X
- OZHEGOV S.I. 2011. Explanatory dictionary of the Russian language. Moscow: Peace and Education, Onyx. URL: <http://scipress.ru/philology/articles/zoonyms'-peculiarities-in-russian-and-english-languages.html>
- PADUCHEVA, E.V. 1996. Semantic study. Moscow: Languages of Russian culture. ISBN 978-5-9551-0431-7
- PANOV, V.A. 2018a. Review of J. Bayer, V. Struckmeier (eds.). Discourse particles: Formal approaches to their syntax and semantics. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. ISBN 978-3-11-049715-1.
- PANOV, V.A. 2018b. Review of S. Hancil, A. Haselow, M. Post (eds.). Final particles. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. ISBN 978-3-11-035380-8.
- PRYATKINA, A.F. – STARODYMOVA, E.A. 2015. Text clips in the Dictionary of Russian Functional Words. In: Siberian Journal of Philology, n. 2, pp. 134-141. ISSN 1813-7083
- REMARQUE, E.M. 1958. Three Comrades. Translated from German by A.W. Wheen. New York: Popular Library. (In English) ISBN-10: 0449912426
- REMARQUE, E.M. 1991. Drei Kameraden. Köln: Kiepenheuer & Witsch. ISBN 10: 3462027298
- REMARQUE, E.M. 2017. Three Comrades. Translated from German by I. Shreiber. M.: Neoclassic. (In Russian) ISBN: 978-5-17-086280-1
- ROSENTAL, D.E. – TELENKOVA, M. 1976. Dictionary of linguistic terminology. Moscow: Prosveshcheniye. ISBN: 978-5-17-003766-7
- SAVELYEVA, L. 2019. Particles in Russian as markers of word pictures. In: Kazan science, n. 2, pp. 127-129. ISSN 2078-9955
- SHIFFRIN, D. 1987. Discourse Markers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN-10: 9780521357180
- SHVEDOVA, N.Y. 1956. Study of Russian dialogical speech. Repeated reply. In: Topics in the study of language, n. 2, pp. 27-32. ISSN 0373-658X
- STARODUMOVA, E. 2002. Particles of the Russian language (multi-aspectual description). Vladivostok: Publishing House of Far Eastern University. ISBN 5744411305.
- STEINBECK, J. 1965. Of Mice and Men. New York: Viking Pinguin. ISBN-10: 0140177396
- STEINBECK, J. 2003. Von Mäusen und Menschen. Translated from English by Elisabeth Rotten. München: Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag. (In English) ISBN: 3423107979
- STEINBECK, J. 2016. Of Mice and Men. Saint-Petersburg: AST. (In Russian). ISBN: 978-5-17-099511-0
- THURMAIR, M. 1991. Kombinieren Sie doch nur ruhig auch mal Modalpartikeln!:

Combinatorial regularities for modal particles and their use as an instrument of analysis. In: *Multilingua*, vol. 10, n. 1-2, pp. 19-42. ISSN: 1613-3684  
VALOVA, A. – SLIOUSAR, N. 2017. Syntactic properties of the Russian enclitic *že*: Corpus-based and experimental approaches. In: *Topics in the study of language*, n. 2, pp. 33-48. ISSN 0373-658X  
WEYDIT, H. 1979. *Die Partikeln der deutschen Sprache*. Berlin: de Gruyter. ISBN: 9783110078336  
WIERZBICKA, A. 1976. Particles and Linguistic Relativity. In: *International Review of Slavic Linguistics*, n. 2, pp. 251-312. ISSN: 0703-5330.  
ZHELTUKHINA, M.R. – VIKULOVA, L.G. – MIKHAYLOVA, S.V. – BORBOTKO, L.A. – MASALIMOVA, A.R. 2017. Communicative Theatre Space in the Linguistic and Pragmatic Paradigm. In: *XLinguae*, vol. 10, n. 2, pp. 85-100. DOI: 10.18355/XL.2017.10.02.08. ISSN 1337-8384

*Words: 9875*

*Characters: 65 238 (36,24 standard pages)*

prof. Rafael Arkadievich Gazizov, DrSc  
prof. Rakhim Zakievich Muryasov, DrSc.  
Liudmila Antonovna Savelyeva  
Faculty of Romance and Germanic Philology  
Bashkir State University  
19 Kommunisticheskaya Street  
450076 Ufa  
Russia  
frgf.dekanat@mail.ru  
frgf.dekanat@mail.ru  
sav-mila@yandex.ru

prof. Marina Rostislavovna Zheltukhina, DrSc.  
Foreign Languages Institute  
Volgograd State Socio-Pedagogical University  
27 Lenin Avenue  
400066 Volgograd  
Russia  
zzmr@mail.ru

ass. prof. Oksana V. Vashetina, PhD  
Institute of Psychology and Education  
Kazan (Volga region) Federal University,  
18 Kremlyovskaya Street,  
420008 Kazan  
Russia  
vashetina@yandex.ru

# Reference, evaluation and codes of culture in Russian and Czech proverbs of truth and lie

Olga B. Abakumova – Jiri Korostenski

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.10

## Abstract

The paper deals with problems of evaluation, reference and typology of proverbs. The study is based on Russian and Czech proverbs of truth and lie that are classified according to different types of reference and ways of expressing evaluation. The research shows universal and national specific features of semantics and pragmatics in Russian and Czech proverbs that are revealed by means of cognition-discourse model of proverbs' sense actualization. The comparative analysis showed that Czech proverbs tend to evaluate the referential situation, while Russian proverbs of truth mostly focus on man's behavior, though both Slavic language cultures explicitly or implicitly recommend ethic norms of social behavior.

**Key words:** proverbs, reference, evaluation, Russian, Czech, cultural codes

---

## Introduction

Proverbs are the most complex signs of the language. Many scholars still doubt their language status and consider them to be texts, speech units. The third group of researchers define them as units of hybrid nature, combining language and textual characteristics. But the status does not influence their functioning as they have such specified generalized meaning that reveals itself fully only in the context. That is why talking of proverbs we should pay attention not only to its semantics but to its pragmatics as well, so it is topical to discuss reference in proverbs (Frolova, 2007). Evaluation in proverbs and ways of expression are also the problem under discussion in paremiology and linguistics. Some researchers claim that it is the whole situation of reality that is evaluated by means of the proverb. Another group of scholars argue that they may evaluate constituents of the situation: objects, people, or their behavior. N.D. Arutjunova classifies evaluative meaning into two main groups: general evaluation marked by adjectives "good, bad" and their synonyms, and particular evaluative meanings like *gedonistic* (pleasant, tasty), *psychological* (interesting, content), *esthetic* (beautiful), *ethical* (moral, immoral), *utilitarian* (useful), *normative* (right, wrong), *teleological* (effective, successful) (Arutjunova, 1999). E.M. Volf offers evaluative frame for describing the process of evaluation which includes: the object of evaluation, the subject of evaluation, evaluative predicate, and evaluative scale based on stereotype (Volf, 2009).

## Methods and Materials

Cognition-discourse model of proverb's sense actualization (CDM model) (Abakumova, 2012) is offered in this paper to reveal universal and specific features of proverbs' evaluation and bring out the possible ways of their expression combined with different types of reference. The language material for study is Russian and Czech paremic discourse about truth and lie based on dictionary data (Bittnerová, Schindler, 2003; Мокиенко, Никитина, Николаева, 2010), and texts are taken from national corpora, Russian and Czech ([www.corpora.ru](http://www.corpora.ru)). Making use of several most famous and authoritative dictionary sources, the authors selected more than 500 Russian and about 100 Czech proverbs of this thematic group and a large number of contexts of their usage in newspaper articles and texts of fiction. The results are represented by the formalized language offered by A. Wierzbicka (Wierzbicka, 1980) and extended by O. Abakumova, adding frame analysis and the idea of qualitative. The CDM model has a four-part structure which presents: *Kommunikativa* – communicative constituent, dealing with the choice of communicative strategy (Habermas, 1987), *Konstativa* – cognitive constituent, reflecting proverbial scenario as imposition of three

types of frames (imagery, generalised and occasional), Representativa – expressive constituent, connected with expressing modality, evaluation and illocution and Regulativa – regulative constituent, responsible for perlocutive effect of proverb usage, revealing cultural social norms and recommendations how to behave in the tradition of certain culture.

## Results and Discussion

The proverb in this paper is defined as a phraseological unit with the structure of a sentence (Baranov, Dobrovolskij, 2008), practical evaluative judgment used in speech as a tactic means of communicative strategy realization (Abakumova, 2012). The proverb is the sign of the situation; it has a logical and syntactical structure. The use of proverb in the actualized form presupposes that the speaker and the listener are familiar with pragmatic conventions. In order to use the proverb correctly in a context, the speaker should do the following:

- Estimate the communicative situation and choose a communicative strategy;
- Estimate referential situation, state hierarchy of the actants and circumstances, their relationships, type of situation to find an analogy with the semantic invariant of the proverb;
- Choose the necessary proverb able to model the situation and evaluate it according to the speaker's attitude and needs;
- Give recommendations to the listener, making him accept the speaker's attitude, and choose a certain way of social behavior common for the culture in question.

It is necessary to single out explicated and implicated means of evaluation in proverbs.

*Explicated means* are the following: comparative terms of evaluation (*Правда светлее солнца* – Truth is brighter than the sun), non-comparative terms of general value (*Правда хорошо, а счастье лучше* – Truth is good, and happiness is better), negative patterns (*Není šprochu, aby nebylo pravdy trochu* - No gossip without little truth), melioration qualifiers (*Кто за правду горой, тот истинный герой* – The one who stands out for truth is a true hero), pejorative qualifiers (*Děti, opilí a blázni mluví pravdu* - Children, drunk and mad people speak the truth), prediction (*Lež má krátké nohy, daleko neujde* - Lie has short legs, it will not go far), numeral means (*Lepší hrst pravdy, než pytel lží* – Better handful of truth than the sack of lie).

*Implicated evaluation* is revealed through codes of culture (see definition in Kovshova, 2013, Krasnykh, 2016), the focus of speaker's interest (see Van Valin, 1993), deontic norms of social behavior characteristic of a certain culture (Abakumova, 2012).

Our *referential-evaluative classification* of proverbs is based on typology offered by O. E. Frolova (Frolova, 2007), who singles out three types of proverbs according to their referential characteristics:

- proverbs with occupied actants' positions with the predicate;
- proverbs with free, non-occupied actants' positions;
- proverbs with formally occupied but semantically vague, not clear actants' positions.

We extend this typology adding evaluative and comparative aspects (Abakumova, Korostenski 2013) and this time, bring out explicit and implicit ways of evaluation expression in Russian and Czech proverbs of truth.

- **The first type of proverbs with occupied actants' positions** covers 26% of Czech and 20% of Russian proverbs of truth and lie. According to the semantics of the noun group in the position of the subject, two subtypes, with referentially free and bound actants, are differentiated.

- Referential free actants can be expressed by the following nouns, used metaphorically or metonymically to point out to the referent and evaluate it according to the cultural stereotypes.
  - the animal name: *Не прав медведь, что корову съел, не права корова, что в лес зашла* (Wrong is the bear that ate the cow, wrong is the cow that went to the woods), *Кулик не велик, а все-таки птица* (Sandpiper is small, but still it is a bird) that corresponds to zoomorphic code of culture which is revealed only in Russian proverbs of truth and not found in Czech. This code implicates negative evaluation of the object in question but estimates the situation positively in general and stresses the idea of social justice included in the Russian cultural image of truth. (About social justice as one of the senses of the old Russian word “*правда*” see САР-4 1793: 1043). The recommended norms are ethical – One should be fair (see the classification of deontic norms in proverbs in Karasik 2002).
  - the plant name: *И ракитовый куст за правду стоит* (Even the brittle willow stands out for the truth), *И трава в поле виноватого выдает* (And the grass in the field gives the guilty away). Phitonymic code is also Russian specific and as well points to the idea of social justice in proverbial Russian concept of truth. The actant and its actions are evaluated positively as they fight for justice. Once again, the ethical norms of social behavior are recommended (One should behave fairly).
- The material (object) as representative of artifactive code is found in both cultures, very often it is associated with gold or money: (*Není všechno zlato, co se leskne, není všechno pravda, co pleskne* = Не все золото, что блестит, не все правда, что болтают (Not all is gold that glitters); *Peníze mohou mnoho, a pravda kraluje* – Деньги могут многое, а правда все (Money can do a lot of things but truth is as powerful as a king). Besides the opposition “*gold/money vs truth*” that is universal in two languages in Czech proverbs, the opposition “*handful vs sack*” is revealed, which shows a combination with somatic and numeral codes of culture. Truth is evaluated both positively and negatively according to the object it is opposed to. It has a positive value if compared with hope and lie (*Lepší hrst pravdy (jistoty), než pytel naděje* - Better have handful of truth than the sack of hope; *Lepší hrst pravdy, než pytel lži* – Better handful of truth than the sack of lie).

But the value is negative if truth is compared with power (*Lépe s hrst moci, než pravdy s pytel* – Better handful of power, than the sack of truth). The recommended norms here are utilitarian.

- The gastronomical code of culture is found in both languages as well: *Заработанный ломоть лучше краденого каравая* (The earned slice of bread is better than stolen cottage loaf), *Lepší trpká pravda, než sladká faleš* = *Лучше горькая правда, чем сладкая ложь* (Better bitter truth than sweet hypocrisy). In Russian, we have imagery connected with bread as typical Russian meals. In Czech, it is associated with taste, perhaps mostly drinks (famous Czech beer) that can be bitter or sweet. Ethical norms are recommended (One should be honest and behave honestly).
- Esthetic code is presented in Russian: *Песня – правда, сказка(басня) – ложь* (Song is truth, fairy-tale (fable) is a lie). Ethic norms through folklore means

recommend not to tell lies. Songs are estimated highly as they presuppose sincerity, fairy-tale is associated with lies and is evaluated negatively. Popular wisdom in Russia does not recommend to listen to tales/lies. Utilitarian norms advise not to be credulous.

- Costume code: *На воре шапка горит* (The cap burns covering the head of the thief). Ethical norms of behavior are recommended.
- Religious code of culture is universal: *Бог правду видит, да не скоро скажет* (God sees the truth but is not in a hurry to tell). In Russian proverb this time, utilitarian norms are recommended (One should take care of yourself). *Boží mlýny melou pomalu, ale jistě* (God sees everything, and works/helps slowly but fairly, safely). Ethical norms are recommended (One should be patient and hope for the better).

Proverbs of this group evaluate both the situation in general and the object as part/element of the situation. In their semantic and pragmatic structure, one can single out both wide and narrow focus of the speaker's interest. For the evaluation purpose, different codes are used. In Russian, they are more numerous than in Czech.

## **I.2. Proverbs with referentially bound actants are numerous in both language cultures.**

- a) personal noun: *Pro pravdu se lidé rádi hněvají* (People are often angry with those who speak the truth), *За правду Бог и добрые люди* (God and kind people always stand out for the truth); *Král daleko, Bůh vysoko, pravdy a spravedlnosti v světě málo*. (The King is far away, God is high above, and truth with justice are rare on the earth). The anthropogenic code of culture prevails in both languages, though it sometimes is combined with religious code. Ethical norms are recommended, ethical behavior is highly estimated in both cultures.
- b) evaluative noun: *Přítel jest, kdo pravdu mluví, ne kdo pochybuje* (A friend is the one who tells the truth, and not the one who doubts); *Мошенники повздорили – и правда наружу* (Scoundrels quarreled – and the truth came out). Anthropogenic code is used, people are evaluated according to their deeds. Ethical norms prevail.
- c) somatic noun: *Правдивая рука правдой живет* (The right hand lives rightly, right person behaves honestly). Somatic code is often used.
- d) proper name: *Окул бабу надул, да и Окула баба надула* (Okul cheated a woman, and the woman cheated him back). Anthropogenic code prevails to convey ethical norms of behavior.

Using the extended metalingual apparatus we offer to convey the sense of actualized proverb *Král daleko, Bůh vysoko, pravdy a spravedlnosti v světě málo* = *Король далеко, Бог высоко, а правды и справедливости на земле мало* (The King is far away, God is high above, and truth with justice are rare on the earth).

Kommunikativa: wishing to warn you against the trouble caused by dishonest people

Konstativa: I say: The King is far, the God is high above, take care of yourself

Representativa: I hope you understand that it is the right and useful thing to do

Regulativa: Make your mind not to hope for other people's help and try to solve the problem all by yourself (utilitarian norms of social behavior are recommended).

- **Proverbs with free, non-occupied positions of actants (32% of Czech and 45% of Russian proverbs)**

Proverbs with free actants' positions have often prescriptive character and mostly convey correspondence to norms than estimation. The position of actant is not occupied, so the participant of the communicative situation is "inserted" into the proverbial situation, taking the free place, mainly the place of the subject.

2.1. In Czech proverbs of this type *infinitive model* prevails (17 out of 32%): *Ohně nelze upáliti, vody utopiti, větru udusiti a pravdě zahynouti* (It is not possible to burn fire, to drown water, to strangle wind and to wipe out truth). *Лучше умереть, чем неправду терпеть* (Better die than suffer from deception). Natural code and anthropogenic codes of culture are used here to convey ethical norms and positive evaluations of honest, decent behavior.

2.2. In Russian proverbs the most numerous are imperative sayings, stimulating the listener for certain (ethical) behavior: *Правду молвишь, правду и чину* = *Pravdu kaž, spravedlivě važ* (If you speak the truth, behave correspondingly, justly). These proverbs show that the Czech concept of truth also includes the idea of justice.

2.3. Besides, this type of proverbs covers generalized-personal sentences: *Любишь кататься, люби и саночки возить* = *Bez práce nejsou koláče* (If you like to go tobogganing, you should like to carry sledges up the hill); *Co zaseješ, to sklidiš - Что посеешь, то и пожнешь* (As you sow, you shall reap); *S počtostí nejdál dojdeš* (With honour you will go the farthest) and indefinite-personal statements: *Что ворам с рук сходит, за то воришек бьют* (Little thieves are punished for what is acceptable with big thieves); *Není všechno pravda, co se pěkně mluví*. Agricultural and actional codes are used to convey ethical norms of behavior and express corresponding evaluation of man's behavior. Ethical norms prevail.

2.4. Passive constructions: *He пойман – не вор* (When a person is not accused, he is not a criminal). Anthropogenic code helps to pass utilitarian norms of social behavior and neutral evaluation of the person and his behavior (One should not be too quick to judge).

2.5. Incomplete sentences: *Врет как сивый мерин. Лже, jako když tiskne*. (Lies like an old horse). Zoomorphic code is used to implicate negative evaluation and convey ethical norms of behaviour (One should not tell lies).

Evaluation is focused on man's behavior and is conveyed through predicate focus of speaker's interest mostly by means of actional codes of culture.

Using our formal language one can describe Russian proverb "*Правду молвишь, правду и чину*" as far as its sense actualization is concerned in the following way:

Kommunikativa: wishing to warn you against immoral behavior,

Konstativa: I say, that one should act honestly if he speaks the truth

Representativa: I hope you understand that it is right

Regulativa: Make your mind and behave correspondingly, be good, and just (ethical norms of social behavior are recommended).

- **Proverbs with positions of actants that are formally occupied but semantically vague cover 45% of Czech proverbs and 35% of Russian.**

3.1. Evaluation of moral qualities of people (spiritual code of culture) is done by means of substantiated adjectives and numerals: *Nejspíše blázen a děti pravdu mluví* = *Глупый да малый правду говорят* (The silly and the little tell the truth); *Честный правды не боится* (The honest are not afraid of the truth).

3.2. The core of the group is occupied by the proverbs with actants expressed by the nouns naming action or abstract notion: *Правда светлее солнца* (Truth is lighter than the sun); *Правда не стареет* (Truth never grows old); *Правда истомилась и лжи покорилась* (Truth got tired and resigned to the lie); *Pravda ve vodě neutone a v ohni neshoří* = *Правда в*

*воде не тонет и в огне не горит* (Truth does not sink in water and does not burn in fire). Natural code of culture is combined with anthropogenic to express positive evaluation of the situation and the idea of truth in both language cultures.

The proverbs of this type are referentially vague; they name the situation without singling out actants (participants). If actant is interpreted as an indirect one, the metaphorical noun group is considered to be trope (allegory, antonomasia) and corresponds to personal actant. If it is thought to be used in direct meaning, the noun group in the position of the subject is perceived as the name of quality.

3.3. Another group of proverbs inside this type is the proverbs with pronouns 'each' and 'every' in the place of actant: *Всяк правду хвалит да не всяк ее бае* (Each person praises the truth, but not each one tells it), *Каждому по делам его* (Every man must get what he deserves). Actional code helps to estimate negatively the situation where people break the norms of contract or equity.

The same type includes complex sentences with relative pronouns "one...who" in the actant place: *Кто заварил кашу, тот ее и расхлебывает* (The one who caused the trouble should solve the problem); *Кдо лже, тен краде= Кто лжет, тот и крадет* (The one who lies is mostly a thief), *Кдо неvěří, а' там бѣжі* (If one does not believe, let him go to see for himself); *Кто за правду горой, тот истинный герой* (The one who stands out for truth is a true hero). Gastronomical code is combined with actional to express evaluation of the situation and man's behavior. Ethical norms are recommended.

One more subgroup is differentiated inside the type III that is characterized by the use of indefinite pronouns „someone‘ ,somewhere‘ etc.: *Где-нибудь да сыщется правда* (There is the truth somewhere to be found).

The actualized sense of Czech proverb *Pravda ve vodě neutone a v ohni neshoří* (Truth does not sink in water and does not burn in fire) can be described in the following way:

Kommunikativa: wishing to encourage you to hope for the better

Konstativa: I say, that truth will never be lost and is going to come out in the end

Representativa: I hope you believe that it is true

Regulativa: Make up your mind and keep waiting for the victory of truth (ethical norms of social behavior are recommended).

## Conclusion

Reference in proverbs is combined with an evaluation that may be expressed by means of explicative and implicative means. The reference-evaluative classification conveys evaluation, both explicitly and implicatively. Three reference types correlate with different focuses of the speaker's interest. The first type of proverbs, with occupied places of actants, evaluate people, objects, and events having noun or sentence focus of interest. Evaluation is conveyed through different codes of culture. Amount of Russian and Czech paremias is comparatively equal. The second type with free actant positions prevails in Russian. Evaluation is done through actional codes mostly and is connected with the predicate focus of the speaker's interest. The third type is more often found in Czech proverbs. Proverbs of this type evaluate the whole situation through allegoric images of abstract essences that are personified and invested with human qualities. These proverbs have wide, sentence focus of the speaker's interest, and evaluation is conveyed through anthropogenic or actional codes mostly. Ethical norms prevail over utilitarian in both language cultures.

## Bibliographic references

ABAKUMOVA, O. B. 2012. *Poslovitsy v jazyke, soznanii i kommunikatsii*. Saint-Petersburg: Aleff-Press. ISBN 978-5-905966-04-0.

ARUTJUNOVA, N. D. 1999. *Jazyk I mir cheloveka*. Moscow: Jazyki russkoj kultury. ISBN 5-7859-0027-0.

- BARANOV, A. N. – DOBROVOLSKIJ, D. O. 2008. Aspekty teorii frazeologii . Moscow: Znak. ISBN 5-9551-0235-3.
- VOLF, E.M. 2009. Funktsionalnaya semantika otsenki. Moscow: LIBROKOM. ISBN 978-5-397-00803-7.
- MOKIENKO, V. M. – NIKITINA, T. G. – NIKOLAEVA, E. K. 2010. Bolshoj slovar russkikh poslovits. Moscow: OLMA Media Group. ISBN 978-5-373-03250-6.
- KARASIK, V.I. 2002. Jazykovej krug: lichnost, kontsepty, diskurs. Volgograd:” Peremena”. ISBN 5-88234-552-2.
- KOVSHOVA M.L. 2013. Lingvo-kulturologicheskij metod vo frazeologii. Moscow: LIBROKOM. ISBN 978-5-397-03945-1.
- KRASNYKH, V.V. 2016. Slovar I grammatika lingvokultury. Moscow: Gnozis. ISBN 978-5-94244-051-0.
- CAP –4. 1793. Slovar Akademii Rossijskoj.v.4. Saint-Petersburg.
- FROLOVA, 2007. O. E. Mir, stojashij za tekstem: referentsialnye mehanizmy poslovitsy, anekdota, skazki I avtorskogo povestvovatel'nogo hudozhestvennogo teksta. Moscow: LKI. ISBN 978-5-382-00600-0.
- ABAKUMOVA, O. – KOROSTENSKI, J. 2013. Hodnoceni pravdy a lzi v paremiich/rusko-ceske kulturni kody na pozadi anglictiny. In. Auspicia, Recenzovany vedecky casopis pro oblast spolecenskych a humanitnich ved. Ceske Budejovice: Vysoka skola evropskych a regionalnich studii. P.129-134. ISSN 1214-4967.
- BITTNEROVA, D. – SHINDLER, F. 2003. Ceska prislovi. Soudoby stav konce 20. století. Praha. Prague. ISBN 80-246-0442-6.
- HABERMAS, J. 1987. The Theory of Communicative Action. Boston: Beacon Press, 1987. – Vol.1 Reason and the Rationalization of Society. ISBN 0-8070-15-06-7.
- VAN VALIN R. Jr. 1993. A Synopsis in Role and Reference Grammar. In. Advances in Role and Reference Grammar. In: Ed. by R. D. Jr. Van Valin. Amsterdam: Benjamins. ISBN 90 272 3579 1.
- WIERZBICKA, A. 1980. Lingua Mentalis. Sydney: Academic Press. ISBN 0127500502, 9780127500508.

*Words: 3 604*

*Characters: 23 274 (12,93 standard pages)*

Prof. Olga Borisovna Abakumova, DrSc.  
 Orel State University  
 Institute of Foreign Languages  
 Ulitsa Komsomol'skaya, 95, Oryol, Orlovskaya oblast'  
 302026 Orel  
 Russia  
 abakumova-ob@mail.ru

Doc. Mgr. Jiří Korostenski, CSc.  
 University of West Bohemia  
 Faculty of Philosophy  
 Department of German and Slavonic languages and literatures  
 Riegrova 11  
 30614 Plzeň  
 Czech Republic  
 jkoroste@kgs.zcu.cz

# The occurrence of anglicisms in the Czech and Slovak lexicons

Gabriela Entlova – Eva Mala

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.11

## Abstract

In the study, Anglicisms are presented by a brief analysis of their adaptation to the Czech and Slovak orthographic, phonological and morphological systems as well as their semantic peculiarities. The individual areas of interest in Anglicisms, including their linguistic background and basic information on taking over new lexical items are also reflected in the paper. The trend to adopt Anglicisms has been continuing up to the present day and concerns all areas of social life, mainly because English serves as a global lingua franca.

**Key words:** Anglicism, adaptation, linguistic levels, Czech, Slovak

---

## Introduction

Incorporating new words termed as Anglicisms (English borrowings) is one of the most productive ways of any modern language vocabulary enrichment. It is an important necessity also for Slavic languages to enlarge their lexicons as this process requires denotation of the actual and constantly changing reality. In this respect, opinions from a number of Czech and Slovak linguists differ in certain aspects concerning the suitability of the use of Anglicisms in particular contexts, but they share some similar ideas related to the aptness of their usage (see Sochova – Postolkova, 1994; Srpova, 2001; Svobodova, 2007; Mistrik, 1999; Masar 1994; Oravcova, 1994; Povazaj, 1994). A lot of Anglicisms are unambiguous, apt, and internationally comprehensible, not laden with any secondary meaning. Such borrowings contribute to the vocabulary of the recipient language where there is no corresponding domestic equivalent and hold an advantage due to their international character and language economy. In this study, the term Anglicism is understood as suggested by Gorlach: “An Anglicism is a word or idiom that is recognizably English in its form (spelling, pronunciation, morphology, or at least one of the three), but is accepted as an item in the vocabulary of the receptor language” (Gorlach 1994: 239).

The study provides an overview of the research results based on the analysis of more than a thousand of Anglicisms conducted by their authors. It presents a comparison of similarities and dissimilarities of English words that have infiltrated into the Czech and Slovak languages through mass media, literature, film, or direct contact between the Czech and Slovak citizens and the English speaking ones. The data for the analysis of Anglicisms were also taken from dictionaries, relevant printed publications, and electronic sources. Relations between different grammar phenomena were specified by the method of synthesis and the method of theoretical analysis comprising induction, deduction, confrontation, and generalization. The research sample included Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak, no matter if they are of English origin or from languages they were taken over into the English lexicon. In the process of its development, English has borrowed and adapted a number of words from other languages, but Czech and Slovak took them over from the English language, and most of them have become internationalisms.

Due to the fact that Czech and Slovak belong to the West-Slavic branch of European languages, a number of similarities can be found in their grammatical structures and in their lexicons, and the occurred dissimilarities just represent the uniqueness of the two otherwise related languages. It also concerns the process of borrowing of English words of which an insight is given in this study. Although the Czech and Slovak

language systems allow the creation of words of domestic origin, the English language enriches them in cases where there is a need for the names of new objects, concepts, or phenomena. Thus Anglicisms contribute to the spread of cultural beliefs and social activities from one group of people to another. Through the cultural diffusion mediated by the use of languages enriched with borrowings, horizons are broadened and people become more culturally rich.

### **The phonetic-phonological level of adaptation**

The research is focused on the category of nouns, as it forms by far the most numerous category of Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak. The nouns have been entering the designated languages mostly in the written forms, although a number of oral transfers are documented, too. The process of borrowing of English lexical units is connected with their partial or total adaptation to the orthographic, phonetic, and grammatical standards of the receiving languages. The degree of adaptation often depends on the length of time the English words have been used. A large amount of the Anglicisms found in the Czech (Entlova, 2014) and Slovak (Mala, 2003) lexicons occur in the lexical-semantic group of sports terminology, names of games, and activities:

- orthographically unadapted lexical units in both Czech and Slovak, e.g., *all-star game, bodybuilding, bowling, bungee-jumping, carving, fair-play, fitness, golf, jogging, Nordic walking, paintball, paragliding, play-off, power-lifting, power-play, rafting, ring, rugby, set, skibob, ski-park, snowboarding, spinning, squash, steeplechase, stepper, streetball, tiebreak, time-out, tip, touchdown, windsurfing, wrestling*;
- adapted lexical units in both Czech and Slovak, e.g. *aut* (< out), *bejzbal* (< baseball), *bekhend* (< backhand), *bodyček* (< body check), *box* (< boxing), *faul* (< foul), *finále* (< finals), *finiš* (< finish), *forhend* (< forehand), *gól* (< goal), *hokej* (< hockey), *jachting* (< yachting), *knokaut* (< knockout), *kriket* (< cricket), *krosček / krošček* (< crosscheck), *mečbol / mečbal* (< match ball), *ofsajd* (< offside), *penalta* (< penalty), *skreč* (< scratch), *tým / tím* (< team), *tenis* (< tennis), *volejbal* (< volleyball).

Many of the new lexical items are adapted phonetically, i.e., with partial original English pronunciation and partial spelling changes. Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak often take over an orthographic form equal or similar to the English phonetic form, e.g., the consonant -j- (in: jazz, jeep, job, juice) pronounced [dʒ] in English is transcribed as -dž- into Czech and Slovak thus giving the graphical forms: *džez, džíp, džob, or džus / džús*. The English grapheme -c- is spelled and pronounced [k] in Czech and Slovak, e.g. *kánoe / kanoe* (< canoe), *kouč* (< couch), *kraul* (< crawl). The English phonemes [ʃ] and [tʃ] are orthographically expressed as -š- and -č- in Czech and Slovak, with their simplified pronunciation symbols /š/, /č/, e.g., *šortky* (< shorts), *šunt* (< shunt), *punč* (< punch), *sendvič* (< sandwich).

The significant differences within the phonemic systems can be seen in the absence of English phonemes [θ, ð, w, ŋ, æ, ə] in Czech and Slovak. The missing phonemes are substituted with those which correspond with the original English pronunciation the most, e.g., the English [æ] is substituted either with -e-, e.g., *džem*, or with -a-, e.g., *manažment*. The English final [ə] in words, such as pullover, speaker, scooter, has different orthographic and phonemic forms in Slovak and Czech, i.e., er [er]: *pulóver, spíker, skúter* in Slovak, but -r [r]: *pulovr, spíkr, skútr* in Czech. The final -ing form in words, such as meeting, screening, stretching, pronounced with [ŋ] in English is

spelled in the same way (*mítíng, skríning, strečíng*) in Slovak but (*mítínk, skrínik, strečínk*) in Czech with the pronunciation of the final -g either [g] or [k] often depending on the voiced or voiceless consonant of the following word in both, Czech and Slovak languages. The English phoneme [θ] is mostly substituted with /t/ in Czech and Slovak, e.g. *thriller / triler* (< thriller), the phoneme [w] is replaced with [v], e.g. *vikend* (< weekend), *software / softvér* (< software). Neither the Czech nor Slovak phonemes [p, t, k] are aspirated as opposed to the English [p, t, k] at the beginning of a stressed syllable.

During the process of adaptation of English words into Czech and Slovak it happens that both forms, i.e. non-adapted and adapted, occur side by side in the lexicon, e.g. casting – *kástínk / kástíng*, club – *klub*, designer – *designér / dizajner*, dressing – *dresínk / dresíng*, fair – *fér*, gentleman – *džentlmen*, hattrick – *hetrik*, houseboat – *hausbót*, jazzman – *džezmen*, make-up – *mejkap*, sitcom – *sítkom*, sprayer – *sprejer*, tweed – *tvíd*.

The above analysis of Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak demonstrates that their sound structure includes elements of the phonetic and orthographic composition of the underlying English word. It is thus possible to make a distinction between phonetically or orthographically adapted Anglicisms.

### **The morpho-syntactic level of adaptation**

The contemporary English language belongs to the analytical group of languages, while Czech and Slovak to the synthetic (inflectional) one. Nouns borrowed from English acquire those grammatical categories which function in word classes of the target languages. The criteria on the basis of which domestication of Anglicisms is determined include not only the complete semantic autonomy of words but also the ability to create lexical-semantic microsystems of words, e.g., phraseological units, metaphorical and metonymical extensions, as well as active lexical word-formation that often leads to the development of new lexemes, their inflectional character and their employment in common source languages allowing them to conjugate verbs and decline nouns, adjectives, and pronouns according to the Czech and Slovak paradigms.

Most Anglicisms are characteristic for their ability to form derivatives, e.g. adjectives – by adding adjectival morphemes to the nouns, e.g. *bluesový, grilovaný, hokejový, holdingový, interfejsový, internetový, kovbojský, parkovací, softbalový, rokenrolový, manšestrový / menčestrový, skautský, slangový, snobský, sportovní / športový, stresující / stresující, strečový, striptýzový / striptízový, swingový, tenisový, trendový, tuningový, trampský, trempský / trampský, webový, westernový*; or verbs – by adding infinitive suffixes (-ovat in Czech / -ovat' in Slovak) to the word bases, e.g. Czech: *esemeskovat, faulovat, importovat, parkovat, resetovat, skenovat, surfovat, trénovat*; Slovak: *esemeskovat', faulovat', importovat', parkovat', resetovat', skenovat', surfovat', trénovat'*.

Alongside the declinable nouns there also exist indeclinable, orthographically unadapted Anglicisms, e.g. *brandy, check-in, derby, graffítí, lady, miss, rely, know-how, play-off, puzzle, sci-fi, science fiction, (talk) show, selfie, whisky*.

Out of the total number of analyzed Anglicisms, more than 50% form nouns of the masculine gender in Czech and Slovak. To this category belong nouns that end in a consonant, e.g. *barter, biftek, bígl, buldok / bulldog, gangster, gim, gril, hit, harassment, horror, hostel, chuligán, kurzor, kvaker, koktejl, kombajn, kovboj, motel, nylon, outfit, roadster, sejf, server, setter, slang, smog, squatter, stevard / steward, toner, truck, workshop*; including the -ing form, e.g., *babysitting, bodybuilding, brainstorming, catering, modeling, podcasting, roaming, teambuilding, teleshopping, homebanking, marketing, modeling, podcasting, roaming, teambuilding, teleshopping, timing, wellness, workoholik*.

The group of nouns of the feminine gender consists of Anglicisms that end in a vowel -a in Slovak, e.g. *coca-cola*, *doga*, *gorila*, *kólia*, *ustrica*, and in -a or -e in Czech, e.g. *coca-cola*, *doga*, *gorila*, *kolie*, *ustrice*; in Czech and Slovak also the suffix -ka denoting the feminine gender-shift, e.g. *inženýrka* / *inžinierka*, *manažerka* / *manažerka*, *raftařka* / *raftérka*, *sprinterka* / *šprintérka*, *stewardka*.

A group of neuter gender deverbatives consists of Anglicisms containing the suffix -ství in Czech and -stvo in Slovak, e.g. *dealerství* / *dílerstvo*, *hackerství* / *hekerstvo*, *leadership* / *líderstvo*, *lordství* / *lordstvo*, *chuligánství* / *chuligánstvo*, *spozorství* / *spozorstvo*; and noun derivatives ending in -ování in Czech and -anie in Slovak which have replaced the original English -ing form, e.g. *dabování* / *dabovanie* (< dubbing), *gamblování* / *gamblovanie* (< gambling), *kempování* / *kempovanie* (< camping), *lobování* / *lobovanie* (< lobbying), *monitorování* / *monitorovanie* (< monitoring), *skenování* / *skenovanie* (< scanning), *surfování* / *surfovanie* (< surfing), *trénování* / *trénovanie* (< training).

Derivation belongs to the most productive word-formation processes that are also evident in the group of Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak. Nouns of the masculine gender contain the suffix -ista, e.g. *lobbista* / *lobista*, *folklorista*, *chartista*, *humorista*, *rasista*, *stylista* / *štylista*, including the names for men performing sports, e.g. *cyklista*, *hokejista*, *kanoista*, *volejbalista*, *ragbista*, *tenista*. The other Czech and Slovak examples of masculine nouns that were taken over from English with their original English suffixes are, e.g. *blogger* / *bloger* (< blogger), *developer* / *developér* (< developer), *dispečer* (< dispatcher), *distributor* / *distribútor* (< distributor), *designer* / *dizajner* (< designer), *driblér* (< dribbler), *investor* (< investor), *manažer* / *manažér* (< manager), *outsider* (< outsider), *sprinter* / *šprintér* (< sprinter), *rocker* / *roker* (< rocker). Some English nouns contain the -man element expressing the masculine gender which is transferred into Czech and Slovak either in the form of -men, e.g. *businessman* / *biznismen*, *děntlmen*, *džezmen*, *šoumen*, or -man, e.g. *erotoman*, *narkoman*, *ombudsman*, *superman*. Another suffix denoting the masculine gender of Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak is -ismus / -izmus, e.g. *feminizmus* / *feminizmus*, *lobismus* / *lobizmus*, *rasismus* / *rasizmus* / *sexizmus*, *thatcherismus* / *thatcherizmus*. Czech and Slovak abstract nouns of the feminine gender may be formed by suffixes added to English borrowings, e.g. -ace/-ácia: *globalizace* / *globalizácia*. -ie/-ia: *narkomanie* / *narkománia*. English nouns often take over international prefixes, and, subsequently, such a word form infiltrates into Czech and Slovak, e.g. *debriefing* / *debrifing*, *inkorporace* / *inkorporácia*, *restart* / *reštart*, *transakce* / *transakcia*. Both a prefix and suffix may be found in Anglicisms such as: *dekódování* / *dekódovanie*, *nelobování* / *nelobovanie*, *reinvestice* / *reinvestícia*.

To the English words (chip, clip, cake) taken over in their original plural ending (chips, clips, cakes), the Czech and Slovak plural ending was added in order to eliminate the discrepancy between the content and form of these words thus to express the differences between the singular (*čips*, *klips*, *keks*) and the plural: *čipsy*, *klipsy*, *keksy*. A similar process is found in English pluralia tantum nouns (leggings, jeans) to which the plural ending -y was added after their entering the Czech and Slovak vocabulary thus giving the forms: *legínsy*, *džínsy*, as well as: *legíny*, *džíny*. In case of English *shorts* the ending -ky was added in Czech and Slovak: *šortky*.

As presented above, Czech and Slovak demonstrate their language closeness by numerous similarities in their grammatical structure also in the field of Anglicisms. The results of the morphological analysis show that nouns borrowed from the English language submit themselves to the grammatical categories proper to this word class in Czech and Slovak, i.e., they acquire the categories of number, gender, and case. Most Anglicisms are inflected in Czech and Slovak, only a few of them belong to the non-declinable group of borrowings. The gender is determined by formal features of the

word following the Czech and Slovak grammar rules. Anglicisms are usually adopted in the singular number.

A further step is taken when Anglicisms, in their turn, participate actively in the formation of new words. The derivational processes take place mainly through suffixation, less through prefixation. English nominal compounds and phrases, more or less adapted, have also entered the lexicons of Czech and Slovak languages, e.g., *after party*, *airbag*, *arm-wrestling*, *baby-boom*, *backstage*, *bestseller*, *big band*, *billboard*, *Black Jack*, *bodyguard*, *bookmaker*, *brain-drain*, *clip maker*, *copyright*, *deadline*, *double-decker*, *drive-in*, *duty-free shop*, *fanklub*, *garden-party*, *hard rock*, *hotdog*, *jackpot*, *mainstream*, *pen club*, *penthouse*, *playback*, *playboy*, *playgirl*, *power-point*, *public relations*, *rooming-in*, *science fiction*, *second-hand*, *sex appeal*, *sex-shop*, *showroom*, *ski park*, *soundtrack*, *talk show*, *top model*, *trade mark*, and others. The Czech and Slovak languages have borrowed internationally recognized abbreviations and acronyms, such as: *EFTA* (European Free Trade Association), *ISDN* (Integrated Services Digital Network), *ISO* (International Standard Organization), *MS DOS* (Microsoft Disk Operation System), *NATO* (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), *OPEC* (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries), *ROM* (Read Only Memory), *USB* (Universal Serial Bus), *VIP* (very important person), *WHO* (World Health Organization), *www* (world wide web), and many others.

### **The lexical-semantic level of adaptation**

Anglicized neologisms are domesticated words adapted on different levels to the Czech and Slovak language systems and, gradually, become part of the neutral vocabulary. Fully domesticated lexical units that are no longer felt to be foreign describe common reality, and their orthographic, grammatical, lexical, or stylistic usage does not cause any problems for Czech or Slovak native speakers.

Some Anglicisms may move from one specialized field into another and become less specific as their meaning broadens and shifts, e.g., in Czech, there is an Anglicism *farmář* (in Slovak *farmár*), a word that originally denotes a person who owns or manages a farm. It takes on a new meaning under the influence of a foreign model, so today it also designates an NHL farm team hockey player. Following Vachek's opinion that "... the language system does not accept such external interventions that would be in contrast with its internal demands" (Vachek 1962: 45) we can assume that Anglicisms of terminological character in the Czech and Slovak languages (alongside with their purely domestic designations) will remain an indispensable part of the lexicons primarily due to their unambiguous and international character. The following examples may prove the above statement:

The English word *goal* has three meanings (see Collins Online Dictionary). Nevertheless, it is reduced to only one meaning in Czech and Slovak chiefly relating to the scoring of points in football, hockey, or in other games. The monosyllabic Anglicism orthographically simplified in Czech and Slovak as *gól*, is much better suited for its emotive use (e.g., by shouting fans) than the Czech disyllabic word *branka*. The Anglicism *gól* and its domestic Czech equivalent *branka* represent synonyms. Similarly, the Anglicism *foťbal* (in Slovak *futbal*) and its purely Czech designation *kopaná* for English football are used for fine differentiation of stylistically marked context.

Some modifications which the Czech and Slovak vocabularies are going through nowadays can be characterized by certain tendencies towards internationalization and simplification of their lexicon. On the one hand, and the fact that the technical terms also enter the common vocabulary on the other. Anglicisms often express such notions that Czech and Slovak's words are not able to term. It is of great importance, particularly in specialized fields in which technical and scientific terms should be monosemantic, and inadequate Czech and Slovak equivalents may have undesirable

shades of meaning. It is difficult to analyze all Anglicisms, or even a greater part of them in the inspected languages, however, an insight is given into this dynamic and constantly changing reality, namely Anglicisms that function in the field of information technology and computing:

- unadapted lexical units in both Czech and Slovak, e.g., *blue-ray*, *Bluetooth*, *desktop*, *e-learning*, *enter*, *google*, *hands-free*, *hard disk*, *hardware* (also *hardvér* in Slovak), *iBook*, *input*, *internet*, *iPod*, *joystick*, *keyboard*, *login*, *memory*, *monitor*, *network*, *notebook*, *offline*, *online*, *pixel*, *PlayStation*, *podcast*, *port*, *printer*, *setting*, *setup*, *skype*, *software* (also *softvér* in Slovak), *spam*, *subwoofer*, *touchpad*, *wafer*, *web*, *webzine*, *zoom*;
- adapted lexical units in both Czech and Slovak, e.g. *bajt* (< byte), *čet* (< chat), *čip* (< chip), *displej* (< display), *drajv* (< drive), *interfejs* (< interface), *mejl* (< mail), *ploter* (< plotter), *procesor* (< processor), *skener* (< scanner), *skrining* (< screening), *videorekordér* (< videorecorder), *webkamera* (< web camera).

Among the three groups of loanwords, i.e. (i) inflexible, un-adapted English expressions, i.e., words in their original English spelling, pronunciation, and morphological adaptation are only partial, e.g., *cheerleaders*, (ii) adapted loanwords, i.e. adapted on the morphological level with the original spelling and, in part, their pronunciation, e.g. Czech: *flipovat*, and (iii) calques, i.e., new lexical items created in the target language through translation, e.g. Czech: *příliš mnoho hráčů na ledové ploše* (< too many men on the ice), there exist certain intermediary stages which move from one language system to another, from the centre to the periphery and from the periphery to the centre of the language system (Entlova 2014). The calques occur in all fields of social life, e.g. Czech: *pamět*, *otevřený systém* and Slovak: *pamäť*, *otvorený systém* (< memory, open system), Czech and Slovak: *počítač* (< computer), Czech: *horské kolo* and Slovak: *horský bicykel* (< mountain bike), Czech: *žlutá karta*, *červená karta* and Slovak: *žltá karta*, *červená karta* (< yellow card, red card), Czech: *vymývání mozků*, Slovak: *vymývanie mozgov* (< brain-washing), Czech and Slovak: *mrakodrap* (< skyscraper), and others. A recent example of a semantic calque from the field of information technology occurring in both Czech and Slovak lexicon is *myš* (< mouse) originally meaning rodent but which has acquired a new meaning denoting a computer control device.

Lexical differences between Anglicisms and their source words include a semantic reduction, on the one hand, i.e., the polysemantic word in the source language is reduced to only one meaning in the receiver language, e.g., *gól* (< goal, see above), and semantic narrowing on the other, i.e., a regular semantic change from a general meaning of the source word to a specific one in the receiver language, e.g. the general deverbal sense of the English *meeting* understood as ‘an occasion when people come together’ was narrowed to either company or a political rally or sports event in Czech. Nevertheless, the opposite semantic development, i.e., semantic widening of individual meanings of Anglicisms in comparison to the semantics of its English etymon, is also documented in the Czech and Slovak languages.

Anglicisms extended to other meanings are for instance: *helikoptéra* (< helicopter) originally an aviation term denoting an aircraft has acquired a new meaning in Czech: in freestyle skiing, skateboarding, or also waterskiing it is a 360° turn performed midair with the body vertical; *fitink* (< fitting) originally an industrial pipe fitting has a new meaning in Czech: either a golf club fitting or fitting for clothes in the fashion

industry; in Slovak: an adjustment in computer technology. The meaning of every polysemous word reflects, in a way, a certain part of an extra-linguistic reality. It is determined by its relationship to other words and their meanings and to the collocations they make, i.e., habitual (not random) and meaningful co-occurrences of words within a close context (Entlova, 2014).

Anglicisms that enter the vocabulary of Czech and Slovak languages not only accurately name the new reality but they also bring new cultural attributes alongside with the original denotation so it would not be effective to replace them with their domestic (and sometimes) misleading paraphrases or calques, especially in commercial, economic and financial texts, e.g., *franšízing* (< franchising) in Czech is used instead of a wordy paraphrase “udělování licencí k distribuci zboží dané firmy”, and *frenčajzing* in Slovak as “udeľovanie licencií k distribúcií tovaru danej firmy”. Similar examples of Anglicisms in Czech and Slovak are *software* / *sofivér* (< software), and its Czech appellation: programové vybavení počítače; Slovak appellation: programové vybavenie počítača; *hacker* / *heker* (< hacker) – Czech: počítačový zločinec a narušitel počítačových sítí, průnikář (Czech also uses Anglicisms *cracker* and *black hat* in similar contexts); Slovak: počítačový podvodník, pirát; *summit* / *samit* (< summit) – Czech: setkání nejvyšších představitelů, schůzka na nejvyšší úrovni, Slovak: stretnutie najvyšších predstaviteľov štátov, schôdzka na najvyššej úrovni; *doping* (< doping) – Czech: užívání nedovolených povzbuzujících prostředků, and Slovak: užívanie nedovolených povzbudzujúcich prostriedkov. Being compared with their domestic Czech and Slovak multi-word naming units and paraphrases, often ambiguous ones, Anglicisms are shorter and thus more economical in the texts of specialized technical character. The following Anglicisms from the field of economy, administration, or mass media used in Czech and Slovak have also proven their effective usage in practice, e.g., *brifink* / *brifing*, *byznys* / *biznis*, *damping*, *export*, *impeachment* / *impčment*, *interview*, *holding*, *import*, *clearing* / *klíring*, *know-how*, *leasing* / *lízing*, *rating*, *manažment*, *marketing*.

As the results of our research show, the Czech and Slovak languages adopt identical English terms into their vocabulary. There are, however, some apparent differences where Czech and Slovak retain their domestic naming units over the English ones, for instance, when the Czech language has adopted an Anglicism *tramvaj* (< tramway), but the Slovak language did not and prefers its domestic naming unit: *električka*. An opposite example is the name of the game in Slovak: *basketbal* (< basketball) while the Czech language, besides the Anglicism *basket(bal)* also uses a calque: *košíková*.

During the present-day period of the world pandemic, not only Czechs and Slovaks but also other nations use internationalisms for their communication borrowed from English of which origin are mainly Latin and Greek, e.g. *virus* (< English: virus < Latin), *laboratoř* / *laboratórium* (< laboratory < Latin), *senior* (< senior < Latin), *testování* / *testovanie* (< testing < Latin), *epidemie* / *epidémia* (< epidemic < Greek), *krize* / *kríza* (< crises < Greek), *pandemie* / *pandémia* (< pandemics < Greek), *expert* (< expert < Latin), *klient* (< client < Latin), *stabilita* (< stability < Latin), *stacionář* / *stacionár* (< stationary < Latin), *gel* / *gél* (< gel < Latin), *infekce* / *infekcia* (< infection < Latin).

In general, it may be stated that Anglicisms have spread into all spheres of life within Czech and Slovak society. The development of a society is reflected in numerous lexical units that define social relations and changes that undoubtedly require lexical innovations and transformations in the recipient language. As long as a language can assimilate the linguistic loan, play with it, and shape it so that it becomes integrated in its language system of inflection paradigms, its patterns, and models, Anglicisms are considered beneficial from both the perspective of enriching the vocabularies of the Czech and Slovak languages and the perspective of easier international communication among the language users.

The study represents a brief inquiry into the occurrence of Anglicisms in the vocabulary of Czech and Slovak languages. As the process of borrowing new terms and their subsequent adaptation in the receiver languages is in continuous progress and development, this current linguistic area to reveal the ways, reasons, and types of Anglicisms still requires further research and analysis in order to contribute further to the development of human society and cultural diffusion.

### **Bibliographic references**

- DURKIN, P. 2014. *Borrowed Words: A History of Loanwords in English*. Oxford-New York: Oxford University Press. ISBN 97-8019-957-4995
- ENTLOVA, G. 2014. *The present-day Anglicisms in Czech within the domain of sport*. Saarbrücken: Omni Scriptum GmbH & Co. KG. ISBN-13: 978-3659524417.
- GORLACH, M. 1994. *A Usage Dictionary of Anglicisms in Selected European Languages*. In: *International Journal of Lexicography*, n. 3, pp 233-46. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISSN 0950-3846.
- HAUGEN, E. 1950. *The analysis of linguistic borrowing*. In: *JSTOR*. Available online: <https://www.jstor.org/stable/410058>.
- HOAD, T. F. (ed.). 1993. *The Concise Dictionary of English Etymology*. Oxford-New York: Oxford University Press. ISBN 0-19-861182-X.
- HORECKY, J. – BUZASSYOVA, K. – BOSAK, J. et al. 1989. *Dynamika slovnej zasoby súčasnej slovenčiny*. Bratislava: Veda, ISBN 80-224-0947-5.
- IVANOVA-SALINGOVA, M. – MAANIKOVA, Z. 1979. *Slovník cudzích slov*. Bratislava: SPN. 67-567-79.
- KACALA, J. 2001. *Spisovna slovenčina v 20. Storočí*. Bratislava: VEDA. ISBN 80-224-0666-X.
- KRAUS, J. et al. 2007. *Nový akademický slovník cizích slov*. Praha: Academia. ISBN 978-80-200-1415-3
- MALA, E. 2002. *English borrowings in the Slovak language*. In: *Zborník z medzinarodnej vedeckej konferencie CO-MAT-TECH 2002*. Trnava: MtF STU, pp. 562-565. ISBN 80-227-1768-1
- MALA, E. 2003. *Vyskyt anglicizmov v športovej terminológii*. In: *Zborník z medzinarodnej konferencie Univerzitný šport a telesná výchova na začiatku 3. tisícročia*. Nitra: UKF, pp. 146-149. ISBN 80-8069-273-4.
- MALA, E. 2005. *Anglicizmy v slovnej zásobe slovenskeho a ruskeho jazyka*. In: *Lingua et communicatio in Sphaera Culturae*, pp. 87-92, Ostrava: Ostravská univerzita. ISBN 80-7368-120-X.
- MASAR, I. 1997. *Terminologická kultura a komunikatívna efektívnosť*. Available online: <http://www.juls.savba.sk/ks/1997/4/ks1997-4.txt>.
- MISTRÍK, J. 1999. *Moderná slovenčina*. Bratislava: SPN. ISBN 80-06-00924-4.
- ORAVCOVA, A. 1994. *O anglických slovach v dennej tlači*. Available online: <http://www.juls.savb.sk/ks/1994/5/ks1994-5.txt>.
- POVAZAJ, M. 1994. *Súčasny stav jazykovej kultúry*. Available online: <http://www.juls.savba.sk/ks/1994/5/ks1994-5.html=s-asn-stav-jazykovej-kultury>.
- REJZEK, J. 1993. *K formální adaptaci anglicismu*. Available online: <http://nase-rec.ujc.cas.cz/archiv.php?art=7106>.
- REJZEK, J. 2015. *Český etymologický slovník*. Voznice: nakladatelství LEDA. ISBN 978-80-7335-393-3.
- RAGAN, J. 1998. *Anglicko-slovenský slovník vypočetovej techniky*. Bratislava: SPN. ISBN 80-08-01117-3.
- SOCHOVA, Z. – POSTOLKOVA, B. 1994. *Co v slovnících nenajdete*. Praha: Portál. ISBN 978-7178-000-6.

SRPOVA, H. 2001. Impakt socialnich faktorů na vyvoj ceskeho lexika konce 20. století. In: Český jazyk a literatura na sklonku XX. Století. Wałbrzych: PWSZ, Ostrava: Ostravska univerzita. ISBN 80-7042-587-3.

SVOBODOVA, D. 2007. Internacionalizace soucasne ceske slovní zásoby. Ostrava: Ostravska univerzita. ISBN 978-80-7368-308-5.

VACHEK, J. 1962. K otázce vlivu vnejsich cinitelů na vyvoj jazykoveho systemu. In: Slavica Pragensia IV. Praha. OCLC 43747593.

VACHEK, J. 1986. Some Remarks on English Loans in Czech Sports Terminology. In: English in Contact with Other Languages. Budapest. ISBN 9630541963.

CAMBRIDGE DICTIONARY. Available online: <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/>

COLLINS ONLINE DICTIONARY. Available online: <https://www.collinsdictionary.com/>

OXFORD LEARNERS' DICTIONARIES. 2018. Available online: <https://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/>

*Words: 4 575*

*Characters: 31 448 (17,47 standard pages)*

PhDr. Gabriela Entlova, PhD.  
Prof. PhDr. Eva Mala, CSc.  
Department of English Language Teaching  
Faculty of Education  
Ostrava University  
Fr. Sramka 3  
70 900 Ostrava  
Czech Republic  
[gabriela.entlova@osu.cz](mailto:gabriela.entlova@osu.cz)  
[eva.mala@osu.cz](mailto:eva.mala@osu.cz)

## Latin borrowings as a linguistic problem: approaches, reasons, typology

Gaziza Shoibekova – Tynyshtyk Yermekova – Aigyl Amantaevna Satbekova  
– Sagira Odanova – Maira Malik

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.12

### Abstract

The process of activating borrowed vocabulary has become one of the significant phenomena for modern linguistics. This is due to the fact that at the turn of the 20th - 21st centuries, the borrowing of lexical units, is one of the main sources of the neogenesis of the language system. Anglicisms that have entered the recipient language entail changes that affect various levels of the language: phonetic, lexical, morphological, etc. Such phenomena are constantly under the scrutiny of linguists.

Borrowing is the most important neologization mechanism, which involves updating the structure (primarily in the case of material borrowing) and the language system (in the case of semantic borrowing). During the research on this issue where the process of borrowing of a foreign word is studied, we concluded that the main point in this process is the semantic development of a foreign word and that it is necessary to separate the process of adapting a word in the speech from the process of adapting it in a language. This differentiated approach helped to study the borrowing processes in speech and in the language and made it possible to single out issues that have not been studied enough such as the degree of borrowing of a foreign language word in speech and in the language, the signs of these degrees, as well as correlation of these degrees of borrowing with speech and language.

**Key words:** borrowings, linguistic, problem, approaches, reasons, typology

---

### Introduction

Despite the constant attention to the problem of borrowing in science, there are still a lot of unresolved issues, a kind of “research gap.” Among the latter, there has been semantic tracing, which fits into the general process of semantic development of the vocabulary.

In particular, N.S. Arapova, S.A. Belyaeva studied the borrowing process (Arapova, 2000; Belyaeva, 1984). The study of the semantic aspect of mastering foreign words was carried out by N.V. Vaganova (Vaganova, 2001). When we study the issue of borrowings, we need to review the theory of language contacts firstly. The theory of language contact clears the situation of borrowings and demonstrates how new words appear in the language. In modern linguistics, researches pay special attention to the study of language contacts, which are the subject of a special linguistic paradigm called “contact linguistics,” “linguistics of language contacts,” or “linguistic contactology” (Belikov, 2006).

The specified specialization of linguistics studies the processes and results of contacting languages in a specific geopolitical space under certain historical and social conditions of communication between peoples, ethnic groups, ethnic communities, individual human groups speaking different languages (Neroznak, Pankin, 1999). The concept of “borrowed word” should be considered in two ways, differentiating the position of synchrony and diachrony. At the modern level, it seems legitimate to interpret borrowing as a foreign language unit of any degree of development and use the terms “borrowing,” “foreign word,” “foreign language word” as synonymous.

If we consider this issue from the perspective of time, it is possible to divide foreign units into mastered (borrowings) and undeveloped (foreign) ones. From the

point of view of seismological mechanisms, the lexico-semantic adaptation of English borrowings is due to their paradigmatic and syntagmatic connections in the system of the recipient language, which in turn leads to the active emergence of new lexico-semantic variants of borrowed Englishisms under the influence of the language dictionary system.

Consideration of the structure of the lexical meaning of the word as a field and the use of component analysis allows us to identify various dynamic models for the development of the semantics of modern Anglicisms, among which the most productive is metonymy, less common among neo-lexemes. Along with the indicated type of semantic derivation in the semantics of English borrowings, the following processes are observed: metaphorical transfer, expansion of meaning, semantic shift, narrowing of meaning, a number of English borrowings demonstrates the complex formation of meaning (metaphor + metonymy, metonymy + expansion of meaning, semantic shift + metonymy; metaphor + semantic shift, semantic shift + expansion of meaning).

Borrowing should be understood broadly, including in its composition both direct borrowing and word-formation and semantic copying of foreign language material. In this case, there is a clear correlation between the genus (borrowing) and its species (forms of borrowing). To denote a process other than semantic tracing, the term "secondary borrowing" is introduced, which seems legitimate, first of all, on the basis of the primordial / inauthenticity of the lexeme, which receives a new meaning: when tracing, the value is transferred to the material shell of the primordial words, and in case of secondary borrowing - earlier than the borrowed lexical unit.

Thus, it seems appropriate to distinguish the following genus-species components: semantic borrowing is a generic concept, it is differentiated by semantic ratios and secondary borrowing, which in the language system demonstrate quite broad areas of functioning and different types of lexical meanings.

Modern linguistic science has replenished with a significant amount of theoretical data due to the emergence and development of a new branch of linguistics - neology, which studies the process of updating the language at different levels of the system. The formation of neology was due to the understanding of the new word as an independent lexical and semantic category, originally associated with borrowed vocabulary units, and subsequently expanding its conceptual and denotative basis.

The continuous updating of the lexical composition of the language makes it the object of close attention of linguists. Each stage of the replenishment of the dictionary is subjected to careful study, and the neo-lexemes included in the language are considered in various aspects, from the moment they enter the language system to the full-fledged functioning of new lexical units in someone else's vocabulary. The special attention of scientists who are concerned with the issues of neology has always been attracted by the borrowing process, as the most important mechanism of neogenesis, and also as one of the main ways of influencing the conceptual sphere of native speakers of a particular language.

Language contacts, which are an integral characteristic of any ethno-collective, have contributed to the replenishment of the language system with foreign vocabulary for many centuries. For various extra-linguistic reasons, borrowings from different languages came to the fore in different eras. The current stage is marked by the state of Englishism (or rather Americanism), which is associated with the global influence of English on world languages in general. It should be noted that the specifics of modern English language contacts are determined by a new way of borrowing - through the Internet, the possibilities of which provide researchers with rich foreign language material.

The socio-economic conditions that have arisen in the modern era have determined the special predisposition of society to the active adoption of new borrowed words, which has led to a change in the functional status of the English

language: for the first time in the four-century history of English- language ties, the English language takes on a function, which the ancient language has always performed for the literary languages of Europe, and claims to be a *per stratum*, being an important donor of neo-lexemes in the field of spiritual culture, and technology.

The turn of the 20th - 21st centuries (compared with the previous century) was noted by the activation of semantic borrowings, despite the predominance of materially borrowed elements. This fact indicates the beginning of deep, semantic changes in the language as a result of transformations in the linguistic and conceptual worldviews, which requires further analysis of emerging trends, in particular, in line with the theoretical problems of perceiving foreign words, elaborated by V.V. Kolesov (2009).

The process of semantic derivation is characteristic of the last stage of borrowing development. It is noteworthy that among the main models of the indicated process, an indirect nomination comes to the fore, namely metonymic transfer (while for the native vocabulary, the metaphor is more typical). Among modern Englishisms, there have also been cases of the complex formation of a new meaning, including several semantic processes at the same time, such as metaphor and metonymy, metonymy and the expansion of meaning, etc. Thus, the indirect nomination is actively represented among new words of a foreign language, which indicates a strengthening contradiction between the information and expressive functions of the language; if we consider the numerous colloquial, jargon, simple-vernacular lexical units that actively penetrate into the standard, it can be argued that this contradiction is resolved in favor of the tendency to expressivity.

Along with direct borrowing, as noted above, semantic borrowings (secondary borrowing and semantic tracing) are actively penetrating into the modern language, demonstrating quite wide spheres of functioning. Among them, the most productive in the field of computer and Internet technologies. The process of transition of semantic borrowings from English into Kazakh is accompanied by semantic, structural, connotative transformations. The latter is the most significant since, changing the structure of mentality, they reflect changes in the national consciousness.

Of particular interest is the comparison of the types of lexical meanings of material and semantic borrowings. Whereas material borrowings are dominated by nominative non-derivative values, then semantic ones are more characteristic of figurative values (by the way, unlike material borrowings, almost all semantic borrowings develop figurative values based on a metaphor). Differences are also observed on the basis of syntagmatic relatedness: phraseologically related meanings are characteristic mainly for semantic borrowings, while paradigmatically related meanings are for material ones.

A wide representation of related lexical meanings supports vocabulary, and thereby the synthetic beginning of the language, as opposed to the analytical and agglutinative, actively developing formal lexemes. In general, we can say that the semantic influence of the English language on the modern Kazakh language is very tangible, both in the form of the semantic derivation of new material borrowings and in the form of semantic borrowings.

Undoubtedly, the study of new lexical units is of great importance in socio-historical, cultural-cognitive and linguistic relations; This circumstance, in turn, allows us to express some considerations regarding the prospects for further research in the field of neologization in the aspect of the borrowing process. It can be predicted that the process of replenishment with new material and semantic borrowings from the indicated donor language in the near future will not reduce the rate of its intensity; Moreover, quantitative growth of semantic borrowings is possible, leading to qualitative changes in the language, which requires special attention of linguists. In

this regard, special attention should be paid specifically to semantic tracing, despite the difficulties associated with the identification of the named object of study. At the same time, it is possible to study this type of borrowing in terms of comparison.

Another direction in the framework of the development of this topic is the observation of connotative changes in the structure of the token under the influence of a second borrowed or traced value because it often runs counter to the usual linguistic picture of the world of the speaker and speaks of its cardinal changes. This promising direction of research, to a certain extent, echoes the possibility of a cognitive approach to semantic borrowings, which would allow us to identify relevant concepts translated into the language system.

One of the most important prospects for the study of semantic borrowings is their lexicographic description. The reflection of these units in modern explanatory dictionaries seems insufficiently complete and, in many cases, ambiguous and controversial: a lexical-semantic version of existing meanings or a homonym. It is thought that modern neography should be represented by a separate dictionary of semantic borrowings, in particular semantic cripples. The study of these areas will expand existing ideas about the semantic aspect of borrowing from the English language at the present stage. It is completely obvious that the degrees of mastering a foreign language word in speech and in the language, up to its complete assimilation, are different.

In determining the ratio of the degrees of mastery of a foreign language word in speech and in the language, the leading is the sign of semantic mastery, which is associated with the number of acquired meanings of a multi-valued word, with their interpretation and with the presence of figurative meanings. Analysis of interpretations of a foreign word in dictionaries, i.e., in language and in speech, it was possible to identify some discrepancies in the number of meanings and in the interpretation of meanings. So, twelve Englishisms from our list have a higher number of meanings in the language than ordinary native Kazakh speakers noted in the questionnaires.

These are the words drive, cool, friend, people, message, show, monitor (in the language - 2 meanings, in the speech - 1 meaning), fax (in the language - 4 meanings, in the speech - 3 meanings), sponsor (in language - 4 meanings, in speech - 2 meanings), cocktail (in language - 4 meanings, in speech - 3 meanings), club (in language - 3 meanings, in speech - 2 meanings).

Some words also have differences in stylistic marks, including their absence. In most cases, this is due to the fact that dictionaries note all the meanings that these words had in the past and have at the present time, and the meanings used by different social, professional groups, and informants may not know outdated or stylistically colored meanings.

An analysis of the vocabulary entries of Anglicism and the interpretation of the meanings given by the informants made it possible to single out seven words from our list, the number of meanings in which in the language is less than in speech: grinders, chat, escape (in the language - 1 meaning, in speech - 2 values), fusion (in the language - 1 value, in the speech - 4 values), chat, sniper, jeans (in the language - 2 values, in the speech - 3 values).

It should be emphasized that the survey participants did not indicate any figurative meanings of those that have analyzed Anglicism. And this fact requires additional research. The analysis performed clearly showed that there are two types of relations between the degrees of development of a foreign language word in speech and in language.

Most of the analyzed Anglicisms have a direct, due to the real relationship between speech and language, the ratio of the degrees of development in speech and in language, in speech, the degree of development is higher than in the language, or the same as in the language: escape, chat, message, friend, chat, cool, drive, grinders,

ketchup, laptop, price list, public relations, security, Internet, chips, exclusive, supermarket, image, printer, fax, show, sniper, sponsor, office, business, jeans, monitor, cocktail, jacket, bar, park, rail, station, club.

The analysis also revealed a group of Anglicisms, which, though having a direct ratio of degrees of development, deserve special attention of lexicographers, since they are not recorded in any of the dictionaries analyzed. However, in speech, they have a medium (ICQ, nickname, fashion, Oops) and highest degree of development (wow). Identified words with an inverse ratio of degrees of development, in language, the degree of mastery is higher than in speech. These Anglicism can be divided into two groups according to borrowing time.

In the first group, we combined the words that were borrowed at the end of the 20th century: fusion (in the language there is a low degree of development, and in speech, it is zero); copyright, kidnapping (in the language the average degree of development, in speech - a low degree of development); happy end (in the language - the highest degree of development, in speech - a high degree of development). This indicates that the compilers of the dictionaries did not evaluate the actual degree of mastery of these words in speech.

The second group consists of Anglicisms, which were borrowed at the end of XIXB. - 1st half of the 20th century. These are the words hall, corrugated, porch (in the language - the highest degree of development, in speech - a high degree of development). W. Weinreich characterized the adaptation of a foreign word in the receiving language in a very figurative way:

“In speech, interference is like sand carried away by the current, but in language it can be compared with the same sand that sank to the bottom of the lake. These two stages of interference must be distinguished. In speech, interference arises in the statements of a bilingual as a result of his personal acquaintance with another language. In language, we find those phenomena of interference which, due to repeated appearances in the speech of bilinguals, have become habitual and entrenched in use” (Weinreich, 2006).

At present, the causes, paths, and conditions for the penetration of foreign words into the host language have been thoroughly investigated; carried out an etymological and chronological classification of foreign words in Kazakh; The stages of the foreign language adaptation process have identified the stages of the process of adaptation of a foreign language word in the language (although there is still no complete unanimity on this issue).

One of the types of borrowing is tracing. As you know, the process of replenishing the vocabulary of the language with foreign vocabulary is carried out by material (direct) borrowing and tracing - borrowing hidden. It is noted in the scientific literature that “only the combination of these two types of borrowing gives an idea of the influence of one language on another” (Galdi, 1958). Nevertheless, at various stages of language contacting, it is possible that certain borrowed elements prevail, either tracing or materially borrowed.

There is no discussion about the classification of tracing. The first classification belongs to B. Unbegaun, who distinguishes the following types of traced units:

- lexical;
- semantic;
- phraseological;
- half tracing or borrowed (Matveeva, 2013).

However, far from all questions of the theory, tracing is solved in modern linguistics unambiguously. For example, the question of the status of tracing as borrowed lexical units remains controversial. Traditionally, linguists consider tracing

as a special type of borrowing (Budagov, 2014), however, drawing some boundary between these concepts on the basis that borrowing is a transfer of the exponent and the content of the mark; meaning is borrowed in tracing paper (along with the structure or whatever), the external form belongs to the borrowing language.

It is the construction of tracing from the material itself that allows some scientists to attribute tracing units to borrowed only formally.

In our opinion, the borrowing process should be understood broadly, including both direct borrowing and word-formation and semantic copying of foreign-language material. In this case, there is a clear correlation between the genus (borrowing) and its species (forms of borrowing). In addition, with this approach, the translated elements of a foreign language and, accordingly, the types of borrowing, including the semantic borrowing, are clearly distinguished.

By the way, the issue of distinguishing between the concepts of “semantic coding” and “semantic borrowing” is also being resolved ambiguously. The allocation of secondary borrowings, along with semantically coded units, is legitimate primarily on the basis of the sign of insubstantiality of the lexeme, gaining a new meaning, since in all traditional definitions of the term “tracing” there are components of the “original word,” “elements of the receiving language,” and etc.

“Tracing is used to designate borrowings in the form of a literal translation of a foreign word or expression, i.e. its exact reproduction by means of a perceiving language with preservation of the morphological structure and motivation” (Arnold, 1959); “Tracing is the formation of new words and expressions according to lexical and phraseological models of another language using the elements of that language” “Tracing are borrowed words and expressions when a foreign-language sample is translated in parts by means of its own language” (Reformatorskii, 2004).

Accordingly, borrowed words that received at a certain moment of existence an additional meaning, taken from other languages, it is logical to call secondary borrowings. We came up with the following conclusions. We distinguished five degrees of mastering a foreign language word in speech, and in the language, they are zero-degree, low degree, medium degree, high degree, and highest degree.

The signs and criteria for each degree of mastering a foreign language word in speech (written and oral) and in the language are defined. A special, psycholinguistic feature has been identified that determines the degree of perception of a foreign language by ordinary carriers of the host language. The ratios of the degrees of development of a foreign language word are analyzed, and two types of ratios are distinguished:

a direct correlation of the degrees of mastery of a foreign language word (the degree of mastery of a foreign language word in speech is higher than in the language), reflecting the natural, regular process of adaptation of a foreign language word;

the inverse ratio of the degrees of mastering a foreign language word (the degree of mastering a foreign word in speech is lower than the degree of mastering in a language), which does not correspond to the natural process of adaptation of a foreign word. It is shown that the degree of mastering a foreign language word in speech and in the language does not depend on the borrowing time of this word.

However, the degree of perception of a foreign language word by ordinary native speakers as “their own” directly depends on the borrowing time: at least 100 years of active functioning of foreign language borrowing in speech is necessary so that ordinary native speakers cease to feel its foreign language and perceive this word as “their own.”

The analysis of Anglicisms in the works of the different genre, in the speech of ordinary native speakers of the language and in the language (in dictionaries), indicates the need to create dictionaries of new foreign words, which would include all new foreign words that appeared in speech over a certain period (for example, over

the past 20 years). The periodical publication of such dictionaries will make it possible to record the beginning of the process of assimilation of a foreign language word and the time of its appearance in speech, to trace the further fate of each word and establish how many of the newly appearing foreign language words in speech are further fixed in the language. This very clearly indicates the need to study the real situation with the use of English in speech and to study the attitude of ordinary native speakers of the language to the use of borrowed words so that on a reliable scientific basis, it is possible to formulate a language policy regarding English.

### **Bibliographic references**

- AKHMANOVA O.S. 2005. Dictionary of linguistic terms. In: URSS, 576 p.
- BAGAN ZH. 2004. Language interference in the conditions of Franco-Congolese bilingualism: Dis. ... doc. filol. sciences. - Saratov, 350 p.
- APRESYAN YU.D. 1992. Connotation as part of the pragmatics of the word (lexical and graphic aspect) // Russian: Problems of grammatical semantics and evaluation factors in the language. In: Nauka, pp. 45-64.
- ARAPOVA N.S. 2000. Tracing paper in the Russian language of the post-Petrine period. Vocabulary experience. In: Moscow State University Publishing House, 319 p.
- ARISTOVA V.M. 1979. English-Russian language contacts. - L.: Ed. Leningrad State University, 151 p.
- ARNOLD I.V. 1959. Lexicology of modern English. In: Publishing House of Literature in Foreign Languages, 351 p.
- ARUTYUNOVA N.D. 1980. To the problem of functional types of lexical meaning, Aspects of semantic research. In: Nauka, pp. 156-250.
- ARUTYUNOVA N.D. 1979. Linguistic metaphor (syntax and vocabulary), Linguistics and poetics. In: Science, pp. 120-139.
- BALLY S. 1961. French style. In: Foreign Literature, 393 p.
- BELIKOV V.I. – KRY SIN L.P. 2000. Sociolinguistics. In: RGGU, 439 p.
- BELYAEVA S.A. 1984. English words in Russian language of the XVI - XX centuries. - Vladivostok: FENU Publishing House, 108 p.
- BENVENIST E. 1974. General Linguistics. In: Progress, 447 p.
- BERTAGAEV T.A. 1972. Bilingualism and its varieties in the consumer system. Problems of bilingualism and multilingualism. In: Nauka, pp. 82-85.
- BONDARETS O.E. 2008. Foreign borrowings in speech and in language: the linguo-sociological aspect. - Taganrog: Publishing House of Taganrog. State Pedagogical Institute, 142 p.
- BRAGIN A.A. 1973. Neologisms in Russian. In: Education, 224 p.
- BREITER M.A. 1997. Anglicism in the language: history and prospects. Ed. Dialog-MSU JSC, 156 p.
- BUDAGOV, R.A. 2014. Language, history and modernity / R.A. Budagov. In: Moscow State University, 299 p.
- KARLINSKY A.E. 1984. Problems of the theory of language contacts In: Language – contacts and interference. - Kazan: Publ. KazGU, pp. 3-13.
- KASYANOVA L.Yu. 2006. Neologization vectors in modern Russian: a monograph. - Astrakhan, 148 p.
- KASYANOVA L.Yu. 2009. Cognitive-discursive problems of neologization in the Russian language of the late XX - early XXI century: Dis. ... doc. filol. sciences. - Astrakhan, 401 p.
- KOLESOV I.YU. 2009. Actualization of visual perception in the language: cognitive aspect: on the material of English and Russian languages: Dis. ... doc. filol. sciences. - Barnaul, 467 p.

- MATVEEVA G.G. 2013. Fundamentals of pragmalinguistics: Monograph / G.G. Matveeva, A.V. Lenets, E.I. Petrova. In: Flint, Science, 232 p.
- NEROZNAK V.P. – PANKIN V.M. 1999. Linguistic contactology and language conflicts // Problems of linguistic contactology. pp. 10-23.
- REFORMATORSKII A.A. 2004. Introduction to linguistics. In: Aspect Press, 518 p.
- TARASOVA M.V. 2009. Semantic changes in English borrowings in Russian and German in the context of globalization: Dis. ... cand. filol. sciences. - Belgorod, 192 p.
- TELIA V.N. 1986. The connotative aspect of the semantics of nominative units. In: Nauka, 141 p.
- TELIA V.N. 1980. Semantics of related meanings of words and their combination – Aspects of semantic research. In: Nauka, pp. 250–319.
- TER-MINASOVA S.G. 2007. War and the world of languages and cultures. Questions of the theory and practice of interlanguage communication. In: ACT: Astrel, 286 p.
- VAGANOVA E.N. 2001. Coreference and connexion as the main properties of the semantic and structural organization of the text: On the material "story": Dis. ... cand. filol. sciences. - Nizhegorods, 426 p.
- VALGINA N.S. 2006. Rosenthal D.E., Fomina M.I. Modern Russian language / Under. ed. N.S. Valgina. In: Logos, 528p.
- VASILIEV L.M. 1990. Modern linguistic semantics. In: Higher School, 176 p.
- VINOGRADOV V.V. 1977. The main types of lexical meanings of the word, Vinogradov V.V. Lexicology and Lexicography: Selected Works. In: Nauka, pp. 162-189.
- VINOGRADOV V.V. 1982. Essays on the history of the Russian literary language of the XVII-XIX centuries. In: Higher school, 528 p.
- VOLKOV A.G. – KHABAROV I.A. 1961. Ontological and epistemological aspect of the iconic problem. // Laws of semantic development in language, pp. 60-67.
- VOLODARSKY E.F. 2002. Borrowing as a reflection of Russian-English contacts. Questions of linguistics. n. 4, pp.96-111.
- GALDI L. 1958. Words of romance in Russian. In: Publishing house of Moscow University, 81 p.
- WEINREICH U. 1979. Language contacts. Conduct and follow-up problems. Kiev, 364 p.

*Words: 4493*

*Characters: 29 084 (16,16 standard pages)*

associate professor Gaziza Shoibekova  
 professor Tynyshtyk Yermekova  
 professor Satbekova Aigyl Amantaevna  
 associate professor Sagira Odanova  
 Kazakh national women's pedagogical University  
 050000, Almaty, ul. Aiteke bi, 99.  
 Kazakhstan  
 zurazhan88@mail.ru

Maira Malik  
 al-Farabi Kazakh national University  
 050010, Almaty, 17 al-Farabi Ave.  
 Kazakhstan

## **Lingua and culture study research on indirect communication cognitive metaphor**

Zhanna Ospanova – Karima Tolybayeva – Saule Nurkenova – Kulyash  
Duisekova – Gaukhar Baltabayeva

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.13

### **Abstract**

In the linguistic field, the problem of the metaphor – both as a process that creates new meanings of language expressions in the course of rethinking them and as a ready-made metaphorical meaning – has been considered for a long time rather as a stylistic tool or artistic device. Less commonly, a metaphor was considered as a means of nomination, even less often – as a way to create a linguistic picture of the world, resulting from cognitive manipulation of the meanings already in the language with the aim of creating new concepts. The latter applies especially to those areas of reflection of the reality are not given in direct sensation. The relevance of this research is due to the fact that, at the modern stage of the development of linguistics, a new interpretation of facts becomes a new reality. In this case, it can be argued that new approaches in modern linguistics also lead to the discovery of new realities. Objects seen from a new angle reveal new properties. This research paper reviews this issue from language and cultural aspects, and specifically gives attention to the cognitive metaphors of indirect communication. The authors use theoretical approaches to the study of this issue and based on empirical analyses, justify the selected types of metaphors.

**Key words:** cognitive metaphor, metaphorizing, indirect communication, stylistically reduced vocabulary

---

### **Introduction**

Cognition of the culture of a nation, the characteristics of its national character, mores, its spiritual disposition is inconceivable without knowledge of its language. Language is not merely an explication, a materialization of hidden ideal mental and thought processes. These processes are inseparable from the language; they are essentially linguistic.

At all times, language has been the adequate characterizing identification of a society, its culture, although the waves of "philological interest" in the problem of "language - culture - mentality" were different in both intensity and wavelength. The current situation can be characterized by the words: "Back to Humboldt," who, as you know, considered that language as an instrument of people's thoughts and feelings is the basis of genuine language research.

However, the roots of modern lingual culturology can be found in scientific sources from the time of Ancient Greece, and in the works of M.V. Lomonosov. But, of course, the works of V. von Humboldt played a fundamental, central role in the formation and development of scientific concepts, one way or another connected with the study of the relationship between language and culture.

The research of the scientist about the "linguistic vision" and the "internal form of the language" is fundamental to linguistic and cultural studies.

The hypothesis of linguistic relativity of Sepir-Whorf, the epistemological teachings of L. Wittgenstein and the development of the ideas of the scientist by the Neo-Humboldtians, including J. L. Weisgerber, the works of E. Benvenist, K. Levy-Strauss, and V. Pike, these are merely few examples of a long list of the names of

foreign researchers who have made a significant contribution to the development of linguacultural science.

We cannot fail to note the important contribution of researchers, such as F. I. Buslaev, A. N. Afanasyev and, of course, A. A. Potebnya, who paid much attention to the development of the science of the links between language and culture.

In recent years, linguacultural study as a relatively new scientific brunch has passed the stage of formation and thanks to the work of such famous researchers as E. M. Vereshchagin, V. G. Kostomarov, Yu. S. Stepanov, V. N. Telia, N. F. Alefirenko, G. M. Vasilieva, S. G. Vorkachev, E. I. Zinoviev, V. I. Karasik, V. V. Krasnykh, V. A. Maslova has become not only a “notable and popular” scientific direction but also a kind of “integrator” of scientific searches devoted to the problems of the interaction of language and culture.

In this specific research, we study language and culture study on indirect communication of cognitive metaphors, for that, we need to clarify what is a cognitive metaphor and metaphorizing, as well as what is indirect communication.

The study of metaphorizing processes is the focus of many sciences, many directions in linguistics, but primarily in the circle of such anthropocentric ones as cognitive linguistics and lingua-culturology. The relevance of the study of metaphor stems from the universal mechanism of metaphorical meaning formation and functioning, in which characteristic features, ways of knowing the world, oneself in this world, as well as the interaction of language, consciousness, and culture is manifested. It is in the metaphor that the systemic linguistic-creative ability to conceptualize the reality given in sensations is manifested while giving the universal character of conceptualization national-specific features. A variety of research approaches, very contradictory results, lack of unity on the most important issues of metaphor study, and especially on the problems of cultural interpretations give particular relevance to the study of the basic processes of metaphorizing and the metaphorical models characterizing them.

The significance of the research is also determined by the attention of linguistics at the present stage of its development to the problem of the nature and functions of metaphors as cognitive means of language, as well as an understanding of metaphors as a culturally marked layer of language that reflects perception and, accordingly, represents a powerful tool for influencing the emotions and consciousness of a person, as well as an instrument capable of fixing certain samples of objects and phenomena in language and speech.

If we can make a quick look at the diachrony of metaphors, we observe that the history of the study of metaphor as an object of scientific research is of independent scientific interest, and the results of such studies are both highly specialized (in the aspect of metaphor ology) and of a broad interdisciplinary significance (including lingual- philosophical, linguacultural, psycholinguistic, etc.)

The authors of this study take the necessity of considering previous experience in modern research seriously. At the same time, the accumulated experience of historical comprehension allows us to dwell on those approaches that have developed in the scientific community that is most significant for the chosen direction of or research.

The centuries-old history of research is usually associated with the name of Aristotle as the founder of the scientific study of metaphor. Although other ancient authors are mentioned, for example, the speaker Isokrat, a student of the sophists Gorgias and Prodik, who indicated that the essence of the metaphor consists in transferring the name of one object to another, which was reflected in the name - metafora (meta - through and feren - transfer) (Akhmadeeva 2006).

*The purpose of the research is to determine the cognitive potential of figurative metaphor as an instrument for forming a picture of the world based on descriptions of characteristics on the example of the English language. Achieving this goal involves solving the following **research questions**:*

*What is a description of the main trends in a linguacultural study of cognitive metaphor? What is the study of indirect communication?*

**The research methods** were determined by the goal and the advanced tasks of this research. The study used methods of semantic-stylistic analysis, comparative analysis, as well as methods of structural, component, and contextual analysis.

## **Discussion**

By answering the research question about cognitive metaphor, we need to identify what is a metaphor by itself. A metaphor is a powerful tool for the formation of new concepts, i.e., reflection in the linguistic form of new knowledge about the world - empirical, theoretical, or artistic development of reality.

Therefore, the metaphor performs a conceptual function in the language, "which is based on the ability of the metaphor to form new concepts, based on already formed concepts. The metaphor most fully fulfills the conceptual role in the designation of "non-essential entities," i.e. if necessary, in the designation of objects of the "invisible world" (Bizheva 2000). In this understanding, the conceptual metaphor approaches a cognitive one.

Fundamentally important for a conceptual metaphor is its role in the conceptualization of certain semantic zones. Such metaphors are relevant from the point of view of a native speaker (Moskvin 1997). A metaphor is a kind of transformation of the world in human consciousness. One of the most important means of such a transformation, the researchers believe, is a metaphorical model that allows us to present a complex problem as a simple one. Modern ideas about metaphor are based on the idea of imagery and metaphoricality as an integral property of human cognition and thinking.

The fundamental role in the formation of such an approach to the study of metaphor was played by J. Vico, I. Kant, V. von Humboldt, A. A. Potebnya, F. Nietzsche. In the works of these researchers, we can find valuable observations that testify to their understanding of the inextricable link between language and thinking, which is most clearly manifested in the process of metaphorizing, about the special role of metaphor in mastering reality, where rational cognition became possible thanks to a kind of "metaphorical bridge" thrown from the psycho somatosensory processes of perception to logical comprehension. Representations of language as a creative activity, observation of the role of metaphor in the processes of myth-making, and aesthetic/artistic mastery of reality led to the understanding of the meaning of metaphor in the formation and expression of a certain worldview, such as thinking and culture, which to some extent can be considered the beginning of the consideration of metaphor in lingua-culturological aspect.

The originality of modern approaches to the description of metaphorizing processes is associated primarily with the lack of not only a unified concept for their study, but also with a frightening variety of research methods and principles, and the appearance of more and more new approaches. Moreover, it is also linked to affecting and rethinking the basic parameters and mechanisms of metaphorizing.

According to most researchers, the priority areas of modern metaphor studies are somehow related to cognitive science. Its focus on the study of processes of cognition and understanding of the world determines the direction of most metaphor oriented studies, from analysis and interpretation of metaphorical statements to the study of world understanding mechanisms, the features of structuring knowledge as mental systems in the human mind, up to the concept of metaphor as a kind of "key" that opens the "door" into the conceptual sphere of a separate linguistic personality, society, nation, humanity as a whole. The special nature of the metaphor is the "ubiquitous principle of language" (Richard, 1990), which allows us to consider it as a

special, dominant subject of study in linguistic, cognitive science, and lingua-culturology.

Among the many linguistic approaches to the study of metaphors, we are interested in those in which the lingua-culturological aspect of the study is present to one degree or another. The same aspect determined the nature of the historical excursion, and the features of the review of non-linguistic- philosophical, logical, psychological approaches that significantly affect the formation of the linguacultural direction in the study of metaphorizing processes.

Among the numerous linguistic classifications, let us dwell on those that aroused the greatest attention among metaphor researchers and which, to one degree or another, correlate with linguistic and cultural studies.

One of the basic classifications for modern lingua-metaphorology is the classification of G. N. Sklyarevskaya, who presents 11 aspects of the study of cognitive metaphors: they are semasiological, onomasiological, epistemological, logical, linguistic proper, linguistic-stylistic, psycholinguistic, expressiological, linguistic-literary lexicographical (Sklyarevskaya, 2009). Another widely known classification of metaphors can be found in the study of V. K. Kharchenko, who describes 15 functions of a metaphor and their analysis (Kharchenko, 2002). In the circle of numerous classifications of metaphor functions – according to the observations of S. A. Akhmadeeva, there are 60 of them (Akhmadeeva, 2006) – fruitful attempts seem to be those in which their number is minimized on the basis of identifying the main ones. So, V.P. Moskvina defined three main functions of the metaphor - nominative, cognitive, and figurative, although highlighting certain varieties in each of them (Moskvina 1991). Despite all the variety of modern approaches to the study of metaphor, we cannot fail to note the work of supporters of cognitive analysis of metaphorizing processes, in which the metaphor is considered “ a linguistic phenomenon that reflects the basic cognitive process” (Petrov, 1990). This approach is primarily associated with the fundamental work of J. Lakoff and M. Johnson, in which, based on a thorough analysis of basic, conceptual metaphors, it is concluded that they play a huge role in the processes of thinking and communication (J. Lakoff, M. Johnson, 1980).

Figurative (metaphorical) models form a conceptual system, and these figurative schemes permeate the entire mechanism of speech, speech production, and all spheres of speech activity. The following data of foreign researchers are very peculiar in this regard. In television debates and television news, speakers use one metaphor for every 25 words (Graesser, Long, - Mio, J. 1989), and 1.80 original and 4.08 generally accepted, “language” metaphors (Pollio, Barlon, Fine, Pollio, 2007) are used per minute of conversation.

Among the various linguistic approaches to the study of metaphor, which are basic for the linguacultural aspect of the study, the structural-semantic one plays a key role. At the same time, the modern principles and features of this approach, of course, are based on the philosophical, logical, and psychological aspects of the study of metaphor (results and processes of metaphorizing), which were presented earlier in a condensed form. The role of a kind of bridge from these directions to the structural-semantic approach has been played by studies that are somehow related to the cognitive approach. “In accordance with cognitive theory, the essence of metaphorizing is to map the cognitive space of a source into the cognitive space of an object” (English-Russian Dictionary of Linguistics and Semiotics 2001). From a cognitive point of view, the process of metaphorizing is the transfer of some part of the structure of knowledge from the source to the goal area - the conceptual structure that the process of cognitive mapping is directed to when forming the metaphor.

This work is devoted to the study of lingua and cultural aspects of cognitive metaphors in indirect communication to its mechanisms of constructing imagery, the analysis of the role of metaphor in the formation of a picture of the world, as well as

the description of the semantic and stylistic properties of metaphor in English language. This problem turned out to be connected with a whole range of global linguistic problems, such as language and culture, language and thinking, cognitive aspects of semantics, etc., which determined the structure of the work.

Language reflects the reality surrounding us with a system of isomorphic means: through a person's attitude to the world around him, as well as through the perception and description of this world in such places as logical understanding and emotional assessment. The role of cognitive metaphor in giving emotionality to work cannot be overestimated. As a certain type of tropes, a metaphor is studied in poetics, as a source of new meanings of words - in lexicology, as a special type of speech use - in pragmatics, as an associative mechanism and an object of interpretation and perception of speech - in psycholinguistics, as a way of thinking and cognition, the metaphor is described in logic and philosophy. All this leads to the existence of a number of approaches to the study of metaphor. These represent such directions in the theory of metaphor as substitutional, comparative, interactionist, cognitive, etc.

The existence of a huge number of directions that study the essence of metaphors can be explained by the variety of this linguistic phenomenon, various functions, and types of metaphors. The task of constructing a theory of metaphor, which has sufficient explanatory power, cannot be solved within the framework of linguistics and requires entering the field of human cognitive processes.

Cognitive theory, but at the center of human research, linked the understanding of metaphor with the mental processes that accompany the generation and perception of speech. The cognitive metaphor is presented as a mental and linguistic mechanism, consisting of the interaction of two entities, which leads to new knowledge about the surrounding reality.

As indicated above, there are numerous definitions of the phenomenon of metaphor. For this study, we set up relevant goals and objectives. It was defined as a mental and linguistic mechanism, consisting of transferring the name from one object to another and, as a result finding a common attribute in them, by analogy, or similarity, which is considered as one of the main pathways.

A lot of work has been written about the metaphor. Not only scientists thought about it, but also its creators themselves - writers, poets, artists. In other words, everyone who has ever been interested in issues of language, culture, and thinking, considered it his duty to speak out and leave the descendants an opinion on the nature and significance of the metaphor phenomenon.

Interest in the cognitive metaphor arose long before our era when the metaphor was seen as a means of decorating speech. At the same time, the approach to the study of this linguistic phenomenon changed depending on the state of the scientific worldview. Thus, long before our era, scientists had different attitudes to the emotional power of cognitive metaphor: they considered it, after Aristotle and Quintilian, the main means among the tropes. They saw in it only an artistic, poetic value, and they followed Cicero to explain the origin of the metaphor as a result of borrowing from the native language (Antique, 1936).

Subsequently, the approach to the study of cognitive metaphor changed, which was associated with the emergence of new methods and theories in the study of linguistic meanings. In the framework of cognitive linguistics, which stood out in an independent direction, the metaphor began to be actively studied as a way of representing knowledge in a language. The emergence of a metaphor is closely related to the process of the formation of concepts, which occurs in the human mind and is characterized as a dialectically complex reflection of reality.

Interest in the metaphor is due to the fact that, based on its many definitions, they see in it a "key" to understanding and cognizing the world. Therefore, the desire for

its comprehensive study and, accordingly, the multiplicity of approaches and interpretations becomes completely obvious and understandable.

We do not consider the metaphor as some figurative tool that is located on the periphery of the language, and only in the case of loss of its metaphoricity penetrates its structure, forming the figurative meaning of the word. We understand the metaphor as a phenomenon of human thinking and human language, which bears a crucial function in cognition and description of the world. A metaphor is defined as a hidden comparison made by applying the name of one object to another and revealing one or another important feature of the second.

We understand the metaphor as a linguistic phenomenon associated with a certain way of being in the world. The scope of the metaphor is not limited to speech and cognition but extends to a person's attitude to being. The metaphor is fraught with the possibility of changing the meaning of familiar means and methods of reflecting on an object, and hence the possibility of a new look at what is already known, which is realized as revealing unknown properties and sides of this object. Thus, a new idea of a particular area appears, and the assimilation of this previously absent information expands, deepens, and ultimately rebuilds the entire traditional system of knowledge about the world.

A metaphor plays a big role in categorizing concepts. It shows how the new is known by man through the known. After all, concepts can be represented in a language using the means of nomination, including metaphors. That is why a new look at metaphor has led to the development of categories of cognitive metaphor.

Since the conceptual system of man is structured and determined by metaphors, therefore, in the paradigm of cognitive linguistics, metaphor is considered as one of the forms of conceptualization of the realities of the world, as well as the result of a cognitive process, on the basis of which new concepts are formed and expressed. Understanding the metaphor as a result of the correlation of two heterogeneous entities makes it possible to interpret it as a model for obtaining new knowledge about changes in society, through that old, static knowledge, which is human experience accumulated in various fields of activity.

The metaphor is associative, but at the same time, it correlates the new meaning with the existing experience. By its nature, the metaphor is creative and able to form new concepts and linguistic meanings, based on existing linguistic meanings. The metaphor is associated with both individual experience and cultural-linguistic experience, encoded in lexical and phraseological units of the language with emotive and cultural components. We gain new knowledge in the process of figurative metaphorization. This is especially true in cases where imagery is justified by any fixed cultural or other facts when the origin of the figurative-associative complex metaphors due to cultural and historical information.

The essence of the tropes is to compare the concept presented in the traditional use of the lexical unit, as well as the concept that is transmitted by the same unit in artistic speech when performing a stylistic function.

In contrast to the path, a figure is an act of using a nominative unit in order to enhance the expressiveness of speech. A figure is a syntactic construct designed to affect the listener and reader. If paths are forms of thought, then figures are forms of speech. An important function of the figure is to emphasize, highlight, strengthen one or another part of the statement.

The basis of the formation of the author's metaphor in the text is a non-standard spontaneous association, which can conditionally be described in terms of interference, understood in the physical sense. In this case, the contextual conditionality of the metaphor, which is a condition for the coherence of metaphor sources that interact, is of decisive importance in the process of redistribution of semantic attributes.

A text is essentially a substance that organizes semiotic, in particular, linguistic structures that fall into its field of action in accordance with the author's intention. We can conclude that the emergence of an image should be considered as a process of complicating the connotation background within the framework defined by the figurative basis of the text - a metaphorical structure. This structure covers the entire text and allows the reader to determine the main parameters of figurative interaction between different semantic plans of the text.

Indirect communication is a meaningfully complicated communication in which understanding utterances involves considering the meanings that are absent in the utterance and require additional interpretation efforts by the addressee. The contrast between direct and indirect is not new in linguistics.

There are direct and figurative meaning observed in vocabulary, direct and indirect cases in morphology, and also direct and indirect addition in syntax. It is a global communicative category.

Direct communication is based on a system of units and the rules of their organization that can be coded. Direct communication is organized by attractors. The contrast of direct and indirect communication is not identical to the contrast of language - speech. Natural human language develops as a kind of struggle with indirect communication, as its overcoming. For example, in the formalized language of mathematics, there are only deictic signs that indicate certain meanings, and units of the natural language denote certain denotations, events, or phenomena. They are less direct than the characters of formalized codes because the addressee is involved in their decoding.

In linguistics and related sciences, there is an exceptionally large number of ways to streamline communication, overcoming entropy in it: various genre and rhetorical prescriptions, spelling, and orthoepic regulations (German, 2000). The metaphor traditionally combines two main functions: nomination (name) and characterization (expressive score). The peculiarity of the low, colloquialisms, slang metaphor is that in it, both the nomination and the characterization have value. A metaphorical nomination is a designation of new concepts with the help of old signs, i.e., units, already available in the common language system. Nomination metaphors acquire signs of terminoids: tail - 'academic debt,' cuisine - 'drum kit,' shoot - 'beg,' fish - 'Swipe on the beach.' A metaphor-characterization is used to expressively rename well-known concepts: taxi - 'come,' write (scribble) the cart - 'communicate,' taxi - 'solve.'

The empirical material of this study can be used in teaching both basic and special courses in language theory. At the same time, the results of the study can find application in the practice of teaching foreign language communication and in the practice of teaching translation, where the skillful use of expressive and visual means should be the subject of constant attention and care.

## **Conclusion**

Among the diverse approaches to the study of metaphorizing processes, the leading one from the position of linguacultural study is the cognitive approach to metaphor as a way of classifying and systematizing physical and socio-cultural experience, considering it as a categorization process.

The metaphor is a kind of integrator, a means of tightening the components of the semantic, linguacultural space, and the world of reality behind it. This is a kind of rheumatic unity, which has a key characterizing value, including for the communicative organization of speech. Considering the metaphor as a rheumatic complex can allow us to approach the study of the process of metaphorizing based on the unity of its linguistic essence, discursive function, and textual implementation.

A systematic study and classification of metaphorical processes have identified a special role in metaphor research-oriented on metaphorical models (M-models) and metaphorizing models (M-models) as structure-forming dominants that form the metaphorical space of linguistic consciousness. A special role in the description of the metaphorizing model is given to the motivating metaphorical sign - the "metaphor symbol," which no less than the "source" and "target" of metaphorizing determines the semantic and linguistic and cultural characteristics of the entire process of metaphorizing.

The identification of figurative paradigms / metaphorical series makes it possible to see that each metaphor, having its own semantic and linguacultural features that stand behind them, is also associated with other members of the series, and this invariant core, uniting them, defines a certain direction of metaphorical meaning formation and determines its linguacultural significance.

Considering metaphors as a cognitive, speech-cognitive process allows us to see in it the role of a linguacultural integrator, a means of conceptual cohesion, the reunion of a mismatched linguacultural space.

The practical significance of the work lies in the possibility of using its results in lexicographic and translation practice, in the practice of university and school teaching, especially in university courses in the linguacultural study, intercultural communication, lexicology, in special courses and special seminars on semantics, problems of language and culture, in the practice of teaching English language as a foreign language, or in the preparation of undergraduate and graduate research papers.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ARISTOTLE. 1936. Poetics. // Antique theories of language and style.
- ARNOLD, I.V. 2004. The style. Modern English. 6th ed. In: Flint: Nauka, 384 p.
- ARUTYUNOVA, N.D. 1978. Functional types of linguistic metaphor, Ed. USSR Academy of Sciences. Ser. Lit. in. lang, vol. 37, n 4
- DEMENTIEV, V.V. 2006. Indirect communication.
- GERMAN, A.I. 2000. Linguasynergetics. - Barnaul,
- KARASIK, V.A. – SLYSHKIN, G.G. 2002. Linguistic-vulgar concept as a unit of research // Methodological problems of cognitive linguistics: Scientific. ed. - Voronezh State University, pp. 75 - 80.
- KHARCHENKO V.K. 1991. Functions of the Metaphor: Study Guide. - Voronezh: Publishing House of Voronezh State University, 88 p.
- KHONAMRI, F. – AHMADI, F. 2015. The effect of metacognitive strategy training and raising EFL learners' metacognitive knowledge on listening performance Open Access Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, vol. 5, n. 1, pp. 18-27. ISSN 2301-9468.
- LAGUTA, O. N. 2003. Metaphorology: theoretical aspects. Novosibirsk. Ch, 207 p.
- LAKOFF, J. Thinking in the Mirror of Classifiers / 7 New in foreign linguistics. - L 988 ed. 23. pp. 12-53.
- LAKOFF, J. – JOHNSON, M. 1990. Metaphors with which we live In: Theory of metaphor, pp. 387- 415.
- LAKOFF, G. 1993. Contemporary theory of metaphor // Metaphor and thought - Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp. 202 - 251.
- LAKOFF, G. 1987. Women, fire and dangerous things: what categories reveal about the mind - Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 593 p.
- LOMONOSOV, M.V. 1955. Poly. volume. Op. Volume 7. Works before philology 1739-1758 339 p.
- MASLOVA, V.A. 2006. Introduction to cognitive linguistics, 314 p.
- MOSKVIN, V.P. 2008. The correctness of Russian speech. - Rostov-on-Don,
- MOSKVIN, V.P. 1996. Classification of Russian metaphors. In: Language personality: cultural concepts: Sat. scientific tr. — Volgograd: Change, 259 p.

- MOSKVIN, V.P. 2000. Russian metaphor: classification parameters In: Philological sciences, n. 2, pp. 66 - 74.
- NIETZSCHE, F. 2006. Merry Science. Evil Wisdom In: Eshshmo, 528 p.
- PETROV, B. B. 1990. The Ideas of Modern Phenomenology and Hermeneutics in the Linguistic Representation of Knowledge. In: Questions of Linguistics, n. 6, pp. 102 - 109.
- SKLYAREVSKAYA, T.N. 1993. Metaphor in the language system. - SPb.: Nauka, 15 p.
- TELIA, V. N. 1988. Metaphorization and its role in creating a linguistic picture of the world // Role of the human factor in language: Language and picture of the world / B.A. Serebrennikov, S. Kubryakova, V. I. Postovalova et al. In: Nauka, pp. 173 - 204.
- SEARLE, J. 1993, "Metaphor. Metaphor and Thought. 2-nd ed. Cambridge, 201 p.

*Words: 4948*

*Characters: 32 144 (17,86 standard pages)*

Zhanna Ospanova  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University  
Foreign Philology Department  
st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district  
Nur-Sultan city  
Kazakhstan  
erzhanuly03@list.ru

Tolybayeva Karima  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University  
Foreign Philology Department  
st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district  
Nur-Sultan city  
Kazakhstan

Associate Professor Nurkenova Saule  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University  
Foreign Philology Department  
st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district  
Nur-Sultan city  
Kazakhstan

Professor Kulyash Duisekova  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University  
Foreign Philology Department  
st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district  
Nur-Sultan city  
Kazakhstan

Gaukhar Baltabayeva  
Kazakh State Women's Teacher Training Institute  
Aiteke bi street 99  
Almaty  
Kazakhstan  
erzhanuly03@list.ru

## Phonetic features of spoken English and Kazakh languages (theoretical and experimental research)

Karlygash Kenzhigozhina – Karlygash Nurmuhametova – Makhabbat Berkutbayeva – Assem Meiramova – Taniya Kapesova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.14

### Abstract

This article depicts the phonetic features of spontaneous colloquial speech in English and Kazakh languages of youth living in the city of Nur-Sultan. The analysis was carried out on the basis of audio recordings of speech in English and Kazakh languages of young people aged 18 to 35 years of different social backgrounds. The study revealed the most striking features of youth speech in English and Kazakh languages in phonetic aspects. Among the phonetic features of speech, other language inclusions were noted, which is natural in the conditions of bilingualism, where switching codes in the process of spontaneous speech comes naturally.

At the same time, in connection with the increasing modern fashion breezing of the Kazakh society, the use of words with new trends in English significance is observed. In the phonetic aspect, signs of progressive-regressive and progressive assimilation are revealed. It is also noteworthy that, according to the pronunciation of youth representatives, we can determine the regional affiliation of the speakers. The results of this work can find their practical application in teaching a course on the culture of speech, practical phonetics, while audio materials can also serve as the basis for creating the sound corpus of modern linguistics.

**Key words:** phonetic, features, spoken, English, Kazakh, languages, theoretical, experimental, linguistics

---

### Introduction

This study is devoted to one of the pressing problems of modern linguistics, namely the study of the phonetic features of the conversational variety of sounding speech since the most important processes of language development and updating arise in the field of live communication (Berkner, 1978). One of such processes that affect phonetic development and functioning can be considered the action of the principle of language economy (reduction).

The phenomenon of the economy is closely related to the concept of redundancy; in a single language, both phenomena form a dialectical unity (Martine 1963; Malchenko 1976; Monakhov 1989). At the speech level, the principle of reduction is manifested in the form of linguistic compression. The problems of phonetic features have repeatedly been the focus of research by many domestic and foreign linguists (Schleicher 1956; Paul 1960; Delbrück 1956; Saussure 1977; Martinet 1960, 1963; Sepir 1993; Bloomfield 1968; Baudouin de Courtenay 1963; Serebrennikov 1988; et al.).

However, it should be noted that the phonetic level of manifestation of language economy (especially on the material of various national variants of the English and Kazakh languages) has not yet been sufficiently reflected in the scientific literature. For many socio-economic reasons, English has recently become the language of intercultural communication. This, in turn, contributed to even more intensive development of bilingualism and the creation of a whole series of variations on the theme of the English language with its many variations, known as New English or World English (Crystal, 2001).

Variability is known to be a fundamental property of any living language. It is characteristic of units of various levels: phonological, lexical, morphological,

syntactic, etc. The language system is mobile, and therefore changeable due to the variability of units of all language levels. Changes in language are made according to certain laws of phonetic, lexical, and syntactic variation in any natural language. An important role is played by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors. The variability inherent in the linguistic system as a whole is most pronounced in terms of interference resulting from the interaction of either two different languages (bilingualism), or the norm and dialect of the same language (diglossia) in the speaker's speech. Differences in contacting language systems produce changes in real speech due to the effect of one system on another (Phonetic variation: bilingualism and diglossia 2000).

Our focus is on the national variation of the English language. We conducted the study of particular factors and obtained its importance due to the global spread of English in the modern world, leading to even greater interaction and expansion of language contacts, the emergence of new variants of the English language.

Based on the foregoing, the study of the phonetic features of English colloquial speech from the point of view of the action of a pinch of compression in it, it seems relevant both theoretically and in practical terms. Therefore, the phonetic features of English compressed speech became the subject of a special linguistic study in this work. English colloquial speech (based on the material of the English language) was chosen as the object of study, in which the effect of the principle of language economy at all levels of the language system is clearly manifested.

The main objective of this study is to describe the linguistic, especially phonetic, characteristics of spoken English, reflecting the effect of language economy (based on the material of the English language). The phenomena of compressed English speech were described considering the factor of national variability of modern English and the situation of classroom bilingualism (English-Kazakh language contact).

In accordance with the goal, the following **research questions** were put forward:

*What is the current state of the theory of colloquial speech?*

*What are the difficulties of perception of compressed English colloquial speech in the conditions of Kazakh interference?*

At first glance, the colloquial speech seems to be one of the most developed sections in the field of communication. At the same time, it constantly attracts research interest and is the object of modern linguistic research. In the context of the new approach to many problems of linguistics, the problem is the establishment of not only the status of colloquial speech but also its definition. At the present stage of the development of linguistics, colloquial speech as a bipolar category is studied as a linguistic category and manifests itself as a means of communication and performs a communicative function.

One of the problems in the study of colloquial speech is the functioning of phonetic means in colloquial speech, which requires an appeal to phono stylistics - a new area of linguistics. The aim of the work is a theoretical and experimental study of the phonetic features of the spoken English and Kazakh languages using the method of conversion analysis.

To achieve this goal, the following tasks have undertaken:

- the theoretical justification of the problem of speaking research;
- definition of research methods;
- collection of audio materials;
- Conversion analysis;

- conducting auditory and acoustic analyses based on English materials;
- conducting auditory and acoustic analyses based on the materials of the Kazakh language;
- sociolinguistic interpretation of experimental results.

The study material was audio materials for speaking in a relaxed-every day and official-household styles, analyzed using the Praat audio signal processing computer program.

In accordance with the purpose and objectives of the research, a set of experimental-linguistic research methods was applied:

1. The method of linguistic observation, which involves the fixation of audio materials on sound recording devices;
2. method of conversion analysis;
3. audit analysis of audio materials with the participation of native speakers and phonetic specialists;
4. acoustic analysis of audio materials to identify their physical characteristics;
5. sociolinguistic analysis of the results of theoretical and experimental research.

### **Methods**

The following experimental methods of recording spontaneous speech were used in the study: the observation method and the included observation method, subjective research methods, such as auditory observation, or perceptual analysis. The researchers decided to use the included observation method, i.e. "Inclusion in the linguistic existence of the speaker." (E.V. Ivantsova, E.V. Solomina, 2014).

When applying this method, the researchers by themselves acted as an interlocutor, which allowed the researcher to change the topic of conversation and ask those questions that, in his opinion, would be best revealed the speech features of informants. (M.P. Dvorzhetskaya et al., 1991).

The main conditions of this method are the establishment of friendly relations between the researcher and the subjects, which implies that the researcher is aware of the subject's lifestyle, his family, and his outlook on life.

It is known that the intervention of the researcher in the conversation of the subjects can significantly affect the relaxed nature of the conversation, thereby provoking the subjects to use the standard norm of pronunciation forms. (M.P. Dvorzhetskaya et al., 1991).

In the study of the phonetic features of colloquial speech, it is important that the speech of informants was unprepared. In this case, three necessary conditions must be observed:

- “1. Speech communication should be unprepared.
2. Speech communication should be direct, i.e. directly with the listener.
3. Between the speakers, there should be unofficial - friendly, friendly, relations of good friends.” (M.P. Dvorzhetskaya et al., 1991).

In view of the above, it can be argued that we met all three conditions during the study. All subjects behaved naturally. There was no stiffness, even in communication with unfamiliar people. Before starting an experiment with unfamiliar or unfamiliar people (for example, talking with a taxi driver), the researcher created a friendly atmosphere: the researcher was the first to enter into a conversation, for example, starting from a discussion of the latest news of the country and the capital, gently asked questions about the subjects' hometown, family relationships, hardships life in the capital, etc. All this disposed the interlocutor to a friendly and open conversation.

### **Results**

The conventional conversation is perhaps one of the ways to use the language socially, as well as the most basic way of learning the languages that



diversity of understanding of this linguistic category. In this regard, it is necessary to disclose the content of the concept of “spoken language” to identify the linguistic and extralinguistic characteristics of spoken language.

Next, we present the results of a conversation analysis of the dialogue of friendly interaction on the material of the English American language. The dialogue takes place between four friends at the home of one of the informants in San Francisco.

According to H. Sachs, there are three mechanisms for the distribution of communicative roles: 1) the current interlocutor selects the next participant; 2) the next interlocutor chooses himself as the next; 3) the current interlocutor can continue the conversation himself until another participant makes self-selection (Sachs, 2015).

We will give an example of one of those mechanisms using examples from the dialogue.

1) selection of the current interlocutor:

JAMIE: Aren't you guys gonna stick up for me?  
and beat up on him or something?

MILES: He's bigger than [I am]. (Du Bois, 2005)

As can be seen from the fragment, the participant during a comic conversation asks a question that requires an answer and receives it from one of the interlocutors. Since the question was not asked for a specific interlocutor, here, we can observe the self-choice of one of the participants. From a linguistic point of view, we can observe a phonetic reduction in colloquial speech.

As the history of linguistics testifies, the concepts of language and speech often did not differ: either language was reduced to the speech activity of the individual, or speech and its influence on the language were completely ignored. Meanwhile, language and speech, forming a single phenomenon of the human language, are not identical to each other. The problem of the correlation between language and speech was first posed by V. Humboldt and I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay.

F. de Saussure highlights various aspects of language and speech, believing that language and speech are interconnected. In his opinion, language is social, and speech is specific to every individual. Speech is generated by each individual, while language “is perceived in the form in which it was bequeathed to us by previous generations.” Normative facts are fixed in the language, and random phenomena and individual deviations are characteristic of speech. In this regard, F. de Saussure considered it important to study each side of speech activity separately, proposing to distinguish between linguistics of the text and linguistics of speech. (Berezin F.M., 1984.- 319 p.)

Continuing the ideas of F. de Saussure, L.V. Shcherba believed that language is enriched through speech, and all the richness of language is realized in speech. Speech is a product of people’s activities, focused on solving certain problems, motivated. The speech is mobile and dynamic, and any changes in society are reflected at all language levels, at the same time, the language is static. Changes in society, accumulating over time, are reflected in the language much later. Language unites the people, the state, and, unlike speech, does not consider the individual speech characteristics of speakers. (Shcherba L.V., 2004.)

Distinguishing language and speech, V.A. Zvegintsev expressed the idea that speech, in contrast to language, is situational, emphasizing the importance of extralinguistic factors. (Zvegintsev V.A., 2001)

According to Y. Skrebnev, language is a real object - a set of associations of ideas about the elements of reality characteristic of the individual psyche of the individual with representations of their iconic representatives. However, language, unlike speech, is not only unobservable from the outside, but cannot even serve as an

object of introspection, since only acts of internal speech are available to self-observation, and not the language system as such (Y. Skrebnev, 2003).

Kazakh linguist A.E. Karlinsky considered language as “a complex mental-structural formation, the result of a person’s cognitive activity, an invariant scheme that does not change its attributes depending on the forms of material organization.” Speech, in his understanding, is a means of using the language not by a specific speaker, but by each representative of the human race. AE Karlinsky draws a parallel between the concepts of speech and communication, which is also a speech of a specific person using non-verbal signals. In his opinion, the reason for all changes in the language should be sought in speech, and all the properties of the language can be found through the study of speech. (Karlinsky A.E., 2009).

According to G.Ya. Solgannik, speech is “a concrete speaking, occurring in sound or in writing, this is all that is said and written.” Speech, unlike language, is concrete and material; it is possible to feel it visually and to sense it with hearing. Each speaker and listener choose those means of communication that are familiar to them. That is, the situation of communication determines the choice of language tools. The speaker can introduce language innovations into his speech, use an individual style of communication. (Solgannik G.Ya, 2017).

At the present stage of the development of linguistics, there are two points of view on the nature of colloquial speech:

1) colloquial speech is considered as a linguistic category and is a kind of national language (Zemskaya E.A., Sirotinina O.B., Matveeva T.V., Goikhman O.Ya.);

2) colloquial speech is a stylistic category and is included in the system of functional styles as an independent colloquial style (Golub I.B., Kozhina M.N.).

O.B. Sirotinina, in her work “Good speech: shifts in the idea of the standard,” defines colloquial speech as “speech in direct, personal, mainly unofficial communication, or as an oral form of spontaneous dialogical speech.” To identify the definition of the essence of colloquial speech, a study of the work of American linguists showed that this subject of study is too diverse. Western linguists have difficulty in clearly articulating such a thing as colloquial speech. Nevertheless, they highlighted its most common characteristic features that distinguish colloquial from literary. It is emphasized that colloquial speech requires the mandatory presence of more than one participant (Sirotinina, 2000).

British sociolinguists D. Miller and R. Weinart believe that the variety of forms of colloquial speech, which depends on the situation of verbal communication, suggests the possibility of their style differentiation (Jim Miller and Regina Weinert, 1998).

Spontaneous speaking has the following properties:

1. spontaneous speech is made in real time without the possibility of editing or correction, while written speech is made with the possibility of reflection, there is the possibility of editing;

2. spontaneous speech is made by people who participate in a direct conversation with personal contact in a specific situation;

3. spontaneous speech includes amplitude, rhythm, vibration and voice quality;

4. spontaneous speech that occurs during personal contact is accompanied by gestures, eyes, facial expressions, body movements, which serves as signaling information;

5. spontaneous speech is less grammatically dependent in contrast to written speech and is characterized by simple sentences;

6. The vocabulary of spontaneous speech is less diverse compared to written speech

7. Structures found in spoken language cannot be used in written language, and vice versa (Jim Miller and Regina Weinert, 1998).

Thus, colloquial speech has several extralinguistic characteristics: unpreparedness, ease, spontaneity, direct participation of speakers in a speech act. An equally important factor is the psychological and emotional state of the communicants. Among the external conditions that affect speech, it is the gender of native speakers. "Speech communication" includes the use of gestures, facial expressions, signs, abbreviations.

### **Conclusion**

The scientific novelty of the research is that the features of colloquial English and Kazakh languages are first studied using modern electro-acoustic methods (Praat). The theoretical significance of the work is that the results of the research can be used in further studies of the prosodic system of different levels of English and Kazakh spoken language. When compiling textbooks on the theoretical and practical phonetics of the Kazakh language.

The results of the study can be applied in the development of topical issues of phonostylistics, in particular, in compiling a special course on phonostylistics of English and Kazakh colloquial speech, and teaching university disciplines in the style and culture of speech in English and Kazakh languages. The analyzed audio recordings can be used to create the oral corpus of the linguistics.

The study of the linguistic features of the compressed type of colloquial speaking is necessary not only from the point of view of forming the skills of perception and production of foreign speaking but also in terms of an intercultural communication since on the basis of authentic material (spontaneous and quasi-spontaneous dialogs, etc.), we can learn the culture of the studied language. Promising, in our opinion, is a further detailed study of regional variation in the mentioned languages, that is, the problems of the ratio of the norm and dialects.

An attempt was made to describe some features of linguistic (primarily phonetic) compression in English and Kazakh colloquial speech on the material of bilingual speakers. The theoretical basis of the study was made by the concepts of domestic and foreign linguists on issues of language economy, colloquial speech (especially its dialogical form), language variability, and national variability (based on the material of bilingual speakers). During the study, language facts were used from the lexicographic and written sources of the SPE, an auditory analysis of JIPP of this option was carried out, its sociolinguistic status was assessed, a special study of the segment and suprasegmental characteristics of the manifestation of linguistic compression in JIPP SPE was carried out, part of the narrow body of the experimental material was subjected to acoustic analysis, performed an auditory analysis of sounding material with the assistance of phonetic experts. An experiment was conducted on the perception of SPE by native speakers of different national variants of the English language (BrE, ATE, AusE), as well as Kazakh-speaking bilingual students studying English at a special faculty of the university. Thus, interest in the language of youth is explained by the fact that youth is a part of society, exerts its influence on it, and makes its own innovations. Moreover, the language of youth affects the general language standard.

After analyzing the audio recordings, we concluded that in the modern Kazakh language, there are their own peculiarities: the presence of interference inclusions and interjections, which is a natural phenomenon in the conditions of bilingualism in Kazakhstan. It is known that with prolonged language contacts over time, most of the population begins to understand and speak the language of their neighbors. Thus, language contact is made through "individual bilingualism (or bilingualism) of some part of the speakers, which creates a situation of bilingualism."

What actually happened on the territory of Kazakhstan, especially, places the effect of bordering countries.

As for the phonetic aspects, phonetic reductions in words, in particular verbs, can be noted. Pronunciation gives us information about the regional origin of the subjects. Another feature that I would like to note is a small number or lack of slang and foreign language in speech.

The reduced forms deserve special attention, and in modern linguistics, one should change one's attitude towards them and "recognize them as a fact of the evolution of the language," since without familiarity with such forms, listening to the Kazakh language and also reading texts in the Kazakh language can be difficult. The results of the study are of great practical importance since they can be used in classes on the culture of speech for students of humanitarian specialties, practical phonetics of the Kazakh language.

I would like to note that this article is only an attempt to highlight those striking features that are characteristic of the speech of modern Kazakh-speaking urban youth. However, in further studies, we have to give a full description of those features that take place in the phonetic aspect of colloquial speech of youth. In particular, to distinguish various positional and combinatorial phonetic modifications, which phonetic changes operate with varying degrees of intensity, also one of the objectives of the study is to identify the sociophonetic features of spontaneous speech depending on social characteristics such as gender, age, social status, regional affiliation, education, and occupation.

#### **Bibliographic references**

- BERKNER, S.S. 1978. Problems of development of spoken English in the XVI-XX centuries. Voronezh,
- BEREZIN, F.M. 1984. History of linguistic teachings. A textbook for philological special universities.-2-ed. Corrected. And additional. In: Higher school, 319 p. / pp. 183 -185
- BLOOMFIELD, L. 1968. Language In: Transl. from English M.,
- BOGDANOVA, N.V. 2010. Reduced forms - damage to language or the fact of its evolution? In: Phonetics today: Mater. reports and communications of the VI int. scientific conf. Moscow, pp. 17-20
- BAUDOUIN DE COURTENAY I.A. 1963. Selected Works on General Linguistics. T.1. M.,
- CRYSTAL, D. 2001. Language and the Internet. Cambridge In: Cambridge University Press.
- DELBRUCK, B. Introduction to the study of Indo-European languages In: Dvorzhetskaya, M.P., Steriopolo E.I., Valigura O.R. et al. Methods of experimental-phonetic research of sounding speech: textbook on theor. phonetics of foreign language
- DU BOIS, JOHN, W. – WALLACE, L. CHAFE – MEYER, CH. – THOMPSON, S.A. – ENGLEBRETSON, R. – MARTEY, N. 2000-2005. Santa Barbara corpus of spoken American English, Parts 1-4. Philadelphia: Linguistic Data Consortium.
- ESPEKOVA, L.A. 2014. Phonetics of modern Kazakh language. Almaty In: Evero Baspas, 104 p.
- FREEBORN, D. 1993. Varieties of English. An Introduction to the Study of Language. London: the MACMILLAN PRESS LTD 4, pp. 151-163
- IVANTSOVA, E.V. – SOLOMINA E.V. 2014. On effective methods of recording spontaneous oral speech in the study of a linguistic personality In: West. Tomsk SU, n. 3 (29), pp. 14-27.
- ISABAEVA, S. 2017. What influence — positive or negative — does religion have on public life? Available online: <https://camonitor.kz/26501>

- KALIEV, B.A. 2014. Phonetics of Kazakh language: a book. - Almaty: "Evero", 168 p.
- KARLINSKY, A.E. 2009. Methodology and paradigms of modern linguistics. - Almaty, 352, pp. 30-33
- LABOV, W. 1972. Sociolinguistic patterns. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press. pp. 84-87.
- MAKAEV, E.A. 1962. The concept of system pressure and the hierarchy of language units In: VYA, n. 6.
- MALCHENKO, A. A. 1976. On the question of compression and redundancy of colloquial speech In: Theory and practice of the linguistic description of colloquial speech. 4.2. n. 7. Gorky,
- MARTIN, A. 1960. Principles of economy in phonetic changes (problems of diachronic phonology) / Per. with fr. M.,
- MARTIN, A. 1963. Fundamentals of General Linguistics In: New in Linguistics. n. III.
- MATROSOVA, N.N. 2004. Some aspects of the implementation of the economy-redundancy category in the English monological text (within the framework of the organizing function of speech intonation): Author. diss. cand. philol. sciences.
- MECHKOVSKAYA, N.B. 2000. Social linguistics: a manual for students' humanity. universities and students of lyceums / NB Mechkovskaya N.B. - 2nd ed., Rev. In: Aspect Press, 207 p.
- MILLER, J. – WEINERT, R. 1998. Spontaneous spoken language. Syntax and discourse. In: Clarendon press, Oxford, 457 p.
- NYMAN, E.A. 2004. Sociolinguistics: lecture course - Tomsk State University, 220 p.
- PAUL, G. 1960. Principles of the History of Language / Per. with him.
- ROMAINE, S. 1994. Language in Society. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics (33-66). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- SAUSSURE, F.DE. 1977. The course of general linguistics In: Transactions in Linguistics / Transl. with fr.
- SACHS, H. – SCHEGLOFF, EA. – JEFFERSON, G. 2015. The simplest systematization of the organization of the order in the conversation In: Sociological review. vol. 14, n. 1, pp. 142-202.
- SCHLEICHER, A. 1956. German Language (Extracts), A reader on the history of linguistics of the XIX-XX centuries.
- SEPIR, E. 1993. Selected works on linguistic and cultural studies / Per. from English
- SOLGANNIK, G.Ya. 2017. Text Stylistics: Textbook In: G.Ya. Solgannik. - 13th ed., Sr. - In: Flinta: Nauka, 256 p.
- SHCHERBA, L.V. 2004. Language system and speech activity. Ed. 2nd, stereotyped. M: URSS editorial, 432 p.
- SIROTININA, O. B. 2000. Good speech: shifts in the idea of the standard In: Active Linguistic processes of the late XX century.
- SULEIMENOVA, E.D. 2011. Vitality of the Kazakh language and language planning (second article) In: West. KazNU. - Ser. Philologist, n. 2 (132), pp. 7-13
- SKREBNEV, YU.M. 2003. The basics of the English style: textbook / Yu.M. Screbnev. - 2nd edition, revised. - Moscow: Astrel: AST, 221 p. ISBN 5-17-004697-9. - ISBN 5-271-01141-0.
- STERIOPOLO, E.I. – VALIGURA, O.R. et al. 1991. - K.: MGPII, 76 p.
- WARDLAUGH, R. 1998. An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers Ltd, pp. 99-115.
- ZVEGINTSEV, V. A. 1956. A reader on the history of linguistics of the XIX-XX centuries.
- ZVEGINTSEV, V. A. 2001. Language and Linguistic Theory. In: Editorial URSS, 248 p.

*Words: 4976*

*Characters: 32 592 (18,11 standard pages)*

Karlygash Kenzhigozhina  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University  
Department of Foreign Philology  
Nur-Sultan city  
Kazakhstan  
nurtugan.erzhanuly@bk.ru

associate professor Karlygash Nurmuhametova  
Kostanay State Pedagogical University named after Umirzak Sultangazin,  
street Tauelsizdik 118, Kostanay city,  
Kazakhstan

Makhabbat Berkutbayeva  
Kazakh State Women's Teacher Training Institute  
ul. Aiteke bi, 99, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

assistant Professor Assem Meiramova  
Kokshetau Technical Institute Committee for emergency  
Situations of the Ministry of Internal affairs  
st. Akan-Seri 136, Kokshetau  
Kazakhstan

associate professor Taniya Kapesova  
Zharokova 210, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

# Mechanical engineering lexis and CLIL principles in acquisition of content-based lexical competence in English

Martina Lipkova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.15

## Abstract

The effectiveness of CLIL methodology in teaching Mechanics as an academic subject was examined through a pedagogical experiment at a secondary vocational school of mechanical engineering. In Slovakia, CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) is considered one of the bilingual forms of education that enables students to learn both the subject-based content and the content-based foreign language simultaneously. Closer cooperation between language and academic subject teachers was assumed in planning the school curricula with a focus on specialist lexical competence acquisition. Higher vocational secondary schools in Slovakia are showing increasing interest in CLIL. In the dual-focused educational approach, language is considered both a tool for communication and a subject for teaching and learning. CLIL balances foreign language skills acquisition and vocational education, thereby significantly supporting personal development, responsibility, and motivation in students.

**Key words:** content, language, integration, acquisition, competence, principles

---

## Introduction

Overcoming traditional boundaries of teaching foreign languages and specialist content of particular technical subjects in secondary vocational schools was the primary motivation for the application of CLIL principles.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been regarded as an effective symbiotic fusion of studying particular academic subject matter content through, not in, a foreign language. Didactics of both the foreign language and academic subjects, are integrated within the specific type of education, characterized by the application of various organizational forms and teaching methods, including different types of teaching and learning strategies.

In this paper, insights into historical factors and CLIL principles with a focus on integrating of L2 and academic subject teaching are described with respect to both the potential employers' and students' needs investigation outcomes.

The objective of this paper is to clarify how content and language integrated learning approach differs from L2 teaching in language classes with no integration into an academic subject. Based on the results obtained in the pedagogical experiment, the rate of CLIL effectiveness in dual-focused teaching, motivation for content-based studying of the foreign language, and increase in lexical competence were measured and compared between CLIL and control groups of students.

In the last few years, progress and improvement have been achieved in lexical and communication competence acquisition by application of the CLIL-type approach. However, many important questions remain. There is still little, though growing, CLIL research evidence available in vocational-technical education showing an impact of CLIL on students' performance. Some recommendations for future research in practice are provided in conclusion as a result of the pedagogical experiment experience.

## **Insights into history: the most important facts about CLIL methodology development**

During the 1990s, CLIL became one of the most frequently used terms indicating teaching languages in such a way that the focus is not on the form but on the subject matter content. The concept has quite a long history, and over many years specific methodological and organizational approaches have been developed. David Marsh was one of the first promoters of content and language integrated learning, coining the acronym CLIL in his publication *Content and Language Integrated Learning at School in Europe* (1994).

The variety of approach models is the consequence of cultural, social, political, and historical factors typical for a particular region. To a large extent, bilingualism or multilingualism in countries with several official languages in which bilingual education has developed, implementation of learning foreign languages in a real, meaningful subject context emerged.

It is worth mentioning that the concept even dates back to history in the work of a significant pedagogue of Czech origin J. A. Komenský (1592 – 1670). He emphasized the need for effective language education (*Orbis Pictus, Janua Linguarum Reserata*). Before 1970, programs focusing on language and content integration emerged as a result of different geographic, demographic, social, and economic developments. Mainly in frontier areas, it was essential to enable pupils to study in a bilingual environment to increase their communication skills in everyday situations with other people in the area.

In countries with several official languages, *immersion education* programs are applied. Canadian Immersion Programmes, focusing on giving instruction in the target language from kindergarten or starting during elementary school (Naves, 2009) prove efficient. The concern about how much content through the students' second language was learned led to the demand for the immersion program evaluation by parents, school boards, and administrators (Naves, 2009). Immersion education has extended from Canada to the USA and Europe. The term *immersion* became a synonym for bilingual education in the 1970s and 1980s.

European bilingual education was influenced to a large extent by the Canadian immersion education program. CLIL is considered a bilingual approach. The pupils acquire their language skills simultaneously with the subject matter acquisition, and no initial language preparation is required. The use of L1 is allowed, too, for a proper understanding of special subject-based terminology both in L1 and L2.

Language diversity has always been one of the main objectives encouraged by the European Union. In the 1990s, debates on language education in Europe led to the investigation and support of innovative methods within the Lingua program (1990), which declared the importance of supporting innovations in foreign language education. Thus the EU started initiatives in the area of content and language integrated learning (CLIL).

Council Resolution of 31 March 1995, one of the first legislative documents of the Council of the European Union that puts focus on the promotion of linguistic diversity, highlights one of the major issues in education. It aims to make language teaching and learning more effective by introducing a range of innovative methods at schools and universities. In light of the above, the Council emphasizes the need to enhance communication skills with particular attention to methods that develop reading comprehension, writing, listening comprehension, and speaking, as well as the teaching of classes in a foreign language for disciplines other than languages, providing bilingual teaching. According to the Resolution, the promotion of learning of languages in technical and vocational teaching results from a growing number of enterprises that need employees mastering several languages of the Union. The pupils in technical and vocational education must have an opportunity to acquire the

language skills necessary to find work and to progress through their careers (Council Resolution, 1995). One of the ways to achieve the objectives is to implement language learning methods adapted to technical and vocational teaching.

In the same year, in the White Paper focusing on teaching and learning towards the learning society, the EU Commission came up with guidelines for action in the fields of education and training. "Training and apprenticeship policies, which are fundamental for improving employment and competitiveness, must be strengthened, especially continuing training" (White Paper. Teaching and Learning. Towards the Learning Society., 1995). Article 127 of the Treaty establishing the European Community stipulates that "the Community shall implement a vocational training policy which shall support and supplement the action of the Member States." This is the basis upon which the EU Commission stated its objectives in the White Paper that the development of proficiency in three foreign languages is one of the main EU priorities. Along with this, the Commission stated that "...it could even be argued that secondary school pupils should study certain subjects in the first foreign language learned, as is the case in the European schools" (Eurydice, 2006). The acronym CLIL is used to describe all educational models in which L2 is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than language lessons. The methodological principles in CLIL promote subject-based lexical competence acquisition by exposing learners to situations promoting genuine communication.

### **CLIL in vocational secondary education as the means to enhance professional skills in students**

Secondary vocational school of mechanical engineering in Bratislava (the capital of Slovakia) provides study programs preparing students either for their immediate involvement in a labor market after completing their studies or prepares students for their entry at technical universities, thus providing continual education in technical sciences. Most of the secondary vocational schools' students in Slovakia decide to continue studying at the Slovak University of Technology in Bratislava, directly at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering. In order to ensure the vocational-technical education meets the demands of potential employers, the documents, emphasizing integration of language, general and professional skills, were accepted in the Slovak Republic in compliance with the EU document: White Paper. Teaching and Learning. Towards the Learning Society (1995). The EU Commission stated its objectives in the White Paper that the development of proficiency in three foreign languages is one of the main EU priorities. Along with this, the Commission stated that "...it could even be argued that secondary school pupils should study certain subjects in the first foreign language learned, as is the case in the European schools" (Eurydice, 2006).

Knowledge, skills, and competences are measured according to eight qualification levels within the National Qualifications Framework of the Slovak Republic (approved by the Government Resolution no. 105/2009 of 4 February 2009) along with a particular formal level of education. The structure of the framework was approved as a reaction to the recommendations of the European Parliament and the Council of 23 April 2008 about the creation of the European Qualifications Framework for lifelong learning. Consequently, the National System of Occupations was created as a result of cooperation between the Ministry of Labour, Social Affairs and Family of the SR, public administration authorities, local self-government bodies, employers, representatives of employers and representatives of trade unions. The main objective of the system is to enable access to detailed information on the labor market, considering the current needs of employers with the aim to improve and interlink between the employers' demands, education, and training for the labor market (Eurydice, 2019).

Data about the graduates' level of foreign language proficiency and the measure to which they use foreign languages at their workplaces were obtained in a survey

carried out by the Department of Foreign Languages at the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering of the Slovak University of Technology in Bratislava, within which 20 companies in the tech industry were surveyed. 45% of the companies confirmed that language skills mastered by the graduates they employ are sufficient, 25% of the overall number of the companies show neutral attitude, and 20% of them confirmed an insufficient level of foreign language proficiency. 45% of the companies confirmed that their employees use English as a foreign language every day, 30% partially, and 25% not every day. 80% of employers strongly confirmed the importance of communication competence in English in their employees.

Based on the initiatives and the facts mentioned above, the fusion of academic subject matter and specialist language communication competence is thought of as the supreme importance in education.

The acronym CLIL is used to describe all educational models in which L2 is used to teach certain subjects in the curriculum other than language lessons. The methodological principles in CLIL promote subject-based lexical competence acquisition by exposing learners to situations promoting genuine communication.

### **Research method**

The effectiveness of the CLIL principles, introduced into the academic subject *mechanics: strength and elasticity*, was studied by the experiment at the secondary vocational-technical school of mechanical engineering. An increase in the technical subject-based lexical acquisition was the main assumption to be proved by the experiment, along with an increase in motivation in students for studying professional subject-based L2.

Two groups of students were involved in the experiment to compare the outcomes, as well as the students' attitude towards studying L2 by this approach. English, the target language, is the L2 studied by the students in language classes with the amount of weekly 5 hours.

In both the CLIL and control groups, 32 students were required first to write a comprehension test consisting of grammar and reading comprehension parts. The students' outcomes from both groups displayed various proficiency levels of the English language as a target L2. Even though the statistical results do not show a significant difference between the groups, the data collected at the end of the experiment displayed the difference in the progress of the subject-based lexical competence acquisition when the proficiency levels at the beginning and the end of the experiment were compared in students in each of the groups.

### **Procedures and analyses**

The main question positioned at the start of the experiment was that the score in CLIL students would be better than in non-CLIL students in the technical subject-based lexical acquisition. English as a target language was integrated directly into the academic, technical subject.

Selected subject-related topics were, as follows:

- Mechanical properties of materials in engineering,
- Shear stress and shear strain,
- Hooke's law in shear,
- Torsion loading of circular and noncircular shafts.

Taking into account that no CLIL-type lessons have ever been introduced at the secondary vocational school, except language lessons including ESP combination of various topics with no reference to a particular academic subject, completely new teaching materials were prepared in cooperation of both the L2 and the subject teachers.

The lessons were conducted in the way of *soft CLIL* in which the teacher concentrates on the use of tools with a focus on linguistic objectives. It is usually planned for a shorter period over which the students acquire content knowledge though the focus lies on L2 lexical and communication acquisition (Ball et al., 2015).

The structure of the lessons involved academic language input introduced by the L2 teacher through which the content was delivered to students. Then practical tasks based on computing with reference to the studied content followed under the subject teacher's guidance. Content-based terminology and language structures were practiced at the end of the lessons by the use of activity-based tasks promoting cooperation of students in pair or group activities in CLIL group students.

### Implementation of the research

Experimental verification of CLIL methodology consisted of:

- pre-test in the English language aimed at testing the students' proficiency level,
- pre-test result assessment,
- designing of studying, teaching and methodical materials,
- Post-test examining the students' cognitive knowledge achievement obtained in English as L2 with a focus on the assessment of the specialist terminology acquisition in a foreign language,
- evidence of CLIL-type teaching units, etc.

Quantitative research methods were applied to obtain results from data collected by questionnaires, as well as to provide the result analyses.

Within pilot research, a questionnaire was used to obtain information about the students' attitudes towards foreign language learning. It focused on what motivates students to study a foreign language, how often, and how much time they spend by studying L2 in the school, as well as within their extra-curricular activities, whether they use extra study materials and information communication technologies (ICT). Students were also asked to express their opinion about the types of activities which they think should be incorporated into classes. Long-term expectations in students with reference to using foreign languages in their future careers were investigated too. Based on the questionnaire data results, English as L2 has been taught by non-native teachers, i. e. Slovak teachers of English in both the CLIL and control groups of students.

The rate of students' interest in integrated learning of subject-based content and English as a target language is shown in Figures 1 and 2. In the CLIL group, 78% and in the control group 55% of students confirmed their interest in the type of education described above.

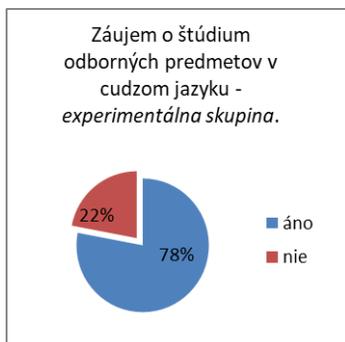


Figure 1: CLIL group

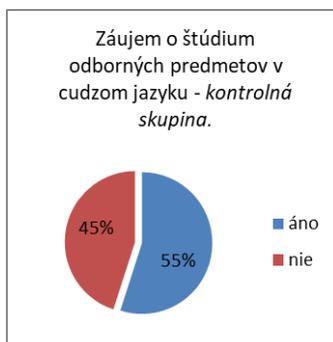
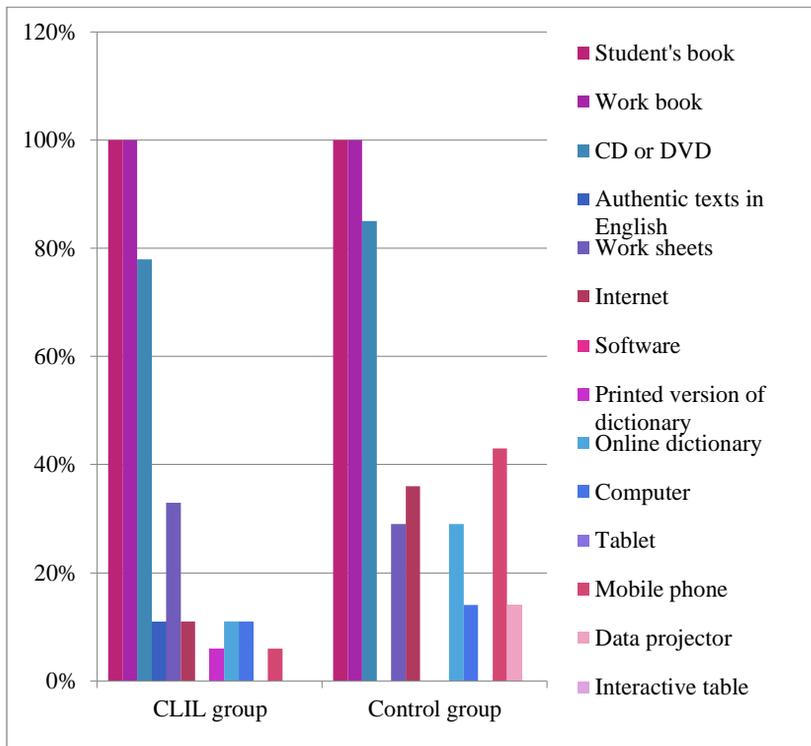


Figure 2: Control group

The types of resources for learning English in the school including extra-materials and ICT are shown in Figure 3.



**Figure 3: Resources for learning English as L2 in the secondary vocational school of mechanical engineering**

What motivates students to study foreign languages with reference to their future plans is provided in Figure 4.

	CLIL group	Control group
Future occupation	83%	64%
Parents' recommendations	17%	36%
Because I enjoy English lessons in the school	22%	14%
Because I am successful in studying English	28%	7%
Travelling abroad	83%	64%
To be able to search for information in English	61%	64%
I enjoy English as L2	56%	29%

For further studying at a foreign university	44%	14%
Other reasons in a particular number of students	1) Compulsory subject 2) Sports activities 3) Conversation with English speaking persons	1) I use English as L2 more frequently than Slovak

**Figure 4: Motivation for studying English as L2**

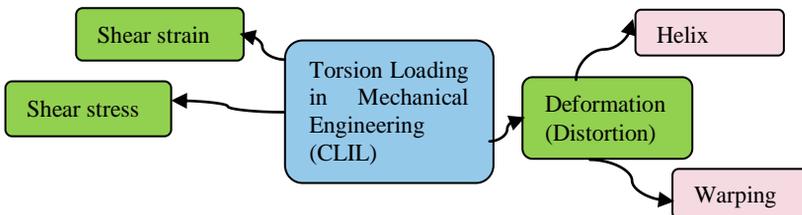
Extra-curricular activities with the use of English above students' compulsory duties can be seen in Figure 5.

	CLIL group	Control group
I read English texts published in journals, books, on the internet, etc.	61%	50%
I watch English films / videos	78%	86%
I speak English regularly (with friends, family members, etc.)	28%	36%
I communicate in English in a written form regularly (with friends, family members, social networks, etc.)	33%	21%
I attend an English language course other from that in my home school	11%	14%
I am not interested in and I do not use English in my leisure time	17%	7%

**Figure 5: English as a part of extra-curricular activities**

### Research results and discussion

Through instructional scaffolding, the teacher helped students to achieve mastery in the subject matter area. K-W-L charts helped the students organize knowledge in compliance with: what I know (K), what I want to find out (W), what I learned about the problem (L). Mind-mapping was one of the strategies applied to develop students' motivation and speaking skills while achieving both content and language objectives (Buzan, 1996). Collecting ideas around a particular topic was common for both K-W-L and mind-mapping methods, with an added value of clustering ideas and defining relationships in the latter one (Lipkova et al., 2019). An example of mind-mapping being gradually produced by students over the classes, through instructional scaffolding, is shown in Figure 6.



**Figure 6: Mind-mapping in Mechanical Engineering**

The objective of the research was to verify how effective are the applied CLIL principles in supporting learning specialist English as 2L integrated into a particular academic subject. Thanks to pedagogical experiment, we could compare the

performance of students in two groups with a different approach to learning L2, i. e. CLIL-type learning in one of the groups and traditional way of learning L2 in a control group, separately from the academic subject in the latter one. The main difference laid on the interaction of students and the measure of their involvement in the learning process.

In the research, we applied a pedagogical experiment as the main research method along with additional research methods: questionnaire survey at the beginning and the end of the research, pre-test, and post-test, statistical assessment of the research data, and discussion with the English language teachers.

As regards the academic language, it incorporates the discipline-specific terminology that allows students to acquire knowledge and academic skills. Competency in academic language often refers to a variety of non-linguistic skills that are integral to language mastery, including (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2013):

- academic skills (organizing, planning, researching),
- cognitive skills (critical thinking, problem-solving, interpreting, analyzing, memorizing, recalling),
- learning modes (questioning, discussing, observing, theorizing, experimenting),
- work habits (persistence, self-discipline, curiosity, conscientiousness, responsibility),
- other forms of literacy (technological, online, media, multicultural, etc.).

In that context, the CLIL approach incorporates a combination of principles to enhance communication competence with the use of technical terminology, in the case of this research, related to the academic subject of mechanics: strength and elasticity.

The incorporation of authentic technical texts adapted for teaching purposes provides a good opportunity for understanding the specific meaning of terms within a discourse (Fig. 7 and 8). Thus, authentic technical texts in a foreign language characterized by a high concentration of technical words with their explicit meaning, diagrams, charts, etc. represent valuable teaching materials. Working with text may be realized in the form of team-based activities working on a common project that requires looking up and sorting information related to the task. Interpretation and presentation of the students' findings with their attitude to a specific problem develop both critical thinking and motivation in students. They become more enthusiastic about learning an academic foreign language by discussing an issue and listening to the attempt to understand the utterances of other students.

Terms used to describe a) properties of materials, b) shear loading, c) torsion loading	
shape	Materials change their <i>shape</i> and size.
properties	Engineers have to take into account mechanical <i>properties</i> of materials.
load	Some materials resist deformation under the application of <i>loads</i> .
deformation	<i>Deformation</i> refers to changes in the shape or size of an object.
distortion	There's a small <i>distortion</i> in the shape of this orange.
wear & tear	Wear & tear is a damage that occurs naturally when an object is

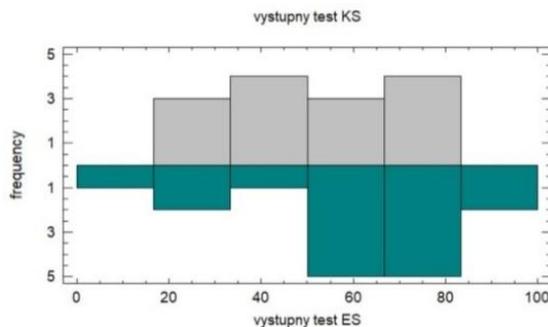
	used; it is exposed to external forces.
rotation	The <i>rotation</i> of the cross section at the free end of the shaft is called the angle of twist.
torque	The <i>torque</i> refers to the twisting moment.
helix angle	We recognize that the <i>helix angle</i> is the shear strain of the element.
shear stress etc.	Maximum <i>shear stress</i> occurs at the surface of the shaft.

**Figure 7: Specific subject-based terms within the discourse**

high elastic modulus	A <b>high elastic modulus</b> is typical for materials that are hard to deform; in other words, materials that require a high load to achieve a significant strain; for example, a steel band.
low elastic modulus	A <b>low elastic modulus</b> is typical for materials that are easily deformed under a load; for example, a rubber band.
force	<b>Force</b> is a measure of the interaction between bodies. <b>Force</b> is known as a vector quantity, as it has both direction and magnitude.
stress	The <b>stress</b> applied to a material is the force per unit area applied to the material. The maximum stress a material can stand before it breaks is called the breaking <b>stress</b> .
strain	<b>Strain</b> is a measure of material deformation in response to an applied force (or stress).
load	<b>Load</b> is a term frequently used in engineering to mean the force exerted on a surface or body.
Hooke's Law etc.	Stress is directly proportional to strain.

**Figure 8: Terms and their definitions within the discourse**

The starting position of both these groups, tested in language proficiency by comprehension pre-test, indicated a homogeneous community with slightly worse results in the experimental group at the start of the research. Performance in each of the groups over the research period was compared by evaluating post-test outcomes in both groups. Figure 9 compares the distribution of two samples for the post-test in target technical language acquisition. The number of students in the experimental group with poor outcomes in comprehension pre-test decreased in comparison to post-test outcomes. More students demonstrated higher interest in learning L2 integrated into a technical academic subject. Findings in Figure 9 prove higher motivation in experimental students for learning language, as the distribution of two samples displays (Lipkova, 2019).



**Figure 9: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test for post-test in control and experimental groups. Legend: ■ Control group; ■ Experimental group**

### Conclusion

Requirements for quality education result from the need for companies to employ persons with mastery of communication in several foreign languages. Implementation of the CLIL principles into education proves to be a beneficial approach to fostering this tendency.

The research supports the hypothesis that CLIL classes are useful for secondary school learners, and the data collected from a short questionnaire revealed the motivation and interest in students to incorporate more technical subjects into curriculum implementing CLIL models of education.

However, planning and preparing for CLIL lessons is crucial. D. Coyle (2006) stated four basic principles (4Cs) the teacher should focus on when planning CLIL-type lessons: Content, Communication, Cognition, and Culture.

Language *of* learning (language skills, i. e. language related to subject matter content), Language *for* learning (learning skills, i. e. language needed to pursue activities of learning within-pair or group work, discussions, negotiating arguments, writing essays, etc.) and Language *through* learning (applying of what has been learned to provide opportunities for strengthening of knowledge and its extending) are the key elements in supporting of language and cognitive development (Coyle, Hood, Marsh, 2010).

With the CLIL-type lessons, some drawbacks may also be encountered. Designing of study materials and their further preparation prove as time-consuming. In some cases, the teachers do not have a relevant level of language knowledge or communication competence. Lack of enthusiasm and motivation for CLIL lessons is sometimes seen in teachers too. The experience shows that more training courses should be organized for CLIL teachers. Common online databases of CLIL lesson plans sorted according to different disciplines, and the level of education should be available with free access and the upload and download options.

On the other hand, the advantages of the CLIL approach involve high emphasis put on teamwork, an increase in intercultural awareness, acquisition of communicative and specialist lexical competence, enhancement of critical thinking in students, learning based on students' own experience, etc.

More complex research into CLIL has been needed to be carried out covering a wider range of different types of schools, including secondary vocational-technical schools. These types of schools represent a high potential for developing CLIL strategies with more general application into education. The feasibility of effective CLIL lessons can

be guaranteed by closer cooperation between both the subject teachers and the teachers of foreign languages.

### **Bibliographic references**

- AMENGUA-PIZARRO, M. 2018. Foreign language classroom anxiety among English for Specific purposes (ESP) students. In: *International Journal of English Studies*, 18(2), pp. 145-159. <https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2018/2/323311>
- AGUSTIN-LLACH, M. P. 2016. Age and type of instruction (CLIC vs. traditional EFL) in lexical development. In: *International Journal of English Studies*, vol. 16, n.1, pp. 75-96. <https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2016/1/220691>
- DANEK, J. 2019. Pedagogical practice – position, contribution and importance in the process of preparing of future teachers. In: *Slavonic Pedagogical Studies Journal*, vol. 8, n.1, pp. 31-41. ISSN 1339-8660
- BALL, P. – KELLY, K. – CLEGG, J. 2015. *Putting CLIL into Practice*. Oxford University Press. 320ps. ISBN 978-0-19-442105-8.
- BONNET, A. 2012. In Depth: Towards an Evidence Base for CLIL. How to Integrate Qualitative and Quantitative as well as Process, Product and Participant Perspectives in CLIL Research. In: *International CLIL Research Journal*. University of Jyväskylä. vol. 1, n.4. ISSN 1707-948X
- BURAN, A. 2015. Mind Mapping technique in Language Learning. *Elsevier. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 206 (215 – 218). Available online: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1877042815051435>
- BUZAN, T. 1996. *The Mind Map Book*. How to use radiant thinking to maximize your brain's untapped potential. New York: Plume.
- CENOZ, J. – GENESEE, F. – GORTER, D. 2014. Critical Analysis of CLIL: Taking Stock and Looking Forward. In: *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 35, n. 3, pp. 243–262, <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt011>
- CLEGG, J. The language of thinking. In: *Ethical English: Teaching language through content and content through language*, pp. 97-99. Sofia, Bulgaria: Science Across the World and The British Council.
- COYLE, D. 2015. A pluriliteracies approach to teaching for learning. Graz: European Centre for Modern Languages (ECML). Available online: <https://pluriliteracies.ecml.at/Portals/54/publications/pluriliteracies-Putting-a-pluriliteracies-approach-into-practice.pdf>
- COYLE, D. 2018. The Place of CLIL in (Bilingual) Education, *Theory Into Practice*, 57:3, 166-176, DOI: 10.1080/00405841.2018.1459096
- COYLE, D., HOOD, P., MARSH, D. 2010. *CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning*. Cambridge University Press. ISBN 3125338875, 9783125338876.
- DALTON-PUFFER, C. 2011. Content-and-Language Integrated Learning: From Practice to Principles? Annual review of Applied Linguistics. Cambridge University Press, pp. 182-204.
- DE GRAAFF, R. T. – KOOPMAN, G. J. – ANIKINA, Y. – WESTHOFF, G. 2007. An Observation Tool for Effective L2 Pedagogy in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 10:5, pp. 603-624, DOI: 10.2167/beb462.0
- DUCHOVICOVA, J. Personal competences of absolvents as prerequisite of social inclusion. In: *Slavonic Pedagogical Studies Journal*, vol. 5, n. 1, pp. 184-200. ISSN 1339-8660. doi: 10.18355/PG.2016.5.1.184-200
- EURYDICE 2019. National Qualification Framework. National Systems of Qualifications. The National System of Occupations. Legislative References. 20 November, 2019. Available online: [https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/national-qualifications-framework-72\\_en](https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/national-policies/eurydice/content/national-qualifications-framework-72_en)

- HENRY, A. – CLIFFORDSON, C. 2017. The Impact of Out-of-School Factors on Motivation to Learn English: Self-discrepancies, Beliefs, and Experiences of Self-authenticity. In: *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 38, n. 5, pp. 713–736, <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amv060>
- HOUWER, A. D. 2011. Language input environments and language development in bilingual acquisition. In: *Applied Linguistic Review*, pp. 221-240. Online ISBN: 9783110239331
- JIMENEZ, P.O. 2017. L 1- based Communication Strategies in CLIL and NON-CLIL Learners of L 3 English. Available online: [https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f00a/29d30f60587472054705186319b8f99db0c4.pdf?\\_ga=2.142553077.672239358.1577561127-84690769.1577561127](https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/f00a/29d30f60587472054705186319b8f99db0c4.pdf?_ga=2.142553077.672239358.1577561127-84690769.1577561127)
- KUCHARIKOVA, A. – LIPKOVA, M. – LOKAJOVA, J. 2019. Mind-Mapping as a Tool for Teaching ESP/CLIL Presentations. In: *Conference Proceedings of the 12th International Conference “Innovation in Language Learning”*. Milano: Filodiritto Publisher, pp. 1-6. ISBN 978-88-85813-80-9.
- LIPKOVA, M. 2019. CLIL Principles in Vocational Technical Education. In: *Proceedings of the International Conference on Research in Humanities*, pp 29-44. London: ICRHCONF. ISBN 978-609-8239-16-4.
- LOJOVA, G. 2005. *Individuálne osobitosti pri učení sa cudzích jazykov*. Bratislava. ISBN 978-80-223-2983-5.
- MACKEY, W. 1962. The description of bilingualism. In: *Canadian Journal of Linguistics/Revue Canadienne De Linguistique*, 7(2), pp. 51-85. doi: 10.1017/S0008413100019393
- MALA, E. – MUGLOVA, D. – STRANOVSKA, E. 2019. Stimulation of creativity potential and ambiguity tolerance as effective foreign language teaching predictors. In: *Slavonic Pedagogical Studies Journal*, vol. 8. n. 1, pp. 164-175. ISSN 1339-8660
- MEHISTO, P. – MARSH, D. – JESUS, M. 2008. *Uncovering CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning in Bilingual and Multilingual Education*. Macmillan ELT. ISBN 978-0230027190.
- POKRIVCAKOVA, S. et al. 2009. *Cudzíe jazyky a kultúry v škole*. Brno: Masarykova univerzita, pp. 161-182. ISBN 978-80-210-4974-1.
- RUISZ, Y – CATALAN, R. M. J. *Content and Language Integrated Learning: Evidence from Research in Europe (Second Language Acquisition)*. ISBN-13: 978-1847691651.
- SIFAKIS, N. C. 2019. ELF Awareness in English Language Teaching: Principles and Processes. In: *Applied Linguistics*, vol. 40, n. 2, pp. 288–306, <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amx034>
- VAN KAMPE, E. – ADMIRAAL, W. – BERRY, A. 2018. Content and language integrated learning in the Netherlands: teachers’ self-reported pedagogical practices, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 21:2, pp. 222-236, DOI: 10.1080/13670050.2016.1154004
- VAN KAMPEN, E. – MEIRINK, J. – ADMIRAAL, W. – BERRY, A. 2017. Do we all share the same goals for content and language integrated learning (CLIL)? Specialist and practitioner perceptions of ‘ideal’ CLIL pedagogies in the Netherlands, *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, DOI: 10.1080/13670050.2017.1411332
- VAZQUEZ, M. B. 2014. Lexical Transfer in the Written Production of a CLIL Group and a Non-CLIL Group. In: *International Journal of English Studies*, 14(2), pp. 57-76. <https://doi.org/10.6018/j.166251>

VYGOTSKY, L. S. 1980. Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge. MA: Harvard University Press. ISBN 0674076680, 9780674076686.

WANG, Q. – LI, S. 2019. Chapter 4. The relationship between task motivation and L2 motivation. Chapter published in: Researching L2 Task Performance and Pedagogy: In honour of Peter Skehan. Task-Based Language Teaching 13. pp. 67-92. e-Book ISBN: 9789027262387

WINCH, J. 2016. Language learning and enjoyment of stem students studying Japanese. In: Slavonic Pedagogical Studies Journal, vol. 5, n. 2, pp. 246-270. ISSN 1339-8660

*Words: 5002*

*Characters: 34 569 (19,21 standard pages)*

Martina Lipkova  
Slovak University of Technology in Bratislava  
Faculty of Mechanical Engineering  
Department of Languages and Social Sciences  
Namestie slovody 17  
812 31 Bratislava 1  
Slovakia  
martina.lipkova@stuba.sk

## Cognitive analysis of intercultural communication in linguistics

Serik Nurmoldayev – Bakhytzhan Orazaliyev – Raikhan Doszhan – Tursunai Ibragimova – Roza Kasymova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.16

### Abstract

In recent decades, linguists have moved from the study of language as a self-contained system of units to the study of its interaction with the consciousness and thinking of a linguistic personality. In this regard, reconstruction and orientation in the linguistic picture of the world of other people is a necessary fundamental basis for cognitive, linguo-cultural and linguistic research proper, based on the language of this people, which is not native to the researcher. In view of the above, the relevance of the study is due to the interest in studying the phenomenon of the interaction of language and culture as a way to preserve national identity in the era of globalization and the problems of a linguistic personality. Cultural, scientific and economic contacts between countries that have increased in our time contribute to the fact that the themes of “Linguistics and Culture”, “Linguistic Personality”, “Linguistic Ideology”, “Linguistic Culture”, and “National Character” become a priority in linguistics, which applies to multinational English material is especially relevant. The purpose of the work is to search and determine the factors that form the world language picture of the and conditional education cultural dominants in the language, by identifying and analyzing culturally meaningful vocabulary of the world linguistic picture.

**Key words:** intercultural, dominants, language, world, picture, cognitive, analyses

---

### Introduction

The existence of a close relationship between the language and its speakers seems to us obvious and is not in doubt. Language is a means of communication between people and is closely related to the life and development of society, which uses this language as a means of communication. A person learns and perceives the world through the senses, and it is on the basis of this perception that his idea of the world is built.

Passing through his consciousness and comprehending the results of this perception, he transfers them to other members of his speech collective with the help of language. In other words, thinking stands between language and reality.

Words do not reflect objects themselves, but the vision that has developed in the minds of a native speaker of this subject under the influence of reality surrounding it. On this basis, different peoples diverge ways of understanding the real world, its understanding, and further verbal expression of this understanding in a different way.

On this occasion, we find in S. G. Ter-Minasova the following reasoning: “Since our consciousness is determined both collectively (way of life, customs, traditions, etc.), and individually (with a specific perception of the world inherent in this particular individual), then language reflects reality not directly, but through two zigzags: from the real world to thinking and from thinking to language.

Thus, language, thinking, and culture are interconnected so closely that they practically make up a single whole consisting of these three components, none of which can function (and therefore cannot exist) without the other two. Together, they relate to the real world, oppose it, depend on it, reflect and at the same time shape it” (Ter-Minasova 2000).

The problem of the correlation between linguistic and ethnocultural consciousness worried linguists for several centuries. The works of many types of

research are devoted to it (Potebnya A.A.) and foreign researchers (Boas F., Sepir E., Wharf B. et al.)

As early as the first half of the 19th century, W. von Humboldt laid the foundations of modern anthropological linguistics. He repeatedly emphasized that language forms and expresses the specificity of the national spirit, reflects a special view of the world among various ethnic groups and that the existence of different languages forms the basis of various ways of thinking among different peoples. According to V. von Humboldt, "the body of a language arises from a person's inherent ability to speak; all people participate in its formation; the culture of each nation depends on its special abilities and fate, its basis is, for the most part, the activity of individuals..." (Humboldt, 1984).

The ideas of V. von Humboldt were successfully embodied by his students and followers, among them are A. A. Potebnya, L.V. Shcherba, F. Boas, and others.

F. Boas, based on the ideas of his teacher, formed at the beginning of the 20th century an anthropological trend in the science of language. In his works he especially emphasized the need to learn the language along with the study of cultural phenomena.

American anthropolinguistics E. Sepir was the person who continued the research of F. Boas. He took as a basis the idea that each language has its own classification of ideas about the surrounding reality and that each of them is the custodian of the cultural values of its speakers. In his opinion, "... language is a sound realization of the tendency to consider the phenomena of reality symbolically, that it was this property that made it a convenient means of communication, and that in the real circumstances of social interaction, it acquired those complicated and refined forms in which we now know it" (Sepir 2003).

In this regard, the relevance of this study is determined by the fact that in the context of growing globalization and the expansion of the boundaries of the dialogue of cultures, the linguistic foundations of intercultural communication, including the linguistic picture of the world, as well as mechanisms and methods of organizing discourse, become a determining factor in the study of communicative activity, since they allow taking into account both human factor and semantic content of communication activity.

The subject of this study is the fact of the mutual influence of culture and language, which find one way or another reflected in the system and functioning of the language. Such an approach to highlighting the problem of the relationship between language and culture is a logical continuation of the entire previous evolution of views on this issue.

Thus, the next stage was marked by the birth of the theory of linguistic relativity, the essence of which lies in the fact that every nation, limited in its own native language, is also limited in its vision of the world (Zvegintsev, 1960).

This understanding of the complexity of linguistic and cultural ties led to the emergence of a new direction of linguistic research, concentrating around the triad language, national identity, culture, since "the relationship of language and culture can be adequately understood only in the context of a broader problem, which could conditionally be designated as "man and culture" (Tarasov, 2000).

In this case, we are talking about a linguoculturological approach to the study of linguistic units. The content of linguoculturological research includes the study of the linguistic expression of the lifestyle and traditions of the people. The mentality of the people as "the psychological determinant of the behavior of millions of people, as a kind of invariant of socio-cultural changes" (Vorobyov, 1997) also falls into the sphere of interests of linguistic and cultural studies, as it manifests itself in the language.

Linguistic and cultural studies include purely linguistic works that enter the "extra-linguistic spheres" and are engaged in the search for cognitive, cultural, and social explanations (Kibrik, 1994) to the facts of language.

At the same time, undoubtedly, the problems of the relationship between language and culture prevail in the framework of linguoculturology. It is in this vein that the present study has been completed. The identification of the cultural specificity of linguistic units determines the appeal to a linguistic personality, not only located at the intersection of the worlds of language, culture, and thinking, but also being a projection of all these areas and "a certain knot in a conflict space, always inconclusive stabilization in a game of various forces" (Serio, 2001).

A language-specific interaction of language, culture, and thinking is manifested as cultural marking. Cultural marking of linguistic units is characteristic of ethnocultural or national specificity.

The description of the abovementioned specificity can be carried out within the organizational structure of a linguistic personality. The identification of ethnocultural specificity in the structure of a linguistic personality serves to form a "cultural mentality" (Trostnikov, 2001).

"Cultural mentality" develops as a result of the action of a special informational component of the linguistic unit of the cultural component. The action of the cultural component is traced at three levels in the structure of the linguistic personality: lexico-grammatical, cognitive, and pragmatic-extralinguistic.

The cultural component relates to the semantics, syntactic, and pragmatics of the linguistic sign. In connection with a comprehensive analysis of the linguistic and cultural strata, it is necessary to clearly verify the procedure of linguoculturological research that affects all sections of the linguistic system. This will necessarily entail a variation in research methods. It seems that significant conclusions can be obtained by combining and mutually correcting various approaches and analysis schemes. An attempt at such a multilateral study was undertaken in this work.

In the modern linguistics the theory of the picture of the world, the problem of organizing the personal experience of an individual and the collective experience of native speakers is considered as the interaction of individual pictures of the world of communicants in the communication process, which allows us to include the human factor in the attention of researchers.

Many researchers believe that the picture of the world is a combination of concepts, ideas, images, associations, and in general any ideational formations that make up in the individual or collective consciousness a certain integral deal of the real world "The picture of the world" seems to be a better term, than "personal experience", as it opens up opportunities for identifying ways and forms of organizing our knowledge and ideas, as well as for determining.

The main goal of the study is to identify and describe intercultural dominants of the language world picture by means of cognitive analyses.

To achieve the goal of the study, the following research questions were set  
*What is intercultural dominant in linguistics?*

*What is the language world picture by means of cultural dominants?*

## **Methods**

The theoretical and methodological base of the study was composed of the works of leading domestic and foreign scientists on the problems of cognitive linguistics.

The following research methods were used in the study: transformational analysis of vocabulary definition, component analysis of word semantics, application of semantic metalanguage mechanisms, conceptual analysis, text-based discourse analysis, discursive-historical analysis.

## Discussion

During the analyses, it was obvious the following aspects such as cultural dominants is an extremely complex phenomenon, an objective study of which involves careful consideration of the sociocultural characteristics of the conditions and participants of communication, cognitive mechanisms, and communicative-behavioral strategies used in the process.

The field nature of the organization of the linguistic picture of the world and, accordingly, of the individual thesaurus of each participant in intercultural communication, as well as the presence of universal cognitive structures in the cultural-conceptual picture of the world, create the necessary grounds for comparing specific cultural and linguistic experience.

The cultural, conceptual, and linguistic worldviews that form a single whole in the minds of a carrier of language and culture interact in the process of intercultural communication based on the functioning of a number of cognitive and semantic mechanisms.

The picture of the world is characterized by substantial and formal properties. The following characteristics can be attributed to the number of substantial properties of a picture of the world: a picture of the world contains traits of human subjectivity; the picture of the world carries the basic properties of the worldview of a person, the picture of the world is cosmological and anthropomorphic at the same time; the picture of the world presumes obligatory action with a semi-conscious character; the picture of the world is certainly reliable for its subject, and the picture of the world is dialectical unity of statics and dynamics, stability and variability, finite and infinite. The formal properties of a picture of the world include such characteristics as a picture of the world is a regulator of broad action; the picture of the world always has gaps; the picture of the world has plasticity, mobility; the picture of the world has its own limit of complexity and detail; the picture of the world is visual and figurative; the picture of the world is systemic, and the picture of the world is concrete and holistic.

Description of the properties of the object, as well as the identification of its essence, is possible only with the help of sentences. In speech acts, most often, the properties of objects are not fully disclosed. Using language, people in a certain number of sentences discover their knowledge of various subjects and reveal their essence.

Each language in its own way divides the world, each language has a special picture of the world, and the linguistic person always organizes the content of his statement in accordance with this picture. This manifests a specifically human perception of the world, fixed in language.

The linguistic picture of the world determines the type of human relationship to the world. It sets the norms of human behavior in the world, affects its relationship with the world. Each natural language reflects a certain way of perceiving and conceptualizing the world. The values expressed in it form a kind of collective philosophy, which is mandatory for all native speakers and is presented in the form of a language norm.

The linguistic picture of the world is “drawn” in different colors, the most striking of which are mythologemes, figuratively-metaphorical and connotative words. The world, reflected with the help of secondary sensations, manifested in metaphors, comparisons, symbols, is the main factor that determines the general and specific features of each specific national, linguistic picture of the world.

Language is an integral part of the culture; it expresses specific features of a national mentality. Since each native speaker is simultaneously a native speaker of culture, linguistic signs acquire the ability to fulfill the function of cultural signs and thereby serve as a means of expressing the main provisions of culture. That is why the

language is able to reflect the characteristics of the cultural-national mentality of its speakers.

Each person is a carrier of a certain national mentality and language and participates in joint speech activity with other representatives of the national community.

In order to study the above problems, in our opinion, one should turn to a number of linguistic areas of cognitive linguistics, pragmatics, communicative linguistics, ethno-semiotics, and discursive analysis.

Language is the most important way of the formation and existence of human knowledge about the world. Reflecting the objective world in the process of activity, a person fixes the results of cognition in a word. The totality of this knowledge, captured in linguistic form, is what is called in various concepts either as "the linguistic intermediate world" (V. I. Abaev), then as "linguistic representation of the world" (T. M. Dridze), then as "The linguistic model of the world" (V. Humboldt), then as the "linguistic picture of the world" (Serebrennikov, 1988).

The concept of a picture of the world (including linguistic) is based on the study of human ideas about the world. If the world is a person and the environment in their interaction, then the picture of the world is the result of processing information about the environment and a person. Thus, representatives of cognitive linguistics rightly assert that "our conceptual system, displayed in the form of a linguistic picture of the world, depends on physical and cultural experience and is directly connected with it" (Arutyunova, 1998).

Yu.D. Apresyan emphasized the pre-scientific nature of the linguistic picture of the world, calling it a "naive picture." "The linguistic picture of the world, as it were, supplements objective knowledge about reality, often distorting them (see the scientific meaning and linguistic interpretation of words such as atom, point, light, heat, etc.). By studying the semantics of these words, it is possible to identify the specifics of cognitive (mental) models that determine the uniqueness of a naive picture of the world" (Apresyan, 2005).

According to V.B. Kasevich, a picture of the world, encoded by means of linguistic semantics, over time can turn out to be more or less surviving, relict, only traditionally reproducing past opposition due to the natural inaccessibility of other linguistic tools; with the help of the latter, new meanings are created for which the old serve as a kind of building material. In other words, discrepancies arise between the archaic and semantic system of the language and the actual mental model that is valid for a given linguistic collective and is manifested in the texts it generates, as well as in the laws of its behavior (Kasevich, 1996).

The linguistic picture of the world forms a type of human relationship to the world (nature, animals, himself as an element of the world). It sets the norms of human behavior in the world, determines its relationship with the world. Each natural language reflects a certain way of perceiving and organizing ("conceptualizing") the world. The values expressed in it form a certain unified system of views, a kind of collective philosophy, which is imposed as mandatory on all native speakers and is presented in the form of a language norm.

Thus, the role of language consists not only in the transmission of a message but, first of all, in the internal organization of what is to be communicated. A "space of meanings" appears (in the terminology of A.N. Leontiev), i.e., knowledge of the world enshrined in the language, where the national-cultural experience of a particular linguistic community is certainly interwoven. A world of speakers of this language is formed, i.e., the linguistic picture of the world is a combination of knowledge about the world, captured in vocabulary, phraseology, and grammar.

The term "linguistic picture of the world" is nothing more than a metaphor, for in reality "the specific features of the national language, in which the unique

socio-historical experience of a certain national community of people is recorded, create for the speakers of this language not some other, unique picture of the world, different from the objectively existing, but only the specific coloring of this world, due to the national significance of objects, phenomena, processes, selective attitude to them, which is generated by the specifics of activity, of life and national culture of the people "(Dobrovolsky, 1997).

As a result of the study of linguistic material, it was possible to identify the processes taking place in the conceptual picture of the world in a language society in relation to a person's knowledge of himself. The study revealed cognitive mechanisms that are activated by consciousness in the process of conceptualizing the thoughts. It is a conceptual expression that are tools for displaying a cognitive-linguistic reaction to external actions, events, and phenomena.

### **Conclusion**

The theoretical significance of the study is to justify the leading role of the linguistic picture of the world and culturally determined discursive strategies used by individuals in the process of communication, to ensure the success factor of intercultural communication. The linguistic picture of the communicant's world and the discursive strategies chosen by him to achieve a communicative goal are those linguistic foundations that directly affect discourse organization and interpretation. In addition, the study shows the effectiveness of a multidimensional approach to studying the process of intercultural communication, integrating data from cultural studies, communication theory, linguo-culturology, cognitive linguistics, ethno-semiotics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, text linguistics, and discourse linguistics. The practical significance of the work is primarily associated with the creation of a multilevel method of discourse analysis and with the development of a comprehensive methodology for studying the units of the linguistic picture of the world. The combination of a number of methods, including the use of intercultural communication as one of the modeling methods, as well as the addition of the contextual method with translation analysis, - all this allows opening up new opportunities for deeper penetration into the linguistic picture of the world of communicants and in the organization of discourse.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ABAEV, V.I. 2006. Articles on the theory and history of linguistics.
- APRESYAN, Yu.D. 2005. Theoretical Linguistics and Practical Lexicography In: Balgarsch Speech. Godina XI / Book 3, pp. 5-20
- ARUTYUNOVA, N.D. 1998. Image: (Experience of conceptual analysis) In: Reference and problems of text formation.
- BAKUSHEVA, E.M. 1992. Sociolinguistics and analysis of the speech behavior of men and women in modern society. Ryazan,
- BENVENIST, E. 1991. General Linguistics.
- BIRYUKOV, V.V. 1997. Semiotics and some problems of language and thinking In: Language and thinking.
- BOGIN, G.I. 1994. The model of linguistic personality in its relation to the varieties of texts. L.
- BOGUSLAVSKY, V.M. 1997. Word and concept In: Thinking and language.
- BOAS, F. 1938. The mind of primitive man. -N.Y.: Macmillan, 294 p.
- CARO BAROJA, J. 1979. Ensayos sobre la cultura popular Española. Madrid: DOSBE, 198p.
- CIFUENTES HONRUBIA, J. L. 1998. Estudios de Lingüística Cognitiva. Alicante: Universidad de Alicante, vol. 2, 952 p.
- CIVITELLO, L. 2008. Cuisine and Culture: a History of Food and People. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons, 205 p.

- CLARK, H.H. 1996. Using Language. In: Cambridge University Press, 436 p.
- COLE, M. – GAY, J. – GLIK, J. A. – SHARP, D.W. 1971. The cultural context of learning and thinking. New York In: Basic Books,
- DOBROVOLSKY D.O. 1997. National-cultural specificity in phraseology In: Questions of linguistics, n. 6, pp. 37-48.
- DRIDZE, T. M. 1980. Language and social psychology: textbook. allowance / ed. A.A. Leontiev. In: Higher school, 224 p.
- JACOBSON, R. 1985. Speech Communication and Selected Works
- HUNN, E. 1992. Ethnosemantics In: International Encyclopedia of Linguistics. vol. 1 / Ed. by W. Bright. New York, Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 422-424.
- JACKENDOJ, R. 1992. What is a concept? In: Frames, fields, and contrasts. New essays in semantics and lexical organization. Hillsdale, pp. 191-209.
- JESPERSEN, O. 1958. The Philosophy of Grammar. London, In: George Allen & Unwin Ltd, 359 p.
- HALL E.T. Beyond Culture, N Y Anchor Books (reissue of 1976 volume), 280 p
- HUMBOLDT, V. 1984. The Character of Languages In: Selected Works on Linguistics
- KOLSHANSKY, G.V. Contextual semantics
- KARASIK, V.I. 1996. Cultural dominants in the language In: Linguistic personality: cultural concepts. Volgograd - Arkhangelsk: Change, pp. 3-16.
- KIBRIK, A.A. 1994. Cognitive Discourse Studies In: Questions of Linguistics, n. 5, pp. 126-139.
- KORNILOV, O. L. Language pictures of the world as a reflection of the national mentalities of the dissertation of Dr. Filol Sciences M, 2000
- KUBRYAKOVA, E.S. The nominative aspect of speech activity. - M.: Science, 1986.-158 p.
- KRAMSCH, C. 1994. Context and culture in language teaching. Oxford University Press, VIII, 295 p.
- KASEVICH, V.B. 1996. Picture of the world / V.B. Kasevich. - SPb., 288 p.
- KHONAMRI, F. – AZIZI, M. – KRALIK, R. 2020. Using interactive e-based flipped learning to enhance EFL literature students' critical reading. In: Science for Education Today, vol. 10, n. 1, pp. 25-42. ISSN 2226-3365.
- LAKOJF, G. 1990. Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things: What Categories Reveal about the Mind. Chicago-London In: The University of Chicago Press,
- LANGACKER, R.W. 1994. Cognitive Grammar In: The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics. vol. 2. / Ed. by R.E. Asher. Oxford, New York, Seoul, Tokyo: Pergamon Press, pp. 590-593.
- MIRONOV, V.V. 2005. Philosophy and metamorphoses of culture
- MIRONOVA, N.N. 1997. Discourse analysis of evaluative semantics: a training manual / N.N. Mironova. Moscow: “NVI” - “Thesaurus”
- POTEBNYA, A.L. 1989. Myth and Word In: Word and Myth M, 1989
- SEREBRENNIKOV, B.A. 1988. Does language reflect reality or express it in a symbolic world In: The role of the human factor in language: Language and picture of the world. In: Nauka, pp. 70-86.
- SERIO, P. Discourse Analysis at the French School Discourse and Interdiscourse. In: Semiotics: Anthology / Comp.
- YU.S. STEPANOV. 2001. Academic Project; Ekaterinburg: Business Book, pp. 549-562.
- SEPIR, E. 1992. Selected works on linguistic and cultural studies, 319 p.
- RUBBLE, A.A. 1999. Complete Works: Thought and Language. In: Labyrinth, 300 p.
- TELIA, V.N. 1986. The connotative aspect of the semantics of nominative units. In: Nauka, 143 p.
- TER-MINASOVA, S. G. 2007. War and the world of languages and cultures

- TARASOV, E.F. 2000. Language as a means of transmitting culture In: Language as a means of transmitting culture. In: Nauka, pp. 45-53.
- TROSTNIKOV, M.V. 2001. Translation and intertext from the point of view of poetology In: Semiotics: Anthology / Sost. Yu.S. Stepanov. In: Academic Project; Yekaterinburg: Business Book, pp. 563-580.
- WHORF, B. 1956. Language, Thought, and Reality. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, XI, 278 p.
- VEZHBITSKAYA, A. 1997. Language. The culture. Cognition / A. Vezhbitskaya. In: Russian dictionaries,
- VERESHCHAGIN, E.M. – KOSTOMAROV, V.G. 1983. Language and culture. 269 p.
- VOROBIEV, V.V. 1999. On the status of linguoculturology In: Materials of the IX Congress of MAPRYAL (Bratislava 1999): Reports and reports of Russian scientists. pp. 96-117.
- ZVEGINTSEV, V.L. 1982. Language and knowledge In: Questions of Philosophy, n. 1
- ZVEGINTSEV, V.A. 2001. Sentence and its relation to language and speech. In: Editorial URSS, 312 p.
- WIERZBICKA, A. 1993. Reading human faces In: Pragmatics and Cognition, n. 1, pp. 1-23
- WIERZBICKA, A. 1988. The Semantics of Grammar. Amsterdam; Philadelphia In: John Benjamins B.V, 618 p.

*Words: 4174*

*Characters: 27 132 (15,10 standard pages)*

Serik Nurmoldayev  
 Kurmangazy Kazakh National Conservatory  
 90 Abylai Khan Avenue.  
 corner Karasai Batyr St., Almaty  
 Kazakhstan

Orazaliyev Bakhytzhana  
 Eurasian National university named after L. Gumilev  
 st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district, Nur-Sultan city  
 Kazakhstan

Doszhan Raikhan  
 Kazakh National Academy of choreography  
 Uly Dala Avenue 9, Nur-Sultan city  
 Kazakhstan

Tursunai Ibragimova  
 Kyrgyz State University named after I. Arabayev  
 street Razzakova 51, Bishkek  
 Kyrgyzstan

Roza Kasymova  
 al Farabi Kazakh National University,  
 Temiryazeva street 71, Almaty city,  
 Kazakhstan  
 nurbeklunara@mail.ru

## Positive evaluative speech acts from the perspective of sincerity criterion

Natalia Bigunova – Chen Shaoxiong – Ievgenii N. Stepanov

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.17

### Abstract

The purpose of the article is to analyse the positive evaluative speech acts from the perspective of sincerity criterion. The data has been collected from English literary fictional discourse and feature film discourse. The data includes 1400 literary discourse episodes and 700 film discourse episodes in which personages express positive evaluation of certain objects. According to the results of the research, sincerity should be regarded as a paradigm condition for the felicity of evaluative speech acts. The authors arrive at a conclusion that production of an evaluation speech act may be characterized by a certain gap between an evaluative cognitive judgement and an evaluative utterance. The absence of such a gap is declarative of a sincere speech act. If the gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a positive evaluative utterance, the evaluative speech act is considered insincere. The research has shown that a positive evaluative utterance can be caused by the etiquette requirements, by a direct demand on the part of the interlocutor, or by the speaker's manipulative intentions, in which cases the speaker's degree of sincerity can be questioned. Thus, sincerity of evaluative utterances has been defined as an oppositely structured continuum, within which evaluative utterances are located beginning with utterly sincere ones up to those utterly insincere. The utterances that are in non-final points of the scale are considered indefinite according to their degree of sincerity: the reader / viewer can interpret them as more or less sincere judging by the extralinguistic context.

**Key words:** evaluation, speech act, sincerity, approval, praise, compliment, flattery

---

### Introduction

In recent years, the key purpose of linguistic studies in the field of pragmatics has been identifying the speaker's intentions in a communicative exchange. Quite often, for different reasons, speakers tend to hide their real intentions; sometimes what they say is not what they think: this is where the criterion of sincerity comes to the foreground.

This paper approaches the criterion of sincerity in the context of positive evaluation. According to A. Prihodko, "an evaluative utterance may not reflect fully the entire process of communication and can only represent a definite single step of participants of this communication, which is aimed at achieving a certain (predetermined) target" (Prihodko, 2016: 277).

The sincerity of evaluative utterances has not been among the priorities in linguistics so far, however, the concept of sincerity itself has provoked the interest of a number of American, Australian, Belgium, British, Swedish, Russian and Ukrainian linguists (Trilling, 1972; Searle and Vanderveken, 1985; Plotnikova, 2000; Goddard, 2001; Morozova, 2015; Stokke, 2014; Marsili, 2014; Kivenko, 2015).

It is noteworthy that in real communication sincerity criterion is not evident to the observer. Only the speaker knows whether his / her utterance is sincere or insincere, while the addressee, as well as a researcher, can only guess how sincere the speaker is. However, in the reproduced discourse, such as literary fictional discourse, sincerity criterion is explicit in the author's speech, describing the personages' non-verbal behavior, as well as in the personages' inner speech. In feature film discourse sincerity criterion becomes explicit by means of the personages' non-verbal behavior

and the off-screen voice. Thus, it stands to reason that literary and film discourses have become the data resource for the present research, focused on the sincerity criterion manifestation in evaluative speech.

Therefore, the *object* of the investigation is the evaluative speech of the personages of English literary fictional discourse and English feature film discourse.

The *subject* of the study includes the sincerity criterion manifestation in personages' evaluative speech.

The main *purpose* of the paper is to analyse the positive evaluative speech acts from the perspective of sincerity criterion.

To achieve the purpose of the study the following *tasks* have been resolved:

- to provide a positive evaluative taxonomy of approval, praise, compliment, and flattery speech acts;
- to define the concept of sincerity;
- to apply the sincerity criterion to positive evaluative speech acts, produced by the literary and film discourse personages;
- to establish the reasons for sincerity degree variation;
- to classify the markers of sincerity / insincerity in English literary fictional discourse and English feature film discourse.

**Material and Methods.** The *material* under analysis is presented by 1400 speech episodes taken from English literary fictional discourse in which personages express their positive evaluation of certain objects. Another data set includes 700 episodes taken from English feature film discourse in which film personages express positive evaluation of certain objects.

The linguistic analysis of the selected data has been based on the application of the following *general scientific methods*: the method of synthesis and analysis that promoted the holistic research of the literary discourse; the method of observation that enabled finding out the peculiar characteristics of the investigated data; the descriptive method that was helpful to identify variant and invariant characteristics of the investigated data, and *specific linguistic methods*: the contextual-interpretational method used to identify the pragmatic properties of evaluation speech production, as well as the component analysis used to establish how sincere the speaker is in each communicative situation of positive evaluation production.

## Research

### 1. The positive evaluative speech act taxonomy

In the conception that N. Bigunova has been working out approval, praise, compliment, and flattery are incorporated in a taxonomy of positive evaluative speech acts whose major illocutionary aim is to express positive evaluation of certain people, things, state of affairs, ideas; while their common perlocutionary aim is to persuade the addressee to agree to the speaker's judgement (Bigunova, 2017; Bigunova, 2018).

Prior to concentrating on the sincerity factor in relation to these speech acts, it seems reasonable to provide their definitions. *Approval* is considered a positive evaluative expressive syncretic speech act, its evaluation object being inanimate things, ideas, phenomena that do not refer to the addressee's sphere of interests. The latter fact makes approval different from the other evaluative speech acts. Another difference lies in the fact that approval's recipient and its evaluation object never overlap. Approval evaluation theme is that feature of the evaluated objects, which attracts the addresser's attention. These features are determined by the speaker's evaluative stereotypes and presuppositions. Approval speech act illocutionary aims have been defined as 1) the intention to express the speaker's emotional state by referring to the object's features as being adequate/good, 2) the intention to establish contact with the interlocutor and to make a positive emotional impact on them, 3) the intention to mitigate refusal or criticism and thus save the interlocutor's face, 4) the intention to change an undesirable topic and thus save the speaker's own

face (Bigunova, 2017).

We consider *praise* a positive evaluative expressive syncretic speech act, its evaluation theme being the moral and intellectual traits, skills and actions of the interlocutor or a person who is not present during a speech exchange but is praised by the speaker. If praise is aimed at the interlocutor's traits or actions, its recipient and evaluation object overlap. If the person whose traits or actions are praised is not present at the moment of speech, the speech act recipient and the evaluation object are different. It must be taken into account that in the latter case a third person's *appearance* can also serve an evaluation theme. It would be unwise to assume that positive evaluation of the third person's appearance can be defined as a compliment. The illocutionary aims pursued by praise speech act addressers are largely determined by the fact whether the interlocutor and the object of praise are one and the same person. If they are, the illocutionary aims of praise speech act are 1) the intention to qualify the evaluation object's actions or features as being adequate/good and 2) the intention to comfort and reassure the recipient, who is the object of evaluation, as well as to "save his/her face". If the speaker praises a person who is not present at the moment of speech and thus the interlocutor is the recipient of a message, but not an object of praise, praise is still aimed at qualifying the evaluation object's actions or features as being adequate/good, but it also involves 3) the intention to defend the third person, who is the object of evaluation, from the interlocutor's negative evaluative statements.

*Compliment* is seen as a positive evaluative expressive syncretic speech act, characteristic of the addressee and the evaluation object overlapping. The main fact about compliment is that it is always exaggerated, which is presupposed by the speaker's main intention: he/she wishes to please the recipient by means of positive evaluation of his/her appearance or accomplishments. The theme of evaluation in a compliment speech act is the hearer's appearance, possessions, and accomplishments. The illocutionary aims of compliment speech acts are the following: 1) the intention to show the hearer kindness, to do them a courtesy or to reassure them, which is caused by politeness strategies or a wish to maintain good interpersonal relationships with them, 2) the intention to express the speaker's emotional state by qualifying the evaluation object's features as being adequate/good (the object of evaluation being the interlocutor or the people who are close to him/her), 3) the intention to express gratitude to the addressee for their actions, and 4) the intention to comfort and reassure the object of evaluation, "save his/her face".

*Flattery* is considered a pseudosincere positive evaluative manipulative expressive syncretic speech act, characterized by forethought, by a certain strategy, and also, by its addressee and evaluation object being the same person. Flattery evaluation themes are the addressee's appearance, their moral and intellectual traits, skills, accomplishments, and actions. The speaker flatters the addressee not being motivated by some feelings but wishing to gain some benefit. The illocutionary aims pursued by flattery speech act addressers who admit to their status or role dependence upon the addressee are the following: 1) the pseudosincere intention to please the addressee, to improve their emotional state by qualifying their own (or their relatives') traits or actions as being good, 2) the intention to persuade the addressee of the addresser's sincerity, 3) the latent intention to gain benefit, material or immaterial, 4) the latent intention to encourage the addressee to do things that are beneficial for the addresser (Bigunova, 2017).

As for flattery, its insincere character is obvious. On the other hand, most linguists claim that praise speech act is invariably sincere, while compliment is said to have etiquette character and therefore its relationship with the criterion of sincerity is open to question. Approval, which does not refer to the addressee's sphere of interests, must, on the surface, be quite sincere, but what about speech situations where it is used to mitigate criticism or refusal? Thus, the sincerity status of positive evaluative

speech acts should be reconsidered. There is a clear need to probe more deeply into this area by examining various types of speech exchange in fictional discourse, which allows the researcher to see beyond the words, to penetrate into the speakers' inner world, to come to know their genuine intentions, which, in fact, are contrived to imitate real-life interaction.

## **2. The concept of sincerity**

In the framework of modern anthropocentric scientific paradigm the theory of speech acts based on the ideas of Grice, Searle, Austin and others occupies its own niche. One of the criteria applied in Speech Act Theory is *sincerity criterion*. It was introduced by J.L. Austin who claimed that effectiveness of a speech act is achieved if it fulfills certain felicity conditions. One of these conditions is speaker's sincerity which specifies that the communicants must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions, as specified in the procedure. If the sincerity condition is violated, that is a case of what Austin calls an 'abuse' (Austin, 1962).

J. Searle and D. Vanderveken state that a speech act is sincere only if the speaker is in the psychological state that her speech act expresses (Searle, 1985).

One cannot but agree with L. Trilling who says that "sincere refers primarily to a congruence between avowal and actual feeling. The essence of sincerity lies in the avoidance of being false to any man through being true to one's own self" (Trilling, 1972: 5).

The concept of sincerity has also been analysed by C. Goddard, who points out that "most dictionary definitions focus exclusively on the component "I say it as I think" inherent in the meaning of sincerity, without mentioning that people only speak of sincerity in relation to speech acts which are seen in a positive light" (Goddard, 2001: 669).

S. Plotnikova interprets insincerity as a discourse strategy of a language personality (of which the latter is fully aware), based on the expression of peculiar personality content, the essence of which involves the replacement of true propositions with the false ones. The scholar points to a gap between the speaker's knowledge and the knowledge output. "The speaker takes control of the truth, hiding it, measuring it and carrying out other manipulations" (Plotnikova, 2000: 52).

It seems advantageous to compare the concept of insincerity to the concept of lying. According to the standard philosophical definition of lying, the crucial condition is an intention to deceive, as it is, for instance, in J.E. Mahon's definition: "lying is to make a believed-false statement to another person with the intention that that other person believes that statement to be true" (Mahon, 2008: 227). But while lying very often does involve an intention to deceive, several philosophers (Carson, 2006; Sorensen, 2007; Fallis, 2012; Marsili, 2014; Morozova, 2015) have argued that an intention to deceive is not a necessary condition on lying. They no longer believe that insincerity condition requires that the speaker believes his /her statement to be false. Consequently, a person who lies is not necessarily insincere: he/she may have wrong presuppositions or wrong background knowledge. On the other hand, A. Stokke suggests that an utterance is insincere if and only if it communicates a piece of information that does not correspond to the speaker's conscious attitudes (Stokke, 2014: 297). Therefore, an insincere utterance always implies conscientious lying.

The cognitive content of a deceitful utterance is determined by a communicative situation, which can be objective, correlating with the outward for the communicants' surroundings, or subjective, characterizing the speaker's inner world (Morozova, 2015).

## **3. Sincerity of positive evaluative utterances**

### **3.1. Sincerity of evaluative utterances as an oppositely structured continuum.**

In this section we address two interrelated issues: first, the status of the notion of sincerity and second, the relationship between sincerity and non-verbal behavior of the speaker.

The observations upon the research data have been helpful to find out that an evaluative speech act production can be characterized by a certain gap formed between a speaker's evaluative cognitive judgement and a corresponding evaluative utterance. If there is no such gap, an evaluative utterance should be treated as a sincere speech act. If such a gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a sincere speech act. If such a gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a sincere speech act. If such a gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a sincere speech act. If such a gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a sincere speech act. As R.L. Bezugla rightly points out, the speaker has a hidden perlocutionary goal of deceiving the recipient displaying itself in his intention to set the utterance in a form that isn't different from a sincere one (Bezugla 2015: 30).

In our view, this hidden perlocutionary goal of the speaker does not always imply manipulation or hypocrisy but can be caused by etiquette regulations (when the speaker tries to be polite and co-operative) or the "addressee-to-be" himself forces an evaluative speech act directed at his/her features (by asking the interlocutor directly "Do I look nice?"). As A. Pease and B. Pease put it, lying is the oil that greases our interactions with others and lets us maintain friendly social relationships (Pease & Pease, 2006).

In fictional literary discourse, according to the author's conception, the personages can express insincere positive evaluation of a certain object in order to save their own or the addressee's "face" or a third person's "face"; they may be trying to avoid a conflict or an undesirable topic; they may be trying to manipulate the addressee in their own interests.

Our idea is that sincerity of evaluative utterances should not be perceived as dichotomous value (yes/no), it should be regarded as an oppositely structured continuum, within which evaluative utterances can be presented beginning with utterly sincere ones up to utterly insincere, false, deceitful ones. The utterances that are in non-final points of the scale are indefinite according to their degree of sincerity: the reader/viewer can interpret them as more or less sincere judging by the extralinguistic context.

As O. Dmytruk believes, the speakers' non-verbal behavior is suggestive not only of their emotional state and the degree of closeness to other characters, but it also informs the viewer about the degree of sincerity of what they are saying, and can identify any possible attempts to manipulate other characters' behavior (Dmytruk, 2018: 199).

In literary discourse the sincerity factor can be analysed judging by the verbal context of a discourse: the comparison of a character's utterance to their inner speech and their non-verbal behavior description (Stepanov, Trần Thị Xuyên, 2017).

In film discourse a viewer cannot rely on the author's description, in most films characters' inner speech is not voiced. Here the key for analysis is the characters' non-verbal behavior. Language and gesture units interact with the film context. In a communicative situation face expression of film personages, gestures and body movements can play the crucial part in explicating the speakers' aims, communicative presuppositions, and sincerity factor manifestation.

When film personages express insincere positive evaluation, they use the face expression and gestures that psychologists have defined as insincere. For instance, it's common knowledge that one of the insincerity signs is shifty eyes. According to A. Pease and B. Pease's theory, attempts to deceive the addressee are often accompanied by the following "lying gestures": covering the mouth with the hand, touching one's nose, rubbing the eyes and the area below the nose, giving a split-second frown before answering (Pease & Pease, 2006). These gestures are widely used by movie actors to portray insincerity.

On the other hand, the non-verbal markers of sincere positive evaluation are certain face expressions (bright eyes, beaming face), voice transformations (lowering the voice, cracking of the voice) and bodily movements (jumping, hugging, kissing, and gentle touching of the addressee). Let us follow them up in the non-verbal behavior of discourse personages that express approval, praise, compliment and flattery.

### 3.2. Sincerity of approval speech act.

If the speaker's intention is to express his/her emotional state by referring to things, ideas, natural phenomena as being adequate/good, such approving act should be considered sincere. Here is an example of an approval speech act, in which approval is produced on meeting a person (Dana). The sincerity of approval becomes obvious to the discourse reader due to the non-verbal markers, namely facial expression of the speaker, described by the author (*His face lit up*):

*His face lit up when he saw Dana.*

*"Miss Evans! I'm so pleased to see you"* (Sheldon, 2012b:74).

After her guests leave, Agatha expresses approval of two objects: the party she has had and the very idea of being back home after a journey. Her sincerity becomes explicit by means of the author's description of her face as "radiant".

*It was late when they all left with the exception of Mrs. Bloxby. "What a home coming!" said Agatha, her face radiant. "It's so good to be back"* (Beaton, 1997: 2050).

When approval is caused by such illocutionary aims as the intention to establish contact with the interlocutor, to mitigate refusal / criticism, or to change an undesirable topic, the sincerity of the speaker is lowered.

In order to "save their face" speakers often opt to "put on a mask" and express feelings they may not actually experience: understanding, solidarity, support, as it is in a speech episode, in which Agatha, a middle aged lady, who has set her cap at a new handsome neighbour, Paul, is shocked to know that he is married and his wife is very attractive and twice as young as she is. To "save her own face" Agatha has to role-play joy on meeting Juanita:

*"Agatha, my wife, Juanita. Darling, this is my neighbour, Agatha Raisin."*

*"How nice to meet you," said Agatha with a crocodile smile. Juanita was young, possibly in her early thirties, and that was young to the likes of Agatha Raisin. Her golden skin glowed with health and her wide brown eyes were fringed with thick lashes. The only consolation – and it wasn't much – that Agatha could notice was that her long black hair was thick and coarse* (Beaton, 2009: 25).

As the provided example shows, the form in which approval is framed is not different from sincere approving utterances, but the personage's thoughts provided by the author point to the insincerity of the voiced approval. The only flaw in Juanita's appearance, which is a consolation for Agatha, is her coarse hair. The non-verbal sign of insincerity is Agatha's «crocodile smile», known as a false one.

To illustrate one more approving utterance which is characterized by insincerity here is a speech situation from another novel of the series with Agatha Raisin:

*"Where are we going?" asked Agatha.*

*"The Marsh Goose in Moreton."*

*"Nice," said Agatha but reflected gloomily that there was no smoking except in the coffee lounge* (Beaton, 2009b: 31).

In the example above Agatha is invited to a pub. She does not want to sound picky or nagging, i.e. she tries "to save her face", so she expresses approval (*Nice*), but her thoughts (provided by the author) reveal the discrepancy between the evaluative judgement (which is negative) and evaluative utterance (which is positive). Thus, the approval speech act should be considered insincere.

In the film *He's just not that into you* the bar owner Alex (Justin Long) had a brief fling with his employee Kelli Ann (Busy Philipps). The following day she comes into his study and shyly offers to go out together. The viewer knows from the film context that Alex is not in love with Kelli Ann. Moreover, he is beginning to fall in love with another girl. But being a polite person, he approves the time they spent together before refusing her offer. The insincerity of the approval is obvious due to the contextual clues and the non-verbal markers: Alex's eyes shift, he nods his head too fervently and his hands keep tugging things on the table which unveils his nervousness and unease:

- *So I was thinking.....after work we could.... You know....*
- *Look, Kelli Ann, **what happened between us the other night was fun. It was definitely fun.** But we're way understaffed tonight. I even have to man the bar. So that's why I scheduled you. To work. So....* (He's just not that into you, 2009).

It should be mentioned that if an evaluative positive utterance has an ironical or sarcastic character, its exact degree of sincerity can be hard to pinpoint: the reader or viewer can interpret such utterances as more or less sincere judging by the extralinguistic context. Here is a situation from the literary discourse, in which a speaker who expresses approval of the household seems to be, at first glance, quite sincere but irony accompanying the voicing of approval disables the researcher to label it as utterly sincere. A better option would be to position it in some non-final point on the sincerity continuum:

*"Like Buckingham Palace," said one woman who had been called to arrange flowers for some family occasion. "Only rather better. I think that the Queen lives a bit more simply than those people in there"* (Smith, 2010: 93).

The following film discourse situation involves two swindlers, a mother and a daughter, discussing their last fraud. Being asked about her wedding ceremony, the mother qualifies it as a beautiful one, ironically adding "Like all my weddings", which reminds the viewer that she has already had quite a lot of weddings in order to cheat men out of money:

- *How was the wedding?*
- *Beautiful. Like all my weddings* (Heartbreakers, 2001).

Thus, the film context, the reference to the viewer's background knowledge of the situation, and the non-verbal behavior of the speaker (she looks dreamingly into the distance, smiling cunningly) unveil the ironical colouring of the approval, which makes it less sincere. Beauty is not the quality that both the personages value, they are oriented towards the success of the fraud.

### 3.2. Sincerity of praise speech act.

As far as praise speech act is concerned, most linguists share the opinion that it is predominantly sincere. As A. Wierzbicka puts it, "rather than the speaker's wish to please the addressee or express an opinion, praising seems to have the expression of a positive judgement as its illocutionary purpose" (Wierzbicka, 1987: 199). Russian and Ukrainian linguists define praise as a manifestation of *sincere*, disinterested positive evaluation of actions, character traits of the hearer or other people, known both to the speaker and the hearer (Leontiev, 2006; Klochko, 2003).

It goes without saying, that both literary and film discourse are characterized by a large number of communicative situations, in which praise expressed by the personages is sincere, as it is observed in the following typical example:

*"You have emergency rose petals?" I say in disbelief.*

*"Sweetheart, I have every eventuality covered." She twinkles at me. "This is why you hire a wedding planner!"*

*"Robin," I say honestly. "I think you're worth every penny." I put an arm round her and give her a kiss (Kinsella, 2009: 395).*

In the example above the sincerity of the speaker, a girl about to be married, who is praising her wedding planner, becomes explicit due to the author's description of the speaker's attitude (*honestly*) and the description of the speaker's non-verbal behaviour (*put an arm round her and give her a kiss*).

The sincerity of praise can be reinforced by the author's description of voice transformations that show the emotion of the speaker, such as lowering the voice, cracking of the voice, which can be observed in the episode where mother praises her son for being better with his autistic sister Natalie than she is:

*"Maybe I should stay home." She tugs her glove off.*

*I hold my breath. I want my mom to stay home in the worst way. What if something goes wrong? "Would you?" I ask.*

*She shakes her head. "You're better with Natalie than I am." Her voice cracks. She doesn't look at me.*

*"I am?"*

*She nods, staring at the clasp of her purse [Choldenko 180]*

In the film *The Angriest Man in Brooklyn* Henry (Robin Williams) comes to know that he is seriously ill and will die in ninety minutes. He starts to reappraise his life. Henry finds his son Tommy (Hamish Linklater) sitting alone in one of the dance studios. The two begin to dance, just like when Tommy was a little boy. At this moment Henry praises his son's dancing:

*You're good. You should do this for a living* (The Angriest Man in Brooklyn, 2014).

We interpret this praise speech act as absolutely sincere because Henry is crying and hugging his son when he is saying that.

Nevertheless, it would be unwise to ignore the speech episodes in which the sincerity of praise can be doubted: our observations upon literary and film praising contexts show that the degree of sincerity can vary. As J. Searle rightfully states, expressive speech acts (to which group praise belongs) are oriented towards social rituals and are expressed by certain formulae (Searle, 1976: 12). Thus, praising utterances like "Great!", "Fantastic!" in many communicative situations should be regarded as etiquette formulae serving contact establishing function; therefore, such utterances shouldn't be interpreted as entirely sincere. This Searle's thesis can be followed in a literary discourse communicative situation, in which praise is formal and is used to support a speech contact:

*"You're so sweet to me, Barley," said Doris, thinking of other things (Weldon, 2011: 39).*

The author's description of the speaker's thoughts (*thinking of other things*) reveals the praise lowest degree of sincerity.

Moreover, praising cannot be perceived as absolutely sincere, when it comes to children. As A. Wierzbicka justfully observed, parents frequently praise children for doing something which hardly deserves praise. "We would actually be praising the effort rather than the result" (Wierzbicka, 2004: 258). It can be observed in a communicative situation below, where praise of the children's relatives for their performance precedes some cautious criticism (*Couldn't hear a word of it, though perhaps you'll let Grandmamma help with the selection next year*). One of the characters, Hannah's father, being asked about his opinion, cannot contrive an appropriate praise and (feeling guilty) avoids looking at his mother:

*At that moment the door opened and Hannah, Emmeline and David spilled into the room, faces still lit with exhilaration. The girls had changed from their costumes and were back in matching white dresses with sailor collars.*

*'Jolly good show,' Lord Ashbury said. 'Couldn't hear a word of it, but jolly good show.'*

*'Well done, children,' Lady Violet said. 'Though perhaps you'll let Grandmamma help with the selection next year?'*

*'And you, Pa?'* said Hannah eagerly. *'Did you enjoy the play?'*

Mr. Frederick avoided his mother's gaze. *'We'll discuss the more creative parts later, eh?'* (Morton, 2015: 126).

On the whole, praising children involves manipulating. Manipulation in discourse is seen as "intentional deception of one's addressees by persuading them of something that is foremost in one's own interest through the covert use of communicative devices that are not in agreement with generally acknowledged critical standards of reasonableness" (Dmytruk, 2018: 194). Praising children is a form of manipulation because parents and teachers want them to behave in a certain way on all the future occasions, as it is in the episode with Miss Temple, Jane's teacher:

*"I have been wrongly accused; and you, ma'am, and everybody else, will now think me wicked."*

*"We shall think you what you prove yourself to be, my child. Continue to act as a good girl, and you will satisfy us"* (Bronte, 2006: 49).

Furthermore, the application of the contextual-interpretational method to the research data has been helpful to identify the reasons for praise insincerity. First of all, praise can serve as a "face-saving" tactics, when the speaker wishes to hide his negative attitude, to encourage the addressee. Here is a literary episode to illustrate the speaker's desire to "save the addressee's face" (in this case the "hairdresser's face"):

*She suffered dismally under the ministrations of the energetic Garry. He had been bad enough before, but now he was worse. She looked sadly at her bouffant hair-style.*

*"Very nice," she said bleakly. She tipped him again, paid Josie and went out into the High Street* (Beaton, 2009b: 31).

The fact that the speaker's cognitive evaluative judgement (negative) does not check with the evaluative praising utterance (positive) and thus lacks sincerity is obvious due to author's description of the speaker's thoughts (*suffered dismally, he was worse*) and her non-verbal behavior (*said bleakly*).

In another speech situation a teenager praises his friends' musical performance, but his thoughts (*when Piper opens her mouth, it's scary*), the author's description of the effort he makes (*to pretend I really liked their performance*) and his false smile (*trying hard to smile sincerely*) testify the speaker's complete insincerity.

*Annie sits at the piano, waiting for her cue. She is an able piano player and she can sing okay. But when Piper opens her mouth, it's scary. Pretty as she is, her singing sounds like the noise the can opener makes. My mom grinds her teeth and pinches her hand every time Piper tries for a note. It isn't just the high notes she misses either.*

*When Annie and Piper are finished and they've taken their bows to resounding applause by everyone except my mother, I head outside the front door to wait for them. All I'm thinking about right now is how to pretend I really liked their performance.*

*"How were we?" Piper asks when she and Annie finally make it outside, giddy and flushed from all the attention.*

*"Great," I tell them, trying hard to smile sincerely, "just great"* (Choldenko, 2006: 130).

So far our considerations touched upon praise directed towards the interlocutor. As far as praise of a third person is concerned, we claim that it is predominantly sincere. If a third person's qualities are discussed, there seem to be no point for the speaker to give insincere opinion of him/her (unless he/she has some special pragmatic reasons). If the speaker opts for praising a third person, the praise is

usually sincere, as it is when an old lady talks about her late husband, or when Claire talks about her friend:

- 1) *"It sounds strange but he was a marvelous husband in so many ways, such good company, loyal as anything and he gave me a wonderful life." She smiles gently. "That counts for a lot"* (Williams, 2010: 304)
- 2) *"You have to know him," Claire went on. "He's a good man. I'd trust him with my life."*

*Loren nodded and then looked at Erik* (Coben, 2007: 117);

The third person might become an object of praise if the speaker considers him/her an ideal in a certain sphere and wants the interlocutor to follow his/her mode of behavior, which, without a doubt, presupposes genuine, sincere positive evaluation of a third person's traits or actions. Here is an example to illustrate:

*"I talked to your middle brother just the other day."*

*"Willie."*

*"He's a fine fellow - very active in Jewish life, too," said Sandor. "Not like that macher, Alexander. Always some scandal about him"* (Bellow, 2012: 75).

Next we turn to the intention of praising a third person in order to "save his/her face", to defend him/her from the interlocutor's negative evaluative statements, which also implies sincere positive evaluation of a third person's traits or actions, as can be observed in the following speech exchange:

*Caroline was watching Cressida critically.*

*"She thinks she's in bloody Wimbledon or something," she said disparagingly. "Very funny. Just look at her," she persisted, watching as Cressida neatly put away a backhand volley. "Thinks she's a bloody pro."*

*"She's got a nice technique," said Patrick. "We could all learn from her"* (Wickham, 1996: 82).

However, sincere praise of a third person can be caused not by the intention to express the speaker's emotional state by referring to the object's features as being, but by an intention to hurt the interlocutor, to mock or reproach him/her, as he/she does not possess the praised qualities. Whether praising as a manipulation tactics can involve sincere positive evaluation process or not is open to question. Let us provide an example of praising a person in order to hurt the interlocutor: Rona praises Lucinda to hurt Sadie, who is extremely jealous of her husband and Lucinda:

*"She's a knockout, isn't she? What a figure. And she was surprisingly good on telly, I must say. Not just a pretty face. Talking about how she teaches people how to leave bad marriages." She glances at me. "Very interesting."* (Williams, 2010: 240).

Thus, it has been argued that praise is an invariably sincere positive evaluative act. It is to be noticed that praise can be formal and used to support a speech contact. Furthermore, it can be a means of manipulation.

### 3.3. Sincerity of compliment speech act.

As for compliments, they are generally intended to do the addressee a favour. A. Wierzbicka remarks that compliments are usually intended to make others feel good and are performed for maintaining good interpersonal relationships (Wierzbicka, 2004). N. Wolfson, too, notes that they serve as "social lubricants" (Wolfson, 1983: 89). Similarly, A. Henderson views complimenting as part of the "social negotiation" of relationships (Henderson, 1996: 195).

Therefore, compliments are considered to have etiquette character. They are rather conventional: there are quite a number of communicative situations which demand compliment production. If the speaker ignores such demands, he/she might be considered impolite or rude.

Trying to meet etiquette requirements and create a positive atmosphere for further communication does not require true sincerity; the speaker may use politeness as a mask, which might conceal a different attitude (Zvereva, 2013; Formanovskaya, 1993).

It should be mentioned that even if the speaker truly admires the addressee's qualities, exaggeration, which is usually present in compliment structure, does not allow to label this speech act as utterly sincere:

*"Mr. Harlency, this is the best tea I've ever had and this is the most beautiful room in the whole world"* (Mackay, 1995: 15).

However, N. V. Korobova and N. A. Tsybina claim that in English language culture sincere compliments are quite typical: in this case the addressee desires to verbalize positive evaluation without being nudged by some outer incentive. If an insincere compliment is produced, evaluation is conventional and does not reflect the speaker's emotional state, which can vary from impassionate attitude to negative evaluation (Korobova, Tsybina, 2018). This thesis leads to the acknowledgement of the fact that only the analysis of a compliment speech situation, the communicants' relationship, their social and situational statuses and roles can help to identify the degree of sincerity of the speaker. In fact, this view can be applied to approval and praise speech acts as well.

Therefore, a gap between an evaluative cognitive judgement and an evaluative utterance can be observed in compliment speech production, too. Compliment speech act can be qualified as utterly sincere (if there is no such gap), or there might be gradation (partially or utterly insincere compliments). In the provided below episode Ken's compliment to Kat's appearance appears to be sincere, which is made clear by the author's words (*he said admiringly*):

*When Ken Mallory picked Kat up Saturday night, she had on a low-cut dress that accentuated her voluptuous figure.*

*"You look gorgeous," he said admiringly* (Sheldon, 2012a: 79).

In the literary discourse sincerity of a compliment is usually highlighted by the author's description of the speaker's non-verbal behavior (*bright eyes, tears in the eyes, clapping hands*), as it is the following examples:

1) *"Oh," she said to James, turning bright eyes on him. "James Mallow! I love your pieces. I agree with every word you say."* (Trollope, 1992: 156).

2) *"You look completely, heartbreakingly beautiful, sis." My eyes fill. "Look, you're making me go all sappy." Georgia beams. She knows it takes a lot for me to go all sappy.* (Williams, 2008: 95);

3) *Enid claps her hands. "Girls! Goodness, look at you all. What marvelous frocks! Do come in, make yourselves at home."* (Williams, 2010: 306).

The degree of sincerity of a compliment reaches the highest point in the sincerity continuum when a compliment is combined with admiration. In such a case the author's words following a compliment have the verb *admire* and its derivatives *admiration, admiringly*, for instance:

1) *"In fact it was made for Mme de Pompadour."*

*"How amazing!" They stood and admired the bulbous, oddly diminutive desk-kingwood, was it?-with fronds of ormolu.* (Hollinghurst, 2005: 44)

2) *"I suppose you're used to lovely food like this all the time," continued Valerie. She gazed at Cressida admiringly. "But you've got such a good figure. I expect you always eat a little of everything, to be polite."* (Wickham, 1996: 92);

3) *"This is a very nice house. So big, so beautiful..." She gestured admiringly* (Wickham, 1996: 70).

The intention of a compliment addresser does not always imply improving the addressee's emotional state, it may shrink to voicing a few utterances presupposed by the etiquette requirements, as it is in the following example:

*"Annie!" She walks across the office, bottom out, nose forward, head moving ever so lightly backwards and forwards like a peahen. She air-kisses me. "You look great!"*

"Thanks," I say warmly. **Compliments** on one's physical appearance are the conversational means of greeting here. I have learned not to take it personally (Williams, 2008: 42).

The provided example unveils a wide-spread attitude to compliments at work: they are perceived as *conversational means of greeting*. Complimentees do not reflect over their sincerity.

As well as in real life, in fictional discourse it is sometimes difficult to differentiate between a sincere and a formal compliment. The reader or the viewer relies on the contextual clues. However, even in case a compliment is preordained by the etiquette, for example, when a guest is leaving a house, the compliment addresser may be quite sincere:

"Thank you," I said before she could disappear, "**for showing me your beautiful home**" (Morton, 2010: 109).

In the situation above Edith's gratitude and compliment are sincere, which is clear to the reader judging by the context: the description of Edith's inner speech during the visit unveils her attitude.

Let us address the so-called "forced" compliments. If a compliment is a response to a question, it is forced and its sincerity can be argued, as it is in the situation when Mrs. Forsyth is asked about her impression of the meringues the host has cooked:

"Now, Mrs. Forsyth, what did you think of my meringues?"

"**So you did make them yourself – they were delicious**" (Pym, 2009: 121).

In such a case the context seems to be the only key. The reader knows from the previous episode (when the meringues were eaten), which contained the description of Mrs. Forsyth's sensations while eating them that she really liked them. So her compliment addressed to Bason, despite of being "forced", should be interpreted as sincere.

The following example demonstrates a situation in which a "forced" compliment is insincere: the daughter does not want to upset her mother who applied too much blusher. Instead of saying it directly, she expresses a compliment, meanwhile wiping her mother's cheeks with a tissue:

"How do I look?" she says with a little laugh. "Smart enough for Claridges?"

"**You look lovely, Mum! That colour really suits you. Let me just...**"

I reach for a tissue, dampen it under the tap and wipe at her cheeks where she's copied Janice's badger-look approach to blusher. "There. Perfect" (Kinsella, 2009: 71).

When Robin shows Agatha his self-portrait, the only possible polite response in a harmonious communication should be complimenting him, which is what Agatha does – in this way his "face" is safe. The insincerity of the compliment becomes highlighted by the author's comment (*lied Agatha*):

"A self-portrait," murmured Robin Barley, spreading her long fingers in a deprecating gesture. "A poor thing but mine own."

"**Looks great to me,**" lied Agatha (Beaton, 2009a: 108).

On the whole, a compliment as a responsive move is often intended as a "face-saving" means. An example below illustrates another forced compliment, which is obviously insincere (*with true Highland politeness*):

Then Eileen broke off singing and asked suddenly, "What do you think of my hair?"

"**Very nice,**" said Ailsa with true Highland politeness.

"I hate it, hate it," said Eileen passionately. "I hate being dumpy, and I hate having grey hair."

"Then that is easily solved," said Ailsa. "We'll drop in at a hairdresser's in Inverness and you can get it done (Beaton, 1998: 75).

Moreover, Ailsa indirectly admits the insincerity of her compliment by offering to take Eileen to a hairdresser to have her hair dyed.

But another example is less transparent:

*Saturday, Paige managed to get to a beauty salon. She went shopping and splurged on a new dress.*

*"Do I look all right? Do you think he'll like it?"*

*"**You look sensational!**" Honey assured her. "I hope he deserves you."* (Sheldon, 2012a: 30).

The sincerity of the speaker in the provided speech exchange is not evident, the compliment addressee (Honey) is motivated by the intention to reassure Paige and the reader knows her sincerely good attitude to her but whether the dress really suited Paige or not remains unclear.

Compliment addresser's sincerity is argumentative when a compliment is preordained by the etiquette. Moreover, when speakers do not want the addressee to treat their compliment as an etiquette formula, or in order to prove the compliment sincerity, they may recede from it. Phrases like "that's not a compliment", "honestly", "it's true" precede or follow a compliment as an attempt to mitigate a possible distrustful response of the addressee. To illustrate this point, here is a speech episode, which takes place at a party thrown by a film director. Annie, one of the guests, compliments Ig, the director, and David, the producer, on their film. She uses the intensifier *honestly* to highlight the compliment sincerity:

*"Well done, Ig. You and Dave have done brilliantly. I love Hatch. If I hadn't known David since he had braces and a Blue Peter badge collection, I would honestly be starstruck."* Ig laughs (Williams, 2008: 34).

Let us provide an example of insincere compliment speech act from film discourse. The protagonist of the film *Bridget Jones's Diary* Bridget (Renee Zellweger) is a hopeless cook, so when she arranges a party, despite all the effort she takes none of the dishes is a success. Nevertheless, her friends eat the food and express compliments, motivated by the intention to save Bridget's "face":

*Mark: Excellent.*

*Tom: Delicious. Really – special.*

*Mark: It's really – really – very good.*

*Shazzer: Really, it's very nice.*

*(Laughter)*

*Mark: I really have to say this is the most incredible shit.*

*(Laughter)* (Bridget Jones's diary, 2001).

The insincerity of the voiced positive evaluation of the food is obvious due to the non-verbal markers, used by the actors. All the addressers of the compliments to Bridget (Mark – Colin Firth, Tom – James Callis and Shazza – Sally Phillips) eat very slowly, taking evident effort to push each spoon or fork into their mouths. When Tom says how delicious the food is, he swallows a spoonful with exaggerated difficulty which his face expression shows (he pulls grimaces: makes a wry face, winces, wrinkles his nose). The friends make long pauses, seeking for praising words, their heads are lowered, their eyes are shifty, which has been long known as a sign of lying. This kind of non-verbal behavior results in the comedic effect. The episode ends with common laughter and jokes: false compliments have been declassified.

Ironical and sarcastic compliments should be positioned in non-final points on the sincerity continuum. For instance, if a person has pox, he cannot be sincerely considered *devilishly handsome*:

*"I have pox," he says with great seriousness, as if to pre-empt any enquiries.*

*"But you are still devilishly handsome," smiles Enid* (Williams, 2010: 351)

Finally, compliment can by no means be regarded as sincere if it is intended as a means of manipulation. If a positive evaluative utterance directed towards a recipient is contrived at manipulating them in order to get some personal benefit, such an utterance should be interpreted as a flattery speech act.

### 3.4. Sincerity of flattery speech act.

Needless to say, flattery speech act is invariably insincere, as it is intended to encourage the addressee to do things that are beneficial for the addresser, e.g.:

*She said, "You think he did it, too. I can tell you do."*

*"Makes no difference in my pay either way."*

***"Your line of work, you can probably look once in somebody's eyes and know right off if they're lying. Mr. Perrone didn't fool you for a second, I bet."***

*Tool seemed immune to female flattery, a rare trait among men, in Joey's experience. She tried a different approach.*

*"How long have you been a bodyguard?"* (Hiaasen, 2016: 240).

In the episode provided above Rose is keen on getting information from the guard, so she flatters him, which the author's description of her thoughts proves (*female flattery*). Moreover, the very fact that she is following a certain strategy, trying to manipulate Tool, also points to the insincere character of the positive evaluation (*She tried a different approach*).

The implementation of the flattery addresser's intentions requires a very subtle communicative strategy. He / she intends to put the addressee in good mood and to persuade the them that a positive evaluative utterance is sincere, as well as to disguise a flattery as a praise or a compliment.

Reference should be made to A. Pease and B. Pease who differentiate between *white lying* (produced to make others feel comfortable) and *malicious lies* where one person deliberately sets out to deceive another for personal benefit (Pease & Pease, 2006). It is advantageous to view insincerity in the same way, i.e. proceeding from the insincere speaker's motives and intentions. White lying is what approval, praise, and compliment speech act addressers sometimes employ in order to be polite and meet the etiquette requirements, while malicious lying is applied by flattery speech acts addressers.

When the pseudopositive evaluative speech act of flattery is produced, the evaluative utterance does not correspond to the evaluative cognitive judgement. The speaker is guided by his/her own exclusive lucrative inclinations. This discrepancy becomes obvious by means of the author's comment and the personage's inner speech in literary discourse, while in in film discourse the situation is different. Let us dwell on the following example from the film *What women want*:

- *Playing games versus playing--*
- *Sports?*
- *Yes! Thank you.*
- *Do you like any of this?*
- *A lot. I like the idea that you can be yourself on the road.*
- *I do too.*
- *Did I say that out loud? [Stammering]*
- *No, I was just--*
- *'Cause I was circling around the exact same thing,*
- *Which is great, We're on the same--*
- *Yeah.*
- *Sorry, I'm not thinking straight.*
- *My glands may be swollen.*
- *Maybe they should be more swollen. You're doing great. Nike. No games* (What women want, 2000).

Nick Marshall (Mel Gibson) is an advertising executive who has a magic gift to hear women's thoughts. In the provided episode he is listening to his new

female boss's thoughts and ideas, demonstrating understanding, solidarity and singing praises to her (Darcy – Helen Hunt). Judging by the context, the viewer knows that Nick's genuine purpose is to steal Darcy's ideas for a new Nike advertising campaign, so his praising of Darcy's ideas is taken as flattery despite the verbal (*You're doing great*) and non-verbal (devoted and admiring gaze straight into Darcy's eyes) means that are typical for praise.

All in all, it should be said that in film discourse flattery speech act is manifested in the same verbal and non-verbal form that is characteristic of praise or compliment; it is contextual elements that help the viewer to identify the insincere flattery speech act.

## Conclusions

Thus, sincerity should be regarded as a paradigm condition for the felicity of evaluative speech acts.

An evaluation speech act production may be characterized by a certain gap between an evaluative cognitive judgement and an evaluative utterance. The absence of such a gap an utterance is seen as a sincere speech act. If this gap transforms a negative evaluative judgement into a positive evaluative utterance, an insincere evaluative speech act is produced. If a positive evaluative utterance is caused by the etiquette requirements or by a direct demand on the part of the interlocutor, a partially insincere evaluative utterance is produced.

We suggest viewing sincerity of evaluative utterances as *an oppositely structured continuum*, within which evaluative utterances are located beginning with utterly sincere ones up to those utterly insincere. The utterances that are in non-final points of the scale are indefinite according to their degree of sincerity: the reader / viewer can interpret them as more or less sincere judging by the extralinguistic context.

The final negative point in the sincerity continuum is occupied by flattery speech act, the rest of the positive evaluative speech acts can be located in non-final points, being interpreted as more or less sincere judging by the speakers' aims, the communicative situation, described by the author of literary discourse, or shown by the personages' face expression, gestures and body movements in film discourse. With regard to compliment speech act, it should be pointed out that some slight degree of insincerity and exaggeration in its pragmatic structure is determined by its etiquette character which does not provoke negative attitude to a compliment. Praise of an interlocutor might have manipulative character and thus its sincerity should be questioned, while praise of a third person, who is absent at the time of speech interaction, is predominantly sincere.

Pragmatic, paralinguistic and contextual elements determine the degree of intensity of insincerity. The analysis of a speech situation, the communicants' relationship, their social and situational statuses and roles can help to identify the degree of sincerity of the personage who produces positive evaluation.

Literary and film discourse context often signals that the personages' feelings are ambiguous. While the verbal components of the utterance are characterized by positive evaluative character, the context of the situation, the speaker's inner speech and the author's clarification can serve to unveil the speaker's insincerity. The speaker's hidden perlocutionary goal of deceiving the recipient does not necessarily imply manipulation or hypocrisy. The *reasons* that evaluative utterances are not sincere or are less sincere may be varied, ranging from the speaker's desire to be polite, to keep up appearances, to save their own face, or the "face" of the addressee or a third person, to avoid a conflict, to the intention to change an undesirable subject of the conversation or to mitigate refusal or criticism. Moreover, positive evaluation as a means of manipulation suggests that praising children, for example, can hardly be viewed as sincere. Finally, positive evaluation

can be forced by the “addressee-to-be”, when someone asks directly whether he/she has been good at something or looks good, which also prevents the reader from referring such praise or compliment to sincere speech acts.

The *markers of sincerity* of a positive evaluative speech act are woven into the author’s comment. The speaker’s attitude becomes explicit by the adverbs *honestly, sincerely, admiringly, etc.* that modify the verbs “say, tell, ask” and other verbs that describe speaking. The non-verbal markers of sincerity used in the author’s words are verbalized kinemes that name facial expression (bright eyes, lit up, beaming face), voice transformations (lowering the voice, cracking of the voice), gestures and movements of the speaker (jumping, hugging, kissing, touching of the addressee) that reveal his/her positive emotional state. The *markers of insincerity* of a positive evaluative speech act are the verbs *lie, pretend* following the personage’s direct speech, as well as the noun *flattery*; the adverbs of negative emotional colouring, such as *dismally, bleakly, gloomily, etc.* that modify the verbs “say, tell, ask” in the author’s words following the positive evaluative utterance. The non-verbal markers of insincerity are the author’s description of the speaker’s smile as *false, or insincere, or even crocodile*. In feature film discourse these non-verbal markers are role-played by the actors.

### **Bibliographic references**

- AUSTIN, J. L. 1962. How to Do Things with Words. Oxford: Oxford University Press. ISBN 0-674-41152-8.
- BEATON, M. C. 2009a. Agatha Raisin and the Haunted House. London: C & R. ISBN 978-1504701273.
- BEATON, M. C. 1997. Agatha Raisin and the Terrible tourist. New York: St. Martin's Press. ISBN 978-0312167615.
- BEATON, M. C. 2009b. Agatha Raisin and the Wizard of Evesham. London: C & R. ISBN 9780786224173.
- BEATON M. C. 2007. Death of a Poison Pen. Edinburgh: Constable and Co. 9781472124555.
- BEATON, M. C. 1998. Death of a Scriptwriter. New York: Mysterious Press. ISBN 978-0892966448.
- BELLOW, S. 2012. Herzog. New York: Penguin. ISBN 9783462036527.
- BEZUGLA, L. R. 2015. Insincere speech acts and insincere speech genres. In: Speech genres. Saratov: Saratov University Publishing House, vol. 1, n. 11, pp. 30-37. ISSN 2311-0740.
- BIGUNOVA, N. O. 2018. Illocutionary Aims and Perlocutionary Effect of Praise and Compliment Speech Acts in Modern English Literary Discourse. In: PETLIUCHENKO, N. V. (Ed.) Odessa Linguistic Journal. Odessa, vol. 11, pp. 12-20. ISSN 2663-564X, 2312-3192.
- BIGUNOVA, N. O. 2017. Positive Evaluation: From Cognitive Judgement to Communicative Utterance. Odesa: OMD. ISBN 978-617-637-133-5.
- BRIDGET JONES'S DIARY. 2001. Miramax Films: directed by Sharon Maguire.
- BRONTE, C. 2006. Jane Eyre. London: Penguin. ISBN: 9780141441146.
- CARSON, T. L. 2010. Lying and Deception. Oxford: OUP. ISBN: 978-0199654802.
- CHOLDENKO, G. 2006. Al Capone Does my Shirts. London: Puffin Books. ISBN: 978-039923861.
- COBEN, H. 2007. Promise me. London: Orion. 454 p. ISBN 1-101-12860-7.
- DMYTRUK, O. 2018. The Strategy of Structuring Information according to its Relevance in Mind Manipulation. In: ISCHENKO, N. (Ed.) Advanced Education, vol. 9, Kyiv. pp. 194-200. ISSN 2409-3351.
- FALLIS, D. 2012. Lying as a Violation of Grice’s First Maxim of Quality. In: M. Weber – P. Blum (Eds.) Dialectica, vol. 66, n. 4, pp. 563-581. ISSN 00122017.

- FORMANOVSKAYA, N. I. 2000. *Speech Etiquette and the Culture of Communication*. Moscow: Higher school. ISBN 5-7974-0051-0.
- GODDARD, C. 2001. Sabar, Ikhlas, Setia. Patient, Sincere, Loyal? A Contrastive Semantic Study of some "Virtues" in Malay and English. In: M. Haugh (Ed.). *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 33, pp. 653-681. ISSN 0378-2166.
- HE'S JUST NOT THAT INTO YOU. 2009. *Flower Films*: directed by K. Kwapis.
- HEARTBREAKERS. 2001. *Davis Entertainment*: directed by D. Mirkin.
- HENDERSON, A. 1996. Compliments, Compliment Responses, and Politeness in an African-American Community. In: J. Arnold, R. Blake, B. Davidson, S. Schwenter, and J. Solomon (Eds.). *Sociolinguistic Variation: Data, Theory and Analysis*, selected papers from NWAV 23 at Stanford. Stanford: Center for Language and Information, pp. 195-208. ISBN 1575860392.
- HIAASEN, C. 2016. *Skinny dip*. London: Black lizard. ISBN 978-1101973035.
- HOLLINGHURST, A. 2005. *The Line of Beauty*. New York: Bloomsbury. ISBN 978-1582346106.
- KINSELLA, S. 2009. *Shopaholic Ties the Knot*. London: Transworld Digital. ISBN 978-0552999571.
- KIVENKO, I. A. 2015. Gratitude Speech Act from the Sincerity Criterion Perspective. In: KOLEGAEVA, I. (Ed.). *Writings in Romance-Germanic Philology*. Odessa. KMD, vol. 2, n. 35, pp. 96-104. ISSN 2518-7627.
- KLOCHKO, L. I. 2003. *Praising Utterances within Communicative and Activity Paradigm of Intercourse*: Synopsis for thesis for the candidate degree in philology: Sumy State University Publishing House. ISBN 966-8703-01-4.
- KOROBOVA, N. V. – TSYBINA, N. A. 2018. The tactics of compliment in English-speaking communication. *Tambov: Gramota*, vol. 5, n. 83, part 1., pp. 119-123. ISSN 1997-2911.
- LEONTIEV, V. V. 2006. Compliments as components of greetings and gratitude formulas//*Science Journal of Volgograd State University. Linguistics*. 2006, vol. 5. ISSN 1998-9911.
- MACKAY, S. 1995. *The Orchard on Fire*. London: Minerva. ISBN 0 7493 9406 4.
- MAHON, J. E. 2008. Two Definitions of Lying. In: BRAKE, E. (Ed.) *International Journal of Applied Philosophy*, vol. 22, n. 2, pp. 211-230. ISBN 0739-098X.
- MARSILI, N. 2014. Lying as a Scalar Phenomenon. Insincerity along the Certainty-Uncertainty Continuum. In: CANTARINI, S – WERNER, A. – LEISS, E. (Eds.) *Certainty-Uncertainty and the Attitudinal Space in Between*, pp. 153-173. ISBN 978-9027259301.
- MOROZOVA, O. I. 2015. *Lying as a Parallax Stance. Towards the Ecology of Human Communication*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing, pp. 241-249. ISBN 978-1-4438-8088-6.
- MORTON, K. 2015. *The Lake House*. London: Mantle. ISBN 978-0230759275.
- MORTON, K. 2010. *The Distant Hours*. London: Pan Books. ISBN 978-0-330-47758-1.
- PEASE, A. – PEASE, B. 2006. *The Definitive Book of Body Language: The Secret meaning behind People's Gestures*. London: Orion Paperbacks. ISBN 978-1409168508.
- PLOTNIKOVA, S. N. 2000. *Insincere Discourse (in Cognitive and Structural-Functional Aspects)*. Irkutsk. ISBN 5-7859-0027-0.
- PRIHODKO, A. I. 2016. Cognitive-Communicative Organization of the Evaluative Frame. In: PANASENKO, N. (Ed.) *Lege artis. Language Yesterday, Today, Tomorrow*. The Journal of University of SS Cyril and Methodius in Trnava, vol. I, n. 1. Warsaw: De Gruyter Open, pp. 275-307. ISSN 2453-8035.
- PYM, B. 2009. *A Glass of Blessings*. London: Virago. ISBN 978-1-84408-580-4.

- SEARLE, J. 1976. A Classification of Illocutionary Acts. In: WEITZ, S. (Ed.) *Language in Society*, vol. 5, pp. 1-23. ISSN 0047-4045.
- SEARLE, J. – Vanderveken, D. 1985. *Foundations of Illocutionary Logic*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0521108850.
- SHELDON, S. 2012a. *Nothing Lasts Forever*. London: HarperCollins. ISBN 978-0446354738.
- SHELDON, S. 2012b. *The Sky is Falling*. London: HarperCollins. ISBN 978-0446610179.
- SMITH, A.M. 2010. *The No. 1 Ladies' Detective Agency*. London: Abacus. ISBN 978-0-349-11675-4.
- SORENSEN, R. 2007. Bald Faced Lies! Lying without the Intent to Deceive. In: ASHFIELD, M. (Ed.). *Pacific Philosophical Quarterly*, vol. 88, pp. 251-264. ISSN 0279-0750
- STEPANOV, IE. N. – TRAN THỊ XUYEN. 2017. Gestures and facial expressions in the communicative characterization of an official Lebedev (based on the material by F. M. Dostoevsky's novel "Idiot"), *Language. Communication. Culture: Proceedings of the First International Distance Scientific and Practical Conference of Young Scientists*. Moscow: The Pushkin State Russian Language Institute, pp. 518–525. ISBN 978-5-98269-159-0.
- STOKKE, A. 2014. Insincerity. In: SOSA, E. (Ed.) *Noûs*, vol. 48, n. 3, pp. 496-520. ISSN 0029-4624.
- THE ANGRIST MAN IN BROOKLYN. 2014. *MICA Entertainment*: directed by P. A. Robinson.
- TRILLING, L. 1972. *Sincerity and Authenticity*. Harvard University Press. ISBN 978-0674808614.
- TROLLOPE, J. 1992. *The Men and the Girls*. London: Bloomsbury. ISBN: 978-0747511595.
- WELDON, F. 2011. *The Bulgari Connection*. Glasgow: Flamingo. ISBN 978-0007121267.
- WHAT WOMEN WANT. 2000. *Paramount Pictures*: directed by N. Meyers.
- WICKHAM, M. 1996. *The Tennis Party*. London: Black Swan. ISBN 978-0312562755.
- WIERZBICKA, A. 1991. *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: The Semantics of Human Interaction*. New York: Mouton de Gruyter. ISBN 9783110125382.
- WIERZBICKA, A. 1987. *English Speech Act Verbs: A Semantic Dictionary*. New York: Academic Press. ISBN 9780123128102.
- WIERZBICKA, A. 2004. The English Expressions Good Boy and Good Girl and Cultural Models of Child Rearing. In: J. Valsiner (ed.). *Culture and Psychology*, vol. 10, pp. 251-278. ISSN 1354067X.
- WILLIAMS, P. A. 2008. *Good girl comes undone*. London: Sphere. ISBN 978-0751539639.
- WILLIAMS, P. 2010. *How to be married*. London: Headline Review. ISBN 978-0755359356.
- WOLFSON, N. 1983. An Empirically Based Analysis of Complimenting in American English. In: WOLFSON, N. – JUDD, E. (Eds.) *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition*. Rowley/London/Tokyo: Newbury House Publishers. pp. 82-95. ISBN 9780883772690
- ZVEREVA, E. V. 2013. Forms of addressing in compliments used in the Spanish language. In: *Humanities and social sciences. Bulletin of the Financial University*, vol. 2 (10). pp. 76 – 82. ISSN: 2226-7867.

*Words: 10 238*

*Characters: 65 019 (36,1 standard pages)*

Professor Natalia Bigunova, DSc.  
Odessa Mechnikov National University  
French boulevard, 24/26, 65058  
Odessa  
Ukraine  
natalbig@ukr.net  
ORCID ID: 0000-0002-9460-9700

Associate Professor Chen Shaoxiong, PhD  
Huzhou University (China).  
759, East 2nd Road, Huzhou, 313000  
China  
aljosh@126.com  
ORCID ID: 0000-0002-2101-9742

Ievgenii N. Stepanov, PhD  
Head of the Russian language Department  
Odessa I.I.Mechnikov National University  
24/26, Frantsuzskiy blvd., Odessa, 65058  
Ukraine  
stepanov.odessa@gmail.com  
ORCID ID: 0000-0002-5441-9822

# Cognitive linguistic analyses of the phraseological units in modern linguistics

Kalamkas Kalybayeva – Sagira Odanova – Altynai Tymbolova – Shattyk Erchozhina – Gulbagiza Musayeva

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.18

## Abstract

In our research, we set out to show the specifics of the implementation of the sign of constructive conditionality in the field of phraseology, to establish the syntactic constructions necessary for the semantics of phraseological units, characterized by the constructive conditionality of their functioning, to show the determinism of the structure that defines the use of phraseological units in speech, the grammatical structure and the lexical-grammatical composition of verbal complex-prototype of the phraseological unit. Phraseological units that realize their values under the condition of a strictly defined structure are characterized by a sign of constructive conditioning. Such units are widely represented in modern English and, along with other types of phraseological units, are part of the English phraseological foundation. They are not able to independently represent what is indicated by means of the values assigned to them, irrespective of the mandatory actualizing effect on these values from the side of the verbal sign.

**Key words:** cognitive, linguistic, analyses, phraseological, phenomena, modern

---

## Introduction

It is well known that phraseological units are characterized by complex, non-elementary semantics that also integrate pragmatically oriented information since the most diverse types of information are interwoven in phraseological units: description, reflecting the denotative core of meaning; the speaker's assessment of the situation described by the phraseological unit; information about the emotional-evaluative attitude of the speaker to the signified, motivated by the associative-figurative representation that is associated with the internal form of the phraseological unit and phraseological picture of the world; functional and stylistic significance.

All these types of information are characterized by syncretism, they form an indissoluble unity and at the same time reflect the structure of the meaning according to the types of information transmitted, and can be isolated in the structure of the meaning of phraseological units and highlighted through semantic oppositions of phraseological units in the corpus of the whole language.

However, the dialectic of describing phraseological units on a communicative-functional basis lies precisely in determining how to divide this unity into parameters that can be reconnected in the description without losing the integral meaning of idioms as a language phenomenon.

To disassemble the object of analysis of phraseological units, while maintaining their integrity during synthesis, is a requirement that phraseological parameters (types of information) must meet as the minimum units for describing phraseological units.

The parameterization of the value of phraseological units has great explanatory power, reflecting the essential properties of the object of analysis and allowing it to be applied to the creation of highly informative phraseological dictionaries of the language.

A significant place in the semantic structure of phraseological units is occupied by pragmatic components. Under pragmatic information, we mean a combination of diverse relationships, assessments (social, ideological, aesthetic, moral, emotive, etc.) associated with the functioning of phraseological units.

The subject of pragmatics at the level of phraseology are primarily such components of the semantics of phraseological units as evaluative and emotive. However, the pragmatics of phraseological units can be understood more broadly as the sum of "connotations (social, cultural, ethical, historical, emotive, expressive, evaluative, associative), as well as the specifics of semantics (features of a denotative orientation) are all numerous and diverse elements" (Sklyarevskaya, 1993), accompanying the phraseological meaning (and partly included in its structure)," which speech act carry information about the intentions of the speaker of the speech situation, the status of interlocutors on the assessment of the subject of the speech, etc. " (Sklyarevskaya,1993).

In general, pragmatics is determined by the need to choose linguistic means (in our case, phraseological units) speaking to express a wide variety of intentions. Thus, pragmatics can be characterized in the most general form as the attitude of speakers to the signs of the language (Morris, 1971). As we will see later, pragmatics has no clear contours; it includes a complex of issues related to the speaking subject, addressee, their interaction in communication, and the situation of communication.

Pragmatic information was revealed and described mainly at the semantic, stylistic, grammatical levels. As for phraseology, there is a very small number of works in which pragmatics was the direct subject of description (Telia 1996).

There are still many questions regarding the pragmatics of phraseological units that have not yet been resolved. Many components of pragmatic information contained in phraseological units were not identified, the mechanism of interaction of pragmatic elements with other components of the semantics of phraseological units, in particular, denotation, motivational and functional-style components, was not described, types of implementation of pragmatic information in phraseological units (explicit and implicit) were not clarified (identification form); it is also necessary to clarify how cultural and national features of phraseological units influence the formation of pragmatic information, etc.

The world of phraseology of the modern English language is large and diverse, and every aspect of its research, of course, deserves due attention.

A lot of researchers have been written about phraseology, and the interest of researchers in this area of the language does not wane. The very fact of the presence in the language, in addition to words of whole verbal complexes, which are sometimes identical with the word, and more often are a unique linguistic phenomenon, characterized by vivid expressiveness, imagery and emotionality, serves as an occasion for us to study this particular section of linguistics.

A. I. Alekhina notes that "the study of phraseology as a systemic phenomenon, which has its own units of research and is characterized by its unique organization of these units, began in the recent past and continues to the present" (Alekhina, 1982).

The question of phraseology as a linguistic discipline was posed by such an outstanding linguist as professor E.D. Polivanov, who believed that "there is a need for a special department that would be commensurate with the syntax, but at the same time had in mind not general types, but individual meanings of the data of individual phrases, similar to the fact that vocabulary deals with individual (lexical) meanings of individual words" (Polivanov, 1991).

This part of linguistics Polivanov named phraseology. He foresaw that phraseology would take a separate and stable position (like phonetics, morphology, etc.) in the linguistic literature of the future, "when in the sequential formulation of various problems our science will be free from random gaps" (Polivanov, 1968).

Summarizing a wide range of views on phraseology, the following can be noted. In modern linguistics, two areas of research are clearly outlined. The first direction of the starting point is the recognition that the phraseological unit is such a unit of language that consists of words, that is, by its nature - a phrase. At the same time, some

scientists express the idea that the object of phraseology is all concrete phrases that are really possible in a given language, regardless of the qualitative differences between them. So, for example, M.M. Kopylenko and Z.D. Popov say that: "Phraseology covers all ... combinations of lexemes existing in a given language, including the so-called" free "phrases" (Kopylenko, Popova, 1989). In their understanding, phraseology is "a special section of linguistics that studies the laws of compatibility of lexemes."

On the other hand, the object of phraseology within the boundaries of this direction is recognized only by certain categories and groups of phrases that stand out from all the possibilities in speech with special originality. Depending on what features are considered when selecting such phrases, the composition of such units in the language is determined. Only these "special" phrases can be called phraseological units. Despite the conventionality of concepts and the related distinction, it is usually said that phraseology can be represented:

a) as a phraseology of a language in the "broad" sense of the word, which includes phrases that are completely rethought and phrases in which there are unreasoned component words. An example of such a "broad" understanding of the volume and composition of phraseology is the point of view of V.L. Arkhangelsky (1964) and others;

b) as a phraseology in the "narrow" sense of the word, which includes only phrases reinterpreted to the end. Among the works reflecting such an understanding of the volume and composition of phraseology include, for example, articles by Zhukova (2006).

In both cases, the verbal nature of phraseology, as well as the lexical nature of its components, is not called into question by scientists. Phraseology is recommended to be considered as a contamination of the features of a word and a phrase; the homonymy of phraseology and its correlation in terms of phrase structure is emphasized.

At the current stage of the development of phraseology, the researchers are particularly interested in developing theoretical directions that will take a fresh look at the rich phraseological material accumulated over the centuries and subject it to more thorough analysis in the light of new linguistic trends, especially such as cognitive linguistics and the theory of discourse.

One of the most important in modern linguistics is the functional direction. With a functional approach, the study of language processes is carried out inextricably linked with the needs of the communicative activity and involves the consideration of the human factor.

According to V. N. Telia, "the nature of phraseological units makes it necessary to study them within the framework of the anthropological paradigm that is emerging in the sciences of the humanitarian cycle. The human factor in the language of the dead language factor in man moves into the focus of linguistic studies" (Telia, 1996).

The main function of a language that is directly related to a person is considered cognitive. Cognitiveness underlies the formation of a conceptual picture of the world and reflects the process of perception and understanding of reality, which is carried out in concepts that are typical for a given language.

The cognitive approach to the study of the phraseological system of the language allows us to present phraseology in a new perspective, refracting it through the prism of thinking and types of knowledge, and also to see new aspects of the relationship of phraseology with grammar and vocabulary.

The following aspects are distinguished in the composition: significative, denotative, and connotative (Kunin, 1996).

I. I. Chernysheva notes the peculiarities of phraseological semantics that distinguish it from the lexical semantics: "If you represent the meaning of secondary education signs in the form of a set of semantic components, then in the word and in

phraseological units as denotative, denotative- connotative and connotative components will be present” (Chernysheva, 1999).

However, the way of education and the material embodiment of connotation in a word and phraseologism are not the same. If, in a word, a semantic shift is created as a result of a change in denotation, then in phraseology this is a complete metaphorizing of a variable phrase or partial, depending on the type of phraseology.

The fact that in phraseologism the semantic shift affects the phrase (phraseological unity) or predicative combinations (phraseological expressions) creates a figurative motivation of meaning, phraseological image, which forms the semantics of a broad plan, with the ability to situational concretization in the text.

The connotative component of the meaning of phraseology, in contrast to the similar component of the lexical unit of secondary education, has the potential to increase the expressive potential through modification of the component composition. It is with this that the specificity of the expression of connotation through separately formed formations is connected.

The denotative component of meaning is understood as the part of the sign reflecting in generalized form objects and phenomena of extralinguistic reality. The denotative component is basically a concept that characterizes an extralinguistic object (Popova, Sternin, 2007).

The high significance of the connotative aspect in phraseology is explained by the two-pronged semantic structure of phraseological units built on figurative rethinking. Imagery contributes to the expressiveness and vivid emotionality of phraseological turns, creates objective prerequisites for expressing a diverse range of assessments in relation to the objects of reality he calls, it becomes one of the main incentives for the formation of the connotative component of their semantics. Therefore, "exploring the phraseological image as one of the sources of the rich connotation of phraseological units, we, first of all, reveal the specificity of the connotative component of the meaning of phraseological units - the main component of phraseological semantics" (Alekseeva, 1998). Many researchers argue that there is still no generally accepted understanding of connotation, and its composition and structure have not been adequately studied (Telia, 1996). The opinions of linguists on the question of what place the connotation occupies in the structure of the meaning of phraseological units differ. Often, the connotation is considered additional content that is "superimposed" on the signficative and denotative components of meaning. However, this point of view does not consider the unity of the rational and the emotional in human knowledge. The most popular in modern linguistics, is the opinion that the connotative macro component, along with the signficative and denotative components and intertwined with them. A. B. Kunin believes that the connotative aspect is "the stylistic coloring of the phraseological units, their emotionally expressive side, that is, the attitude of the native speaker to extralinguistic entities, or the increase in the effectiveness of linguistic influence devoid of an evaluative element" (Kunin, 1970). A.F. Artyomova assigns a leading role to the connotative aspect in the semantic structure of phraseological units since it is the connotation that largely determines the informative value of phraseological units (Artyomova, 1991). Understanding the connotation of the complex of all signals aimed at the emotional impact on the recipient, the researcher states: "The connotation is a macro component of the semantic structure that absorbs all the information - stylistic, evaluative and emotional, which together create content that is traditionally correlated with the concept of expressivity. V. N. Telia understands by connotation "any pragmatically oriented component of the plan of the content of linguistic entities (morphemes, words, phraseologisms and text fragments), which supplements their denotative and grammatical content on the basis of information correlated with pragmatic factors of various kinds" (Telia, 1996).

In determining the essence of connotation, V. N. Telia notes the importance of associative-background, that is, empirical, cultural-historical, worldview, etc., knowledge of those who speak this language about the properties or manifestations of the indicated reality or situation. Idioms are not created every time anew; they are extracted from the memory of a native speaker in a finished form and reproduced as something whole and indivisible.

If we talk about the connotative aspect of phraseological units, then we can distinguish the following components that give phraseological units semantic completeness: evaluative, emotive, expressive, and functional-stylistic.

The connotation is included in the semantics of phraseological units, usually or occasionally. Thanks to it, phraseological units acquire expressiveness and make the language vibrant and expressive.

The connotation of phraseological units is based on the principle of language saving. It does not formally express the speaker's intention to produce a certain effect on the listener. The attitude of the addressee and the addressee to the object from the world "real" is based on some knowledge about the world "real", on the sensory perception of objects from this world. The totality of all information about this relationship is a connotation.

The connotative component, called in modern studies "incremental subtlety", "semantic complementarity", "new meaning", "increment of meaning", is created by an internal living form that provides a figuratively associative perception of the situation (Kabanova, 2011).

A study of the structural and semantic properties of phraseological units, characterized by a sign of constructive conditionality, allows us to state some general points.

In our study, we made a general acquaintance with the formulation of the problem of studying linguistic units characterized by a sign of constructive conditionality in English studies, showed the specifics of a structurally determined meaning based on the lexical meaning of a word, identified the factors that influence the formation of construction that replenishes the meaning of phraseology.

We have developed a new interpretation of the nature of the constructive conditionality of phraseological units that determine this phenomenon of determination. The analysis of the internal form of phraseologism provided informative, significant data for identifying the specifics of constructive conditioning in the field of phraseology, and made it possible to combine the available data in a new and more adequate way. Having analyzed the phraseological image and its role in the breadth of compatibility of the units under consideration, it was possible to show that constructive conditionality in the field of phraseology depends not only on the specifics of the semantics of phraseological units but also on the specifics of phraseological images motivating semantics.

The phraseological image clearly shows the action, phenomenon, or property that becomes a motivational attribute that forms a phraseological meaning. The phraseological image is formed by those elements of the linguistic structure that are directly involved in the implementation of the meaning of phraseological units, i.e. components.

In this regard, the analysis of verbal complexes-prototypes of phraseological units is of particular relevance. In our study, we focused on the analysis of phraseological units, which, by the nature of the structure of verbal complexes-prototypes, are represented by the following types: phraseological units having the structure of an unpredictable verb combination of words, and verb type phraseological units having the structure of a predicative combination of words.

Verbal complexes of the analyzed phraseological units are either a free combination of words or not free, but grammatically, all these combinations are built on the syntactic models existing in modern English. In our research, we systematized all

structural models of verbal complexes-prototypes of phraseological turns of interest to us.

The units selected for analysis are characterized by different types of model lengths. Verbal complexes, represented by two components, are implemented in syntactic models of verb phrases in which the verb controls nouns in the forms of the genitive, dative, accusative, instrumental cases or is connected with an adverb; as well as in the syntactic model of an unallocated two-part sentence.

Verbal complexes represented by three components implemented in syntactic models of verbal phrases are formed by combining a verb with a prepositional case form, some phraseological phrases include two nouns in different indirect cases. Some prototype verbal complexes in their structure have an adjective or pronoun or numeral consistent with the noun. Several verbal complexes include, as a third member, a particle not in the verb, some phraseological units include a pronoun with a preposition.

Phraseological units are also three-component, the verbal complexes-prototypes of which are represented by negative uncommon two-part sentences, as well as two-part wide sentences, which have one secondary term used without an excuse. Three-component complexes are distinguished among units that are formally grammatically correlated with one-component sentences: definitely personal, impersonal, infinitive.

Four-component verbal complexes-prototypes of phraseological units are represented by syntactic models of verbal phrases and common two-part and one-part sentences. The former are various combinations of verbs, nouns with and without prepositions, adjectives, pronouns, consistent with these nouns; Structural models of a small number of phraseological units may contain particles and unions.

The second, correlative with the widespread two-part sentences, consisting of a predicative core and one minor member in the prepositional case form; still others are represented by individual models of impersonal, definitely personal, indefinitely personal and infinitive sentences.

Among the phraseological units of the analyzed type, several five- and six-component phraseological units are identified that are correlated with non-predicative combinations. Verbal complexes of predicative phraseological units consist of five components in cases where the predicate is used with a negative particle, and the secondary term is in the prepositional case form, or in cases where the complex form a predicate and two minor terms in the prepositional case forms.

Among the units analyzed, phraseological units were found that are formally grammatically correlated with complex sentences, the main part of which are the components of phraseological units to show and not know: show where the crayfish hibernate (to whom), do not know where to go (what), etc.

In research, we determined the structural typology of verbal complexes-prototypes of the analyzed phraseological units, without considering the semantics of structural-semantic constructions supplementing them. The phraseological units under consideration, in order to realize their meanings, need contextual support of structurally related words.

Any object necessary to realize the meaning of phraseology, regardless of the case form and the presence/absence of an excuse, is mandatory. It serves to manifest the self-sufficiency of phraseological units. Between the phraseological unit and the object, the necessary semantic and grammatical connection is established.

This element of the sentence, which is a characteristic attribute of the design of its structure and plays a paramount role in revealing the content of phraseological units, we have designated the term structural and semantic supplement of phraseological units. Therefore, the further part of the research is devoted to the analysis of constructions, which include phraseological units of the considered structure and structural-semantic substitutes, which play the role of direct or indirect prepositional

and unproblematic additions. In identifying the specifics of the structural conditionality of phraseological units, we relied on the role of the internal form in the organization of structural-semantic constructions replenishing phraseological units. Revealing the connection between the internal form and the form of the structural-semantic supplement of phraseological units has allowed us to explain the essence of the realization of the sign of constructive conditioning.

For the realization of the sign of constructive conditioning in the field of phraseology, the recognition of the verbal nature of the components of the phraseological units under consideration is of great importance, as well as the fact that the phraseological unit has integral semantics and acts as a whole with respect to the managed word. These circumstances are directly related to the essence of the phenomenon of constructive conditioning.

These are the structural and semantic typologies of phraseological units that are characterized by a sign of constructive conditioning, compiled on the basis of the specifics of the language material selected for analysis and at our disposal. The obtained combined knowledge about the structural conditionality of phraseological units of the modern Russian language gives a complete image of this phenomenon.

## **Conclusion**

Phraseology is the greatest treasury and the enduring value of any language. It, like a mirror, reflects the history and centuries-old experience of the labor and spiritual activities of the people and their moral values. Phraseology reflects the world of feelings, images, assessments of this or that people, it is most directly connected with the culture of speech production.

In addition, phraseology is an inexhaustible source of knowledge of the language as a developing and changing system. It contains both modern language formations and the most ancient language forms and constructions. Therefore, for those who are interested in the history and culture of the English people, phraseology is one of the most fascinating and entertaining areas of the language.

As for the phraseology of the English language, we can talk about its formation as a linguistic discipline, which is facilitated by a wide range of phraseological studies in the field of English. At present, the theoretical directions in phraseological studies that allow one to consider the available rich material in the light of such modern branches as discursive theory and cognitive science can be considered relevant. It seems necessary to apply a functional approach to studying the role of phraseological units in the communicative process, considering the principle of anthropocentrism.

Phraseology is still faced with completely unresolved problems. One of the pressing problems at this stage is the problem of phraseological significance, discussed by both domestic and foreign researchers in the field of phraseology. The semantic structure of phraseological units is complicated by the presence of a living WF, since the meaning of phraseological units correlates with both the literal meanings of lexemes and the meaning of the prototype. The fact that phraseological units form a certain system in a language that has its own laws indicates that they need to be studied in the light of the theory of language universals. This theory is a relatively new trend in modern linguistics. It should solve many issues related to phrase formation and identify those cognitive schemes for modeling idioms that are determined by both linguistic and extralinguistic factors. Pragmatics deals with the description of the facts of language in the aspect of human activity and the study of the behavior of signs in communication processes. The pragmatic function of phraseological units is realized in a particular context and consists of a targeted effect on the recipient.

This study focuses on the pragmatic potential of rethought terminological phraseological units, which are used to express the subject's emotional attitude to the subject of thought and to produce a specific, pragmatic effect on the recipient.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ALEKHINA, A. I. 1982. Idiom of modern English. Minsk: Higher School, 279p.
- ALEKSEEVA, L. M. 1998. Term and metaphor. Perm, 250 p.
- AMOSOVA, H. H. 1965. On the diachronic analysis of phraseological units. In: Studies in English phraseology. L.: Leningradskaja Univerzita., pp.101-107.
- ARKHANGELSKY, V. L. 1964. Stable phrases in modern Russian. In: Rostov-on-Don, pp.121–137.
- ARNOLD, I. V. 1999. Semantics. The style. Intertextuality. SPb: SPbSU, 444p.
- ARUTYUNOVA, N. D. 1990. Discourse. In: Linguistic Encyclopedic Dictionary. M.: Sov. Encyclopedia, pp. 136-137.
- BABUSHKIN, A. P. 1996. Types of concepts in the lexical and phraseological semantics of the language. Voronezh: Voronezh State University. 104p.
- BALLY, S. 2001. French style. In: Editorial URSS. 360p.
- BLOOMFIELD, L. 1968. Language. In: Progress. 607p.
- BUYANOVA, L. YU. – KOVALENKO, E.G. 2004. Russian phraseologism as a mental-cognitive means of linguistic conceptualization of the sphere of moral qualities of a person: Monograph. Krasnodar: KubSU. 166p.
- CHERNYSHOVA, T.V. 1999. Usual-style complex as a mechanism for generating an invective statement in the field of newspaper journalism. In: Problems and Prospects: Interuniversity. Sat scientific tr. / Ed. N.D. Goleva. Barnaul.
- KARASIK, V. I. 2000. On the types of discourse. In: Language personality: institutional and personal discourse: Sat. scientific labor. Volgograd: Change, pp. 5-20.
- KOPYLENKO, M. M. – POPOVA, Z. D. 1989. Essays on general phraseology (Phrase combinations in the language system). Voronezh: Voronezh State University. 190p.
- KUBRYAKOVA, E. S. 1997. Cognitive aspects of word formation and related rules of inference (semantic inference). In: New ways to study the word formation of Slavic languages. Magdeburg, pp. 29-39.
- KUBRYAKOVA, E. S. 2000. On the concepts of discourse and discursive analysis in modern linguistics. In: Discourse, speech, speech activity: functional and structural aspects. RAS INION, pp.7-22.
- KUNIN, A. B. 1984. The internal form of phraseological units. In: Word in grammar and dictionary. Nauka, pp. 183-188.
- KABANOVA, E. V. 2011. Conceptualization of temperature in the German language picture of the world: Dis ... cand. filol. sciences. Barnaul. 244p.
- LAKOFF, J. – JOHNSON, M. 1990. Metaphors with which we live. In: Theory of metaphor. M.: Progress, pp. 387-415.
- LARIN, B. A. 1996. Essays on phraseology (On the systematization and research methods of phraseological materials). In: Modern Russian language: Lexicology. Lexicography: Reader and study assignments. SPb: SPbU, pp. 192-204.
- MORRIS, C. W. 1971. Writings on the General Theory of Signs. The Hague: Mouton. (Contains Morris, 1938, Morris, 1946a, and other essays, as well as the first chapter of Morris, 1964.)
- PASTUSHENKO, L. P. 1982. English phraseological units in the phraseo-thematic field (based on the phraseo-thematic field of marinisms): Dis ... cand. filol. sciences. Kiev. 194p.
- POLIVANOV, E. D. 1991. Proceedings in Eastern and General Linguistics. Nauka. 624p.
- POPOVA, Z. D. – STERNIN, I. A. 2007. Basic features of a semantic-cognitive approach to language. In: Anthology of concepts. Gnosis.

- SERIO, P. 1999. How to read texts in France. In: Squaring the meaning. French school of discourse. Progress, pp.12-53.
- SEARLE, J. 1986. Basic concepts of the calculus of speech acts. In: New in foreign linguistics. Logical analysis of natural language. Vol. Xviii. Progress. pp.242-263.
- SKLYAREVSKAYA, G. N. 1993. Metaphor in the language system. St. Petersburg: Nauka.152 p.
- TELIA, V. N. 2004. Cultural strata in phraseological units and discursive practices. YaSK. 344 p.
- TELIA, V. N. 1977. Secondary nomination and its types. In: Language nomination (Types of names). Nauka, pp. 129-221.
- TELIA, V. N. 1986. The connotative aspect of the semantics of nominative units. Nauka. 143 p.
- VEZHBITSKAYA, A. 1997. Prototypes and invariants. In: Language. The culture. Cognition. Rus. Dictionaries, pp.201-230.
- VINOGRADOV, V. V. 1975. Questions of studying phrases (on the material of the Russian language): The main questions of the syntax of the sentence. In: Selected works: research on Russian grammar. Nauka, pp. 56-87.
- ZHUKOVA, L. S. 2006. Concept LANGUAGE in the English national consciousness (based on the material of the modern British press). In: Conceptology: research experience: Sat. scientific tr / Novosib. state un-ty Novosibirsk, pp.70-75.
- ZVEGINTSEV, V. A. 1976. Sentence and its relation to language and speech. In: Moscow State University. 307p.

*Words: 4858*

*Characters: 32 998 (18,33 standard pages)*

professor Kalamkas Kalybayeva  
Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical university  
Dostyk ave 13, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

associated professor Sagira Odanova  
Kazakh State Women's Teacher Training Institute  
Aiteke bi 99, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

professor Altynai Tymbolova  
Al Farabi Kazakh National university  
Temiryazeva street 71, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

professor Shattyk Erchozhina  
Suleyman Demirel University  
Ablyay khan street 1/1, Kaskelen  
Kazakhstan

Gulbagiza Musayeva  
Al Farabi Kazakh National university  
Temiryazeva street 71, Almaty  
Kazakhstan  
bislauka@mail.ru

## **Axiological concepts of journalistic texts (lingua- stylistic analysis)**

Assel Kozhakhmetova – Zhanna Ospanova – Manat Mussatayeva – Zhanat Bissenbayeva

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.19

### **Abstract**

The description of the axiological concepts of the journalistic texts are related to solving the issues of media-linguistics, and axiological linguistics, while also providing insight to solve the pragmatic problems of linguistics itself. Values are embodied in language and consciousness in the form of axiological concepts and, together with archetypal concepts, form part of the axiological conceptsphere of an individual or community. In turn, axiological and archetypal concepts are updated against the background of axiological strategies that form a discursive space and determine the deployment of certain communicative scenarios. Integration processes in modern science determine the appeal of linguists to axiological concepts and methods in the study of the text. The urgency of the topic is due to several factors. Media texts are of interest to researchers since they are distinguished by stylistic multidimensionality and variability. Scientists are actively arguing about the correlation of such functional and cognitive phenomena as a media course, a media text, a journalistic style, a style of mass communication, etc. Linguists talk about the merging of social discourse with the media discourse about the mediation of journalism. Therefore, the relevance of this work lies in the development, expansion and deepening of scientific research of media texts as a communicative, cognitive and functional-stylistic phenomenon, in the creation of an invariant model of the axiological structure of the text, which provides the opportunity for effective study and description of the object, and in the development of metalanguage of linguistics. The aim of the research is to describe the axiological component of a newspaper text.

**Key words:** axiological, concepts, journalistic, texts, lingua- stylistic, analysis

---

### **Introduction**

A journalistic text is a structurally and systemically organized, communicative, iconic unit, which is a holistic and complete message, functioning in the field of mass communication, reflecting social issues. The media text is at the center of scientific research of various nature and content, as it is material evidence, a product of mass communication, stores information about the extra-linguistic context, about verbal and other codes of communication. The claims of linguistics on this specific object of study are explained by the fact that the text is the focus of all the mechanisms of language and speech, all the secrets of the embodiment of human thought in the clothes of the word.

Media communication can be considered as a collection of texts that perform various functions. Moreover, texts cease to be just a tool, as they “are being created more and more not to express and transmit actual ideas and truly new truths, but with the goal of increasing the quantity of oneself” (Lukin, 2006).

The text reflects, stores, and conveys the values of the human individual - and the human person himself/herself is a value. The text captures and translates estimates that themselves become the object of evaluation in the context of naive or scientific knowledge. Studying the assessments and values recorded in journalistic texts allows one to reach the level of two models: the text model (as a relatively independent, self-valuable, and self-reproducing system) and the model of value consciousness of the person who creates and receives these texts.

Values are an integral part of the picture of the human world, an extremely significant social phenomenon, as well as the basis for both unity and disunity of people and societies. It is thus natural that the problem of values is of increasing interest among linguists today. The axiological side of oral and written communication is becoming one of the most important factors in the study of various phenomena in linguistics. Values have, in recent decades, become the subject of modern lingua-axiological studies and are considered within the anthropocentric paradigm that has been established in linguistics as a linguistic category.

Thus, it seems that linguistic interest in values arises because of their wide representation in the language on the one hand, and, as noted above, due to the correspondence of values to the most important parameters that allow them to be classified as a linguistic category, on another. The existing diversity of the main directions of the study of values in domestic and foreign linguistic studies reflects the complex nature of values and indicates interest in each of the parameters that this phenomenon possesses. So, we consider it logical to consider, first of all, the cognitive parameter of values. Attributing value meaning to something, or, on the contrary, the decision that it is “something” devoid of it, is the result of human gnostic and cognitive activity, which, in turn, determines speech patterns of behavior. Cognitive processes in the individual’s mind provide scientists with additional opportunities and a unique perspective, which more fully reveals the specifics of the embodiment of values in language and discourse. Values in the framework of cognitive axiology are studied by integrating axiological views from other disciplines, such as philosophy, psychology, and pedagogy, into linguistics. The goal of this approach is to analyze how leading or frequent values are encoded into a specific discourse and used in various areas of the language for special purposes [Lago, 1996]. Understanding how the linguistic consciousness of speakers of different cultures and languages is arranged also allows us to identify the general and individual traits in their perception and processing of reality.

According to this research paradigm, most of the concepts lie in the world of intangible entities, which are the result of the conceptualization of the person. Concepts such as love, friendship, tradition, motherhood, and many others, including value concepts proper, do not exist outside of a person’s experience, and their understanding is dependent on a person’s disposition. All these concepts are the results of cognitive processes and, in particular, conceptualization processes (Krzeszowski, 1997).

V. I. Karasik, therefore, considers values from various points of view, including as an integral part of the discourse, calling values, along with other parameters, the fundamental characteristics of institutional discourse (Karasik, 2002). We cannot disagree with the observations of T. A. Shiryayeva who argues that when modeling the institutional frames of business discourse, the scientist defines professional dominants as the key socio-cultural professional component of the discourse, which is characterized by mental constancy, semantic integrity, high derivational potential and non-uniformity (Shiryayeva, 2013).

Scientists who develop the issue of updating values at the lexical level agree that values can be objectified through a wide variety of language units. So, the English scientist R.M. Hare considered values in the vein of prescriptivism, according to which words that verbalize values have both descriptive and prescriptive meanings. The function of the first value is to convey information about the object to which the word is applied, the function of the second is to recommend and highlight a specific object among the class of similar objects. According to R.M. Hare, estimated language structure alone has the goal of forming a certain attitude, judgment, impact (Hare, 1967).

Another approach to the study of values in scientific research of a social orientation boils down to the consideration of values as a factor in the flow of

institutional communication. P. Bourdieu and G. Becker, analyzing the social formation of aesthetic ideas and values, conclude that any socially significant object or phenomenon is the cooperation of more than one figure in the framework of certain social institutions (Bourdieu, 1987; Becker, 1984).

Thus, values are a complex linguistic phenomenon, the most complete study of which requires a combination of approaches and scientific directions. Such an analysis of values provides great opportunities for describing and studying the linguistic consciousness of a nation, for building a model of a linguistic personality, and for reconstructing a model of one or another discourse, an integral component of which is the value preferences embodied in the language.

One of the most promising approaches to the study of values in linguistic research is the close symbiosis of cognitive-discursive and axiolinguistic approaches. It seems that values exist in language and consciousness in the form of axiologically loaded concepts, the study of which today is logical to carry out through conceptual and discourse analysis. These approaches allow us to identify the signs and content of axiological concepts, especially their language update. Just as all concepts of a language are combined into a conceptual sphere, axiological concepts are also organized into a system — an axiological conceptual sphere, or axiosphere, which has its own structural features.

The modeling of the axiosphere involves the identification of its components at the level of language and thinking. It seems that the axiosphere can be individual or public, depending on whether it is about the values of an individual or the whole community, including a professional one. As the study showed, along with axiological concepts, archetypal concepts that objectify sustainable knowledge about the world, which are embodied through repeating plots, motives, and scenarios, should be included in the axiosphere.

Archetypes have great axiological potential, since they are not criticized by the native speaker of the language and culture, and excite a number of stable images in the consciousness of the participant in the discourse. Finally, the axiological background of the discourse is created through the implementation of a number of axiological strategies - a combination of language tools and techniques aimed at updating axiological and archetypal concepts, as well as the formation and direction of communication. So, the phenomenon of values is the result of pragma-cognitive activity of a person and determines the way of his thinking, determines certain patterns of behavior.

The scientific description of the assessment category reflects and structures the results of a naive conceptualization of the world. Moreover, any scientific model tends to invariance, accepting and assuming as inevitable the fact that there is some conceptual variability. For science, the search for optimal ways of speech impact on the audience remains relevant, on the one hand; on the other hand, the creation of tools to identify the author's intentions is also considered important.

So, the relevance of this work lies in the development, expansion and deepening of scientific research of media texts as a communicative, cognitive and functional-stylistic phenomenon, in the creation of an invariant model of the axiological structure of the text, which provides the opportunity for effective study and description of the object, in the development of metalanguage of linguistics.

The aim of the research is to describe the axiological component of a newspaper text. This goal involves solving a number of research questions:

*What are the linguistic tools for describing the axiological nature of the text?*

*What are the structure valuation vectors in a media text?*

*(identify the specifics of the content, form, nature, orientation, degree of explicitness of the assessment, methods of implicating evaluative statements, language means of euphemizing)*

During the research of axiological concepts of journalistic texts, we firstly decided to explain and analyze what is a text by itself. We did a lot of analyses and came up with different approaches to the denotation of the text. The text remains the focus of modern science. In the scientific and educational literature, various definitions of the text are systematized, and reviews of approaches to its study are given (Kazarin, 2003; Boguslavskaya, 2008; Zalevskaya, 2008). Despite all the differences, the common key point in the definition of a text is an indication of its orderliness, organization, systematic nature, and it is structural. As an example, we give several definitions of “consistent sign construction (implemented according to the rules of some sign system), forming a holistic, complete message” (Krasnoyarova, 2002), “a set of rules of linguistic and extralinguistic organization of the content of communication of representatives of a certain linguistic and cultural community” (Prokhorov, 2009), “a whole complex functioning as a structural-semantic unity” (Turaeva, 2009). Journalistic text understood by us as (1) ordered, organized, (2) a communicative, symbolic unit, (3) representing a holistic and complete message, (4) functioning in the field of mass communication, and (5) reflecting a certain topic.

To describe the organization of the text in linguistics, the terms system and structure are traditionally used. Structure and consistency are immanent properties of any text. A journalistic text is a combination of internal structures or systems - figurative, stylistic, thematic, narrative, communicative, axiological, etc.

The concept of a text structure is sometimes equated with the concept of a text system in the meaning of a certain construct, structure, or organization of an object. When delimiting the terms, the system is associated with the idea of the object of study as a combination of any elements, including relations (paradigmatic aspect), the structure is analyzed as a mechanism, action, implementation of these elements, first of all, their connections (Bolotnova, 2005). The idea of the structure of the text as a “global way of organizing an object as a holistic reality” (Turaeva, 2009) is based on the concepts of structural linguistics and structuralism in literary criticism. All scientists who have studied the text are M. P. Brandes, V. V., I. R. Halperin have approached this idea to one degree or another.

In domestic and foreign science, various types, types of text structures are described: linguistic (syntactic, lexical, etc.), compositional, speech, semantic, semantic, communicative, conceptual, cognitive, etc. Text structures are classified into simple, complex, highly complex, internal and external, linear and nonlinear, deep and surface.

At the same time, two points of view on nature coexist in the science of text structures. The first is connected with the idea of the inner life of the text. Its adherents tend to analyze the structure without being in touch with the author and recipient of the text, “absolutize” the text, describe the structure of the text as a synergistic process, declare structural self-organization speech works, see (Moskalchuk, 2003). Others dispute such point of view and do not recognize the text as a “self-sufficient entity,” consider that “the body of the text, taken by itself, without a person who means it, does not carry any internal energy, cannot be organized structurally” (Zalevskaya, 2008).

So, the structure of the text is the organization of relations of its elements (linguistic and extralinguistic nature) vertically and horizontally in accordance with the author’s intention and interpretation procedures of the addressee. Understanding the text as a result of speech activity emphasizes the static aspect of the structure of the text. At the same time, the main feature of the structure is its mobility and ability to change in quantitative and qualitative plans. Mobility, due to the position of the

observer (researcher) of the text, features his consciousness, an individual picture of the world in which the text is stored as a concept.

In order to make a research on the issue of axiological concepts of journalistic texts, we selected different text from media and analyzed them from the linguistic and stylistically point of view. Firstly, in the following part of the research paper, we demonstrate the methods of the research.

### **Methods**

As a method of axiological research, a description of stereotypes of discourse, various types of implications, categories of norms, and assessments, which serve as methods of objectification of values, has been used (Babaeva, 2003).

At the stage of generalizing the material, the mathematical method is used as the main one, and the material is processed using the n-factorial formula. At all stages of scientific research, the descriptive method and introspection technique, which consists in referring to the linguistic intuition of the researcher in the process of linguistic modeling, have remained relevant.

During the study from 2016 to 2019, a lot of newspaper materials were analyzed, but in this study, we present examples specifically for 2018 and 2019 from January to December. The analyzed material will be presented later in the practical part of this article in the form of graphs. For the indicated period, 168 texts of 9600 sentences were studied and considered.

### **Discussion**

Axiological components of the text are composed of values represented by sign systems, including linguistic and textual mechanisms. The most relevant values for media texts are the subject of the study of axiology (Shilov, 2005). Today, axiology has moved from the stage of self-determination to the stage of integration with other sciences. The axiosphere acts as an object of axiology. This term is used "to denote the world of values in any sense" (Stolovich, 1999)

*Table No. 1 designations of understanding of values.*

№	name	kinds
1	world of values	may be subjective, but may exist
2	value consciousness	representations, grades, tastes, ideals, norms,
3	creative results	canons, samples

As part of our analysis of the corpus of fragments of a newspaper text, we highlighted several dominant semantic expressions of values and construction of expressions based on professional value representations of addressees and serving to activate axiological meanings in the text: for example, the axiological component of the text is expressed by phrases of consent (38.2% of the total number of texts analyzed), phrases of patriotism (24.2%), by means of phrases of tolerance (17.4%), and some were analyzed shows a text saying the phrase by means of education (20.2%) (see Figure .: 1).

## Analysis of axiological concepts expression in publicistic texts



■ consent 1   ■ patriotism 2   ■ tolerance 3   ■ education 4

Along with the verbalization of axiological and archetypal concepts, the modern text of the newspaper implements a number of axiological strategies through which the identified concepts are embodied.

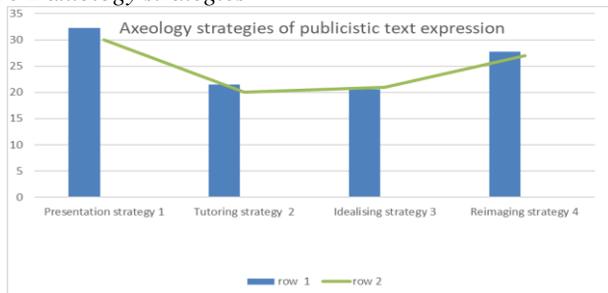
The study of the axiological characteristics of a newspaper text, in our opinion, is impossible without the study of these strategies since they put all the cognitive-linguistic tools used in the media text into a single integrated system.

We believe that the study of speech strategies from the point of view of axiological linguistics allows us to more accurately answer the questions "why?" and "how?" professional addressees who form the newspaper's text create texts that are attractive to readers.

As a result of the analysis of theoretical scientific research concerning the specifics of speech strategies, as well as considering the results of practical processing of empirical material, it was found that a single component that combines all axiologically labeled strategies is the communicative goal of influence, which, in turn, is designed to form a positive attitude towards the most important value dominants in the recipient and to facilitate their integration into the axiological system.

Ways to achieve this goal are to activate and form the most important human landmarks, embodied in the form of values and archetypes, as well as to use a complex of speech actions, which include assessment, high speech emotion, stylistic techniques, and stylistically colored vocabulary.

*Figure 2 axiology strategies*



Each of these strategies highlights a particular thematic and pragmatically determined situation and unfolds as a specific set of linguistic and extralinguistic means that affect the perception of the addressee.

The axiological component of strategies, at the same time, is embodied not only in the fact of using concepts embodying the values of the professional

community, and archetypal concepts used intentionally in the texts, but also manifests itself in the form of axiologically defined attitudes. The latter, in our opinion, involve not only the motivation of the addressee to take any action but also the integration of a particular model of behavior into the individual's value system. The most common axiological strategy identified in the newspaper text is the strategy presentation, found in 32.3% of articles analyzed during the study.

Thus, the fragments from the newspaper that we analyzed inform the reader about the widely-publicized event in the camp form a certain image and also encourage a certain assessment. The combination of linguistic and cognitive tools used by the author as part of the presentation strategy contributes to the perception of this text as a holistic news message containing an implicit appeal.

## **Conclusion**

Axiological picture of the world as part of a holistic picture of the world fragmentary displayed in texts, forming relatively independent (closed) value system - axiological field text. This is an axiological field. Obeying the laws of creation, functioning, decoding, and interpretation of a text is embodied in its axiological structure that is the result of interpretative activities of the author and reader. Any media and political text, regardless of genre affiliation and idiostyle, has an axiological structure. We can say that the condition for the appearance of the axiostructure is the very fact of the existence of the text and the subject creating it.

The specificity of the axiological structure is determined by a number of extralinguistic and linguistic factors. The newspaper text, becoming a fact of mass communication, is "saturated" with the functional, stylistic, pragmatic characteristics of the media.

The significance of the media in the life of modern man is determined by the creation of a media picture of the world. For the interpretation and analysis of newspaper texts, it becomes important to have a holistic view of the media picture of the world, which "appears as a kind of mosaic of private discursive options that differ thematically, media, etc." (Rezanova, 2008). Researchers come to the following conclusions about the media picture of the world: 1) the linguistic picture created in the discourses of the media gives an almost complete picture of the picture of the world that dominates in the mass consciousness; 2) among other factors (the individual's life experience, interpersonal communication and the activities of social institutions — churches, schools, etc.) that influence the formation of the picture of the world, the media are the dominant factor; 3) media information forms an information picture of the world, which in the media interacts with the linguistic a picture of the world; 4) as a result of the impact of the media in the recipient's picture of the world special cognitive structures are created, the mental-cognitive result of the interaction of communicants becomes important; 5) the assessment of the world through modeling the picture of the world is the media's most important task; 6) the purpose of the media impact is the general (nuclear) part of the individual's worldview; 7) the media are changing the individual picture of the world, but at the same time, individual pictures do not become unified; the media picture of the world has a regulatory function; 8) mass communication creates a special reality and a special subculture; 9) modern culture is to a large extent a product of the mass media system. The findings are not certain. So, some scholars argue that mass media do not create, but destroy culture (Luman, 2005), that "the effects of mass communication are most clearly manifested in the field of informing, rather than changing attitudes" (Boguslavskaya, 2008). Given the right to the existence of various views and concepts, one has to recognize the intuitively felt powerful influence of the media on the minds of modern cultural bearers. The pragmatics of media discourse determine

the “subordination” of the axiological structure to the goals of ideological influence on the mass recipient.

The study of the axiological field of newspaper texts, including the application of the axiological model proposed in the framework of this work, allows us to make several important generalizations and conclusions, which, in our opinion, must be considered when axiological analysis of objects in the linguistic-stylistic aspect.

Vertical and horizontal organization of values, their composition, the quantity, degree, and methods of codification form the specifics newspaper discourse. In the center of the political axiosphere there are legal, moral, and ethical values. Nuclear media texts reflect the conceptual system offered to the mass addressee as their value orientations, patterns, norms. The concept, value, and word form an axiological triad, which reveals the differences between philosophical entities, linguistic-cognitive and verbal units. An axiological concept is a cognitive construct that concentrates knowledge, ideas, concepts about the basic ethical, aesthetic, social, and other kinds of values - will and freedom, righteousness and sin, truth and truth, etc. Evaluation and evaluation are distinguished as potential and relevant. Evaluation is the potential of a language unit, its ability to explicate the positive or negative properties of an object, its fixation on the evaluation axis, its place in the axiological field.

Assessment is the mental-verbal action of assigning positive or negative properties to one or another object. The value enshrined in the consciousness of a native speaker as an axiological concept or value (evaluative) component of another conceptual unit acts as the basis for evaluation and is itself the object of evaluation. Value and its actualization are never reduced to the act of evaluation.

Values and assessments are inextricably linked with cognitive and verbal-mental phenomena - prototypes, stereotypes, norms. Prototypes are the basis for frames, scripts, concepts, gestalt. Prototype images are realized in axiologically marked, figurative nominations; prototype schemes are expressed at the semantic-syntactic, compositional levels, in the structure of the narrative.

The stereotype-image or stereotype-situation is the result of the interpretation of the corresponding prototype through the prism of social norms. Stereotypes are delimited from such cognitive constructs as a concept, frame, script, script, by a number of criteria: content, form, nature, degree of intuition.

Stereotypes are included in the axiological picture of the world, can be interpreted as values, and become the basis, motivation for evaluation. Social assessments are stereotyped in nature due to the dominance of the collective. The norm-standard as a positive assessment of the images and schemes of any objects and / or phenomena is fixed (or ready for implementation) in verbal form. The norm-standard approaches the stereotype, as it preserves the naive idea of the “normal” (ordinary) state of affairs. Positive cultural values are interpreted as norms. A norm can acquire the status of value if it is declared as a goal or is fixed on the reclamation axis (X is the norm and X is good). Normative statements are a special case of value judgment, serve the purpose of value argumentation, explicate the position of a collective author, broadcast ideological and other assessments.

The practical significance of the work lies in the fact that its results can be used in the practice of training linguists, journalists, strategists, and other specialists in the field of communication. Practical material and theoretical conclusions of the thesis can be reflected in the courses of text linguistics, stylistics, lingua-culturology, cognitive linguistics, and the language of the media.

A description of the mechanism for realizing the axiological potential of a media text, a number of compositional and stylistic techniques for enhancing the credibility of evaluation, euphemization, and dysfemization, creating a repertoire of

value-marked scenarios and axiological roles play the role of landmarks in journalistic and linguistic practice in achieving the optimal pragmatic effect in linguistics.

### **Bibliographic references**

- BABAEVA, E. V. 2002. Normative and evaluative concepts of German and Russian linguistic cultures. In: Reality, language and consciousness. Vol. 2. Tambov: Publishing house of TSU, pp. 379-386.
- BABAEVA, E. V. 2003. Discursive measurement of values: a monograph. Volzhsky. 102 p.
- BOGDANOVA, I. A. 2006. The functioning of the archetypal concept of "water" in the texts of folk and individual creativity: abstract. dis. ... cand. filol. Sciences: 10.02.19 / Bogdanova Irina Aleksandrovna. Perm. 24 p.
- BARNARD, M. 2002. Fashion as Communication. Second Edition In: M. Barnard. London; New York Routledge. 210 p.
- BECKER, H. S. 1984. Art Worlds. In: H.S. Becker. Berkeley University of California Press. 392 p.
- BOGUSLAVSKAYA, V. V. 2008. Text modeling: linguasociocultural concept. Analysis of journalistic texts. Publishing House of LCI. 280 p.
- BOURDIEU, P. 1987. Distinction: A Social Critique of the Judgment of Taste In: P. Bourdieu. Cambridge: Harvard University Press. 640 p.
- BOLOTNOVA, N. S. 2009. Communicative style of the text: vocabulary thesaurus. Flint: Nauka. 384 p.
- BRANDES, M. P. 2006. Criticism of translation: Workshop on stylistic-comparative analysis of translations of German and Russian literary texts. KDU. 240 p.
- BRANDES, M. P. 2009. Stylistic analysis: Based on German material. Librocom. 208 p.
- HALPERIN, I. R. 2006. Text as an object of linguistic research. KomKniga. 144 p.
- HEAR, P. M. 1985. Description and evaluation. In: New in foreign linguistics. vol. 16. Linguistic pragmatics. Progress, pp. 183-195.
- KARASIK, V. I. 2002. Language of social status. Gnosis. 333 p.
- KARASIK, V. I. 2004. Language personality: perspectives of linguistic personology. In: Language personality as a subject of theoretical and applied linguistics. Tula: Publishing house of TulSU. pp. 92-99.
- KARASIK, V. I. 2004. Language circle: personality, concepts, discourse. Gnosis. 392p.
- KRASNOYAROVA, O. V. 2002. The structure of the journalistic text. Irkutsk: Publishing House of BSUEP. 208 p.
- KRZESZOWSKI, T. P. 1997. Angels and Devils in Hell. Elements of Axiology in Semantic – T.P. Krzeszowski. Warsaw: Energeia. 298 p.
- LAGO, F. A. 1996. Axioematic analysis of brand names in English: A semanticopragmatic approach to branding. In: F.A. Lago – Multilingualism in Specialist Communication (Proceedings of the 10th European Symposium on Language for Special Purposes) / Gerhard Budin (ed.). - Vienna: IITF In: Infoterm, vol. II., pp. 991-1010.
- LUKIN, V. A. 2006. Crisis and text. Russian Word in the Russian World - 2005: State and Statehood in the Linguistic Consciousness of Russians. pp. 126-167.
- LUMAN, N. 2005. Reality mass media / trans. with him. A.Yu. Antonovsky. Praxis. 256 p.
- MARKELOVA, T. V. 1993. Assessment and appraisal. In: The semantic structure of words and utterances. pp. 107-115.
- MOSKALCHUK, G. G. 2003. Text structure as a synergistic process. URSS editorial. 296p.

- PAVLIKOVA, M. 2018. The power of modern technologies in the fiction of Don DeLillo. In: Communications - Scientific Letters of the University of Zilina, vol. 20, 1PartA, pp. 57-60. ISSN 1335-4205.
- PROKHOROV, Y. E. 2006. Reality. Text. Discourse. Flint: Nauka. 224 p.
- REZANOVA, Z. I. 2008. Modern institutional discourses: interpretive activities of the addressee. In: Commentary and interpretation of the text. Novosibirsk: Publishing House of NGPU, pp. 201-214.
- STOLOVICH, L. N. 1994. Beauty. Good. Truth: Essay on the history of aesthetic axiology. Republic. 464 p.
- SHIRYAEVA, T. A. 2013. Institutionality as the most important discourse-forming factor. In: T. A. Shiryayeva – Man. Tongue. Culture: Sat scientific Art. dedicated to the 60th anniversary of prof. IN AND. Karasika. Kiev: Publ. house of D. Burago, Part 1, pp. 780-790.
- SHIRYAEVA, T. A. 2009. Language as a means of constructing social reality. In: T.A. Shiryayeva – Language. Text. Discourse. Stavropol: Publishing House of the State Pedagogical Institute. n. 7. pp. 61-67.
- TURAEVA, Z. A. 2009. Linguistic text. Text: Structure and semantics. URSS, pp. 144.
- ZALEVSKAYA, A. A. 2006. Mental lexicon from the standpoint of different approaches. In: Actual problems of modern linguistics. Flint: Nauka. pp. 311-326.

*Words: 5043*

*Characters: 33 183 (18,44 standard pages)*

Assel Kozhakhmetova  
Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical University  
Department of Russian Language and Literature  
Dostyk ave 13, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

Zhanna Ospanova  
L.N.Gumilyov Eurasian National University,  
Foreign Philology Department  
st. Satbayeva 2, Almaty district, Nur-Sultan  
Kazakhstan

professor Manat Mussatayeva  
Abay Kazakh National Pedagogical University  
Department of Russian Language and Literature  
dostyk ave 13, Almaty  
Kazakhstan

associate professor Zhanat Bissenbayeva  
al Farabi Kazakh National university  
Temiryazeva street 71, Almaty  
Kazakhstan  
zhanat\_2006@mail.ru

## **Dialogic speech as a field of compound-complex sentence communicative types application**

Jerome Baghana – Elena A. Ogneva – Tatiana G. Voloshina – Galina V. Mironova – Katarina Slobodova Novakova

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.20

### **Abstract**

The purpose of the article is to identify the specifics of compound-complex sentences functioning in the dialogues of script texts. The research work has a complex system to analyze the linguistic processes, which are manifested in script texts of British and American scriptwriters. According to the study, the authors analyze the peculiarities of dialogue constituents and take the following definitions: communicative turn and communicative move, presenting the dialogue construction parts. In the given work, the peculiarities of communicative turn with such component as a compound-complex sentence is being analyzed. Special attention is paid to the position of the compound-complex sentence (initiative or reactive) in the script dialogues as well as the functions of the complex constructions are revealed, which are to give substantial information, describe reasons of actions, state the detailed events of the characters' past. English and American script texts present communication of characters, which is close to real everyday life expressions of people of all nations; they combine formal and informal types of communication. Compound complex sentences are an integral part of scripts dialogues of different genres. Nearly all types of compound-complex sentence variations (five out of six) are used as elements of script texts. The major part of compound-complex examples, found in dialogues of script texts in the initial position, presents the models with minimal compound blocks aiming to present general information. If the characters' intention is to reveal the shadow meanings, enumerate the facts, give profound information, the compound-complex sentences take the position of reaction; in this case, one can notice the extended types of complex models in dialogues of script texts.

**Key words:** dialogue, turn, move, script, initiative position, reaction position, compound-complex sentence, compound block, complex block

---

### **Introduction**

The study of the dialogue peculiarities as of a form of speech communication remains relevant for many decades, since the existing classical works and numerous studies, appearing recently, only partially highlight the mechanisms of interaction of communicants.

In this paper, the research of dialogical text is carried out on the example of script texts in the framework of system-structural and communicative directions. One of the key linguistic issues is the identification of the principles of the text formation process, which leads to the need to define textual constituents. However, despite the intensive development of communicative linguistics, at present, there is no unified classification of communicative units of dialogue speech.

It should be mentioned, the contribution of German linguists to the theory of dialogic communication is undeniable, since they made an initial attempt to identify the main components of minimal dialogic text units. G. Zimmermann, J. Weiss, J. Jager, J. Schwitalla, D. Krallmann, H. Henne, T. Rehbock, M. Muller, R. Schmachtenberg, S. Franke made significant contributions to the study of dialogic communication in the German linguistic school. For having codified the entire

linguistic experience in this field, B. Techtmeier identifies three components as micro units of dialogic speech: *gesprächsschritt*, *repliken*, *äußerungen* [Techtmeier, 1984].

The British linguistic school of dialogue (M. Coulthard, J. Sinclair) calls the minimum unit of dialogical speech *turn*. The set of turns giving the formation is called *move*.

Many researchers studying dialogical units proceed from the proposed system of units developed by Russian linguist L. M. Mikhailov, where the main components of dialogical unity are the *communicative turn* and the *communicative move*.

According to this classification, the *communicative turn* is the minimum unit of speech activity in dialogic communication that belongs to one communicant and goes back to one syntactic model (Mikhailov, 2000: 15).

Traditionally, *communication turns* are divided into *initiating* or opening statements and *reacting* - ones that reveal the addressee's point of view. The composition of both the initiating and reacting communicative turns can be represented by any type of statement - motivational, interrogative, emotional, exclamation.

Between the communicative turns, initiating and the reacting turns associated with it, a variety of logical and semantic dialogic relations can arise, which is possible due to two features of the turn as of a minimal unit of dialogic communication: 1) to open form the narrative turn, 2) to be one of the most general intentions and to inherit it, it is the message transforming procedure (Mikhailov, 2000: 45).

The communicative move is a larger unit of dialogic communication, which consists of two or more turns and allows the speaker to fully implement his plan (Mikhailov, 2000: 24). Problems affecting various aspects of the communicative process were covered in the research of such linguists as C. Goffman, P. V. Zernetsky, T. A. Zaitseva, A. V. Belova and others. The analysis of existing concepts and dialogic contexts suggests that the term communicative move most adequately reflects the essence and functions of the speech contribution to the dialogue before the turn-taking process.

By a *communicative move*, we mean a communicative unit consisting of two or more *communicative turns*, used by one communicant, implementing the speaker's communicative intent.

The components of the communicative turn present interrogative, affirmative, exclamation sentences. Like a communicative turn, communicative moves are divided into initiating (stimulating, controlling, intentional) and reacting (responsive, dependent). The typology of initiating and reacting moves is very diverse and includes communication moves consisting of two, three, four, or more steps.

### **Methods**

Methods of the analysis are defined by the objectives, theoretical and practical orientation of the research, and the character of the presented material. In the paper the authors implied various types of analysis: the linguistic, functional, and interdisciplinary analysis. Linguistic and non-linguistic information is taken into account for this study. The main attention is paid to linguistic and non-linguistic information, intercultural analyses, especially dealing with the problem of mentality and language correlation.

### **Results and discussions**

Dialogue, as a form of speech, assumes the existence of a larger unit of speech created by two communicants. In linguistics, there are many terms used to denote textual units of a monologue, such as "dictema" (M. Bloch), "speech complex" (I. G. Koshevaya), "super-phrasal unity" (N. A. Levkovskaya, L. A. Bulakhovskiy),

“paragraph” (A. M. Peshkovsky), “complex syntactic whole unit” (G. L. Solganik). The intensive study of the dialogic text has led researchers to the need to identify a certain macro unit of dialogic communication.

For the first time in Russian linguistics, an attempt was made to justify the typology of “dialogical unities” in the work of L. Leonov, the author defined it as “any pair of replicas between which there is a semantic, anaphoric or structural connection.” On this basis, the author distinguished three types of dialogical unities: 1. semantic, 2. anaphoric, 3. structural (Leonov, 2000: 3-5).

In American pragmatic linguistics, the term “adjacency pairs” is proposed to denote a unit consisting of correlated utterances of two interlocutors; this term refers to pairs of utterances: *question – answer, greeting – greeting, offer – acceptance of the offer, apology – acceptance of the apology* (Levinson, 2000: 30).

The term “Paarsequenzen,” proposed in the course of German linguists, similarly implies “the standard of repeated statements that have a specific character and correlate speech contributions, for example, *greeting – greeting, question – answer, offer – acceptance (rejection), reproach – justification*” (Meibauer, 2001: 133).

Following L. M. Mikhailov in our research, we use the term “dialogical unity”, which means “a monothematic unit of dialogue with communicative integrity, created by two communicants, set by a communicative intent and expressed in the logical-semantic, grammatical, lexical, prosodic correlation of components” (Mikhailov, 2000:79).

Thus, in our study we proceed from the hierarchy of communicative units, in accordance with which the lower level is the minimal unit of speech activity dialogic communication is “communication turn” which belongs to one of the communicants, and goes back to the same syntactic pattern; at a higher level is another unit – “communication move,” consisting of two or more communication steps representing a unified communication of one interlocutor; the macro unit of dialogic communication is a dialogic unity consisting of communicative turns and moves that are united by a single theme and implemented by two or more communicants.

In the course of our research, the analysis of the functioning of compound-complex sentences is carried out on the material of dialogic script texts of British and American scriptwriters in the position of a communicative turn.

The communicative goal of the dialogue is to achieve a common intention of the speakers, which is implemented on the principle of cooperation or communicative cooperation, and it is implemented by communicants in the form of a communicative turn.

The analysis of the script texts has shown that in the vast majority of cases, the studied compound-complex sentence occupies the position of the reacting step (72% of the entire body of examples representing the minimum communicative unit), for example:

Eric: “*And I know it now more than anything, your father he wants to know that we're safe, okay?*”

Amanda: “*We'll get out of here, and everything will be fine, I promise*” (Jurassic Park II).

In this dialogue, the reacting turn is a compound-complex sentence, combining the minimal compound-complex (*we'll get out of here*) in the initial position and the minimal complex set (*and everything will be fine, I promise*) in the final position. The analyzed offer contains the intention of the speaker - the reacting communicant promises that they will be able to overcome all difficulties.

The frequency of compound-complex sentences with compound and complex blocks located in the position of the initiating step is 28% of the entire corpus of sentences that represent the minimum communicative unit, for example:

WOO: *"This morning, you switched off at six-thirty-four, and when you started working again, it was auxiliary power.*

Arnold: *My God! The auxiliary generator is triggered first and then used to start the main generator because it needs a strong charge. The main generator must be reset manually"* (Jurassic Park).

As the initiation of the analyzed dialogue, the initiatory turn is expressed by a compound-complex sentence with a minimal compound-complex (*You shut down at six thirty-four this morning*) occupying the initial position, and a minimal complex set (*and when you started back up, it was with auxiliary power*) in the final position. This initiating turn has the idea to present general information of an event – to give the message: *the hero left the workplace and forgot to turn off additional equipment.*

In the course of the study, it was noted that in the initiating positions of the communicative turns, a compound-complex sentence with parataxis and hypotaxis blocks is less common to be found, since this position implies the beginning of a conversation: prompting replicas most often do not require a detailed form.

It seems that the reason of the overwhelming number of examples constitute a reacting turn is that compound-complex sentences are the grammatical form that can cover a large amount of information and serve as the optimal syntactic tool used by communicants to narrate events, explain reasons, enumerate arguments, for example:

WATSON: *"You could have done worse."*

GABRIELLE: *"I was on my way here, and suddenly there were footsteps behind me, and because I felt a hand over my mouth and the smell of chloroform struck my nose I was half unconscious and afterward I felt I was in the water and then a man was wrapping me in a blanket"* (Carnahan 2012).

In this example, the reacting turn is construction with an extended complex sets (*I was on my way here*), (*and suddenly there were footsteps behind me*), (*and then a man was wrapping me in a blanket*) in the initial position, interposition and finite position, an extended compound-complex (*and because I felt a hand over my mouth and the smell of chloroform struck my nose I was half unconscious*) in the interposition and the minimal compound-complex (*then I felt I was in the water*) in the interposition.

In the analyzed sentence, the heroine Gabriella tells the detective Sherlock Holmes and Dr. Watson about the circumstances under which she was attacked, while her response is a whole story: *the girl was walking home late in the evening, heard someone's footsteps, she was attacked by a stranger and tried to put her to sleep, then threw her into the river, then another man saved the heroine, and she regained consciousness at the moment when she was wrapped in a blanket.*

Many researchers of dialogic speech study initiating and reacting turns from the point of view of the purpose of the utterance: a communicative turn can be represented by a narrative, motivational or interrogative sentence (L. M. Mikhailov, L. M. Koloeva, T. A. Zaitseva, A. A. Rodicheva).

The narrative sentence as a functional type has the leading intent of giving the message, which sets the communicative intent of this communicative type of a sentence. In comparison with other functional types of sentence – interrogative and incentive – the narrative sentence expresses the intention of the utterance in grammatical terms less vividly, so it is more flexible to transformations, functional modifications.

In dialogical texts of film scripts, it was found that a compound-complex sentence with parataxis and hypotaxis, which occupies the position of the initiating step, is usually a narrative utterance (82% of all sentences for the purpose of utterance in the initiating position), for example:

AGENT SMITH: “*We are willing to wipe the slate clean, to give you a fresh start and all we are asking in return is your cooperation in bringing a known terrorist to justice (Neo nods to himself).*”

NEO: “*Yeah. Wow. That sounds like a real good deal*” (Carnahan 2012).

In this dialogue, the analyzed turn is expressed by a compound-complex sentence in the form of a narrative statement. This sentence is formed by a model with a minimal paratactic complex and a minimal hypotactic complex.

The frequency of compound-complex sentences expressed by a narrative utterance and located in the position of the reacting step reaches 87% of all sentences for the purpose of the utterance in the reacting position, for example:

CARTER: “*Oh, Cyril, eh? So it's all girls together, is it?*”

ERIC: “*He's thinking Sid and Gerald won't like it much when they hear you've been sticking your nose in, but we have to be diplomatic*” (Ephron 2002).

The reacting step in this dialogue is represented by a compound-complex sentence in the form of a narrative utterance. The analyzed sentence has the intent of a message: the main character says that he does not like to be interfered with. The analyzed compound-complex sentence combines an extended hypotactic complex (*He's thinking Sid and Gerald won't like it much when they hear you've been sticking your nose in*) in the initial position and a minimal paratactic complex (*but we have to be diplomatic*) in the final position. The extended hypotactic complex contains four predicative units and is built on a type of syntactic relationships, such as sequential subordination.

In the course of the analysis of compound-complex constructions in the reacting position, it was noted that there is a connection between the narrative structure of a sentence and the number of links in its chain. The largest number of links in the extended hypotactic complex reaches four predicative units, as evidenced by the previous example.

The syntactic form of compound-complex constructions with an extended hypotactic complex and a minimal paratactic complex can be very diverse and include not only constructions based on sequential subordination (66% of sentences of this type), but also models with homogeneous (11%) and heterogeneous (23%) subordination.

Examples:

1. PAUL: “*Maybe I'm not ready yet ...*”

JOSEPH: “*I don't know if you're ready to see what I want to show you, but unfortunately, we have run out of time*” (Ephron 2002).

2. DANIEL: “*I will never agree to all this.*”

CAROL: “*But if you don't join me, then there won't be no settlement because you'll be murdered in the street, and the whole Points will be mine*” (Gangs of New York).

The reacting turn in the first dialogue is construction with an extended hypotactic complex in the initial position (*I don't know if you're ready to see what I want to show you*) and a minimal paratactic complex in the final position (*but unfortunately, we have run out of time*). The extended hypotactic complex of the analyzed sentence is based on such a type of syntactic connection as sequential subordination.

In the second dialogue, the compound-complex sentence is constructed with an extended hypotactic complex (*But if you don't join with me, then there won't be no settlement because you'll be murdered in the street*) in the initial position and a minimal paratactic complex (*and the whole Points will be mine*) in the final position. The extended hypotactic complex combines three predicative units and is formed by means of non-uniform subordination.

A communicative turn represented by a narrative compound-complex sentence, implemented in the form of a communicative turn, in the vast majority of

examples is a narrative construction (82% of all compound-complex sentences) and has a large structural diversity: six types of models can be distinguished. Compound complex constructions in the form of a narrative utterance represent both an initiating and reacting turns.

The most productive model of a compound-complex sentence in the position of the initiating turn is a construction that combines a minimal paratactic complex and a minimal closed-type hypotactic complex (68% of the body of examples that function as an initiating step), for example:

EDWARD: *"It was a hard period but now I know what the real life is."*

HAROLD: *"Even when you're taught by misfortunes?"* (Hodge 2000).

It should be noted that most of these constructions are not used for detailed descriptions or to convey the thoughts of the characters, which was illustrated in the examples.

The frequency of use of constructions with minimal paratactic complex and extended hypotactic complex is 2.5 times lower than constructions with minimal complexes, and is 25% of all sentences that represent a communicative turn, for example:

CHARLIE: *"Well, I've met some very remarkable people in India and – and when I read what you've been doing here, I – I wanted to help."*

GANDHI: *"Not anymore"* (Briley 2000).

The analyzed compound-complex sentence in the position of the initiating turn is a construction with a minimal paratactic complex in the initial position (*Well, I've met some very remarkable people in India*) and an extended hypotactic complex in the final position (*and – and when I read what you've been doing here, I – I wanted to help*). The hypotactic complex in a sentence is based on a type of syntactic connection, such as sequential subordination. The structural feature of the analyzed constructions that occupy the initiating position is that the hypotactic complex is formed by a single syntactic connection, mainly sequential subordination.

The least productive construction of a compound-complex sentence in the initiation of dialogues of script texts is a model with hypotactic complexes combined by the composition, the frequency of such models reaches 7%.

One must mention, British and American scripts in the position of the initiating turn, two-complex constructions consisting of two minimal closed-type hypotactic complexes are typical, for example:

WATSON: *"He used to think over all the details himself only cause this made me thinking and when at last I got his ideas it was like a thunderstorm in summer"* (Carnahan 2000).

The compound-complex sentence of the analyzed example occupies the position of the initiating step and combines two minimal hypotactic complexes (1 complex: *He used to think over all the details himself only cause this made me thinking*, 2 complex: *and when at last I got his ideas it was like a thunderstorm in summer*) in the initial and final positions.

The other types of constructions (a model with an extended paratactic and minimal hypotactic complex, a structure with an extended paratactic and extended hypotactic complex, a model with a minimum or extended and multiple hypotactic complexes) were not identified in the position of the initiating step in any dialogue of the film scripts.

In the reacting position, the communicative turn, represented by five structural types of a compound-complex sentence, is implemented in the following types of constructions: models with minimal paratactic and minimal hypotactic complex of closed type, structures with extended hypotactic complex with minimal paratactic complex, construction with expanded paratactic complex and minimal hypotactic complex, a model with several hypotactic complexes combined by an

essay, a construction with a minimal or expanded paratactic complex and several hypotactic complexes.

The most productive models combine a minimal paratactic complex and a minimal closed-type hypotactic complex. The frequency of such constructions reaches 51% of all affirmative sentences used in the reacting position, for example:

STARLING: “*Has something happened on the case?*”

CRAWFORD: “*Well, Mason doesn't know the details of the case but he does apparently have some new information which he'll only share with you*” (Zaillian 2000).

This compound-complex sentence in the reacting turn represents a construction with a minimal paratactic complex in the initial position (*Well, Mason doesn't know the details of the case*) and a minimal hypotactic complex (*but he does apparently have some new information which he'll only share with you*) in the final position. The three-part compound-complex sentence being analyzed is used in this dialogue to convey a small amount of factual material: a prisoner named Mason is willing to share information with a police agent.

A more voluminous construction used in the script text in the reaction position is a compound-complex sentence with a combination of an extended hypotactic complex and a minimal paratactic complex. The studied constructions represent a communicative step in dialogues of script texts half as much as nuclear sentences (26% of the sentences in the reacting position), for example:

HOLMES: “*My dear Mrs. Hudson – criminals are as unpredictable as head-colds. You never quite know when you're going to catch one*”.

MRS. HUDSON: “*I do wish you'd give me a little more warning when you come home unexpected, and I would have roasted a goose – and had some flowers for you*” (Carnahan 2000).

The compound-complex sentence is a combination of an extended hypotactic complex (*I do wish you'd give me a little more warning when you come home unexpected*) and a minimal paratactic complex (*and I would have roasted a goose – and had some flowers for you*). The extended hypotactic complex of this sentence is based on such a type of syntactic connection as sequential subordination.

Examples of compound-complex sentences with a minimal paratactic complex and an extended hypotactic complex based on sequential subordination are the most productive of the examples of this type; the frequency is 87%. In contrast to compound-complex constructions in the initiation, constructions in reaction with an extended hypotactic complex are based not only on homogeneous subordination but also on such types of syntactic connection as homogeneous and heterogeneous subordination. However, such constructions do not have a high frequency and makeup 8% and 5%, respectively.

The productivity of compound-complex sentences with an extended paratactic complex and a minimal hypotactic complex in the position of the reacting turn decreases and, compared with the initiating turn, is used four times less often, which is 12%, for example:

HOLMES: “*So, what do we have after all?*”

WATSON: “*We have so far investigated eight drafty castles and inns and our bicycles had been attacked by sheep and our ears were assaulted by bagpipes of witnesses to be and we are exactly where we started*” (Carnahan 2000).

In this example, a compound-complex sentence that takes the position of a reacting turn combines an extended paratactic complex that combines three blocks (*We have so far invested eight drafty castles*) – (*and our bicycles had been attacked by sheep*) – (*and our ears were assaulted by bagpipes*), and a minimal hypotactic complex (*and we are exactly where we started*). The analyzed five-part sentence is the optimal form for implementing a large amount of information. When asked by

Sherlock Holmes about the result of the search for evidence, Dr. Watson describes in detail all the actions that the friends took that day: firstly, they visited more than eight castles and hotels, secondly, they were blocked by a flock of sheep, then they barely endured the music of bagpipes, and in the end, it turned out that all attempts were unsuccessful.

Sentences based on a model with several hypotactic complexes combined by a composition account for 7% in the reacting position, as do constructions implemented in the initiating position, for example:

Librarian: “*What should I do with you?*”

Evelyn: “*You put up with me because I can read and write ancient Egyptian, decipher hieroglyphs and hieroglyphs, and I'm the only person within a thousand miles who knows how to properly encode and catalog this library*” (Sommers 2000).

The compound-complex sentence in this dialogue combines two minimal hypotactic complexes.

It should be noted that the main function of hypotactic complexes is the development of storylines in the text, which was studied on the material of English fiction. In the texts of scripts, hypotactic complexes also perform this function, which is clearly shown in sentences with a hypotactic chain with a deepening syntactic perspective.

The least productive construction in the reacting position is a model with a combination of a minimal or extended paratactic complex and several hypotactic complexes, the frequency of such proposals reaches 4 %, for example:

LAWRENCE: “*Can I help you?*”

WILLIAM: “*Well, yes, I wish I hadn't overheard your conversation – but I did, and I just think, you know...*”

Комментарий сценариста: “*He's not a very convincing or frightening figure*”.

WILLIAM: “*...the person you're talking about is a real person and she probably deserves a little bit more consideration cause she's a woman*” (Curtis 1997).

This compound-complex sentence combines two minimal hypotactic complexes in the initial (*Well, yes, I wish I hadn't overheard your conversation*) and finite (*and she probably deserves a little bit more consideration cause she's a woman*) positions, an interpositional paratactic complex (*but I did*) and an extended hypotactic complex based on sequential submission (*and I just think, you know. the person you're talking about is a real person*). In the extended hypotactic complex, there is a deepening of the syntactic perspective to three connected subordinate parts.

The analyzed compound-complex sentence is the reasoning of William, who met his girlfriend in a cafe and hears the customers at the next table expressing their opinion about his companion: firstly, the hero is sorry that he interferes in the conversation, and secondly, he is embarrassed, he says that all people deserve respect, and, finally, declares that it is indecent for men to speak about a woman that way.

This sentence is interrupted by a pause (which is indicated by an ellipsis in the text), during which William gathers his thoughts. At the place of the sentence break, the scriptwriter's remark is given that the hero is far from a confident person. After a short pause, William continued his speech and managed to protect the dignity of his companion. The compound-complex sentences, in which the line chain breaks, are typical only for texts of dialogic communication.

Therefore, in contrast to nuclear compound-complex sentences that describe limited factual material, constructions with extended paratactic or hypotactic complexes provide a broader description of events and contribute to the detail of the storyline of the script. Five models out of six, which are used to construct compound-complex sentences are actively used by the authors of scripts to implement this or that information in a reacting position.

## Conclusions

To sum it all, a compound-complex sentence, represented by a communicative turn, is an integral component of the dialogical texts of the scripts. The productivity of narrative constructions, in contrast to interrogative and motivational ones, which function as a communicative turn in the scripts, is 84.5% of the entire corpus of constructions. The degree of demand for compound complex constructions in the reacting position is three times greater than in the initiating position, which is determined by the communicative task of the text and is associated with the need to provide more detailed information about characters, events, time, and place of action in the reacting position than in the initiating position. In contrast to the three models that generate offers in the initiating position, the number of implemented models in the initiating position increases to five out of six possible ones. The most frequent models in the positions of initiation and reaction are minimal models (51% - 68%) and constructions with an extended hypotactic complex and a minimal paratactic complex (26% – 25%), which form the basis of the most productive constructions used in dialogic texts of film scripts.

## Bibliographic references

- BRILEY J. 2000-2012. Gandhi. Kinomania.ru. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Gandhi/script\\_466.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Gandhi/script_466.shtml).
- CARNAHAN M. M. 2000-2012. Kingdom. Electronic script. Kinomania.ru. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/k/Kingdom/script\\_356.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/k/Kingdom/script_356.shtml).
- CURTIS R. 1997-2012. Notting Hill. Electronic screenplay. Movie-Page.com. Orlando. Available online: <http://home.online.no/~bhundlan/scripts/NottingHill.htm>.
- EPHRON N. 2002-2011. You've Got Mail (based on The Shop Around the Corner by N. Laszlo). English online. Abc-english-grammar.com. Khaifa, Israel. Available online: <http://abc-english-grammar.com/1/scripts21.htm>.
- GANGS OF NEW YORK. 2000-2012. Kinomania.ru. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Gangs\\_Of\\_NY/script\\_244.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Gangs_Of_NY/script_244.shtml).
- HODGE J. 2000-2012. The Beach. Electronic script. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/b/Beach/script\\_156.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/b/Beach/script_156.shtml).
- JURASSIC PARK. 2000-2012. Electronic script. HomeEnglish. Available online: <http://www.homeenglish.ru/scjur.htm>.
- JURASSIC PARK II. 2000-2012. Electronic script. HomeEnglish. Available online: <http://www.homeenglish.ru/scjura.htm>.
- LEONOV S. A. 2000. The interaction of the analysis and interpretation in the text study. Penza. 40p.
- LEVINSON S. C. 2000. Presumptive meanings: the theory of generalized conversational implicature. Cambridge, Mass. MIT Press. 480 p.
- MALA, E. – MUGLOVA, D. – STRANOVSKA, E. 2019. Stimulation of creativity potential and ambiguity tolerance as effective foreign language teaching predictors. In: Slavonic Pedagogical Studies Journal, vol. 8. n. 1, pp. 164-175. ISSN 1339-8660
- MEIBAUER J. 2001. Pragmatik: eine Einführung. Tübingen : Stauffenburg. 208 p.
- MIKHAILOV L. M. 2003. German language: grammar of oral speech. Moscow: Astrel. 348 p.
- RUBIN B. J. 2000-2012. Ghost. Kinomania.ru. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Ghost/script\\_312.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/g/Ghost/script_312.shtml).
- SOMMERS S. 2000-2012. The Mummy. Electronic script. Kinomania.ru. Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/m/Mummy/script\\_126.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/m/Mummy/script_126.shtml).
- TECHTMEIER B. 1984. Das Gespräch: Funktionen, Normen und Strukturen. Berlin : Akademie-Verlag. 201 p.
- Available online: [http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/h/Hannibal/script\\_43.shtml](http://www.kinomania.ru/movies/h/Hannibal/script_43.shtml).

*Words: 5052*

*Characters: 33 001 (18,33 standard pages)*

Jerome Baghana  
Belgorod State University  
Studencheskaia Street 14  
308015, Belgorod  
Russia  
Baghana@yandex.ru

Elena A. Ogneva  
Belgorod State University  
Studencheskaia Street 14  
308015, Belgorod  
Russia

Tatiana G. Voloshina  
Belgorod State University  
Studencheskaia Street 14  
308015, Belgorod  
Russia  
tatianavoloshina@rambler.ru

Galina V. Mironova  
Belgorod State University  
Studencheskaia Street 14  
308015, Belgorod  
Russia

Katarína Slobodová Nováková  
University of Ss. Cyril and Methodius  
Namestie J. Herdu 2  
Trnava, 91701  
Slovakia  
katarina.novakova@ucm.sk

# Exploring illocutionary acts employed by autistic children: The case of Indonesian children

Luluk Sri Agus Prasetyoningsih – Eko Suhartoyo – M. Faruq Ubaidillah

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.21

## Abstract

This study documented illocutionary acts employed by Indonesian children who had autism spectrum disorder (ASD). Twelve children were recruited using a convenience sampling technique. The data were gathered through in-depth observation and clinical intervention settings. These data were then analyzed qualitatively. The findings of this study portrayed that the participants employed three illocutionary acts in their communication. They employed directive (D), expressive (E), assertive, and speech acts (A) or DEA. Interestingly, the participants did not produce commissive and declarative utterances. Instead, they used declaration (D), interrogative (I), and imperative (I) speech acts. Based on the findings, it can be asserted that in terms of communication skills, the participants generally deployed simple directive, assertive, and expressive (DEA) speech acts with a direct literal speech act strategy. This study also suggested that in language learning and clinical intervention, teachers or therapists should consider the individual condition and understand the autistic children's illocutionary speech acts.

**Key words:** autism spectrum disorder (ASD), children, language learning, clinical intervention

---

## Introduction

Autism spectrum disorder (ASD) suffered by children is a severe problem in communication. Researchers have attempted to explore what factors influence its presence and proliferation (Lord, Elsabbagh, Baird, Veenstra-Vanderweele, 2018), and how the sufferers convey messages in their communication (Yates, Le Couteur, 2016). Theoretically, autism spectrum disorder is a problem of behavioral and neurological aspects influencing people's communication abilities and interactions in the communities (Barakat, Bakr, & El-Sayad, 2019; Nalle, Klau, 2019). Based on survey data from the US Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC) in 2014, the number of autistic people in the United States was within a ratio of 1:59. In particular, it ranged between 1 out of 42 males and 1 out of 189 females. The proportion of individuals with autism in Indonesia is still unknown. However, the number of individuals with ASD in Indonesia has been increasing. The data were taken and estimated from the total visit in public hospitals and psychiatrists at the children's developmental clinic during the past decades.

Moreover, it is predicted that the number of autistic children would reach 60% out of the total population of children all over the world (Wijayakusuma, 2004). This increasing number of autistic children has become an intriguing study background to be examined from various aspects, both medical and non-medical perspectives. In medical studies, myriad experts such as psychologists, pediatricians, and medical practitioners are examining this ASD. In Indonesia, communication disorders suffered by autistic children have been a mushrooming topic discussed by scholars. In the clinical autism intervention, the application of the Applied Behavior Analysis (ABA) method or Lovaas' method is consistently used to deal with autism, which was developed in the 1990s (Handoyo, 2009). The previous pragmatics study focusing on applied linguistics and communication disorders on autistic children was conducted

by Cummings (2010). The pragmatics phenomenon called speech acts pattern (Searle, 1969) is an original and significant thought of the object of the study on applied linguistics (Cumming, 2010).

In the applied linguistics theory, Searle (1969) classified three types of speech acts, namely: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary act. A locutionary act is an act of saying something. However, the locutionary act has been less essential in speech acts research. While perlocutionary act is the act of affecting the interlocutors, it is also known as the act of affecting someone. The illocutionary act deals with the interlocutor's intention (Rahardi, 2005; Searle, 1969). Austin and Searle's notions of speech acts are related to normal speech between speakers and interlocutors. Both of them have not provided specific speech act theories for both children and adults who experienced communication disorders. Based on the theoretical findings, it is indicated that there has been a relatively small number of speech acts theory of speakers who experienced communication disorder.

Previously, Prasetyoningsih (2016) contended that interlocutors' speech acts strategy used by autistic children has slight attention from scholars. Generally, the notions of speech act strategy refer to a normal human speech. Wijana (1996) documented three speech act theories. First, based on the continuity way of expression; second, based on the literal expression, and the last is based on the intersection or combination of both. Normal speakers in normal speaking practice generally apply the above-mentioned theoretical types and speech act strategies (Tharian et al., 2019). Children who experience certain neurological disorders tend to cause brain malfunctions, and it affects their growth and development deficits. According to Alloy, as cited in Delphie (2009), one of the results of a neurological study discussed the cause of autism, which was derived from brain deficits or abnormalities and occurred inside one of the brain nerves (*cerebellum, limbic, dendrites, and megalencephaly*). This abnormality may affect cognitive ability, interaction and communication, emotions, and behavior.

Studies on children with certain neurological disorders, as well as autism, are still scant. However, one study on speech acts of autistic children was conducted by Crystal and Varley (1998). Their study investigated the exchange of clinical conversations of autistic children. The results showed that none of the speech roles performed by the autistic children was meaningful related to the standard speech roles performed by previous therapists. Another similar study was conducted by Bishop and Norbury (2002). They found that there was an increasing number of children with a pragmatic disorder who had difficulty in speaking. Pragmatic disorders are characterized as difficulty in perceiving or understanding the conversation, including language use, both receptive and productive skills. This kind of disorder was previously known as a semantic-pragmatic disorder.

Clinical pragmatic study in Indonesia has gained much attention; for instance, a study on speech acts in a clinical context has been conducted by Prasetyoningsih (2014). Her study investigated the language use of therapists in the intervention of autistic children with communication disorders. The participants of the study were the therapists who deal with autistic children with communication disorders. The therapeutic acts of the therapists were classified based on type, function, and communication strategy. The results indicated that the three types of therapists' speech acts (directive, assertive, and expressive) were used in clinical intervention.

Conducting a study that focuses on speech acts strategy used by autistic children has always been an interesting and central reason (Searle, 1983, Wijana, 1996). Moreover, such studies seem sparse in academia, particularly in the Indonesian context. Informed by this scant empirical research, the present study seeks to explore illocutionary acts employed by twelve Indonesian autistic children in terms of their communication, social interaction, and behavior disorders.

## Methodology

This study employed a case study design. According to Creswell (2014), this design can be deployed to explore activities carried out by one or more people in situated practice. In this design, researchers attempt to capture meanings from an event (Merriam, 2010). Contextual settings are the primary source that researchers observe in a case study design. The goals are to understand and “how” and “why” a phenomenon of an event runs (Ridder, 2017). Thereby, under this framework, the present study was carried out. In the context of this study, the researchers use the design of a case study to observe how twelve autistic children produce illocutionary acts in their communication.

This study recruited twelve Indonesian children purposely (Gall, 2014). They were all autistic and trained to communicate verbally in one private hospital in Malang, East Java, Indonesia. They have been experiencing communication disorders for several years, and, at the time of this study was undertaken, they were in a clinical intervention in the hospital.

**Table 1.** Participants’ Demography Information

No	Participants (pseudonym)	Sex	IQ	Ages	Second language	ASD (years)
1	Fina	female	normal	8	Indonesian language	5
2	Andrew	male	normal	8	Indonesian language	5
3	Ria	female	normal	7	Indonesian language	6
4	Johan	male	normal	9	Indonesian language	5
5	Rudi	male	normal	7	Indonesian language	6
6	Angga	male	normal	8	Indonesian language	6
7	Lusi	female	normal	9	Indonesian language	5
8	Imelda	female	normal	9	Indonesian language	5
9	Yuli	female	normal	10	Indonesian language	6
10	Amel	female	normal	9	Indonesian language	6
11	Zidan	male	normal	7	Indonesian language	5
12	Romi	male	normal	8	Indonesian language	6

From the frameworks of a case study design and to capture meanings of naturally occurring phenomena, this study employed a non-participant observation method (Creswell, 2014). The recording technique aimed to obtain videotapes of illocutionary acts employed in the children’s communication. The researchers were assisted by two

therapists working in the hospital. They both invited children to communicate. When the communication took place, the videotapes recording was run within 45 minutes to an hour. The recording was deemed satisfactory and ended if verbal data from the children were obtained.

The verbal data were then analyzed by applying qualitative analysis procedures adapted from Miles and Huberman (1994) covering the transcription, reduction, identification, interpretation, verification, and conclusion approaches, respectively. This study attempted to re-interpret the leading theory of illocutionary acts by Rahardi (2005) and Searle (1983). They categorized five types of illocutionary acts: (a) assertive act, (b) directive act, (c) commissives act, (d) expressive act, and (e) declarative act (Castleberry, Nolen, 2018). However, the way of speech acts performed by autistic children was analyzed using the theory of speech acts strategy developed by Wijana (1996).

## Results

The results of this study uncover the characteristics of autistic children with communication disorders and the pattern of illocutionary acts employed. The autistic children with communication disorders have several challenges, for instance, having speech lateness and flat expression, being repetitive or using rigid language, being unable to imitate utterances, having difficulty in understanding what others say to them, and rarely do they start simple communications. The characteristics of this communication disorder are following the DSM IV criterion, which is qualitative impairment in communicating, shown at least one of these disorders.

Language learning in the clinical intervention of the autistic children with communication disorders implemented the ABA method with the one-child-one-therapy system. To overcome these challenges, the autistic children were treated by implementing communication therapy in their language learning. Furthermore, they were trained to imitate certain utterances of language and sound. To express themselves (e.g., smile and laugh), they were trained to use language appropriately, and then they were treated to understand what others say to them (receptive). They were also stimulated to start speaking and to communicate with their social environment, even in simple utterances. According to US Preventive Services Task Force (2006), generally, a child is said to have speech lateness or communication disorder if he or she is experiencing these following criteria: being able to make factual statements (*true speech*), on occasion, their statements may appear later, or even they do not appear at all, the existence of irregular sounds, syllables, and words, their language skills are below the standards of normal-child ability at the same age.

The observation results on speech acts of the autistic children with communication disorders showed the presence of the illocutionary acts employed by them. The autistic children, in general, were only able to use simple limited speech acts. For instance, short and incomplete speech acts consisting of one or two words were used. Interlocutors can only understand the speech acts in limited ways. Moreover, autistic children with communication disorders tend to have less imagination. Based on the data analysis, there were three types of illocutionary acts employed by autistic children.

First, directive speech acts (D). It is a speech that requires interlocutors to do the action as what was expected by the autistic children. Based on the directive acts data analysis, it was found that the forms of imperative, request, rejection, and question appeared in the speech acts. The form of imperative speech acts is, for example, the pronunciation of the word “*take*” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*ambil*” was pronounced as “*ambi*”. The autistic children intended to make the interlocutor understand what they wanted. The form of the request speech acts is, for example, the pronunciation of the word “*ask*” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*minta*” was pronounced as “*ita*” (while raising hands), in which the autistic children asked for

something to the interlocutor. The form of rejection speech act is, for example, the pronunciation of the word “no” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*tidak*” was pronounced as “*dak*” (while shaking their head), in which the autistic children expected the interlocutor not to do something. The form of question speech act is, for example, the pronunciation word “*what*” in Bahasa Indonesia known as “*apa*” was pronounced as “*pah*” (high intonation), in which it means asking for something to the partner said.

The second type is the expressive speech act (E). Expressive utterances are expressions showing the psychological condition or feelings of the speaker. Based on the expressive speech acts data analysis, it is found that the use of speech acts in the form of complimenting and thanking expressions existed in the communication. The form of complimenting speech acts expressions is, for example, the pronunciation of the word “*good*” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*bagus*” was pronounced as “*aju*” (while nodding head). This was the expression of feelings. In order that the speakers do something in line with the expectations. The expression of gratitude was shown when the autistic children said ‘*aci*’ to mean ‘*terimakasih*’ which means “*thank you*” in English. This indicates that the autistic children thanks to the interlocutors.

The third type is the assertive speech act (A). The assertive speech act is the utterance to express something containing the truth. The data analysis found that the use of speech in the form of statements and information existed. The statement uttered, for example, was the pronunciation of the word “*done*” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*sudah*” which was pronounced as “*uda*,” this was the expression to confirm that the interlocutor has done something. The expression of information was shown when autistic children uttered “*tired*” in Bahasa Indonesia, which is known as “*capek*” was pronounced as “*apet*” This indicates that autistic children told their tired condition with the hope that the teacher (therapist) ended the learning process.

## Discussion

The findings of this study indicated that the difference of illocutionary acts uttered by normal and autistic children existed. Based on the theory of illocutionary acts from both Searle (1969) and Rahardi (2005), the theory of the illocutionary act is classified into five elements: directives, assertive, commissive, expressive, and declarative. This theory is related to regular speakers. The result of this study showed that the autistic children with communication disorders could only use three types of illocutionary acts, these are, directive (D), expressive (E), and assertive (A) or abbreviated as DEA speech acts. In language learning, autistic children do not use commissive and declarative acts. Besides, they have limitations in producing and understanding utterances (Radtke et al., 2019; Bertilsdotter Rosqvist, 2019; Bobrowska-Korczak, Gątarek, Rosiak, Giebułtowiec, Kałużna-Czaplińska, 2019; den Houting, Adams, Roberts, Keen, 2018). The results of this study also captured that, in language learning, the autistic children used direct literal speech act strategies (John et al., 2019). Direct speech strategy is a way of conveying messages using direct speech acts. Meanwhile, the literal speech act strategy is a speech strategy that means the same meaning as the words (Capone, 2006). In doing a speech act, the autistic children employed three types of direct speech strategies: declarative (D), interrogative (I), and imperative speech acts (I) – also called DII speech strategy.

The direct literal declarative speech act strategy employed by the autistic students aims to report, explain, or inform about something. The example of this strategy was found when they said ‘*ipis*’ (meaning they wanted to urinate or to go to the toilet). Several studies have confirmed this finding (Sadoughi, Liu, Busso, 2017; Licea-Haquet, Velásquez-Upegui, Holtgraves, Giordano, 2019; Hellbernd, Sammler, 2016).

The second was a direct literal interrogative speech, which is a kind of utterance employed to obtain answers from the hearer (Urbanik, Svennevig, 2019). In clinical intervention, the autistic children used direct literal and limited direct interrogative speech. For example, they said 'po' to mean 'apa' (what) (in a high pitch). They have not been able to use interrogative utterances such as why and how. The autistic children could use one form of interrogative 'what' which is often asked repeatedly (Ozerov, 2019). The third was a direct literal imperative strategy. An imperative act is an utterance involving the ordering or commanding of others in order to do something as expected by the speaker. In language learning, these autistic children often used immediate and brief imperative strategies. In general, the command act is only understood by limited interlocutors (people who are close to autistic children). The form of direct-literal imperative direct speech strategy also spread. For example, they pronounced 'inyem' instead of 'minum' (drink). It means they have the therapist get a drink (Heinemann, 2006; Webman Shafran, 2019; Van Olmen, 2019).

The results showed that autistic children use direct-literal imperative speech act strategies with simple patterns. They have not been able to use indirect strategies (AlHammadi, 2017). The results of this study are in line with the opinion of Wijana (1996), who states that speech act strategy, based on the continuity of the expression, are grouped into two: direct and indirect strategies (Monshizadeh et al., 2019). A direct speech act strategy is the way speakers convey messages using direct words (without being interpreted based on the context). Indirect speech strategies are way speakers use other words to refer to what exactly means (the meaning of the speech must be interpreted by context). The results of this study also explored the characteristics of autistic children with social interaction disorders (Parola et al., 2019) and the patterns of illocutionary acts. They encountered several challenges, namely (a) an apparent interference in terms of nonverbal behaviors such as eye contact, facial expression, gestures, and movement cues for social interaction, (b) the inability to develop peer relationships appropriate with the level of development, (c) the inability to empathize or sympathize the joy of others, and (d) incapacity to relate emotional reciprocity with others. The characteristics of this communication disorder meet the DSM criterion, which is considered as a qualitative interference in social interaction indicated by at least the emergence of two interference (Loukusa et al., 2018; Peeters, 2009; Loukusa et al., 2018).

Furthermore, the ABA method with a one-child-one-therapy system was applied to autistic children in their language learning and clinical intervention. To overcome their communication disorders, autistic children are trained to build a focus, to make eye contact, to communicate, to interact with peers, to express feelings, and to interact with the environment (Jovanović et al., 2019; Sandoval et al., 2019). The results of the observation on the speech act of the autistic children with social interaction disorders indicated that, in communication, autistic children are only able to use limited speech patterns (one or two words). It is a short speech within complete elements (Moreno-Rius, 2019). The speech act patterns of autistic children with social interaction disorder are almost the same as the speech of autistic children with communication disorders. They are also less able to imagine something. They only want to interact and communicate when stimulated repeatedly (Bharatharaj et al., 2018).

The autistic children with social interaction disorders used a direct-literal-based strategy based on interlocutors' stimuli. Moreover, they used three types of direct-speech act strategies, namely declarative, interrogative, and imperative acts (Wong et al., 2019). First, autistic children used a direct-literal and declarative-act strategy. They lacked the initiative to speak. The use of literally-direct and imperative-based strategies was based on teacher's or therapist's stimuli. For example, autistic children told the teacher (therapist) if they wanted to go home, eat, and urinate (Perini et al., 2019). Second, autistic children used the direct-literal and interrogative strategy. In a clinical intervention, autistic children impaired social

interactions used direct and limited questions, for example, what and “*sapa*” (who). These questions were uttered in flat expressions (Tordjman et al., 2019). Third, autistic children used direct-literal imperative-strategy. In language learning, autistic children with social interaction disorders used direct-literal imperative, short, and without an eye-contact strategy. They likely lacked the motivation to talk (Tandon, Pradhan, 2019). In language learning, however, there were not any exclamations, and emphatic strategies use, for the autistic children with social interaction disorders were generally unable to express feelings, such as surprise or admiration upon something (Noiprawat, Sahachaiseri, 2010).

These limited direct-literal narrative acts met the general characteristics of autistic children with social interaction disorders, where they have difficulties in socializing or making friends, and rarely do they speak, or they speak with limited utterances. Moreover, autistic children are unable to join and gather with peers and the people around him. They prefer to be alone and engrossed. The results of this study explored (Kang et al., 2019) autistic children with behavior disorders and the type of illocutionary acts. They have several challenges. They are: (a) a preoccupation with one or more limited patterns of interest or abnormal stereotype, both in term of intensity or focus, (b) the obedience which is driven by routines or specific rituals (particular behavior) which is nonfunctional (not related to the function), (c) the stereotype and repetitive behavior movements (wiggling hands), and (d) the persistent preoccupation of the particular parts of an object (Remington et al., 2019). Characteristics of these behavioral disorders met with the DSM IV criteria, which are qualitative disorders in behavior indicated by at least one of the disorders.

The autistic children (Kaihua et al., 2019) used the ABA method with a one-child-one-therapy system and assisted by one assistant therapist. To overcome these disorders, autistic children get behavioral therapy (Zhao et al., 2018). In language learning, autistic children are trained to concentrate and cultivate new behaviors following social rules and are trained to interact with others (Aghai et al., 2016). Based on the speech acts observation result of autistic children with behavioral disorders, in learning language, it was found that illocutionary acts pattern of autistic children also existed. In communication, autistic children with behavioral disorders were able to speak with unique and straightforward speech patterns (Stadler, 2011). Moreover, they were often unable to focus. Thus, it appears irrelevance acts. The pattern of autistic children's acts with behavior disorders was challenging to be identified, for not only did they appear the irrelevant acts but also appeared certain strange acts (talking not to communicate).

Children who experienced irrelevant were treated through focused learning (Garnjost, Lawter, 2019). The irrelevance means speech deviant that does not match with the topic of the conversation. Autistic children with behavior disorders were easily affected by the surrounding conditions. When autistic children looked at or heard the surrounding conditions, they spontaneously responded in the form of irrelevant acts (Wilson et al., 2019). When autistic children experienced the irrelevance, they should be immediately given directive acts in the form of questions (*what* and *where*) and assertive acts in the form of a statement (*not* and *wrong*), which aimed to direct the conversation according to the topic. If the autistic children were still in irrelevance (speaking on his own and not related to the topic), they should be immediately focused (Mullins-Sweatt et al., 2019).

Based on the data analysis, it was found that three types of illocutionary acts appear. First, it is directive act (D). Based on the data analysis, the directive act is marked using the form of the command, question, and rejection acts (Ruytenbeek et al., 2017). The example form of command act is when the autistic children

uttered “*Buka Pintu! Buka Bu*” to mean they asked the teacher to open the therapy door repeatedly. The example form of question act is when they uttered “*apa*” and “*siapa Bu*” to mean they wanted to get answers from the teacher (therapist). The example form of rejection act is when they said “*tidak*”, “*enggak*”, “*emoh*” to mean they expressed negative responses or rejected teacher’s command, and this act was often pronounced over and over when the autistic children did not want to learn, and they were not in a good mood (Cao, 2009).

Second, it is an expressive act (E). Based on the data analysis, there were forms of compliment and gratitude acts. The examples of compliment acts were expressed when the autistic children uttered *clever*, *great*, and *good*. Those acts were expressed when they felt glad as they succeed in doing something. The examples of gratitude acts were uttered when they said “*makasih*” to mean they expressed gratitude to their teacher, for they had accustomed the autistic children always to behave positively (Ni, Sin, 2011). These three types of acts were usually used when the autistic children were in a *mood*, however when the autistic children were in a *tantrum* or being angry without any casualties, therefore there often be found several unidentified acts (utterances not for communication, but to excite emotions instead, such as shouting repeatedly). Third, it is the assertive act (A). Based on the data analysis, there were forms of statement or notification acts. The examples of statement acts are: “*mau*”, “*ya*”, and “*Ok*.” Those acts were to confirm the state of readiness to do specific actions (Li, 2011).

## **Conclusion**

The findings of this study indicated that autistic children with behavior disorders were capable of using three types of illocutionary acts, namely directive, expressive, and assertive acts. In language learning, they did not use commissive and declarative acts, but they often uttered the irrelevant acts, for the autistic children were easily affected by the surrounding conditions (Su, 2017). The results also documented that they used direct-talking strategies based on the stimuli from the surrounding conditions. Moreover, they used three types of literal direct-talking strategies, namely declarative, interrogative, and imperative acts (Stadler, 2011).

Moreover, autistic children do not use exclamatory and emphatic strategies. Eventually, autistic children use illocutionary acts types of directive, assertive, and expressive with simple declarative, interrogative, and imperative (DII) direct-literal speech acts. This study offers practical implications for teachers in the schooling sectors and therapists in clinical intervention settings. Teachers or therapists can consider the individual conditions and mastery of the illocutionary acts of autistic children (Martin et al., 2019). It is also suggested that interlocutors (teachers, therapists, and parents) should be selective in using speech acts when communicating with autistic children. This study may be open to some limitations. First, given the importance of contextual and situational research participants, further studies are encouraged to investigate children with different cultural backgrounds from the present study. In addition, recruiting more autistic children and compare how male and female children employ different illocutionary acts would be more insightful.

## **Acknowledgments**

Our sincere thanks are addressed to the medical staff of Rumah Sakit Islam UNISMA for their technical assistance during the research project enactment.

## **Bibliographic references**

- AGHAI, G. – DIBAJNIA, P. – ASHKESH, E. – NAZARI, M. – FALAVARJANI, K. G. 2016. Behavior disorders in children with significant refractive errors. *Journal of Current Ophthalmology*, vol. 28, n. 4, pp. 223–225. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.joco.2016.07.007>
- ALHAMMADI, F. S. 2017. Prediction of child language development: A review of literature in early childhood communication disorders. *Lingua*, vol. 199, pp. 27–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2017.07.007>
- BARAKAT, H. A.-E.-R. – BAKR, A. – EL-SAYAD, Z. 2019. Nature as a healer for autistic children. *Alexandria Engineering Journal*, vol. 58, n. 1, pp. 353–366. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aej.2018.10.014>
- BERTILSDOTTER ROSQVIST, H. 2019. Doing things together: Exploring meanings of different forms of sociality among autistic people in an autistic work space. *Alter*, vol. 13, n. 3, pp. 168–178. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.alter.2019.03.003>
- BHARATHARAJ, J. – HUANG, L. – KRAGELOH, C. – ELARA, M. R. – AL-JUMAILY, A. 2018. Social engagement of children with autism spectrum disorder in interaction with a parrot-inspired therapeutic robot. *Procedia Computer Science*, vol. 133, pp. 368–376. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procs.2018.07.045>
- BISHOP, D.V.M. – NORBURY, C. F. 2002. Exploring the borderlands of autistic disorder and specific language impairment: A study using the standardized diagnostic instruments. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, vol. 43, n. 7, pp. 917–929.
- BOBROWSKA-KORCZAK, B. – GAŁAREK, P. – ROSIAK, A. – GIEBUŁTOWICZ, J. – KAŁUŻNA-CZAPLIŃSKA, J. 2019. Reduced levels of modified nucleosides in the urine of autistic children. Preliminary studies. *Analytical Biochemistry*, vol. 571, pp. 62–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ab.2019.02.009>
- CAO, D. 2009. Illocutionary acts of Chinese legislative language. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 41, n. 7, pp. 1329–1340. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.08.003>
- CAPONE, A. 2006. Speech Acts, Literal and Nonliteral. In *Encyclopedia of Language & Linguistics*, pp. 679–681. Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B0-08-044854-2/04302-9>
- CASTLEBERRY, A. – NOLEN, A. 2018. Thematic analysis of qualitative research data: Is it as easy as it sounds? *Currents in Pharmacy Teaching and Learning*, vol. 10, n. 6, pp. 807–815. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cptl.2018.03.019>
- CENTER FOR DISEASE CONTROL AND PREVENTION. 2014. Data & Statistics on Autism Spectrum Disorder. Retrieved from <https://www.cdc.gov/ncbddd/autism/data.html>. Accessed on 23 July 2019.
- CRESWELL, J. W. 2014. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed). SAGE Publications.
- CUMMINGS, L. 2010. *Clinical Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- DELPHIE, B. 2009. *Autistic Children's Education*. Klaten: PT. Intan Sejati.
- DEN HOUTING, J. – ADAMS, D. – ROBERTS, J. – KEEN, D. 2018. Exploring anxiety symptomatology in school-aged autistic children using an autism-specific assessment. *Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders*, vol. 50, pp. 73–82. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rasd.2018.03.005>
- GALL, M. D. 2014. *Applying educational research: How to read, do, and use research to solve problems of practice*.
- GARNJOST, P. – LAWTER, L. 2019. Undergraduates' satisfaction and perceptions of learning outcomes across teacher- and learner-focused pedagogies. *The International Journal of Management Education*, vol. 17, n. 2, pp. 267–275. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijme.2019.03.004>

HANDOYO, Y. 2009. *Autisme: Menyiapkan Anak Autis untuk Mandiri dan Masuk Sekolah Reguler dengan ABA Basic* (Preparing autistic children to be autonomous and attend regular schools with ABA basic). Jakarta: PT Buana Ilmu Populer, Kelompok Gramedia.

HEINEMANN, T. 2006. 'Will you or can't you?': Displaying entitlement in interrogative requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 38, n. 7, pp. 1081–1104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2005.09.013>

HELLBERND, N. – SAMMLER, D. 2016. Prosody conveys speaker's intentions: Acoustic cues for speech act perception. *Journal of Memory and Language*, vol. 88, pp. 70–86. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jml.2016.01.001>

JOHN, P. – BROOKS, B – SCHRIEVER, U. 2019. Speech acts in professional maritime discourse: A pragmatic risk analysis of bridge team communication directives and commissives in full-mission simulation. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 140, pp. 12–21. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.11.013>

JOVANOVIĆ, N. – CAMPBELL, J. – PRIEBE, S. 2019. How to design psychiatric facilities to foster positive social interaction – A systematic review. *European Psychiatry*, vol. 60, pp. 49–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eurpsy.2019.04.005>

KAIHUA, J. – YANG, Y. – FANGQIAO, Z. – HUIJUAN, S. – CHAOQUN, W. – XUAN, D. 2019. Event-related potentials and behavior performance scores in children with sleep-disordered breathing. *Brain and Development*, S0387760418303176. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.braindev.2019.04.008>

KANG, J. – CHEN, H. – LI, X. – LI, X. 2019. EEG entropy analysis in autistic children. *Journal of Clinical Neuroscience*, vol. 62, pp. 199–206. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jocn.2018.11.027>

LI, H. 2011. Women Speaking Up: Getting and Using Turns in Workplace Meetings. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 43, n. 1, pp. 428–430. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.011>

LICEA-HAQUET, G. L. – VELASQUEZ-UPEGUI, E. P. – HOLTGRAVES, T. – GIORDANO, M. 2019. Speech act recognition in Spanish speakers. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 141, pp. 44–56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.12.013>

LORD, C. – ELSABBAGH, M. – BAIRD, G. – VEENSTRA-VANDERWEELE, J. 2018. Autism spectrum disorder. *The Lancet*, vol. 392(10146), pp. 508–520. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)31129-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)31129-2)

LOUKUSA, S. – MAKINEN, L. – KUUSIKKO-GAUFFIN, S. – EBELING, H. – LEINONEN, E. 2018. Assessing social-pragmatic inferencing skills in children with autism spectrum disorder. *Journal of Communication Disorders*, vol. 73, pp. 91–105. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcomdis.2018.01.006>

MARTIN, N. – MILTON, D. E. M. – KRUPA, J. – BRETT, S. – BULMAN, K. – CALLOW, D. – COPELAND, F. – CUNNINGHAM, L. – ELLIS, W. – HARVEY, T. – MORANSKA, M. – ROACH, R. – WILMOT, S. 2019. The sensory school: Working with teachers, parents and pupils to create good sensory conditions. *Advances in Autism*, vol. 5, n. 2, pp. 131–140. <https://doi.org/10.1108/AIA-09-2018-0034>

MERRIAM, S. B. 2010. Qualitative Case Studies. In *International Encyclopedia of Education*, pp. 456–462. Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-08-044894-7.01532-3>

MONSHIZADEH, L. – VAMEGHI, R. – RAHIMI, M. – SAJEDI, F. – YADEGARI, F. – HASHEMI, S. B. 2019. The effectiveness of a specifically-designed language intervention protocol on the cochlear implanted children's communication development. *International Journal of Pediatric Otorhinolaryngology*, 109631. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijporl.2019.109631>

MORENO-RIUS, J. 2019. Is there an “antisocial” cerebellum? Evidence from disorders other than autism characterized by abnormal social behaviours. *Progress in*

- Neuro-Psychopharmacology and Biological Psychiatry, vol. 89, pp. 1–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pnpbp.2018.08.025>
- MULLINS-SWEATT, S. N. – DESHONG, H. L. – LENGEL, G. J. – HELLE, A. C. – KRUEGER, R. F. 2019. Disinhibition as a unifying construct in understanding how personality dispositions undergird psychopathology. *Journal of Research in Personality*, vol. 80, pp. 55–61. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2019.04.006>
- NALLE, A. P. – KLAU, E. R. 2019. The barriers during transition of individuals with disabilities from school to work, vol. 5, n. 3, pp. 400–412.
- NI, S., & SIN, K. K. 2011. A matrix of legislative speech acts for Chinese and British statutes. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 43, n. 1, pp. 375–384. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.07.012>
- NOIPRAWAT, N. – SAHACHAISERI, N. 2010. The model of environments enhancing autistic children’s development. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, vol. 5, pp. 1257–1261. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.07.271>
- OZEROV, P. 2019. This is not an interrogative: The prosody of “wh-questions” in Hebrew and the sources of their questioning and rhetorical interpretations. *Language Sciences*, vol. 72, pp. 13–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.langsci.2018.12.004>
- PAROLA, A. – BOSCO, F. M. – GABBATORE, I. – GALETTO, V. – ZETTIN, M. – MARINI, A. 2019. The impact of the Cognitive Pragmatic Treatment on the pragmatic and informative skills of individuals with traumatic brain injury (TBI). *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, vol. 51, pp. 53–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroling.2018.12.003>
- PERINI, I. – GUSTAFSSON, P. A. – HAMILTON, J. P. – KAMPE, R. – MAYO, L. M. – HEILIG, M. – ZETTERQVIST, M. 2019. Brain-based Classification of Negative Social Bias in Adolescents With Nonsuicidal Self-injury: Findings From Simulated Online Social Interaction. *EClinicalMedicine*, S2589537019301130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eclinm.2019.06.016>
- PRASETYONINGSIH, L.S.A. 2014. Tindak bahasa terapis dalam intervensi anak autisme (Therapist language practice in autistic children intervention). *LITERA: Jurnal Penelitian Bahasa, Sastra, dan Pengajarannya*, vol. 13, n. 2, pp. 264–276.
- RADTKE, M. – WIECZOREKOVA, D. – NORMANN, C. – HUMPOLICEK, P. – BRAKEMEIER, E.-L. – BUBL, E. – TEBARTZ VAN ELST, L. – RIEDEL, A. 2019. Exploring autistic traits in adults with chronic depression: A clinical study. *Research in Autism Spectrum Disorders*, vol. 65, pp. 34–45. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rasd.2019.04.006>
- RAHARDI, R. K. 2005. *Pragmatik: Kesantunan Imperatif Bahasa Indonesia (Pragmatics: Indonesian Language Imperative Politeness)*. Jakarta: Penerbit Erlangga.
- REMLINGTON, A. – HANLEY, M. – O’BRIEN, S. – RIBY, D. M. – SWETTENHAM, J. 2019. Implications of capacity in the classroom: Simplifying tasks for autistic children may not be the answer. *Research in Developmental Disabilities*, vol. 85, pp. 197–204. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ridd.2018.12.006>
- RIDDER, H.-G. 2017. The theory contribution of case study research designs. *Business Research*, vol. 10, n. 2, pp. 281–305. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40685-017-0045-z>
- RUYTENBEEK, N. – OSTASHCHENKO, E. – KISSINE, M. 2017. Indirect request processing, sentence types and illocutionary forces. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 119, pp. 46–62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.07.011>
- SADOUGH, N. – LIU, Y. – BUSSO, C. 2017. Meaningful head movements driven by emotional synthetic speech. *Speech Communication*, vol. 95, pp. 87–99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.specom.2017.07.004>
- SANDOVAL, L. R. – GONZÁLEZ, B. L. – STONE, W. S. – GUIMOND, S. –

- RIVAS, C. T. – SHEYNBERG, D. – KUO, S. S. – EACK, S. – KESHAVAN, M. S. 2019. Effects of peer social interaction on performance during computerized cognitive remediation therapy in patients with early course schizophrenia: A pilot study. *Schizophrenia Research*, vol. 203, pp. 17–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.schres.2017.08.049>.
- SEARLE, J. R. 1969. *Speech Acts. An Essay in the Philosophy of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- SHARMA, S. R. – GONDA, X. – TARAZI, F. I. 2018. Autism Spectrum Disorder: Classification, diagnosis and therapy. *Pharmacology & Therapeutics*, vol. 190, pp. 91–104. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pharmthera.2018.05.007>
- STADLER, S. A. 2011. Coding speech acts for their degree of explicitness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 43, n. 1, pp. 36–50. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2010.08.014>
- SU, H. 2017. Local grammars of speech acts: An exploratory study. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 111, pp. 72–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.02.008>
- TANDON, R. – PRADHAN, S. 2019. Autistic features in Unverricht-Lundborg disease. *Epilepsy & Behavior Reports*, 100323. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ebr.2019.100323>
- THARIAN, P. R. – HENDERSON, S. – WATHANASIN, N. – HAYDEN, N. – CHESTER, V. – TROMANS, S. 2019. Characters with autism spectrum disorder in fiction: Where are the women and girls? *Advances in Autism*, vol. 5, n. 1), pp. 50–63. <https://doi.org/10.1108/AIA-09-2018-0037>
- TORDJMAN, S. – CELUME, M. P. – DENIS, L. – MOTILLON, T. – KEROMNES, G. 2019. Reframing schizophrenia and autism as bodily self-consciousness disorders leading to a deficit of theory of mind and empathy with social communication impairments. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, vol. 103, pp. 401–413. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neubiorev.2019.04.007>
- URBANIK, P. – SVENNEVIG, J. 2019. Managing contingencies in requests: The role of negation in Norwegian interrogative directives. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 139, pp. 109–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.10.014>
- US PREVENTIVE SERVICES TASK FORCE. 2006. Screening for speech and language delay in preschool children: recommendation statement. *Pediatrics*, vol. 117, n. 2, pp. 497–501.
- VAN OLMEN, D. 2019. A three-fold approach to the imperative's usage in English and Dutch. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 139, pp.146–162. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2018.11.006>
- WEBMAN SHAFRAN, R. 2019. Level of directness and the use of please in requests in English by native speakers of Arabic and Hebrew. *Journal of Pragmatics*, vol. 148, pp. 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.05.020>.
- WIJANA, I. D. P. 1996. *Dasar-dasar pragmatik (Basics of pragmatics)*. Yogyakarta: Andi Offset.
- WIJAYAKUSUMA, H. 2004. *Psikoterapi Anak Autisma: Teknik Bermain Kreatif Non-verbal dan Verbal. Terapi Khusus untuk Autisma (Psychotherapy for autistic children: Techniques for non-verbal and verbal creative activities)*. Jakarta: Pustaka Populer Obor.
- WILSON, S. – HOPWOOD, C. J. – MCGUE, M. – IACONO, W. G. 2019. Personality heterogeneity in adolescents with disruptive behavior disorders. *Journal of Research in Personality*, vol. 82, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2019.103851>
- WONG, Q. J. J. – CHEN, J. – GREGORY, B. – BAILLIE, A. J. – NAGATA, T. – FURUKAWA, T. A. – KAIYA, H. – PETERS, L. – RAPEE, R. M. 2019. Measurement equivalence of the Social Interaction Anxiety Scale (SIAS) and Social Phobia Scale (SPS) across individuals with social anxiety disorder from Japanese and Australian sociocultural contexts. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, vol. 243, pp. 165–174, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2018.09.028>

YATES, K. – LE COUTEUR, A. 2016. Diagnosing autism/autism spectrum disorders. *Paediatrics and Child Health*, pp. 26, n. 12, pp. 513–518. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paed.2016.08.004>

ZHAO, Q. – WANG, M. – KANG, H. – ZHU, S. 2018. Behavior problems in children with epilepsy and attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder in Central China. *Epilepsy & Behavior*, vol. 89, pp. 79–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.yebeh.2018.10.001>

*Words: 6362*

*Characters: 44 840 (24,91 standard pages)*

Assoc. Prof. Luluk Sri Agus Prasetyoningsih  
Department of Indonesian Language Education  
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Islam Malang  
Jl. M.T. Haryono NO. 193 Dinoyo, Malang,  
Indonesia  
luluksap58@unisma.ac.id

Eko Suhartoyo, M.Ed  
Department of English Language Education  
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, University of Islam Malang  
Jl. M.T. Haryono No. 193 Dinoyo, Malang,  
Indonesia  
suhartoyoeko@unisma.ac.id

M. Faruq Ubaidillah, M.Ed  
Center for Scientific Publication  
State University of Malang  
Jl. Semarang No. 5 Malang, I  
Indonesia  
mfubaidillah@um.ac.id

# Metaphorical biological models in artistic discourse

Liudmyla Marchuk – Oleh Rarytskyi – Mariia Lychuk

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.22

## Abstract

The article is devoted to the research of the metaphorical model with biological stem, which objectively represents the structure and pragmatical potential of a lingo-cultural component of the national picture of the world in modern Ukrainian language. The work's methodology was formed under the influence of the theory of metaphorical modeling, which was created in the USA in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Besides this, the following aspects are engaged in the research: cognitive research, content analysis, modeling, classification, context analysis, lingo-cultural characteristics of metaphors taking into consideration national specifics. The academic novelty lies in the fact that the peculiarities of the usage of biological metaphors in modern fiction have been carried out, and individual consistencies of the usage of metaphorical models in the text have been pointed out. Metaphorization of animalistic lexis is an important process of making the axiological lexis bigger. It enforces the specification and variety of assumptions aimed at the realization of certain pragmatic tasks that specify the modal mindset of the subject in the conversation as well as of the author of the fictional text.

**Key words:** zoometaphor, animalistic lexis, zoonym, metaphoric modeling, artistic discourse

---

## Introduction

At the present stage of the development of linguistic thought, a notion of metaphor gets a new interpretation in relation to human activity and thinking. Metaphor appears as a synthesis of semiotic, cognitive-communicative, and pragmatic aspects. In modern theories, metaphor is a universal phenomenon, the mechanism of which is conceptual integration actualized in discourse and represented in stages of development of a linguistic sign.

Each stage in society development possesses its own system of conceptual metaphors which is closely connected with national traditions and cultural values (N. Arutiunova, O. Akhmanova, A. Baranov, O. Belsky, I. Halperin, A. Kalinina, Yu. Karaulov, V. Kostomarov, N. Kuzmina, J. Lakoff, V. Petrov, G. Sklyarevskaya, B. Uspenskyi, A. Chudinov). Metaphors became a subject of study in thesis papers which dealt with types of metaphors (Andrienko, 1997; Balaban, 2009; Varlamov, 1995; Verbitskaya, 1993; Yeshchenko, 2008; Makarenko, 2009) and in researches regarding irony (Kalita, 2006), political discourse, etc. (Golubovskaya, 2003; Karpenko, 2006; Kryvenko, 2006; Kryzhko, 2006; Potebnya, 1990; Ticher, Meyer, Vodak, Vetter, 2009).

O. Kalyta defined two groups among ironical metaphors which function in modern Ukrainian flash fiction: antiphrasal and occasional. The scientist also pointed out that zoometaphors are one of the most productive while creating ironical meaning (Kalita, 2006).

The relevance of the research is manifested in an attempt to explore metaphorization of animalistic vocabulary and to describe the peculiarities of their metaphorical models in artistic discourse.

Since the twentieth century, linguists have been studying linguistic and artistic metaphors. This approach has remained in recent studies of metaphor.

Particular interest in metaphor led to dozens of definitions of this notion. We take into account the most important ones.

I. Halperin interpreted the metaphor as «the relationship between the vocabulary and contextual logical meaning based on the similarity or similarity of determining own features of two similar concepts» (by source: Vinogradov, 1980:136). E. Jordan noted that the metaphor is «a verbal formulation of reality, reflected in the diversity and perceived as a set of features» (by source: Arutiunova, 1995: 484).

Taking as a basis a classical definition of metaphor as “a semantic process in which the form of the lexical unit is transferred from one object onto another on the basis of certain similarity between these objects in the speaker’s mind” (Zhaivoronok, 2006: 307), we view metaphor from the lingo-philosophical and lingo-cultural positions as the author’s way of seeing the world and modeling the ideas of judging people who repeat or role-play the world of animals. This definition is working in our study.

The aim of the article is to describe metaphorical models with the zoological stem in artistic discourse.

### **Methodology**

The work’s methodology was formed under the influence of the theory of metaphorical modeling, which was created in the USA in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. Besides this, the following aspects are engaged in the research: cognitive research, content analysis, modeling, classification, context analysis, lingo-cultural characteristics of metaphors taking into consideration national specifics.

### **Results and discussion**

The theory of conceptual metaphor views a metaphor first of all as a cognitive operation over the notions and foresees in it the means of conceptualization which allows an understanding of this or that reality in terminology which grew upon experience perceived from other spheres and which forms new notions and without which it is impossible to obtain new knowledge (Kupina, 2009: 45).

The subject of the given research is zoometaphors, animalistic metaphors. Consequently, such main concepts as HUMAN BEING – ANIMAL can be presented with the help of conceptual metaphors. In accordance with M. Johnson and J. Lakoff, the essence of conceptual metaphor lies in understanding and perception of one phenomenon by means of the other’s terminology. A phenomenon is not a separate isolated object but a whole picture of the real world that is used to represent and perceive a multi-aspect abstract phenomenon (Timchenko, 2009: 46). In accordance with the depicted preconditions and with conceptual metaphor’s definition, the materials obtained as a result of sampling from fictional texts of 20<sup>th</sup> – the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century were viewed as identification of conceptual metaphors.

Basically, a metaphor is a phenomenon of cognitive nature, expressive linguistic means. Basic cognitive metaphors give the possibility to understand abstract essence by means of the experience of man’s physical being setting the way and character of perceiving the world around and the man’s inner world (Stavitskaya, 2008: 44).

The conceptual system of knowledge about the world which is formed on man’s experience is the basis of the language semantics and has its reflection in the process of re-apprehension of meanings. The existence of certain connections of language forms with multiple functions that are performed by the form is explained from the point of view of cognitive theory as the connection between a certain linguistic form and mental image. As the speaker of this or that language has a limited number of lexical units, to name new notions in language or to rename the existing concepts or notions, the speaker often uses the main means of forming new meanings, the most significant of which is a metaphor.

«The introduction of anthropomorphic parameter into the model of metaphor enables us to view the metaphoric process as the activity of a certain speaker, who compares himself with the world by an individual thesaurus, which is an individual picture of the world» (Telia, 1988: 41). This speaker makes his own choice of additional means and interprets new meaning within the old knowledge in his/her own way.

Yes, the picture of the world is not a reflection of reality, but it is only an interpretation, and it depends on the prism through which we perceive the world. The process of creating metaphors can be such a prism, and it allows us to view those things which we perceive again by means of those things which are already known and fixed in the form of existing language units. The study of metaphor turns into cognitive, ethnical-psycholinguistic, and communicative.

Two texts serve as a material for the study: a drama «Heartbreak House» by English playwright B. Shaw and a novel «Goates» by Ukrainian writer Yana Dubynians'ka. The heterogeneity of artistic texts does not adversely affect the purpose of the study in any way. These two fiction texts are united by the metaphorical animalistic vocabulary.

B. Shaw entered the world literature of the twentieth century as a well-known author of dramatic discussions, a satirist with a steady position of criticism of capitalist foundations, false moral principles. The tragicomedy «Heartbreak House» has occupied an important niche in the history of the world literature, and is of great significance for readers from different continents today. Tragicomedy has occupied an important niche in the history of world literature and is of great significance for readers from different continents today. The playwright created the play during 1913–1917. The style of the drama was expressed by the professional choice of each word, which made it possible to truly reproduce the events and tempers of characters at that time. The author himself emerged as a consummate artist of word and a deep philosopher-thinker.

Yana Dubynians'ka is a representative of the young generation of Ukrainian written word, an author of eight books. She wrote the story «Goates» in 2004.

Almost a hundred years separate the story from the drama by B. Shaw. Were there any temporal changes or any literary trends in the formation of metaphorical zoological models of these two fiction works? That is one of the tasks to be completed.

Content-analysis, which was initially described in the USA in the 20-30s of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, has become a theoretical basis for constructing metaphoric models «animal – human being» (Berelson, 1952: 28). As a result, the main attention of this method is concentrated on the communicator, receiver of information, and to the communicative effect created by this metaphor.

As metaphor conveys coded information, the main task of content-analysis is to decode in order to interpret it in the most precise way. Explicit means of this method consists of a) lexical-grammatical interpretation; b) material (examples); c) interpretation of results (Ticher, Meyer, Vodak, Vetter, 2009: 26).

It is also possible to apply ethnographic method when the analysis is connected with cultural and linguistic peculiarities of the text as context occupies the central place in research. Context means not only the language of the work or situational context but also the facial expressions of the heroes, gestures, body movements, groups of heroes (for example, people), the part of the external surrounding.

Systemic analysis of context foresees its division into situational events and speech (in fiction – main heroes' replicas).

One can use the following analytical structure in order to define metaphoric models and their functions in the text (Table 1).

Situation description	Subjective definition of the case when the lexical unit is used
Participants	Readers, speakers, audience
Conclusions	The aim of using a lexical unit
Tonality	Tone, manner, emotionality of expression
Instruments	Verbal and nonverbal means; forms of speech; lingo-cultural symbols
Norms	Specific speech constructions; metaphors and zoometaphors
Genre	Text category

T. Mikheyeva points out that «the main sources of zoomorphemes» appearing are objective knowledge about the animal and further reconsideration of that knowledge in accordance with the ethnical mentality and mythological-religious ideas» (Mikheyeva, 2017: 20). The author provides the variants of terms that are related to zoometaphors: zoomorphism, zoomorphic metaphor, zoosemism (Mikheyeva, 2017: 20). We use the term zoometaphor in our research.

One can see a culturally defined zoometaphor with the help of this analytical scheme.

A metaphor is determined by appeal to the image created by the figurative value of a linguistic unit.

Imaginative language means to form a multifunctional imaginative language field (MILF), a kind of a language subsystem. MILF is characterized by semantic integrity, ensured by the integration of components for the concept of image.

The polyfunctional imaginative linguistic field is formed by the nucleus and periphery. The nucleus is represented by the most specialized lexemes for making an expression. Periphery is formed by minor lexemes.

The concept of a multifunctional linguistic field is the basis of our research.

In B. Shaw's drama, metaphors are a significant component of the meaningful structure. The metaphorization process encompasses animalistic vocabulary: *свині (hogs)*, *собака (dog)*, *гадина (vermin)*, *скотина (brute)*.

#### **Zoometaphor *свині (hogs)***

In the drama «Heartbreak House», the author uses a zoomorphic metaphor at the end of the first act. Captain Shotover asks Hector: «*What then is to be done? Are we to be kept forever in the mud by these hogs to whom the universe is nothing but a machine for greasing their bristles and filling their snouts?*». – «*А що ж робити? Так, значить, нам вічно і бархатяться в болоті через цих свиней, для яких всесвіт щось на зразок годівниці, в яку вони тикають своїми щетинистими рилами, щоб набити собі черево?*». This detailed metaphor is formed from a series of lexemes: *hogs* – *свині*, *bristles* – *щетинисті рила*, *snouts* – *черево*. It is worth noting that lexeme *свині* is translated as pigs, not hogs. We track the change in imaginative metaphorical information, namely, the use of a synonymous variant in order to emphasize the expressive function of zoometaphor, to enhance its speech variant.

Captain Shotover is a representative of another, opposite to the «dealers» world. Therefore, his speech is more typical of the translated lexeme *pig*, than *hog*. The word «hog» is used to explain «a rich self-righteous man». The semantics of the word «pig» is broader. In the figurative sense of the lexeme, «a pig» means «a dirty, slovenly person with bad odour».

Captain Shotover's hero is a representative of another, opposite to the «dealers» of the world. Therefore, his speech is more typical of the lexeme *pig*, translated than *borov*. The word *hogs* is used to explain «a rich man, self-righteous». The semantics of the word *pig* are broader. In the figurative sense of a token, a *pig* means dirty, unkempt people who are badly snored. Depending on the context, the semantics can be transformed and used to characterize ungrateful people, those who act in an indecent way.

We consider that the very semantics of the lexeme *hog* accompanies the inner line of the dramatic text. It is the zoometaphor *hog (pig)*, which transmits imaginative, expressive information without any loss of intensity.

The second part of the sentence contains peripheral components of the multifunctional linguistic field, including lexemes *bristles* and *snouts*. Under the influence of lexical transformation, other lexical meanings of these components have been crystallized: *not to grease their bristles, but bristly snouts; not to fill the snout, but to stuff guts with*. Zoometaphor *hog* is used to refer to rich, wealthy people. Lexeme *machine* is the object of comparison with the Universe. The surroundings of these two lexemes, peripheral components, are interrelated.

#### **Zoometaphor собака (dog)**

This zoometaphor is expressed in the following sentences: «*Think of this garden in which you are not a dog barking to keep the truth out!*». – «*Згадуючи про наш сад, де вам не приходилося бути сторожовим псом, що гавкає, щоб перезгородити дорогу правді*»; «*...but it's a god's life; and I don't own anything*». – «*...але це собаче життя. А власності ніякої я не маю*». It is used in the context with a metaphorical meaning «an evil, a stupid person».

An adjective *dog*, derived from the same noun, does not cause positive associations. In the lexeme *dog* a sense of strengthening, overall negative evaluation is taken into account first of all. The phrase «*dog's life*» means «very hard, unbearable».

#### **Zoometaphor гадина (vermin)**

Zoometaphor *vermin* found its expression in the sentence: «*I tell you I have often thought of this killing of human vermin*». – «*Я часто думав про винищення людиноподібних гадин*». Zoomorphic characteristics of a *human-like vermin* are directed not only at a person but much broader – at a human being. The analyzed zoomorphic metaphor is caused by a complicated semantic transformation: characteristics inherent from snakes: *vile, slippery, false*, are entrenched in the language in the image of a human being. However, the same characteristics are transferred to animals endowed with human traits.

#### **Zoometaphor скотина (brute)**

Zoometaphor *скотина (brute)* is attested in the illustration «*What a brute I was to quarrel with you...*». – «*Яка ж я скотина, що почала з вами сваритися...*». The lexeme *brute* has a collective meaning: «a beast, a pet, usually a cattle». In the semantics of the zoometaphor there is also a connotation «rude, with animal instincts».

Zoomorphism, reflecting its meaning in human features, gives the features of animals to an object. That is why the *animal* appears as a certain class of creatures with such traits as *ignorant, stupid, indifferent*. The introduction of a series of adjectives enhances the expressiveness of zoometaphor and highlights its emotional-evaluative function.

Yana Dubynianska's novella «Goates» has the name which actually attracts out attention to zoometaphors and simultaneously reflects a certain symbol known by Ukrainian lingo-culture (Dubynianska, 2004).

In novella «Goates», the process of metaphorization covers the following zoological lexemes: *козел (goat)*, «*змія*», «*змюка*» (*snake*), *мавпа (monkey)*, *собака (dog)*.

#### **Zootometaphor козел (goat)**

V. Zhaivoronok in his dictionary «Signs of Ukrainian ethnoculture» provides two meanings of the word *goat*: 1. wild animal from the family of cavicornians which mainly lives in the mountains; the symbol of vitality (mainly of the young man's); 2. domestic male goat of nanny goat; has had ceremonial meaning in celebrations for many years; in people's consciousness it is connected with the devil which looked like a goat when depicted... symbolizes stupidity (Zhaivoronok, 2006: 298).

In the 11th volume of The Ukrainian language dictionary, there are the following definitions of the word *goat*: 1. wild animal from the family of cavicornians, which mainly lives in the mountains. 2. *The same as billy goat. З козла ні шерсті, ні молока* (Ukrainian proverbs, 1955: 231). – *Of goat neither wool nor milk; Козел меле, козел меле, коза насипає* (Barvinok, 1902: 47). – *Goat melee, goat melee, goat sprinkles*; \* Compare to *Вуприщив очі, як козел на нові ворота* (Nomys, 1864, № 6338). – *He gazed out like a goat at a new gate.* ◊ *Козёл відпущення* (a sacrificial goat) – about the person onto whom people put responsibility or guilt for someone's deed. *Як з козла молока (Like a goat's milk)* – there is no use from someone or something. ◊ *Забивати козла – play dominos*. 4. Gymnastics apparatus (pommel horse) for jumping over it, which has the form of a short log on four legs covered with leather or imitation-leather cloth. 5. Metal, an alloy that hardened while melting and stuck to the edges of a stove, ladle, etc. (Dictionary, 1970–1980, v. 4: 211).

The dictionary by B. Hrinchenko provides such an article on this word *Козел, -зла (goat)*: 1) A goat; 2) A boy, who is a servant or shepherd. Asovsk seaside; 3) The name of plants: *BoletusluteusL., HeracleumsibiricumL., Pimpinella Saxifraga*; 4) *Козла водити (Lead the goats)* A type of a circular chain game with songs about a goat; 5) Four-corner pole or stack stands for a pottery kiln; 6) *Кóзли (Goats)* Plural of goat, goats *Stali vriadi, a ratischa v kozla postavili*; 7) Plural *Кізли* which is the same as ceiling rafters in Hutsul's houses (Dictionary, 1907–1909, v. 2: 265).

Analyzing the materials of various zoometaphors we will try to represent the features and the character of a person, which reflects the main features in the appearance of an animal or become invectives and carry a negative evaluation of a certain hero (heroine) of a fictional text.

Lexical unit «козел» (goat) goes on the first place. For example: *«Козел Твердолобий! Можна подумати, що хтось тямить у його довшаній прикладній математиці... головне для жінки – вдало вийти заміж. Твердолобому вона звісно цього не сказала...»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 8). – *Stubborn Goat! You might think that someone understands in his fucking applied mathematics ... the main thing for a woman is to get married well. Of course, she didn't say that to the die-hard ...* This very example provides the transition of meaning on the basis of such a feature as «stupid/wise».

Metaphor or metaphoric lexical unit (English *metaphor / metaphorical lexeme*) is a linguistic image created on the basis of likeness between two objects or concepts. A metaphor is formed when the word is used in its figurative (indirect) meaning. «A tough talk» is an example of a metaphor. The term «metaphoric lexeme» is related to separate words that make a metaphor (Tishchenko, 1997: 335).

So, the frequency of negative evaluation is quite high in zoometaphors, which speaks of the dynamic character of the metaphoric system. Instability of the evaluative character of zoometaphor provides it with a chance to balance between negative and positive connotations.

The attention of linguists is still concentrated on the following questions: functioning of zoometaphors in fictional and publicistic styles in different languages, their syntactic functioning in the position of metaphorical reference, syntagmatic peculiarities of zoonyms.

Lexical-semantic group of zoomorphemes is constantly supplemented by new meanings and is an open structure since it is impossible to stop the process of language creation which is connected with the study of man's essence through the life of animals.

There are cognitive instruments of development of zoometaphors, which can be explained by a gnosiological need of human thinking to penetrate into the depth of words' semantics conditioned by semantic connections in lexis.

The dynamics of animalistic metaphor is also determined by an esthetic task to renew and reinforce the expressiveness of anthropomorphic axiology.

The understanding of the animal world in people's heads is created by numerous coded and not coded animalistic signs which have further activations of the process of metaphORIZATION.

### Metaphoric modeling

Metaphoric modeling is the means of acquiring, delivering, and evaluating the reality which reflects people's experience and its national self-consciousness on a certain level of development; metaphor is based on background knowledge of communicators about the laws of society's development. According to cognitive theory, metaphORIZATION is the unity of actions on two images.

Zoometaphors have a deep archaic nature when certain signs could be coded plots that were kept in the memory of society. Ethno-cultural traditions of a nation reflect such understanding.

Images are rudiments of old myths which, when having new relations, create new modern myths reconstructed on the basis of zoometaphors, but which are extremely different from them: they exist subconsciously and are not perceived as zoometaphors.

There are many types of metaphors in modern linguostylistics. There are zoometaphors based on the names of animals, the names of individual qualities of animals, the names of separate parts of the body (Timchenko, 2009: 7).

The given research also provides the classification of zoometaphors on symbolism or those indirect features which become symbols of certain linguistic culture. The first feature is the animals' names. We meet the following in the analyzed materials: «Козел» (goat) «Через дику стадо **неповнолітніх козлів?!**» (Dubynianska, 2004: 16). – «Through a wild herd of juvenile goats?!» (in this context, the word «kozel» means students).

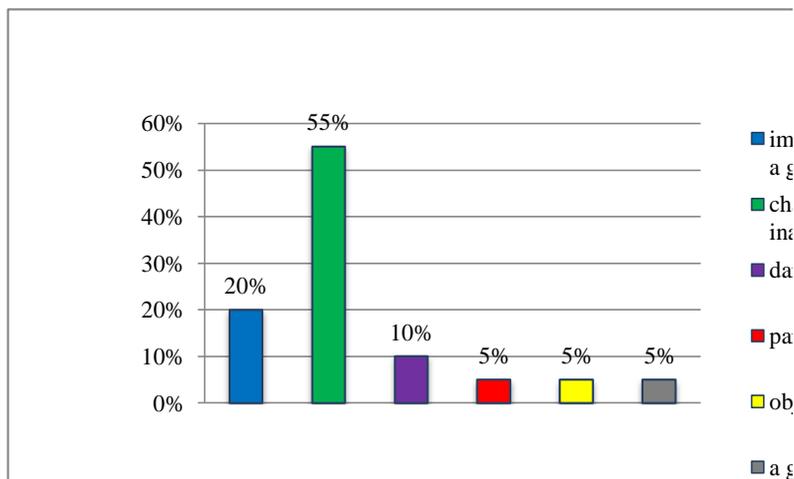


Diagram 2 Thematic Groups in the Structure of the Zoometaphor «Goates»

### **Zoometaphor «змія», «зміюка» (snake)**

Zoometaphor «змія», «зміюка» (snake) is presented in the sentence: «Щоправда, **зміюка** наказала, щоб я зранку прибрала всю хату, доріжки витрушувала, долівки мила, посуд споліскувала після сніданку... ну, воду носити само собою... » (Dubynianska., 2004: 88). – «True, the snake commanded me to remove the whole house in the morning, walk the tracks, wash the dishes, rinse dishes after breakfast ... well, carry water by itself...».

### **Zoometaphor «мавпа» (monkey)**

Zoometaphor «мавпа» (monkey) is illustrated by a sentence: «**І якась мавпа** буде прокидатися поруч із ним кожного ранку. І складати до тумбочки цей довбаний наковдреник» (Dubynianska, 2004: 105). The word *мавпа* is used in the meaning of a girl who is unpleasant and not beautiful.

The following feature is related to the features of the character of a person who are like animals'. For example, «осел» (donkey) – stupid, «козел» (goat) – stubborn, «лисиця» (fox) – sly, etc.

The main hero in Yana Dubynianska's story is associated with a goat. His surname *Tverdovskyi* is also used when it is transformed into *Tverdolobyi*, which is a nickname typical to goats which like thudding with their foreheads. The metaphorical character of the surname is underlined by the hero's deeds. For example, a part of the group fails an exam:

« – Твердовський? – Марь-Ігорівна поцокала язиком і помацала волохату бородавку над губою. – Щось він сьогодні розходився...

Наші все ще купчилися у коридорі, і я дізналася, що Твердолобий устиг відправити за бігуном шістьох, не рахуючи мене, і навіть Коробову поставив чотири. Ніхто вже не кепкував – навпаки, дивилися на мене спідлоба й на питання відповідали не більш як двома словами. Наче це я винна, що він такий **козел!**» (Dubynianska, 2004:12). – «Tverdowski? – Mar-Igorevna tapped her tongue and felt her hairy wart over her lip. – Something he he diverged did today .... Ours were still piling up in the corridor, and I learned that the Hard-nosed Man had managed to send six of the runners, not counting me, and even put Korobov four. Nobody was already wrong - on the contrary, they looked at me with a bow and answered no more than two words. Like it's my fault he's such a **goat!**». The given example represents such a feature as stubbornness.

Apart from *tverdolobist* (which is a similar feature to goats), there is one more metaphor which is «chavunna bashka» (cast-iron head): «Очі мені злипалися, і я б не здивувалася, якби геннула з драбини. Просто на голову Твердолобисі: сподіваюся, стара дала б дуба. Але, з іншого боку, **об її чавунну башку** можна й спину зламати... і я відчайдушно трималася за перекладину лівою рукою» (Dubynianska, 2004: 71). – My eyes were sticking together, and I wouldn't be surprised if it came from the ladder. Just on the head of Solidforehead woman: I hope he old one died. But on the other hand, **her cast iron head** can break her back as well... and I desperately clung to the crossbar with my left hand».

The life in the dormitory (filth) is associated with the life among the pigs and nanny goats:

« – **Кози!** – я шмигнула носом. – Пожити **рік в общазі** – і що тобі **кози**, що тобі **свині**...» (Dubynianska, 2004: 23). – «**Goats!** I nuzzled. - To live a year in the community - and what **goats** you, what you **pigs**... ».

The family of *Tverdovskyi* is nicknamed as «goats» because of their greediness and inattentiveness: «...Нормальну їжу Твердолобиха зажала: вони, бач, з Васильком вже повечеряли. Розщедрилася на чашку козячого молока і

кілька черствих плюшок. Молоко я з дитинства ненавиджу – будь-яке, крім згушонки! – але прожувати плюшки без запивачки не виходило. Стара тут-таки пішла спати, Твердолобий давно давав хropaка на всю хату: качати права не було в кого, а швендяти чужою хатою у пошуках води я не наважилася. Так і завалилася спати – голодна та зла. **Козли вони всі!»** (Dubynianska, 2004: 62). – «... *The Solidforehead woman her normal food was clamoring: they had already had dinner with Vasilko. Topped off with a cup of goat's milk and some stale buns. I hate milk since childhood – anything but condensed milk! – but it was not possible to chew buns without a condensed milk. The old woman went to bed here, the Solidforehead man has long asleep to the whole house: there was no one to swing the rights, and I did not dare to munch on someone else's house in search of water. So she went to bed – hungry and evil. They are all goats!».*

Here is a metaphor dealing with alikeness of a person to certain parts of an animal's body:

*«Я відповідаю, а він дивиться крізь окуляри своїми дрібними очицями, як у кнура – вищукує, до чого б присікуватися»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 9). – «*I answer, and he looks through his glasses with his tiny little eyes, like a boar – looking for something find fault with it*». The portrait of a man through a metaphorical comparison with a brawn (male pig) draws our attention to small round eyes. The same eyes a pig has. Besides, it is considered that pigs have bad eyesight. Thus the likeness is underlined in the description of the man who wears glasses.

The description of a dog which breed is 'bulldog' has got a characteristic feature: the dog stands out among others with its wide but short neb. The eyes are set very low. Folds of skin almost cover the nose, which is very visible. Let's compare the passage: *«Брили як у бульдога, рот беззубою щілиною, запалий з боків голомозий лоб, а сама лисина прикрита плетеною шапчиною – у червіні!!! – і ще ці байдуже-ніякі кнурячі очиці за грубими квадратними окулярами»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 10). – «*Shaved like a bulldog, mouth with a toothless slit, a bulky forehead sank on both sides, and the bald head covered with a wicker hat – in June !!! – and still these indifferent no-nonsense eyes for rough square glasses*». A negative evaluation of the image of a male tutor has caused the repetition of a zoometaphor: *«У нього очі, як стоматологічна машина. І бульдожі брили, і рот перекривлений, як глиста... «мене вже тут нема. Прийдете восени»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 23). – «*He has eyes like a dental car. And the bulldogs were shaving, and my mouth was twisted like worm ... «I'm gone. Come Fall*».

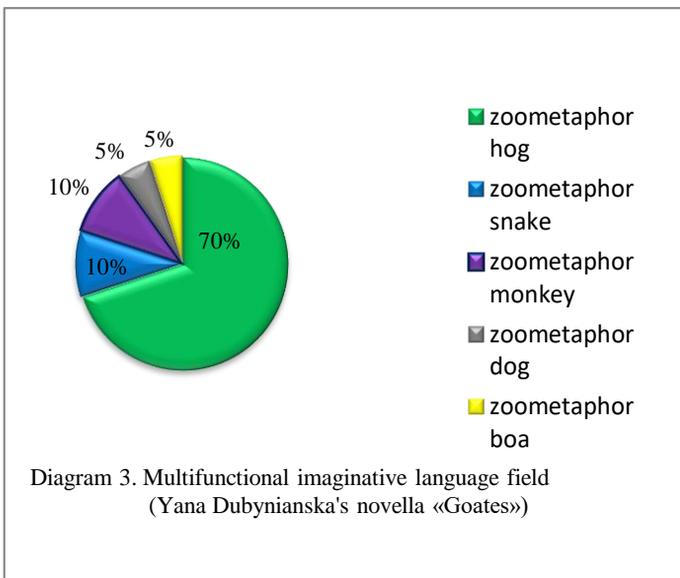
This portrait deals not only with the associate professor, but we can also get the description of his mother which is done with the help of zoometaphors: *«Вона повернулася, і я так і замовкла з роззявленим ротом. Лампочка над номером хати геть непогано підсвітила збоку її обличчя. Темне, зморшкувате, з обвислими брилами по боки невидимих зуб, з малесенькими кнурячими очицями й навислим лобом. Так-так. Лише чорна хустка замість плетеної шапчини»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 60). – «*She came back, and I stopped with my mouth open. The light above the house number illuminated the side of her face. Dark, wrinkled, with sagging bumps along the sides of invisible lips, with tiny knotty eyes and a hollow forehead. Yes Yes. Only a black scarf instead of a wicker hat*».

On the other hand, the author also provides a positive evaluation of dogs' behavior which is also transferred onto their hosts: *«От собак я люблю. Особливо великих, кошатих і «дворянської породи». З таким собакою я згодна була дружити, а на додаток, хай уже, і з його господарем»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 46). – «*I love dogs. Especially large, shaggy, and «noble breed». I agreed to be friends with such a dog, and in addition, even with its host*».

The nails of a young girl are compared to the claws of domestic and wild animals: *«Обережніше! Акуратно знімай, кому кажу! Ти ж мені весь урожай перемнеш своїми кігтярами, дурена безрука!..»* (Dubynianska, 2004: 72). – «*Go*

easy! Carefully shoot who I say! You will mix me all your harvest with your **claws**, you foolish fool!». Invective to convey negative emotions has been added to zoometaphor. The suffix *-яр-*, which carries exaggerated and coarse meaning, indicates pejorativeness.

Unpleasant hugs look like boa's hugs for the heroine: «Шорохкий нелюдський шепіт. Обличчя впечаталося у вовну грубого плетення, колючу, пропахлу потом. **Обійми – ніби кільця плетеного удава.** Котрий хоче не просто придушити – роздушити. Ковток повітря – знову затислося кільце – ледь слабше – некучі пальці нишпорять по грудях... I тут я його впізнала!!! Різко, з відчайдушною силою розвела руки в різні боки; віддерла, розірвала навпіл **вогняного удава.** Козел Твердолобий!» (Dubynianska, 2004: 109). – «A rude inhuman whisper. The face was imprinted on the wool of coarse weaving, barbed, then swollen. **The hugs are like the rings of a wicker boa.** Who wants to not just suppress – to crush. A breath of air – again tightened the ring – a little weaker – burning fingers snoop on his chest ... And then I recognized him !!! Sharply, with desperate force, she spread her hands in different directions; tore away, tore in half the fiery boa. **Stubborn Goat!**».



Facial expression is reinforced by the verb «вирячитися» (synonyms – *to say goodbye, to yell, to shout*) and transformed phraseological unit: «Твердолобиха **вирячилася на мене, як козел Бусик на нові ворота!**» (Dubynianska, 2004: 77). – «The Solidforehead woman yelled at me like a **goat Busik on a new gate!**».

Sounds, produced by a man but which are similar to the sounds of animals, can also have metaphorical meaning: purring: «**Бабця з ключами виразно промуркотіла «свят-свят-свят»** й відступила вбік, ховаючись за напіввідчиненою стулкою, тихий заспокійливий голос, подібний до муркотіння kota; – barking: «**A ти хто така?! – гавкнула твердолобівська мати.** – Йду геть звідси! Розвелася тут...» (Dubynianska, 2004: 60). – «The old lady with the keys clearly blurted out 'sviat-sviat-sviat' and stepped aside, hiding behind a half-open sash, a quiet soothing voice, like a cat's purring; – yelling: «And who are you?!

– *Barked the solidforeheaded mother. – Get out of here! Divorced here ...* », unpleasant sharp voice which resembles dog's barking.

The lingo-cultural aspect of zoometaphor «козел» is connected with the meaning which associates this animal with dark forces and provides it with humane features. Thus we get the metaphorical model «human being/animal».

For example, in the description of an animal: «*Чорна горизонтальна зіниця поперек жовтого ока. Глузлива зіниця. Розмірено ходить сюди-туди нижня щелепа, і в такт її руху похитується білястий віхот бороди. Зелена стеблина вкорочується на очах, втягуючись усередину бездомної пащі, замаскованої тією самою байдуже-глузливою посмішкою. Зуби виблискують коли-не-коли – як відвисне на мить бородата губа. Старанні, педантичні зуби. Він (козел) удає, що цілком випадково зайшов на стежку. Що може будь-якої миті зійти з неї, потягнувшись по молоду гілочку, яка за всіма законами фізіології має цікавити його більше, ніж...*» (Dubynianska, 2004: 5). – «*Black horizontal pupil across yellow eye. Mild pupil. The lower jaw measures in size, and the whitish whirling beard swings to the beat of its movement. The green stem shortens in the eye, being drawn into the homeless mouth, masked by the same indifferent smile. Teeth glisten almost once – like a bearded lip that hangs for a moment. Diligent, meticulous teeth. He (the goat) manages to enter the trail by accident. What can get out of her at any moment, reaching for a young branch, which by all laws of physiology should interest him more than...* ».

The author also describes the opposition of a man and an animal which has a dark side: «*Людська воля й дух сильніші. Не відводити погляду, знову гримнути залізним хазайським тоном, зробити крок уперед. Він має відступити. Позадкувати, звільнити стежку... Облишити кпини, врешті-решт!... Десь там, над розлогою кришкою черепа дримає – чи вдає, що дримає?! – темний нелюдський астрал. Від якого можна очікувати будь-чого...*» (Dubynianska, 2004: 6). – «*The human will and the spirit are stronger. Do not look away, again rush with an iron master tone, take a step forward. He must back down. To hum, to free the trail ... To put out scorns, after all! ... Somewhere there, above the spreading lid of the skull, is it asleep – is it possible that it is asleep?! – Dark Inhuman Astral. From which you can expect anything ...* ».

So, we can say that the usage of zoometaphors indicates the symbolism of images and evaluation, as the author draws exact associations between a mythological idea about a certain animal and a certain hero from a story. These metaphorical models have a negative evaluation in most cases and are related to the inner world of heroes, their likes, fears, etc. Zoometaphors deepen certain artistic and psychological aspects, the latter deal with the main character who is compared to a goat and who is afraid to live without the help and amulets of psychic mediums. Zoometaphors *козел* (goat), *кнур* (boar), *удав* (boa), *мавна* (monkey) have negative connotations while *собака* (dog) has ambivalent nature. Habits, character, likeness to animals, the main character's fear of goats prove the penetration of animals' features into the man and vice versa.

Such a metaphor performs the function of coding of certain cultural information in the text.

In the Ukrainian language, almost every name of the representative of an animal world (domestic animals, wild animals, birds, insects, etc.) can be used as an evaluative characteristic of a person (*козел* (goat), *собака* (dog), *мавна* (monkey), *змія* (snake), etc.). For example, «*Чоловіки – вони всі такі... Всі наволоч і козли*» (Rubina, 2012: 104). – «*Men – they are all like that ... All the goats and goats*».

Phraseological units created on the basis of zoometaphors reflect the peculiarities of language interpretation of reality, national-cultural originality of character nominations. The features which are the core of their formation often express national-cultural associations understood in a certain lingo-cultural unity. The

appearance of additional anthropocentric ideas of zoonyms proves the fact that animals played a vital role in the language picture of the world, which can be seen on a traditional model of transferring animals' features onto a human being and vice versa. There is quite an interesting example of comparing a woman to a nanny goat taken from a fairy-tale «Koza-dereza»: *«І той маленький шматок, поки офіціантка несла траву з кухні до залу, й спокусив бідну жінку (ще зовсім молоду і вродливу по-київському, тобто повну, з перефарбованим волоссям, із сережками і т.д.), і вона вхопила той шматочок, як та коза з казки листочок, але різниця між офіціанткою і козою полягала в тому, що коза, поки доходила до свого діда, встигала проковтнути листочок, ще й запити його води крапелькою, офіціантка ж ніяк не могла встигнути проковтнути кавалка ростбіфа на тому короткому відрізку шляху, який їй належало подолати від кухні до замовника»* (Zagrebelnyj, 2008: 188). – *«And that little bit while the waitress was eating from the kitchen to the hall, and seduced the poor woman (still very young and pretty in Kiev, that is full, with dyed hair, earrings, etc.), and she grabbed that leaf, like that goat from a fairy tale leaf, but the difference between the waitress and the goat was that the goat, until she reached her grandfather, had time to swallow the leaf, and even a drop of water to request, the waitress did not have time to swallow that piece of roast beef on the short path she had to overcome from the kitchen to the customer».*

### Conclusion

Metaphors-zoonyms convey national and cultural peculiarities of a language, give explicit information about a person, permit the simultaneous revelation of the dynamics of the development of national language picture of the world, positive or negative character of the formation of its axiological capacity expressing those attitudinal values which are in priority.

One can get the understanding of metaphor in such ways: 1) through the actualization of the component of semantic structure in animals' name; 2) man's features and indications of certain actions which allow associating a man with an animal; 3) through a situation in which this association arises. The paper analyzes and systemizes certain forms of interaction of different semantic factors in the process of functioning of zoometaphors in the text. We define lingo-cultural, accumulative, evaluative, expressive functions of zoometaphors in fictional texts.

The scientific novelty is revealed in the scientific grounding of lingo-cultural specifics of the usage of zoological metaphor in the modern fictional discourse, in defining individual regularities of applying metaphorical models in the text.

The practical value of the research lies in the possibility of using the materials with zoometaphors in lexicographical practice.

Further scientific work should be carried out to view relations of metaphor with certain figures of speech, sum up the vision about its place in the system of figures of speech taking into consideration both historical preconditions and the research done in Linguistics and other branches of science during the last decades.

### Bibliographic references

- ANDRIENKO, L. O. 1997. Genesis and features of the structure of the poetic metaphor of the baroque: diss. cand. philol: 10.02.01. Kyiv. 200 p.
- ARUTIUNOVA, N. D. 1995. Yazyk i mir cheloveka: sbornik. Moscow: Yazyki russkoy kultury. 892 p.
- BALABAN, O. 2009. Conceptual varieties of artistic metaphor: typological and cognitive aspects. In: Linguistic Studies, vol. 18, pp. 110–114.
- BERELSON, B. 1952. Content Analysis in Communication Research. New York. 146 p. ISBN: 13-978-0028412108

- DICTIONARY of the Ukrainian language: in 4 v. 1907–1909. Kiev, vol. 2, p. 265.
- DICTIONARY of the Ukrainian language: in 11 v. 1970–1980. Kiev, vol. 4, p. 211.
- DUBYNIAŃSKA, Ya. 2004. *Kozly: a story*. Kiev: Fact, 137 p. ISBN: 966-8408-87-X.
- GOLUBOVSKAYA, I. O. 2003. Metaphorical-Symbolic Hypostasis of Zoonyms in the Fragment of the Linguistic Picture of the World «Animal Kingdom» (on the material of Ukrainian, Russian, English and Chinese) In: *Linguistics*, n. 6, pp. 61–68.
- KALITA, O. M. 2006. Means of Expression of Irony in Contemporary Ukrainian Malay Prose: abstract. diss. cand. philol. sciences: 10.02.01. Kyiv. 23 p.
- KARPENKO, E. I. 2006. Linguocultural aspects of German zoomorphic metaphors: abstract. diss. cand. philol. sciences: 10.02.04. Moscow. 213 p.
- KRYVENKO, G. L. 2006. Zoosemisms in English and Ukrainian: semantic-cognitive and functional-pragmatic aspects: diss. cand. philol. sciences: 10.02.17. Kyiv. 230 p.
- KRYZHKO, O. A. 2006. Ethnic Symbols and Stereotypes in the Ukrainian Zonesymic Terminosystem / In: *Actual Problems of Slavic Philology*, n. 11, pp. 62–69.
- KUPINA, A. V. 2009. Anthropomorphic metaphor as a means of verbalization of the concept of the concept of «memory». In: *Linguistics*, 2009, vol. 1, n. 16, pp. 35–40.
- LAKOFF, G. – JOHNSON, M. 1980. *Metaphors, We Live by*. Chicago. 242 p. ISBN: 0-226-46801-1
- MAKARENKO, L. 2009. Metaphors of visual class in Yuri Klen's poetic speech. In: *Scientific Bulletin of Kherson State University. Series: Linguistics*, vol. 9, pp. 84–89.
- MIKHEEVA, T. I. 2017. Zoomorphism in the terminological system of the Ukrainian language. In: *Scientific Bulletin of the International Humanities University. Series: Philology*, vol. 27, n. 1, pp. 19–21.
- POTEBNYA, A. A. 1990. *Theoretical poetics*. Moscow: Higher School. 343 p. ISBN: 5-06-000844-4
- RUBYNA, D. 2012. *White dove Cordova*. Ternopil: Bogdan. 448 p. ISBN: 978-966-10-2629-1
- STAVITSKAYA, L. 2008. *Ukrainian without taboo. Dictionary*. Kyiv, pp. 11–70.
- TELIA, V. N. 1988. Metaphorization and its role in creating a linguistic picture of the world. In: *Role of the human factor in language. Language and picture of the world*. Moscow, pp. 173–204.
- TIMCHENKO, O. 2009. Ways to build an anthropomorphic metaphor in Ukrainian folk tales about the phenomena of nature, plants and animals. In: *Scientific Bulletin of the Kherson State University. Series: Linguistics*, issue 9, pp. 194–201.
- TISHCHENKO, O. M. 1997. Metaphor in the poems of Yevgeny Malaniuk (semantic-functional aspect): author. diss. philol. sciences: 10.02.01. Kyiv. 16 p.
- TICHER, S. – MEYER, M. – VODAK, R. – VETTER, E. 2009. *Methods of text and discourse analysis*. Kharkiv. 356 p. ISBN: 978-966-8324-61-1
- TKACHENKO, A. 1997. *The Art of the Word (Introduction to Literary Studies): A Textbook for the Humanities*. Kyiv. 448 p. 966-594-338-3
- VARLAMOV, M. V. 1995. Typological features of the adjective metaphor in comparison with the verb and substantive metaphors: diss. cand. philol. sciences: 10.02.01. St. Petersburg. 208 p.
- VERBITSKAYA, O. A. 1993. Onomasiological functions of the synesthesia metaphor in the Ukrainian language (on the material of adjectives of feeling): abstract. diss. philol. sciences: 10.02.02. Kharkiv. 24 p.
- VYNOGRADOV, V. V. 1980. *O yazyke hudozhestvennoy prozy*. Moscow: Nauka. 358 p.
- YESHCHENKO, T. *Semantic Types of Metaphors: Theoretical Aspect*, Online available: <http://litmisto.org.ua/?p=19758>

YESHCENKO, T. A. 2008. Khimerometafor in the idiolect of the literary-linguistic generation of the 90s of the XX century In: Donetsk Bulletin of the Scientific Society named T. G. Shevchenko. T. 17. Language, pp. 184–193.

ZAGREBELNY, P. 2008. Evil. Kharkiv. In: Folio. 379 p. ISBN: 978-966-03-4489-1

ZHAIVORONOK, V. V. 2006. Signs of Ukrainian Ethnoculture: Dictionary-Handbook. Kyiv. In: Trust, 703 p. ISBN: 966-507-195-5.

*Words: 7036*

*Characters: 45 313 (25,17 standard pages)*

Professor Luidmyla Marchuk  
Head of the Department of the Ukrainian Language  
Kamianets-Podilskyi National Ivan Ohienko University  
Ukraine  
lyudmulamarchuk60@gmail.com  
ORCID.org/ 0000-0002-9022-2103

Associate Professor Oleh Rarytskyi  
Head of the Department of the History of Ukrainian Literature and Comparative Studies  
Kamianets-Podilskyi National Ivan Ohienko University  
Ukraine  
rarytskyi\_o@ukr.net  
ORCID.org/ 0000-0003-1941-584X

Professor Mariia Lychuk  
Department of Journalism and Linguistic Communication  
National University of Life and Environmental Sciences of Ukraine  
Ukraine  
mariya.lychuk@gmail.com  
ORCID: 0000-0002-8046-7414

## Fantasy space modeling in English academic text

Nadezhda N. Menshakova – Svetlana V. Shustova – Ekaterina A. Kostina –  
Dzhafar Mallaev

DOI: 10.18355/XL.2020.13.02.23

### Abstract

The article is aimed at identifying the ways of representing the category of fantasy in English academic text and describing fantasy space of this type of texts. The research was carried out on the material of three monographs in linguistics. The conceptual analysis of the texts to identify contexts with markers of fantasy was undertaken, the nature of referential relationships in a fantasy utterance was studied, and the structure of fantasy was modeled. Fantasy images were considered in the light of their denotative and significative descriptors. The research findings revealed the form of representation and the functions of the category of fantasy in academic texts and displayed the peculiarity of the fantasy space in academic texts.

**Key words:** modeling, fantasy space, English, text, metaphor, concept, category

---

### 1. Introduction

“The past 20 years or so have seen increasing, and sustained, academic interest in the concept of creativity. Creativity has been explored across academic disciplines, although there is a particular focus of attention within the humanities and social sciences” (Swann, Deumet, 2017: 1). These words mark the tendency in modern social and artistic sciences and stress the idea that creativity is typical for all kind of human activity. But the role of creativity in scientific research is not truly discovered. In this paper we undertake the study of academic creativity by considering such phenomena as fantasy space of academic texts and the category of fantasy.

Modeling of fantasy space in academic texts written in English is associated with revealing the role of the category of fantasy in the process of cognition and knowledge formation which is carried out in the text. Fantasy in its broad sense is traditionally associated with artistic works. In a more narrow sense it can be associated with scientific creativity. Fantasy is a category that reflects the type of thinking and the way of world cognition and world description. The category of fantasy contributes to the implementation of the cognitive and communicative intentions of researchers, and it is a text-forming property of academic texts. This category has a sign form of expression and reflects the cognitive potential of interpretation of academic or scientific texts. The study of some academic texts in linguistics, as well as the study of some theoretical ideas on creative thinking, allowed us to model the structure of the category. Its structure consists of two components: rational and irrational. Irrational component reflects figments of researchers’ imagination, ideas considered to be false, illusions, etc., and it is represented in the text by such key concepts as *‘fantasy’*, *‘fudge’*, *‘illusion’*, *‘mystery’*. The rational component reflects different cognitive procedures used in academic research and is represented in the text by concepts *‘model’*, *‘potential’*, *‘identification’*, *‘interpretation’*, *‘mental / thought experiment’*. The two components of the structure

are interlinked and it is very often not easy to distinguish one from another. The contents of the category create a special kind of fantasy space which has such properties that are only typical for a cognitive kind of texts. The complex of main components of the fantasy space, i.e. the irrational and rational components of the category of fantasy, reflects the systematic nature of fantasy images in the modeled fantasy space (Menshakova, 2015).

Since the process of academic knowledge formation is hidden from direct observation, i.e. realized in the mind of researchers, the nature and specificity of this process can be learnt only from explicit linguistic markers present in the text. Such explicit markers of new knowledge formation in the text are metaphors since they have the ability to conceptualize new ideas (Aleksieva, 1998; Mishlanova, 2002) and reflect the deep ontological meaning of cognizable academic objects. The consideration of metaphors as the main means and method of generating new knowledge is justified by their powerful modeling function (Aleksieva, 1998; Gusev, 2002). "Metaphors typically align concepts featuring different degrees of concreteness. This phenomenon has been used to claim that metaphors allow us to (better) comprehend abstract concepts" (Bolognesi, Vernillo, 2019: 26). The essential features of metaphors are their secondary nature, their high associative potential, the perceptivity of the images they create, the ability to generate new knowledge on the basis of prior knowledge (Bein, Trzewik, Maril, 2019). This makes metaphors the main means of expressing new knowledge obtained in the course of interpretation of reality.

Despite the fact that metaphorical images are the main form of actualization of the category of fantasy, fantasy images do not function in academic texts in isolation from their main conceptual meaning. The logic and cohesion of academic speech that are considered to be ontological in scientific texts (Kotyurova, 1998) prove the idea that the metaphors and other means of representing of fantasy construct a special space in the text. This space is related to the expression of cognitive and communicative intentions of the author. It is also a product of researchers' individual creative thinking, a system of images that allow recipients to understand the original academic concept.

Modeling of fantasy space helps to identify a system of fantasy images on the basis of which authors' attitude to what they say is embodied in the text. The system of fantasy images is conditioned by the internal logic of academic texts and allows us to bring out their function in the formation of academic ideas. The specificity of fantasy images is expressed in the nature of their referential correlation with objects and phenomena of reality (Menshakova, 2017). Referential or non-referential images are indicators of the potential these images have for expressing knowledge. Non-referential, i.e. fantasy images, have a higher cognitive potential due to the fact that they provoke in the recipient more intense reflective activity and at the same time provide more freedom and hypothetical interpretation of new knowledge.

The process of modeling of fantasy space involve metaphors and formal utterances that contain non-metaphorical non-referential, i.e. fantasy, signs. Metaphorical and non-metaphorical fantasy images create a single space in academic texts. Each fantasy image has qualitative rather than quantitative characteristics.

The study of fantasy space thus allows us to learn what fantasy images are used in academic texts in English to realize the cognitive idea of authors and to find out how these images fulfil this goal.

The principles of fantasy space constructing depend on the cognitive and communicative intentions of authors, i.e. on what role this or that fantasy image must fulfill in the implementation of authors' intention. In other words, it is the author of academic texts who sets the rules for the functioning of images in the text created. The reflection of authors' attitude to the concept studied is expressed in referential correlation of fantasy images with reality. To establish what images are used to carry out a particular intention of the author we rely on the proposition that the system of fantasy images of academic texts reflects the structure of the category of fantasy and it is represented by two main groups of images that are correlated with the irrational and rational components of the category. The use of fantasy images in order to implement authors' cognitive design is associated with the conceptualization of new knowledge and modeling of objects of cognition. The process of theoretical modeling and the formation of new knowledge in the broader interpretation of the category of fantasy are mainly realized in the rational part of the category of fantasy.

The rational part of the fantasy space is represented by images that are dependent on the reference relationship with objects and phenomena of the real world. On the one hand, this does not allow researchers to lose touch with the object being studied, and on the other hand, it is a way of abstract studying of real object of cognition. This peculiarity of images of the rational component of the category of fantasy reflects the methodological potential of the category and proves the ability of these images to serve the goals of conceptualization and verification of new knowledge.

The irrational component of fantasy space combines mental images that are correlated with the illogical, fictional sphere of human mental activity. These fantasy images are not constrained by referential relations with objects of the real world. They have a high interpretative potential which is due to their non-referential nature. They establish ambiguous referential connection with objects of cognition or concepts studied.

The images of the irrational component, due to the lack of a strong connection between the object of comprehension and the mental fantasy image, are limited in academic texts by argumentative and persuasive functions.

Thus, the attribution of the fantasy image to an irrational or rational part of the category of fantasy, based on the nature of the reference relationship, determines the main functions of mental fantasy images in texts in linguistics. The authors' choice of images displaying referential peculiarities of rational or irrational component of the category constitutes the first stage in constructing the fantasy space of a text.

The second stage of constructing the fantasy space is possible due to the fact that both components of its structure demonstrate peculiarities of the objects of reference, i.e. the sphere of understanding of objects of reality. The peculiarities of understanding of the objects of reality are reflected in the conceptual structure of each of the two components of the category of fantasy. Their conceptual structure is related to the sphere of denotation of metaphorical images. In the process of creating a fantasy image the degree of probability of the image and the method of its creation are taken into account. A fantasy image is created according to author's general goals, be it conceptualizing of new knowledge or arguing about prior knowledge. In the first case,

the images are subject to the theoretical procedures of modeling, abstraction, and idealization; in the second case they are based on different sources of irrational imagination.

Obviously, the main purpose of creating fantasy images is to express some kind of knowledge. Each fantasy image contains a significant dimension that represents a model of fabricated knowledge. The sphere of fantasy comprehension of academic knowledge in the text is determined by the content and the concept of the text. The study of academic texts in linguistics defines the peculiarity of the significant descriptor which is connected with linguistic and general academic knowledge.

Thus, a conceptual analysis of fantasy images in academic texts in linguistics is directed from the content to the form of expression which allows us to identify specific ways of representing fantasy images as well as to determine their function in the implementation of the author's intention.

## **2. Materials and Methods**

### **Materials**

The material for the linguistic study of the fantasy space in academic texts is represented by three monographs in linguistics written in English: R.Harris. *The semantics of Science* (2005); R.A. Harris. *The Linguistics Wars* (1993); S.Shaumyan. *A Semiotic Theory of Language* (1987). We believe that the ways of representing fantasy knowledge depend on the individual thinking style of authors of academic texts. This idea is grounded on the fact that academic texts reflect the peculiarities of researchers' thinking, their methods of presentation, generalization, and rethinking of academic knowledge. A practical analysis of the monographs of various researchers will help to identify the ways in which authors of academic texts formulate new knowledge or argue their position using individual fantasy images, thereby creating a special fantasy space.

### **Methods**

The analysis of linguistic material is based on theoretical principles of text analysis. The study of the category of fantasy in the philosophical, academic, communicative and cognitive aspects allows us to consider this category as an attribute of academic texts. This category is present in academic texts because of the nature of academic cognition and the communicative nature of science.

The methodology for the analysis of the linguistic data is determined firstly, by the aim of the research, its objectives, and by the linguistic material. The study of the category of fantasy as a text-forming category is based on the analysis of the linguistic ways of its representation in the text. The aim of the analysis is identification of the ways of representing the category under study in academic texts.

Achieving this aim involves completing the following tasks:

1. To perform a conceptual analysis of the academic texts in order to identify contexts with markers of fantasy in them.
2. To study the nature of the referential relations in formal utterances with explicit fantasy markers.

3. To model the structure of the category of fantasy in academic texts selected for the analysis.
4. To explore the form of representation and the functions of the category of fantasy.

The analysis procedure is the following. First, using the method of continuous sampling we identified contexts that contain fantasy images in the texts under study. The identification of fantasy images is based on interpretation of markers of fantasy. It was proved that fantasy is represented in academic texts mainly in the form of secondary signs, i.e. in the form of metaphors, as well as in the form of formal non-metaphorical utterances with deviations from traditional referential relations. Metaphors and formal utterances that carry out reference to non-existent objects are considered by us as concrete units of analysis.

The main method used at the first stage of analysis is the method of logical analysis. It helps to identify contexts of use in case of ambiguity of the referent of the fantasy utterance when probabilistic nature of the fantasy sign, its polyinterpretive, ambiguous character allows us to attribute it to either the rational or the irrational component of the category of fantasy. The identification of contexts in which fantasy markers are present helped us to form a bank of units of analysis.

The next stage consists in the analysis of referential relations in contexts with fantasy markers. Contextual analysis, definitional analysis and cognitive analysis allow us to verify referential relations in the identified contexts. The nature of referential relations in fantasy utterances is the basis for classification of the knowledge they transmit as logical (and thus rational) or illogical (and thus irrational). On this ground we believe that fantasy utterances are related to: 1) the sphere of concepts of the irrational component of the category of fantasy, 2) the sphere of the rational component of the category of fantasy. The work at this stage is aimed at establishing the nature of fantasy of the conceptual space of academic texts. The nature of fantasy reflects the degree of probability of knowledge presented in the text, its ability to generate new academic ideas.

To identify peculiarities of the fantasy space created by authors of academic texts we carry out a study of the spheres of figurative identification of fantasy utterances with the object of cognition. One of the best ways to study the spheres of figurative identification of reality is a lexicographic description of metaphor (Baranov, Karaulov, 1994; Mishlanova, 2002). The linguistic material representing fantasy is analyzed with the provision that the formation of metaphorical meanings involves two semantic complexes: the significative dimension (metaphorical model) and the denotative dimension (the domain of objects of metaphorical reflection). Such analysis of metaphors allows us to answer the questions of what fantasy images are used in academic texts, what idea they represent, and how they relate to academic ideas.

### **3. Results**

The identification of ways of representing fantasy in academic text written in English implies: 1) identifying the nature of fantasy image in an academic text of a particular author through the analysis of referential relations in fantasy contexts, 2) identifying

fantasy images in utterances with recognizable objects, 3) establishing the main spheres of metaphorical modeling.

Let us consider a number of contexts of using representations of fantasy images related to the sphere of the irrational component of the category of fantasy.

(1) "...definitions do not lead us from words across the great divide to non-verbal reality" (Harris, 2005: 44).

(2) "Here we see Aristotle struggling hard to achieve levitation by tugging at the lexical bootstraps of his own vocabulary" (Harris, 2005: 40).

(3) "By this ingenious lexical manoeuvre, the world was suddenly populated by a body of like-minded investigators (henceforth to be called 'scientists'), whose existence strongly supported the view that there was a common enterprise (i.e. science) in which they were all engaged, even I they had not all realized that fact" (Harris, 2005: 28).

(4) "...the language of science was left in a kind of semantic limbo" (Harris, 2005: 171).

(5) "It was the search for fixed meanings that drove Plato to postulate an invisible world of eternal forms of ideas. He realized that the perceived world of everyday experience was constantly changing and calculated that behind or beyond it there must be another world of unchanging entities and relations. This invisible world was Plato's guarantee both of the possibility of genuine knowledge and, simultaneous, of the possibility of the genuine communication" (Harris, 2005: 120).

(6) "...those who hoped, by trial and error, to discover a reliable method of transmuting base metals into gold" (Harris, 2005: 51).

As can be seen from the examples considered, fantasy knowledge represented in them is based on the absence of a really existing referent. In example (4) the fantasy utterance 'semantic limbo' has a phantom referent that refers us to a fictional, mythological realm of being. In example (5) the utterance 'an invisible world of eternal forms of ideas' is non-referential. The specificity of this utterance is that, depending on the interpretation by the recipient, this utterance may acquire an abstract referent due to the fact that the idea of the invisible world of eternal forms and ideas was created in the past as an academic hypothesis. In modern science this hypothesis has been falsified and represents irrational fantasy knowledge.

The same peculiarity of the interpretation of referential relations is seen in (7):

(7) "Plato's solution was to posit a realm of 'ideas' or 'forms', lying beyond the world of ordinary human perception. Numbers were among the inhabitants of this realm. And for Plato this timeless, unchanging realm of forms contained all the eternal exemplars behind the fleeting appearances of the everyday world" (Harris, 1993: 117).

Let us consider the following context of representation of fantasy knowledge in the irrational component of the structure of the category under study:

(8) "The identification of phonemes with bundles of distinctive features had unfortunate consequences: it induced some linguists to treat the phoneme as a fictitious entity" (Shaumyan, 1987: 65).

The word 'fiction' means "an invention of the mind", "an untrue story". This term refers to works of art or a genre of literature characterized by a description of fictional, unreal, fantastic events or phenomena. Within the academic text, the semes

“invention of the mind” and “untrue” characterize knowledge beyond logic, in other words, knowledge turns out to be a fictitious construction of the imagination, a delusion. It is obvious that the main meaning of the concept is the absence of a true referent of the object. The meaning of the word ‘*fictitious*’, derived from the word ‘*fiction*’ also has the general meaning “lack of truth.” The word ‘*fictitious*’ has the meaning “untrue”, “invented”, “not real”. In the given context the concept ‘*phoneme*’ refers to the sphere of false non-academic knowledge. However, this idea of a phoneme is not generally accepted, the concept of a phoneme has a false referent only from the point of view of some linguists (*‘it induced some linguists to treat ...’*). We believe that the use of concepts related to fiction and falsity of knowledge expresses the anthropocentric nature of fantasy images and is due to the individual, personal opinion of researchers about the described phenomenon.

Let us consider another context:

(9) “[Postal] argued in classes, papers, colloquia, and at the 1964 Linguistic Institute [...] that pronouns weren’t “real”, that they were a figment of superficial grammatical process”(Harris, 1993: 109).

The meaning of the word ‘*figment*’ is “something believed but not real”. In the given context this concept characterizes the attitude of the researcher to knowledge but not knowledge itself. However, from the speaker’s perspective knowledge is considered false, hence fantasy.

Academic cognition can be characterized by the degree of falsity or fantasy of its content. Such meaning have the concepts ‘*figment*’, ‘*myth*’, etc., that are a part of the conceptual structure of the irrational component of the category of fantasy. The word ‘*myth*’ means “widely believed but false story or idea”. For the concept of myth referential relations are irrelevant since “in the myth everything is possible” (Levy-Stross, 2005: 240). In an academic text the images characterized by this word convey the value of “false story or idea” which assesses the described phenomenon. Let us look at an example:

(10) “There are myths aplenty in linguistics these days surrounding Chomsky’s spectacular rise, celebrating his brilliance and prescience, his predecessors’ obtuseness and dogmatism” (Harris, 1993: 51).

In this context the word ‘*myth*’, i.e. a fiction that does not correspond to reality, characterizes the idea of the linguist’s activity, and the use of this concept demonstrates the author’s distrust to the idea. In the next context the derivative of the word ‘*myth*’ also characterizes the described situation as fantasy and at the same time expresses the attitude of the researcher towards it.

(11) “Rather [the Third Texas Conference on Problems of Linguistic Analysis in English] played very well to the youth of the field, Chomsky’s performance at the conference occupying a substantial role in the mythology formed among the growing cadre of young transformationalists, particularly once the proceedings reached publication” (Harris, 1993: 71).

The use of the nouns ‘*myth*’ and ‘*mythology*’ in the given contexts has metaphorical nature. This nature reinforces the axiological function of these concepts. These images rather expressively evaluate knowledge.

Let us consider another context.

(12) “[Plato’s hypothetical invisible world] many people regard as an unsatisfactory solution; and rightly so, because it merely invents a mythical realm to supply a fixity that our more familiar world cannot provide” (Shaumyan, 1987: 91).

In this context the meaning of the adjective ‘*mythical*’ has a slightly different meaning than in the previous contexts. In examples (10), (11) ‘*myth*’ and ‘*mythology*’ describe erroneous ideas about something accepted by a certain society / community. In example (12), the word ‘*mythical*’ refers to a fictional world (‘*invents a realm*’), in which laws that are different from the laws of the real world exist. This world has no denotation; it is invented, intentionally created to substitute the real world. The concept ‘*mythical*’ in this context is used to refer to a mentally constructed world. The adjective ‘*mythical*’ confirms the fantasy of knowledge and, to a lesser extent than the previous concepts, expresses the author’s attitude to the ideas discussed.

Now let us consider another example of the use of the concept related to the irrational component of the category.

(13) “*Tylor begins by dismissing the old wives’ tale, still frequently heard today, that in some parts of the world people cannot count as Europeans can, because after the numerals for one, two and three their language has only a general word meaning ‘many’*” (Harris, 2005: 106).

The concept ‘*old wives’ tale*’ means “an ancient and not necessarily true belief” and refers to the field of irrational knowledge. The main meaning of this concept is that it represents non-specialized knowledge accepted among the profane and spread through rumors. In the academic text this concept has a negative connotation and destroys the value of knowledge in relation to which it is used.

The concepts ‘*fudge*’ and ‘*fraud*’ of the irrational component of the category have a common meaning – “deceitful action”. Their use in academic texts demonstrates negative assessment of the described knowledge. Consider another example:

(14) “*The dubious way Aristotle goes about dealing with it (by postulating that the ‘real world’ is the same for all observers, whose perceptions of it are likewise identical) I shall call ‘Aristotle’s fudge’*” (Harris, 2005: 18).

In this context the meaning of the concept ‘*fudge*’ indicates the author’s fallacy of prior academic knowledge. The author of the text does not reveal any malicious intent on the part of the creator of the false theory, but does not explicitly accept the knowledge of the opponent. The word ‘*fraud*’, which implies intentional deception unacceptable in the academic community, takes on a harsher meaning in the next context:

(15) “*The publication of Reflections on Language [...] leaves little doubt that transformational-generative grammar has become an intellectual fraud*” (Harris, 1993: 215).

In the context cited above the word ‘*fraud*’ has an expressive emotional connotation. It reduces the knowledge of the opponent to nothing, postulates not only its failure but also harmfulness for science.

Irrational knowledge in academic texts can be characterized by the absence, ambiguity, or non-existence of the referent. Irrational knowledge with such referents is represented in the irrational component of the structure of the category of fantasy. It is connected with such concepts as ‘*mystery*’, ‘*magic*’, ‘*enigma*’, ‘*prophet*’. Let us look at a few examples:

(16) *“The acquisition of a natural language by a child will remain a mystery unless we assume a hypothesis whereby there is available a simple sign system that underlies natural languages and controls their functioning”* (Shaumyan, 1987: 19).

The meaning of this fantasy context can be that the process of mastering a child’s natural language is not fully understood by researchers, i.e. the essence of this process is not known. However, under certain conditions (*‘unless we assume a hypothesis’*) the referent of the studied object (*‘acquisition of a natural language’*) can be detected. Consequently, fantasy images that belong to the group of concepts of *‘mystery’* have the potential to implement a reference relationship with objects of reality. Consider some more examples.

(17) *“In these bewildering chapters we find Aristotle reaching the mysterious conclusions that some things have an essence and others do not, and that of the things that do have an essence some are the same as their essence and others are not”* (Harris, 2005: 20).

(18) *“The general explanation to which their rigid deductive methodology led strikes moderns as somewhat mystical – that there is a universal grammar underlying language which is “dependent” on the structure of reality”* (Harris, 1993: 14).

In both contexts the concept *‘mystery’* characterizes the analyzed knowledge as false or as fantasy. Describing some knowledge with the help of such concept as *‘mystery’* the author conveys the idea that it is impossible to verify this knowledge since *‘mystery’* has the meaning of “something which cannot be explained or understood”. Thus, this knowledge is evaluated as erroneous. Such knowledge is considered as the one for which explanation does not matter or it is knowledge that was not clearly understood or reasoned and therefore is incomprehensible and incorrect.

The meaning of the concept *‘magic’* which is correlated with the irrational component of the structure of the category of fantasy allows us to evaluate the actions that it describes as inexplicable:

(19) *“Katz and Postal work similar magic with imperative sentences, supplying an IMP marker which triggers the relevant transformation”* (Harris, 1993: 86).

It is obvious that the general meaning of this utterance is that the actions of researchers are mysterious, logically inexplicable, and that meaning affects the assessment of the conclusions drawn. Since the actions themselves are inexplicable their results cannot be verified. The same meaning of inexplicability appears in the text with the help of the concept *‘enigma’*. See the contexts of its use below:

(20) *“In another way, though, the issue has less to do with Chomsky’s vaunted depth of analysis than with his enigmatic choice of which particular thread of which analysis to follow at any given time”* (Harris, 1993: 146).

In the given context the concept *‘enigmatic choice’* has no referent. In the dictionary the word *‘enigma’* is defined as “something mysterious and very hard to understand”, which means it is not known whether there is a real referent for the phenomenon characterized by this concept. In addition, the image created by the expression *‘enigmatic choice’* reflects the author’s attitude towards the opponent, since what is inexplicable and difficult to understand in science cannot be used as a tool for research. The opponent’s actions are evaluated by the author as inapplicable to academic research, as pure fantasy. From the point of view of the author these actions have false grounds, although the concept *‘enigmatic’* does not exclude the possibility

of verification and the presence of denotation. Consequently the referent of the utterance ‘*enigmatic choice*’ has potential nature.

In the following contexts the fantasy image is characterized by means of the concept ‘*prophet*’ which has no referent in the real world.

(21) “*For one thing, he was known to be the student of Zellig Harris, a brilliant, somewhat eccentric, but thoroughly Bloomfieldian, and very highly regarded linguist – “perhaps the most skilful and imaginative prophet [of the period]” (Harris, 1993: 29).*

(22) “*The debt to Locke resurfaces when we come to the prophetic mention of science de la communication des idées” (Harris, 2005: 45).*

The concept ‘*prophet*’ means a person with unrealistic, fictional power – a fantastic ability to foresee the future. It is significant that the word ‘*prophet*’ also has a sense “directed by God” which relates the named concept with both fantasy (since in the science the existence of God is denied) and faith. Due to the role that faith plays in cognition (Polany, 1998), the use of a concept related to this field in an academic context gives the utterance a positive and approving meaning.

Thus, mental images that form fantasy space of academic texts in the field of the irrational component of the structure of the category of fantasy represent the conceptual structure of this category and reflect the features of the concepts presented in it. These features consist of the absence of a reference correlation of fantasy images with objects of reality, an increased level of fantasy, and a lack of stable links with objects of research. As the result of our study we came to the conclusion that fantasy images of the irrational sphere of fantasy space in an academic text carry out mainly communicative function, i.e. serve as a means of persuasion and argumentation.

Table 1 represents the analysis of fantasy images in the irrational component of the category of fantasy on the basis of denotation.

*Table 1. Denotative analysis of fantasy images in the irrational component of the category of fantasy*

<i>fantasy</i>	<i>There were a few frothing publications, like Ray Dougherty’s (1974) “Generative Semantics Methods: A Bloomfieldian Counterrevolution,” and an exchange between Katz and McCawley that saw titles like “Interpretative Semantics Meets Frankenstein” (1976) and “Interpretative Semantics Meets the Zombies” (LW 154).  Since Bloomfield had become the absolute <b>Bogey Man</b> of linguistics, and since the generative semantics seemed to be working within the same general framework, it took a while for these accusations to surface (LW 161).</i>
<i>fudge</i>	<i>So, <b>mentalism</b> in psychology and linguistics went the way if <b>vitalism</b> in biology, <b>phlogiston</b> in chemistry, <b>ether</b> in physics, and, also like those other concepts, <b>mentalism</b> packed its bags when it left (LW 26).</i>
<i>illusion</i>	<i>Sound is the <b>hard currency</b>; meaning is <b>the network of cultural and formal conventions</b> that turns it into a <b>stick of gum at the candy store</b> (LW 5).</i>
<i>mystery</i>	<i>A science in crisis, says Kuhn, is a science looking to shuck whatever program gave rise to its insecurity, looking for a new, more complete, more consistent, more simple system than the old one, to give it back some</i>

	<p><i>confidence, looking, in many ways, for a <b>messiah</b>.</i></p> <p><i>And perhaps linguistics, as an abstract and collective entity, was looking for a savior (LW 36).</i></p> <p><i>MIT was <b>a stronghold of truth and wisdom</b> in language studies, Chomsky was the uniformly acknowledged intellectual <b>leader</b>, Aspects was <b>the new scripture</b>.</i></p> <p><i>The central, defining concern of the work codified, extended, and enriched in that scripture was <b>to get beneath the literal surface of language and explore its subterranean logical regularities, to find its deep structures, to get at meaning (LW 101).</b></i></p>
--	--

Now let us consider a number of contexts representing fantasy in the rational sphere of the structure of the category of fantasy:

(23) *"...the crude promises that weight-watchers consume for their intellectual diet is the rhetoric telling us that science has discovered in DNA a concealed 'genomic language' that can be compared directly to English" (Harris, 2005: x).*

(24) *"We are asked to believe that the genome is 'a lexicon', a collection of arbitrary ordered sentences, similar to the arbitrary alphabetical order of entries in an encyclopaedia" (Harris, 2005: x).*

(25) *"...describe the language of science 'from the outside'" (Harris, 2005: viii).*

(26) *"words may be instruments of communication they may also be obstacles to understanding" (Harris, 2005: 43).*

(27) *"degrees or levels of reality" (Harris, 2005: 208).*

(28) *"It is always possible [...] imagine a larger box enclosing any given box, however large. 'In this way space appears as something unbounded'" (Harris, 2005: 191).*

(29) *"a hypothetical 'ideal speaker-hearer'" (Harris, 2005: 99).*

(30) *"the social dimension of science" (Harris, 2005: 27).*

(31) *"the current academic story about 'superstrings'" (Harris, 2005: 176).*

(32) *"living in a universe with 'ten dimensions'" (Harris, 2005: 176).*

(33) *"hard-science [linguistics]" (Harris, 2005: 174).*

(34) *"soft science" (Harris, 2005: 174).*

These contexts reveal the specificity of the rational component of the category of fantasy. The general characteristics of the concepts typical for the category are determined by the methods and procedures used in science to search for new knowledge, to conceptualize and interpret it. The main concepts of the rational component of the category of fantasy are 'model', 'potential', 'identification', 'mental' / *thought experiment*, 'interpretation'. They have abstract referents that are correlated with real-life but idealized objects. This fact is due to the nature of science which studies only real-life objects and phenomena.

All the given contexts represent models of academic cognition, context (24) also demonstrates the process of formation and interpretation of new fantasy knowledge, contexts (28) and (29) reflect the high hypothetical value of images.

Let us consider the specifics of the rational component of fantasy relying on the main groups of concepts making up its structure.

The process of academic modeling can be considered as virtual since it is carried out not in reality but in the mental space of human thinking. According to H.R.

Schmidtke, it is a property of language to model reality: “human language is a versatile tool for communicating mental models between speakers of a language”(Schmidtke, 2020: 27). Psychologists claim that understanding of the world is built on modelling because our brain “reflects the external world causal relationships in the form of a logically consistent and prognostic model of reality” (Vityaev 2019). Modeling is an operation with an ideal object of study, i.e. with an object that has an abstract referent. The operation of modeling needs fantasy thinking. In context (35) “*Academic attempt to model reality*” (Harris, 1993: 214) the object of modeling is *reality*. The concept of reality is abstract in nature which determines the effect of fantasy produced by the utterance ‘*to model reality*’. Physical manipulation of reality is generally impossible, and due to the depth of the concept even mental modeling of reality may be incomplete. Likewise in context (36) “*Every language presents its own model of the Universe*” (Shaumyan, 1987: 11) the model of the universe does not reflect all existing features and characteristics inherent in it, the referent of the utterance ‘*model of the Universe*’ is abstract since it is intentionally constructed in the mental space of the researcher and displays only the most relevant signs of the object of study. To study the individual sides of such complex objects as reality, the universe, etc., modeling is an important theoretical tool. Modeling is considered from the standpoint of probabilistic logic where it is possible to “cut off” irrelevant characteristics and multiple interpretations of the obtained data when studying objects or phenomena of reality (Krymsky, 1974). This means that fantasy images created in the process of modeling objects of reality have a high interpretative potential.

The processes of abstraction and idealization are reflected in the images of the rational sphere of fantasy space. Objects that undergo abstraction and idealization in science have abstract referents since they relate to complex, systemic, indivisible objects of cognition the study of which is possible when we avoid their specific, unambiguous characteristics.

Let us consider the contexts:

(37) “*Therefore, the starting point of this theory is the phonemic level as an ideal system of distinctive oppositions whose properties are determined by the Principle of Semiotic Relevance. The ideal system of distinctive oppositions is not based on analytic procedures but is postulated as a theoretical construct from which possible systems of distinctive oppositions are deduced*” (Shaumyan, 1987: 83).

(38) “*The concept of language is an abstraction that characterizes the common properties of all languages*” (Shaumyan, 1987: 1).

In context (37) the referent of the word ‘*language*’, which is the object of study, is transformed in such a way that it correlates with many other similar objects. Fantasy in this case is revealed in the researcher’s ability to comprehend existing objects as concrete and abstract entities at the same time.

The concepts of the rational component of the fantasy ‘*potential*’, ‘*possible*’, ‘*hypothetical*’, etc. are joined in one group due to the general trait of probability of the referent, its potential and virtual character.

Fantasy images related to the sphere of the concept ‘*potential*’ are characterized by the fact that their referent is assigned to the future, it exists in the abstract form and may or may not be realized in reality:

(39) *“These superpositions can be explained as a realization of a potential of natural languages for developing symmetrical constructions”* (Shaumyan, 1987: 179).

Images correlated with the sphere of the concept ‘*hypothetical*’ have referents that are supposed by researchers but not confirmed by science at the moment.

Objects with ambiguous referents, existing and non-existent at the same time, are used in science to solve logical problems, to verify knowledge, etc. The hypothesis is associated with virtual modeling of an object or phenomenon which, due to its ideal nature, can only have an abstract referent existing in a virtual world. Consider the context:

(40) *“At this point in the exposition, Einstein allows a hypothetical objector to protest”* (Harris, 2005: 137).

The concept ‘*a hypothetical objector*’ represents a mentally created object, a mental interlocutor, an opponent, a representative of competing theory and logic. The attributive use of the word ‘*hypothetical*’ characterizes the object but does not evaluate it from the standpoint of reality – unreality. The main function of using the concept in this context is to conceptualize the knowledge necessary for the successful development and argumentation of the theory.

The concept ‘*identification*’, which is part of the rational component of the category of fantasy, reveals the property of fantasy images to create similarities between objects or phenomena.

The identification process is based on establishing the relation  $A = B$ . In this sense, the identification process is similar to the process of conceptually superimposing the system of characteristics of one object on another. In other words, the identification of two objects implies that of one of them has a referent that partially coincides with the referent of another object that belongs to another subject area. Since the referents of ideal objects modeled by science are abstract and ambiguous, the referential relations established between the studied and the known objects are also abstract. Let us consider the contexts:

(41) *“Under the definition of the grammatical category proposed above, ergativity is identical with agentivity if we define the meaning ‘agent’ as a class of meaning characterized by the same coding devices as the syntactic function ‘ergative’”* (Shaumyan, 1987: 149).

The concept ‘*interpretation*’ represents one of the important procedures of academic research and processing academic data. In academic texts the concept ‘*interpretation*’ has an ambiguous referent which is explained by the nature of the process of interpretation that allows many truths. Here is a context from another text:

(42) *“As another glance at the Floyd tree will show, Postal’s reductionist campaign was gathering a good deal of steam – adjectives were re-analyzed as deep verbs, adjective phrases disappeared at deep structure, some nouns were also deep verbs, prepositions and conjunctions were deep verbs, prepositional phrases dissolved at deep structure, tenses were deep verbs, quantifiers were deep verbs, articles arose transformationally, the verb phrase dissolved at deep structure – and abstract syntax arrived at a convenient little core of deep categories: NPs, Vs, and Ss”* (Harris, 1993: 115).

Each of the objects mentioned in the context (grammatical parts of speech) has at least two referents. The adjective has a virtual object representing the abstract structure of all adjectives known as a referent. In the theory of transformational grammar, as is

seen from Harris's narration, the referent of the adjective changes because the theoretical idea of its origin and function changes. Thus, the word '*adjective*' in this context has two referents: the one that the author of the text keeps in mind and the other is implied by transformational grammar. From the point of view of the author, the second referent is false; from the position of transformational grammar, the first referent is false. Fantasy thinking in the process of data interpretation manifests itself as a creative ability to identify potential properties of objects, as well as evaluate these properties from the perspective of new knowledge.

The concept '*mental / thought experiment*' represents a scientific operation related to the use of fantasy to obtain scientific knowledge about the subject being studied. A thought experiment is used in scientific research when an object is not available for direct study. In an academic text, fantasy knowledge represented by the concept '*mental / thought experiment*' has a virtual referent and can be verified by probabilistic logic. Referents of imaginary objects or situations involved in a thought experiment have phantom or abstract existence.

Let us consider a broad context of a thought experiment:

(43) "*The antinomy of transposition is generated by the following two assumptions, which both characterize the essential properties of the phoneme.*

*Assumption 1: Phonemes are elements whose function is to differentiate between signs. [...]*

*If assumption 1 is valid, then the acoustic substance of phonemes can be transposed into other forms of physical substance – graphic, chromatic, tactile.*

*Any phoneme and any set of distinctive features can be presented not only as acoustic elements but as graphic, chromatic, or tactile symbols, as well. In order to see that, let us perform the following mental experiment. We will transpose phonemes into circles of identical dimension but different colour, let us say in English the vowel æ into a blue circle, the vowel e into a brown circle, the consonant t into a yellow circle. The words cat, ten, neck, net, can, tan can then be represented as chains consisting of combinations of the differently colored circles..."* (Shaumyan, 1987: 51).

The given thought experiment is based on a conscious violation of normal referential relations in the utterance. The basis for the representation of the concept '*mental / thought experiment*' in this text is a conceptual blend that combines the spheres of acoustic and visual perception. The researcher transforms objects of study (*phonemes*), changes the form of their material representation from acoustic to visual. The choice of such transformation from an acoustic form to a visual one is called for by the highest productivity of visual perception (Ryabtseva, 2005). As a result of this transformation phonemes acquire an additional visual form of expression. However, this form of expression is imaginary; it was proposed only for the purpose of implementing the experiment and does not imply further existence. Accordingly, the assumption that words can be represented as chains of circles of different colors is false. The utterance '*transpose ... the vowel æ into a blue circle*' is possible in terms of probabilistic logic which means it has a virtual referent. Understanding of the modification proposed by the author is possible due to the person's ability to fantasy, to use probabilistic logic in the process of comprehension of the utterance. As can be seen from the context, probabilistic logic plays a significant role in construction and understanding of thought experiments, and it allows us to understand false utterances viewed as such from the standpoint of traditional logic.

Thus, the mental images that form the fantasy space of the English academic text in the sphere of the rational component of the structure of the category of fantasy represent the conceptual structure of this category and reflect the peculiarities of the concepts presented in it. The peculiarity of the concepts consists in the fact that fantasy images belonging to the rational component of the category have abstract or ambiguous referents that link these fantasy images with virtual objects created by researchers in ideal mental form. The nature of fantasy created by the peculiarities of referential relations in the rational component of the structure of the category is lower than in its irrational component. Fantasy images of the rational sphere of fantasy space primarily perform a modeling function and participate in the conceptualization of new knowledge.

Table 2 represents the analysis of fantasy images in the rational component of the category of fantasy on the basis of denotation.

*Table 2. Denotative analysis of fantasy images in the rational component of the category of fantasy*

<i>model</i>	<i>Dummy terms serve to resolve the conflict between syntactic and semantic requirements: since <b>dummy terms</b> have null meaning, they do not change the semantic context of an impersonal sentence, and at the same time they allow satisfaction of the structural requirement that every sentence must have a subject (Shaumyan 1987: 228).</i>
<i>potential</i>	<i>At this point in the exposition, Einstein allows <b>a hypothetical objector to protest</b> (Harris, 2005: 132)</i>
<i>identification</i>	<i>In short, logic brought the abstract syntacticians much closer to the mentalist goals which they <b>had swallowed with their early transformational milk</b>.  <i>Along with <b>vitamin M, mentalism</b>, their early <b>transformational milk included another essential nutrient</b>, especially after Chomsky's tour de force linkage of his program to the goals of traditional grammar, <b>vitamin U, universality</b>, and in Aspects Chomsky associated this nutrient with one specific module of his grammar, the base component [...] (Harris, 1993: 117).</i></i>
<i>interpretation</i>	<i>As another glance at the Floyd tree will show, Postal's reductionist campaign was gathering a good deal of stream – <b>adjectives were re-analyzed as deep verbs, adjective phrases disappeared at deep structure, some nouns were also deep verbs, prepositions and conjunctions were deep verbs, prepositional phrases dissolved at deep structure, tenses were deep verbs, quantifiers were deep verbs, articles arose transformationally, the verb phrase dissolved at deep structure – and abstract syntax arrived at a convenient little core of deep categories: NPs, Vs, and Ss</b> (Harris, 1993:115).</i>
<i>mental/thought experiment</i>	<i>"It is perfectly possible to imagine a universe in which any act of counting by being in it annihilated some members of the class counted during the time and only during the time of its continuance. [...] For I would see that it is also imaginable that those accustomed to attending meetings of the Council of Nicaea might learn to develop a different method of counting from mine: a</i>

	<p><i>method that accommodated the alarming <b>propensity of bishops to become indistinguishable from their immediate neighbours</b>. For instance, in this method there might be a numeral <b>318/9, which was neither 318 nor 319</b> in my familiar system. Given this more sophisticated Nicaean system of numeration, I would see that the question ‘Are there really 319 bishops of only 318?’ becomes pointless: and perhaps meaningless, since the logic of one-to-one correlation no longer applies. Creating such a universe, with a different basis for the integration of counting, and a different mathematics, would be well within the capacities of the Demiurge (Harris, 2005: 187).</i></p>
--	---

The study of the three monographs in linguistics allowed us to carry out the analysis of fantasy images on the basis of significative descriptors. In the studied works the main significative descriptors belong to the sphere of language, linguistics, researchers, communication, science, academic work, thought, knowledge, world and components of academic cognition (see Table 3).

*Table 3. Significative descriptors of fantasy images of the category of fantasy in monographs “The semantics of Science” by R.Harris (2005), “The Linguistics Wars” by R.A. Harris (1993), “A Semiotic Theory of Language” by S.Shaumyan (1987).*

LANGUAGE	<p>“the kernel was the seed of meaning in transformational grammar” (Harris, 1993: 48)</p> <p>“grammatical pieces of language” (Harris, 1993: 57)</p> <p>“domain of meaning” (Harris, 1993: 12)</p> <p>“looking underneath language” (Harris, 1993: 81)</p> <p>“grammaticality was a wholly syntactic beast” (Harris, 1993: 188)</p> <p>“interpretive semanticists took only a conservable, tasteless, nutritionless little nibbles from ... language” (Harris, 1993: 8)</p>
LINGUISTICS	<p>“cross-pollination [in generative semantics]” (Harris, 1993: 206)</p> <p>“the linguistic battle” (Harris, 1993: 121)</p> <p>“Halleian phonology was ... a product of a fantastic never-never land” (Harris, 1993: 60)</p> <p>“language [is] a path running from sound to meaning, and ... linguistics [is] the exploration of that path” (Harris, 1993: 12)</p> <p>“generative light bulb surely clicked on” (Harris, 1993: 52)</p>
RESEARCHER	<p>“four leading figures all on their semantic horses” (Harris, 1993: 131)</p> <p>“Chomsky is a steadfast champion of creativity” (Harris, 1993: 57)</p>

	<p>“grammar-zombies” (Harris, 1993: 53)</p> <p>“[Chomsky] is many linguists’ Great Satan” (Harris, 1993: 54)</p> <p>“Noam is not a human being. He is an angel” (Harris, 1993: 77)</p>
COMMUNICATION	<p>“the knowledge inside a language user’s head” (Harris, 1993: 100)</p> <p>“breadth of knowledge” (Harris, 1993: 15)</p> <p>“to model knowledge of space” (Harris, 1993: 32)</p>
SCIENCE	<p>“science is a full-blooded activity” (Harris, 1993: 214)</p> <p>“empirical science camp” (Harris, 1993: 5)</p> <p>“the anomalist camp” (Harris, 1993: 13)</p> <p>“blessing of science” (Harris, 1993: 11)</p> <p>“various bits of theoretical machinery” (Harris, 1993: 194)</p>
ACADEMIC WORK	<p>“[Chomsky’s] writing can be ... forbidding as a blackberry patch, full of fruit you can see but you just can’t get to” (Harris, 1993: 244)</p> <p>“Sapir’s [Language] ... heaped high with brilliant insights and imaginative leaps” (Harris, 1993: 22)</p> <p>“Bloomfield’s [Language] is a cookbook, ... giving its readers recipes with which to obtain similar results” (Harris, 1993: 22)</p> <p>“[Chomsky’s Logical Structure of Linguistic Theory] looked to be the iceberg of which Syntactic Structures formed the tip” (Harris, 1993: 69)</p> <p>“Halle’s evangelical Seven Sermons on Sounds in Speech” (Harris, 1993: 69)</p>
THOUGHT	<p>“the territory of thought” (Harris, 1993: 6)</p> <p>“the deer park of the mind” (Harris, 1993: 53)</p> <p>“genetic veins in the marble of our minds” (Harris, 1993: 66)</p> <p>“the golden realm of thought” (Harris, 1993: 96)</p> <p>“a thought [looks like] the bundles of features hanging down from the bottoms of deep structure” (Harris, 1993: 108)</p>
KNOWLEDGE	<p>“road to knowledge” (Harris, 2005: 39)</p>
WORLD	<p>“the hidden structures of creation” (Harris, 1993: 12)</p> <p>“corrosive passage of time” (Harris, 1993: 15)</p>
COMPONENTS OF ACADEMIC COGNITION	<p>“a cloud-like subatomic model” (Harris, 1993: 7)</p> <p>“<math>\Delta</math>-nodes “functioned as an Open Sesame” to generative semantics” (Harris, 1993: 90)</p>

#### 4. Conclusions

The main objective of the practical study of the category of fantasy in English academic texts was to identify and analyze the linguistic, cognitive and communicative features of the representation of this category. To achieve this goal it was necessary to model the fantasy space of the academic texts in linguistics written in English.

The methodology of modeling the fantasy space of an academic text is based on the ideas of 1) a complex, ambiguous structure of the category of fantasy, which is represented by two opposite components: rational and irrational; 2) on the predominantly metaphorical form of representation of fabricated knowledge in academic texts. At modeling fantasy space it is necessary to take into account the dual structure of the category of fantasy, the degree of correspondence of the referent of the metaphor with the reality, and the nature of fantasy of each of the components of fantasy space. Recognition of the predominantly metaphorical way of expressing fantasy knowledge makes it possible to study the ways of representing fantasy from the perspective of its denotative description.

The analysis of the system of images represented in the irrational component of the structure of the fantasy category showed that the specifics of the representation of fantasy knowledge is determined by the conceptual structure of each of the components of the category. Mental fantasy images of the irrational sphere of the fantasy space of the text are characterized by referential relationships with the objects of reality that they represent. This determines the predominantly argumentative and persuasive functions of irrational images in academic texts. The system of fantasy images of the rational component of the category of fantasy is characterized by the presence of an abstract referent that correlates the fantasy image with the object of cognition. The object of cognition is constructed by researchers and exists in a virtual, ideal form in their mind. This feature of fantasy images of the rational component of the category determines their function to conceptualize new academic knowledge.

The study of the denotative and significative spheres of fantasy images showed the following. 1) The denotative sphere of fantasy space is represented by the basic concepts included in the structure of the irrational and rational components of the category of fantasy. Such concepts are: '*fantasy*', '*fudge*', '*illusion*', '*mystery*' for the irrational component, and '*model*', '*potential*', '*identification*', '*interpretation*', '*mental / thought experiment*' for the rational component of the structure of the category of fantasy. 2) The significative sphere of fantasy space represents the main areas of linguistic and general academic knowledge. Such areas in the studied English academic texts in linguistics were LANGUAGE, LINGUISTICS, RESEARCHER, COMMUNICATION, SCIENCE, KNOWLEDGE, ACADEMIC WORK, COMPONENTS OF ACADEMIC COGNITION, THINKING, PEACE.

The main linguistic ways of representing fantasy knowledge in academic texts are metaphors and non-metaphorical formal utterances containing non-referential signs or images. The main function performed by metaphors in academic texts is conceptualization of new academic knowledge. It is realized in the sphere of the rational component of the category of fantasy. In the sphere of the irrational component the metaphor serves the purpose of realizing the communicative intention of the author and performs primarily argumentative and persuasive functions. Non-

metaphorical formal utterances contain fantasy knowledge that relates them either to the sphere of the irrational component of the category of fantasy (in this case, they are associated with the concepts 'fudge' or 'illusion') or to the sphere of the rational component of the category where they are represented by the concepts 'interpretation' or 'mental / thought experiment'.

### **Bibliographic references**

- ALEKSEEVA, L.M. 1998. Term and Metaphor. Perm: Perm University, 250 p. (In Russian)
- BARANOV, A.N. – KARAULOV, YU. N. 1994. The Dictionary of Russian Political metaphors. Moscow: Pomowsky and Partners. 330 p. (In Russian)
- BEIN, O. – TRZEWIK, M. – MARIL, A. 2019. The role of prior knowledge in incremental associative learning: An empirical and computational approach // Journal of Memory and Language. 107. pp. 1–24.
- BOLOGNESI, M. – VERNILLO, P. 2019. How abstract concepts emerge from metaphorical images: The metonymic way // Language and Communication, 69. pp. 26–41.
- GUSEV, S.S. 2002. The Meaning of Probable. Connotation Semantics. St. Petersburg: Alteya. 192 p. (In Russian)
- HARRIS, R. 2005. The semantics of Science. London – New York: Continuum. 219 p. ISBN 08264 7847 6
- HARRIS, R.A. 1993. The Linguistics Wars. New York – Oxford: Oxford University Press. 356 p. ISBN 0-19-507256-1
- KOTYUROVA, M.P. 1988. On Extralinguistic Grounds of Semantic Structure of Scientific Text (Functional and Stylistic Aspect). Krasnoyarsk: Krasnoyarsk University. 171 p. (In Russian)
- KRYMSKY, S.B. 1974. Scientific knowledge and the Principles of its Transformation. Kiev: Naukova Dumka. 210 p. (In Russian)
- LEVY-STROSS K. 1994. Primitive Thinking. Moscow. (In Russian)
- MENSHAKOVA, N.N. 2015. Representation of Fabricated Knowledge in Academic texts. In: Russian Linguistic Bulletin, vol. 4, n. 4, pp. 24–25.
- MENSHAKOVA, N.N. 2017. The Use of Non-Referential Words in Academic Texts. In: Russian Linguistic Bulletin, № 3(11). P. 55–57.
- MISHLANOVA, S.L. 2002. Metaphor in Medical Discourse. Perm: Perm University. 160 p. (In Russian)
- POLANI, M. 1998. Personal Knowledge. On the Way to Post-critical Science. Blagoveschensk: BGK named after I.A. Baudouin de Courtenay (In Russian)
- RYABTSEVA N.K. 2005. Language and Natural Intellect. Moscow, Academia. 240 p. (In Russian)
- SCHMIDTKE, H.R. 2020. TextMap: A general purpose visualization system. In: Cognitive Systems Research. 59. pp. 27–36.
- SHAUMYAN, S.A. 1987. Semiotic Theory of Language. Bloomington and Indianapolis: Indiana University Press. 352 pp. ISBN 0-253-30472-5
- SWANN, J. – DEUMET, A. 2017. Sociolinguistics and language creativity. In: Language Sciences. XXX. pp. 1-8.
- VITYAEV, E. 2019. Consciousness as a logically consistent and prognostic model of reality, Cognitive Systems Research doi: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogsys.2019.09.021>

*Words: 9462*

*Characters: 61 313 (34,06 standard pages)*

assoc. prof Nadezhda N. Menshakova  
Perm State University

Perm  
Russia  
ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3874-7279>  
mnesperanza@mail.ru

prof. Svetlana V. Shustova  
Perm State University  
Perm  
Russia  
ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8318-7864>  
lanaschust@mail.ru

assoc. prof. Ekaterina A. Kostina  
Novosibirsk State Pedagogical University  
Novosibirsk  
Russia  
ORCID ID: <http://orcid.org/0000-0002-1428-7095>  
ea\_kostina@mail.ru

prof. Dzahafar Mallaev  
Dagestan State Pedagogical University  
Makhachkala  
Russia  
ORCID ID: <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7084-7627>  
Vip.dgaf@mail.ru