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Editorial

Welcome to the third issue of the *Journal of Language and Education (JLE)* – the platform that synthesizes scientific enquiry in Linguistics, Psychology, Language Teaching and Learning, which enables researchers to achieve new understanding of old phenomena through an interdisciplinary approach.

The editorial team has put significant effort into this venture that keeps linguistics interconnected with other disciplines and brings together such thematic areas as psycholinguistics, communication gap, language and speech, mental health treatment, and cognitive processes. The variety of articles in this Issue 3 of Volume 1 indicate our growing confidence and heterogeneity as an academic community.

The initial stirrings of the third issue of JLE began with the article presented by Prof. H. Kyuchukov, a leading specialist in the field of Romani psycholinguistics and education of Roma children in Europe. The paper '*Slovak language of Roma children: Mother tongue or second language*' presents a study done with 40 Roma children from Slovakia between 4-8 years old. The researcher addresses a new role for the study of an ethnolect, which Roma children learn from their parents, as Slovak society does not consider their ethnolect to be a "good Slovak language". The information garnered within the study is sufficient to provide some basis for working out better measures to prepare the children for primary school classes. Moreover, the investigation sheds new light on the field of developmental psycholinguistics.

In '*Sophisticated Thinking: Higher Order Thinking Skills*', Elena Tikhonova and Natalia Kudinova look at issues arising from the information-based society. They show how sophisticated thinking focuses on

the enhancement of higher order thinking skills; the development of disposition is regarded as the cornerstone of the development of sophisticated thinking. The triad that was tested by the authors in the course of the experiment (disposition → LOTS → HOTS) is claimed to be so far the optimum way of enhancing sophisticated thinking. The results shown by the students from the experimental group serve as evidence that the development of sophisticated thinking should start with the development of disposition towards both the thinking process and processed information.

N. Yankovskaya and Olga Neklyudova in '*Research on the Business English Training Model within MBA Program*' investigate issues of developing a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA program students. The overview of previous research shows that in order to establish correlation between activity and competency-based approaches chosen for developing the model of business foreign language training that can ensure, it is essential to build a professional foreign language communication competency of the MBA program students. The obtained results open fascinating perspectives for further research on this issue and the development of teaching materials, teacher training, planning organizational procedures and ensuring administrative support, developing supporting Internet media etc.

In '*Lexical Representation of Knowledge about a Human Being in the English Language*' Tatiana Golechkova studies the selected set of synonyms in order to reconstruct conceptual knowledge represented by the lexical items. All the findings in this article further our understanding of semantic representation

and determine English culture-specific features of conceptual knowledge about a human being. The overview of cognitive models and an attempt to apply them to the synonyms denoting a human being have revealed a need for further research into cognitive models and methodologies for building them, as existing ones seem efficient for describing the information represented by concrete nouns rather than more complex abstract notions and more general concepts.

Elena Golubovskaya's paper '*Verbal Representation of Ethnical Stereotypes about the Dutch in English (an Insight into Cross-Cultural Perception via the Language)*' establishes the national stereotype to be investigated as a subject of cognitive linguistics. The paper focuses on the social stereotype of evaluative origin perceived by a modern British person against a single ordinary Dutchman and the whole nation as an out-group. She finds out that the integrated approach makes it possible to process the language items in terms of their correspondence to the basic layers of the concepts.

The paper '*Cognitive Aspect of Intercultural Communication*' by Svetlana Kurbakova states that a strong awareness that substituting foreign verbal means for the native ones leads to weakening the immunity of the national language consciousness in general and undermines the national traditions of verbal communication approved and used by a national community. She focuses on the issue that didactic exploitation of the cognitive scheme (the status of a three-coordinate: subject/who, place/where, time/when) is seen in teaching students to identify coordinates in the process of comprehending speech or text and thus to perceive its message by structuring, organizing, and assessing the information.

The article '*Postmodern Discourse and its Semiosis*' by Kseniya Hakobyan and J. Šuler-Galos is devoted to a

symbolic representation as a specific uniquely human form of objectification of the real world and a powerful means of communication activity of its reflectivity. The proposed semiotic methodology enables the speaker to present the realities of the conditional reality as a communicative process, regulated by a system of codes and signs, urged to cause the corresponding reaction from the addressee recipient. Through the analytical statements and illustrations they present the essence of the postmodern discourse to be made by linguocultural codes which include linguistic, cultural, semiological, interactive, metatextual and other codes.

The book review '*Barack Obama and Modern American Caricature*' by Prof. A. Chudinov and S. Makeeva considers a multitude of differing approaches and overlapping categories, as well as discourse analysis models to be found in the book, with general clarity and progression intact. The study of Barack Obama in graphic art is a perfect choice if one is to research the way constructed environment responds to and shapes the world.

We really appreciate the contribution of all the authors and would like to thank them for the quality papers they submitted to Issue 3 of Volume 1. Their papers present the phenomenon of language and communication not only from a wide variety of angles, ranging from language teaching methods to cognitive semantics; the authors also further consolidate connections among these fields and demonstrate the efficiency and effectiveness of an interdisciplinary approach. We are happy to observe the *Journal of Language and Education* becoming a forum for both sharing knowledge and academic debates, and are looking forward to new contributions.

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Slovak Language of Roma Children: Mother Tongue or Second Language

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The paper presents a study done with 40 Roma children from Slovakia between 4-8 years old. They are speakers of an ethnolect, which they learn from their parents but in Slovak society their ethnolect is not considered to be a “good Slovak language”. The children were tested with tests in official Slovak language in order to find out how much the children know the complex grammatical categories from Slovak language: wh-questions, wh complements and passive verbs. One of the hypothesis of the study is that the Roma children follow the path of normally developing children and by the age of 5 they already know the deep structure of complex sentences. The results show that although the Roma children grow up with a variety of Slovak language which is an ethnolect of Slovak, they comprehend and produce deep linguistic structures. Slovak language serves for them as a mother tongue.

Key words: mother tongue, second language, Roma children, ethnolect, Slovak language

Slovak Roma: Socio-Political Status

In almost all European countries, the Roma population is marginalized. Slovakia is no exception: many Roma live under the poverty line in ghetto-like settlements facing different forms of discrimination. According to A. Galisova (2010), the differences between the Roma and majority population are significant. Along with poverty, social exclusion is also very obvious.

In order to overcome these difficulties and to survive in an unfriendly environment, in some parts of the country, the Slovak Roma have developed their own strategy of language shift, namely, to learn Slovak and cease maintenance of their mother tongue, assuming this will help them to overcome the existing discrimination and exclusion in the Slovak society, their children will be better received in school and later more effectively integrated into the majority society. However, unfortunately, this does not happen. My observations come from Central Slovakia – the towns of Žiar nad Hronom and Kremnica and the village of Stara Kremnička, where almost all Roma do speak only

Slovak and do not know any Romani, but still suffer from socioeconomic exclusion and marginalization that keep them isolated from the majority society. The Roma in these two towns and one village do not speak Romani; they understand some Roma words but they cannot carry on an effective conversation in the language. The children are also now growing up speaking only Slovak. Yet significantly, the Slovak spoken by the Roma from the settlement differs both from the official Slovak and from the local variety of Slovak spoken in these localities. In response to my interview question, “Why don’t you speak Romani with your children?”, the Roma adults usually answered that they do not know it, because their parents did not speak Romani with them, but only Slovak.

The Slovak of the Roma is an ethnolect – a variety of a language spoken by group of people with changes and adaptations of the phonology, morphology and lexicon to the mother tongue of the group. Slovak spoken by the Roma is a partial hybrid and displays many characteristics influenced by Romani. A native Slovak speaker can readily recognize that this is not Slovak as spoken by Slovak people (Hübschmannova, 1979).

Materials and Methods

The Psycholinguistic Approach to Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

A. A. Leontiev (1969) was the first scholar in Slavic linguistic literature to write about the necessity of a psycholinguistic approach to SLA. E. I. Negnevickaya and A. M. Shahnarovich (1981) were the first to discover that bilingual children have the creativity to combine words and create new sentences which they had never heard before. This is also applicable to the process of SLA from a very early age.

In Czech and Slovak psycholinguistic literature on first and second language acquisition, I. Bytešnikova (2007), J. Kisselova (2001), I. Vankova (2001), D. Slančova (1999) discuss different aspects of the acquisition of Slovak and Czech by young children. However, there is as yet little grounded knowledge about the problems of the Roma minority in learning Czech or Slovak as a second language from an early age (between 2-3 and 5-6 years old). The only study dealing with the language problems of the Roma children learning the Slovak language in grade 1 is Galisova (2010).

SLA literature over the past comprises a large body of studies done in particular on English as a second language. T. F. McNamara (1996) provides a good overview of this issue. Yet likewise on the international level, there has been scant solid research on Roma children learning any official language as a second language. This research seeks to fill that gap.

SLA among Roma Children

Most of the studies and publications during the last several decades have dealt largely with educational problems encountered by Roma children (Balvin, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2012; Kwadrans, 2008, 2009, 2009, 2010; Kyuchukov, 1994a, 1995, 2006, 2010; Gerganov & Kyuchukov, 1999). However, there are a limited number of publications dealing with the problems of SLA among Roma children. A brief overview of some of the most important publications on SLA involving Roma children follows here below.

Hancock (1975) is the first study found that investigates Roma children in the U.S. who are learning English as a second language. Hancock determined that the Roma children he studied made grammatical errors in both Romani and English, because they do not know either language well. The author suggests that this problem could be overcome if the children were to learn their mother tongue systematically and English in comparison with it.

Z. Reger (1979) analyzed the Hungarian language of Lovara Roma children in Hungary, describing the errors of the children on different linguistic levels. She

describes 3 types of bilingualism among the children: (i) childhood bilingualism, (ii) natural bilingualism and (iii) bilingualism of a diglossic type. Depending on the level of bilingualism of the children, they know Hungarian as a second language to varying degrees of proficiency.

In former Czechoslovakia, Hübschmannova (1979, p. 40) investigated Romani, Czech and Slovak as spoken by Roma, and she notes:

“Roms had knowledge only of the regional variety of *g* [*gadžikaři čhib*] as most of them did not attend school where the standard form of language was taught.

As the R-G [Roma-Gadže] contacts were limited, knowledge of Slovak was poor and mostly non-normative. Roms learned *g* as their second language, often at six, seven or ten years of age, when children started to take part in earning a living and went to work for G [Gadže] peasants, tending cattle, geese, sheep and so on. They learned *g* after they had already acquired the deep structure of their mother tongue, *r* [Romani].”

Hübschmannova further reports that Roma speaking Czech do not observe “the phonetic, grammatical, semantic and stylistic norms of Czech. They use an ethnolect of Czech, which calques upon the deep structure of Romani” (1979, p. 46).

In the Czech Republic, M. Kaleja (2012) and M. Kaleja & E. Zezulková (2014) have researched Roma children from segregated classes, looking at their mother tongue and Czech as a second language. Similarly, much work on Bulgarian as a second language has been conducted after 1990 in Bulgaria. A number of studies (Kyuchukov, 1994b, 1997, 2002, 2008, 2009; Stefanova, 1999, 2002) examine different problems in the language system of Bulgarian as learned by Roma and how Roma children learn all the grammatical categories in the Bulgarian language.

Another similar focus is seen in research on Croatia. L. Cvikić and J. Kuvač (2007) tested Roma children regarding acquisition of Croatian, checking control of different aspects of the language. The test results showed that less than 50 % of the children could answer all grammatical questions correctly. These results indicate that the lack of knowledge of the national language constitutes an obstacle for children in understanding the tasks and acquiring new information starting from Kindergarten.

Deep Structure Theory

In the sentence: *John loves Marry* and in the sentence *Mary is loved by John* the meaning is the same. The only difference between the two sentences is the way the information is presented to the listener.

Chomsky (1957, 1975) first defined “deep structure” and “surface structure” in order to explain the syntactic meaning of two sentences, which look differently but actually have the same meaning. The surface structure is the two forms of the sentence. In the sentence *John loves Marry* the verb loves is **active**. And in the sentence *Marry is loved by John* the verb loved is **passive**.

In the Slovak the following two sentences

Čo hcela matka ot hlapca? (What did the mother ask from the boy) and

Čo povedala matka hlapcu aby priniesol? (What did the mother tell the boy to bring?) have the same meaning. The meaning of the sentences is that the mother asks the boy to bring something, but this can be said in two different ways as shown in the examples 3 and 4 above.

How the Roma children understand deep and surface structure is not yet known. There is no research on language comprehension, and production of any second language (the official language of the country where they live).

That gap in knowledge motivated me to develop a study examining the children’s knowledge of complex linguistic structures.

The Study

The study included 40 children between the ages 4 to 8, tested in the Slovak language. The children are in the following age groups:

Table 1
The subjects in the study

Group	Age	Number
1 gr.	4-5 years old	10 children
2 gr.	5-6 years old	10 children
3 gr.	6-7 years old	10 children
4 gr.	7-8 years old	10 children

All children attend Kindergartens. In Žiar nad Hronom and Stara Kremnička there are social workers helping the kindergartens to bring the children from their homes to the kindergarten.

All the children were tested in the kindergarten environment. All of them speak only Slovak. Some children know several words in Romani but they are unable to speak the language spontaneously.

The children in the study attend the Kindergarten for 1-2 years prior to entering the primary school at age of 6. Slovak is mainly learned at home from the parents.

The Tests

Children were tested by a psycholinguistic test with 3 subtests for comprehension and production:

1 Sub-test: *wh- questions – 8 items – production*

1. *Kto čo je?* “Who eats what”

2. *Kto kde spí?* “Who sleeps where”

2 Sub-test – *long distance wh questions with complement sentence – 8 items – production*

1. Matka povedala dieťaťu aby priniesol veľkú misu, donieslo veľký hrnček.

Čo povedala matka dieťaťu aby prinieslo? “The mother told her son to get a big bowl, but he got a big glass instead

What did the mother say her son to get?”

2. Žena povedala mužovi aby chytil myš a on chytil mačku.

Čo povedala žena mužovi aby chytil? “The woman told/say her husband to catch a mouse, but look he caught a cat instead!

What did the woman say he husband to catch?”

3 Sub-test – *passive verbs -16 items- comprehension*

Kôň bol kopnutý psom „The horse was kicked by the dog”

Otec bol pobozkaný dcérou „The father was kissed by the daughter”

Limitations of the Study

One of the very important limitations of this study is that there is no a control group of ethnic Slovak children. Such a control group could provide us with a better understanding of deficits in the Roma children’s knowledge of Slovak, but time was too limited to include Slovak children in the study. Nonetheless, the information garnered from the study is sufficient to provide some basis for working out better measures to prepare the children for primary classes.

Hypotheses

H1: The Roma children follow the paths of the normally developing children, who by the age of 5 years know the deep structure of complex sentences and can understand different surface forms.

H2: The Roma children who grow up with a variety of Slovak which is an *ethnolect* do not have the ability to understand the deep linguistic structure.

H3: Slovak is a second language for this group of Roma children.

Results

A two-factorial ANOVA design was developed using the two factors “gender” and “age group,” as shown in Table 2.

The results from Test 1 are presented in Figs. 1 and 2. Figure 1 shows the total score of the wh-questions.

As can be seen from Figure 1, with increasing age, the knowledge of the children increases as well and all the differences between the groups are statistically significant: $F(3,32) = 20,190, p = .00000$.

How the two factors age group and gender interact is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2 indicates that girls performed better. Although the boys also completed the test successfully the differences between the two groups are statistically significant $F(3,32) = 12,154, p = .00002$.

Out of 8 items in Subtest 1, six items are with 2 wh-words at the beginning of the sentence and two items have 3 wh-words. Most of the children by age 5 can successfully answer the 2 wh – question words. The frequent error by the children is to answer the second wh-word simply saying *jabloko a mrkva*. In the 3 wh-words item they answer only the two wh-words, while missing the third.

In Subtest 2 – long distance wh-questions with a complement sentence, no statistically significant differences between the age groups were found.

However, there were statistically significant differences between the factors age group and gender. This is presented in Figure 3.

All the children answered the items but the girls were much better than the boys. The differences between the two gender groups are statistically significant $F(3,32) = 7,6891, p = .00050$. There is something that I can not explain: it is not clear why the results of the boys older than 5 decline. It is an open question.

In Subtest 3 – Passives test there is no interaction between the factors age group and gender. All children performed the test successfully. Although the children understood the verbs with actions such as kick and push, they had difficulty understanding verbs such as loved, heard, seen. It seems these verbs are acquired later. The performance of the test by age groups is displayed in Fig. 4.

As evident from Fig. 4, the differences between the groups are statistically significant: $F(3,32) = 39,250, p = .00000$. The older children perform the test better than the younger children. There is no interaction between the two factors age group and gender.

Table 2
Two factorial ANOVA design

Factor "Gender"	Feminine				masculine			
Factor "age group"	4 years old	5 years old	6 years old	7 years old	4 years old	5 years old	6 years old	7 years old
Number of experimental conditions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
	5 children	4 children	7 children	7 children	5 children	6 children	3 children	3 children

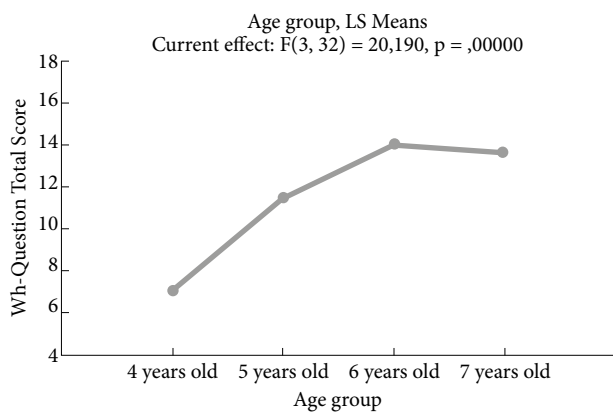


Figure 1. Wh-Questions – total score as a function of the factor age group.

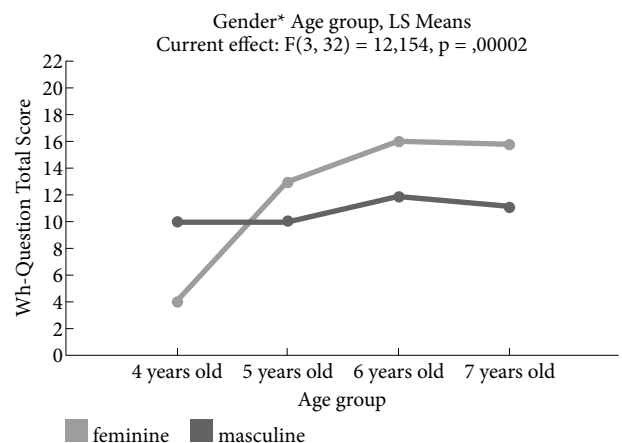


Figure 2. Wh-Questions total score as a function of interaction between the factors age group and gender.

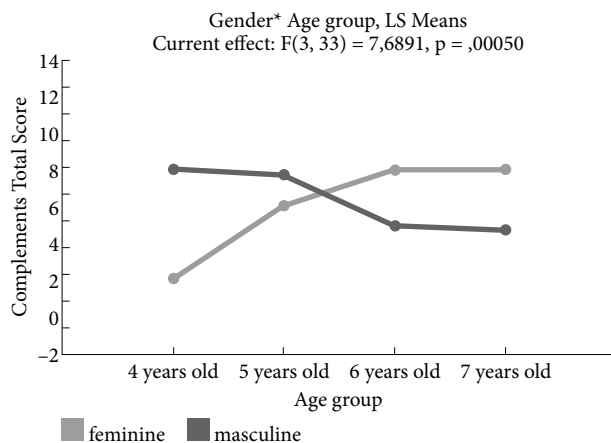


Figure 3. Complement total score as a function of interaction between the factors age group and gender.

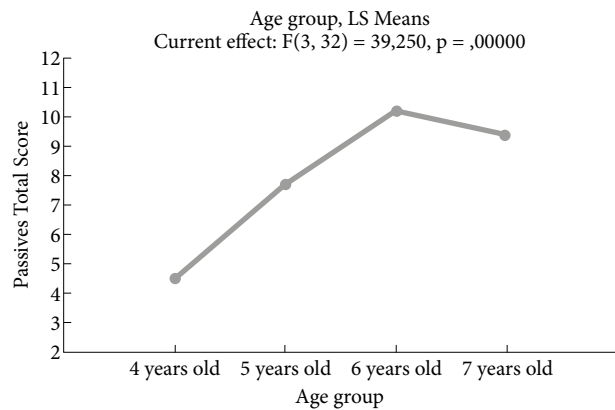


Figure 4. Passives Test – Total score as a function of the factor age group.

Discussion and Conclusion

Despite the limitations of the study, the investigation sheds new light in the field of developmental psycholinguistics. Although the children are learning a distinctive ethnolect of Slovak, it is obvious that they have acquired the deep structure of Slovak. The analysis of the hypotheses of the study is as follows:

By the age of 5, Roma children can understand different surface structure forms of complex sentences because they have acquired the deep structure of the language (H1).

Although the Roma children grow up with a variety of Slovak which is an ethnolect of Slovak, they comprehended and produce deep linguistic structures. It appears that Slovak serve for them as a mother tongue and not as a second language (H2 and H3).

How can this knowledge be used for preparation for literacy in primary classes? The answer is provided by A. Galisova (2010, pp. 43-45): she states that for working with Roma children in the classroom, a new type of teacher is needed who can develop methodologically adequate approaches to teaching the children, while transforming of the traditional models of education; methods must be selected that differentiate and individualize the tasks for the children.

It is evident that there is a pressing need to change the environment and methodology in kindergartens. J. Balvin (2009) has suggested using Montessori pedagogy for Roma children where the children have more freedom and learn the language in a non-standard way. However, that would require a new type of training for the teachers with involving a new methodology.

There is also a need to alter attitudes towards Roma children's "deficits" in the educational system

(in this case the use of an ethnolect). Those supposed "deficits" can be turned to advantage and used to benefit the children. The research, although limited in its parameters, showed that the Roma children have a knowledge of complex sentences in Slovak as their mother tongue. The question still open that must be addressed: does the educational system know how to use the relevant knowledge and develop it more in primary classes?

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Sophisticated Thinking: Higher Order Thinking Skills

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The information-based society determines that the key factor to achieve success is the development of sophisticated thinking. That said, the thinking process cannot be just a mere imitation of cognitive work, since the digital age requires the authentic skills of working with a flow of information that is being constantly updated. This paper deals with the last stage of the study devoted to the development of sophisticated thinking. It focuses on the enhancement of higher order thinking skills. We claim that the cognitive processes should be based on three phases: development of disposition towards both thinking process and processed information; development of lower order thinking skills which serves as an indispensable basis for developing higher order thinking skills; and development of higher order thinking skills. The omission or reordering of any of these phases may result in significant deterioration of the obtained results. The special emphasis is put on the idea that higher order thinking skills are more effectively developed when lower order thinking skills have already been interiorized. Furthermore, the development of disposition is regarded as the cornerstone of the development of sophisticated thinking in general. Also, due to its defining feature of polysemy, a literary text is considered to be the most appropriate basis for enhancing students' thinking skills. For the purpose of verifying the theoretical ideas, a qualitative study has been conducted. The two groups of students, who participated in the first and second stages (three-month cycle each) of our project, continue to be involved in this one. They are second-year bachelor students of the Higher School of Economics who are studying English as a second language. On the basis of the ideas expressed by B. Bloom about the division between lower and higher order thinking skills and by J. Mezirow about transformative learning we designed tasks to enhance higher order thinking skills. These tasks were related to the short stories written by D. Barthelme and printed as a collection, *Sixty Stories*. To teach the students of both groups (control and experimental), the text-based approach with special techniques to measure the students' level of understanding and the ability to apply the given information was used. The results of the experiment indicated that the students of both groups made headway in their application of thinking skills. However, the students of the experimental group demonstrated a more significant shift due to the fact that the development of their disposition towards cognitive processes and processed information had been specifically targeted over the course of the first and second stages of the project. Another important outcome of the study was that the participants' frame of reference was extended which allows us to speculate that the development of sophisticated thinking may result in the change of a person's interpretation of socio-cultural situation. Hence, a further in-depth study of the issue should be conducted.

Keywords: lower order thinking skills, higher order thinking skills, sophisticated thinking, transformative learning, frame of reference, revised Bloom's taxonomy

The last 20 years have brought about more pedagogical change than the last several centuries taken together, made possible, in part, due to the rapid development of technology, especially the Internet. The invention of the Internet gave birth to a new type of society, a new era – the Information Age – which

is characterized, among other things, by vast amounts of information now accessible to a person irrespective of where they are thanks to different kinds of gadgets. The information age sets new requirements for educators, the most urgent of which is the ability to work with available information. Now a person's success in life "lies in being able to communicate, share, and use information to solve complex problems, in being able to adapt and innovate in response to new demands and changing circumstances, in being able to marshal and expand the power of technology to create new knowledge, and in expanding human capacity and productivity" (Binkley et al., 2012). This means that there is a significant shift in the educational paradigm that leads to teachers focusing more on the development of skills, known as the 21st century skills: creativity and innovation, critical thinking and metacognition, collaboration and communication, information and media literacy, motivation and leadership, social and cross-cultural skills, etc. Over the last several decades, the particular focus has been on the development of critical thinking, which, as one of the higher order skills, has been considered a core learning outcome required for university students to succeed in modern information-based society, and to satisfy the demands of the 21st century workforce. Consequently, much research is currently devoted to finding the optimum techniques to foster critical thinking along with other higher order thinking skills (HOTS) among high school and college or university students.

However, young people do not seem to be particularly receptive to new approaches in teaching. From our experience of working in different universities, we can say that youth today are still struggling with applying HOTS. Despite all the efforts of their teachers, students do not readily develop HOTS. Instead, they tend to imitate cognitive work by just copying someone else's ideas and referring to these as their own.

We believe the underlying problem here is that educators strive to develop students' HOTS while completely ignoring their lower order thinking skills (LOTS). LOTS, often referred to as the recall skills, deal with new knowledge and knowledge that a person already has, and include such skills as memorizing, recalling, and understanding. Nowadays, young people appear to be reluctant and unable to memorize information or try to comprehend it, as they do not see the point of doing so. They can easily access this information online from wherever they are and whenever they need it thanks to new technologies that are versatile and portable. Such a tendency seems to cause LOTS to degrade which may lead to students' inability to develop HOTS. We claim that LOTS, being simple cognitive processes, are the basis for the more complex and enhanced ones (Tikhonova,

Kudinova, 2015). Thus, we think HOTS and LOTS are interconnected: "The more proficient you are at 'lower-order' skills, the more proficient you can become at higher order skills" (Lemov, 2010).

In our view, students should not be taught HOTS and LOTS separately, but rather a particular approach that combines both HOTS and LOTS, one we call 'sophisticated thinking'. In *Sophisticated Thinking: Lower Order Thinking Skills*, sophisticated thinking is defined as "a balanced combination of well-developed lower order and higher order thinking skills where LOTS become interiorized and do not hinder the development of HOTS" (Tikhonova, Kudinova, Golubovskaya, 2015, pp. 5461-5470). In many ways it echoes Presseisen's idea about the transition from "simple to more complex operations, from observable to abstract dimensions, and from an emphasis on working with known materials toward an emphasis on creating or inventing new, previously unknown approaches or materials" (Presseisen, 2001, pp. 47-53). The very notion of sophisticated thinking emphasizes the equal importance of LOTS and HOTS and will enable teachers to pay an equal amount of attention to the development of both sets of skills.

The early results of our recent three-stage project have prompted our view that the optimal way to develop sophisticated thinking involves three overlapping phases in which all sets of skills are continually being developed while a certain skill is in focus during each particular phase. The first phase presupposes the development of students' disposition towards the text and, more broadly, towards cognitive work itself. According to D. F. Halpern's approach, critical thinking is both a learned collection of cognitive skills and a disposition towards engaging in the reasoning process (Halpern, 2003); extending this view, we argue that the same applies to sophisticated thinking. As the first and second stages of our study indicated, students with an established disposition towards the thinking process demonstrated a more significant shift in the development of their cognitive processes than students without one. The second phase refers to enhancing LOTS, the reasons for which have been stated above. The third phase involves the development of HOTS – the subject of the current paper. These results indicate that a certain kind of algorithm should be used to facilitate sophisticated thinking in students.

Over the first stage of the study, the text emerged as a main constituent of this process, essential in developing sophisticated thinking skills. However, not just any text can be used as a facilitator. Our findings indicate that a literary text is the best type as it uses literary language characterized by polysemy, that is, by multiple meanings. The ability of a literary text to produce multiple meanings makes it possible to have different levels of understanding and interpretations

of one text, and so to “extend the text beyond its apparent surface” (Luberda, 1998). Tikhonova et al. signal that to go beyond the surface and unfold deeper levels of a text, one has to acquire critical thinking skills (as well as sophisticated thinking skills), and that such textual work simultaneously serves as a springboard for developing those skills (2015, pp. 5461-5470). For the purposes of this study, the texts chosen were: *Pelican Brief* by John Grisham, *Runaway*, a collection of short stories by Alice Munro, and short stories from the collection *Sixty Stories* by Donald Barthelme.

Materials and Methods

Taxonomy of Cognitive Domain

The theoretical framework of the project relies on the taxonomy suggested by Benjamin S. Bloom in the 1950s and revised later on by Lorin W. Anderson and David R. Krathwohl. The latter singled out the following categories in Bloom’s taxonomy:

1. ‘Remember’, which means retrieving relevant knowledge from long-term memory: (1) Recognizing (2) Recalling
2. ‘Understand’, which refers to determining the meaning of instructional messages, including oral, written, and graphic communication: (1) Interpreting (2) Exemplifying (3) Classifying (4) Summarizing (5) Inferring (6) Comparing (7) Explaining
3. ‘Apply’, which involves carrying out or using a procedure in a given situation: (1) Executing (2) Implementing
4. ‘Analyze’, which represents the idea of breaking material into its constituent parts and detecting how the parts relate to one another and to the overall structure or purpose: (1) Differentiating (2) Organizing (3) Attributing
5. ‘Evaluate’, which presupposes making judgments based on criteria and standards: (1) Checking (2) Critiquing
6. ‘Create’, which stands for putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole or making an original product: (1) Generating (2) Planning (3) Producing (Krathwohl, 2002, pp. 212-218).

The first three categories (Remember, Understand and Apply) are traditionally considered LOTS and the last three (Analyze, Evaluate, Create) are HOTS; the latter is the explicit focus of this paper.

We find Anderson and Krathwohl’s version of the system to be most appropriate, as it offers a less rigid hierarchy than the original one, allowing us to regard the ‘Analyze’, ‘Evaluate’ and ‘Create’ categories as having the same level of difficulty and as being

overlapping and interacting functions. This, in turn, means that exercises designed to develop those skills should aim at targeting them, not individually, but as a complex entity that needs to be enhanced as a whole.

Transformative Learning

The theory of transformative learning was proposed by Jack Mezirow in the 1970s and describes how learners construe, validate, and reformulate the meaning of their experience (Cranton, 1994). One of its central tenets is the concept of perspective transformation that explains how adults revise their meaning structures, which are viewed as frames of reference that are based on “the totality of individuals’ cultural and contextual experiences and that influence how they behave and interpret events” (Taylor, 1998). According to E. Taylor, these frames of reference function as filters that interpret and give meaning to a new experience which a person comes upon. They either reinforce the existing perspective or, if an experience is radically different, incongruent and cannot be assimilated into the existing view, reject it or they themselves are transformed to accommodate the experience (Taylor, 1998).

Mezirow distinguishes ten phases of perspective transformation:

- Phase 1. A disorienting dilemma
- Phase 2. A self-examination with feelings of guilt or shame
- Phase 3. A critical assessment of epistemic, sociocultural, or psychic assumptions
- Phase 4. Recognition that one’s discontent and the process of transformation are shared and that others have negotiated a similar change
- Phase 5. Exploration of options for new roles, relationships, and actions
- Phase 6. Planning of a course of action
- Phase 7. Acquisition of knowledge and skills for implementing one’s plans
- Phase 8. Provisional trying of new roles
- Phase 9. Building of competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships
- Phase 10. A reintegration into one’s life on the basis of conditions dictated by one’s perspective (Kitchenham, 2008, pp. 104-123).

In *On Critical Reflection*, Mezirow argued that “learning to think for oneself involves becoming critically reflective of assumptions and participating in discourse to validate beliefs, intentions, values and feelings” (Mezirow, 1998, pp. 185-198). The significance of this approach cannot be underestimated, especially today in the digital age. In 1998, the same year, Susan

Imel stated that “transformative learning may not always be a goal of adult education, but its importance should not be overlooked and all adult educators should strive to understand it, even if they do not choose to foster it” (Imel, 1998).

Although Mezirow’s model is aimed at the process of learning as it is, we believe it can help gain significant results in achieving more specific objectives. Our own research framework seeks to adapt the aforementioned model to find the optimal way of developing HOTS using literary texts as a basis:

- Phase 1. A dilemma as a starting point of a thinking process. A dilemma appears when a student is asked a question that does not have an immediate and ready-made answer in the text. Such a question often deals with issues connected with character’s actions, their underlying motives, symbolism, etc.
- Phase 2. A critical assessment of pre-existing epistemic and sociocultural assumptions about the problem raised.
- Phase 3. Recognition that one’s discontent and the process of transformation are shared, and that others have negotiated a similar change
- Phase 4. Exploration of options for new relationships, solutions, and explanations
- Phase 5. Acquisition of new thinking techniques and skills
- Phase 6. Provisional trying of new techniques and skills
- Phase 7. Building of competence and self-confidence in new techniques and skills
- Phase 8. An integration of new thinking techniques and skills into one’s way of thinking on the basis of different texts students are exposed to over the course of their study

This revised model allows enhancing HOTS as a complex entity since Analyze, Evaluate and Create skills are being developed simultaneously. However, it is vital to point out that none of these skills can be cultivated without highly-developed LOTS: Remember, Understand, and Apply skills.

Results

Overview of the First and Second Stages

The current paper is devoted to the description of the third stage of the project begun on 1 September 2014, in Moscow, Russia. Each stage lasted about three months. The results of the first and second stages are described in *Sophisticated Thinking: Text, Task and*

Situation (Tikhonova, Kudinova, Golubovskaya, 2015, pp. 5461-5470) and *Sophisticated Thinking: Lower Order Thinking Skills* (Tikhonova, Kudinova, 2015) respectively.

The theoretical basis of the first stage of the project drew on D. F. Halpern’s approach to critical thinking according to which critical thinking is not a by-product of standard instruction in a content area, and gaining positive effects is possible only through systematic educational effort (Halpern, 2003). Furthermore, Halpern claims that critical thinking is both a learned collection of cognitive skills and a disposition towards engaging in the reasoning process. As previously mentioned, the study was connected with literary texts, which provide opportunities for reflection and broad analysis.

The underlying idea of the first research phase was that critical thinking skills can be developed and transferred via embedded instruction in language education. 80 students (38 female and 42 male, aged 18) willingly and enthusiastically participated in all the stages of the project. The participants (second-year bachelor students studying at the National Research University Higher School of Economics at the C1 level of English in the CEFR for languages) were randomly divided into two groups. The first group received critical thinking instructions embedded in a system of tasks related to their reading of the thriller by J. Grisham, “The Pelican Brief”. The second group, the control group, did not receive similar instructions; instead, they were taught within the frameworks of the communicative approach without reading “The Pelican Brief” (Tikhonova, Kudinova, Golubovskaya, 2015, pp. 5461-5470).

To establish the level of critical thinking development of the participants, a pre-test based on Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (W-GCTA) (W-GCTA, 2012) was conducted at the outset of the study. Next, both groups took part in a sub-session course consisting of 24 lessons, after which the post-test (W-GCTA) was used to assess the influence of the techniques used on the level of critical thinking skills of participants. The procedure was repeated at each stage, with the post-test of the previous stage being used as the pre-test for the next stage.

A shift towards the improvement of critical thinking skills emerged during this stage of the experiment. The students from group one demonstrated a change in their disposition towards critical thinking and processing information, although this was not dramatic due to the short time period of the study (three months). Noteworthy, however, is that participants changed their disposition not only to the process of reasoning, but also to the process of processing information. This result led us to the conclusion that a persuasive-axiological component of critical thinking

includes attitude to both critical thinking itself and the processed information as well.

During the course of the study, we observed that participants encountered problems while attempting to work with the cognitive component of critical thinking due to their lack of certain skills. For example, when trying to analyze the text (the instance of higher order thinking) they struggled to identify the necessary textual parts, to infer meaning from the context, and other instances of lower order thinking skills. Moreover, students' inability to memorize information which they came across repeatedly suggested an underlying belief that remembering was a simple operation that can be done quickly if the need be. In addition, the students tended to regard reproduction of somebody else's point of view as a thinking process on account that this idea seemed reasonable to them. They did not even try to think it over by themselves (Tikhonova, Kudinova, 2015). Thus, this situation made us suppose that developing LOTS as an indispensable basis of sophisticated thinking will (a) enable the participants to regard the thinking process as a process in itself but not as the reproduction of someone else's ideas; (b) determine the development of critical thinking as well. These notions helped shape the theoretical basis of the second stage of the study.

The second stage dealt with Bloom's taxonomy in its amended form by Lorin W. Anderson and David R. Krathwohl. The choice was made in favor of the latter, since this model provides a more flexible system of cognitive categories which, in their turn, can be divided respectively into LOTS and HOTS. However, we claimed the relevance of developing LOTS and HOTS as equally important and overlapping since they constitute a particular type of thinking, sophisticated thinking, as defined above. Another change was introduced into the methodology of the project. The first-stage control group, whose disposition to critical thinking had not changed according to the results of the first stage became involved in the same activities as the experimental group; this methodological change was carried out in order to see the influence of disposition on the way the participants regarded the material, on their willingness to work with it, and on the development of LOTS.

For the purpose of the second stage of our project all participants worked with the collection of short stories *Runaway* by Alice Munro. These stories were chosen as a textual basis because they are mainly devoted to interpersonal relationships and the inner struggles of women, subjects which traditionally appeal more to female readers rather than to men. Since participants in the experimental group were predominantly male, the choice of textual input was also an opportunity to confirm or refute our hypothesis about the role disposition plays in thinking skills development.

At the end of the second stage of the study, the experimental group exhibited more interest in working with a literary text, while the students of the control group, though divided into different subgroups depending on the development of their critical thinking skills after the learning session, displayed less interest in the text and were more unwilling to do the tasks aimed at the 'Remember' category. Moreover, due to a more developed disposition to the cognitive process, the male students of the experimental group took the same interest in the stories as their female counterparts, while the male students in the control group stressed that the stories were more suitable for girls. The experimental group participants were inclined to extract information from the text whereas the control group tended to work with the factual information, which did not involve much of the thinking process.

At this three-month stage, we managed to gain a significant shift in the participants' disposition towards the process of thinking, showing them that the cognitive process involved in simple operations seemingly unrelated to textual analysis was, in fact, an indispensable part of thinking. The results of the experiment seem to confirm that HOTS without well-developed LOTS are more likely to be a mere imitation of a thinking process and reproduction of someone else's viewpoint; this in turn suggests that it is vital to encourage students to do more detailed work with the information provided (Tikhonova, Kudinova, 2015).

Design of the Third Stage Hypothesis

The first hypothesis is that well-developed disposition towards the cognitive work and well-enhanced LOTS will enable HOTS to be developed in a fast and optimal way. The balance between LOTS and HOTS, which constitutes sophisticated thinking, will not allow participants to avoid cognitive work and to resort to copying someone else's thoughts since the participants may find it much easier to do analysis by themselves and form their own reasoned opinions. The second hypothesis is that the students from the control group will show a significant shift in the development of HOTS, but the shift will be less than that of the experimental group as the disposition towards the process of thinking was previously developed among the students of the experimental group.

Participants and Procedure

The third stage of the study was also conducted at the National Research University Higher School of Economics with the same number of participants (80

students: 38 female, 42 male) who are second year students at C1 English level, aged 18-19.

Similar to the first and second stages, the purpose and the nature of the study were explained to those participating. The division of the groups (control and experimental) remained the same as well. The students were given instructions of HOTS development embedded in a system of tasks related to the collection of short stories *Sixty Stories* by Donald Barthelme. In this paper, the short story *The School* serves as an example of the kinds of exercises the students were set.

The third stage of the study includes three sessions: (1) learning session (subdivided into 24 subsessions due to the number of language classes twice a week during the three month-period); (2) post-test (W-GCTA); (3) post-study questionnaire. The results of W-GCTA of the second stage serve as the pre-test for the third stage of the experimen.

Learning Session

Both groups took part in a twenty-four-subsession course. The sessions were similar in pedagogical components and duration. For each session the students were to read a part of a story or, if a story was short enough (e.g., *The School*), the whole story, and do a set of pre- and while-reading activities. After-reading tasks were completed in class. All sets of tasks were designed according to the categories of Anderson and Krathwohl's taxonomy. Due to the format of this paper and the space available, we provide a selection of examples of tasks based on the short story *The School*. It is relevant to once again signal that we strongly believe in the relativity of differentiating between the Analyze, Evaluate and Create categories as well as LOTS. Thus, most tasks have overlapping aims (ranging from the Remember to Create category) with a dominant one.

1. The tasks with the predominant aim to develop thinking skills that relate to the Analyze category which refers to breaking material into its constituent parts and detecting how the parts relate to one another and to the overall structure or purpose. Using graphic or visual organisers may serve as a useful tool to develop these skills: enabling students to fully focus on making connections, finding meaningful patterns, organizing the information found in the text or personally reacting to its content (Richardson, 2013). In our study we used story maps. In class the students were asked to fill out a chart. See the type of story map used below.

However, it is vital to point out that we did not expect a unified representation of information. The completed flowchart story maps varied in such categories as Time, Characters, Problem/Conflict,

order and number of Events, Resolution/End according to students' responses. See Appendix 1 for examples of the participants' work [Appendix A, Appendix B].

As a follow-up to the flowchart story map activity, participants were also asked to comment on the order of the events. Preparing why-questions for their partners to answer might actively engage students in

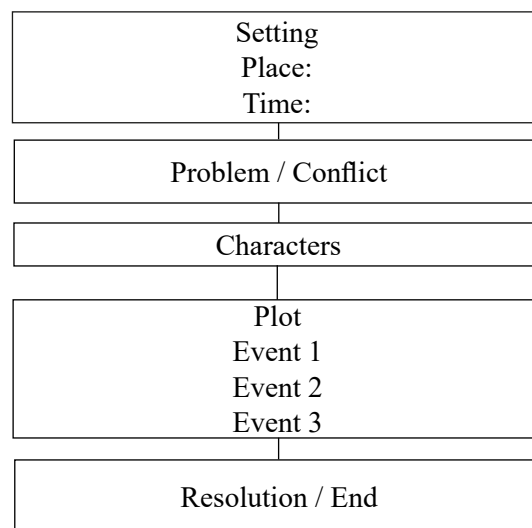


Figure 1. Flowchart story map.

thinking over the text and its content. This task might also encourage students to see the problematic issues raised in the stories, as well as how these might serve as a springboard for further in-depth class discussion and a transition towards subsequent categories, such as Evaluation or even Creation. We define Why-questions as questions that require students to look into the motifs, symbolism, or possible development of a plotline. A few examples of the participants' questions include:

- Why were the events organized in this particular order?
- What was the purpose of giving schoolchildren a chance to sound as philosophy scholars?
- What does the appearance of a new gerbil at the end of the story stand for?
- What will happen to the new gerbil?
- What did the school teach the children?
- What does the title of the story mean?

2. The tasks with the predominant aim to develop thinking skills that relate to the Evaluate category, which involves making judgments based on criteria and standards. First, this involved the students answering Why-questions prepared by a teacher. Some examples include:

- Can you determine the role of the teacher in the story?
- What does the teacher in the short story symbolize?

- Why did Helen kiss the teacher?
- Why does the story use first-person narration?

Next, this entailed students answering Why-questions prepared by fellow students similar to those listed above. Finally, - this involved commenting upon a quotation from the text through an in-depth analysis and evaluation of what was said in terms of the story and going beyond its limits. Examples include the following:

- Comment upon the following quotation. Explain what is meant and whether you agree with it or not and why. "And they said, is death that which gives meaning to life? And I said no, life is that which gives meaning to life" (Barthelme, 2003, pp. 304-308).

3. The tasks with the predominant aim to develop thinking skills that relate to the Create category, which presupposes putting elements together to form a novel, coherent whole or making an original product. One such task, writing an essay, is believed to consolidate students' ideas and thoughts, to enable them to think more thoroughly about a problem, in general going beyond the limits of the story, and engage in-class discussions by appealing to students' real-life experience and exploring it from a different perspective. Some suggested essay topics include:

- How much value does school have in the modern society?
- What gives meaning to life? To your life?
- Which role do you think a teacher is supposed to play: a guide on the side or a sage on the stage?

Another similar task to promote thinking process involves writing the continuation of the story or rewriting a story according to students' own notions of what it should be in order to convey the ideas and conclusions they have arrived at while working with the text.

Interpretation of the Pre- and Post-Test W-GCTA Scores

The Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (40-item paper and pencil) psychometric test of critical thinking and reasoning was selected as a measurement tool of critical thinking skills, their depth and quality. The five subtests of the test (inference; recognition of assumptions; deduction; interpretation; evaluation of arguments) require different, though interdependent, applications of analytical reasoning in a verbal context with scores reported on three subscales (W-GCTA, 2012). The final score of each participant is the sum of all correct answers to the items of the paper (from 1 to 40 on the five subtests). The scores are graded through the following categories:

A – Well above average performance, 91% and above

B – Above average performance, 71– 90%

C – Average, 31– 70%

D – Below average performance, 11 – 30%

E – Well below average performance, 10% and below

Table 1 below illustrates the overall performance at the second stage for students in the experimental group. 85 % of them demonstrated an average critical thinking ability, 5 % a below average thinking ability, and only 10 % an above average thinking ability.

By comparison, Table 2 below illustrates that 82 % of participants in the control group demonstrated average critical thinking abilities, 15 % a below average performance, and 2.5 % an above average ability.

Following the learning session of the third stage, the repeated W-GCTA test was used to measure the achievements of the participants, with each participant receiving a new test with different scenarios. Recommendations on how to work with the test were given. Tables 3 and 4 below illustrate these results for both groups.

In the experimental group, two students from subgroup D moved to subgroup C; moreover, 6 students from subgroup C moved to subgroup B. Besides, subgroup B got six more members and subgroup A was formed. The latter includes only one participant but the very fact that a new category needed to be created is of great importance and registers a significant shift within such a short period.

In the control group changes to the groupings were also noted. The number of students in subgroup D decreased from six to two members alongside an increase in the number of students in subgroup B (from one to six). Subgroup C is characterised by the internal gradational subdivision of its members in spite of the fact that only one member joined the group.

Reviewing the data, we register the following results: (1) for the experimental group, 72.5% subgroup C; 25% subgroup B; 2.5% in subgroup A; (2) for the control group 5% subgroup D; 80% subgroup C; 15% in subgroup B.

It's necessary to mention that the majority of students in the experimental group formed two upper (51-60 and 61-70) sublayers in subgroup B while the majority of students in the control group formed two lower (31-40 and 41-50) sublayers in subgroup B.

Post-Study Questionnaire

After the end of the learning session, all participants were asked to fill in a questionnaire, which is, in essence, a self-evaluation of the results they achieved and an assessment of the tasks they carried out. The main objective of the post-study questionnaire is to receive the participants' feedback that can serve as a

Table 1
Overall performance on the W-GCTA (experimental group)

0-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
E	D		C				B		A
	1	1	9	8	8	9	3	1	

Table 2
Overall performance on the W-GCTA (control group)

0-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
E	D		C				B		A
	3	3	10	6	8	9	1		

Table 3
Overall performance on the W-GCTA (experimental group)

0-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
E	D		C				B		A
			1	6	8	14	7	3	1

Table 4
Overall performance on the W-GCTA (experimental group)

0-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80	81-90	91-100
E	D		C				B		A
	1	1	3	11	9	9	5	1	

basis for further research and for methodological, as well as for the implementation of this approach into teaching practice.

The analysis of the students' responses generated the following results. The question about the influence of the course on a student's development of HOTS received 5 negative answers and 7 'no opinion' answers. Among the positive responses there were 23 'strongly agree' and 45 'agree'. Comments were provided by only 32 respondents. The general trend emerging from the comments was that in the beginning, students found it difficult to do all the cognitive operations, but in the course of study it became easier and more interesting. We can conclude that in mastering LOTS, students increased their HOTS techniques.

The second question targeted students' assessment of their disposition towards working with a literary text. 70 students gave positive answers (19 'strongly agree' and 51 'agree'), 7 participants answered in the negative, and 3 expressed doubt by marking 'no opinion' column. 46 students commented upon the influence of the tasks on their attitude about literary texts. They emphasized that going beyond the surface of a text and extracting information hidden between

the lines appealed to them over the course. Again, in our view, this tendency is linked with pre-developed LOTS which enable all the cognitive resources to be directed towards HOTS implementation; this interpretation is directly proven by the responses given to the third question. The correlation between the answers was similar to those given to the second question: 18 'strongly agree', 52 'agree', 8 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree', and 2 'no opinion'.

We designed the fourth and fifth questions to test whether the students deemed the tasks aimed at the development of HOTS to be effective enough. Responding to the fourth question, 5 students had no opinion on the matter, 6 expressed a negative response, and 69 participants answered in the affirmative (21 'strongly agree' and 48 'agree'). The fifth question yielded partially unexpected results: the number of those who disagreed or were in doubt sharply decreased from 6 to 1 'strongly disagree', with 1 'disagree', and from 5 to 1 'no opinion'. Thus, the number of positive responses increased from 21 to 24 'strongly agree' and from 48 to 53 'agree' answers. In the comments provided by 63 respondents, participants noted that things that were vague or

Table 2
Post-Study Questionnaire

	strongly disagree	disagree	agree	strongly agree	no opinion / not applicable
1. In taking this course, I substantially increased my thinking skills such as: analysing, evaluating, and creating					
Comments:					
2. The tasks fostered my interest in the literary texts					
Comments:					
3. Having intensive practice in such skills as remembering and applying helped me to better “read between the lines”, understand difficult concepts and complex ideas later					
Comments:					
4. The class discussions enhanced my understanding of the characters, their motifs, symbols writers planted in the text					
Comments:					
5. The tasks were designed in such a way that encouraged questions and the consideration of different viewpoints.					
Comments:					
6. The course affected my attitude towards some controversial issues					
Comments:					
7. I find this course particularly thought-provoking and useful					
Comments:					
8. Please use the space on the right for any additional comments you wish to make concerning the course					

obscure in the beginning became clearer towards the end in an inexplicable way to them. It was unexpected for the students that the same action of a character or a symbol could give birth to different reasoned opinions.

The sixth statement was designed to establish the way a student's frame of reference may change through the discussion of different viewpoints. In response to this question, we received 4 negative answers, one of which was 'no opinion', and 76 positive answers (20 'strongly agree' and 56 'agree'). 41 students left their comments blank. Some found it surprising that they could study the same issue from different perspectives including that of a character or of their partner.

The seventh question focused on students' overall impressions of the course and its level of usefulness. Surprisingly, despite the presence of both positive and negative answers to other questions, 95% of the participants found the tasks particularly thought-provoking and useful. In their comments, the majority of students stated that in spite of their unwillingness in some cases to do the tasks (tiredness, bad mood, extra-curricular activities), in the course of their work they realized that these were so engaging that they forgot about extraneous factors and wanted to continue working.

To collect additional feedback from students, the eighth question was introduced. The key ideas voiced by the students were: (1) reading stories about hot social issues, such as ethnic and religious factors in policultural societies, gender relationships in post-industrial world, etc.; (2) reading not only books of British and American writers, but also of Indian, Australian and other English-speaking writers; (3) using films instead of books as a basis for the lessons; (4) designing a separate course devoted to studying literature; (5) having debates concerning the key issues after finishing reading a book.

Discussion and Conclusion

The first hypothesis formulated at the beginning of the third stage was confirmed. The results obtained during the study and post-study interview indicate that the level of critical thinking and sophisticated thinking in general increased among the students in both groups. However, the shift in the control group was not as significant as in the experimental one; this, in turn, confirms our second hypothesis.

The last stage of the project also showed that the students did not try to copy someone else's ideas and thoughts (as we earlier pointed out they did during the first and second stages), but relied more on their own

views and opinions formed while working with a text, as well as from their background experience.

The results can also serve as evidence that the students from the experimental group were willing to work with different information irrespective of its content, as it is the very processes of extracting meaning or hidden information from different sources that appeals to them most. While the students of the control group are more inclined to focus on the information per se, the content of which is interesting for them. Thus, we can speculate that the students take less interest in the very process of thinking preferring to deal with new information. In other words, the opposition "interesting vs. not interesting" is the key determinant of their attitude towards information, of whether they want to work with it or not. Consequently, the development of sophisticated thinking should start with the development of disposition towards both the thinking process and processed information.

The project and its results unexpectedly called our attention to the link between well-developed HOTS and one's frame of reference. We can suppose that the development of HOTS enables one's frame of reference to expand and become more flexible. This conclusion was drawn from the students' response to question six in the post-study questionnaire: 76 out of 80 students agreed that the course affected their attitude towards some controversial issues. This finding requires further analysis as it can have a dramatic influence on the selection of methods for sophisticated thinking development. The possible change of frame of reference can also have an impact on the way a person perceives the socio-cultural norms and enables or hinders (it is yet to be determined) the way a person adapts to their community. This may affect teachers and their approach to the texts they are planning to work with in class.

Although the results of our experiment doubtless need further study to be verified, at present they may play a crucial role in theorizing the development of sophisticated thinking. The conclusions based on the results derived from this project propose a theoretical and practical framework of thinking skills development. The triad that was tested through the course of the experiment (disposition -> LOTS -> HOTS) seems, so far, to be the optimum way of enhancing sophisticated thinking.

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Appendix A

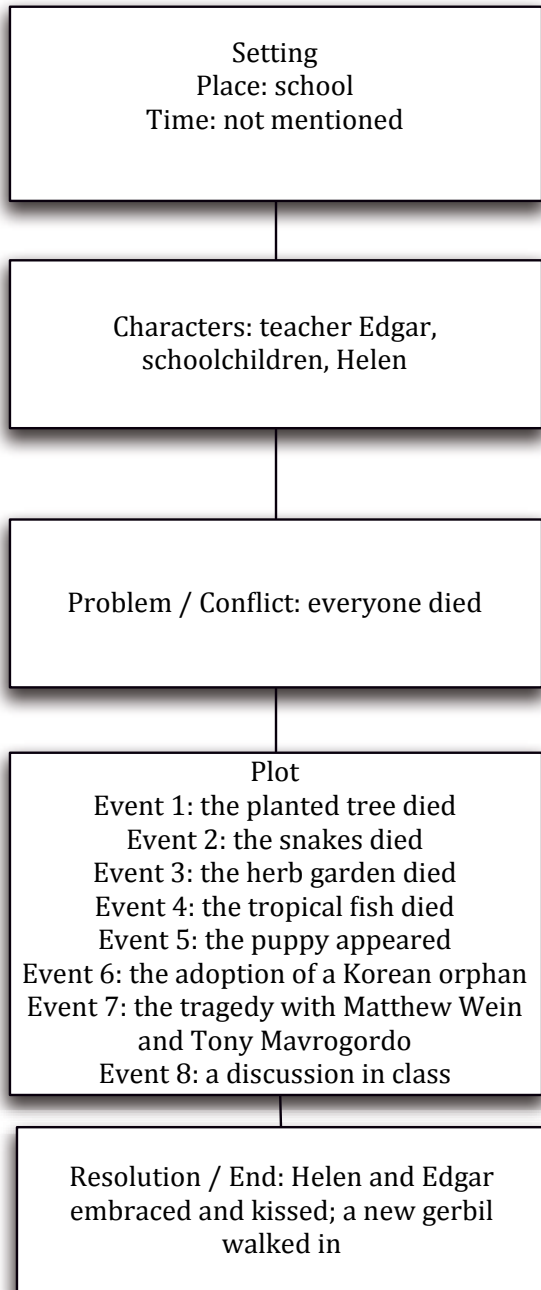


Figure 2. Student A's Flowchart.

Appendix B

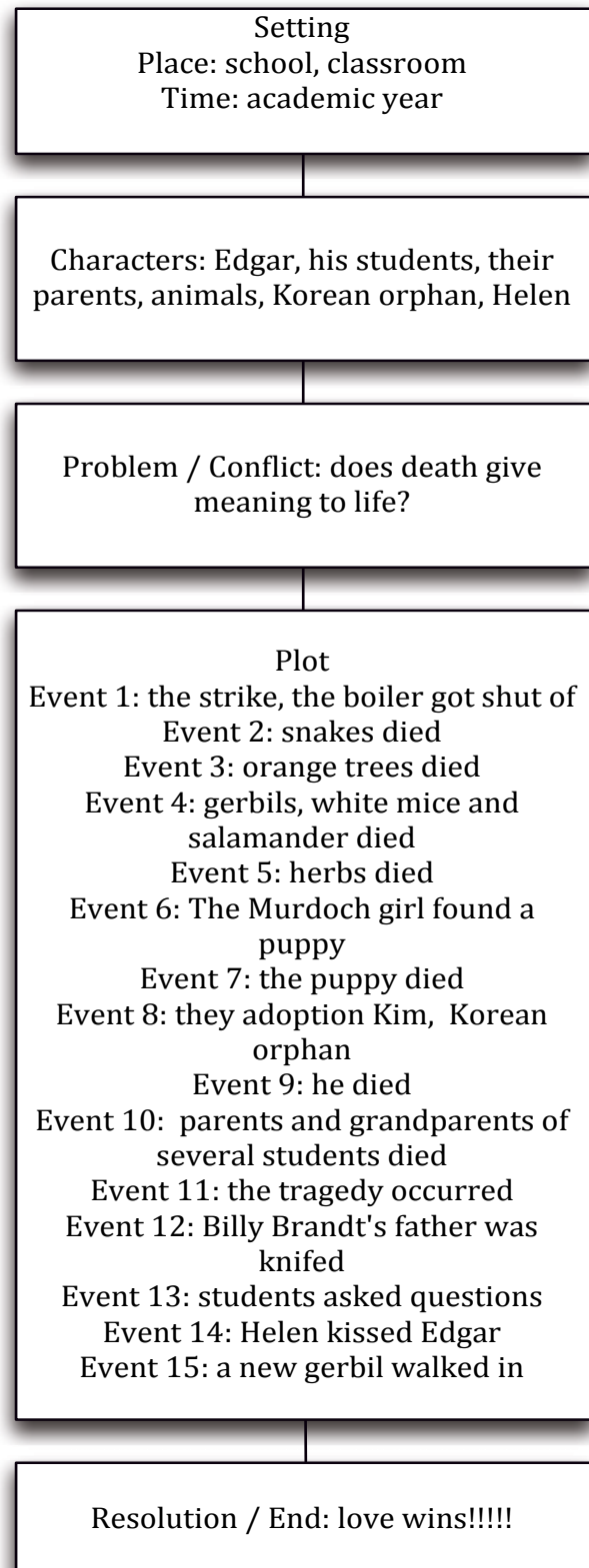


Figure 3. Student B's Flowchart.

Research on the Business English Training Model within MBA Program

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The paper presents a brief summary of the research on the Business English training model within MBA program students. This study is devoted to the problem of developing a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA program participants. A particular feature of additional MBA qualification is its international status which presupposes that its graduates (mid-level and top managers) should realize their professional tasks in a foreign language. The analysis of literary works follows in order to find out if activity and competency-based approaches are chosen as instructional bases for developing the model of a business foreign language training that can ensure building a professional foreign language communication competency of the MBA program participants. The result of the study is the model of a business foreign language training that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communication competency within the process of obtaining additional professional MBA qualification and that includes the following structural components: learning objective, content, a set of forms of organizing the learning process and technological description of each of the five modules. The next part of the paper suggests the result of the research based on testing of the business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communication competency when achieving additional professional MAS qualification including a description of the process and the results of assessing the developed dyadic model. The testing consisted of summative and formative assessment and was carried out in the the Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration in several stages (from 1999 to 2007 and then again from 2010 to 2014). When analyzing the results of assessing the dyadic model both the data obtained in control groups (teaching based on the traditional system) and in experimental groups (teaching based on the developed model) were compared. On the basis of the studies the conclusion was made that business English language training, aimed at the development of professional foreign communicative competence of MBA students, organized in accordance with our didactic model, can achieve the goal of real-verbal communication in English in professional environment (business English should become a tool for solving professional problems), and fully meet the needs of students.

Keywords: Business English training model, professional foreign language communicative competency, dyadic model, learning process, forming experiment, summative assessment

In the 90-ies of the XX century the demand of Russians for foreign language skills escalated. This fact is related with social and economic changes, with the modification of the role of our country in the international arena, and the actualization of the society need for specialists with the knowledge of a business foreign language in accordance with internationally accepted standards (e.g., Business English Certificate – BEC). Integration of Russia into the global economy and new information technologies require modern managers not only to be able to translate professional literature, but to have a real skill of verbal communication in a foreign language in order to render educational programs of other countries accessible, and provide a possibility to have training in foreign companies and participate in co-projects.

These studies consider the problem of an efficient spoken foreign language training for adults, professional foreign language training for students, business foreign language for senior high school students and course participants, specific aspects of distance education, as well as issues of professional language education and preparation of educational programs within the system of professional education for specific specialists.

Development of a professional foreign language communicative competency during the process of obtaining an additional MBA qualification (Master of Business Administration) has never served as an object of a special study.

This study is devoted to the problem of developing a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA program participants. A particular feature of additional MBA qualification is its international status which presupposes that its graduates (mid-level and top managers) should realize their professional tasks in a foreign language. Along with this, the case study revealed that the foreign language training process within MBA program is not focused on a competency approach and modern ways of training for adults; the level of foreign language skill of the most part of the program graduates does not conform to current requirements, i.e. a real oral communication in a foreign language when solving professional problems (Evenko, 2005). Basically, a general educational orientation of foreign language teaching is manifest in professional training, when a foreign language mastering serves as a goal in itself, and is not aligned with a professional training and professional orientation of education which consider a business foreign language to be a means for solving professional tasks. This fact is conditioned by the absence of a science-based model of a business foreign language training which is focused on a competency-based approach and allows students to develop a foreign language communicative competency in a real oral activity when they solve professional tasks. The performed analysis showed that the development

of a professional foreign language communicative competency in the additional professional education system is a **current** problem.

A theoretical analysis of studies and practice of developing a professional foreign language communicative competency in the additional professional education system helped to reveal the following contradictions:

- A contradiction between the need of managers who know a foreign language (English, mainly) for practicing, and inadequacy of the existing system of a business foreign language training in institutions for an additional professional education and modern requirements;
- A contradiction between managers' need for developing a foreign language communicative competency as a means for solving professional tasks and a traditional approach to a business foreign language training which is not focused on a competency-based approach and modern ways of getting education for adults.

The problem is to sort out the contradictions with the help of a theoretical and methodological substantiation, elaboration and experimental check of a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA participants focused on a competency-based approach, taking into account particular features of adults' learning activity and conforming to the requirements of the MBA additional qualification. The study focused on the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of students within the additional professional education system. So, under the subject of the research we understand here the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of participants during the process of obtaining the MBA additional qualification.

Throughout the research we pursued the goal of elaborating, theoretically substantiating, and experimentally checking a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of participants during the process of obtaining the MBA additional qualification.

The research question we faced with the current study stems from the following hypothesis. The level of a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA participants will correspond to students' needs and requirements of the MBA additional qualification, if the following holds true:

- objectives of a foreign language teaching agree with those of MBA training, and a foreign language is a means for solving professional tasks;
- educational process is based on an activity and competency-based approach supported by a content-related integration of educational,

social, and professional aspects of students' activity in the form of the full-time and distant education combined.

In accordance with the subject, objective, and hypothesis hereof the following tasks are defined:

1. To perform a theoretical analysis of the status of the problem of the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency within the additional professional education system.
2. To define the degree of elaboration of the problem of the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency during the process of obtaining the MBA additional qualification.
3. To formulate theoretical and methodological grounds in order to define a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency during the process of obtaining the MBA additional qualification.
4. To elaborate a dyadic model that guarantees a real oral communication of MBA participants in a foreign language when they solve professional tasks.
5. To define a complex of organizational and pedagogical conditions for the realization of the dyadic model of the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency during the process of studying under the MBA program, and to perform an experimental study related with the testing of the elaborated dyadic model.

Materials and Methods

The elaboration of a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of the MBA program participants and its experimental study were based on the carried out study of the problem of the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency within the additional professional education system on the basis of a characteristic of main trends and approaches to the additional professional education, defined requirements to modern additional professional education as a whole, and its particular features that influence on the preparation of educational programs, and the MBA program in particular.

The study helped to define a place of business education within the additional professional education system, as well as main trends of its development and a brief characteristic of the MBA program.

The study revealed the following trends of the development of the additional professional education: a humanistic nature of education, a long-life education, focus on a personality development, satisfaction of educational needs in the sphere of solving professional tasks, focus on a competency-based approach, an open nature of education environment, focus on the use of developed information technologies. The description of education results in the language of competencies is one of the most important tasks of modern additional professional education (Rogers, 1983).

The analysis of different ways of organizing the additional professional education led to the conclusion that one of the most promising forms is an open additional professional education, because it to the utmost conforms to the revealed trends of the development of the additional professional education and is focused on a competency-based approach.

The following ideas and principles of an educational process organization in an open additional professional education serve as grounds for the definition of a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of the MBA program participants: a competency-based approach, an idea of integration of three environments (i.e. learning, professional, and social), the synthesis of three approaches to education (i.e. andragogical, learner-centered, and contextual), an idea of the combination of activity technologies (i.e. informational, pedagogic, and organizational and communicative), because they meet modern requirements to a professional education, take into account peculiar features of adults' learning activity, and contribute to the satisfaction of their educational needs (Schennikov, 2002; Kay Thorne, 2004, pp. 50-70; Kolb and Fry, 1975, pp. 33-57; Rogers, 1986).

The analysis of foreign language training approaches and study results allowed us to reveal a number of effective ideas and inventions that formed the basis of the elaboration of a business foreign language training model:

1. A communicative approach implies the realization of students' needs, i.e. their performance of a real communicative activity which helps them to master a foreign language (L. Sh. Gegechkory, I. Yu. Shekhter, V. V. Petrusinskiy, G. A. Kitaygorodskaya, et al.).
2. An address to intellectual and personal reserves of a student, a revitalization of cognitive processes, a positive influence on emotional sphere, a fatigue relief (G. Lozanov).
3. A transfer from informational to active forms and methods of education: learning, activating, intensive, playing, with elements of problematichity

and an investigator's search (A. A. Verbitskiy, A. A. Leontiev, T. V. Kudryavtsev, A. M. Matyushkin, et al.).

4. The development of skills to use a foreign language in a certain social context and the use of linguistic and cross-cultural material (A. Gumpers, T. M. Dridze, D. Khaims, et al.).
5. A situational approach aimed at the development of oral speech based on examples fixed in typical communicative situations (A. A. Alkhazishvili, V. A. Bukhbinder, I. A. Zimnyaya, E. I. Passov, et al.).
6. An idea of a phrasal stereotype (I. M. Berman, N. I. Zhinkin, et al.).
7. An integrity in the development of a foreign language communicative competency that implies the absence of a distinction between phonetic, grammatical, and lexical aspects of a language.
8. Models of the development of a professionally oriented communication in the English language of specialists from various spheres in the system of a long-life professional education (T. V. Aldonova, A. Ya. Gaisina, A. K. Krupchenko, G. P. Savchenko, T. M. Saltykova, V. Ph. Tenishcheva, G. G. Khantseva, N. A. Shishkina, M. K. Shlangman, et al.).

Moreover, the analyzed ideas and approaches cannot be used as an integral dyadic model of the development of a professional foreign language communicative competency of MBA program participants due to a specific nature of this educational program and particular features of its consumers.

Model Description

Activity and competency-based approaches are chosen as instructional bases for developing the model of a business foreign language training that can ensure building a professional foreign language communication competency of the MBA program participants. The above approaches define aims, structure, content, forms, methods, and techniques of a business foreign language training for managers within the MBA Program Retraining Course.

The highlighted particular features of the adults' learning activity – such as learning from experience (R. Revans, Pedler, et al.), cyclical sequence of learning activities when a student passes all the stages of the learning cycle (Kolb and Fry), developmental type of activity based on analyzing the difficulties in professional activity and further drifting to a reflexive space (V. Davydov, G. Shchedrovitsky, et al.), integrating learning and professional activities (A. Verbitskiy, S. Shchennikov, et al.), integrating learning and social activities (A. Savostyanov, V. Slobodchikov, Ye. Komrakov, et al.) – allowed us to specify the requirements to organizing the learning process of building a professional foreign language

communication competency of the MBA program participants (Kolb & Fry, 1975, pp. 33-57).

The following particular features of an open additional professional education, that influence the development of a business foreign language training model for the MBA program participants are highlighted:

- The learning process is based on individual work of participants;
- Learning activity is carried out within the professional and social activities of participants;
- Modular organization of a learning process;
- Combination of developmental pedagogical and information-communication technologies;
- Learning activity aims at solving professional tasks;
- Providing the possibility of an individual learning path;
- Obligatory face-to-face meetings;
- Communicative principle of organizing the learning content and interaction of the learning process participants.

The following form of organizing the learning process of building professional foreign language communication competency is defined as exhibiting the most promise – integrating the in-class and distance learning, in a similar way to an open additional professional education model – the International Institute of Management LINK that allows to orient the learning process toward a competency-based approach.

The result of the study is the model of a business foreign language training that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communication competency within the process of obtaining additional professional MBA qualification and that includes the following structural components: learning objective, content, a set of forms of organizing the learning process and technological description of each of the five modules.

The learning objective is to acquire a foreign language communication competency demonstrated as actual verbal communication in professional activity. Analyzing the competencies required from the MBA Program graduates (according to the state requirements) allowed to single out the communication competencies of an MBA Program graduate based on which the model of a foreign language communication competency is built. This model is the basis for picking out standard professional tasks implemented by a manager in an actual verbal communication in a foreign language:

1. Making and maintaining contacts (Making Contacts);
2. Providing description of functional roles and job description (Responsibilities and Job Description);

3. Presenting a company (a strategy, a mission, company's targets, organization structure etc.), a product (services), a project (Company Presentation);
4. Communicating during a business trip (in an airport, in a hotel, in a restaurant etc.) (Going on Business);
5. Communicating during meetings (Meetings);
6. Making phone calls (Telephoning);
7. Negotiating (Negotiating);
8. Maintaining business correspondence (Business Correspondence);
9. Searching and analyzing business information in English (periodical publications, Internet, TV, radio etc.) (Business Information Scanning and Analysis);
10. Company Performance Appraisal; Personnel Appraisal;
11. Providing reports, business plans, business process analysis results (Reporting; Business Planning);
12. Taking into account cultural context in cross-cultural interaction (Cross Cultural Interaction).

Learning content as the set of singled out standard professional tasks is structured as five modules each of which corresponds to a certain level of a foreign language communicative competency development (orientating, operational, operational-artistic, artistic and creative) and includes four types of verbal activity (speaking, reading, listening, and writing). Standard tasks are solved in each module but at different levels of communicative competency development. At certain levels of communicative competency development, some of them become principal while the others play propaedeutic or supporting role.

Set of forms of organizing the learning process includes the following: initial and adaptation face-to-face meeting, independent work with the learning kit (with teacher's support), analytical and practical face-to-face meeting and examinations (presentation and final examination according to the BEC format) depending on the level (preliminary, vantage and higher). The main set of forms that consists of the independent work with the learning kit (with teacher's support) and analytical and practical face-to-face meeting has four implementation cycles.

Technological description of each of the five modules includes targets, main tasks, specific forms, methods and means of organizing learning process that ensure best combination of group, individual and collective forms of learning (group forms playing the leading role) and are aimed at developing a foreign language communication competence.

The model justifies the necessity to use new learning technologies – imitation and role-playing, information, problem-searching, communicative and case studies, as well as defines the boundaries of using

pedagogical technologies during a face-to-face and distance interaction.

The leading role is played by active teaching methods, such as small-group discussions, brainstorming, analyzing specific situations or role-playing usage of which is not limited to face-to-face interactions and is supported by using modern information technologies. The combination of teaching methods provides intensive interaction between a teacher and a student and among students.

Description of the model includes the process of choosing the teaching aids taking into account selecting a multi-channel principle of an educational material retention (aids in hard copy, audio- and video aids, computer and telecommunication means, office equipment, etc.).

The dyadic model of a business foreign language training describes specific features of a teacher's activity when studying the modules. A teacher functions as a learning process coordinator and as an integrator of all the learning materials and teaching aids. A distinctive feature of the distance learning is shown that a teacher uses specific methods and aids not only during face-to-face interaction but also during the virtual interaction together with information and communication technologies.

When developing the model the following organizational and pedagogical conditions of effectively implementing a business foreign language training model were defined that ensure the development of a professional foreign language communication competency of MBA program participants: organizational and administrative support, constant support of participants' learning activity by a teacher, feedback and monitoring of a learning activity, instructional support (availability of an adequate learning kit which is the main content bearer at an independent work stage) and a technical and technological, information and staff support.

Results

The next stage is a pilot testing of a business foreign language training model that guarantees the development of a professional foreign language communication competency when achieving additional professional MAS qualification including a description of the process and the results of assessing the developed dyadic model.

The pilot testing consisted of summative and formative assessment and was carried out in The Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration in several stages (from 1999 to 2007 and then again from 2010 to 2014).

When analyzing the results of assessing the dyadic model both the data obtained in control groups (teaching based on the traditional system) and in experimental groups (teaching based on the developed model) were compared. Upon the completion of the experiment the comparative analysis of the data obtained before and after it was carried out. The dynamics of achieving a foreign language communication competence was monitored in accordance with the singled out communication competence development levels.

The experiment consisted of the following stages:

Stage 1. Entrance testing of the English language proficiency level.

Stage 2. Preparing for carrying out a formative experiment and its direct implementation.

Stage 3. Stage-by-stage and final diagnostics of a foreign language communication competency following the implementation of the developed instructional model.

For assessing the effectiveness of the developed instructional model the following indicators were used:

- Degree of satisfaction of the MBA Program business foreign language learners;
- Self-assessment of the learners' ability to actually communicate in English in the professional environment;
- Self-testing of the learning results;
- Dynamics of developing a foreign language communication competency (using tests);
- Level of an actual verbal communication in English in a professional environment (analyzing the activity results by levels).

The *target of the summative assessment* was to define the level of foreign language communication competency development of the MBA participants. The results of the ascertaining experiment confirmed that all verbal activity types of the participants are poorly developed.

Methods of the summative assessment:

1. For the questionnaire survey the following questionnaires were used – questionnaire of a Business English Program participant, self-assessment questionnaire, and the Program Graduate Questionnaire.
2. The testing method allowed to appraise the degree of the development of reading and listening skills, as well as the level of an active vocabulary and grammar knowledge.
3. Questioning, discussions and interview methods were used for appraising the degree of verbal English communication skills development, as well as for specifying the learning needs of the participants.
4. The method of assessing statistical data (in particular, testing results).

The following criteria were used as characterizing the English language skills:

1. authenticity of a foreign language behavior to situations and tasks of a professional communication;
2. degree of a functional adequacy;
3. a linguistic correctness.

The above can be combined as one criterion – adequacy of a verbal behavior. The degree of the criterion prominence was assessed in conditional points:

5 – a complete adequacy of a verbal behavior;

4 – adequacy of a verbal behavior with minor deviations;

3 – major deviations from a criterion;

2 – inadequacy of a verbal behavior.

The qualitative indicator is calculated using the formula shown below:

$$K = \frac{N_5 \times 5 + N_4 \times 4 + N_3 \times 3 + N_2 \times 2}{N \times 5}$$

where N_5 – number of participants who receive a score of 5;

N_4 – number of participants who receive a score of 4;

N_3 – number of participants who receive a score of 3;

N_2 – number of participants who receive a score of 2;

N – total number of participants.

All the data on self-assessment and assessment of the results of learning in the experimental work are calculated using the qualitative indicator.

The entrance testing included listening tasks (20% weight in the general assessment), assessing the level of vocabulary and grammar knowledge (50%) and reading (30%).

The percentage of successfully completed tasks was calculated in the part of Listening as follows:

$$P_1 = \frac{N'' \times 20\%}{N'}$$

where N' is the total number of tasks;

N'' is the number of successfully completed tasks.

The percentage of successfully completed tasks checking vocabulary and grammar communication skills was calculated as follows:

$$P_2 = \frac{N''' \times 50\%}{N'}$$

The percentage of successfully completed tasks in the part of Reading:

$$P_3 = \frac{N'' \times 30\%}{N'}$$

The Placement test lasted 1.5 hours. Placement test results in Table 1 show weak skills in listening, active vocabulary, and reading in English, as well as poor grammar skills.

Table 1
The results of the placement test

Parameters	distribution of students according to their score, number of people				quality indicator, %
	5	4	3	2	
Listening	0	12	95	19	58,8
Vocabulary and grammar	0	10	102	14	59,3
Reading	0	12	94	20	58,7
Speaking	0	7	97	22	57,6

The candidates were awarded marks by the examiner after the conversation. The quality indicator of the performed speaking skills was low on the results of entry interviews (57.6%). Most of the candidates refused to do written tasks because of the inability to write in English.

Thus, the results of entrance tests led to the conclusion that students had unacquired all communication activities in the English language.

The purpose of the formative experiment consisted of the organization of educational process on the development of professional foreign language communicative competence of MBA program students. The process was organized in accordance with the research program developed by the author based on scientific didactic model.

The regular comparisons of the data obtained in control and experimental groups were carried out. At the end of the experiment a comparative analysis of the data obtained before and after the experiment was carried out. We monitored the dynamics of foreign language communicative competence in accordance with the selected levels of communicative competence development.

Methods of forming experiment:

1. Questionnaires
2. Enquiries and interviews were used to identify the expectations of the students, the difficulties in the educational process.
3. Testing (midline and final) marked the current level of foreign language communicative competence.
4. Analysis of the written work, projects, case studies, business games.
5. Monitoring the decision of communicative tasks by students when performing professionally oriented communicative exercises in English.
6. Evaluation of the test results before the experiment, when going from module to module and after conducting the forming experiment.
7. Comparative analysis was used to compare the results obtained during the experiment in control and experimental groups.

Stage 1 – Placement test in English.

Stage 2 – preparation for the forming experiment and its implementation.

Stage 3 – step-by-step and final diagnostics and gradual increment of foreign language communicative competence in accordance with its level of development. It was the embodiment of the developed model of professional foreign language communicative competence of the MBA students.

During the experiment, we could verify how the level of foreign language communicative competence has been changed – from roughly trial to the operational and creative, etc. Business English training was organized in experimental groups in accordance with the developed didactic model, and in control groups – using the traditional system.

One of the most important indicators of consistent with the model of the didactic needs of the consumer, the requirements to the further vocational education and the level of training in the MBA program is the level of satisfaction of students with the process of Business English teaching.

The number of students who are satisfied with the process of Business English teaching (the sum of those who are completely satisfied and rather satisfied) in the control groups is 36%. The majority (41%) believe that they are partially satisfied. The proportion of those who are partially or completely unsatisfied is 15%.

The number of students from the experimental groups who were satisfied with the process of BE teaching is 87%, there were no fully dissatisfied, while the share of those who are partially satisfied or dissatisfied is 11%.

During the experiment, data were obtained for self-assessment ability of mastering the English language for communication in a professional environment; the results of self- diagnostics of Business English students, the diagnostics was held to determine the level of foreign language communicative competence in control and experimental groups by testing. After that, a comparative analysis of the self-diagnostics

Table 2
Data obtained for self-assessment ability

Indicator	Before study, %		In the end of study, %	
	Control group	Experimental group	Control group	Experimental group
sure that there are abilities	4	2	9	16
think that there are abilities	10	9	32	46
Average abilities	53	51	41	28
insignificant abilities	20	22	14	10
There are no abilities	13	16	4	0

in solving professional problems after training and the analysis of diagnosis of the teacher were held, as well the analysis of delayed learning outcomes for the course of business English.

Discussion

On the basis of pilot studies the conclusion was made that business English language training, aimed at the development of professional foreign communicative competence of MBA students, organized in accordance with our didactic model, can achieve the goal of real-verbal communication in English in professional environment (business English should become a tool for solving professional problems), and fully meet the needs of students, as evidenced by the following results:

- a high degree of satisfaction with teaching business English in the experimental groups (the number of students who are satisfied with the learning process, is 87% compared with 36% in the control group);
- a significant increase in self-esteem of their own abilities to the actual verbal communication in English in a professional environment at the end of training, compared with a starting self-esteem;
- a high level of self-test of capability to real verbal communication in English in a professional environment that is gradually formed in the process of implementation of a didactic model. The self-estimation difference is much higher in the experimental groups. If on approximate and operational levels of foreign language communicative competence the difference of self-estimation assessment in control and experimental

groups was on average 10%, on the operational and creative, artistic and creative level, this difference increased to 25%;

- stable rise of foreign language communicative competence at the expense of a consistent transition in the learning process of the indicative level of foreign language communicative competence to operational, operational and creative (quality figure is much higher from module to module in the experimental groups, according to the results of final control is 87% compared from 60% in the control group);
- the adequacy of self-assessment by students to the ability to real verbal communication in English in professional environment, which was confirmed by the diagnostics held by the teacher;
- the demand of English as a means of solving professional problems in cross-cultural communication situations (for 62% of students in the experimental groups compared with 12% in the control).

Conclusion

The study confirmed the hypothesis and allowed the following conclusions:

1. On the basis of the characteristics of the main directions and approaches to the further professional education the modern requirements to the further professional education as a whole and particularly affecting the construction of educational programs, including the MBA program, were emphasized. The place of business education in the further professional education and the main trends of its development were determined. A brief description of the MBA program was given.
2. The expectations of consumers of educational services of the MBA program to learning outcomes were determined, including professional foreign language communicative competence. The features of educational activity of adults, affecting the development of the business model of learning a foreign language, providing professional development of foreign language communicative competence of students of the MBA program were emphasized.
3. Specific characteristics of the further professional education affecting the construction of a model of business foreign language teaching of the MBA program students were determined. The most perspective form of organizing the educational process for the development of professional foreign language communicative competence – the integration of full-time and distance learning,

allowing to focus on competence approach was determined.

4. The approaches to the organization of educational process on the development of professional foreign language communicative competence in the system of the further professional education managers were theoretically grounded relying on the competence and activity approaches, meaningful integration of academic, social and professional aspects of students activities, and complex of didactic, organizational and pedagogical conditions.
5. The model of a business foreign language teaching, providing professional development of foreign language communicative competence of students of the MBA program, built on the basis of a combination of forms of full-time and distance learning, and included the goals of foreign language teaching the managers as a means of realization of their professional activity; educational content, structured on the module basis; technological description of the program modules were developed.
6. The levels of development of foreign language communicative competence (tentative, operational, operational and creative, creative) were determined; and the complex of typical tasks was suggested ensuring the acquisition of business foreign language content by MBA students.
7. The complex of educational process organization forms, appropriate to goals and content of foreign

language teaching in the process of obtaining the additional qualification of MBA was established.

The obtained results open perspectives for further research on this issue and the creation of teaching materials, teacher training, development of organizational procedures and administrative support, developing of supporting Internet media etc.

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Lexical Representation of Knowledge about a Human Being in English

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This paper presents the research in the sphere of lexical representation. On the premise that word meaning offers insights into conceptual knowledge stored in the mind, we have analyzed the semantics of the set of synonyms denoting a human being without reference to gender, age, occupation or peculiarities of personality and without any evaluation of the referent. These lexical items are person, individual, human being, and one of the meanings of man and personality. Use of etymological, dictionary, derivational, collocation, context analysis and conceptual modelling enabled us to build a list of conceptual components that comprise the knowledge about a human being represented in the English language. To date, the conceptual models used to visualize knowledge do not seem applicable to visualizing knowledge about a human being; therefore, we could only formulate the main features that are characteristic of this knowledge in the English world-view.

Keywords: cognitive model, words denoting a human being, semantic component, synonyms

Conceptual knowledge, the ways in which it is stored in the mind, the mechanisms that enable the processes of activating this knowledge at appropriate times and in relevant situations have long been the focus of scientific attention. One of the means to access this knowledge and study these processes is offered within the domain of Cognitive Linguistics. It has become a widely recognized notion that language in general and lexical units in particular serve as linguistic representation of this knowledge (Evans & Green, 2009; Croft & Cruse, 2004; Kubryakova, 2012), providing the means to study this knowledge.

Knowledge and mental activity are produced by people and one of the major reasons for this is a desire to understand the nature of a human being, his/her place and role in the world. From the cognitive point of view, language will be an invaluable source of such information. Therefore, in our research we attempt to build a model of the knowledge that has been accumulated about a human being in the course of history, processed within the mind and then represented linguistically in vocabulary items.

The words that represent this knowledge are the synonyms denoting a human being. However, this

is a very large lexical set capturing a whole range of human characteristics. To focus on the basic features, it was necessary to limit the items under research to those denoting a human being without reference to the gender, age, occupation or peculiarities of personality and without any evaluation of the referent. The words that fulfill these criteria are the following: *person, human being, man, individual, personality*. Another important point is that most of these words are polysemantic, but in this research only the meaning 'a human being' and the contexts where this meaning is realized were selected and studied.

Materials and Methods

When studying the selected set of synonyms, we followed a research framework developed by Elena G. Belyaevskaya (1992) and successfully implemented by a large number of researchers. This approach makes it possible to reconstruct conceptual knowledge represented by lexical items. Belyaevskaya proposed to start by looking at the etymology of a word, paying

special attention to its origins, constituents and their meanings, and the development of its semantics and use.

Once the etymology has been established, contemporary use of the vocabulary is thoroughly studied, which involves a range of methods and techniques. The first one is analysis of available dictionary definitions and formulation of semantic components that comprise the dictionary meaning of the word. The lexical item is compared and contrasted with its synonyms to further highlight these components. At this stage, derivational models are also studied.

When a list of semantic components is obtained, it is finalized with the help of co-text and context analysis. While the former presupposes a study of immediate collocation in preposition or postposition of the item in question, the latter takes a broader look at the text extract as whole, identifying peculiarities of word meaning that are realized on the contextual level. This analysis, especially that of collocates, is facilitated by Corpus Linguistic methods that enable automated data collection and processing (Gries, 2006). Corpus research tools and their application to semantic analysis and cognitive modelling within this approach are described by Ekaterina Golubkova (2009) and Tatiana Golechkova (2012).

The final stage involves building a cognitive model representing the mental structure of knowledge that is verbalized in the corresponding lexical items. Cognitive models in this case are understood as coherent bodies of perceptual and subjective experience types (Evans, 2010) that help formalize and visualize conceptual knowledge. This research framework appears universal in the sense that it can be used effectively for different types of vocabulary, including lexical items denoting a human being.

Results

Semantics of English Words Denoting a Human Being

As a result of etymological, dictionary, derivational, collocation and context analysis we were able to describe the semantic structure represented by synonyms denoting a human being. We have studied 3 etymology dictionaries, 8 contemporary English dictionaries and over 1500 examples of the use of the items both from fiction or non-fiction, most of which were offered by the British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American (COCA).

Etymological analysis has shown that the synonyms denoting a human being have experienced both changes in their dominant meaning and addition

of other semantic components. It could prove that corresponding conceptual structures are flexible and dynamic, which may seem counterintuitive given the prominently solid position of the human being in the world-view. The best example is the word *man*, which is the only Germanic word in the set; it was originally used as 'a male human being', then it acquired the meaning of a gender-neutral human being and later returned to its original meaning [dictionary]. The dynamic nature of this vocabulary set is also reflected in the fact that *individual* developed the meaning 'a human being' first in the colloquial speech and then it entered specialized formal legal or academic English.

Dictionary analysis enabled us to identify and formulate semantic components that comprise the semantics of the analyzed synonyms. The component bringing all these words together is 'species *Homo sapiens*', which represents the knowledge about people as biological species and the features that differentiate a person from other animals, i.e. their articulate speech, upright stance and mental development. A separate component comprises the information about what people usually look like and their traits of character, or 'personality and appearance'. These could be either typical of the species or particular of its certain representative. Apart from looks and behavior, people normally develop in society and are therefore seen as social beings, which entails not only specific features, but also certain roles and responsibilities. The following components capture and reflect in the semantics the social aspect of a person: 'member of a *socium*', 'possesses socio-cultural features of a *socium*', 'has rights and responsibilities' and 'possesses social significance'.

Mentioned above are what we could call meaningful or informative human features that are represented in the semantics of words. Apart from this, there are several abstract components that describe intangible aspects not particular of the species. The first ones identify whether the referent is a member of a class or vice versa stands out from a class (components 'belongs to a class (classification)' and 'is differentiated from a class (individualization)'). If a person is viewed as a class member, he/she possesses characteristics that make it possible to refer him/her to the class, which can make him/her an average recognizable representative (component 'typical of a class'). On the other hand, the referent can have a feature that makes him/her different from other class members, in this case he/she 'is differentiated according to a criterion'.

The synonyms denoting one human being have been studied and the plural forms or words referring to groups of people were beyond the scope of the research. Therefore, some lexical items possess a clear

Table 1
Semantic structure of synonyms denoting a human being

Lexical item → Semantic component ↓	Human being	Person	Individual	Man	Personality
Species <i>Homo sapiens</i>	◎	○	○	○	○
Personality and appearance	○	○	○	○	○
Belongs to a class (classification)	○			○	
Is differentiated from a class (individualization)		○	○		○
Member of a socium		○	○	◎	○
Is typical of a class	○			○	
Is differentiated according to a criterion		◎			○
Is singular, one			◎		○
Has rights and responsibilities			○		
Possesses social significance		○			◎
Is evaluated positively					○
Possesses socio-cultural features of a socium				○	

meaning of singularity or oneness (component ‘is singular, one’).

The last of the identified semantic components is connected with evaluation of the referent. Although we excluded from the research all words that have strong overtly positive or negative connotations as well as pronounced evaluation of the referent, the lexical item *personality* carries the idea that the person in question can be seen as a beneficial member of the socium and therefore has the component ‘is evaluated positively’ in its semantic structure.

While dictionary research, along with context and cotext analysis, helped to identify and formulate the components that comprise the semantics of the synonyms, a more careful study of contexts and corpus methods enabled the building of the semantic structures of each word. These structures cannot be represented as lists of semantic components, as within lexical item each the meanings carry different weight, in other words, some are at the top of the hierarchy and others are at the bottom (Malyar,

2001). The table below summarizes the findings of our semantic research. The circles represent the presence of a semantic component in the semantic structure of a corresponding word and double circles represent the dominant component at the top of the semantic hierarchy of each lexical item.

The semantic information presented in the form of a table makes it possible not only to analyze individual word meanings, but also to compare and contrast the lexical items. On the premise that semantic structure of a word or set of words is the representation of corresponding conceptual knowledge, we can now proceed to conceptual modelling.

Selecting an Efficient Cognitive Model

While most researchers focus on explaining and representing the process of meaning construction either in context or outside it (Lakoff & Johnson, 2008; Fauconnier & Turner, 2006 and others), there are only a few models that help present the result of

these processes. Among the most common and well-established ones are frames, semantic descriptions and qualia-structures. Each of them will be examined in more detail and their applicability to describing the conceptual knowledge about a human being will be analyzed.

One of the earliest and currently most elaborate models is frame. Originally introduced by the computer scientist Marvin Minsky and defined as a data structure for representing a stereotyped situation (Minsky, 1975), it then found its way into Linguistics in the works of the linguist Charles Fillmore. He expanded the notion applying it to semantic research by stating that a frame is a set of related lexical units (linguistic variants), which describe a recurring scenario (Fillmore, 1982). Frames are described as structures similar to networks that consist of nodes, or slots, and relations between them. The slots can be of two types: fixed slots which include the information that is always typical of situations of a certain kind; the others are filled with contextual information depending on the instance of frame activation in a communication act. A frame is usually verbalized through a set of lexical units. Currently, it is used to represent not only situational knowledge, but also knowledge about objects (Bondarchuk, 2011). However, these objects tend to include a wide variety of items, i.e. variants and criteria, according to which the variants are verbalized.

Frames are believed to possess a rigid and clear structure, which can be both an advantage and a drawback. In the case of representing conceptual knowledge about a human being, it appears to be a disadvantage, since, as shown above, this knowledge is flexible and only partly falls into a limited set of slots related to human characteristics. There are a few other reasons why frame does not seem efficient for visualizing knowledge about a human being. First, this data is not stereotypical, second, it is difficult to identify clear-cut relations between data items which appear complex and multi-level, third, the knowledge about a human being is dynamic and hence does not fully fit the rigid structure of a frame.

Another very commonly used model for representing conceptual knowledge is semantic descriptions which were introduced and formalized by Anna Wierzbicka. She proceeds from the idea that the most complex concepts can be presented in a simpler operational form with various related concepts arranged around central ones. This approach helps to formulate clear definitions for lexical items. These definitions tend not to include all the available knowledge about an object or notion, but focus on basic essential features, which makes them easy to operate and store in the mind. An example could be the class of objects Animal, the components of which are defined

through *Habitat, Size, Appearance, Behavior, Relations to people* (Wierzbicka, 1985). These building blocks of definitions are established by analyzing general experience, features and functions of real-life objects and verbalized as well as non-verbalized knowledge about them.

Qualia structure – is a representational framework developed by James Pustejovsky within a broader model for studying and capturing relationships between items on a syntactic level. The structure proposes to analyze the meaning of lexical items and the related conceptual knowledge in terms of four aspects: formal, constitutive, telic, agentive. The formal aspect distinguishes an object within a larger domain based on its appearance and other external features. The constitutive aspect identifies relations between the object and its constituents, the telic aspect states the purpose and the function of the object and finally, agentive refers to the origin of the object (Pustejovsky, 1995).

The previous two models do not appear efficient for representing the knowledge about a human being. The main reason is the nature of the lexical items denoting a human being: they possess a broad meaning including abstract knowledge, which is not reflected either in Wierzbicka's or in Pustejovsky's frameworks. Indeed, they tend to be suitable for modelling concrete concepts, as they mainly include basic perceptual knowledge, such as appearance, constituent components, behavior. In addition, the vocabulary under analysis requires representation of evaluative elements, background information and associations, which are not reflected in any of the frameworks.

Discussion

Knowledge Representation in the English Synonyms

Having assessed various cognitive models, we may conclude that none of them appear efficient for representing the conceptual knowledge about a human being stored in English vocabulary. However, the results of the semantic analysis help to reconstruct conceptual components of the mental system. Although this knowledge does not seem to lend itself to structural representation, these components show some trends and features typical of this particular stored knowledge.

First, the components clearly fall into three key pairs having opposing meanings with others related to them:

- Species *Homo sapiens* or a social being;

- Belongs to a class (classification) or is differentiated from a class (individualization);
- Is singular/one or is a member of a class.

Depending on the choice of one of these alternatives, particular information about a human being is highlighted and a corresponding lexical unit is chosen in speech. The first opposition 'biological species vs social being' is particularly important for the mentality of English speakers, which is reflected in the fact that each meaning in this opposition is verbalized in a dedicated lexical item, *human being* and *person* respectively, rather than being a component along with others in the semantic structure of a word. In the Russian language, by contrast, one item *человек* (*chelovek*) incorporates the two components.

The opposition 'classification vs individualization' is realized in all the synonyms: *human being*, *man* (classification) and *person*, *individual*, *personality* (individualization). Representing two abstract ideas of reference to a class or differentiation from it, this opposition appears important for identifying the difference between two similar synonyms *man* and *person*. While the former classifies the referent, the latter individualizes it.

The last opposition 'singularity vs plurality' requires a further explanation. Our research has shown that the idea of 'plurality' in this case is not the grammar concept of 'being more than one', but belonging to a group, organization etc. This conceptual knowledge relates to the semantics of the words *man* and *human being*. It means that *man* and *human being* describe any person, whereas *individual* and *personality* denote a single person opposed to a group of people (e.g. class, company, family). The significance of the idea of singularity and the corresponding importance of the opposition is shown by the fact that the lexical item *individual* is neutral in register and relatively common. It is less common in Russian, as exemplified by the Russian equivalents *индивидуум* (*individuum*) and *физическое лицо* (*fizicheskoe litso*), which are narrowly specialized and formal.

The second peculiarity of the conceptual knowledge about a human being that may be culture-specific for the English-speaking community is the prominence of some of the components when compared to others (Evans, 2013). According to our research, the following conceptual knowledge appears significant for the English language: 'has rights and responsibilities', 'possesses social significance', 'possesses socio-cultural features of a socium' and 'member of a socium'. The last two are realized in the semantics of the word *man*, the first two in separate meaning of polysemantic lexical items *individual* ('has rights and responsibilities') and *personality* ('possesses social significance'). This highlights the importance of this conceptual knowledge for the culture. In other words,

in the English world-view the idea of someone's belonging to society with its relations and regulations, being part of a culture, customs, traditions, attitudes and lifestyles prevails over the biological species-related features, which is illustrated in the ways this information is verbalized in the words *person*, *man*, *individual*, *personality* on the one hand and *human being* on the other. Unlike English, the Russian language does not have a dedicated lexical item for expressing the social aspect of a person.

Conclusion

The study of English lexical items denoting a human being has helped to uncover the conceptual basis for naming a human being through reconstructing and analyzing conceptual knowledge that underlies the semantics of the corresponding nouns *person*, *human being*, *individual*, *man* and *personality*. The main research findings are the following:

- 1) conceptual knowledge about a human being is a system that only partly lends itself to existing conceptual models;
- 2) conceptual knowledge about a human being is a flexible and dynamic system, which satisfies the needs of the English-speaking society by adapting lexical items and their meaning to social changes;
- 3) conceptual knowledge about a human being foregrounds the social aspect of a human being, his role and function in society;
- 4) conceptual knowledge about a human being is based on six opposing components: 'biological species vs social being', 'classification vs individualization', 'singularity vs plurality';
- 5) conceptual knowledge about a human being is characterized by several well-formed components each verbalized in a lexical item: *individual* ('has rights and responsibilities'), *personality* ('possesses social significance'), *man* ('possesses socio-cultural features of a socium' and 'member of a socium').

These findings further our understanding of semantic representation and determine English culture-specific features of conceptual knowledge about a human being. It is particularly useful and highly beneficial for language teaching, as this information offers an insight into word meaning, collocation and general use (Evans & Tyler, 2004). In addition, availability of the mental system will help greatly when translating from and into English.

The results of the research once again demonstrate the efficiency of semantic research in cognitive modelling, at the same time, analysis of the knowledge

about a human being has determined certain limitations. There is a need for further research into cognitive models and methodologies for building them, as existing ones are efficient for describing the information represented by concrete nouns rather than more complex abstract notions and more general concepts. The models should enable representation of the flexibility and social adaptability of the knowledge, as well as present the space for incorporating potential further modifications and development of the corresponding concept or referent, which is bound to be reflected on both semantic and cognitive levels.

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Verbal Representation of Ethnic Stereotypes about the Dutch in English (an Insight into Cross-Cultural Perception via the Language)

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The paper presents a brief summary of the multi-level interdisciplinary research on Englishmen's ethnic stereotypes about the Dutch and the ways they manifest themselves in the English language. Unconventionally, the national stereotype is investigated as a subject of Cognitive Linguistics. As a result, the term "conceptual model" is proposed as an equivalent to "conceptual metaphor", and two conceptual models verbally represented by the ethnonym "Dutch" and phraseological units with this component are described. A literature review examines if the identified conceptual models are supported in literary discourse, then the usage of the key lexis is analyzed meticulously for the same purpose. The last part of the paper suggests the results of the experiment held to verify if the stereotypical perceptions of the Dutch are maintained by people in contemporary Great Britain. The results indicate that language plays a significant role in stereotype formation and maintenance.

Keywords: ethnic stereotype, concept, conceptual model, verbal representation of ethnic stereotypes, phraseological units with the component "Dutch", free associative experiment

The current research is aimed at investigating the English lexis (including phraseological units) that represent the realia of Dutch culture. Most of them act as ethnic stereotypes that manifest the beliefs perceived by the British, as English speakers, about the Netherlands and the Dutch. The term "stereotype" is referred to here as a subgroup of social stereotype, i.e. the judgment expressing a generalized evaluation of the social group member, while the term "ethnic stereotype about the Dutch" is introduced to denote the system of simplified assessments for the image schema of the Dutch community.

The article focuses on evaluative social stereotype of an ordinary Dutch person and the Dutch as an out-group held by contemporary Brits. The complexity of the given phenomenon stands behind the variety of approaches to its investigation. To obtain a broader insight of how ethnic stereotypes are formed,

maintained and manifested, it is necessary to integrate the data provided by anthropologists, sociologists, and psychologists, who in most cases do not engage with linguistics and undervalue the contribution it may bring to this field of research. The current study, however, is aimed at revealing the importance of verbal representation of the commonly perceived image of the national out-group. Nevertheless, it is all the same based on the integration of multidisciplinary studies, including linguistics, social sciences, philosophy, and psychology.

The urgency of the topic is caused by the increased importance of coexistence of different ethnic groups in the modern world, their communications and relation building. Stereotypical beliefs about heterogeneous ethnic groups may, on the one hand, integrate knowledge and simplify the perception of a nation, or, on the other hand, may lead to false statements. In

other words, they may have a positive impact on cross-cultural interactions and support them or, vice versa, they may possibly trigger international conflicts. To avoid ethnic prejudices, the initial role of language should be considered, as it is central for tracing the routes of stereotype formation. The distinct nature of stereotype as a mental model is presented across attributes whereas in most cases cognitive linguists deal with subjects. From this stems our investigation into verbal representations of stereotyped evaluations, with the following research questions framing our approach:

- What type of mental set does the social stereotype belong to?
- What mental units are represented by the key word “Dutch”? Can their constituents be modeled?
- Are there still stereotypical beliefs of the Dutch in the public consciousness of modern English speakers? Does language act as a means to maintain them?

To address the research questions, test materials sourced from the mono- and bilingual sources were exploited, including thesauruses and phraseological dictionaries, extracts were taken from fiction of all genres and data was provided by respondents of British origin who took part in a specially designed questionnaire. The methodology relied on componential analysis, contextual analysis and questionnaire. Continuous sampling was used to provide the corpora for the current research; as a result, 75 phraseological items with the component “Dutch” were found in mono- and bilingual dictionaries and other reference sources. The verb “to dutch” in its two meanings derived from the converted adjective along with the three semantic connotations of the compound noun “Dutchman” were also put under scientific consideration. The study focused on two mental concepts linguistically manifested by the key lexical unit “Dutch”, so varied lexical items denoting ethnic stereotypes against the Dutch were studied meticulously.

Materials and Methods

Investigating the ways ethnic stereotypes may be represented in a language requires us to first examine and define a key term – social stereotype. First time it was proposed by the American journalist Walter Lippmann, the author of the pioneering work “Public Opinion” in which he introduced the notion and described the social stereotype as an “ordered, more or less consistent picture of the world, to which our habits, our tastes, our capacities, our comforts and our

hopes have adjusted themselves” (Lippmann, 1997, p. 64). It is hard to underestimate the importance of the discussion Lippmann started, his celebrated book still attracts the world’s attention, Lippmann’s considerations have been revised and continue to draw the interest of social scientists, who have interpreted and reinterpreted his arguments. So, G. Allport, in his celebrated paper “Nature of Prejudice” contrasted the social phenomena of prejudice and stereotype, claiming the latter is “not based upon actual experience” (Allport, 1954, p. 6). Of interest is the collision of opinions expressed by different researchers. To exemplify the case, the American researcher of racism and racial conflicts L. Blum focuses on objectionable, racist, inferiority stereotypes (Blum, 2002, p. 211), whereas Jenkins, for example, argues for the positive potential they embrace and claims that “despite its acquired negative connotations, stereotyping is a routine, everyday cognitive process upon which we all to some extent depend” (Jenkins, 1996, p. 122).

The category of ethnic stereotype has become part of scientific thinking in socially oriented sciences in Russia as well. The 1960s saw a rising urgency of racial contradictions, which prepared the ground for research into the perceived stereotyped beliefs about the out-groups by Soviet scientists (Kon, 1966; Kon, 1968; Shikhirev, 1971). In the nineties the collapsed Soviet Union gave way to increased multicultural diversity, which brought about a growth in research on cross-national perceptions (Chugrov, 1993; Pavlenko, 1992).

The routes of ethnic stereotype formation have been widely debated by psychologists and philosophers. In most cases, the explanation of this phenomenon is supported by the opposition of we-ness and they-ness, which Levi-Strauss considers to be among the fundamental patterns behind categorization, in general (Levi-Strauss, 2001). The human mind constantly systemizes and orders the world by means of unconscious patterns – binary opposites. “We-ness – they-ness” is one of them, and ethnicity acts as a factor where these opposites are manifested due to cultural differences of different national groups. In the realm of stereotyping, we-ness is evaluated as positive, whereas they-ness is seen negatively. Along these lines, the dual nature of human attitude towards ethnic consciousness provides scientific explanation of ethnocentrism as “the technical name for the view of things in which one’s own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled and rated with reference to it” (Sumner, 1906, p. 13).

There are alternative ways to justify stereotyping. Ajtony approaches the issue starting from social identity theory (SIT) founded by Tajfel and Turner. Based on the three-dimensional construct of social identity, she emphasizes the cognitive aspect and argues that when people categorize themselves and others according to

their ethnic or national affiliation it inevitably causes an asymmetrical relation: “[w]ithin the category we mostly consider the identity of those belonging to it, our own group is experienced to be ‘ingroup biased’, continuously being overestimated as opposed to the outgroup”. This leads to the emergence of national or ethnic stereotypes when “the common characteristic of people belonging to one category...at the same time – is the description of features differentiating them from other categories” (Ajtony, 2011, p. 145). In spite of an apparent variety of considerations about the routes of ethnic stereotype formation, it may be concluded that they complement rather than contradict each other.

A detailed discussion of the types of ethnic stereotypes identified in the literature is beyond the scope of this article. It should be noted that according to the membership /non-membership of the group an individual refers to there may be instances of auto-stereotypes and hetero-stereotypes. What is of interest and immediate relevance here is the mental model the ethnic stereotype corresponds to. The cognitive nature of the ethnic stereotype should be correctly defined to gain a better understanding of the ways it is manifested verbally.

As a form of social cognition the ethnic stereotype is subject to meticulous investigation in a study by J. L. Hilton and W. von Hippel, who outline different models for their mental representations, such as the prototype model, the exemplar model, associative networks, schemas and base rates (Hilton, 1996). An understanding of stereotype and prototype as two forms of cognition, with the former developed from the perspective of linguistics and the latter being a subject of social science, is widely diffused in multidisciplinary studies (Ajtony, 2011, p. 135). These ideas are extended further to propose more detailed and comprehensive clarifications, like the reference to metonymical sources of social stereotype formation by Lakoff: “Social stereotypes are cases of metonymy – where the subcategory has a socially recognized status as standing for the category as a whole, usually for the purpose of making quick judgments about people” (Lakoff, 1987, p. 80). The literature review on the issue has led to the conclusion that the most-suited term here would probably be “concept” as the universal notion to cover culturally determined mental sets. This statement may be supported by the similar cognitive nature of both units, the complexity of the structure of each of them as well as the same methodology applied to the investigation of both phenomena. So, hereafter, the ethnic stereotype is treated as one special group of concepts. This enables the perception of the stereotype in its generic sense and ethnic stereotype – in particular – from the perspective of cognitive linguistics.

The notion of concept is known to be the main subject of modern cognitive linguistics. As a rather

ambiguous term, it has been defined in a variety of ways. In Russian science, two main approaches to understanding the properties of the concept and identifying its nature can be traced, commonly referred to as “linguo-cultural” and “linguo-cognitive” trends. Whatever their background sources may be, these are, to a certain degree, treated as contradictory and are often opposed to each other. As the concept is in any case bound to some quality characteristics of a certain phenomenon, it is inevitably expressed by the key word of attributive functionality. Inside the area of the current research, the concepts under consideration are linguistically expressed via phraseological units with the component “Dutch”, thus this very adjective acts as the basic attributive word here. With regard to its semantic meanings this word may denote one or several concepts, which are formed, as a rule, on the basis of subjective, i.e. evaluative knowledge.

The concepts are explored by both common methods – by means of analyzing their lexical representations – and experimental methodology, i.e. by processing the data obtained via cognitive psychology surveys.

The hierarchy of the concept may be revealed in the field model of its constituents, which are singled out through understanding and grouping the appropriate lexical units in accordance with its layers. Popova and Sternin introduced the theory of the concept field structure on the basis of the key word (Popova, 2001). With respect to the number of the layers, the conceptual field may have one layer (in one-layer concepts), two and more layers different in the degree of abstractedness (multi-layer concepts) or segmental (with the core as the basis surrounded by several similarly abstract layers) (Popova, 2001).

The rapid development of Cognitive Linguistics is marked by the growing popularity of the cognitive (conceptual) metaphor. The American linguists J. Lakoff and M. Johnson in their pioneering work, “Metaphors We Live By”, were the first to underline the significant role metaphor plays in concept formation and the conceptual system as a whole. They demonstrated the ability of the conceptual metaphor to generate one or a few metaphors in language (Lakoff, 1980). The cognitive (conceptual metaphor) theory has been adopted and elaborated on by a great number of researchers.

In spite of the widespread views of the metaphor as the source for most phraseological units, those considered in the given research are an exception. We agree with Lakoff’s viewpoint on the metonymical nature of stereotype (see above) and, regardless of the enormous imaginary potential of the idioms under consideration, that it is more likely to admit their metonymical nature. It is argued here that due to the similarity in metaphor and metonymy formation, both emerge as a result of meaning transference on the basis of the associative attribute – the conceptual framework

of the cognitive metaphor including the terminology may also be extended to the metonymical phraseological items with the component “Dutch”. Hence, at this point it seems appropriate to introduce the term “conceptual model” as the equivalent of “conceptual metaphor”. Hereafter, the word combination “conceptual model” is used to denote the congruence of the source and target domains based on the identical attributes associated with the typical beliefs of the Dutch.

The analysis and adoption of the viewpoints by different authors on stereotypical beliefs of the national portrayal of an ordinary Dutch person prepared the theoretical ground for proceeding further to discussion of the ways these mental sets are represented in the English language. Our study was focused mainly on the lexical item “Dutch”, due to its popularity in the lexis and phrasicon of the English language versus the other ethnonyms as well as the prevalence of this word, independently or within phraseological units, in literary contexts extracted from works by British and American authors including the literature of the last few decades.

Talking about the roots of stereotypical prejudices against the Dutch it should first be mentioned that they emerged from the four big conflicts between England and the Dutch republic in the seventeenth century caused by economic rivalry. The pejorative coloring of its meaning may also be counted for by the similarity to its etymon “Duch” and its derivative – the German “Deutsch”. So, the key word “Dutch” is very likely to have absorbed the negative attitudes towards the Dutch and, in a broader sense, all Germans.

Conceptual Models

A deeper insight into the semantic and conceptual meanings associated with the key attribute – Dutch – provided enough space for the justified retrieval of two concepts which may be treated as homonymous, with the same form outside but entirely different inside. Therefore, two different field models may be built to demonstrate conceptual constituents of those concepts respectively. The thorough analysis of their contents has led research to name them “Dutch – relevant to the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands)” (**concept 1**) and “Dutch – in contradiction to conventional standards or negation provoking” (**concept 2**). In general, an assumption has been made that initially the stereotyped concept (2) was a part of the first concept, originally referring to physical conditions and cultural background of the people based on the territory of Holland (1). The continuous extension of the layers adjunctive to the concept (1) gradually led to the spin-off of the new cognitive pattern, which turned into an independent concept (2).

The semantic and linguistic contents of the concepts are described in accordance with the lexical combinations of the word “Dutch”. This methodology conforms with the identified concepts due to their attributiveness as they may not be totally independent as those which denote subjects (i.e. objects and phenomena) and are represented by nouns.

The relevant lexical and phraseological units with the component “Dutch” may be sorted to identify the meanings expressed in linguistic consciousness as per the concept “Dutch – relevant to the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands)”. Its structure may be presented in three layers with two segments within the first one. The lexical units were distributed in accordance with the changed semantics of the key adjective, which goes along with the loosened motivation inside the phraseological units.

The **first**, basic layer of the concept is relevant to Holland as the country where a certain ethnic group with their cultural values lives. This very layer is the closest to the literate semantics of the key adjective. Two equally abstract segments may be found within this layer. One of them refers to a purely physical, natural essence (“Dutch clover”, “Dutch rushes”). The second segment reflects the dominant role of cultural and geographic factors. The lexical units in this group denote cultural realia: items of national clothes, accessories of the people – residents of the Netherlands: “Dutch cap”, “Dutch breeches”, “Dutchman’s pipe”, and the achievements and values by Dutch people on the territory of their country: “Dutch tulips”, “Dutch channels”, “Dutch painting”, “Dutch ships”, “Dutch liberties”. The linguistic contents of this layer also may be extended through free combinations with the key word “Dutch”, which denote material and spiritual items relevant to the area belonging to the Dutch.

The **second** layer of conceptual field 1 is assimilated to the attribute “of Dutch origin” and linguistically presented by set expressions like “Dutch doll” /a wooden doll/, “Dutch door” /a double-hung door/ “Dutch cheese” /a special sort of cheese/. In contrast to the first layer, this is marked by the loosened national coloring of the appropriate objects and phenomena. In a generic sense, the lexical units of the given layer are characterized by the conceptual meaning “developed, designed in Holland, but at the moment also used in the other countries of the world”. This layer is typical of the cultural background relevant to all the material objects behind this part of the concept.

The **third** layer of the conceptual field shows the changed significance of the “national” seme in the key adjective, the meanings it demonstrates here are all derived from the reconsidered and rethought initial attribute and may be rendered as “resembling objects of Dutch origin”: “Dutch cap” (women’s contraception), “Dutch cheese” (bold head).

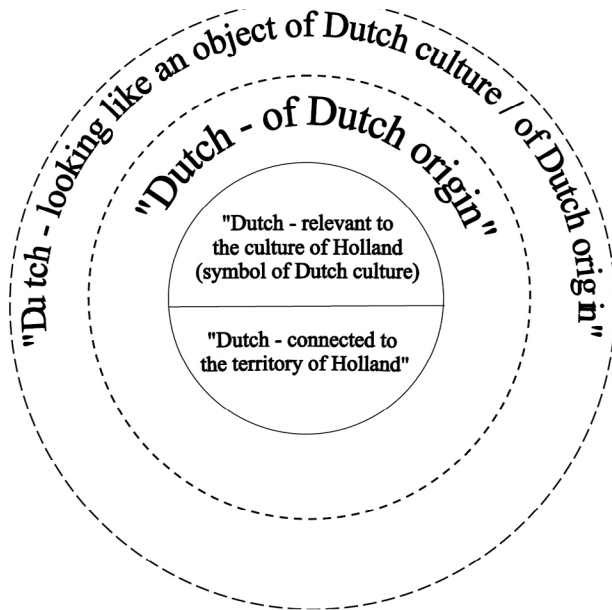


Figure 1. Conceptual Model «Dutch – relevant to the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands)».

The linguistic representation of the conceptual model “Dutch – relevant to the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands)” is represented in Figure 1 - Conceptual Model “Dutch – relevant to the Dutch Republic (the Netherlands)”.

Concept 2 “Dutch – in contradiction to conventional standards or negation provoking” is linguistically represented by three layers. As the reconsidered semantics of the ethnonym resulted in the lost connection to the initial meaning “Dutch”, here the lexis was distributed among the field layers in a different way. The division was based on the degree of the abstraction the lexeme “Dutch” possesses within the phraseological units.

The semantics of phraseological units changes from layer to layer in the following way: “Dutch – having a certain attribute which contradicts common standards, conventional things, customs (the first layer), “Dutch negative, provoking somebody’s negation for no clear reasons” (the second layer); “Dutch – anti, the wrong way out” (the third layer). **The first**, basic, layer with the most concrete semantics has a segmental composition. The eight associations identified in the scope of this study define eight segments which correspond to the matches inside the “Dutch” concept, such as: 1) alcohol addicted, connected to alcohol: (“Dutch courage” - courage gained from intoxication with alcohol, “Dutch milk” - beer); 2) breaking rules, doing things unusually, in an unconventional way (“to do a dutch” – to place one’s debts in a special way to ruin the owner of the casino; “Dutch book” – bad accounting or a way of bet making with no profit left

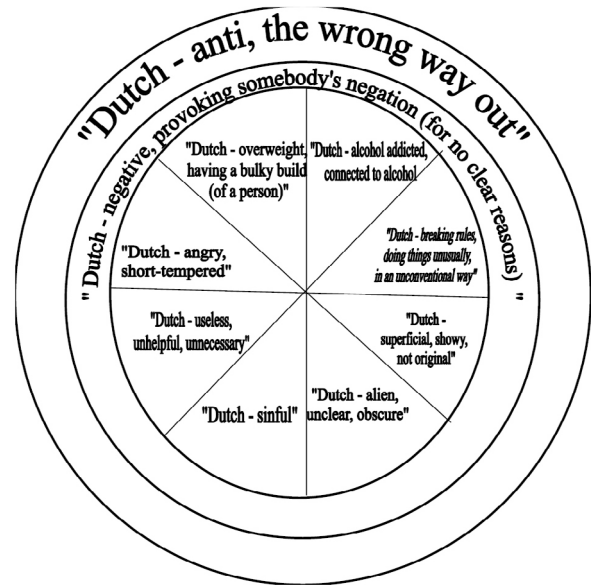


Figure 2. Conceptual Model «Dutch – in contradiction to conventional standards or negation provoking».

for the bookmaker; 3) superficial, showy, not original (“Dutch defence” – fake defence, “Dutch gold” – foil); 4) alien, unclear, obscure (“double Dutch” – gibberish; “Dutch by injection” – about a woman who lives with a foreigner); 5) sinful (“Dutch widow” – prostitute, “to take the Dutch route, do the dutch” – commit suicide); 6) useless, unhelpful, unnecessary (“Dutch comfort” – cold comfort, “could be worse”, “Dutch anchor” – something left behind, especially when needed); 7) angry, short-tempered (“Dutch blessing” – abuse, bad language, “to get one’s dutch up” – to put somebody out of temper); 8) overweight, having a bulky build (of a person) (“Dutch-built” – stout (of a person), “Dutchman” – a suet).

Each of the attributes united by the **second** layer of the concept (“to beat the Dutch”, “to be in Dutch” – to get into trouble, be in a mess) may be described as a negative characteristic, which due to its abstraction makes it difficult to precisely identify the semantics of the key adjective. In other words, the motivation of a negative attribute and the ethnonym “Dutch” connection is not made clear.

The third layer of conceptual field 2 is marked by the special logical collision of the elements in the word combinations “adjective + noun”. The meaning the adjective Dutch is invested here changes the semantics of the noun it precedes to the opposite. (“Dutch hurricane” – a calm sea, “Dutch nightingale” – a frog). In fact, in this context the adjective tends to mean “not”. The verbal representation of the conceptual model can be graphically modelled as in Figure 2.

Results

The implication of the above-mentioned models may be traced in literary discourse, the statement supported by 26 examples of the use of phraseological units to manifest concept 1 “Dutch – relevant to the Dutch republic (the Netherlands)” and 24 contexts with phraseological units to go back to concept 2 “Dutch – in contradiction to conventional standards or negation provoking”. The stylistic analysis of the texts with the “Dutch” phraseological units relevant to concept 1 revealed that the speech utterances with them appeal to the recipients’ emotional sphere due to the stylistic usage of these language means in context where humorous effects, persuasiveness and emphasis are the authors’ predominant intentions. Not surprisingly, in most cases the writers use phraseological units relevant to concept 1 in full accord with their modern semantics and ignore their etymons or inner forms. That is why their semantic meanings remain distinct from direct connection to the Netherlands, Dutch people or objects of Dutch origin. Some contexts, however, demonstrate the restored inner forms of the phraseological units for the purpose of producing humorous effects, like, for instance, in Charles Dickens’ novels: “This was a neat and happy turn to give the subject, treats being rare in the Wilfer household, where a monotonous appearance of **Dutch-cheese** at ten o’clock in the evening had been rather frequently commented on by the dimpled shoulders of Miss Bella. Indeed, the modest Dutchman himself seemed conscious of his want of variety...” (Dickens, 1973, p. 84)

The usage of set expressions relevant to concept 2 in direct speech and narratives is in most cases caused by attempts to evaluate. Consequently, in a number of cases concept 2 may gain ironical or even further – negative – potential, which is expressed in the verbal context of its language representations. Thus, the example below is based on the contradiction of two images through the comparison of associative attributes. The way of verbalizing one of them is of great interest: this is an allusive reference of literary origin: “One had to cling to it, even though one felt embarrassed, that some obscure loss of face was involved, the **Dutch uncle** being swiftly proved the emperor with no clothes” (Fowles, 1980, p. 114).

We also consider a special kind of occasional expressions with the component “Dutch”. This group comprises both “occasional phraseological neologisms” and “reinterpreted phraseological items”, which along with lexical neologisms are widespread in fictional literature. Phraseological occasionalisms are approached further in this article to trace the examples of new word and phrase formation with

the component “Dutch”, in the works of English and American authors late-twentieth to the early twenty-first century. All the occasionalisms found may be divided into two groups, which we explain below.

The first group includes newly formed items, which are assimilated to already existing lexical units. They are introduced into the context once only and are treated as occasionalisms due to their absence in the available lexicographical sources. The second group comprises the occasional usages in literary texts of the existing expressions with the revised semantic meanings achieved by their immediate contexts. In most cases, they act as puns, and the authors play with the meanings of separate constituents within phraseological units, rather than independent words. It is noteworthy to mention here that the target lexemes are of a polysemantic nature, so verbal context is aimed at suggesting the right meanings for the perceiver.

The items in the first group have the nominal function, as most of them are introduced to name the new notions, which arose at a certain period of time as a result of changes in social, economic and cultural life of society. Their descriptive analysis allows us to see them as a verbal representation of concept 2, i.e. its particular layer. So, for instance, the word combination “Dutch express” from Sheldon’s novel *Master of Game* is based on the negation that justifies its relation to the third layer of this concept. As in the rest of expressions relevant to this layer, the given item demonstrates a logical contradiction when the adjective “Dutch” changes the meaning of the noun it precedes – “express” – to the opposite. As a result, one of the fastest vehicles turns into the slowest: a bullock (animal-drawn) wagon. The clue to the correct understanding of the expression is offered in the same context: “What’s **Dutch express**?... Bullock wagon. They travel two miles an hour. By the time you get there, the damned diamonds will all be gone” (Sheldon, 1993, p. 24).

The second group of lexical items is more varied and appears in greater numbers.. It consists of the contexts where the authors change the meanings of existing phraseological units. Verbal humor is based here on breaking linguistic norms. All the units of this group may be subdivided into three groups in accordance with the type of the effect delivered and the degree to which the initial expressions have been altered.

The first subgroup is represented by the units with the unchanged form. The initial meaning of the component “Dutch” is partially restored in the phraseological unit in G.K.Chesterton’s novel *Manalive*: “That’s German, and German is High Dutch, and **High Dutch** is **Double Dutch**” (Chesterton, 1912, p. 216). The author narrows down

the semantics of the element “Dutch” and changes it from the metaphorical sense it holds within the set expression “double Dutch” (“gibberish”) to the original “the language of the Dutch” and restores the lost connection between “Dutch” and “Deutsch”. This effect is delivered through the equation of the phraseological units “Dutch” and “double Dutch”. The decomposition of the set expression by means of their constituent literalization is suggested as a pun here.

The second subgroup comprises the examples of incorrect variations of existing expressions, making it difficult to identify precisely the intended meanings the authors exploit. Contamination of the phraseologisms takes place when the authors combine the components of two different idioms. The so-called linguistic “hybrids” occur as a result of poetic realization of the speech system: “She’s wanted for York’s murder, isn’t she? Wouldn’t it be sweet if they were found dead in a love trust? The papers would love that ... Grange and her sweetie **doing the double Dutch** in the drink instead of her cooking for the York kill? That would put a decent end to this mess ...” (Spillane, 1966, p. 146). The word combination “do the double Dutch” is formed by uniting two set expressions “do the Dutch” – “commit suicide” and “double Dutch” – “gibberish”.

One of Spillane’s heroes simultaneously uses two phraseological units with the same component. The microcontext of the above extract demonstrates the double actualization of two phraseologisms so that parallel and simultaneous perception of the phraseological meanings, and the literal meanings of the components of the same phraseologisms, occurs. In this line of thought, the given extract actualizes literary, phraseological and associative meanings of the lexical items: “commit suicide” (the people will be found dead), “do something strange” (the suicide will be committed in an unusual situation – at a date), “do something together with a partner” (the verb meaning “do” is associated with the semantics of the adjective “double”), “do something under the influence of alcohol” (the set expression with the relevant sense). The author’s message is conveyed here in an original way by introducing the multilevel pun.

The third subgroup is subject to the simultaneous changes in the form and meaning, i.e. double actualization of a phraseologism is realized, so that the content of the microcontext facilitates the perception of the direct meanings. The following example reveals the inverted order of the idiom components and its “enlargement” - the effect delivered by the inclusion of additional words, as a result the registered in the dictionary unit is hardly recognized: “**I’m one Dutchman, and you’re another**, and that’s all about it” (Dickens, 1911, pp. 418–419).

The usage of the indefinite pronoun “another” which replaces the noun “Dutchman” is indicative of the component omission and literalization. All this aims at creating a humorous effect.

In general, the investigation of occasional usages of lexical items with the component “Dutch” reveals that structurally modified units stay neutral, and the authors use this device purely as a means of verbal humor and neglect the original semantics of the ethnonym or phraseological units with the given component. On the contrary, the semantically transformed phraseologisms with the reconstructed image or generalized metaphorical meanings realized in new contexts speak for particular opinions and beliefs about the Dutch; furthermore, the other examples are indicative of the new pejorative connotations the key word obtains.

To approach the different ways national stereotype maintenance is carried out it might be reasonable to refer to the literary discourse in terms of content rather than the language itself. In this case, the infological data should be the main focus of the research. The appearance, character, beliefs and actions were equally considered to generate the overall portrait of typical Dutch people in the eyes of the British.

This stage of the study demonstrated that the most important stereotypical beliefs of the typical Dutch national features are represented in English literary texts both explicitly and implicitly. The former may be referred to in the evaluative beliefs of the authors or heroes about the generalized image schema of Dutch people – including the way they look and their behavior. The latter touches on the focus on the Dutch origin of the characters. The most demonstrative example of the stereotype-congruent information may be found in the essay by J. K. Jerome “Idle Thoughts in 1905” (Jerome, 1905). The typical traits of an ordinary Dutchman are intentionally exaggerated by the author to deliver a humorous effect. Instead of investing a particular personage with these symbolical traits, Jerome exploits the effect of generalization. The general portrait of the given national group is based on the inner traits and, to a certain a degree, on some outer features.

To summarize the findings about typical Dutchmen collected through the analysis of English literary texts, Kobozeva’s method of data processing was applied (Kobozeva, 1995). According to her, the revealed attributes may be sorted into a few groups. For example, character traits such as “grumpiness, straightforwardness, rudeness, gallantry” may all be united by the key notion – “relation to others”. Then the relevant scale may be treated based on the gradients “grumpiness, straightforwardness” etc. Industry and clean habits are connected with

the attitude towards household activities, whereas distraction, unpunctuality along with eccentricity and weirdness assume incompliance with social conventions and etiquette etc.

Therefore, the traits revealed during the research can be considered in terms of seven graduation scales in full accord with the number of the personality "facets": intelligence, attitude to the self, attitude to the others, attitude to the environment, attitude to household activities, compliance / incompliance with social conventions and etiquette, the appearance and oppositional features, the other nationalities' common beliefs about the Dutch.

Firstly, special attention should be paid to the ratio of positive (p) and negative (n) traits of the Dutch national image (both appearance and nature is considered). Regardless of the same characteristics described, the final ratio is equal to 17(p): 9(n). It is claimed as evidence of overall favorable attitude towards the out-group members. Secondly, the available findings were further processed in terms of cross-comparative analysis of the newly discovered traits and those presented in the concept verbally expressed by the lexical item "Dutch", its derivatives and phraseological units with this component. Coincidences were identified between the characteristics like unpleasant looks, rudeness, bad manners, ill-breeding which correspond to the first layer of the concept "Dutch – in contradiction to conventional standards or negation provoking", other nations' antipathy (is relevant to the second layer of the same concept); eccentricity, weirdness – the traits united by the third – the outer layer of the same conceptual field. Apparently, the characteristics mentioned by several authors play a more important role, the fact that determines their popularity, and therefore present more intrinsic evidence of the stereotyped consciousness versus the traits stated one time only. All the contexts where beliefs of the Dutch are revealed may lead to the conclusion that there is a certain congruence of the attributes identified through the analysis of lexicographical sources on the one hand and literary contexts, on the other.

Experiment

To confirm the statement that stereotyped beliefs manifest themselves in British people's mentalities and, if so, explore the way in which they do so, a specially designed questionnaire was conducted. Two types of research methods – verbal and non-verbal – were applied to penetrate into the ethnic consciousness of individual British people at two levels: conscious and subconscious respectively. In this case, free associative portrait, the Luscher color test, characteristic grading, social distance grade, self-

semantization of the lexical items with the component "Dutch" should be mentioned. The methodology of social research at this stage was based on the ideas suggested in the works by modern researchers of cross-cultural relations. The questionnaire was distributed by Russian volunteers who permanently live in Great Britain through the social centers for the elderly, centers of social support, and community centers in the cities of Mansfield, Manchester, Oxford and Reading 2004-2010 period. The participation was not paid and ran on a voluntary basis. The average age of the respondents was 54 (19-76 years old), covering both genders and a broad range of social groups. The experiment participants were briefly informed on the aims of the research.

The questionnaire rubrics are presented in the appendix. The questions and tasks may be divided into three groups as per the objectives the study pursued. The very first part of the questionnaire (tasks 1-3, 14) comprised the control questions which were aimed at the dependence of the hetero-stereotypes and the respondents' personal experience. In the second part (4-8), which included central research questions, respondents were asked to identify and analyze the specific national characteristics the Dutch are claimed to have and find out the degree of their conformity. This part of the research was also aimed at identifying the generalized stereotyped attitudes towards the Dutch from the British side. The third part of the questionnaire (9-13) was introduced to pursue two purposes. First, it seemed reasonable to find out how popular phraseological units with the component "Dutch" in English native speech are, both receptive and productive skills considered. Second, they accounted for the urgency of the correlation between the beliefs congruent with the stereotype and the frequency the lexical items with the component "Dutch" occur in the productive and receptive speech of British people.

Most of the tasks in the questionnaire were based on the free association experiment methodology and the national group free portrayal as its subtype. Task 6 was designed as a kind of the receptive experiment.

It is important to mention here that the questionnaire was designed in full accord with conventional methods, but in some cases the tasks were modified, like in the Luscher color test (tasks 5 and 14). The testing material was changed as the colors could have mistakenly attracted the respondents' attention to the wrong things (the color of the national flag, etc.) That is why a set of abstract symbols was offered to the respondents to ensure they could not intentionally associate the shapes and Dutch culture or Dutch national character.

This set of symbols was suggested twice: first – to check their association with the typical Dutch

and second – to range the symbols as per personal preferences. The tasks were separated to ensure more objectivity. So, on the whole, it was aimed at finding out the relative indicator of unmotivated attitude towards the Dutch. The symbol associated with the Dutch was selected first by 41,6% experiment participants while 23,3% of them had it as their second choice. Apparently, these data speak about the overall positive perception of the Dutch by British respondents.

For the purpose of the given research, the respondents were asked to check the character traits in a proposed list. It was combined with the diagnostic test of attitudes, where the grades were designed in accordance with the negative connotations of the adjective “Dutch” within the phraseological units. Each grade included one sharply negative trait, the other, on the contrary, was positively marked, and the third acted as a neutral characteristic. The traits were offered in a random order as a list. Each respondent was supposed to grade the traits in relation to the conformity with the typical Dutch nature (a seven-point grade was suggested). A similar task was designed in relation to the British national character as an attempt to examine the auto-stereotypical beliefs and verify the objectiveness of the data collected.

The results of the grading were processed by calculating the arithmetic average (negative, neutral and positive traits considered). The total average of the positive traits in the Dutch national character exceeded the same of the respondents’ self-assessment (49.1 : 41.39), whereas the average for negative sides of Dutch character, on the contrary, was a little lower than that of the British themselves (46.7 : 47.34). These findings may also be interpreted as further evidence of the favorable attitude towards the Dutch by the British. It is noteworthy to mark here, however, that the total rate in relation to the neutral traits of a typical Dutchman is completely different from the same in relation to the self-assessment. As the questionnaire demonstrated, their ratio is equal to 0.6 : 1 (27.55 : 43.76). This can possibly be explained by the fact that approaching marginal rates and neutral characteristics is indirectly indicative of the stereotype influence on the national image.

The task based on the free portrayal of the national group is a variation of the free association experiment (task 4). It preceded the ready-made list of the traits in order to avoid the opportunity of the stereotyped characteristics to dominate free associations. The replies did not demonstrate the complete meeting of minds, which would speak for the stereotyped consciousness. Therefore, when processing the data we moved from the outer - lexical - to the inner - semantic - level. The analysis of all the replies suggests there are a number of descriptors they may be referred to. The similar reactions by different

participants may be united along the lines of the so-called quasi “synonyms”. For instance, the answers like “friendly”, “outgoing”, “party people”, “talkative”, “environmental” were united by the descriptor “socializing” with the sum frequency of 31.7%.

In this context it is necessary to note that in some cases the reactions offered by the respondents were totally different or, even more, contradicted one another. For instance, a number of the participants paid attention to Dutch temper, i.e. the evaluations were polar opposites: from the “quiet”, “reserved”, “thoughtful” to “active”, “sporty”, “temperamental” and “passionate” portrait. This dissimilation of the opinions reflects the lack of the shared beliefs about these traits in English consciousness.

As a result, the following character traits were recorded: 1) nice attitude towards people around / sum frequency equal to 55%; 2) liberalism, freedom of convictions /supported by 43.3%; 3) calmness, reserve, cold blood /sum frequency 36.7%; 4) high intellectual quality and good manners /shared by 35% respondents. Just about all the evaluations by the British have a positive or neutral focus. The only negative side of Dutch nature marked by the participants is associated with bad habits - marked by an insignificant number of the respondents (3.3%).

The task on the diagnostic pattern completion was processed in the same way. The experiment participants were given the interrupted phrase “They are the typical Dutch because they...” with the substantive “Dutch” to avoid the dominance of female or masculine image (Task 7). The verbal reactions were presented by either activities done by Dutch where their nature is implicitly traced, or explicit identifications of their inner traits. Interestingly, there were no replies recorded which would completely confirm negative perception of the Dutch. The largest number of the replies fell on the group that marked friendliness and sociability of the nation (21.7%); 15% of the considerations revealed the same beliefs of Dutch tolerance; 11.7% of the respondents recorded a high level of intelligence, motivation to learn, good command of foreign languages etc.

Within the discussion of the frequency of usage (task 11), the predominant answer was “once a year” (no clarification was required which items exactly were in question) that was shared by 50 per cent of the respondents, the reply that outnumbered all others. Most of the remaining participants tended to use these set expressions once a month (41.7%) or once a year (31.7%). These statistics are sure to be treated as the apparent evidence of the presence of this vocabulary in productive speech and the conversation Englishmen are exposed to.

The task to define the phraseological units with the component “Dutch”, however, brought about the results that did not fit in the general picture. Five out of

eight phraseologisms (62.2% of the total number) were explained correctly, which significantly outnumbered refusals to participate in the questionnaire or “Don’t know” comments. This should be treated as evidence of a quite high awareness of this lexis among the respondents.

Nevertheless, five out of eight items were offered incorrect definitions by some respondents, i.e. the stated meanings mismatched those registered in dictionaries. The biggest number of the incorrect definitions may be referred to the expression “Dutch uncle”: “giving a present to take it back”, “unintelligible person”, “a stern and blunt person”, “not a real uncle”, “an unrelated person you call uncle”, “stand in or a substitute uncle”. The same distortion of the meaning is found in relation to the phraseological unit “Dutch doll”, with pejorative connotations prevailing. In an effort to explain what it denotes, two experiment participants mistakenly associated it to “a prostitute”. So, the analysis of the survey findings leads to the conclusion that this sort of mistake represents the conceptual patterns “Dutch – anti, the wrong way out”, “Dutch – lusty”, “Dutch – impolite, stubborn”.

The hypothetical assumption that the results would depend heavily on the biometric and social background of the respondents was discarded due to the lack of evidence: most of the people answered the questions regardless of socio-biological group. In other words, we did not find any significant differences in the reactions given by respondents from different groups.

Discussion

On the whole, the results of the study may be summarized as follows. Any mental stereotype, in particular, ethnic stereotype as a subtype of the social one, should be treated as a concept. This presents the ground for studying it as the subject of modern cognitive linguistics. As for the English language, the key word “Dutch” and phraseological units with this component are claimed to underlie the semantics of two conceptual models. One of them is still closely connected to the Netherlands (Holland, the former Dutch Republic) as the area where a particular people with their own culture lives. The second conceptual model manifests the stereotype about the Dutch held by the British. Both conceptual models share the same historical background, as the second originally presented several layers of the first one and as time passed, gradually spun off as an independent mindset.

Stereotypes about the Dutch have significantly reduced, remaining only subconsciously represented. Most of the relevant judgments made by the respondents who permanently live in Great Britain

are quite positive. As the research has shown, the opinions do not depend much on the age, academic qualifications, or gender of the respondents.

The verbal manifestation of the prejudices against Dutchmen can be described as follows:

- The register of the English language includes the lexical unit “Dutch” and phraseological items with the same component heavily invested with pejorative connotations. In accordance with the characteristics they denote and the evaluations they express the semantic variations of the word and phraseological units with it can be divided and subdivided into groups and subgroups.
- Usual items with the component “Dutch” are widespread in English literary texts, including those by modern authors, in most cases, they are used to create a humorous effect or appeal to the readers’ negative reactions;
- The authors of the works exploit word play based on the existing phraseological units and make up their own new expressions with the same component, mostly with reference to its negative connotations;
- In some cases the attempts of British respondents to identify the unknown collocations with the component “Dutch” produce negative meanings.

Conclusion

To summarize, the theoretical assumptions that language plays a particular role in the maintenance of ethnic stereotypes has been supported by multi-level empirical research. Positive evaluations of the Dutch traced in literary works by modern authors and, more than that, distinguished by the questionnaire respondents are indicative of their dilution in modern British culture, but it would be untrue to argue that this stereotypes have become completely obsolete. Moreover, there is enough evidence of the unintentional stereotypical beliefs, with their pejorative connotations are getting more obscure.

The integrated approach makes it possible to process language items in terms of their correspondence to the basic layers of the concepts. Thus, the categorization of lexical units with the component “Dutch” on the basis of their cognitive contents (presence / absence of stereotyped beliefs about the Dutch) allowed a restoration of the fragments of the old and new mentality of the English as stereotype holders. The usual and occasional usages of the phraseological units with this component may be used to create and correct the dictionaries.

What seems apparent from the findings is that the data collected from numerous register and literary discourse contexts show a complicated picture that

language may help to better understand. It may seem reasonable to extend the scope of the research toward other ethnonyms and the cognitive spheres that stand behind them. The author would be happy to share the result of the given research, e.g. for a specialized dictionary of ethnonyms and their derivatives. Any attempts to use the results and conclusions in general courses on Cognitive Linguistics, English Lexicology, or as parts of curricula, e.g.: Phraseology, Cognitive Semantics, Ethnic Linguistics etc. are welcome.

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Appendix

Please, tick the blue triangle in the bottom right hand corner before going on!

This questionnaire is part of the Research Study on the problem of ethnical relations expressed in a language held by Elena Golubovskaya. The researcher wants your support badly and is asking you to fill it in and then send it back (elena.a.golubovskaya@gmail.com). Please forward the form to your relatives and friends if you would!

Your answers are kept strictly confidential by having the answers reported directly to the researcher.

Thank you in advance for your time in completing this form.

1. Have you ever personally interacted using email, phone, or in-person meeting with the Dutch or people who live in Holland?

- Yes, I made such contacts in the past
- Yes, I keep in touch with them at present
- No, I've never been in contact with the Dutch

If you answered "NO", Skip to Question #4

2. Are the Dutch among your... (check all that apply)

- relatives
- friends
- colleagues
- neighbours
- acquaintances
- pen pals ?

3. How often do you connect a person / people of this nationality?

- very often (every day)
- often (once a week)
- from time to time (once a fortnight)
- seldom (once a month)
- hardly ever, as an exception (once a year)

4. How can you characterize the typical Dutch? Give the traits to associate with them which came into your mind first of all.

- a)
- b)
- c)
- d)
- e)
- f)
- g)
- h)

5. Choose from among the symbols below the one you would associate with the typical Dutch-image.



6. Which of the traits below do you consider to be typical of the Dutch? The British? Fill in the table below to mark the typical traits on the scale of seven points:

Trait	The degree to which it's typical of the Dutch (of its conformity with the Dutch character)	The degree to which it's typical of the British
Unselfconscious		
Good judges of wine		
Brave		
Nuisances		
Alcohol addicted		
Precautious		
Lovers of teaching		
Coward		
Vicious		
Careless		
Careful		
Economical		
Courteous		
Rude		
Generous		
Close-tongued		
Modest		
Indifferent to alcohol		
Greedy		

7. Mark the relationships that seem acceptable for the Dutch to have. Check all that apply.

- Your wife / husband
- Your friend
- Your colleague
- Your boss
- Your acquaintance
- Your neighbour
- A foreign tourist in your country
- None is acceptable

8. Complete the following sentence:

These people are typical Dutch because they...

9. Please fill in the following table.

Dutch-idioms	How do you understand the following expressions? Define each of them in your own words.	Check the set phrases you use while speaking	Check the set phrases being used
I'm a Dutchman if...			
go Dutch			
Double Dutch			
Dutch uncle			
Dutch courage			
Dutch sale			
Dutch doll			
Dutch cheese			

10. Do you use other Dutch-expressions while speaking. Which of them? If you answered "NO", Skip to Question #11.

11. How often do you use Dutch-expressions while speaking (ignore how many and which of them)?

- very often (every day)
- often (once a week)
- from time to time (once a fortnight)
- seldom (once a month)
- hardly ever, as an exception (once a year)
- never

12. Do you hear other people make remarks using other set Dutch-expressions? What are they? If you answered "NO", Skip to Question #14.

13. How often (on average) do you hear other people make remarks using set Dutch-expressions (ignore which exactly and how many of them).

- very often (every day)
- often (once a week)
- from time to time (once a fortnight)
- seldom (once a month)
- hardly ever, as an exception (once a year)
- never

14. Rank from like to dislike the numbers of the symbols below according to your own preferences:



15. Please provide information about yourself.

a) Name and surname

b) Age

- under 20
- 21-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- over 50

c) Gender

- Male
- Female

d) Education

- High School
- BA
- Master
- Ph. D
- other (please specify)

e) Occupation

f) Residence

g) City

h) Country

16. Feel free to add any further comments and recommendations if any

Cognitive Aspect of Intercultural Communication

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The research of cognitive aspects of intercultural communication is aimed to explore national linguistic consciousness, its peculiarities in order to determine the universal basics which make the intercultural communication possible while preserving national cultural identity and language diversity. This scientific analysis can become a background for developing skills of comprehending foreign speech and providing learning and teaching paths towards communication competence in accordance with Common European Framework of References for Languages. The analysis of texts has shown a fast-growing process of penetration of *anglicisms* into national languages which leads to obvious structural changes in the national languages. The effects of this interference on cognitive process should be studied and discussed as there is a strong awareness that substituting foreign verbal means for the native ones leads to weakening the immunity of the national language consciousness in general and undermines the national traditions of verbal communication approved and used by a national community. The linguistic analysis of professional activities of interpreters in the process of consecutive translation, students' experimental work with texts and material for comprehension and translation in class, survey of psychological tests on perception mechanism made it possible to describe a cognitive scheme of human reflection and interpretation of the real world and its developments which make up the contents of perceived texts during listening and reading. The concept of a subject whose activities are performed at a certain place at a certain time can be given the status of a three-coordinate (subject, place, time) cognitive scheme. The didactic exploitation of this cognitive scheme is seen in teaching students to identify these coordinates in the process of comprehending speech or text and thus to perceive its message by structuring and organizing the information. It is thought to be an effective method of developing productive communication skills as well as to be a reliable scientific basis to create and exploit learning and teaching techniques of handling and integrating information, including that of taking notes and organizing received facts in the process of consecutive translation.

Keywords: cognition, cognitive scheme, translation, communication

The research of a cognitive scheme to develop receptive skills of listening and reading of foreign speech is aimed at constructing learning and teaching paths towards communication competence in accordance with Common European Framework of References for Languages.

Contemporary studies in linguistics and psychology have proved that verbal communication should be considered an interaction of people who are determined to cooperate. Life in society makes a person use words (of a native or foreign language) to communicate with other people in order to achieve his /her aims and satisfy his/ her needs. In short,

a person handles his/her interlocutors, affecting their behavior, way of thinking, activity. On the other hand, social interaction obliges a person to correlate his/her speech with communicative situation which is characterized primarily by such parameters as *agent(s)*, *space* and *time*. We call these parameters *deictic coordinates*. They form a framework of a verbal communication by correlating speech with relevant agents, space and time.

Our comparative analysis of grammar of different languages has discovered that this organization of verbal interaction has a universal nature, but engages specific means in different languages (Kurbakova,

2014, pp. 131-139). It enables to enrich the traditional usage of the term of *deixis* in the theory of indication with explanation of its motives and functions in verbal communication. We suggest *deixis* should be interpreted as a linguistic mechanism of correlation between speech, subjective motivation and objective situation *where* and *when* agents act or plan their actions. Thus *who*, *where* and *when* shall constitute a backbone of discourse.

By implementing this mechanism in speech a person reflects the objective system of interaction but subjectively, in accordance with his/ her personal concepts of agent(s) (his/ her character, motivation, activity and proposed reaction to discourse). Moreover, the research has demonstrated national peculiarities of deictic words. In different languages we can observe different means of indication of agent(s), place and time of verbal communication. Most languages have special classes of *deictic* words (i.e. nouns and pronouns indicate *agent(s)*, grammatical forms of verbs and corresponding adverbs indicate *time*, nouns with propositions and corresponding adverbs indicate *space*. Evidently, it is reasonable enough to determine the deictic potential and deictic scale of words in every language.

We suppose that this mechanism of coordinating verbal communication with the help of deictic markers of *agent*, *space* and *time* plays a basic role in speech interaction due to the following reasons. Firstly, it provides speech with structure an order thus enabling us to escape chaos in communication. Secondly, these deictic markers assist a person in comprehension and cognition of the world. Thirdly, we should state the dual character of these deictic markers: they indicate agent(s), space and time (which have objective nature) as a result of a person's mental activity thus integrating objective and subjective factors.

The concept of a subject whose activities are performed at a certain place at a certain time can be given the status of a three-coordinate (subject, place, time) cognitive scheme.

Materials and Methods

Psychology of Speech. Text Organization

Any text as a result of speech activities may be considered as a system integrating mutually dependent elements. A word can be characterized as a basic verbal element of a text. Verbal elements – signs – belong to the material world, but they implement the ideal world of human perception, conception and intention.

From the philosophical point of view the organization of a text as a verbal system is defined as its structure which supposes integration of verbal

elements, their interrelationship. Thus a text can be considered as a system whose elements make up a whole product of both material and idealistic nature. Its contents should be interpreted as a combination of meanings of its verbal elements and correlations between them.

The research of speech communication as a system started more than five decades ago. It was Roman Jakobson who suggested that linguistics should analyse speech with consideration of all factors relating to it such as “inherent characteristics of verbal utterance itself, its addressant and addressee who is either actual or supposed by the addressant to be a recipient” (Jakobson, 1985, p. 319).

Communicative Intention

Text informativity is formed by information of its verbal elements and correlations between them. In its turn, when we consider the text structure and information it bears, we have to consider extra linguistic factors characterizing the communication situation and, first of all, the deictic triad – who, when and where performs some activities to fulfil one's intentions. We have already analysed the reason of usage of verbal means in speech in our previous works on *deixis* (Kurbakova, 2014, pp. 131-139). In our research we referred to the results of the Moscow school of psycholinguistics in exploring speech communication (Tarasov, 2005).

The correlation with extra linguistic factors of the text is reasonable enough as it is included in human activities in a situation when and where it is necessary to use speech with its verbal means to organize communication. The described deictic organization of a text is thought to be relevant to relations between subjects performing some activities in space and time. These relations are perceived by communication agents and implemented by them with the help of verbal (linguistic) signs in a text. It is obvious enough that the text should be described as a result of speech activities intended to produce some effect on a recipient. We believe it should be defined as the general intention of speech.

The above mentioned researches have proved that correlation between meanings of verbal (linguistic) signs in a text and situational factors. Before articulating an utterance an addressant shall perceive, analyse and reflect the real life situation where communication is held, accumulate information, firstly, about basic coordinates of *agent*, *space* and *time*, and store the perceptions as gained intellectual experience. For instance, on hearing an utterance ‘*An aircraft is flying high in the sky*’ a grown-up shall use his/ her experience which is stored in the form of concepts. His/her consciousness shall produce a picture of this

activities on the basis of the cognitive scheme: *who/what* performs these activities *where* and *when*. If it is necessary and, of course, possible, the addressee (recipient) shall specify what it is not clear to him/her and has to be defined more accurately.

In this context it is worth mentioning that our speech and consciousness don't coincide largely, in other words, what we say doesn't necessarily coincide with what we think about something. And moreover, we do it purposely: we don't pronounce all we keep in mind due to objective reasons and subjective motives. We won't dwell on this very interesting scientific problem of human psychology, speech communication, ethics and ethnics in this paper: it is planned to be the subject of our next report. But now we have to state that our speech is affected by numerous factors of intellectual, moral, physical, psychic, mental, ethical nature.

L. Vygotsky, a prominent Russian scholar, who achieved great results in the studies of psychology and linguistics, noted that perception is characterized by simultaneous developments in human consciousness, whereas speech is successive (Vygotsky, 1999, p. 318): "Verbal communication resembles a stream which combines various means of linguistic and nonlinguistic origin, speech elements are used purposely and intended to exert some impact on recipients, to manipulate addressees" (Vygotsky, 1999, p. 318).

Results and Discussion

Cognitive Scheme. Deictic Triad

Recent researches have proved that elements of the text are not equal as far as the amount and value of the information and impact they possess. It means that human perception and reflection of the outer world is carried out by highlighting the most important information.

The concept of a subject whose activities are performed at a certain place at a certain time can be defined a cognitive triad (subject, space, time). Obviously we can give this triad a status of basic cognitive scheme which enables us to understand the meaning of a text as a whole. On the other hand, basing on these coordinates – who, where and when – communicating agents may describe the situation relevantly. Firstly, the deictic scheme provides speech with structure and order thus enabling us to escape chaos in communication. Secondly, these deictic markers assist a person in comprehension and cognition of the world. Thirdly, we should state the dual character of these deictic markers: they indicate agent(s), space and time (which have objective nature)

as a result of a person's mental activity thus integrating objective and subjective factors in communication.

It is worth mentioning that this scheme helps transform mental elements into speech elements. This transformation is believed to be very complex and evasive to apprehend and describe.

Quantum Structure

We suppose that a text has a quantum structure. We consider that deictic words imply the most important information about the communicative situation. In this context we should dwell on such a phenomenon as lingual redundancy which was first defined in the works of R. Minyar-Beloruhev (Minyar-Beloruhev, 1996). To illustrate this phenomenon we can analyze any SMS message. In order to minimize a text to print only important (communicatively reasonable) information is given in such texts: i.e. request-message "Where are you?" – answer-message "At home", "Who is in charge?" – "Me", "When will you come?" – "Tomorrow". We often use O.K. to agree to something. All forms of military commands and salutes are believed to be reasonable illustrations of the attempt to avoid redundancy in speech.

Verbal Redundancy

The reason for the phenomenon of verbal redundancy in speech can be found in human mental mechanisms of processing the received information from the outer world: information is accumulated unevenly by various elements of an utterance, with deictic words bearing the biggest amount of information about *who*, *where* and *when* perform some activities.

We think it is reasonable enough to compare an utterance in speech with wave process: in order to draw the partner's attention to some component of the communicative situation the corresponding element is verbalized explicitly while the rest components are perceived from presuppositions. In outer speech only one deictic parameter may be indicated while the rest – clear from the previous utterances – are not verbalized.

Hence, students should be trained to process the information they perceive, to single out the informative peaks – deictic parameters we have described earlier, to reproduce this information in translation relevantly. This skill is of vital importance not only for interpreters but also for pilots and servicemen. The researches have shown that verbal redundancy in radio traffic communication is estimated at the level of 96 %.

Consecutive Translation. Precision Information

The analysis of verbal redundancy in a text has proved the necessity of the deictic cognitive scheme which helped to formulate a theoretical platform for practical skills of comprehending and reproducing texts both in native and foreign languages. This practice is of invaluable assistance in consecutive translation.

Consecutive translation is characterized by fast switch from one language to the other in the process of interpreting of the original text. The interpreter does his/her best to catch the most important information in the text by memorizing, first of all, *who*, *where* and *when* performs the activities described in the text. To memorize these facts which are called *precision information*, because they must be translated absolutely precisely, an interpreter concentrates his attention and tries to take notes of these coordinates. Then he/she shall make use of these notes to translate accurately.

The deictic cognitive scheme proves to be grounds for methods and principles of concise recording of information in the process of consecutive translation. Admitting the fact of verbal redundancy in an utterance we suppose that an interpreter should focus on the most informative elements of the speech, predominantly the deictic parameters.

Prognostication

When students are taught to apprehend a text on the basis of the deictic cognitive scheme it enables them to process information relevantly and effectively, and even to assess and prognosticate the results of communication.

The studies of psychological mechanisms of speech and translation we have referred to above, demonstrated that prognostication is quite possible because speech consists of interrelated elements. From the informative point of view elements of the utterance may have different information potential: there are some elements referring to the situation which has already been described and perceived by communicating partners. Those elements which bear no new information can be called as redundant as they comment or explain what has already been mentioned. Such elements are defined as commentary to the topic which implies new, most important information about the situation.

Thus we may conclude that elements of the utterance bear different information value: some are redundant and may be omitted, and some imply the intention of the communication. There is a very important point: information in a text is concentrated on deictic peaks composing the cognitive scheme, the focus of the communicative act.

Informative Value of Speech Elements

Due to different informative value of elements an utterance may be divided into segments possessing different information potential. The deictic triad may be considered a basis to perceive, evaluate, reproduce, assess information. As we have noted verbal means are characterized by different potential of indicating deictic parameters of the situation. Moreover the use of deictic linguistic signs is determined by subjective characteristics of the agent depending on his/her communicative intentions.

We believe that the deictic triad plays the role of objective framework of an utterance in speech, but this coordinates are implemented in speech due to subjective reasons and intentions, general purpose of communication. On the other hand, we can assess the motives of a speaker judging from verbal means used in his/her speech to name subject, place and time. Let's appreciate the efforts a translator / interpreter does to translate adequately. The following example shows how important is the information included in indication of subjects, and how different are verbal means used in different communication surroundings. This advice is given by Lynn Visson: "Since today's world newspapers, radio and television programs around the globe are all too often filled with accounts of terrorist attacks, suicide bombings and other such horrific acts, the Russian-English/ English – Russian translator or interpreter is well advised to have a variety of synonyms in his active linguistic baggage... The individual who carries out such acts is the '*perpetrator*', and he '*commits*', '*carries out*' or '*perpetrates*' his evil deeds. The individuals who order him to do so '*заказчики*' or '*зачинщики*' are the '*masterminds*', '*ringleaders*' or '*instigators*' of violence. While the word '*бандиты*' often comes up in reference to terrorists, the English word '*bandits*' should be avoided. A far better translation is '*thug*', '*пособники*' or '*приспешники*' of terrorists are their '*henchmen*', '*accomplices*', or *those who aid and abet terrorists*'" (Visson, 2002, p. 48).

The deictic cognitive scheme is regarded as a theoretical basis for analysis of verbal communication in modern society both at national and global levels: the associative responses to stimulus words denoting agents in some communicative situation may be considered from the scientific point of view as demonstration of social climate including relations between ethnic and religious communities. Contemporary studies in psycholinguistics are developing methods of assessment of moral climate in modern societies, i.e. degrees of aggressiveness between ethnic groups and confessions (Tikhonova, 2014), and the deictic cognitive scheme may be attached to effective tools for linguistic diagnosing.

Grammatical Aspects

From the grammatical point of view the utterance usually corresponds to a sentence with its grammatical structure: in most languages we try to analyze subject and predicate, as they imply the most valuable information about the situation and activities, and adverbial modifiers of time and place which specify the information given by subject and predicate. Thus we may define the deictic triad – *who, where, when* (WWW) – as the cognitive scheme to organize information in speech.

The application of the WWW in comprehension enables us to define the so-called *information bits*: i.e. the analysis of the following sentence ‘*Yesterday the French President arrived in Brussels on a two-day visit*’ on the basis of the deictic triad may provide such information bits as *who – French President, where – Brussels, when – yesterday*. The verb in its grammatical form predominantly provides information on activities, and this basic information is completed by other modifiers.

Lexical Aspects

In this paper we’d like to dwell shortly on a very interesting problem of intercultural communication which is closely connected with implementation of the discussed cognitive scheme, namely the personal coordinate (*subject/who*) in written texts.

Personal (proper) names of characters in literature are very difficult phenomenon for perception and translation because they imply a great deal of cultural information referring to national traditions and way of life. We shall give one example: V. Garshin, a Russian writer (XIX century), wrote a story titled “Signal” (Garshin, 1981) where he describes the character of Semen and his wife and how they sought their luck by moving from one place to another: ‘*Пришлось им в своей деревне невтерпеж; пошли на новые места счастья искать. Побывал Семен с женой и на Линии, и в Херсоне, и в Доницине, нигде счастья не достали*’. As this story was written in late 1880s it is necessary to explain that Semen is travelling about kasak lands – along the Don river, Liniya is a chain of fortifications on southern borders of the Russian state, close to ancient Kherson in the south of Russia. We have analyzed the translation of the story given by Lizzie B. Gorin in 1907. We have concluded that the translator found an adequate method of interpreting the geographical names of Donshina and Kherson which bear very important historical information in the text: she adds *government* to the proper name to explain the status of the territory, but obviously she failed to find similar explanation of Liniya and made a decision to omit this information, but most texts don’t bear

such loose approach to interpretation. This is the translation by L. Gorin of this paragraph: ‘*They could no longer stay in their native village, and decided to go into new places in search of better luck. Semen lived with his wife on the Don for some time, and in the Government of Kherson, but they somehow couldn’t get along very well anywhere*’.

Another example from modern literature underscores the point regarding translating cultural content. In the novel *The Edge of Reason* (Filding, 2001) H. Filding uses two geographical names *Pompeii* and *Slough* as characteristics of way of life (not only to mark the place). It is common knowledge that Pompeii perished due to disastrous volcano eruption which nobody could predict. But the name of *Slough*, a calm outskirts of the big city, is clear to the those who live in London. That is why a translator should provide explanation to create an adequate picture of the described situation: ‘*Just imagine if Pompeii-style volcano erupted south of Slough, and everyone was preserved in stone on bicycles wearing puppies, eiderdowns and daughters, future generations would come and laugh at spiritual emptiness of it*’.

Modern literature provides numerous examples of usage proper names of personalities or celebrities which are known only in the national culture of the original language, and a translator has to provide this extra linguistic information in comments, because these names are important to describe the character. The following examples are taken from the mentioned above book by H. Filding: ‘*I’m thinking bunny girl, I’m thinking Gladiator, I’m thinking canvassing MP. I’m thinking Chris Serle meets Jerry Springer meets Annela Rice meets Zoe Ball meets Mike Smith of the Late, Late Breakfast Show*’ (Filding, 2001, p. 11), ‘*Everyone knows that Anjelica Huston never, ever rang Jack Nicholson, and that men cannot bear not to be the pursuer*’ (Filding, 2001, p. 17), ‘*I’m sportswoman in manner of Princess Anne!*’ (Filding, 2001, p. 37), ‘*A rather more attractive version of George Clooney*’ (Filding, 2001, p. 102). All these names seem unfamiliar to readers who are not part of the English language culture, but they are used by the writer purposely, and they bear information about the communicative situation described in the book, and if this book is translated, the translator should do his/her best to provide adequate extra linguistic information. And then it is up to a reader to like this literature or not, to accept such cultural values or not. In this context, we have to recognize that translated literature can be used as a tool of promoting foreign cultural values and traditions

English Loanwords in National Languages

In the modern globalizing world the problem of saving individual characters of national languages

is extremely acute. As a result of expansion of the English language which claims to be *lingua franca*, many European and Slavic languages see the formation of a pseudo-English language which is not only used in intercultural communication, but in the communication between members of one non-English language community. English borrowings in many languages are treated as native words. They cram mass media from advertising to television, radio and press, we can see them on signboards in the streets. Thus, the penetration of *anglicisms* into other languages affects the formation of the linguistic consciousness of the younger generation and results in the so-called conglomerate phenomenon, that is mixing of national languages with the English language. This phenomenon can not be called *borrowing* because it does not interact with the language system of any national language but destroys it and causes large-scale structural changes. English loanwords that enter national languages often clutter up them.

For example, in the German language there is a phrase *Zukunft-Energieren: jetzt active gemanagt (gemanagt instead of geregelt)*. In the example above the English verb to manage has preserved the phonetic form of the English root but in order to form the past tense it has been changed in accordance with the rule of forming the past participle in the German language. Besides, such lexical units as *Bühnenshow, Flugticket, Pattencover, Erfolgsstory, Jobeinstieg, Business-to-Consumer-Geschäft, Partnerlook* etc. are widely used.

In the French language there are such expressions as *le goût du relooking, la Star, job principal* – foreground job, *il a un bon job* – he has a good job; *faire shopping, faire jogging* [dʒɔgiŋ], *il y a du love dans l'air; C'est vraiment une success story* and others.

While the English language penetrates the German and French languages more or less smoothly due to their common origin, the process of incorporation of *anglicisms* into the Russian language, that does not have “blood kinship” with English has a negative effect on the language structure integrity of the Russian language and contributes to the loss of its expressiveness. Thus, such phrases as *прекрасный лук* [luk] from the English *look* (instead of *стиль или внешний вид* in the Russian language), *опенинг* [ɔpɛniŋ] from the English *opening* or *эндинг* [ɛndiŋ] *фильма* from English ending of a film (instead of «начало или конец фильма» in the Russian language), to say nothing of the expression «*делать шопинг*» (instead of «*делать покупки*») are used quite often, especially by young people.

The preliminary results of recent research into structural changes in the Russian, French and German languages have demonstrated the expansion of *anglicisms* in the system of each language under

consideration in all spheres of speech activity of national communities.

The linguistic phenomenon of borrowing new words has proved to be quite reasonable due to progress in technological and scientific spheres as well as in social communication, especially intercultural. Being a dynamic open system of verbal signs, a language carries out its task of a means of verbal communication both at a national and international, strictly speaking intercultural, levels by developing its own linguistic resources. This development includes a step-by-step process of borrowing new words, mainly scientific and technical terms. The fast developing information technologies provide an enormous corps of such terms: these English loanwords are widely used in professional IT communities and by non-professionals who use various electronic devices, gadgets, PCs, etc. For instance, we have witnessed the use of the term *multiplex* with the meaning of a set of TV and radio broadcasting channels employing the same digital channel, in French, German and Russian: *French – Multiplex, German – Multiplex, Russian – мультиплекс*; the same goes to the English monitor: *монитор* [monit'or] in Russian, *moniteur* in French, *der Monitor* in German. The English *media* is used in German *die Medien*, in French *les médias*, in Russian *медиа* [media].

The French language has assimilated the English *blog* without any changes: *le blog* [blɔg] ; *blogue* (meaning Web-site), the same goes to the Russian *блог* [blɔg]. But the German has preferred *das Webseit* – (*Webseit* which is a synonym of *blog*).

The English word *interview* has penetrated into the French language with slight phonetic changes *une interview* [ɛtɛrvju]: *accorder interview à* – *to give smb an interview*; into German and Russian without any changes: *das Interview* [-'vju:], *интервью* [intɛrv'ju]. The same goes to the English *Internet* : *das Internet* in German, *Internet, réseau Internet* in French; *интернет* in Russian.

The English *hacker* has been transliterated by Russian into *хакер* ['haker] (naming a person violating computer network), by German into *der Hacker* ['hɛkɛr]. But the French language has preserved its national word combination *le pirate informatique* which functions simultaneously with the English loanword *le hacker* ['akɛr]. But the English *gadget* and *device* have anchored only in the Russian as transcription *гаджет* and its synonym *девайс* without any changes in their meaning. It is necessary to point out that in the Russian language there are its own verbal means to determine those things “*техническое устройство, приспособление, техника*”. And the English *networking* has anchored only in the French vocabulary: *le networking (le réseautage)*.

We consider that this process of borrowing technical terms to name innovations in the spheres of science and technology can be justified by natural reasons: a product invented or created is named by its inventor or creator in his/her native language or mainly according to the language spoken in the professional community, i.e. English in the sphere of information technologies.

Simultaneously, we harbor great concern with the other trend in using loan words: substituting foreign verbal means, including word and word combinations, grammar rules, word order, for the native ones. We believe that the language spoken by an ethnic community is the basis of its culture. The unreasonable expansion of Anglicisms can be considered as a threat to national cultural traditions since the substitution both of foreign (in our case) English vocabulary and grammar for national verbal structures, and of foreign ideas and values for national ones.

It has been proved that every word (text) should be assessed by its message to the recipient. Contemporary studies in linguistics and psychology have proved that verbal communication should be considered an interaction of people who are determined to cooperate. Life in society makes a person use words (of a native or foreign language) to communicate with other people in order to achieve his /her aims and satisfy his/ her needs. In short, a person handles his/her interlocutors, affecting their behavior, way of thinking, activity.

The process of acquisition of a national language is considered as a profound component of acquisition of national traditions, values, culture and finally, national identity. The language plays a basic role in forming a human personality by providing information about national perception of the world, mentality and ethics. The tradition of analyzing correlation between a national language and national character goes back to W. von Humboldt (Humboldt, 1984). J. L. Weisgerber (Weisgerber, 2004) wrote about a language as intermediary between a person and the outer world. The language is designated to implement intellectual, spiritual, cultural advance. The language possesses specific power to formulate personal perception of the world, and in this way it effects the national culture. Any national language may portrays cultural, including intellectual and moral, characteristics of both a person and nation he/she belongs to. Every national language is thought to be an instrument of verbal communication of the corresponding nation: it verbalizes the concepts formed by the nation. These peculiarities are determined by extra linguistic reasons, first of all, by national traditional spiritual values, activities and way of life (Kurbakova, Kurchenko, 2014).

In the sphere of culture, especially music and cinema, the usage of terms of the English origin to name new phenomena which are also mainly of the English origin, is quite natural and reasonable. For instance, the English *rock* functions in Russian like *рок* [rok], in French – *le rock*, in German – *der Rock*, as well as in their derivatives: *rock and roll* – *рок-н-ролл* in Russian, *le rock (and roll)* [rɔk(ɛnrɔl)] in French.

The languages under consideration borrowed jazz: *джаз* [dʒæz] in Russian, *der Jazz* [dʒæz] in German, *le jazz* [dʒa:az] in French and its derivatives: *джаз-банд* (*бэнд*) in Russian, *die Jazzband* [ˈdʒæzbɛnt] in German, *le jazz-band* [dʒazbãd] in French after the English *jazz band*. We can also find the Russian *джазмен* (to name a member of a jazz-band), the French *jazzman* [dʒazman] (*jazzmen*), the German *der Jazzmusiker* which derived from the English *jazzman*. It is worth mentioning that the German language tried to adapt the word to its grammar rules. The English music term *soul* (a genre of Afro-American music) is used by musicians in Russian like a transcription *-соул*, in German like a transliteration with slight phonetic changes *Soul* [sɔ:l], in French – *soul* [sul]. The same goes to the following music terms: *hit*, *singl*, *track*, *soundtrack*, *poster*. The words were borrowed together with the cultural phenomena. Their origin is quite clear.

But what is the reason for substituting the English star for common words in national languages? Nowadays we can read about *star* in the meaning of “celebrity” in German *der Star* [st-], in French *le star* [star] in the same context. In the Russian language this word of the English origin is alien to the normal Russian tradition, it is widely imposed on the public by mass media and advertisements: *Синема Стар* [sinema star] (*the name of a cinema*), *Суперстар* [superstar] (*the name of a film*, “СуперСтар” – Ты узнаешь её” (advertisement).

The three languages under consideration employ the English *thriller*: *триллер* [ˈtrilɐr] in Russian, *le thriller* [srilɛr, tri-] in French, *der Thriller* [ˈθɪrlɛr] in German; the English *remake*: *римэйк* [rɪˈme:k] in Russian, *le remake* [rimɛk] in French, *das Remake* [rɪˈme:k] in German; the English *show*: *шоу* in Russian, *le show* in French, *die Show* [ʃo:], *die Schau* in German.

It is very important to highlight the fact that the English loanwords can enrich their meaning by additional connotations on the basis of metaphor which is usually based on national cultural traditions of conceptualization (Ganyushina, 2014, pp. 33-40). It proves the proposition that foreign concepts may penetrate and even distort national linguistic consciousness interfering with progress of a national language. For instance, the English word *flash* has lately enriched its meaning and nowadays it is used in the French with all its connotations: *le flash* – “light, inspiration, memories”, e.g. 1) *C'est en mangeant*

un Mister Steer, à côté du cinéma Parisien, que j'ai eu mon FLASH: il y avait peut-être un moyen de rejoindre Mathieu, après tout, sans avoir à attendre l'ouverture de La Cachette (Tremblay, 1992, p. 50). The Russian language employs this anglicism флеш only in the meaning of “urgent short interview or report from a scene of action”. The German language – *der Flash* in the meaning of *short shot* or *a moment when a drug has the first effect*. Meanwhile the French has borrowed the English *scoop* – *un scoop* (*avoir la primeur, en exclusivité*) to name *the priority of publishing some urgent (fleshy) news*. These linguistic facts may prove that an anglicism penetrating in various languages can accumulate different meanings which can't be considered as a valid basis for intercultural communication. In this context the role of the English language as *lingua franca* remains doubtful.

Moreover, the interference of anglicisms into national languages provide arguments to assume that their usage in speech is alien to native speakers as they often don't understand the meanings of new, 'trendy', foreign words which can provoke misunderstanding and commotion. Let's discuss some examples.

The English *manager* has interfered in the German vocabulary as *der Manager* (instead of the German term *der Geschäftsführer*), in the French – *le manager* (instead of the French words: *le chef, le directeur, le gérant, le gestionnaire*), in the Russian – *менеджер* or sometimes even *манеджер*. Moreover, in Russian *the manager* is applied not only to some authoritative leader, but also to those who are involved in retail or wholesale: *менеджеры по продажам, менеджеры по закупкам*, etc.

The following illustrations may also testify to our proposition:

the English *provider* – German *der Provider*, Russian – *провайдер*, but in French we have failed to find this anglicism;

the English *merchandising* – Russian *мерчендайзинг* [ˈmɛ:ʃəndæzɪŋ], (this word sounds strange for the Russian phonetics), German *das Merchandising* [ˈmɛ:ʃəndæzɪŋ], French *le merchandising* [mɛʁʃɑ̃dɑʒɪŋ] (вместо *le marchandisage*), but it is interesting to note that the English *merchandiser* has penetrated only the Russian vocabulary (fortunately not commonly used) *мерчендайзер*. The same refers to the English *realtor* – Russian *риэлтор*;

the English *dealer* has different meanings and connotations in French, German and Russian: *der Dealer* [ˈdi:lɔr] – 1) a person involved in trade, 2) a person involved in drug traffic; *le dealer* – a person working on the exchange; in Russian *дилер* – a person involved in retail or wholesale trade, professional on the exchange. The English *leader* is widely used now in German – *der Leader*, in French – *le leader* [lidɔr], as well as its derivative *le leadership*, in Russian *лидер*.

The analysis of every day speech of common people has shown that some *anglicisms* have become very trendy and popular among especially young people who are learning English at school or in colleges. This tendency should not be ignored: children and students, parents and teachers, scholars and writers – all those who are involved in work with a national language, even teachers of foreign languages, should pay major attention to their national language and culture. Teachers of foreign languages are supposed to get students acquainted with linguistic diversity, other national languages and traditions teaching them to cherish and maintain their own language, national culture and values. Let's discuss some illustrations.

In the languages under consideration the English *shopping* is used instead of their national verbal means: in French *le shopping*, in German *das Shopping* [ˈʃɔpɪŋ], in Russian *шопинг* [ˈʃɔpɪŋ]. Moreover the word combination *to do shopping* was transliterated into Russian (*делать шопинг*). Though the modern Russian language doesn't suffer from scarcity of verbal means to name this phenomenon: *совершать покупки, бродить по городу с посещением магазинов*. The same refers to:

the English *business* – *le business* in French, *das Business* in German, *бизнес* in Russian;

the English *outsider* – *l'outsider* in French; *der Outsider* in German (alongside with *der Außenseiter*), *аутсайдер* in Russian,

the English *racket* – *das Racket* [ˈrɛkət] in German, *le racket* [raket] in French, *ркет* in Russian;

the English *freelancer* – *der Freelancer* in German, *фрилансер* in Russian, but there is no such *anglicism* in French;

the English *book* can be found only in French: *le book* as a note-book, but its derivative *overbooking* is used in French press – *l'overbooking* (instead of *la Surréservation*). It is worth mentioning that this word has interfered in the Russian language – *овербукинг*: this phenomenon is being discussed in mass media, but is not described in any official document.

It is evident that mass media make a major “contribution” to this verbal substitution. For instance, the anglicism *draft* was used in *Le Monde* as ‘a variant of a text’: “*Le Monde a réussi à se procurer le draft (“bouillon”) de l'accord souhaité à Copenhague ... Un texte mis au point, en secret, par la Chine avec le Brésil, l'Inde, l'Afrique du Sud et le Soudan – en tant que président du G77, qui regroupe les pays en développement. Ce document confidentiel est leur réponse au texte..., ce document est intitulé « Copenhague accord (draft) (Multiplication)*”. In the Russian language anglicism *драфт* is used in business sphere alongside with the word *проект*. In German there is a term *Draft-Modus* with the meaning of ‘*special regime for printing*'.

Recent researches of modern German have proved that official vocabulary coexists with commonly

used *anglicisms*, e.g. the English *team* prevails over *die Mannschaft* not only in sport. Usually the process of borrowing is implicit: correspondents describing the US policy use the word *Administration* avoiding the national *Regierung*, interpreters practice *Dallas-Deutsch* in numerous films about the American way of life using alien word and word combinations like *keine Idee* instead of *keine Ahnung*; *wir sehen uns später* instead of *bis dann*; *ihr Jungs* instead of *ihr*.

The expansion of information technologies and Internet has caused appearance of such words in the Russian language as *gadshety* (from *gadget*), *servery* (from *server*), *vebsayty* and *vebmastery* (from *website* and *webmaster*), *lep topy* (from *laptop*), *tehnikeskiye pisateli* (from *technical writers*) instead of a Russian word combination “*sostaviteli tehnikesloy dokumentazii*”, *fleshky* (short from *flash drive*), *karty pamyati* (from *memory cards*), *draivery* (from *англ. drives*), MP [эм нэ] *pleyery* (from *MP player*) and even verbs to indicate actions: *laiknut'* (from *to like*), *chatit'sya* (from *to chat*), *zachekinit'sya* (from *to check in*) instead of the commonly used Russian word “*zaregistrirovat'sya*”, etc.

This tendency to substitute foreign – preferably, English – words for ones from national languages can be seen in speech of not only young users of Internet, but also teachers and professors: we have managed to collect about 40 *anglicisms* from a 40-minute report of a Russian speaking lecturer. It seemed that she was speaking the so called Russian English:

- “*draft* (from *draft*) *programmy obychniya*” instead of “*proekt*”,
- “*investirovat'* (from *invest*) *vremya v podgotovku studentov*” instead of “*tratit' vremya na podgotovku studentov*”,
- “*topovaya pozitsiya* (from *top position*)” instead of “*vysokaya dolzhnost'*”,
- “*trebovat' professional'noy ekspertizy* “ (from *professional expertise*) instead of “*professinal'nykh navykov*”,
- “*turnove* (from *turnover*) *personala*” instead of “*smena kadrovogo sostava*”;
- “*эссессмен* (from *assessment*) *zentr*” instead of “*zent ozenki (professinal'nykh kachestv personala)*”;
- “*simulyaziya* (from *simulation*)” instead of “*modelirovaniye situazii*”;
- “*guru menedshment*” (from *guru* and *management*) instead of “*primer nastavnika*”;
- “*biznes keisy*” (from *business case*) instead of “*sluchai iz praktiki*”; “*zapadniye keysy*” instead of “*sluchai iz proaktiki zapadnykh kompaniy*”;
- “*brending*” (from *branding*) *prepodavateley*» instead of “*poddershka prepodavateley na rynke truda*”;
- “*znat' svoi biznes*” (from *business*)» instead of “*znat' svoy delo*”;
- “*strategicheskiy [эўч ап] HR* (from *human resources*)» instead of “*strategiya razvitiya kadrov*”;

- “*motivazionniy spiker*” (from *motivation* and *speaker*)» instead of “*agitator*”;
- “*reyting*” (from *rating*) instead of “*ozenka*”.

The mentioned above facts show that the process of English interference in national languages is uneven. Further research is needed to analyze why some *anglicisms* easily penetrate the system of national languages, how national languages can resist this interference.

Process of Consecutive Translation. Perception and Reflection

The deictic scheme provides relevant comprehension of speech: every segment of speech may be defined as materialized and verbalized designation of subjective conceptions. There are moral, political, physical factors that influence the transformation of perceived and stored information about the outer world into material signs of language.

The process of consecutive translation has a complex nature and can be divided into three stages of processing information of the text which the interpreter receives: perception of the text in the original language, transformation of it into corresponding lingual system, reproduction of the interpreted text. Reflection is a simultaneous process going along with perception of linguistic signs in speech. That's why the skill to single out information peaks in speech is given so much attention. It is assumed as a very important component of translation competence: while in everyday communication a recipient highlights the deictic triad unconsciously, interpreters and translators are trained to do it purposely.

Symbols to Record Precision Information

The deictic scheme provides the theoretical foundation to develop skills of taking notes during consecutive translation: the WWW information is recorded with the help of special symbols. In early 1970s R. Myniar-Beloruhev, a prominent linguist and interpreter, suggested a system of special symbols substituting the most important segments of speech which mustn't be distorted or missed: i.e. □ – *a country*; ○ – *negotiations*; ↑ – *movement forwards (progress, improvement, development, increase)*; ↓ – *movement downwards (regress, decrease, degradation)*. It is worth mentioning that most symbols are to substitute concept, like *progress, improvement*. Most intention is paid to personal and geographical names, dates, time, characteristics of action. Such words as *say, comment, point out, note, state*, etc. introducing the direct speech are substituted by the : symbol.

Many symbols from the Myniar-Beloruhev system are not relevant any longer due to different reasons,

but the methodology deserves refreshment and further development.

There is another important point: when taking the notes an interpreter should follow the so called *principle of verticalism*: information should be organized vertically on a sheet of paper to avoid misinterpretation. First comes subject (*who* performs some activities), down to the right – predicate characterizing the action and then down the page – modifiers of *place* and *time*.

Experiment

The hypothesis of the WWW cognitive scheme has been verified by the latest experiment with students of the faculty of foreign languages learning English to become interpreters. 42 participants were divided into two groups: the first group (20 students) consisted of undergraduates who were taught to use the system of symbols to take notes during the consecutive translation, and the second group (22 students) included the so called freshmen (first and second year students). They were asked to perform consecutive translation of the followings texts which were read once each:

Text 1: *'The Sochi 2014 Paralympic Winter Games will open on Friday (7 March), kicking off nine days of action which will see 547 athletes from 45 countries compete for 72 gold medals, with pictures beamed to a record 55 plus countries around the world'* (BBC News, March 6, 2014).

Text 2. *'People in Scotland are voting on whether the country should stay in the UK or become an independent nation. Voters will answer "Yes" or "No" to the referendum question: "Should Scotland be an independent country?" With 4,285,323 people – 97% of the electorate – registered to vote, it is expected to be the busiest day in Scottish electoral history. Votes will be cast at 5,579 polling stations until 22:00 on Thursday. The result is expected on Friday morning'* (BBC News, September 18, 2014).

The first text comprises 43 words. 16 students (80%) from the first group has accomplished the task without taking notes. They managed to memorize the precision information. 4 students (20%) used symbols to grab the information about subject and time. The second group tried to use their own marks to put down the precision information: as they didn't train the systematic usage of symbols they had to create their own symbols to mark the WWW information.

The second text comprises 48 words. It contains much more precision information. 20 students (100%) from the first group put down the WWW facts with the help of symbols. It is necessary to mention that symbols used by the students differed, they demonstrated each student's mental work of perception and conception. But all notes described the

situation on the basis of the WWW triad. The second group demonstrated that students were not prepared enough to analyze the information and some (12 students) tried to write down the text like a dictation thus failing to catch the whole of the text. The rest (10 students) managed to take notes of the precision information of the WWW scheme but their symbols were not systematical: they need to be trained to use symbols according to the order which will optimize the process of translation.

Didactic Exploitation

We should make the future translator/ interpreter aware of the deictic scheme as it proves to be an effective tool of perception of information in speech communication.

Special exercises are being worked out to train the skill to single out the WWW information in a text to be translated/ interpreted: i.e. *'Take notes of historical dates, personal names, geographical names, time, etc.* There are some very important didactic points.

First, students should be trained to catch subjects and their activities, then to enrich the report with data about characteristics of the action, including place and time.

Secondly, training process should be successive and intensify from easy things to more complicated data.

Thirdly, students may be free to create their own symbols to take notes of precision information but they should be organized into a system which can be reproduced.

Conclusion

The linguistic analysis of professional activities of interpreters in the process of consecutive translation, students' experimental with work with texts and material for comprehension and translation in class, survey of psychological tests on perception mechanism made it possible to describe a cognitive scheme of human reflection and interpretation of the real world and its developments which make up the contents of perceived texts during listening and reading.

The concept of a subject whose activities are performed at a certain place at a certain time can be given the status of a three-coordinate (subject/who, place/where, time/when) cognitive scheme (the WWW scheme).

The didactic exploitation of this cognitive scheme is seen in teaching students to identify these coordinates in the process of comprehending speech

or text and thus to perceive its message by structuring, organizing, assessing the information.

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Postmodern Discourse and Its Semiosis

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Symbolic representation is a specific, uniquely human form of objectification of the real world, a powerful means of communication activity of its reflectivity. Understanding of the phenomenon of sign representation, its modeling and the definition of the sign and its meaning depends on the sign language system and aspects of the language to be interpreted – dynamic or statistical, functional or structural aspects are taken as a basis. This article is an attempt to review the main components of the sign of the postmodern discourse.

It should be noted that in modern science there is a tendency to revise the linguistic nature of the sign. Among all areas of linguistics there is a domination of the theoretical reflection, according to which all phenomena are regarded as the implementation of language text, discourse, narrative. Therefore, the full range of human culture is the sum of texts of the intertextuality. Consciousness also appears in the form of text that can be read by the relevant rules of grammar, or, by using the decryption of codes. Foreign linguists developed a new direction in science: the main emphasis is placed on the special role of the interpretation procedures and the importance of reading both cognitive and communicative signs, because any schematization of reality is a sign. The analysis of postmodern texts suggests that thought can not be just interpreted, but also disinterpreted in postmodern discourse. In these texts, the notion of the sign takes on a different, broader meaning than that of word mark. One of the important issues of semiotic analysis of postmodern discourse is to examine and identify the codes that exist to decipher all kinds of signs.

Thus, in the context of our research the quite relevant question is to define the temporal signs (linguistic or non-linguistic) to be expressed in the postmodern discourse. As is known, the category of 'time' appears as a symbol of life / death, meaning as a cultural reality, and so forth. In modern linguistics it is assumed that postmodern text is regulated by a set of codes: the linguistic code of natural language, the literary code that defines the connectivity of the text, the genre code, and meta-language of a writer. In our view, the essence of postmodern discourse is a combination of mosaic codes, which include the following types of: linguistic, cultural, semiological, interactive, and metatextual codes.

Keywords: sign representation, sign, text, discourse, intertextuality, code, decryption, interpretation procedure, postmodernism, semiotic analysis, meta-language

Problems of perception/interpretation of texts at the end of the twentieth century touches on a range of issues associated with the representation of the text as a sign. Semiotic methodology allows us to present conditional reality as a communicative process,

regulated by a system of codes and signs, which prompt the corresponding reaction from the addressee recipient. The semiotic "subject-object" interaction, carried out by means of certain sign systems and sets of meanings, represents a certain level of language of

communication. Sign representation of conventional art is actually a specific form of objectification of the real world and is a considerable indicator of its reflective communicative activity.

The conceptual postmodern picture of the world can be represented as a communicative interaction between various and often protean sides: the subject and object (the moderator/author of conventional art and the individual/reader are immersed in this reality). The moderator of postmodern conditional reality along with the hero/reader interact in the pursuit of understanding each other based on the condition that communication in the same language uses the same symbols and signs, which are equivalent for all participants of the communicative interaction. If this condition is met, then the interaction between the two sides is considered valid communication.

M. M. Bakhtin in one of his early works, *Marxism and the Philosophy of Language*, wrote about a synchronicity of any language, and the existence of language only from the point of view of the subject, allocating with a certain semantic meaning these or those verbal structures (Bakhtin, 2000). Indeed, only that meaning which is embedded in verbal structure by all the participants of verbal interactions, makes a specific set of spoken sounds into a common sign that shows any objectively-existing social phenomenon or theoretical construct. Formation of the system of the standard symbols and signs makes possible any communicative interaction between subjects and objects of discursive space.

The language of postmodern discursive practices in its semiotic formulation acts as a kind of code which contains certain meanings, rather adequately and unambiguously perceived by subjects and by all objects of communicative interaction. It is necessary to note that there is no fixed interpretation of the nature of language or definition of a sign. Among the total number of existing interpretations there are structuralist and poststructuralist theories, starting from the ideas of Baudouin de Courtenay and Ferdinand de Saussure to representations of J. Lacan, J. Derrida, J. Kristeva. Thus structuralist interpretations of language sign have a bilateral psychic entity connecting concept and acoustic image. In poststructuralist practice, the language sign has absorbed the essence of epistemological uncertainty, revealing “existence created from absence” (Lacan, 1977, p. 65); that is, the language sign has actually lost its representative function. Thus, the essence of sign representation is the replacement and generalization of things.

A language sign as an empirical construct of discursive practices is multivariate, and each option of a sign model has its form of a materialization and functional characteristics. I.P. Ilyin states, in his book *Postmodernism: Glossary*, that postmodernism

revised the linguistic nature of a language sign, taking everything as a text, a discourse, which can be read by the relevant rules of grammar, constructed by analogy with grammar of a natural language (Ilyin, 2001). The postmodern phenomena of language implementation are reviewed and analyzed at the level of pragmatics and theoretical reflection, according to which the conditional constructs and models of reality are considered at the level of discursive practices. The sense of essence and phenomenon is not generated in mimesis, but in semiosis, i.e., in the free game of interpretations and values of different interpretations of texts and discourses. Therefore, the full range of human culture is presented as the sum of the texts. According to the English literary critic and novelist Walter Allen, the continuity of tradition depends on innovation (Allen, 1964, p. 214). And, in fact, we can get innovation only in the context of tradition. The classical heritage of the past was described from new methodological positions and by the new language, which helped to identify and update hidden sides of artists' works.

Materials and Methods

Correlation of ‘Text’ and ‘Discourse’

The modern stage in the development of philology faces one of its most difficult issues in distinguishing the terms ‘text’ and ‘discourse’; so the theory of comparative linguistics offers the theory of a comparative discourse studies, which is just beginning to be confirmed by the emergence of a number of works (Kashkin, 2007; Uhvanova-Shmygova, 2009). To determine the nature of discursive space is quite difficult; it is possible to assume that reality is unfolding as existing elements that clash as a result of a system of interaction, interdependence and mutual influence. At the same time the concept of text is legitimately used to designate any linguistic material in its written form, and as a synonym for discourse, if this text is its own written representation.

For a linguist, the essence of a text is, first and foremost, the language material fixed in writing (Szczurba, 1974, p. 26), whose usage might establish certain regularities in the deployment of the discursive process, in the structure of the language system, and also in the identification of various properties of language units. Depending on the theoretical setting, the text may be considered as a sequence of units at any level (words, phrases, phonemes, etc.), not only as a sequence of proposals. At the same time, any text and any statement always assumes the recipient and is directed to the recipient, and involves their reaction. “Discourse is a new feature to form a Language, as it

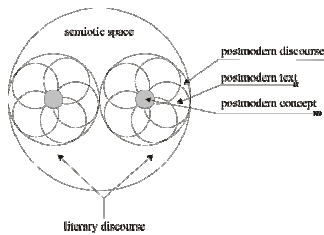


Figure 1. The multidimensionality of a discourse.

appeared before us at the end of twentieth century” (Stepanov, 1996, p. 71).

Linguists use the concept of discourse to explore the dynamic elements of language. The terms ‘text’ and ‘discourse’ can be opposed to each other in the concept of the act of creation as a result of creation (what has been told) and the process of creating (speech); we are led to this observation by the works of E. S. Kubryakova, O. V. Alexandrova, V. G. Kostomarov and N. D. Zarubina. The category of text should be considered as an elementary unit of a discourse; in order to understand such a complex communicative phenomenon as a discourse, it is necessary to consider the importance of extra-linguistic factors (knowledge of the world, opinions, attitudes, goals of a sender), that also N. D. Arutyunova, Yu. N. Karaulov, N. N. Mironova and other researchers note.

The multidimensionality of a discourse caused, in particular, the multiplicity of its definitions (Fig. 1) and a relatively rapid evolution in concepts even within the same scientific field. Among a large number of interpretations of the concept of discourse, the most interesting theoretical justifications are in *Sémiotique, Dictionnaire raisonné de la théorie du langage (Semiotics, The explanatory dictionary of a language theory)* by A. J. Greimas and J. Courtés. Discourse is interpreted as a semiotic process, which is realized in different types of discursive practices (Greimas, Courtes, 1983).

In speech activity a discourse is represented as a unit that belongs to a higher level of language, consisting of sentences linked within meaning. All syntactic and semantic processes, which are characteristic for the levels of words and sentences, are caused by the structure of the entire discourse as a relatively independent language unit of a higher order. Discourse, however, differs from the lower units of a language in that it cannot be reproduced like phonemes and morphemes, but it is created in speech. We consider

the phenomenon of discourse as a speech-and-thought process presented in a set of intertexts related to each other by common cognitive strategies, having an internal organization consistent with these strategies to transfer the meaning.

The collection of texts, united on various grounds, is implemented in the corresponding type of discourse. National discourses (Russian, English, etc.) are delimited; within national discourse there are poetic, aesthetic, scientific, critical, educational, legal, political and other discourses. Developing the dialogical approach (developed by J. Kristeva (Kristeva, 1993)) relying on the criteria of the typology of discourse proposed by M. Foucault (the attitude towards the author, the expressive value of discourses, openness for transformation, ways of adaptation of discourses to culture (Foucault, 2005)), we believe it is possible to speak about the existence of so-called ‘post-modern discourse’ combining texts that are based on common principles of postmodernism.

The main features of the postmodern writing as a specific attitude and world mapping are the conscious destruction of boundaries of artistic space and incoherence, whose purpose is the aesthetic shock that can push the boundaries of the conventional understanding of the world. According to I. P. Ilyin, postmodern characteristics are combinations (in one textual space) of the obviously actual and the obviously fictitious, an introduction of the author to the text, and thus the statement of a question of the authorship, an exposure of conventions of literature in the course of their use (Ilyin, 1998, p. 86).

Among its principal instruments, there is primarily an ironic attitude toward immutable standards, which in the medium of art and graphic means generates a so-called ‘naked reception’. Postmodern communication is further characterized as a volatile and fluid space in which the text is formed by a succession of comments and notes to itself; there are significant traditions from previous epochs, which are presented in the form of quotations from earlier texts, but with transformed value. The presence of such properties transforms the text into an infinite system, which is more similar to the concept of inter-textuality. Postmodern discourse comprises a collection of texts-intertexts, actualizing the incompleteness of postmodernist writing, which remains a continuous process of designing signs, forming a special model of the world.

The concept of inter-textuality is closely related to the phenomenon of depersonalization as the subjectivity of a text, disappearing in citations, entailing a crisis of personal principle. The so-called dissolving of ‘a character in the novel’ (Dranov, Ilyin, & Kozlov, 1996, p. 207) is a consequence of the fact that the image of a man has lost integrity in postmodern literature; in the literary work, the reader hears a voice from the

text which was organized in accordance with the rules of cultural coding of its time, but not the voice of the author. Functions of literature radically change, the era of the reader comes, and the birth of the reader has to occur due to the death of the author (Ilyin, 1998, p. 95). Postmodern literature draws extremely pessimistic conclusions about the possibility of the continued existence of a literary character and connects it with the lack of a full-blooded character: “The dissolution of a character is a conscious victim of postmodernism” (Ilyin, 1998, p. 92).

In this genre, the author’s mask can frequently be that of a real narrative hero, capable of attracting the reader’s attention. Organization of the postmodern text consists of a deliberate randomness and fragmentation of the composition, so the author’s mask is the main means of maintaining communication and the important structure-forming principle of the narrative manner of postmodernism. The image of the author acts in the text as a binding center, which turns separate material into a whole. The author’s mask provides the necessary literary communicative situation that prevents the work from ‘communication failure’ (Dranov, Ilyin, & Kozlov, 1996, p. 192). This interpretation of postmodern writing is based on studying the signs of systemic categories of postmodern discourse:

- Creolized texts and multiple codes (the code is a set of rules organizing the text of a work of art),
- The author’s mask and intertextuality which are inextricably linked with each other and determine one another.

Thus, the discursive understanding of reality finds its preferential embodiment in the central property of postmodern poetics – in inter-textuality (the term coined by J. Kristeva (Kristeva, 1993)). In M. M. Bakhtin’s theory it corresponds to an idea of literature as a continuous dialogue between the author and the reader, as well as with all current and previous culture (Bakhtin, 1979, p. 59). Yu. M. Lotman, understanding culture in general as a text, emphasizes that it is a difficultly arranged text, breaking up into a hierarchy of ‘a text in a text’ and forming a complex weave of texts (Lotman, 1970, p. 81). In other words, each new work is considered as a complete and independent text, which acts as a kind of quotation from the infinite texts of culture.

For example, T. Stoppard displays in the play *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* (1967) an ironic outperformance of Shakespeare’s immortal play *The Tragedy of Hamlet, Prince of Denmark* (1600-1601), changing an angle of vision of the problems put forward by the British classic. Stoppard sharpens the problem of the role of art in the general ordinary flow of life, as well as the problem of an assessment of the impact of art on the entirety of ordinary life, raising the problem of the existence of ‘art for art’s sake’. The author resorts to all sorts of simulations and

philosophical wordplay, while, all action played out is just an illusion, taking place and in a vacuum.

Rosencrantz and Guildenstern try on the masks to adjust to the scenery set by the author, but, nevertheless, as suggested by the title, the author’s intention regarding the fate of his characters is already clear from the outset. Stoppard plays with the puppet characters of Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, putting them first in a void, in a vacuum, in which there is neither time nor well-organized space, revealing their inner potential as heroes. It turns out that Rosencrantz and Guildenstern are hollow characters, which captures the essence of postmodern vision of the world as the world of the chaotic capable of an expanse of emptiness. The analysis, as well as the representation and appearance on the scene of hollow characters, testifies to the metaphysical essence of such characters, that is, they are able to set us a new vision of universal projections.

Owing to figures like Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, who don the hypocritical masks of servile supporters to those who are on the throne (in our case, Claudius and Gertrude) and meanwhile act as ‘true’ friends of Hamlet, readers are in a difficult kaleidoscopic situation. As in Shakespeare’s ‘theater in the theater’, Stoppard’s fragments of theatrical performances in an outline of the overall integrated setting enable us not only to observe the implementation of a given plot with delight, but also to reflect on the multifaceted world containing in itself both real actions and artificially (personally) simulated situations-simulacra.

Along with inter-textuality, there is a system-forming category of a game principle in postmodern discourse. The game principle was the implementation of the ironic origin of postmodern culture. Most successfully, in our opinion, game strategy of postmodernism has been defined by S. Isaev, who has argued that meta-semantics is characteristic for postmodern works and can be achieved through a variety of connotative means. However, these tools can be described with just one word – a game. With the advent of postmodernism there comes an epoch, when the relationship between art and meaning disappears: and now such a relationship is just a game. Equating the rights of real and fictitious, the game leads to a situation of an unlimited number of meanings in the work: after all, its meaning is not connected with pre-existing reality (Isaev, 1992, pp. 7-8).

English postmodernist J. Fowles exposes the radical rethinking of traditional poetics, existing artistic means and even the material of Belles Lettres – the language itself. One means of radical rethinking is a language game. The definition of a language game includes a wide range of concepts. It acts as a form of perception of the world marking the advent of a new stage in the development of poetics, that is the stage of self-reflection. It is no longer possible to

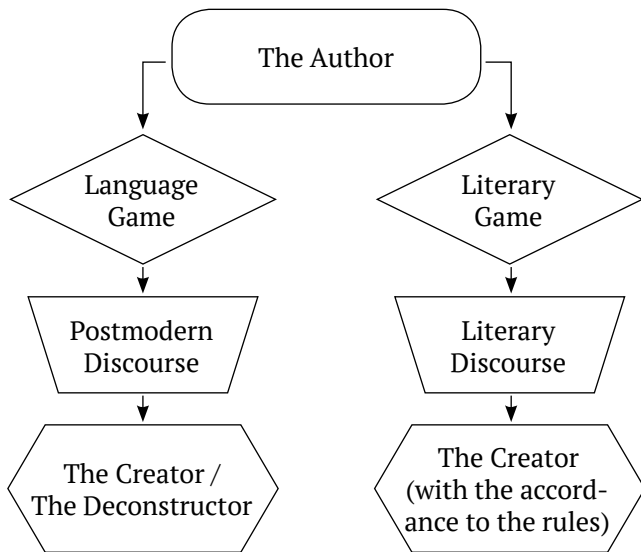


Figure 2. Strategies of creative behavior of the author.

meditatively take reality presented by language (in this case it would be possible to talk about attitudes toward the world); there is an attempt to influence it actively, or rather, to affect the perception of reality by the only available means: through an influence on the language. Of course, each postmodernist performs this task in their own way, but a demonstration of the general strategy of creative behavior is symptomatic and is typical for today's literary situation, which seems to be moving in a postmodern direction. For the language game in the works by Fowles, the free establishment and violation of the author's own rules and regulations is characteristic (actually a literary language game, where the strict implementation of regulatory conditions is required, differs from the game).

The literary artist acts both as a creator and as a deconstructor of their own creation, and the meaning of the act of destruction of a certain author's construction is no less than in the act of creation, and a creative effect in this case is sometimes even greater (Fig. 2). For example, numerous virtuoso demonstrations of a well-known literary device, followed by its 'exposure', when it turns out that the author only 'tried it on taste', but did not expose this device as a universal instrument to discover reality. One of the typical postmodern techniques of Fowles's writing is an outperformance on the fashion circuit of mass literature.

With the example of the novel *The French Lieutenant's Woman* (2004), we see the masterful parodic stylization in the spirit of Charles Dickens and William Thackeray, which repeatedly renders the reader into confusion concerning the period of the book. Victorian-themed literary works became fashionable in the 1960s in the UK: sentimental romance and adventure novels about Victorian life began to be published one after

another; there were several sensational historical studies (designed for the ordinary reader) in which an attempt was made to destroy the stereotypical representation of the British as slaves of puritanical morality and decency. In an ironic manner, inherent to postmodernism, Fowles takes issue with these popular pseudo-Victorian novels. The writer entices the reader with the Victorian entourage, giving the impression that the book represents the habitual entertaining text, only to deceive the reader's expectations and to offer a new system of values and motivations. All the techniques and means in the eyes of a contemporary artist, who is familiar with the postmodern, are coarse master keys, which actually could not unlock anything. This aspect of the game can be called relativistic.

A language game is close to improvisation as it tries to avoid stagnancy. Thus, it is ideally conceived as a never-ending process: it has a beginning but essentially cannot have any result. Thus, in Fowles's novel *The Collector*, the consciousness of Caliban is depicted as ordinary so that all stages of detention of the girl Miranda in his house are likened to the stages of a butterfly's life. However, at the same time, he was so refined person that he was deprived of an elementary imagination even at the level of the children's game in the images, which Fowles masterfully brings to the text of the work. "Then we played charades; she acted things, syllables of words, and I had to guess what they were. I wasn't any good at it, either acting or guessing. I remember one word she did was 'butterfly'. She kept on doing it again and again and I couldn't guess" (Fowles, 2004, pp. 21-22).

Thereby, the postmodern element of a game pushes forward an elitist style with a mass phenomenon. Game, as well as paradox, is capable of bringing anything to a light; the game puts everything in its place, shows the improvised roles. Only through the gaming principal is the picture of actual events expressed, but what remains paradoxical is that the picture is shown not in a realistic manner, but presented through the modern perception of reality, or rather, the postmodern.

The technique of creating a border situation is also associated with the element of the game; for example, the role of sin. Sin is subjected to a rethinking in postmodern literature. If to enlist with Miranda's thoughts in relation to the concepts of Caliban, for example, about the area of the sin of adultery, the mere mention of which could plunge Caliban into a shock, then for Miranda this is pure nonsense: "sex is just an activity, like anything else. It's not dirty, it's just two people playing with each other's bodies. Like dancing. Like a game" (Fowles, 2004, p. 43). Thus sin gets a new interpretation – now it is a challenge of life itself – not recklessness, but an act that requires courage and imagination. It turns out that John Fowles helps us to discover new facets of consciousness, while not changing ourselves, not making a revolution inside of

us. His method is more similar to evolution, because knowledge is already inside of us, it needs only to be discovered. This key is an intimate experience, as a part of the unconscious, by which the door is opened, connecting the unconscious to the conscious. Any previously known result makes the game senseless. The point is not in the end of the plot, but in the development of the plot, in the reflection of the poet's language signs, which are constantly passing through the mass consciousness, a kind of 'laundrying' of them from commonplace stereotypes of perception. This is the improvisational aspect of the game.

Results and Discussion

Semantic Nuances of Postmodern Discourse

Manipulation of excerpts from the works of other authors is a characteristic moment of postmodernism, confirming the idea that this direction develops mostly on the basis of generalization and refining the creative artistic heritage. As for the phenomenon of intertextuality, we can compare postmodernism with the art of the Dark Ages when the activity of theologians and preachers was actually reduced to the selection of the necessary quotes on a specific theme and interpretation, reflection and reconsideration.

Yu. M. Lotman wrote about the 'dynamic excitation' arising between the encountered texts, especially when they are far apart, such as the texts of European literature of the twentieth century and primitive cultures of the past. According to Lotman, the text could refer to another text as a reality to convention. Playing the opposition of 'real / conditional' is inherent in every situation as 'the text in the text'. The simplest case is the inclusion in the text of an area, encoded by the same way, but by the doubled code as the rest space of the work. This can be a picture in a picture, theater in a theater, film in a film, or novel in a novel. Dual encoding of certain parts of the text, identified with artistic conventions, leads to the fact that the main space of the text is perceived as 'real'. Consciousness also appears in the form of the text that can be read by the relevant rules of grammar (Lotman, 1992), or by using the decryption of signs – symbols and codes.

The decryption process of the model of conditional reality involves verbal, nonverbal, and extra-linguistic signs; disadvantages of reality itself are compensated by its creation in the discursive space. There is a need for special 'postmodern sensitivity' (a term coined by Derrida) to capture semantic nuances introduced by discourse in the linguistic representation of reality. Discourse, as the interpreting instance and the interpreted area, has the unique feature of the simultaneous inclusion of signifier and signified at the same time, depending on the point of view of an

author. The process of deciphering the exact language signs of a certain discursive model of reality is possible only through the decryption of the mentally generated sign of a particular entity or phenomenon of the model; deciphering a certain model of reality, according to P. Ricoeur, is the work of thinking, which consists in interpretation of the meaning standing behind the obvious meaning, in revealing the levels of meaning concluded in the literal value (Ricoeur, 1974).

Here it is possible to follow the theory of the sign by Charles Sanders Peirce, which was that the implementation of human thought processes is simply impossible without the help of signs. In tracing the concept of Peirce that 'any thought is a sign' (Hoopes, 1991), the deciphering of certain cognitive acts are not possible without decoding the previous thought processes and actions. Because thinking is an ongoing process, each thought should be interpreted by another thought. Thus, generating a thought is represented only as a fragment in a total chain of decryption, and only there does the thought matter; the essence of a sign is that it is capable of interpreting the thought. Furthermore, according to the works of Peirce, we can reveal that an interpretant (for example, a certain human reaction to the perceived sign; an explanation of the meaning of words by means of other words, etc.) becomes a sign. However, for the cryptanalyst, the meaning origin of the sign matters, not the body of the sign itself. A sign or representamen is the first, standing in a genuine triadic relation to the second, called its object, to be able to determine the kind of the third, called its interpretant (Hoopes, 1991). The analysis of postmodern texts suggests that a thought cannot only be an interpretant, but is a disinterpretant in discourse as well. One of the important questions of semiotic analysis of postmodern discourse involves deciphering the codes existing to interpret all kinds of signs.

Thus, our research addresses the relevant question of the essence of signs (linguistic or non-linguistic) to express the meaning of postmodernism and its 'Proteusism'. The motif of "Proteus" in the postmodern direction is realized at the level of disclosure of a subject of variability and in the comprehension of a logic of antinomies; Proteus presents instant and fantastic reincarnations, highlights the fragility of the boundaries between the real and the imaginary world. In the postmodern novel *The Magus* (2004) by J. Fowles, Proteus is one of the most important images of illusory reality in the model embodied by the author. Fowles, in his book *Wormholes* (1988), said that he liked not to know, not to be sure, and just to feel that there is always a space for changes. Literary critic Dianne L. Vipond made a comparison between the image of Proteus and John Fowles: the author eternally destroys finished molded shapes, trying to create or to practice something new (Fowles, 1988). Indeed, the principle of representation is gradually losing its significance

in postmodernism; there is a theory about the crisis of representation (by Jean Baudrillard), and the blurring of boundaries between reality and text, that focuses attention on the opposition of a sign and the outside world. Thus, postmodernism is a sign construction, a discourse that must be decrypted.

Linguocultural Codes and Discursive Practice

Postmodernist discourse can be represented as a continuous process of constructing signs, a kind of careful development of the remote sense; postmodernist discourse captures an idea of the instability of life, the lack of integrity and the absence of clear guidelines. To understand the ways of artistic reflection of social transformations in modern society, it is necessary, first of all, to address the concept of metatext. In the first instance, this term can be used for differentiation of a situation in which the text speaks of the world (the reality), from the situation in which the text speaks of the text (metatext situation). 'Metafiction' makes the author and the reader act as heroes of a work of art, bringing them onto the stage in the process of creation or perception of a work of art.

Authors (meta-novelists) do not allow us to remain passive spectators of artistic performances. Mosaic construction of a text of the modern novel resembles a baroque picture of the world, which is characterized by the dissociation of sensibility. The term 'dissociation of sensibility' was coined by T. S. Eliot in his essay, "The Metaphysical Poets" (1921), to define the twentieth-century violation of the spiritual and the sensual integrity of life, which has had a significant impact on the English poetic tradition. For the postmodern novel, reflecting a Baroque 'dissociation of sensibility', the characteristic features are a fragmentary discourse and a deliberate chaos of composition (Ilyin, 2001).

Other scientists who have studied the organization of textual structures of postmodern works (David Lodge, Douwe W. Fokkema), found ways to create the effect of a deliberate narrative chaos, fragmented discourse of the world as devoid of meaning, law and order. In general, the approach of these researchers describes the ways in which postmodernists show traditional narrative ties in their works and reject the usual principles of narrative organization. According to the critics D. Fokkema and H. Bertens, postmodernists expand the artistic space of the novel by the so-called metatext, which refers to the connotations added by the reader to denotative meaning of the words in the text (Fokkema, Bertens, 1986). These connotations direct the process of understanding by the reader of the text and thus contribute to the emergence of a 'reader's metatext' (Tötösy de Zepetnek, 1998).

Consequently, in postmodern discourse its sign nature gained the particular importance as linguocultural codes, filled with special constituent meaning and requiring special decoding. The peculiarity

of postmodern discourse is in many art techniques. Thus, the language identity of the author is shown in a special way of the language of game, the author's improvisation on the famous plots and images of the culture. For example, in Stoppard's play *Rosencrantz and Guildenstern Are Dead* (1967), we can observe in many respects a similar form of representation of beingness in the American one-act play *Forensic & the Navigators* (1996) by Sam Shepard. This play is quite different from the British version of a postmodern play. However, as for hollow characters, fragmentation, illusion and chaos of the recreated space, Shepard's play can serve as a unique example of postmodern aesthetics. The unfolding action, in many respects, is also metaphysical; the action is played out with the main topics of state security, search for terrorists, frustrated expectations, and love.

Though the theme of love does not crown a created intrigue, all we have is a deception of the expectations of the reader/spectator, and the author's game with the absolute concepts of modern American society; confusion and loneliness of the characters, disappointments and loss of the true path. A Statement comes at the end with symbolic smoke on the stage, which envelopes both the stage with the actors and the audience, suggesting the illusory nature of what we spread in society, forgetting the very basis of human morality – love. This final part of the text proclaims the truth, which we sometimes do not see, being distracted by all sorts of noises and "smoke", projected by the social world; we observe the dark side of true life, which is fascinating, which cannot be read by logic. Postmodernism often mixes up concepts, trying to synthetically present a picture of the versatility of life; so it is frequent in postmodern British and American texts (J. DeLillo, J. Fowles, J. Barnes, P. Nichols, et al.), in an attempt to foresee the truth, to represent the Baroque fragmented, unstable, antinomic world (Hakobyan, 2008).

Thus, the action of Sam Shepard's play is declared from the moments of representation of silence and darkness and comes to an end with rhythmic beats and a picture of the stellar sky, indicating the duality of the world around us. A particular interest is that Shepard really antinomicly presents a picture of the universe, which includes the characters of Fonsik and Amity, lost and even confused; characters try reflexively to identify the laws of life, but the fear that implants society has a much greater force, so they cannot win.

Conclusion

Postmodernist discourse is the synthesis of special language and cultural signs, peculiar codes, realized in the course of cross-cultural and universal communication. The appeal of postmodernism is that in return for a sustainable world modern man is

offered (but not allotted) such intellectual qualities as independent critical judgment, open-mindedness, tolerance, openness, love for aesthetic diversity, playful looseness, ability for irony and self-irony. The game nature of composite solutions of modern prose creates a labyrinth of signs and motifs associated with the injured consciousness, madness and death, which, incidentally, relates these motifs to the main baroque aesthetic ideas of the unknowable, chaotic life, uncertainties and unconscious ability of a person. The concept of a work of art is already considered as a communicative act, that is, as the process of a complex interaction between the text, the author and the reader. Systematic 'deception' of the reader, encoding whole layers of meaning, deciphering signs and codes are activities guided by the author but producing unknown reactions in the reader and affecting the reader in unknown ways.

The authority of the game was created in many respects by the concepts of linguistic philosophy, where the analysis of language was the analysis of relationship between signs, organized by certain rules of language – by game with signs. As a logical culmination there was the theory of 'language games' by Ludwig Wittgenstein, the word autonomy and the postulation of autonomy and self-sufficiency of linguistic resources in the theory of deconstruction coined by Derrida. Lyotard declared 'language games' as any social interaction within the two types of discourse: the scientific and the narrative. He opposed these types of discourse nearly in all aspects except one: they are language (meta) games as they are innovative and agonistic. In the postmodern state, Lyotard sees the crisis of narrative discourse of culture in connection with its groundlessness in the context of practical actualization of human capabilities: non-scientific knowledge is unproductive.

But the crucial statement here is that the narrative form, in contrast to the developed forms of discourse of knowledge, allows a multiplicity of language games within itself (Lyotard, 1984). Thus, art and culture are directly allocated the status of game forms of activity.

Interpretation of postmodern discourse is possible with the help of linguocultural and other codes and sub-codes, deciphering cultural signs, symbols, concepts that are involved in the process of cross-cultural and universal communication. The system of codes, which are the main keys to the interpretation of postmodern discourse, includes: linguistic, cultural, semiological, interactive, hermeneutical, meta-textual codes and existential sub-code.

Postmodern discourse intersects discourses of the author, the reader and the characters, leading to a purging of syntax and punctuation borders between them and fixes the lack of clarity, consistency and hierarchy of narration. In the course of analysis of postmodern discourse of English-speaking writers, the frequent use of new techniques, typical for these type

of texts, was revealed: reducing of statements; spelling and punctuation anomalies and so forth, indicating the fragmentation of discourse. Language code in its conjunction with other codes is the basis of postmodern discourse. So, for example, the cultural code represents the cultural space as a major factor in the development of the postmodern discourse and takes into account the system of concepts encoded in verbal and nonverbal signs of language consciousness of postmodernism. Language consciousness in postmodern discourse reflects cross-cultural universal codes (discourse-universe), contributing to the deciphering of cultural realities and to overcoming of cultural distance between the author and the reader.

Communication between the segments/codes of a different order is organized on the principle of juxtaposition and the chaotic flow of consciousness. Thus, in postmodern discourse, the principle of interaction of space and time is violated; it begins to be an infinite semiosis, that is, the interpretation of signals (signs), perceived by the reader. The symbolic reading of the work suggests a multiplicity of interpretations as definitive of postmodern discourse. The symbols in postmodern literary texts are an important sign of postmodern discourse, as they are indicated by the words-in-text, keywords, forming the concepts of the discourse-universe or of the language picture of the world.

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Barack Obama and Modern American Caricature. Anatoly Chudinov, Svetlana Makeeva. Ekaterinburg: UGPU, 2014. ISBN 978-5-7186-0622-5

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The book under review comprises ten chapters, nine of which span six years of Obama's political activity as reflected in American caricatures. Chapter 8 is meant to provide an extensive overview of stereotypical, racially-biased images and prototypes associated with the African-American population from the pre-Civil War period to the present day. This work is conceived as both an introduction to and tool-kit for students and scholars doing research in the area of political linguistics. It also aims to promote the analysis of pictorial elements of discourse to a more prominent place in cognitive linguistics. Nine of the ten chapters deal exclusively with American political figures (Obama and his political opponents), whereas Chapter 10 presents Obama and Putin in a comparative study which accords an unprecedented degree of respect and admiration to the latter than is traditionally reserved for an American "enemy-head" personality.

Addressing the culturally-engrained devices (caricatures, stereotypes, anecdotes, etc.) exploited in modeling, remodeling, promoting, and (for the most part) abusing America's leading political figurehead, Barack Obama, in graphic art, E. Shustrova's research implicitly intertwines with a number of key linguistic issues. The first, emotive-evaluative nomination of persona, developed by T. Markelova (1993), recognizes that the category of evaluative nomination in modern language use tends to get weaker, with the observable weakening not compensated by any other linguistic

features. Shustrova's research tends to provide evidence of this category, still actively developing on meta-textual level. The second linguistic issue raised by Shustrova's study is that of evaluation versus social role/ social status conflict. The racial ethnicity of Obama is identified as the permanent characteristic that defines his status, whereas his position in the Oval Office is an acquired role characteristic. The study provides ample evidence to the fact that permanent status characteristics still hold priority for the composite WASP (White Anglo-Saxon Protestant) evaluator. Thirdly, the problem of values versus assessment semantics is raised: Obama, first viewed as a compelling personification of liberty and equal opportunities, later caused a severe values rift in American society as ever-present contradictions regarding popular myths, cultural icons and norm-referenced values between the black and white populations in the US backfired with a vengeance on the person meant to be the Moses of racial consolidation.

Turning now to an examination of the book's ten chapters, Barack Obama's political rhetoric is explored in Chapter 1 through an analysis of imagery and tropes. Shustrova manages this section adequately by tracing similarities and differences in Obama's political rhetoric with that of his predecessors. Highlighting Obama's individual use of Christian rhetoric deserves less emphasis: the casting of significant figures in US history (particularly Presidents) as prophets and

martyrs for the nation – Abraham Lincoln, John F. Kennedy, Martin Luther King – is a given. Admittedly, Presidents are also high priests of the American civil religion. Observation of African-American Baptist practices is of greater consequence: for example, “call and response” patterns, stringing and blending imagery, pronounced community values, ‘testifying’ and ‘signifying’. The absence of allusions to a chivalry code in Obama’s rhetoric is, again, a statement of the obvious: a moral code popularized throughout Western Europe by the Norman aristocracy could hardly be accepted and addressed by African Americans, an oppressed community in the US. This first chapter, nevertheless, admirably brings together many and varied aspects of Obama’s rare speaking talents and offers some contextual foregrounding for his ‘policy of great aspirations’.

Chapter 2 addresses how the image of Russia is modeled in Barack Obama’s speech, yet does not offer new data analysis and relies, instead, on updating and reprinting earlier publications. It examines several passages from Obama’s speeches for embedded evaluation, i.e. evaluations that are presented as givens through the use of factive predicates, attributive rather than predicative adjectives, and so on. This chapter is a useful reminder of the extent to which the speaker/writer’s viewpoint is at the mercy of political conformity and political fashion.

In Chapter 3, Shustrova addresses the representation of Barack Obama in political caricatures, offering an evaluation of the affective (good-bad) type of characterization he receives in graphic imagery. She examines the meta-textual, metaphoric modeling of nine key images – including ‘sportsman’, ‘circus performer’, ‘doctor’, etc., – to identify their ‘evaluation polarity’ with Obama’s practice of modeling related concepts, and concludes that negative evaluative polarities seem prevalent. The linking of images with multi-layered meanings to concrete political precedents in her analysis is commendable. It is somewhat surprising, though, not to find quantitative data supporting the imagery discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 4 addresses puns in components of verbal and visual caricature. The chapter proceeds in a clear and well-organized manner, describing different types of metaphors conveyed via textual and graphic semiotic means. Attitudinal (including value judgment and counter-expectation marking) and stylistic (speech-act comment) cases prevail. Interesting illustrations are provided of phraseological units employed as stance-defining means. Students interested in pragmatics should definitely be referred to the excellent sample of stance studies.

Chapter 5 examines basic, archetypal images in the representation of Barack Obama, drawing on Jungian

psychology (Jung, 2013) and the archetypal images of mother, child, wise old man, god, self, anima, trickster, and shadow. This foundation makes the treatment of material somewhat impressionistic: in his writings, Jung fails to give archetypal images a dry, precise, intellectually-formulated meaning. However, to give Shustrova her due, some archetypal images (e.g. the trickster) are sufficiently well-contextualized in African-American folklore and speech practices to be relevant here. It would be interesting to see some quantitative data and, most importantly, to see this chapter linked to research on the type of addressee. Unlike the more obvious cases addressed in previous chapters, samples presented in the fifth chapter are definitely aimed at an intellectual reader and present a decoding challenge: what does it signify?

Occupying a ‘stand-alone’ position with a focus on precedent phenomena in caricature, Chapter 6 should definitely be granted the ‘top’ rating for the book as a whole. It presents a clear, helpful procedure of contrastive intertextual analysis of a person’s discourse practices and of the graphic imagery connected with this person in political discourse. Barack Obama is a most rewarding choice for this type of research, notorious as he is for ‘borrowing’ snippets of political rhetoric from his predecessors. The chapter inadvertently proves that: a) the Bible remains a popular source of reference for the American reading public; b) mass culture visual semiotics (Hollywood production images) prevail over *belles lettres* sources as popular currency.

Chapter 7 offers a brief examination of linguocultural types of Obama in caricature. Drawing on V. Karasik’s (2012) theory of linguocultural images, Shustrova presents a somewhat sketchy overview of the Superman concept deployed for Obama’s characterization in graphic images, suggesting that Obama falls short of the image expected of an American figurehead. The regressive modification of the Superman concept – once a cultural idol, now subject to ironic caricatures – could prove a fruitful topic of research. Another issue which Shustrova points out is the juxtaposition of linguocultural type deployment in cartoons, produced by representatives of various linguocultural groups. Some sources (e.g., Rhinehart, Conan, Goblin) are introduced but require further development.

Chapter 8 offers an overview of stereotypical images of African-Americans in American graphics, providing a valuable, flexible tool for both cross-cultural and cross-linguistic research into the expression of attitudes towards African-Americans in the Deep South and more generally. It reviews certain positive mythologized types (Uncle Tom, Aunt Jemima) and reveals them to be limited to a WASP mentality. Predictably, it devotes more attention

to negative imagery, presenting the well-known stereotypical representations of blacks as ‘dumb, lazy, over-sexed, watermelon-eating, chicken-stealing’, etc. This section might cause aggressive trigger reactions from Southern conservatives. As related to the rest of the book, the function of the chapter is to provide a key to anti-Obama media campaigns. This key might have been more helpful in the initial chapters, though the present organization does give the research a touch of intrigue. Stylistically, this chapter bears on a popular scientific genre of writing, making the potential readership virtually limitless. The subject treatment is suggestive, thoughtful and (as throughout the whole book) well-illustrated.

Chapter 9 examines Barack Obama and the 2012 elections as represented in American graphics, while the final chapter, Chapter 10, looks at Barack Obama in 2014. These chapters will be reviewed in unison since they share the same objective: tracing the transformation of Obama’s image from guardedly neutral, to grudgingly positive, to scathingly negative due to the downward glide caused by recent events in the Ukraine. The author keeps reminding us of one important detail: modern IT makes it possible for virtually the entire populace of the US to try their hand at caricature production through simple, widely-available software programs, which they seem to do with gusto. To return to my initial comment, Shustrova’s preference for Putin over Obama is entirely unprecedented: presidents, to repeat, are high priests who model American values. Obama, seemingly, has acquired the hazardous position of a false prophet.

Overall, *Barack Obama and Modern American Caricature* is a timely reminder of the extent to which evaluative expressions pervade discourse and the use of graphic input in the study is very welcome. An axiological study of names in terms of value formation has been, for most part, neglected by linguists; it is far more common to operate with cases in which the evaluative component is firmly established (e.g., Martin Luther King – action, optimism, future orientation, non-violence, self-help). The problem of deciding where and how to draw a line between representational/descriptive meaning and attitudinal/evaluative meaning receives further, if somewhat unconventional, development in Shustrova’s study.

The study of Barack Obama in graphic art is a perfect choice if one wishes to research the way constructed environments respond to and, in turn, shape the world. Graphic art lends itself to more immediate demonstrations of the way the world is, the way the world ought to be, what proper behavior is, as well as social esteem and social sanction. Most notably, it allows for a glimpse into constructing an affiliation based on a highly personalized use of affect in counterpropaganda (or, for that matter, counterculture) with all those readers who share the speaker’s enthusiasm (or lack thereof).

There is a multitude of differing approaches and overlapping categories, as well as discourse analysis models to be found in this book, which manages many sources in a clear and progressive way. Shaped by the abiding principle ‘Do what you like and like what you do’, the book might be useful for those planning research in the field of mass-media discourse, sociolinguistics, political linguistics, creolized texts and US cultural studies.

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 - (5) **Abstract:** The abstract shouldn't be less than 150 words but not more than 300 words. The keywords should be less than 10 (for guidelines regarding abstracts, please see the JLE's How to write a scientific abstract).
 - (6) **Abbreviations:** Abbreviation should be used only for non standard and very long terms.
 - (7) **Introduction:** The statement of the problem should be stated in the introduction in a clear and concise manner.
 - (8) **Theoretical background**
 - (9) **Research, Materials / Participants and Methods:** Materials and methods should be clearly presented to allow the reproduction of the experiments. All articles published in JLE must make strong empirical contributions.
 - (10) **Results and discussion:** Results and discussion maybe combined into a single section. Results and discussion may also be presented separately if necessary.
 - (11) **Conclusion**
 - (12) **References**
- Note: JLE recommends 6000 or more word count, excluding title page, legends, and references.**
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