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Editorial

Issue 2 of *Journal of Language and Education* presents a wide range of articles from around the world covering various topics in linguistics and practices of teaching English.

Natalia Denisova and Dinara Yusipova study temporal constructions in British and American poems for adults and children. The poems are selected from English poetry of the 19-20-th centuries. The results of this analysis showed that there are differences in the perception of Time by adults and children. The issue can be of interest to ESL teachers and researchers in the use of tenses in poetry.

The article by Alexander Kalashnikov is devoted to the study of the peculiarities of translation of names from William Shakespeare's works into Russian from the point of view of their semantics. The research was based on the analysis of the translation of Shakespeare's plays of several editions: from 1894 to 1959. The analysis of translations reveals a variety of ways to render names within the text and the application of commentaries in annotated additions. The author also gives strategies and patterns employed by Russian translators and writers.

The paper by Flora Kolmósi and Siarl Ferdinand presents an analysis of the views of secondary-school Kyrgyzstani students on learning and use of English in various areas. The data were obtained from four different secondary schools in Kyrgyzstan. The results of the study show that, despite English being a good asset in their future life and career, very few students believe it can be used for non-educational purposes.

Galina Levitskaya and Elizaveta Levitskaya examine typical students' problems in the CAE Speaking Test and offer possible solutions for them. In this study, questionnaires were administered to undergraduate students of the National Research

University Higher School of Economics (NRU HSE). The results show that there are numerous factors apart from personal ambitions and high motivation that can influence students' success. Among them the authors name comprehension of the exam format, assessment criteria, insufficient vocabulary and poor grammar, and anxiety.

In their research, Alexander Shuneyko and Olga Chibisova consider the typological classification of signs. The authors claim that the current classifications of signs do not reflect in their entirety all the signs which actually exist and function. The article describes the type of signs (the bifocal sign) which has not been previously analysed as an independent one and has not been studied. They believe that an interpretation of a text with a bifocal sign cannot be adequate without taking into account the specificity of this sign.

In her article, Elena Velikaya focuses on continuous teacher development in the forms of self- and peer observation, peer coaching, and keeping a teaching journal in a university teaching environment. The findings show that there is no clear understanding of the above listed issues among English language teachers at the NRU HSE; this is why their implementation in a given context can be difficult. In the author's opinion, professional teacher development adds to the quality of teaching and gives room for improving one's teaching methods and techniques.

Elena Zanina analyses hedging in academic discourse. The author presents a detailed description of types of hedging and examples from English and Russian corpora, provides results of the research in the form of tables and diagrams. It is a profound and well-grounded comparative analysis which

contributes to teaching of ESP/EAP issues and can elicit further research into frequencies of strategic hedging types in each of the languages for the given or other domains.

Denis Zolotukhin investigates the phenomena of polysemy and homonymy in the sphere of terminology. The results of his experiment show that some deviations are caused by objective differences at significative and denotative levels of the meaning structure as well as by the subjective use of occasional contexts of terms in linguistic research. This conclusion allows the author to construct a new classification of meaning relations of linguistic

terms and an abstract model that can be applied for the analysis of any term of the modern linguistic terminology.

This brief synopsis of the papers constituting this issue (Issue 2) of *Journal of Language and Education* demonstrates a diversity of approaches and topics in the areas of linguistics and practices of teaching English. We hope our readers enjoy the selection of articles chosen for this issue.

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Contents

Articles

Nataliya Denisova, Dinara Yusipova A Comparative Analysis of Temporal Structure of English Poetic Texts for Adults and Children	6
Alexander Kalashnikov Shakespearean Charactonyms in Translations into Russian	14
Flora Komlósi, Siarl Ferdinand Perceptions and Use of English by Secondary School Students From Central Asia	23
Galina Levitskaya, Elizaveta Levitskaya The Problems of Russian-Speaking Students of Non-Ninguistic Specializations in CAE Speaking. Test: Analysis of Teaching Experience	33
Alexander Shuneyko, Olga Chibisova On the Question of the Semiotic Typology of Signs	43
Elena Zanina Strategic Hedging: A Comparative Study of Methods, Results and Discussion (and Conclusion) Sections of Research Articles in English and Russian	52
Denis Zolotukhin Polysemy in Linguistic Terminological Systems Based on the Analysis of French Linguistic Terms	61
<i>Reviews</i>	
Galina Suvorova, Tatiana Baranovskaya Systemic Genesis Approach in Psychology	68
Notes for contributors	78

A Comparative Analysis of Temporal Structure of English Poetic Texts for Adults and Children

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Poetry has always been under the focus of scholars' attention, though the problem of performing a comparative analysis of children's and adults' poetry has not received enough attention yet. The study undertaken is aimed to fill in this gap and provide the analysis of English poetry for adults and children with the attempt to identify some grammatical peculiarities of the corresponding poetic texts. The scope of the texts for examination is limited to English poetry of the nineteenth – twentieth centuries focused on the animal theme. The analysis of the temporal structure of the texts selected was based on the method elaborated by Ludmila Nozdrina in her work "Poetics of grammar categories" (2004). The results of the study have proved the hypothesis stated: there are some differences in temporal structuring of the nineteenth–twentieth century poetic English texts focused on the animal theme. The main difference lies in targeting the poem: whether it appeals to adults or children. The current study contains quantitative information on the usage of certain grammatical phenomena within the texts analyzed, and the attempts of their interpretations. Consequently, the study might be of particular interest for those scholars who do research on differentiating grammatical peculiarities of poetry in general and drawing differences between children's and adults' poetry, in particular.

Keywords: poetry, English poetry, literature for adults and children, text analysis, grammar, animals

Poetry in general and English poetry in particular has always attracted the attention of scholars: take for instance, the works of Harriet Beecher Stowe (1870) or Aleksey Bartoshevich (2014). Nevertheless, as the study has revealed, the number of works dealing with the comparative analysis between children's and adults' poetry is relatively small (Anderson, 1984; Churchill, 1999). This article aims to fill in this gap and provide the analysis of English poetry for children and adults with the attempt to identify some grammatical peculiarities of the corresponding poetic texts. Limiting the scope of the texts for examination there has been selected

English poetry of the nineteenth – twentieth centuries with a special focus on the animal theme. By poems focused on the animal theme we understand the poems where animals stay as subjects or objects of narration.

The grammatical aspects of poetic texts have been scrutinized by many outstanding linguists, such as Roman Jakobson (Jakobson, 1960), Noam Chomsky (Chomsky, 1957), Samuel Levin (1965), Michael Halliday (1961), and contemporary less famous scholars, for example, Antonina Harbus (2012). The study that has served the base in choosing the method for analyzing grammatical peculiarities of the poetic

texts for children and adults is “Poetics of grammar categories” by Ludmila Nozdrina (2004). The researcher examines the role the grammar categories play in the text structure while the text is performing its main artistic–aesthetic function (Nozdrina, 2004). Having distinguished several “networks” within the structure of the text, Nozdrina explores each of them according to some parameters specially created (Nozdrina, 2004). The method Nozdrina offers for the analysis of the temporal structure of literary texts has been chosen for accomplishing the purposes of the study.

For the purpose of this study, a hypothesis was formulated. It is: there exist some differences in temporal structuring of the nineteenth–twentieth century English poetic texts with the animal theme as the focus. What underlies the differences is targeting the poems: whether they appeal to children or adults.

Materials and Methods

Literature Review

The number of scientific studies dealing with different approaches to examining poetry, including English poetry, is relatively big. Poetic texts are being scrutinized within different sciences: cognitive linguistics (Borkent, 2010; Harbus, 2012; Stockwell, 2002), stylistics (Thorne, 1969; Goncharenko, 1988), sociolinguistics (Fowler, 1981; Samson, A. (2005), pedagogy (Koch, 1971; Sloan, 2001) cultural studies (Damon, Livingston, 2009; DuPlessis, 2012), and so on.

It is important to note that while adult poetry has always been under the focus of scholars’ attention, the interest for analyzing children’s poetry has appeared only recently (Churchill, 1999, p.1). The last decades have been marked by the appearance of a number of works on literature for children, including children’s poetry, for instance, a profound study made by Pavlova (2011), which is connected with the examination of socio–linguistic characteristics of communicative space in English and Russian verses for children. Another scholar, Kilcup (2008), has divided the American children’s poetry of the nineteenth century thematically, thus, creating an anthology of such poems. One more example worth mentioning is the work by Sokolova (2013) where communicative strategies in PR, agitation, and avant-garde poetic texts aimed at children are studied.

There exists a variety of textual texts referring to children’s poetry. According to Schellenberg, “Children’s poetry seems to incorporate not only verses written for children, but also poetry written about children, poetry written by children, and (a troublingly indeterminate category) poetry that children enjoy” (Schellenberg,

1996, pp. 7-8). For the purposes of the study the scope of poems under consideration has been limited to the only text type – poetic texts written for children.

A number of studies have appeared recently where the authors have made attempts to examine some differences between poetry for adults and children (Pavlova, 2011; Churchill, 1999). One of the works that deserves attention is the study by Pavlova (2011), who has managed to provide some peculiarities of children’s poetry on different language levels of poetry texts (lexico–morphological, syntactic, and phonetic) in comparison with the corresponding texts written for adults (Pavlova, 2011). The author declares against the consideration of children’s poetry as simple or primitive in comparison with the one for adults. She accentuates that “Apparent simplicity is just not very high lexical and grammar saturation of the text, the lack of complex syntactical structures and abstract notions” (Pavlova, 2011, p. 16), making an emphasis here on the importance of plot and composition (Pavlova, 2011, p. 16). Pavlova argues that at the lexical level, the peculiarities of poetic texts for children in comparison with those for adults become apparent through “maximization of lexical units, that correlates with visual–image type of thinking” (Pavlova, 2011, p. 52). At the syntactical level, the scholar lays an emphasis on a higher explicit expressiveness of the texts written for children in comparison with poetic texts for adults (Pavlova, 2011, p.51). As for morphological level, Pavlova stresses “the predominance of nouns, verbs over a small number of adjectives in poetic texts for children which reflects a step–by–step succession of familiarization with these parts of speech in the ontology of speech development” (Pavlova, 2011, p. 174).

There exist some studies where the researchers, while analyzing the poetry of one particular poet, draw the differences between his approaches to creating verses for adults and children (Churchill, 1999; Ritvo, 1985; Tricker, 2001). For example, Churchill (1999), providing the analysis of children’s poetry of such American Modernist writers as Lindsay, Benet and Sandburg, accentuates that their children’s poetry “is of a piece with their writing for adults” in contrast to Eliot’s *Practical Cats* (the poem given as the example of Eliot’s poetry for children), which “stands in complete opposition to Eliot’s major poetic works” (Churchill, 1999; Ritvo, 1985; Tricker, 2001, p. 171).

While differentiating the most popular poetic themes, many scholars distinguish an animal topic as one of the most frequently used in creating verses for both: children and adults (Stepanova, 2003; Pavlova, 2011). This fact has determined choosing the themes for selecting the poems for further detailed examination.

The study undertaken is aimed at revealing some peculiarities of poetic texts on the temporal level.

That is why it has required the study of corresponding scientific literature dealing with examination of grammar aspects of poetry. One of the most prominent linguists, Jakobson, (1960) suggested a functional definition of poetic language having defined the main constitutive factors any kind of communication is based on (Jakobson, 1960). Chomsky (1957) has introduced the theory of transformational–generative grammar, which was further used by many scientists in their analysis of poetic texts. (See, for example, the study by Levin (1965). The approach within category–scale grammar developed by Halliday (1961) supposes to examine English syntax on the basis of “rank–scale” of units: sentence, clause, group, word, morpheme (Halliday, 1961).

A significant number of modern scientific works on literary texts, poetic texts as well, deals with a cognitive approach, which implies an approach from the view of man’s perception of the surrounding world. The work “Poetics of grammar categories” by Nozdrina (2004) is one of the studies within such an approach, which is aimed at showing the role grammar categories play in the text structure while the text is fulfilling its main, artistic–aesthetic function. The interaction between grammar aspect and other aspects, such as lexical, word formation and phonetic ones is taken into account (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 6). Four grammar categories are considered: the category of time, person, mood and definiteness/indefiniteness. Each grammar category is considered as the main means for creating the corresponding text structure: time category – as the means for creating temporal structure, mood – modal, person – personal, definiteness/indefiniteness – referential structure of the text. The researcher adds one more structure – the local text structure (Nozdrina, 2004).

The approach presented by Nozdrina in the part concerning the analysis of the temporal network of literary texts has served as an instrument for the examination of poetic texts in the research conducted. The next part of the article will present more detailed explanation of this method, which underlies the analysis of English poetry for adults and children.

Methodology

The main aim of the study performed is to draw the differences in the temporal structuring of the nineteenth–twentieth century poetic English texts taking into account the target audience of the poems: adults or children. To achieve the aim of the study the approach to the analysis of temporal structure developed by Nozdrina (2004) has been chosen. It is important to note that the temporal structure constitutes only one element of the whole system of examining the text

based on the network text analysis together with local, modal, personal as well as the referential structures. The size of the article does not give an opportunity to provide the whole network analysis of the poetic texts, thus it has been decided to focus only on one aspect of such analysis, connected with the temporal structure.

To describe contextual text structures, the researcher introduces the notion a “textual network” which is represented by a set of language means (morphological, syntactic, lexical, word-formation) expressing precise semantic context (temporality, modality and so on) (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 52). A textual network is a syntagmatic category peculiar to speech. The network is very important in poems as it helps understand the poet’s technique and interpret the plot and the message of the poem as a whole. To draw differences between various texts within a certain textual network (for example, temporal network), Nozdrina has introduced such parameters as net composition, net picture, rhythm of transition, and net conditionality. To distinguish between the components within these parameters, the method of opposition is used (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 53).

According to Nozdrina, the pattern of *temporal network* is a graphically depicted transition from one tense form to another to involve the reader into the action, to compare and contrast between the present and the past (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 79). The temporal network expresses movements in time of the author and other participants. In order to express time in general and the exact time of the action in particular, writers resort to the usage of the variety of tenses, nouns, adverbs and numerals.

In this study it will be examined the use of tenses in poetic texts written for adults and children to state some differences in their structuring. The composition of the temporal network will be analyzed on the basis of the criteria proposed by Nozdrina (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 78).

The temporal network, as Nozdrina suggests, can be *monotemporal* (only one tense is used) and *polytemporal* (two or more tenses are used). The scholar accentuates the main tasks grammatical time plays in a monotemporal text for artistic purposes of the texts. The single tense which is used throughout the poem makes it cohesive. It creates the “barrier effect” between the real world and the world of the characters of the poem; between the real time and artistic time. It also makes an attempt to plunge the reader into the present situation and involve him into the action (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 69). As far as polytemporal network is concerned, the tasks the grammatical tense plays in this kind of texts, are different to some extent. The use of various tenses in the text contributes to the creation of temporal discontinuum, lyrical mood of the whole artistic text with the often change of lyrical characters’

feelings, artistic rhythm and the time of the plot of the narration. It also focuses the reader on the main action by switching to another grammatical time structure and draws difference between compositional parts of the text (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 75).

Defining other parameters for comparison within the temporal network Nozdrina differentiates between a *single-layered* temporal network (there is only one plan of narration – the author’s one) and a *multi-layered* network (the direct speech of characters is present as well) (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 75). The researcher distinguishes a *definite* network (the exact time of the action is present) and *indefinite* (the exact time of the action is absent) (Nozdrina, 2004, p. 75). These particular parameters have been applied further in the analysis of poetic texts for children and adults.

Results and Discussion

In this research 50 poems by British and American writers have been analyzed: 25 – for children and the other 25 – for adults (see Appendix 1). The limitation refers to the topic of the poems. The animal theme has been chosen being one of the most popular one. The analysis of the temporal networks of the texts was based on the approach elaborated by Nozdrina (2004).

The quantitative analysis was employed to define percentagewise the number of poetic texts (written for children or adults) sharing certain characteristics to the overall number of poetic texts (25 in each category). The goal of the study has been to examine the temporal structures of the texts chosen so that to prove that they have some differences depending on the audience to appeal. The results obtained during the analysis of the nineteenth–twentieth century poetic English texts written for children and adults (focused on the animal theme) are presented in the table and the bar chart. The table contains the information on the usage of grammar times in corresponding poetic texts given in percentage terms. The bar chart reflects the peculiarities of the compositional network of the same texts. The table and the bar chart are supplied by comments describing the results obtained and giving possible explanations and the author’s interpretations of the data provided.

The first aspect to analyze is the usage of grammar tenses within two types of texts: for children and for adults (see Table 1). The most noticeable difference appears in the use of the Past Simple tense. In poetry for adults the percentage of this tense use is 80% while in poetry for children it is approximately two times less (48%). This evident contrast may be traced to the reader’s age gap. Adults, in contrast to children, have got more comprehensive experience and the ability

to compare and assess their actions in the past. The Past Perfect tense in adults’ poetry is used in 12% of such poems (that is the lowest indicator in the use of grammar tenses in the selected poetic texts for adults) while in children’s poetry there was no manifestation of this tense. It might be suggested that it is the complex structure of the Past Perfect tense that has determined its poor representation in poetic texts in general: “For She who planned the mossy lodge, Mistrusting her evasive skill, Had to a Primrose looked for aid Her wishes to fulfill” (A Wren’s Nest by William Wordsworth); “Eagerly I wished the morrow; – vainly I had sought to borrow From my books surcease of sorrow– sorrow for the lost Lenore – For the rare and radiant maiden whom the angels name Lenore – Nameless here for evermore” (The Raven by Poe Edgar Allan) To add to this, that complex grammatical structure could create apparent difficulties for understanding by children. Another vivid fact is the absence the Past Continuous Tense in the poetic texts for children; it is still presented in 16% of adult poetic texts. It is possible to suppose that the older audience could pay much more attention to details trying to focus on the development of some processes and states. As for the Present Continuous tense, it is used twice more often in poetry for adults (16% vs 8%). This fact is also connected with the world perception by these two audiences: for children might be more important to see the routine, for example, of some animals), while adults seem to be more interested in the process, in a way something happens. It might, as well, explain a slight difference in the use of the Present Simple tense. It is essential to emphasize that in poetry for children, with an animal being the main character, this tense, as a rule, is used to describe the animal’s appearance and the routine of its life; in adult poetry the Present Simple tense, as it was discovered, helps to describe a person’s character through the description of animals’ habits.

The percentage of the Future Simple tense is more than twice higher in poems for adults (32% vs 12%). It could be explained by the fact that older people, as a rule, make plans and speculate about the future. The usage of the Future in the Past Tense in both types of poetry is relatively equal (16% in poems for children and 20% in poems for adults). As the study revealed, in both types of texts the Future in the Past Tense is used, mostly, to impart modality to the narration.

The Present Perfect tense is also more often used in adults’ poems: the usage of this tense is a third more in such poems in comparison with the poems for children. It may be referred to the complex and, consequently, more difficult for perceiving structure of the Present Perfect tense: “Minnalously creeps through the grass From moonlit place to place, The sacred moon overhead Has taken a new phase” (The Cat And The Moon by William Butler Yeats).

Table 1
Temporal network (1)

Temporal network	
Poems for adults	Poems for children
Past Simple	
80%	48%
Past Perfect	
12%	0%
Past Continuous	
16%	0%
Present Continuous	
16%	8%
Present Simple	
68%	76%
Future Simple	
32%	12%
Future in the past	
20%	16%
Present Perfect	
36%	24%

Figure 1. Temporal network (2).

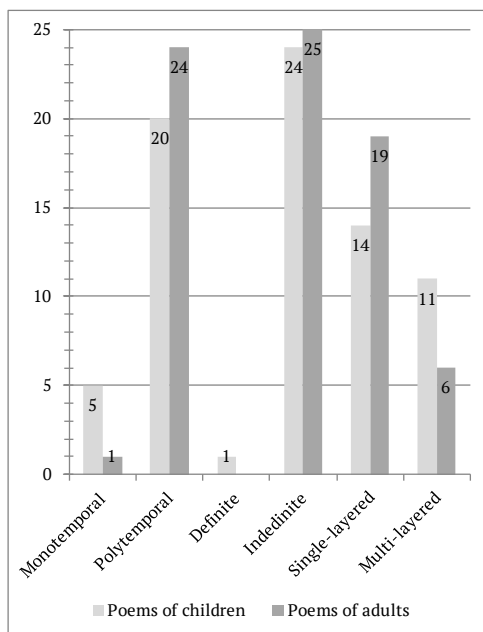


Figure 1. Temporal network (2).

The most striking feature which is peculiar to the compositional structuring of the analyzed texts concerns the opposition definiteness/indefiniteness in determining the time of action (see Figure 1). In fact, only one poem written for children (though it might be referred to both: children and adults' poetry as well) contains a definite indication of time: "And as long after what happened here On the twenty-second of July, Thirteen hundred and seventy-six" (The Pied Piper of

Hamelin by Robert Browning). It could be explained by the specific genre of literature the poetic texts refer to. Poetry is known to reflect a lyrical mood, mostly dealing with feelings and lyrical speculations, the exact time is the last thing to be mentioned here, which is proved by the study conducted. Another peculiarity concerns the number of grammar times used in the texts under analysis: the general tendency in both types of texts is in more complex structuring based on the use of different tenses showing the change in the plot of narration as well as the characters' mood and thoughts. The majority of poetic texts for adults have got polytemporal structure while the fifth part of the children's texts is characterized by monotemporal structure. The choice for one tense to use may be explained by the desire of the authors to make the plot of narration and the way of familiarizing children with animals easier. Speaking about the plan of narration it is possible to see that the common tendency peculiar for the texts in general is the prevailing single-layered network, though there is no significant difference in the use of one particular network in poetry for children with a slight priority for single-layered structure (14% vs 11%). Including dialogues in the text of narration makes it more vivid and emotionally saturated. In animal poetry, attaching human characteristics to the animal characters and involving them in dialogues gives opportunities to speak allegorically and deliver some hidden messages about political, economic, social and other spheres of social life as it is done, for instance, in the poem The Pied Piper of Hamelin by Robert Browning. This method is often used in poetry for adults (for example, satire). The presence of dialogues in children's poetry makes the narration more fascinating and often fulfills an educational role, familiarizing children with the main customs and traditions of the society (in this case, British and American), and teaching children the established ways of behavior, for example, in Three Little Kittens by Eliza Follen. Presenting information in the form of a dialogue amuses children, makes them be more involved in the narration and simplifies the way of perceiving and assimilation of information. Adults, as it is known, have better abilities in understanding and interpreting information. These facts could explain the predominance (though a slight one) in existence of the single-layered network in adults' poetry in comparison with the children's one (19% vs 14%).

To illustrate the differences revealed in the temporal structure of the poems focused on the animal theme written for children and adults, it seems reasonable to give examples of two poems: The Cow by Robert Louis Stevenson (written for children) and To the Snake by Denise Levertov (written for adults).

The temporal network of the poem for children (The Cow) could be characterized as monotemporal (with The Present Simple being the only tense in the poem), indefinite (no definite time of action being indicated),

Table 2
Two poems compared

Poetry for children	Poetry for adults
The cow by Robert Louis Stevenson	To the Snake by Denise Levertov
The friendly cow all red and white, I <u>love</u> with all my heart: She <u>gives</u> me cream with all her might, To eat with apple-tart. She <u>wanders</u> lowing here and there, And yet she <u>cannot stray</u> , All in the pleasant open air, The pleasant light of day; And blown by all the winds that <u>pass</u> And wet with all the showers, She <u>walks</u> among the meadow grass And <u>eats</u> the meadow flowers.	Green Snake, when I <u>hung</u> you round my neck and <u>stroked</u> your cold, pulsing throat as you <u>hissed</u> to me, glinting arrowy gold scales, and I <u>felt</u> the weight of you on my shoulders, and the whispering silver of your dryness <u>sounded</u> close at my ears -- Green Snake--I <u>swore</u> to my companions that certainly you <u>were</u> harmless! But truly I <u>had</u> no certainty, and no hope, only desiring to hold you, for that joy, which <u>left</u> a long wake of pleasure, as the leaves <u>moved</u> and you <u>faded</u> into the pattern of grass and shadows, and I <u>returned</u> smiling and haunted, to a dark morning.

single-layered (with only one plan of narration). The temporal network of the poem for adults (To the Snake) has got the same characteristics concerning the plan of narration (being single-layered), definiteness of the time of action (being indefinite) but differs in the usage of tenses in the poem: in contrast to the previous poem, the only tense used in the poem To the Snake is The Past Simple Tense. As it was revealed earlier in this study, it was The Present Simple tense that was the most often used tense for describing actions and states in the poetic texts for children, while The Past Simple tense was the most frequently used one for the same purposes in the corresponding texts for adults. In this respect, The Cow by Robert Louis Stevenson and To the Snake by Denise Levertov serve good illustration for this phenomenon.

To sum up, it should be stated that the analysis of English poems for children and adults (limited by the animal theme) with the help of textual network analysis has revealed some common features and differences in grammatical structuring of the poetic texts considered. The characteristics that both two types of texts have in common within their temporal network concern the lack of definiteness in indicating certain time of the actions in poems. Both types of texts have predominance in the use of various tenses (not the single one) within their structures. The Present Continuous and Present Perfect have been used approximately two times more in adults' poetry in comparison with the children's poetry. The Past Simple tense has been discovered as the most frequently used in the texts for adults, while the Present Simple tense is more common in the texts for children. The texts with direct speech of the characters are more spread within poetic texts for children. The main difference in the temporal network of two types of the texts lies in the usage of the Past Perfect and Past

Continuous tenses, manifestation of which has not been found at all in the children's poetic texts under analysis. The common features mentioned above could be referred to the fact that the texts studied belong to the single genre – poetry – thus, common characteristics might be general to all poetic texts. The differences could be explained by various approaches to perceiving the world, and poetry, in particular, by children and adults, and the aspiration of the authors writing for them to meet the expectations of these two audiences.

Conclusion

This article focused on examination of English poetry (British and American) for adults and children. The study of English poetic texts of the nineteenth – twentieth centuries focused on the animal theme has proved the hypothesis provided at the beginning of the article, that there exist some differences in temporal structuring of such texts depending on whom these texts are intended: adults or children. The compositional temporal structures of these two types of texts vary in the way the grammar tenses are used as well as the preferences for a certain type of narration. It is possible to suggest, the main discrepancies may be explained by the authors' aspiration to comply with the various perception of reality, including a poetic world, by adults and younger readers.

It is possible to suggest that quantitative indicators that have been revealed within the temporal network of the texts may vary depending on specific children's or adults' poems chosen for consideration. This study examined poems related to the animal topic, though

other themes may also be taken for the similar texts examination. Moreover, it could be challenging in further research to expand the possibilities of using the methodology elaborated by Nozdrina (2004) and apply network text analysis to the consideration of poetic texts differentiating within the whole range of networks distinguished by the author: temporal, local, personal, referential, and modal. In general, the data, including qualitative ones, presented in the current study might be of practical use for those scholars who aim at revealing grammatical peculiarities of poetic texts as a whole, and the researchers who investigate the possibilities to differentiate between children' and adults' poetry.

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Appendix 1

Poems for children	Poems for adults
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Ants (Douglas Florian) • The Bat (Theodore Roethke) • Birds in Summer (Mary Howitt) • The Cow (Robert Louis Stevenson) • Don't Tease The Lion (Wheeler Wilcox Ella) • The field mouse (Cecil Frances Alexander) • The Lion (Spike Milligan) • A Marriage Made in Heaven (Patrick Winstanley) • Mary's Lamb (Sarah Josepha Hale) • The Mountain and the Squirrel (Ralph Waldo Emerson) • My cat goes flying through the air (Renn Nesbitt) • My Dog he is an ugly dog (Jack Prelutsky) • My dog likes discos (Kenn Nesbitt) • Once there was an elephant (Elizabeth Howe Richard) • Penguin Poem (William Jay Smith) • The Penguin That Couldn't Fly (Meish Goldish) • The pied piper of Hamelin (Robert Browning) • Puppy and I (A. A. Milne) • The Sheep (Ann and Jane Taylor) • Three little kittens (Eliza Follen) • The Three Little Pigs (Roald Dahl) • To be a bird (Aileen Fisher) • The Turtle (Jack Prelutsky) • A wolf is at the Laundromat (Jack Prelutsky) • Zebra Crossing (Kate Williams) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abandoned Dog (Robert William Service) • The Blind Men and the Elephant (John Godfrey Saxe) • To a Butterfly (William Wordsworth) • The Cat And The Moon (William Butler Yeats) • Cuckoo (William Wordsworth) • The Darkling Thrush (Thomas Hardy) • An elegy on the Death of a Mad Dog (Oliver Goldsmith) • The Fish (Bishop Elizabeth) • To Flush, My Dog (Elizabeth Barrett Browning) • The Fly (William Blake) • The Frog (Hilaire Belloc) • The Hyaenas (Rudyard Kipling) • Medusa (Louise Bogan) • A Memorial to Boatswain (Lord Byron) • A Minor Bird (Robert Frost) • To a Mouse (Robert Burns) • On the Grasshopper and Cricket (John Keats) • The Raven (Poe Edgar Allan) • Shiv and the Grasshopper (Rudyard Kipling) • To a Skylark (William Wordsworth) • Snake (Denise Levertov) • Snake (Padraic Colum) • Sonnet to the Nightingale (John Milton) • The Tiger (William Blake) • A Wren's Nest (William Wordsworth)

Shakespearean Charactonyms in Translations into Russian

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Despite a long tradition of translating Shakespeare's works into Russian, names as a stylistic device have been underestimated by scholars. The study deals with the space or environment of characteristic names (charactonyms) and its rendering into Russian in the works *Henry IV, Part II* and *The Merry Wives of Windsor*. The material for the research is a dozen translations into Russian done in the nineteenth and the twentieth centuries including annotated editions which may show additional interpretations of the names. Comparing the puns based on names and their equivalents as a method shows how to identify overlapping approaches to translating stylistic devices involving charactonyms. The analysis of the translations reveals a variety of ways to render names, in particular within text, which is rare, and the application of commentaries in annotated editions. This research demonstrates that some equivalents of names have been repeated in several translations and hence the translators relied on the best practice instead of suggesting their own solutions. The research also shows the strategies and patterns employed by Russian translators and writers, which may be a good resource for literary translators.

Keywords: Shakespearean onomastics, charactonyms, literary translation, translation into Russian

Shakespeare's interest in names as more than tags for distinguishing one character from another manifested itself early in his career. He carried over names from his source books, or when altering such names or adding characters with new ones, chose his invented names on grounds of propriety for poetic utterance, mood, or of natural origin. There are, however, a number of names throughout the canon which have figurative overtones. One such group clusters around personality traits or characters' occupation. Early English drama abounds in examples of charactonyms or label names. The works of the first half of the sixteenth century such as Bale's *King John* and Udall's *Ralph Roister Doister* well illustrate this technique with names: Usurped Power, Treason, Sediton, Commonalty, Nobility (Bale, 1838, p. 1), Mathew Merygreeke, Gawyn Goodluck, Margerie Mumblecrust (Udall, 1869, p. 1). Yet Shakespeare's immediate predecessors – Lily, Greene, Peele, Marlow, and Kyd – showed little interest in such nomenclature. The Bard's fascination for the possibilities of charactonyms was partially a return to an older tradition. Shakespeare with his own transparent name was keen on applying puns not only to fictional names but to those of real people, e.g., Sir

Henry Percy Hotspur.

The paper will identify the key charactonyms from the historical play *Henry IV, Part 2* (hereafter *Henry IV*) and the comedy *The Merry Wives of Windsor* as well as puns involving names, and expose those which are relevant to rendering into Russian and the equivalents suggested in several translations. The comparison of the name stems and the equivalents will show the difference in the register of the names. Some names will be considered as being controversial in terms of rendering. The method for comparing puns will show how to identify overlapping solutions to translating puns. The names under examination are represented in Appendices A and B.

The paper argues that translators borrow the equivalents for charactonyms from early translations. Hence, the author aims to show the most relevant names in Shakespeare to be rendered, the strategies provided by translators in several versions, and demonstrate the equivalents of charactonyms borrowed by translators. The topicality of the research is that the analysis of the names will show which episodes require additional attention when translating. As the research is devoted to the names in the works belonging to the

canon of British and world literature requiring new interpretations and translations, guidelines will be provided for practicing translators to look back at what has been done and justify their variants on the basis of the suggested ones. Moreover, the works analyzed require new translations into Russian as the latest ones were carried out more than half a century ago (Shakespeare, 1959a, b). Besides, the study introduces the Russian translation tradition of Shakespeare's works with 12 translations. The material for the names to be examined in the paper may be of interest as the number of translations (12 in total, 6 for each play) taken for comparison is unprecedented in both translation theory and onomastic studies. The attempt to examine the onymic space in the translation of the works by Shakespeare into Russian is being done for the first time.

The studies of Shakespearean onomastics in translations are not extensive. Earlier commentaries and papers on this topic are the annotated edition of *The Twelfth Night* (Shakespeare, 1901) containing explanations for German readers regarding names, as even the versions rendered in German did not seem convincing to the editors; and the paper by scholar Maria Barros Ochoa (1992) with classified most representative examples of rendering charactonyms into Spanish on a rather wide material of Shakespeare's works in translation. The selected names rendered in translation were arranged in three groups: conservation of the English form, phonological adaptation and translation (Ochoa, 1992).

In a more recent paper, Gomes da Torre (2004), one of the translators of *Measure for Measure*, suggests his solutions to rendering wordplay with names and compares his versions to some previous solutions in translations. That paper traces the reasons for the choice of particular names and contexts in Shakespeare's play and concludes on the inconsistencies in the choice of names in the play *per se* and in translations (Gomes da Torre, 2004, p. 208). A special attention was given to the contexts involving names Pompey, Overdone, Abhorson, and Shoetie. The comparison of the Portuguese equivalents such as Reozida, Desgastada and Desgaste for Overdone (Gomes da Torre, 2004, p. 212) or Abominancio and Unhas-de-Fome for Abhorson (Gomes da Torre, 2004, p. 215) emphasizes the postulate that every translator should decide which meanings and overtones in translation are obligatory and which ones may be missed out.

Materials and Methods

The research aims to show the stems used in the Russian translations to transfer the stylistic relevance

of charactonyms and to expose the names requiring additional rendering. To achieve the objective, the variety of the names has been reduced to the most representative charactonyms in Shakespeare's plays and their translations. The suggestion is expressed that some Russian translations made the text more vulgar. The names were organized into lists with the equivalents given in the translations and compared (see Appendices A and B). Special attention in this regard has been given to puns, which are the core of Act III, scene II of *Henry IV*.

The characters surrounding Falstaff in translation have not been studied though Shakespeare's use of charactonyms in *Henry IV* stands as pivotal. On the one hand, it reflects his earlier interest in meaningful names in their simplest form – mirroring a specific personality or occupation trait of a character without any significant role in the play. On the other hand, it shows him combining the possibilities of humorous characterization. *The Merry Wives of Windsor* presents greater sophistication in these respects than *Henry IV* does. The names studied and classified are restricted to the characters associated with Falstaff.

As Shakespeare played the name game, he did not limit himself to any one genre. The comedies, tragedies, and histories all contain characters whose appellations have been determined by their traits or occupations. Many charactonyms are part of the *dramatis personae* list, which shows their significance for the plot. In *Henry IV*, they are: Pistol, Shallow, Silence, Fang, Snare, Tearsheet, Quickly. The recruits whom Shallow gathered for Falstaff were called Mouldy, Shadow, Wart, Feeble, and Bullcalf (see Appendices B and C). As Falstaff addresses them in Act III, scene II, he manages to make some remarks reflecting on their names. A similar enumeration of names has been mentioned in the same act earlier (Shakespeare, n.d., p. 512) but then the names derived from other words were not explained. In this case, they may be referred to as intersemantizing names (see Kalashnikov, 2013), i.e., they acquire some stylistic characteristics not because of the interpretation of the morphemes but because of their location within the same context: Doit (a coin), Double (double-faced), Pickbone (to have a bone to pick with somebody) etc. Such names being inexpressive are less relevant to translation. In total, the study has revealed 9 charactonyms in *The Merry Wives of Windsor* (see Appendix A) and 28 in *Henry IV* (see Appendix B). However, some of the names overlap: Quickly, Pistol, Silence, Shallow. Despite the feature of characterization, the names are neutral in register, with a share containing a negative connotation.

The translations of *The Merry Wives of Windsor* selected for this study were performed by N. Ketcher (Shakespeare, 1862), P. Veinberg (Shakespeare, 1902), L. Kanshin (Shakespeare, 1894b), V. Moritz and M. Kuzmin (Shakespeare, 1937a), T. Schepkina-Kupernik

(Shakespeare, 1950), M. Morozov and S. Marshak (Shakespeare, 1959a). The translation of the inner form in the names in *Henry IV* deserves attention as this historical play was one of the first translations of any Shakespeare's work into Russian. The rendering *This 'tis to have Linen and Buckbaskets* with the setting in Saint Petersburg was done by the Russian empress Catherine the Great (Catherine II, 1893). She suggested the names Фордов for Ford and Папина (~ father's) for Anne Page. Later, the translations of *Henry IV* were done in the nineteenth century by N. Ketcher (Shakespeare, 1869), L. Kanshin (Shakespeare, 1894a), then by A. Vengerova and N. Minskiy (Shakespeare, 1902). In the Soviet period, the work was translated by M. Kuzmin (Shakespeare, 1937a), B. Pasternak (Shakespeare, 1948), E. Birukova (Shakespeare, 1959b). Birukova's translation is the latest so far. Of note, translators Ketcher, Kanshin, Kuzmin, Morozov translated both works.

Results and Discussion

Disclosing characteristic traits in names was based on the contextual analysis which identifies a certain association between the name and some trait or occupation, e.g., Pistol and Smooth are a soldier and silkman respectively. Shallow characterizes justice. With few exceptions, Shakespeare restricted such names to the lower class characters. For the complete list of characteristics, see Appendices A and B.

Most names are transcribed or transliterated when being characteristic in Russian literature. Some do not require any transformation which may be understood as the name contains an internationally recognizable stem. Among the formal approaches to rendering names, there is transliteration, notes / commentaries, and footnotes. Some names specified as characteristic may be rendered without many changes, i.e., Pistol, Nym. The former represents an international stem with the same meaning – a pistol. The latter is characteristic but historically as the word *nym* used to be derived from Middle English *nimen* 'to take' and is applied in the play to represent a rogue or filcher. The meaning and characteristics of the names is vague even for the current native English readers so it may deem irrelevant to explicate the meaning unless an untranslated name hampers understanding, e.g., the translation done by Moritz and Kuzmin (Shakespeare 1937a, 1937b) with minimal explanations. The puns or amusing misuse of words resembling in different languages, e.g., Hannibal – Cannibal in *Henry IV* (Act II, Scene IV) (Shakespeare, n.d., p. 508) do not require any additional rendering either. The names in *Henry IV* rendered without showing the inner form are (see

also Appendices A and B):

Ketcher: Quickly, Silence, Surecard, Snarre, Fang, Tearsheet, Doit, Barnes, Pickbone, Squele, Stockfish, Double, Nightwork, Smooth, Shallow;

Kanshin: Quickly, Silence, Doit, Barnes, Tearsheet, Pickbone, Squele, Stockfish, Double, Nightwork, Smooth, Shallow;

Vengerova: Quickly, Doit, Barnes, Tearsheet, Pickbone, Squele, Stockfish, Double, Nightwork, Smooth;

Pasternak: Quickly, Squeel, Double, Tearsheet, Nightwork, Shallow;

Birukova: Quickly, Snare, Fang, Tearsheet, Barnes, Smooth, Shallow.

The least popular for translation were the following names: Quickly, Tearsheet, Silence, Doit, Pickbone, Squele, Stockfish, Double, Nightwork, Smooth. As Quickly and Silence are major characters, their characteristics are shown through the entire description without any focus on the forms of the names. The largest number of the names untranslated at the level of the characteristic concept has occurred in Ketcher's text – the first translation of the play. In the latest translation of *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, Morozov and Marshak applied only transliteration without commentaries. The names of minor characters about who we do not know anything and possess the so called intersemantisizing meaningfulness were left untouched. The traces that the translations did not show as being explicit amoral characteristics are seen in not rendering the names of characters with suggestive names Doll Tearsheet and Jane Nightwork. The most frequent variants of transliteration or rendering are given in Table 1.

Table 1
Frequency of transliterated equivalents
a) *The Merry Wives of Windsor*

English name	Pistol	Nym	Quickly	Shallow
Russian equivalent (frequency)	Пистоль (4)	Ним (4)	Куикли (4)	Шеллоу (3)
English name	Slender	Simple	Brook	
Russian equivalent	Слендер (4)	Симпль (4)	Брук (2)	

b) *Henry IV*

English name	Pistol	Quickly	Doll Tearsheet	Silence
Russian equivalent (frequency)	Пистоль (6)	Квикли (3) Куикли (3)	Тершит (4)	Сайленс (5)
English name	Surecard	Snare	Fang	Doit

Russian equivalent	Шуркард (3)	Силок (2) Снер (2)	Коготь (3)	Дойт (4)
English name	Barnes	Pickbone	Stockfish	Squele
Russian equivalent	Барнс (4)	Пикбон (6)	Стокфиш (4)	Скуил (3)
English name	Double	Jane Nightwork	Gaunt	Smooth
Russian equivalent	Дебль (5)	Найтурок (2) Ночная Пташка (2)	Гонт (6)	Смут (5)
English name	Shallow	Mouldy	Shadow	Wart
Russian equivalent	Шеллоу (5)	Плесень (3)	Тень (5)	Бородавка (4)
English name	Slender	Simple	Brook	Shallow
Russian equivalent	Слендер (4)	Симпль (4)	Брук (2)	Шеллоу (5)
English name	Feeble	Bullcalf	Hotspur	
Russian equivalent	Слабняк (2) Мозгльак (2)	Бычок (4)	Commentaries (4)	

Having been transliterated, most variants targeting charactonyms took advantage of commentaries, with 42 cases of 196 equivalents, i.e., 21%. Two editions had commentaries (in the Appendices ‘commentaries’ are shortened to cmnt). The translation done by V. Pasternak is an annotated edition with the commentaries made by D. Urnov. The stems are translated in the notes and include: Surecard – уверенная карта – (sure card), Shallow – пустой – (empty). The commentaries to *The Merry Wives of Windsor* are less focused on names. The commentaries were added to the translations by Moritz and Kuzmin, Pasternak, Birukova. They were written by Shakespearean scholars A. Smirnov and D. Urnov and may be considered too detailed even for obvious things. As to the remarks on such explanatory notes, it is worth mentioning that the name Barnes was represented in the form Bare and interpreted in the Moritz and Kuzmin edition as *naked* (Shakespeare, 1937b, p. 677) which is probably a mistake. The original form was Barnes meaning *a place to store grain*.

The transliteration of charactonyms did not harm the text though made it less vivid. An aspect which might have affected the onymic space is the form of English names which accidentally coincide with Russian words or resemble them making the transliterated form sound ambiguous, in particular the name Caius. The name Caius from *The Merry Wives of Windsor* associated with a famous seventeenth century doctor John Caius is pronounced as /'ki:z/. In Russian, the name is transliterated but it sounds very similar to the word *kayat'sya* or *ja kayus'*, i.e., feel sorry, which

can add some irrelevant connotation. The same is with the silkman's name Smooth which resembles the Russian *smuta* – ‘strife’. V. Pasternak, the Nobel Prize winner in literature, suggested in his translation the variant Smoos to make the equivalent less resembling. It renders the idea as it sounds like the internationally known word *mousse*.

As to the thesis of the paper on overlapping variants, the analysis has shown that the equivalents for charactonyms have been repeated in several translations: Плесень (Vengerova, Birukova), Тень (Vengerova, Kanshin, Ketcher, Kuzmin, Birukova); Бородавка (Vengerova, Ketcher, Kuzmin, Birukova); Слабняк (Vengerova, Kuzmin); Бычок (Vengerova, Kuzmin, Birukova); Силок (Vengerova, Kanshin); Коготь (Vengerova, Kanshin, Pasternak); Ночная Пташка (Birukova, Kuzmin). The variants of Vengerova have been applied mostly by Birukova: Плесень, Тень, Бородавка, Бычок. With the major charactonyms in Shakespeare's works being neutral in terms of register though with a taint of negative connotation, the Russian translations contain colloquial variants: Мозгльак (snip) (Birukova, Kanshin), Пискун (squeaker), Блюдолиз (sponger) (Moritz and Kuzmin in commentaries), Гуляка (roister), Тихоня (timid boy) (Vengerova and Minskiy). The variant with the colloquial ending *-yak* has been applied twice: Мозгльак, Слабняк. In *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, other expressive equivalents are Пустозвон (windbag), Слюнтяй (sissy), Простофиля (Simple Simon). The image of characters has not changed except probably Pasternak who rendered the name Shadow as Облако – ‘cloud’. The translator Schepkina-Kupernik listed double variants on the dramatis personae list and then transliterated names.

A special effort from translators was required by a passage from *Henry IV* introducing the recruits whom Shallow gathered for Falstaff as they bear names Mouldy, Shadow, Wart, Feeble, and Bullcalf (see Appendix C). As Falstaff addresses each of them, he manages to make some remarks on their names. The comparative analysis of puns (see Appendix B) has shown that puns from the translation by Moritz and Kuzmin were borrowed from the translation of Vengerova and Minskiy, e.g., Плесень (mould), Тень (shadow), Бородавка (wart), Слабняк (softie). Translators Z. Vengerova and N. Minskiy (Shakespeare, 1902) applied an interesting approach with the name Peter Bullcalf having changed the personal regular name Peter to Hector – the name of a Trojan prince and the greatest fighter in the Trojan War – probably to show ironically the courage of the warrior.

In *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, the primary pun from Act III, Scene V was based on the name Ford: “Mistress Ford! I have had ford enough; I was thrown into the ford; I have my belly full of ford.” (Shakespeare, n.d.,

p. 67). The name was transliterated in the translations of M. Kuzmin (Shakespeare, 1937a, p. 364) and M. Morozov (Shakespeare, 1959a, p. 327). The other variants include: Источник (source (Kanshin), Порок (stream (Veinberg), Порт (port (Schepkina-Kupernik).

Besides the mentioned onymic features, Shakespeare was one of the first writers who played with the names of historical figures. In *Henry IV*, he characterized Sir Henry Percy Hotspur as a fiery warrior and made a pun on his name in Act I, Scene II: "... young Harry Percy's spur was cold? Of Hotspur Coldspur?" (Shakespeare, n.d., p. 496). Birukova, Pasternak, Ketcher, Vengerova rendered it in the text, Kuzmin and Kanshin resorted to footnotes. In *The Merry Wives of Windsor*, the nobleman John of Gaunt is mentioned. The translators comment on it as a clear association with the word 'gaunt' is evident: "I saw it, and told John a' Gaunt he beat his own name, for you might have thrust him and all his apparel into an eel-skin" (Act III, Scene II) (Shakespeare, n.d., p. 515). The other original interpretation of Gaunt as the Belgian place name Ghent is not explained in any edition.

Conclusion

In this study, a total of 37 (9 + 28) names were analyzed in 12 translations and renderings of *The Merry Wives of Windsor* and *Henry IV, Part II*. Most names were transliterated. The least popular for translation were the names of either major characters or of those mentioned episodically. However, the analysis of translations has revealed the ways of rendering names within text, which is rare, or in commentaries in annotated editions prepared by Shakespearean scholars. The commentators suggested literary translation of stems. Descriptive translation was not used and none of the translators omitted text because of names.

The analysis has shown that the equivalents overlapped in several translations. Some names reflecting features at least at a general level of positive or negative nature may be rendered without many changes, i.e., Pistol, as they represent a stem common in many European languages. Though the major charactonyms in Shakespeare's works being nicknames are neutral in terms of their register, the Russian translations contain colloquial variants arranged in particular by the ending *-yak(a)*: Мозгляк, Гуляка.

The research has shown the strategies and patterns employed by Russian translators for an extensive period, which is a good resource for literary translators and critics. The limits of a journal paper have provided for a concise analysis of anthroponymy in Shakespeare's works. Hence, the research is reduced to

the material of two interconnected and popular works. However, the results presented may be extrapolated to a wider domain of Shakespearean onomastics or English literature in cross cultural research.

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Appendix A

9 charactonyms and their translations in *The Merry Wives of Windsor*
(cmnt = commentaries)

Name	Characteristics/ explanation	Kanshin (Shakespeare, 1894)	Veinberg (Shakespeare, 1902)	Kuzmin (Shakespeare, 1937)	Schepkina- Kupernik (Shakespeare, 1950)	Morozov & Marshak (Shakespeare, 1959)
Pistol	Soldier	Пистоль	Пистоль	Пистоль	Пистоль	Пистоль
Nym	His name suggests petty villainy. It meant 'steal', 'filch' in Elizabethan English.	Ним	Ним	Ним	Ним	Ним
Quickly	Housekeeper. She rapidly flits around town in her capacity as go-between.	Куикли	Куикли	Куикли	Куикли (cmnt)	Куикли
Shallow	Laughable country justice	Свищ	Шэлло (cmnt)	Шеллоу	Шеллоу (cmnt)	Шеллоу
Slender	He is slender of body and slender of mind.	Жердь	Слендер	Слендер	Слендер(cmnt)	Слендер
Simple	Slender's servant. He is no smarter than his name suggests.	Простофиля	Симпль	Симпль	Симпль(cmnt)	Симпль
Brook Ford	The names Brook and Ford belong to the same semantic field - water features.	Источник	Поток	Брук (cmnt)	Порт	Брук

Appendix B

28 charactonyms and puns and their translation in *Henry IV*

Name	Characteristics/ explanation	Ketcher (Shakespeare, 1862)	Kanshin (Shakespeare, 1894)	Vengerova & Minskiy (Shakespeare, 1902)	Moritz & Kuzmin (Shakespeare), 1937)	Pasternak (Shakespeare, 1948)	Birukova (Shakespeare, 1959)
Pistol	Soldier	Пистоль	Пистоль	Пистоль	Пистоль (cmnt)	Пистоль	Пистоль
Quickly	See Appendix 1.	Квикли	Куикли	Квикли	Квикли (cmnt)	Куикли	Куикли
Doll Tearsheet	Lover of Falstaff	Тиршить	Тершит	Тиршить	Тершит (cmnt)	Тершит	Тершит
Silence	Says very little	Сайленсъ	Сайленсъ	Сайленс	Тихоня	Сайленс (cmnt)	Сайленс (cmnt)
Surecard	Alludes to a fraudulent person	Шюръкардъ	Шуркард	Гуляка	Шуркард (cmnt)	Шуркард (cmnt)	Шуркард (cmnt)
Snare	Constable hired to arrest Falstaff	Снарре	Силок	Силокъ	Снер (cmnt)	Клещ	Снер
Fang	Constable hired to arrest Falstaff	Фангъ	Коготь	Коготь	Фенг (cmnt)	Коготь	Фенг
Doit	A coin	Дойтъ	Дайт	Дойтъ	Дойт (cmnt)	Доит	Дойт (cmnt)
Barnes	Barn means a farm building	Барнсъ	Барнс	Бэръ	Бер (cmnt)	Барнс	Барнс
Pickbone	The name alludes to the phrase 'to have a bone to pick with somebody'	Пикбонъ	Пикбон	Пикбонъ	Пикбон (cmnt)	Пикбон	Пикбон (cmnt)
Squele	To squeal	Скиль	Скуил	Сквиль	Скуиль (cmnt)	Скуил	Скуил (cmnt)
Stockfish	Unsalted fish	Стокфиш	Стокфиш	Штокфишъ	Стокфиш (cmnt)	Самсон Треска	Стокфиш (cmnt)
Double	Double-faced	Дебль	Дебль	Добль	Дебль (cmnt)	Дебль	Дебль (cmnt)
Jane Nightwork	Minor character with a suggestive name	Найтворкъ	Найтуорк	Найтворкъ	Ночная Пташка	Найтуорк	Ночная Пташка (cmnt)
Gaunt	1) Embodies emaciation; 2) Duke John of Gaunt = Ghent	Гонт	Гонт	Гонт	Гонт (cmnt)	Гонт	Гонт (cmnt)
Smooth	Silkman	Смут	Смут	Смут	Смут (cmnt)	Смус	Смут
Shallow	See Appendix 1.	Шеллоу	Шэллоу	Пустозвонъ	Шеллоу (cmnt)	Шеллоу (cmnt)	Шеллоу
Mouldy	Recruit	Заплѣ сневѣлый	Слизь	Плесень	Плесень	Грибок	Плесень
Shadow	Extremely thin recruit	Тѣнь	Тень	Тень	Тень	Облако	Тень
Wart	Poor, dressed in rags recruit	Бородавка	Прыщ	Бородавка	Бородавка	Лишай	Бородавка
Feeble	Recruit, a woman's tailor	Слабость	Мозгяк	Слабняк	Слабняк	Немочь	Мозгяк
Bullcalf	Recruit, claims to be ill	Бычокъ	Телок	Гектор Бычок	Бычок	Телок	Бычок
Hotspur	Military man	Молодой Гарри Перси охлаждѣль	И Гарри мой уже не "Хот", а "Кольд-спер"? (cmnt)	Горячій рыцарь- стальо- стывшим- трупомъ	И шпора Перси юного остыла (cmnt)	Охладела Готсперо-ва шпора? (cmnt)	И шпора Перси юного остыла (cmnt)

Appendix C

Puns with names Mouldy, Shadow, Wart, Feeble, Bullcalf in *Henry IV* (III:II)

Falstaff: Is thy name Mouldy?

Mouldy: Yea, an't please you.

Falstaff: 'Tis the more time thou wert used.

Shallow: Ha, ha, ha! most excellent, i' faith! Things that are mouldy lack use: very singular good! in faith, well said, Sir John, very well said. [...]

Shallow: Peace, fellow, peace; stand aside: know you where you are? For the other, Sir John: let me see: Simon Shadow!

Falstaff: Yea, marry, let me have him to sit under: he's like to be a cold soldier. [...]

Falstaff: Is thy name Wart?

Wart: Yea, sir.

Falstaff: Thou art a very ragged wart. [...]

Falstaff: Well said, good woman's tailor! well said, courageous Feeble! thou wilt be as valiant as the wrathful dove or most magnanimous mouse. Prick the woman's tailor: well, Master Shallow; deep, Master Shallow. [...]

Shallow: Peter Bullcalf o' the green!

Falstaff: Yea, marry, let's see Bullcalf.

Bullcalf: Here, sir.

Falstaff: 'Fore God, a likely fellow! Come, prick me Bullcalf till he roar again. (Shakespeare, n.d., 513)

Perceptions and Use of English by Secondary School Students from Central Asia

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After almost two centuries of functioning almost exclusively through the medium of Russian, the governments of the now-independent Kyrgyzstan are trying to implement the knowledge of English among the population as an auxiliary tool of interaction with the rest of the world. Nevertheless, and despite the huge amount of money invested in English education, there is a lack of studies about the attitudes of the Kyrgyzstani students toward this language and the use that they intend to do of it. This paper analyses the attitudes toward the learning and use of English by Kyrgyzstani secondary-school students from four educational models in two regions of the country. A questionnaire given to 182 students from different local and foreign ethnic and language backgrounds was used to collect data. The results of the research show different approaches depending on the location of the schools and the educational program followed. For most students English may be a good asset but very few consider it a language that can be used in contexts other than the classroom.

Keywords: Kyrgyzstan, language attitudes, L2 acquisition, multilingualism, motivation

Motivation plays an important role in the success of second and foreign language learning. It provides the starting impetus to initiate the process of learning another language and it is also the driving force to maintain the effort through the years, since it is responsible for determining human behavior by energizing it and giving it direction. Although there is not much agreement with regard to the exact meaning of the concept when related to scientific literature, it can be stated that etymologically, “to be motivated” or “to have motivation” means “to be moved to action toward something”. Motivation is responsible for guiding human behavior by prompting and directing it and there is a great variety of theories and perspectives of how this happens. The reason for this range of opinions has its basis in the fact of human complexity since those psychological theories seek to explain why humans behave as they do; thus, it would be unreal to assume any simple and single answer. Therefore, basically every different psychological perspective on

human behavior is associated with a different theory of motivation (Dörnyei & Csizér, 1998, p. 117).

Motivation of learning a second language, in this case English, may differ depending on the country where the students come from and/or where the students learn the language. Therefore, Indian or Nigerian students, who have English as the interethnic official language in their respective countries, may regard English quite differently than Italians, for whom it is a useful international language, or than Quechua-speaking students from rural Peru, for whom English is only a foreign language like French or Chinese, which can be learnt only after mastering Quechua and Spanish.

For centuries the only contact between Central Asia and the rest of the world was carried out through Russia and other Russian speaking regions. The Russian language became the only vehicle to establish any communication with the world including many of the neighboring nations while English was only a

curiosity related to the enemy, who lived in far-away countries (Pavlenko, 2003, p. 313). The collapse of the USSR in the 1990s provoked deep changes in those societies. New states such as Kyrgyzstan emerged in a world where Russian was not the only language of culture. Since then, the Kyrgyz government has tried to implement the study and use of English by assigning it a compulsory amount of weekly hours in all the schools. Moreover, prosperity within certain sectors of the Kyrgyz society has provoked the establishment of schools through the medium of English. This paper seeks to analyze attitudes and motivations of secondary-school students in different regions Kyrgyzstan where English has traditionally played a minor role.

Materials and Methods

Primary and Secondary Education in Kyrgyzstan

Kyrgyzstan has an educational system structured according to the Soviet model which has been partially reformed after the independence in 1991. Official figures show 99.2 percent literacy with no significant gender, ethnic or regional differences. Nevertheless, the situation is far from being considered good. There is an overload of subjects and hours which, along with other factors such as teachers' lack of motivation, produces a continuous and long lasting falling in educational standards and quality (Naumann, 2011, pp. 24, 25; Hou, 2011, p. 1). An indicator of this failure can be perceived by the results of the PISA reports. According to the 2010 Report, Kyrgyzstan was the country which scored lowest in all areas, namely reading, science and mathematics, far below the other two ex-Soviet states monitored, Russia which has an average OECD education level, and Azerbaijan, also among the last countries of the list (see Table 1).

Table 1
Scores according to 2010 PISA report

Reading	Reading (position)		Science (position)		Mathematics (position)	
First in World Rank	556	Korea (1)	563	Finland (1)	549	Taiwan (1)
United Kingdom	469	(14)	515	(12)	495	(22)
United States	-	(-)	489	(24)	474	(32)
Russian Federation	440	(37)	479	(33)	476	(32)
Azerbaijan	353	(54)	382	(55)	476	(32)
Kyrgyzstan	285	(56-last)	322	(57 - last)	311	(57 - last)

(OECD, 2010, pp. 22, 47, 53)

There are 2191 schools in the Kyrgyz Republic, which also include 54 private schools. Although most schools offer Kyrgyz-only or bilingual Kyrgyz-Russian education, there are institutions which use other languages. The most important group is the 203 Russian-medium education schools distributed all over the country. Russian schools are highly prestigious and in high demand by not only Russian parents but also by those from other ethnic groups; in fact, about 60 percent of students in the Russian schools come from Kyrgyz speaking families (OECD, 2010, p. 175). This clear preference for Russian education can be easily explained by the much higher performance of the students (425 for Russian speaking students, 362 for Kyrgyz speaking students according to PISA 2006) when compared with their counterparts in Uzbek (307) and Kyrgyz schools (302). For them, it is also a good opportunity to be fully competent in the lingua franca of Central Asia, Russian (OECD, 2010, pp. 175, 183). There are 91 Uzbek-only schools and other 192 bilingual or multilingual schools where part of the education is in Uzbek. Due to the lack of funds, some of the schools are shutting their doors and many Uzbek parents send their children to study in Russian-medium schools. There are also a few part-time schools where Tajik is used as instruction language (Eurasianet, 2013). A number of private schools in the main cities offer education either through the medium of English-only or through the medium of English and any other language such as Russian.

Languages and literature play an important role in primary and secondary education in Kyrgyzstan, since between 33 and 50 percent of the time is devoted to subjects including Russian and Kyrgyz grammar and literature and foreign language learning, usually English or German (see Table 2). Despite this fact, Kyrgyzstan occupies the last position in the PISA ranking in reading in the local language(s) and only a maximum of 7 and 1 percent of its inhabitants declare to know English or German, respectively (OECD, 2006, pp. 47, 53).

Methodological Issues and Considerations

Prior to the actual carrying out of the study, the authors realized that although English is taught in almost every school of the country, the approach toward this foreign language varied considerably from one school to the other, depending on factors such as public or private funding, rural or urban location, national, minority or foreign curricula. It was decided, therefore, to include schools from all possible backgrounds.

Participating Schools

Four schools with different educational approaches

Table 2
Language education in Kyrgyz medium schools in Kyrgyzstan

	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	8 th	9 th	10 th	11 th
Kyrgyz Language	7	7	8	8	5	4	3	3/2	2	2	2
Kyrgyz Literature	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	2/3	3	3	3
Russian Language	3	4	4	4	2	2	2	1	1	2	2
Russian Literature	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Foreign Language	2	2	2	2	4	3	2	2	2	2	2

(OECD, 2010, p. 146-148)

and curricula were selected. Three of them are situated in the city of Bishkek and one in the province of Jalal-Abad. This selection was considered appropriate for the study as it basically includes representatives of all types of Kyrgyzstani students. The first school chosen is a National school in the city of Bishkek. It belongs to the main group of Kyrgyz schools, where students are supposed to study both national languages, Kyrgyz and Russian and a foreign language, English in this case. Students and teachers represent quite accurately the percental ethnic and linguistic composition of the city. There are a few hundred of schools where education is carried out in national languages which are not Kyrgyz. For this study an Uzbek school from the ethnically heterogeneous province of Jalal-Abad was selected. Education in this school follows the national curriculum of Kyrgyzstan except for the fact that students learn through the medium of their native language, Uzbek, while Kyrgyz and Russian are taught as subjects along with a foreign language, English. Since the object of this study is to observe the use of English among students, two private schools where English is used as a language of instruction were also selected. The first private school is a bilingual, or in fact a multilingual school, where education is offered through the medium of English and of the national languages, Russian and Kyrgyz. The second one is a small school which offers its services exclusively through the medium of English.

Sampling: Participating Students

A total of 182 students, 80 boys and 102 girls, from grades ninth to eleventh, the last in the Kyrgyz National Education System, took part in the survey (see Table 3). All participants were aged between 14 and 18. These ages were considered appropriate for the study of language attitudes since some scholars suggest that attitudes initially appear at the age of 10 and are clarified and consolidated during adolescence (Appel and Muysken, 1987; Siguan and Mackey, 1986 cited in Huget and Llorca, 2001, p. 271). Although most students belong to local ethnicities, there were some long-term resident and even Kyrgyzstan-

born foreigners. The ethnolinguistic background of the participants varied according to the schools as specified in the following paragraphs and in Table 4.

Table 3
Distribution of participants by sex and school

School	Boys	Girls	Total
(Uz) Minority-language (Uzbek)	27	30	57
(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian national	22	25	47
(EKR) Multilingual private	18	29	47
(E) English-only private	13	18	31
TOTAL	80	102	182

Table 4
Distribution of participants by sex and school

School	Ethnic Kyrgyz*	Other ex-USSR nationals	Other
(Uz) Minority-language (Uzbek)	53 (Uzbek)	4	-
(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian national	29	18	-
(EKR) Multilingual private	20	5	22
(E) English-only private	16	3	12

*Ethnic Uzbeks for the minority language school

A total of 22 boys and 25 girls from a national Kyrgyz-Russian school (KR) accepted to participate in the survey. The ethnic background of the students in this school reflects the ethnic composition of Bishkek. Approximately 62 percent of them are ethnic Kyrgyz while the rest are mostly Russians (19 percent) and members of other ex-USSR nationalities such as Tatars, Volga Germans, Uzbeks or Uyghurs. As expected, most of the 27 boys and 30 girls of the minority language school (Uz) belong to the minority group, in this case Kyrgyzstani Uzbeks. In fact, only four students reported other nationalities, namely a Meskhetian Turk, a Russian and two Balkars from the Caucasus. A majority of the students in the multilingual school (EKR) are ethnic Kyrgyz. There are also representatives of some of the other local nationalities such as Uyghurs and Uzbeks. Russians and the rest of European minorities,

however, are underrepresented. About half of the students are not from Kyrgyzstan although very few, if any, have English as their first language. This is due to the fact that the selected school was established by a Turkish organization; therefore, about 30 percent of the students are Kyrgyzstan-born children of long-term Turkish immigrants. The rest of the foreigners are usually children of Kyrgyz-Foreign mixed couples. Most Turkish and other foreign students are also fluent in Russian. Out of the 31 students who took part in the survey at the English monolingual school (E), 16 are ethnic Kyrgyz. The representative of the rest of the local nationalities is extremely reduced. The rest of the students are foreigners who mostly come from other Asian countries, especially Pakistan and Korea. Some of the foreigners are fluent Russian speakers, but a majority cannot generally interact in other language but English.

The Instrument: The Questionnaire

The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire designed by the authors (see Appendix). It was written in English but since not all the participants had enough skills to fully understand the questions in that language, a Russian version was also produced. The document handed out to the participants contained a bilingual English-Russian copy of the questionnaire. These languages were preferred over Kyrgyz or any other local language since all the students were fluent in at least one of them. Moreover, since the survey was addressed to a highly intermixed multicultural population, it would have been unrealistic to prepare translations in the languages of the tens of minorities of the country, including not only Kyrgyz, Uzbek and Russian but also Tatar, Dungan, Tajik, Turkish, Korean as well as many others, plus an indefinite number of foreign languages spoken by the foreign students. To enhance success, students were allowed to answer in their native language, no matter what it is. The answers received were written in Russian, Uzbek, Kyrgyz and English.

The results are based on a five-point Likert scale questionnaire (from '1' strongly disagree to '5' strongly agree). Every school was codified into two main categories: *boys* and *girls*. A column for general results by school was also produced. This division is important since often attitudes toward languages may differ considerably according to gender (Fishman, 1991, p. 184).

The survey was implemented during the months of May and June 2015 after obtaining the permission from administrations of the four schools. It was handed out by local teachers who could give instructions to their students in their native languages about how to fill the questionnaire.

Results

The following analysis is based on the answers of local students from Kyrgyzstan as well as some foreign students from other Central Asian Russian-speaking countries since both groups may have similar attitudes toward English, a foreign language. Non-Russian foreign students were not considered for this study for two main reasons. Foreign students are but a tiny minority in the schools in Kyrgyzstan, therefore their attitudes cannot be representative of the attitude of Central Asians toward English. Moreover, the viewpoint that Europeans, Americans, Hindustanis and other students for whom English is a living language that is also used as a tool to live in foreign countries like Kyrgyzstan, may be totally different from the Kyrgyz, Uzbek or Central Asian Russian perspective, for whom English is a foreign language with not much value in local life.

Use of English Within the Family Circle

In a country where for most people English is only a foreign language spoken far-away, the use of that foreign language within the family circle among the students of Kyrgyzstan is directly related to two main factors: the location of the school and the exposition to English during education, the latter being the most influential.

Bishkek is the only rather cosmopolitan center in Kyrgyzstan. For this reason, it is not surprising that the school situated in Jalal-Abad (Uz) reported no student at all using any English with their siblings, despite being one of the languages studied by all the students. Moreover, apparently none of their parents is fluent in English, therefore it cannot be used as a common language at home. The school focus is on the use of Uzbek as a daily language. Nevertheless, most students' families are also very interested in the learning of Russian since, according to some members of the Uzbek community, the Russian language can provide more opportunities to children than any other language (Eurasianet, 2013). Many families are also trying to migrate to Russia, where there are already more than 2 million Uzbeks (Sadykov, 2014). The third language studied is Kyrgyz, as the school is situated in Kyrgyzstan. Although this language is not generally appreciated by the Uzbek minority, it must be used in commerce, in official documents and in daily life when contacting local ethnic Kyrgyz. Kyrgyz is, therefore, a living language for the Uzbek minority. English is the only foreign language in the Uzbek school curriculum. There are not many opportunities to speak it in Jalal-Abad and, in fact, it is not necessary in any concrete field. The rest of the schools are situated in the capital

city. In all of them, there are a few local and foreign families who use English in their daily life and even some students employ it to talk to their siblings, in most cases as an auxiliary language rather than as a real communication tool.

In the national school (KR) 6 percent of the fathers and 15 percent of mothers are reported to be fluent in English. Some of them have been living abroad, where they learnt the language but some others have learnt it in Kyrgyzstan due to reasons related to their jobs in a big city. Some students reported parents who are able to hold conversations in Chinese and other foreign languages as well. In spite of these favorable conditions, English is not used by any family in their private conversations. The number of students who use English as an auxiliary language is still residual since only a maximum of 2 percent of them would do it. Once again the reason for this lack of use of English must be attributed to the attraction toward Russian as an international language. In fact, most students from all ethnical backgrounds reported Russian as the common family language instead of Kyrgyz or any other language.

The situation in the two private schools where some or all subjects are taught through the medium of English differs in many senses from that of the two previous schools. In the multilingual school (EKR), about half of the students are foreign nationals. Most of them are Turkish, therefore the rate of families that use English in their daily life is as low as that of local families from Kyrgyzstan. However, there is a notable increase among the students who use English as an auxiliary language to talk to their siblings. In fact, about 1 in 3 students communicate in English along with other languages such as Russian, Kyrgyz and Turkish.

The most important rate of use of English was observed in families and students from the English monolingual school (E). This increment applies to both, those with Russian as first or second language, and foreigners from non-Russian speaking countries. One of the reasons that may explain the use of English within the foreign families may be found in their countries of origin. A significant percentage of the foreign students come from India and Pakistan where English is employed on a daily base in all domains. Therefore, these families continue their life in English and other languages as they did in their home countries. It has also been observed that some of the local students come from mixed Kyrgyz/foreign families and from families that have lived abroad. This multicultural background helps parents and children maintain English as one of the common languages spoken at home. Education also plays a very important role in the use of the foreign language since about 42 percent of all the students (in identical rates in both, Russian-speaking students and foreign students) use

English, mainly as an auxiliary language, to talk to their siblings. Nevertheless, there is a final reason that must not be forgotten. Most students who attend the English-only school come from wealthy families with possibilities to visit countries where English is spoken. Very often, these students consider English the language to talk to foreign friends and acquaintances while on holidays, creating in them a positive feeling of usefulness.

Use of English in Spare Time

English is not currently spoken in Kyrgyzstan. Due to this fact, all the questions related to the use of English during the students' spare time had to be designed taking into account the rather scarce opportunities that average Kyrgyzstan inhabitants have to speak and/or listen to material in English. These items deal with three specific fields, travelling abroad, music, and activities related to the Internet such as reading websites, watching videos or films in English, etc. They are formulated from two perspectives, students' *current attitudes* toward English ('*Do you like...?*') and their motivation to *develop skills* ('*I want to...*').

The first discernible detail is the marked difference between the answers of the rural school (Uz) and the schools situated in the capital city. In all five items related to this topic (Questions 2:4 '*Do you like watching TV, films or videos in English?*'; 2:5 '*Do you like listening to music in English?*'; 3:1 '*Knowing English will help me when travelling abroad on holidays*'; 4:8 '*I want to understand better English films, videos, TV*' and 4:9 '*I want to be able to read websites in English*', the school (Uz) in Jalal-Abad province scored much lower than the other schools (see Table 5). Nevertheless, it does not imply uniformity by the three schools of Bishkek since answers by the students also show some differences mainly provoked by the educational model followed by each center. The only generalized positive answer is to the item '*Knowing English will help me when travelling abroad on holidays*' (Question 3:1), since the overwhelming majority of students of all the schools 'agree' or 'strongly agree' with the statement.

Students' attitudes toward English in music, films and videos as reported in answers to questions 2:4 and 2:5 are rather neutral in Jalal-Abad (both under 4 points). Both bilingual schools, (KR) and (EKR), have similar behaviors, good disposition toward music but a colder approach toward videos and cinema. The reason for this behavior may be supported by the fact that language is not necessary to enjoy music, therefore students may like to listen to songs in languages that they cannot understand as long as the rhythm and the melody are pleasant. However, understanding dialogues in films and videos is vital to enjoy them. Understanding requires a higher competence in the target language, English in this case, which many

students do not possess. The monolingual English school (E), probably due to the higher command of English that most students exhibit, have positive attitudes to both issues, always scoring over 4 points (Agree).

As for their motivation to improve their skills, the rural school showed even less interest in contrast with urban students, particularly girls from all three schools who would agree to do something in order to understand much better material written or spoken in English. Interestingly, the group with less motivation is that of the boys from the multilingual school (EKR) while the more motivated are the girls from the same school. In general, rural students have an apathetic attitude toward English

Table 5
Use of English in spare time by schools excluding non-Russian speaking students

(Uz) Uzbek school	(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian sch.	(EKR) Multi-lingual sch.	(E) English sch.
Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total
<i>2:4/Do you like watching TV, films or videos in English?</i>			
3.85 - 3.62 - 3.73	3.57 - 3.70 - 3.63	3.25 - 4.00 - 3.77	4.13 - 4.67 - 4.45
<i>2:5/ Do you like listening to music in English?</i>			
3.44 - 3.70 - 3.57	4.40 - 4.74 - 4.57	4.25 - 4.81 - 4.62	4.63 - 4.83 - 4.75
<i>3:1/ Knowing English will help me when travelling abroad on holidays</i>			
4.46 - 4.12 - 4.29	4.90 - 4.88 - 4.89	4.88 - 4.88 - 4.88	4.75 - 4.83 - 4.80
<i>4:8/ I want to understand better English films, videos, TV</i>			
3.04 - 3.17 - 3.10	3.95 - 4.29 - 4.12	3.88 - 4.47 - 4.28	4.25 - 4.42 - 4.35
<i>4:9/ I want to be able to read websites in English</i>			
3.42 - 3.31 - 3.36	4.00 - 3.95 - 3.98	3.88 - 4.35 - 4.20	4.00 - 4.42 - 4.25

Use of English Regarding Studies

Although the students from Bishkek are more positive toward the idea of using English outside the classrooms than those in Jalal-Abad (Question 2:8), the disposition toward that practice is still very mild. Not even in the monolingual English school (E) the average answer reaches the 4-point ‘Agree’ level (see Table 6). This fact could imply that English is only learnt to pass exams; however, when asked directly whether that is their main reason to study it (Question 3:5), most students answered negatively. Only the students of the Uzbek school (Uz) of Jalal-Abad gave neutral answers (3 points), most probably because for most of them English is only a school subject which is not appreciated in general.

The idea of having good competence in English as a

tool to have the possibility to study abroad is shared by most students (Question 3:2). Once again, the mildest are those from Jalal-Abad who only score 3.75. The more English is used in education, the more positive the answer is, from 4.04 in the national school (KR) and 4.56 in the multilingual school (EKR) to a strong 4.75 in the English school (E). It is also a fact that about 50 percent of the students who graduated from the multilingual school (EKR) have attended foreign universities and colleges, mostly in Turkey, which is promoted by the school administration as one of the ultimate goals.

The use of English for studying at university in Kyrgyzstan seems to be directly related to the possibility to study abroad (Question 3:4). Thus, according to the answers of the students from the English school (E) and the boys from the multilingual school (EKR), that is to say, those who have the possibility to complete their education abroad, English is not necessary to study at a Kyrgyzstani university. The girls of the multilingual school (EKR) do not discard that they may have to study in their country and that English would be an excellent asset. This notable difference between boys and girls in the same school may indicate either actual discrimination within a considerable number of families toward promoting girls education, or a subconscious reflection of this traditional practice in Kyrgyzstan (Naumann, 2011, p. 25). Nevertheless, it must be noticed that the described tendency has not been particularly observed within the urban families of the national Kyrgyz-Russian school (KR) or within the wealthier families of the English school (E).

Table 6
Use of English in relation to education by schools excluding non-Russian speaking students

(Uz) Uzbek school	(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian sch.	(EKR) Multi-lingual sch.	(E) English sch.
Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total
<i>2:8/ We should use English out of the classroom too</i>			
2.84 – 3.46 – 3.16	3.67 – 3.62 – 3.64	3.00 – 3.88 – 3.60	3.75 – 3.66 – 3.70
<i>3:2/ I want to learn English to study abroad</i>			
3.73 – 3.78 – 3.75	4.24 – 3.83 – 4.04	4.60 – 4.56 – 4.60	4.60 – 4.83 – 4.75
<i>3:4/ I want to learn English because I will need it at University in my country</i>			
3.04 – 3.32 – 3.18	3.85 – 3.88 – 3.87	2.75 – 4.41 – 3.88	2.62 – 2.33 – 2.45
<i>3:5/ The main reason to learn English is to pass exams</i>			
3.23 – 2.86 – 3.04	2.76 – 2.13 – 2.44	1.85 – 2.94 – 2.63	2.88 – 2.33 – 2.55
<i>4:9/ I want to be able to read websites in English</i>			
3.42 - 3.31 - 3.36	4.00 - 3.95 - 3.98	3.88 - 4.35 - 4.20	4.00 - 4.42 - 4.25

Discussion and Conclusion

Intention to Use English in the Future

The set of questions related to the use of English in the students' future lives included aspects such as their willingness to transmit English to the next generation (Question 2:10), their projects to use English in a country where it is actually spoken as a community language (Question 3:3) and their trust in English as a tool to have a good life (Question 3:10). The results are shown in detail in Table 7. The transmission of English to the next generation does not seem to be an issue for the rural students (Uz) since while most girls remain neutral to that option, many of the boys are directly opposed. Curiously, a similar behavior is observed among the boys of the multilingual school (EKR). All the rest of the groups agree to teach English to their children, the girls of all schools being more enthusiastic about it. The motivation to learn English in order to spend some time in an English-speaking country does not receive the support of the students of Kyrgyzstan in general. Only the students of the multilingual school (EKR) and the boys of the English school (E) agree with that item while the rest of the groups show a rather cold attitude. The answers to Question 3:10 show that although English is often considered an asset, students do not have faith in it as the key to have a better life.

Table 7
Use of English in the student's prospective future life by schools excluding non-Russian speaking students

(Uz) Uzbek school	(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian sch.	(EKR) Multi-lingual sch.	(E) English sch.
Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total
<i>2:10/ When I have a child I will teach him/her English</i>			
2.85 – 3.40 – 3.14	4.10 – 4.29 – 4.19	3.75 – 4.41 – 4.20	4.13 – 4.75 – 4.50
<i>3:2/ I am learning English because I want to spend some time in an English-speaking country</i>			
3.56 – 3.41 – 3.48	3.95 – 3.75 – 3.85	4.50 – 4.47 – 4.48	4.38 – 3.66 – 3.95
<i>3:10/ If I speak English, I will have a fantastic life</i>			
2.23 – 2.44 – 2.33	3.45 – 2.75 – 3.10	2.13 – 2.94 – 2.68	2.38 – 2.33 – 2.35

Use of English Related to Future Job's Opportunities and Money

English is perceived by most urban students as an asset in their future careers (see Table 8). In fact, all groups except the boys of the multilingual school (EKR) agree with the item 3:6 'If I learn English, I will be able to get a better job'. As for the Uzbek students of the rural school (Uz), they have a neutral view on

the issue. This privileged position that English can offer the urban students is not considered as a key to economic or social advantages by any of the groups, according to the answers to two questions 3:8 and 3:7. To item 3:8 'If I speak English, I will earn more money' all the groups gave a neutral answer between 3.00 (Uzbek school (Uz) boys) and 3.90 (national school (KR) boys). Question 3:7 deals with the issue relating knowledge of English to acquisition of better category in the workplace such as the generic 'boss'. Again, most students gave apathetic answers and even some groups such as the Uzbek boys (Uz), the girls of the national school (KR) and the girls of the English school (E) answered negatively to the item (between 2.83 and 2.93). Due to these answers, it can be deduced that the possible advantages that English can offer are limited to *the choice* of a more pleasant job rather than a more remunerated employment. That perspective of *choosing* instead of *accepting any* job to make a life seems attractive enough in the capital city to help students pursue in their study of English.

Table 8
Use of English regarding future job opportunities by schools excluding non-Russian speaking students

(Uz) Uzbek school	(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian sch.	(EKR) Multi-lingual sch.	(E) English sch.
Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total
<i>3:6/ If I learn English, I will be able to get a better job</i>			
3.44 – 3.59 – 3.51	4.33 – 4.39 – 4.36	3.86 – 4.47 – 4.25	4.13 – 4.17 – 4.15
<i>3:7/ If I learn English, I will be a boss in my job</i>			
2.93 – 3.50 – 3.21	3.52 – 2.91 – 3.22	3.00 – 3.53 – 3.36	3.38 – 2.83 – 3.05
<i>3:8/ If speak English, I will earn more money</i>			
3.00 – 3.67 – 3.33	3.90 – 3.42 – 3.66	3.75 – 3.59 – 3.64	3.50 – 3.33 – 3.40

Use of English in Other Personal Domains

Popularity is a concept promoted in many films and TV soaps made mainly in the United States. A similar idea, that of leadership, is also promoted in many modern schools, with a special emphasis in international schools and in schools where education is carried out through the medium of English in countries where English is not a native language. The idea relating English to those concepts, however, does not seem to have permeated into the students' minds. Question 3:9 'If I speak English, I will be more popular' not only received the usual neutral answers from the rural students (Uz) and in this case from the boys of the national school (KR) as well, but also negative answers from all the rest of the groups without exception. Similar answers were given to the item 4:11 'When

I speak English I feel superior to others'. The answers to these questions reinforce the idea that English, although practical in some domains, does not produce any superiority over those who speak Kyrgyz, Russian or any of the other local language (see Table 9).

Table 9
Use of English in other personal domains by schools excluding non-Russian speaking students

(Uz) Uzbek school	(KR) Kyrgyz-Russian sch.	(EKR) Multi-lingual sch.	(E) English sch.
Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total	Boys – Girls - Total
<i>3:9/ If I speak English, I will be more popular</i>			
3.16 – 3.22 – 3.19	3.40 – 2.62 – 3.01	2.25 – 2.76 – 2.60	2.63 – 2.42 – 2.50
<i>4:11/ When I speak English I feel superior to others</i>			
2.72 – 2.85 – 2.78	3.35 – 3.00 – 3.17	3.13 – 3.47 – 3.36	3.00 – 2.58 – 2.75

In this study, the different attitudes toward English of Kyrgyzstani and other Central Asian students of different ethnicities are described and some data may contribute to a better knowledge of what those students expect of foreign languages and how they intend (if there is any intention) to use them in their lives. First, it must be emphasized that students have in general a positive attitude toward the learning of foreign languages, in this case English. That approach, however, varies considerably depending on the location of the schools and the programs implemented. Rural students, for example, are in general skeptic to assign any real life value to English. For them that language is a school subject that might open some possibilities as well as mathematics or sciences do. None of them report to use English at home; very few show interest in entertainment products in English and a considerable percentage of them deny that knowing English may contribute to have a better life. The reason behind this apathy may be the lack of opportunities to use a foreign language in rural Kyrgyzstan. Moreover, for most Uzbeks, as well as for most inhabitants of Central Asia, the language that needs to be mastered is Russian, since it may be used as a tool to migrate to the Russian Federation, where economic conditions are far better than in Kyrgyzstan despite the economic crisis (Luhn, 2015; Eurasianet, 2013). Urban students show similar attitudes toward English among them, although it is also noticeable that the more English is used in the classroom the more positive the approach toward the language is expressed. For most students in the national schools (which account for most of the schools in the country) English may be an asset but very few use it in their daily lives. For most Kyrgyz families Russian is still the language to learn and to speak. Britta Korth (2005, p.

132) points to this fact when commenting that Russian schools are overcrowded and work in two or more shifts. The situation is different within the private English and multilingual schools (no more than 30 in all the country). Some of the students use English to talk to their siblings, although very often that use is very limited due to the insufficient competence in the language observed by the researchers. Contrarily to what happens in other towns, the cosmopolitan environment of the conurbation Bishkek-Almaty helps students of all schools consider English a useful language, one of the assets to accede to more pleasant jobs. Students are also happy to consume music, films and internet resources in English although many of them express rather weak desires to improve the skills that they have achieved so far. Despite these positive results, the attitude of the students toward a language like English is far from that noticed in other regions such as the European Union where 67 percent of the people think that English is the most useful language for personal development (European Commission, 2012, p. 69). This tendency, however, is likely to change as Kyrgyzstan continues its integration in international organizations and its visibility by other countries increases, attracting more tourism and investment.

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Appendix
Questionnaire (English version)

PART 1

Nationality (according to your passport):
Ethnicity (such as Dungan, Uyghur, Kurdish, etc.):
Common language spoken at home (*Name the language or languages*):
My mother's family (grandparents, uncles, aunties) speak (*Name the language or languages*):
My mother speaks fluently (*Name the language or languages*):
My father's family (grandparents, uncles, aunties) speak (*Name the language or languages*):
My father speaks fluently (*Name the language or languages*):
My father talks to my mother in (*Name the language or languages*):
With my brothers and sisters I speak (*Name the language or languages*):

PART 2

4/ Do you like watching TV, films or videos in English?
5/ Do you like listening to music in English?
2:8/ We should use English out of the classroom too
2:10/ When I have a child I will teach him/her English

PART 3

1/ Knowing English will help me when travelling abroad on holidays
3:2/ I want to learn English to study abroad
3:3/ I am learning English because I want to spend some time in an English-speaking country
3:4/ I want to learn English because I will need it at University in my country
3:5/ The main reason to learn English is to pass exams
3:6/ If I learn English, I will be able to get a better job
3:7/ If I learn English, I will be a boss in my job
3:8/ If I speak English, I will earn more money
3:9/ If I speak English, I will be more popular
3:10/ If I speak English, I will have a fantastic life

PART 4

4:8/ I want to understand better English films, videos, TV
4:9/ I want to be able to read websites in English
4:11/ When I speak English I feel superior to others

The Problems of Russian-Speaking Students of Non-Linguistic Specializations in CAE Speaking Test: Analysis of Teaching Experience

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Today Russian undergraduate students of non-linguistic specializations aspiring to careers in different spheres succeed in acquiring Certificates in Advanced English. Nevertheless, the candidates state that they experience the most serious difficulties while sitting the Speaking Test of the CAE exam as they lack oral language skills. The researched literature does not consider Russian students' predicaments purposely and gives a broad overview of the main students' concerns. This study is an attempt to explore the particular Russian students' problems of forming oral language skills arising in the process of their training for the Speaking Test and to work out the ways of their remedies. Qualitative methods have allowed finding out the highly specific nature of individual experience. The methods used in the study also included an open-ended language learning questionnaire and a survey to support the assessment of the received data. The results indicate that there are quite a number of pedagogical and educational variables that should be permanently trained and developed as they can influence students' success.

Keywords: Speaking Test of the CAE, oral proficiency, motivation, assessment, open-ended questionnaire

The Speaking Test (ST) of the CAE exam tests the candidates' level of oral proficiency in dyads or in groups of three. In four conversations the candidates must "cooperate in order to jointly construct a discourse that is both connected and coherent" (Meddingtons & Thornbury, 2009, p. 9) using a wide range of grammatical forms and vocabulary and not simply formulate utterances in L2. As the candidates are required "to demonstrate their spoken language skills in a range of contexts" (Norris, 2004, p. 5), the speaking component of the CAE encourages teachers and students to do more mock exam papers in class to familiarize the candidates with the exam format, to cover some typical topics, and to relieve their test

anxiety. A great deal of classroom research proves that "an oral component in a test considerably complicates the testing procedure, both in terms of its practicality and the way assessment criteria can be reliably applied" (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 124-125). Consequently, during the preparation course all the candidates should be interviewed regularly, as in the beginning the candidates cannot realize their weaknesses and strengths, but the washback effect of such testing on learning is clear: the candidates become aware of positive and negative sides of their oral proficiency. The observation and experience have shown that much depends on the part of the ST. Throughout the research process the attempt to answer the following

questions investigated by a number of authors (Winn, 2005, pp. 276-277; Hamid, 2014; Hawkey, 2009) was taken: What actually transpires in class while preparing? What are the causes of misunderstanding and reasons for communication breakdowns? Which strategies are most efficient to get ready for the oral exam and why?

Materials and Methods

Background

Empirical evidence shows that any test takers' performance on oral proficiency tests is "affected by a series of variables associated with the test taker, the task and the interlocutor" (O'Sullivan, 2004, p. 129). Preparation for all parts of the ST and mock exams revealed that paired linguistic performance (and in trios especially) can depend on such variables as the gender (and age) of partners, their degree of acquaintanceship, perceived language skills and abilities, attitude to a partner's personality, motivation and motivational conditions (such as attention, relevance, confidence, satisfaction) (Small & Gluck, 1994). The level and forms of interaction between the interlocutor and candidates in each ST part are different and therefore these variables manifest themselves diversely, because under these testing conditions speaking is not simply a social amicable conversation, but a situation-based activity, information-related talk, assessed and time-constrained. The candidates' "unplanned speech consisting of idea units ... and spoken on the spur of the moment in reaction to other speakers" (Luoma, 2004, p. 13) is assessed on the comprehensibility and accuracy (that is, three analytical criteria – grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation). Their abilities to create meaning in discourse, interactional efficiency and liveliness of expression are central elements in task performance (Luom, 2004) (that is, two more analytical criteria - discourse management and interactive communication). The applied criteria are naturally interpreted at the CAE level.

It is well-known that L1 and L2 speaking "consists of at least three stages: conceptualization, formulation, and articulation" (Thornbury, 2013, pp. 9-10) and the stage of formulating "involves making strategic choices at the level of discourse, syntax, and vocabulary" (Thornbury, 2013, p. 3). It is a paucity of appropriate L2 advanced vocabulary that really interferes with candidates' performance at the exam. The problem of vocabulary development and acquisition is acute, as "learners can attain an advanced level through active and passive knowledge of complex lexical units"

(Arnaud & Savignon, 1997, p. 161), idioms, and specific or rare words.

As learners' motivation is defined "as the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity", this definition "involves three components: 1) motivational intensity or effort expended to learn the language, 2) a desire to learn the language, and 3) a positive attitude towards learning the language." (Purpura, 2004, p. 95). In this respect, all the candidates are predisposed to acquire and develop necessary skills because for them it is a high stakes certificate in terms of future career, effort, and time, as well as the exam cost. However, as any test remains very structure based, the candidates feel and experience washback, that is, the effect of testing on the teaching and learning, and some candidates may not understand correctly what the test items require of them (Davies, Brown, Elder, Hill, Lumley, & McNamara, 1999; McNamara, 2000) and how they are assessed because assessment of oral proficiency is immensely complicated (Taylor, Weir, Coniam, Hawkey, & Sunderland, 2008).

A further problem lies in the way learners evaluate their oral language proficiency. So much of language teaching over the years has shown that students, as a rule, cannot impartially assess the level of their personal knowledge at the beginning of the course. This inevitably leads to language and test anxiety problems later on. In fact, they are able to lay serious obstacles to the language teaching and learning process, as this proficiency test "aims to establish a candidate's readiness for a particular communicative role, for example, in a work or educational setting" (McNamara, 2000, p. 135).

Aims of the Present Study

As the facilitation of learning within the format of CAE is the goal of the instructional preparatory course of the Language Preparation Center in the National Research University Higher School of Economics (HSE) as well as at the Institute of Tourism and Hospitality (IT&H) in Moscow, the nature of the above mentioned problems will be examined more closely and the ways of their remedies will be the focus of attention. It may be claimed that the purpose of the article is to assess the empirical veracity of the authors' observations in the changes of the students' value-orientations, motives, ways of problem-solving, essential linguistic skills both at the beginning and at the end of the course.

Participants

The preparatory CAE course is a commercial optional course which can be chosen by any student or adult person whose L2 proficiency level is not lower than B2-B2+. 92 students of two above-mentioned Moscow higher educational institutions took part in this study through personal contacts with the authors of the article. 30 – third- and fourth-year students of IT&H, 60 were students of the HSE, mainly undergraduates (72) or sometimes postgraduates (20) (from 2000 (the year of the instructional preparatory course introduction) to 2014 (as in 2015 the exam format was altered)).

The Questionnaire and Survey

An open-ended questionnaire (a quantitative mode) (Appendix 2) was worked out to support the assessment of the data received with the help of the qualitative methods, though the authors are aware that “not everything that can be counted counts, and not everything that counts can be counted” (Cameron, 1963, p. 13). The candidates were asked to complete the questionnaires and surveys on a voluntary basis that is why only about 92 questionnaires were obtained and analyzed. It must be admitted that items in the questionnaires were added with the course of time due to the fact that in different groups the candidates’ level of oral proficiency, test and language anxiety varied slightly and the items were randomized to avoid any biased item order. The most typical answers are presented, which, nevertheless, permit drawing some conclusions. One short open-ended survey (Appendix 3 and Figure 1) was developed and carried out at the end of the course to realize candidates’ attitude towards the arising learning difficulties and the remedies for them in each part of the ST.

Analysis of Russian Students’ Predicaments and Tools of Their Remedies

Many years’ experience and the short questionnaires allowed the authors to elicit some responses from the candidates which turned out to be sufficient enough to ascertain the common problems arising during the course, infer some links, generalize and offer some solutions. Thus, it must be highlighted that doing Part 1 (for better understanding of the Speaking Test format see Appendix 1, Table 1) a number of students are very often not ready to present personal information, feel perplexed and sound unnatural, as they do not know each other and see “their partners as being extremely different from them in terms of extraversion” (O’Sullivan, 2004, p. 133) and perception. Some students feel embarrassed at having to speak about their native places (the level of life is lower

there; therefore, even economic reasons can influence answers). Others have no wish to present true personal information to strangers and even explained their introversion by being superstitious. The easiest method for teachers is to introduce themselves first to alleviate the tension in class. The helpful technique is to suggest students ask their teacher personal questions or a teacher answers them together with students in turn.

Then one more problem arises in Part 1. In Past Papers textbooks there are questions which ask students to describe their negative experience or dislikes. Such questions really take them by surprise as many of them do not want to speak about negative experience because their classmates can make fun of them and such questions intimidate them.

‘Out-dated’ questions about newspapers and radio can paradoxically puzzle the candidates: they neither listen to the radio nor read newspapers as they keep up with the news on the Internet. Some questions containing not-widely-used tenses (Future Continuous/Perfect) can also cause some incomprehension. These problems can be completely eradicated by regular preparation in compliance with the exam requirements. A deeper understanding of them helps the candidates to cope with mock exam papers and their anxiety. Thus, they remember that their answers should not be long and prepared in advance; speaking about interests, daily routines, work/study “the candidates must give more personal detail, but they can’t monopolize time” (Kenny & Newbrook, 2008, p. 29). Besides, “the candidates should be confident in using correct grammatical forms” (French, 2003, p. 46), as the interlocutor asks questions about different periods of their lives. It is essential to answer what the candidates have been asked and “not to go off at a tangent to talk about something different” (Osborne & Nuttall, 2009, p. 30). So, at this stage the main problems are test anxiety, personal uncertainty, perception of partners and some ignorance of the test requirements.

In Part II, the candidates usually speak in pairs. Each candidate in turn is given visual (1999-2008 format) and visual and written prompts (since December 2008 to 2014). In Hawkey’s opinion, “written replications of task instructions ... increased candidates’ confidence when undertaking the task ... and encouraged candidates to produce more varied, coherent and complex language than the picture tasks, which seemed to result in less complex language and more hesitation” (Hawkey, 2009, pp. 192-193).

The 1999-2008 format demanded the candidates be given a similar set of pictures but in a different order or two different sets, while the December 2008-2014 format offered only two different sets of

pictures presenting different topics. In the former format, candidates B had to listen to candidates A very carefully as they could be asked to comment on the picture which had not been mentioned by candidates A. The comparative analysis shows that candidates B were inhibited about following their partners' answers because the pictures they had were practically the same.

However, the most important hindrance that can interfere with the candidates' successful performance at the exam is the misinterpretation of the topic subject matter. The topic 'Ambition' can be exemplified (French, 2009, Test 1). Some Russian candidates fail to fulfill the task because the Russian often negative meaning of the word "ambition" overlaps with the English connotation of the word. The candidates substantiate it on the basis of their first language: it corresponds to the English nouns "vanity, arrogance" describing disapproval, whereas the meanings in the entry of the Longman Exams Dictionary are quite positive and neutral. The same noun can be both countable ([C] 'a strong desire to achieve something'), and uncountable ([U] 'determination to be successful and powerful'), and, consequently, has different meanings.

Even at this level students of non-linguistic specializations are incapable of appreciating all merits of Learner's Dictionaries designed for non-native speakers. Such dictionaries provide learners with additional patterns how to use the word correctly and mistakes are explained. The candidate should be taught to understand all the labels and not to ignore them, as they influence the thoroughness of their preparation. These special skills will help them to use good dictionaries to their advantage. Nevertheless, the answers given in the questionnaire are disappointing: none of the students state that they use special Learner's Dictionaries preferring on-line bilingual English-Russian dictionaries. The candidates justify such attitude by a lack of time and convenience which is unacceptable.

It can be stated that students can remember quite easily the requirements to use the special phrases to compare or contrast the pictures and learn them by heart as the textbooks provide lists of such expressions. So, the main problem in this part is some paucity of vocabulary and inability to use dictionaries to their advantage.

This problem can manifest itself and even aggravate in a collaborative task of Part III. Here, there is a serious lack of ideas and the topics of tasks can be real hiccups which cause delays in speaking. The answers quite often testify to the poor cultural competence of some candidates and the paucity of knowledge in other subjects. Obviously, profound knowledge of different significant world events can contribute to successful results. It must be admitted that not all the candidates

realize the true meaning of the word 'lifelong' (as at this stage often their only ambition is to try to get a certificate): they must acquire and develop language skills to maintain their level of language proficiency. In the questionnaire the candidates elucidated their problems and failures to give satisfactory answers not by a lack of general knowledge, but by the fact that they simply could not remember the exact words they needed at the moment and that they did not expect that such a topic could be included into the test.

In Part IV the candidates are supposed to extend the discussion. "The candidates should be prepared to give their opinion, extend their responses by giving reasons and further details, interact with their partner and not dominate the conversation" (Speaking Test Preparation Pack for CAE, 2008, p. 19). The experience demonstrates that the candidates' main dilemma is what to say about and what language to use: they do not manage to provide more examples and repeat the same ideas using the limited vocabulary resource. The lack of ideas entails the usage of poor and inappropriate and sometimes even irrelevant vocabulary. One more common error is when the candidates share their partners' ideas.

The efficient way of acquiring ideas and the proper range of vocabulary is reading: the questionnaire shows that very few students try to read books in the original, the majority mention that they read only for their homework, so, the main task of the course is to inspire the candidates to read regularly, for instance, teachers can recommend or compile lists of short stories first, quoting some interesting ideas or collocations from them, then recommend some longer pieces. "Reading newspapers and magazines, watching films and English-language programs on TV/the Internet, listening to the radio or downloading podcasts of any topic of interest to them give the candidates ideas for things to say and help them to form their opinions about things" (Speaking Test Preparation Pack for CAE, 2008, p. 16). This inevitably leads to a necessity to pay special attention to teaching more idiomatic language. Besides it is widely assumed (Lewis, 2000; Akhmanova & Idzelis, 1978; and others) that many grammatical errors are caused by lexical deficiencies, and that "the best response to many of these errors at the advanced level is to do more lexical work in place of grammatical correction. ... Learners should put more emphasis on collocation and other lexical work" (Lewis, 2000, p. 17). It brings a more general problem: the responsibility of advanced learners for independent learning and the responsibility of teachers for choosing the scope of the most linguistically useful language items.

Finally, some CAE specifications cause misunderstanding: the candidates are not being assessed on their knowledge of the world. However, if they do not actually express any ideas, it will be difficult

for examiners to give a fair appraisal of their language ability. Besides, the utterances must be arranged logically and relevantly. Another specification states answers with minor slips and non-impeding errors can get a high mark, as rarely answers are flawless. Nevertheless, candidates should endeavor to perfect their skills because “in the speech of foreign language learners errors can signal lack of knowledge” (Luoma, 2004, p. 19).

Results and Discussion

The in-depth research shows that in the beginning the candidates demonstrate eagerness to take the exam and are motivated, but they are not very well aware of the assessment criteria, requirements, and the content of the exam. The candidates’ feedback confirms they do not mention test anxiety as a detrimental factor (the only concern is the number of partners). However, the most significant variables that affect their performance are language abilities and the topics of pictures. For the candidates the adjustment to the requirements does not pose many problems, while the main difficulty is the ability to acquire, develop and use a range of vocabulary: the idiomaticity of the language required really matters. Such important methods as probing questions, texts/literature, open-ended dilemmas, role playing, classroom discussion (Lewis, 2000, p. 186) must be applied to enlarge students’ collocational input. “It may even be that unexpected combinations of familiar words are some of the most important and useful collocations from a pedagogical point of view” (Lewis, 2000, p. 136).

The enlarged vocabulary leads to autonomy and automacity in the language production (Thornbury, 2013). The research found that the learners use approximately the same lexicon in their speech but if they use a range of fixed phrases “they are perceived to be more fluent: fixed phrases are a proof of a higher level of ability, they contribute essentially to the message” (Luoma, 2004, pp. 18-19).

The course arouses learners’ awareness of what learners’ dictionaries offer. As Chan correctly reasons they should understand that the lifelong certificate means they must become “successful lifelong self-learners and learners’ dictionaries are among easily accessible self-learning tools of a second language” (Chan, 2014, p. 33).

The attitude to the Internet dictionaries and other ambiguous sources alters. The Internet “affords searchable access to a vast array of pedagogical resources” (Kern, 2014, p. 341), but “what one sees on one’s computer screen is a highly mediated, filtered version of the world” (Kern, 2014, p. 341). So the

attitude to the obtained on-line information needs critical thinking and careful consideration.

Not to be baffled by the topic of the pictures, students should read regularly. The candidates fail at first to relate the genuine role of extensive reading - “the magic carpet to language learning” - (Macalister, 2014, p. 389) to the L2 acquisition in ESL environment. As students are not accustomed to reading much in an L2 environment, the candidates often cannot choose correctly what exactly to read. Reading should become a habit which both facilitates language learning and contributes to vocabulary acquisition, spelling, and pronunciation. Reading is a benefit in test taking, as any good texts are priceless sources of ideas, information, and vocabulary. The survey reveals that the candidates change their views on reading, they fully appreciate the idea of it, as the link between the time-consuming process of reading and vocabulary acquisition is not a hoax.

The questionnaires posit similar findings: the candidates are more often exposed to non-native varieties of English through schooling, socialization and communication. In a foreign language context, learners have few opportunities to speak the language outside the classroom (Luoma, 2004) (see Appendix 4). However, in this regard, students of the IT& H very often outdo their peers from the HSE in fluency of the oral speech, as they have regular practice working in hotels, travel agencies, being part-time guides; it is an indispensable part of their student life and future career.

Conclusion

In sum, the results illustrate that various variables can either “encourage or discourage language learners’ communicative interaction, both in natural and in instructional setting” (Khatib & Nourzadeh, 2014, p. 270). Anxiety, timing, attitude to partners and perception of interlocutors can be somehow trained, but oral proficiency, language skills, vocabulary acquisition, socio-cultural competences should be permanently developed through reading authentic texts, aural practice, and using learners’ dictionaries. Thus, the research provided valuable insight into the causes of candidates’ problems while preparing for the ST. Although, self-made questionnaires, the validity and reliability of which have not been well-established, were applied, the questionnaires can be helpful for longitudinal studies of EFL learning. “For pedagogy, the questionnaires would be highly useful in helping compile inventories of learners’ individual differences” (Khatib & Nourzadeh, 2014, p. 278) and in further research and comparative analysis.

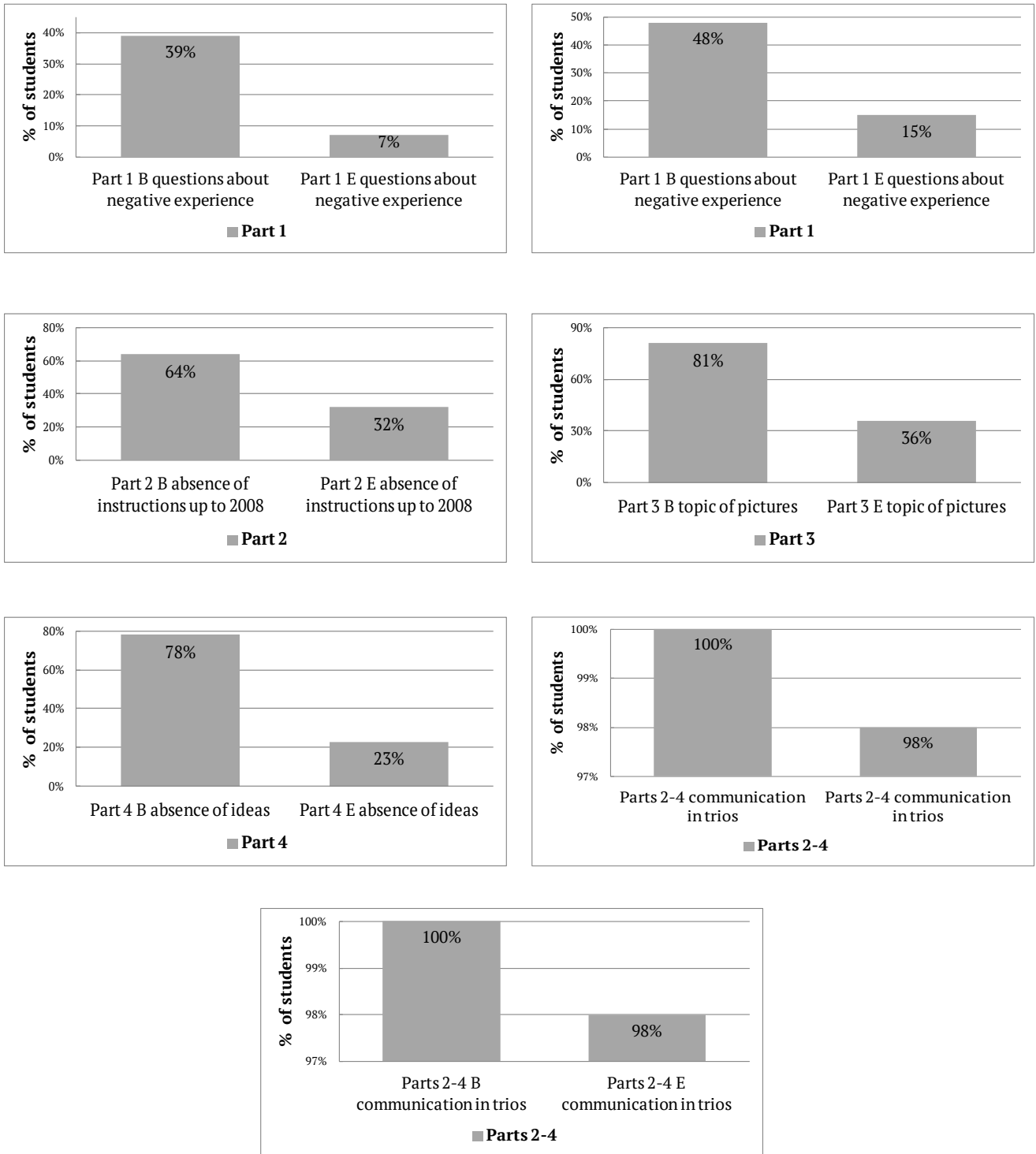


Figure 1. Results of the questionnaire and survey. Changes in candidates' attitude to arising learning difficulties at the beginning (B) and end (E) of the course in different Parts of the ST.

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Appendix 1

Table 1

What happens in the ST (from Speaking Test Preparation Pack for CAE, 2008, p. 6; after Norris, 2004, p. 5; French, 2003, p.45-47, 83)

Parts	Timing (minutes)	What the interlocutor does	What a candidate does	Possible range of language used
1. Interview	3	asks individual direct questions	gives personal information	General interactional and social language: - giving personal information about everyday circumstances - expressing opinions - talking about interests and experiences
2. Individual long/short turn	4	asks each candidate to talk about two visuals for 1 minute and comment on the pictures for 30 seconds	expresses opinions through comparing and contrasting and comments briefly on the other candidate's pictures	Organizing an extended piece of discourse: - comparing and contrasting - expressing opinions - describing - speculating and hypothesizing - commenting
3. Collaborative task	4	asks candidates to talk together using visual prompts	discusses a problem-solving task with a partner, exchanges ideas and opinions, makes suggestions, agrees, disagrees, and initiates discussion	Sustaining an interaction: - exchanging ideas - inviting and responding to opinions - agreeing and/or disagreeing - suggesting - speculating - evaluating through negotiation, discussing, selecting etc. - reaching a decision
4. Discussion on topics related to Part 3	4	leads a discussion, asks more general and abstract questions	exchanges views and opinions, further discusses the issues or themes raised in Part 3	- expressing and justifying opinions - agreeing and/or disagreeing - developing the conversation as much as possible

Appendix 2

Questionnaire

Questions	Typical answers
1. Do you read English classic books in the original?	Tried, but it is very difficult and time-consuming.
2. Do read English modern books in the original?	Very rarely, no free time.
3. Do you read English newspapers?	Only professional articles as homework.
4. Do you listen to English radio stations?	Never.
5. What sources of the English language do you have?	Classes at university, the Internet, cinema, foreign friends (mainly non-native speakers).
6. Do you use bilingual or monolingual dictionaries?	Mainly English-Russian on-line dictionaries. Convenient.
7. When you consult dictionaries, do you read only the explanation of the word meaning or examples?	Only the explanation usually to understand the meaning.
8. Do you pay attention to the different labels used in the dictionary?	What do you mean?
9. Have you ever used a dictionary of synonyms, antonyms, collocations ... ?	1) Find everything on the Internet. 2) Are there such dictionaries?
10. Have you ever used Advanced Learner's Dictionary?	Prefer on-line dictionaries and pay no attention to the type of dictionary.
11. Where, when and with whom do you have a chance to communicate in English?	1) Only while travelling; 2) Have some acquaintances abroad, but non- native speakers; 3) On the Internet, mainly non-native speakers; 4) In summer sometimes go to England; 5) Have a part time job in summer in hotels and travel agencies, some guests are native speakers.
12. Can you describe your negative experience in class?	1) Not ready to speak about failures. 2) Don't want to be laughed at.

Appendix 3

Survey. Candidates' attitude to arising learning difficulties and the remedies for them (the end of the course).

Part of the ST	Problem (typical answers)	Remedies
Part 1	Questions about negative experience	Got accustomed to them and do not feel any anxiety.
Part 2	1. The topic of the pictures 2. The necessity to remember the instructions (1999-2008 format)	1. Must read more to develop vocabulary. Must use learners' dictionary 2. Will concentrate more on them.
Part 3	The topic of the pictures	Must enlarge the range of both vocabulary and grammatical forms, read texts of different styles and genres.
Part 4	Absence of ideas	Must read more to develop vocabulary and to get more information in order to speak without halting.
The whole ST	Communication in a group of three	Had some speaking practice in a group of three.

Appendix 4

The Picture of an Average Test-taker

An average test-taker is a Russian-speaking B2+-C1-level undergraduate student of non-linguistic specializations who is pressed for time and that is why very rarely reads anything but professional literature which is compulsory for his academic studies. He/she has a vague idea about the way monolingual dictionaries are used. The usage of English is limited to oral communication mainly with non-native speakers in the classroom environment or while travelling abroad for all that he/she avoids discussing negative experience.

On the Question of the Semiotic Typology of Signs

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The article is in the context of linguistic and semiotic studies related to theoretical issues of base units' typology, in particular, theoretical linguistics and "pure" semiotics. Sign is one of the basic units of linguistics and semiotics. The way of understanding the nature and structure of the sign essentially influences the nature of almost all studies. The depth, consistency and completeness of perception of signs are reflected in the currently existing classifications of signs. The article fills in a gap in the perception of the sign variety nature in the semiotic and linguistic understanding. It provides a tool for the correct interpretation of a large body of facts related to the secondary use of proper names in the specific function and precedential units in a broad context. The analysis of the actual texts indicates that the current classifications of signs do not reflect in their entirety all the signs which actually exist and function in the space of language and culture. Beyond the limits proposed by these classification schemes are left the phenomena of sufficient frequency. The article based on the appositive and distribution methods describes and analyzes the type of signs that has not been previously perceived by researchers as an independent one and has not been studied at all. This sign is called a bifocal sign and it is consistently described in terms of its specific features which do not allow mixing it with other types of signs. The results show that an adequate interpretation of any text which includes a bifocal sign is impossible without taking into account the specificity of this sign.

Keywords: semiotics, linguistics, sign, classification, bifocal sign

More or less accepted by all researchers still having no unified interpretation, the classification of signs suggests their subdivision into the signs-indication, iconic signs, codes and symbols (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2015). At the root of this classification are the works of Ferdinand de Saussure and Charles Sanders Peirce.

One of the main provisions of the semiotic theory of Ferdinand de Saussure (1966) is the interpretation of a

sign as a bilateral (material and ideal) entity: concept + acoustic image, the relationship between which being asymmetrical (homonyms and synonyms). The second important point of this theory is the idea of arbitrariness (no connection / relationship between the signifier and the signified) and motivation of a linguistic sign.

Charles Sanders Peirce (cited in Murphey, 1961) in any explicit or implicit definition of a sign attached

greatest importance to its three constitutive elements: a Sign, its Object (with which it interrelates) and its Interpretant (knowledge produced in the mind) that stand in a well-defined type of interrelation. According to him triads are necessary and at the same time sufficient because all other kinds of relations are reducible to them and can be analyzed in their terms. Pierce distinguished the extension, this is the breadth of the concept (a set of objects to which this concept applies), and the intension, this is the depth of the content of the concept.

Nevertheless, the classical classification does not comprise the whole variety of signs. It is due to the fact that new types cannot be detected with the criteria that are the basis of the afore-mentioned classification. It seems quite natural since this classification was not originally intended to cover all the sign features.

Some later theories negate the distinction between the signifier and the signified introduced by Saussure and Peirce and examine a sign not in isolation, but in its interaction with the surrounding context. Louis Hjelmslev (Hjelmslev, 1953 cited in Qvarnstrom, 1971) maintained that language is a collective memory of all the ways which communicate meaning. He considered that the ultimate semiotic unity is “*figurae*” (a kind of figure of speech) and the internal structure of language is its system. Hjelmslev used “expression plane” and “content plane” instead of signifier and signified and claimed the sign to be a function between the two. He examined and described the combinations of form of content, substance of content, form of expression and substance of expression.

Claude Lévi-Strauss (cited in Avtonomova, 2010) postulated a disconnection between the signifier and the signified and originated the term “a floating signifier” defined by Chandler (2007) as “a signifier with a vague, highly variable, unspecifiable or non-existent signified” which presupposes the interaction of some signifiers in their isolation from the signified practically in any text.

Lacan (2006) connected the idea of breaking the structure of the sign with the associated problem of interpreting the meaning. According to Lacan, it would be a mistake to say that interpretation is open to all meanings under the pretext that it is a question of the link between the signifier and the signified and therefore uncontrollable link.

Algirdas Julien Greimas (cited in Katalius-Boydston, 1990) searched the laws regulating the mechanisms of generative semiotics. Examining them, he shifted the focus of attention from signs to systems of signification. As a result, he formulated a “Semiotic Square” - the structure fixing the interaction of meanings in discourse. This elementary structure is determined by three relations: opposites, contradictions and complementarity. It can be used as

a tool of analyzing not only the individual semantic concepts but also paragraphs and whole texts.

Chief representative of the Tartu-Moscow semiotic school Yuri Mikhailovich Lotman (1973) coined the concept of the semiosphere - the space in which there operate and interact with each other similarly large complexes of different types of signs. It is the culture which is perceived by Lotman as a semiosphere. Thus, to describe a culture means to describe a set of signs.

Eco (1979) offered to interpret the sign not only as a material object but as a guideline for interpretation. These findings were determined by his observations of the interaction of the text’s author and a reader. Based on the operating idea of the signs, Eco offered their typology consisting of four parameters: the physical effort necessary for producing the expression, the type-token ratio, the type of continuum and the mode and complexity of articulation.

The Mu Group (Andersson, 2010) attached the traditional classification of signs to the rhetorical constants they studied. They were especially interested in the way in which a particular type of sign functions in the formation of statements with a particular target setting. The Mu Group divided all the rhetorical figures and tropes into four groups: metaplasm (operations with phonetic and / or the graphic appearance of a linguistic sign), metasemem (operation at the semantic level of a linguistic sign), metataxis (operation at the syntactic level of a linguistic sign) and metalogism (logical operations).

As follows from the above, there we came across a completely different typology which does not essentially intersect with the traditional signs classification as it reveals utterly different characteristics of signs.

This article explores a bifocal sign as one of the new signs that has not yet been described in science.

Materials and Methods

Materials

The research comprises a large array of diverse literary texts selected in such a way that they relate to various cultural and literary traditions: collected works of Jorge Luis Borges, Stanisław Lem, Mikhail Yevgrafovich Saltykov-Shchedrin and Andrey Osipovich Novodvorskij. The range of temporal, linguistic, conceptual, aesthetic and ideological characteristics of these texts suggests that a bifocal sign is not a random semiotic phenomenon but a stable one whose existence is not related to the language and literary framework.

The observations made in the course of the research are based on the analysis of literary texts

which use the proper names which have already been used in other texts. In these texts there was made total sample of material. Particular attention was given to cases in which the connection with the previous text and the use of the name by the author are specifically emphasized. These cases were analyzed using the appositive and distribution methods.

Procedures

The procedure of analysis generally involves the following algorithmic mechanism:

1. The identification in the literary text of a proper name (name-2) which exterior form allows unambiguous asserting that it has previously been used in another preceding text enshrined in the aesthetic tradition and is an absolute identifier of the previously mentioned object, for example, a character or a title (name-1).
2. The establishment of the interaction mode between the name-2 and the name-1. In total there are three types of this kind:
 - (1) Name-1 and name-2 are not connected in any way. Such cases are not considered in the article as it is a chance coincidence caused by a limited set of names.
 - (2) Name-2 fully replicates name-1 through its referential property, for example, someone is reflecting upon the finished book and mentions its characters. Such cases are not considered as well because they are related to precedent phenomena.
 - (3) Name-2 does not replicate name-1 through its referential property, but still there is a connection between them which is unambiguously confirmed by the context. Such cases are thoroughly analyzed.
3. The ascertainment of the availability of integrated and distinctive semantic features of

name-2 and name-1, which belong to the third type of the interaction mode. The differential features are detected through the presence of semantic shifts in contexts and direct descriptions of the designated objects.

4. 4. The attribution of name-2 and name-1 as bifocal sign representers. Referential property and semantics, depending on the type of name, denote both imaginary objects, that is images created within the frames of artistic reality, and real objects, such as concrete works of art.

First of all, visualizing the features of a bifocal sign (in general terms related to the reference of one sign to another) requires comparing it with closely-related phenomena.

Situations where a sign indicates another sign or other signs are habitual (conventional and frequent) for any natural language. They consistently appear in the following cases.

Each case shown in Table 1 is representative of a large group of facts.

The use of the terminology of any meta-language may suggest that the term refers to a sign. This is most clearly seen in the linguistic terminology that practically all, with a few exceptions, is used for nominating other signs of varying degrees of complexity. Since in any developed national language the proportion of metalanguage units is great, such situations are stable and habitual. For example, the sign “sentence” in the statement “The sentence “I am sitting at the table” is a two-member sentence” replaces the sentence “I am sitting at the table”.

The actualization of genus-species relationship in any type of speech implies that any linguistic term denotes another sign of varying degree of complexity (or signal). Genus-species relationships are constantly used in speech. They are an integral part of the world conception and are recorded with the help of special categories represented by certain groups in thesauri. Because of this, they literally permeate spontaneous

Table 1
Phenomena resembling a bifocal sign

Nº	Situation	Specificity of use	Example
1	The use of metalanguage	Any linguistic term means any other sign of varying degrees of complexity	The sentence “I am sitting at the table” is a two-member sentence.
2	The actualization of generic-specific relationship	Any senior sign in the hierarchy represents a set of junior ones	The words “a sparrow” and “a crow” denote birds.
3	The use of estimates of speech	All estimates of speech indicate other signs	The letters are lying as if they feel like sleeping.
4	The demonstrative reference or description of speech acts	All nominations of speech actions indicate other signs	I was in the period of the scandal.
5	The characteristics of a person associated with the peculiarities of his verbal behavior	All nominations of a person connected with his/her speech features indicate other signs.	And then we must say: writing!
6	The use of the word in the performative function	In this case, it means another sign – action.	Oh, I could do with a drink! In remembrance, in remembrance!

and prepared oral and written speech. The sign “bird” in the expression ‘The words “a sparrow” and “a crow” denote birds’ is used for the nomination of bird species, notably the signs “a sparrow” and “a crow”.

All estimates of speech which mention a unit to be assessed or make reference to it denote other signs. ‘The letters are lying as if they feel like sleeping’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The word “letters”, being a sign itself, signifies specific graphic signs. ‘I went, as the saying goes, wherever my feet will carry me’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). In this case, “as the saying goes” characterizes a set expression. ‘Such talks are especially in keeping with the melody of samovar <...> (He) sang sharply, spoke much and well. The speech was like dinner. <...> conversations were deadly liberal and hence deadly boring’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The words “speech”, “speak”, “conversations” indicate the aggregate of other signs, or, from a different point of view, themselves.

All instructions, references or descriptions of specific speech acts, whatever means and ways they are produced with, necessarily involve the use of one sign for the nomination of another. ‘I was in the period of the scandal ...’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877); ‘There was a lot of laughter, arguments!’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877); ‘Already from this speech, you, ‘a fair reader’, can conclude that I was not so much logical as great’; ‘But what an explanation it was!’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The words “scandal”, “argument”, “speech”, “explanation” indicate some complex signs.

There is a tradition to characterize and name a person based on the specifics of his / her verbal behavior. It manifests itself in the sustainable existence of the individual and group nicknames and common nouns. For example, a talker, a chatterbox, eloquent, snuffling. These names are consistently and constantly used in any language. ‘And then we must say: writing!’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The word “writing” means here “literate”.

Using a word in a performative function assumes that it represents another sign - the action. This is especially clearly seen in the action, which presupposes the existence of mandatory social contracts. For example, hello, okay, I agree, etc. Each of these actions is actively represented in the communication space. ‘Oh, I could do with a drink! In remembrance, in remembrance!’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The word “remembrance” refers to an action that the speaker is about to carry out.

These situations are combined in various ways. For example: ‘Though your parents cried, they still blessed you to start out’ (Osipovich-Novodvorskij, 1877). The word “blessed” indicates a certain speech act, which is performative. Assessment of speech can be combined with the indication of a certain verbal action as well.

In all these situations the sign serves indicating and / or descriptive (attribute) functions.

The type of using signs, which is different from these situations, is presented in the literal narration or analysis of artistic texts. In these cases, the secondary text uses the same sign as the original text; it is just placed in a new context of interpretation, deformation, or evaluation. For example, the title of A. B. Penkovsky’s book “Nina” uses the same sign as Lermontov’s poem “Masquerade”. The name of the heroine becomes the name of the book (and then the name of the bookstore) without changing its semantics. It is integrally, without any transformation, transferred from one object to another changing denotations or expanding its referential potential. Such use of the name is identical to the direct quotation, and in fact it is a quote: incorporation of somebody else’s text elements without changes in one’s own text. On a similar citation see Anna Wierzbick’s work (1970). Such cases are also common and sufficiently frequent. Here a sign functions as an indicator (or retains the function which it has in the original text).

All illustrated types of situations in which a sign is used to indicate another sign (there are many more of them if their study is not restricted to the sphere of language and speech acts) consistently and logically can be included in the three suppositions of Ockham (suppositio Occam) - the most abstract representation of the types of reference - and can be described in his terms, notably, represented through the personal (suppositio personalis - the term refers to any object it designates), simple (suppositio simplex - the term implies an intention of the soul) and material (suppositio materialis - the term refers to itself) suppositions (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy, 2015).

Existing classifications of signs do not allow, in a strict typological and structural definition of the form, interpreting all the cases of the sign functioning in context. In particular, outside the existing models there remains a considerable amount of facts relating to the use of precedent proper names in the situation of a secondary particular or point nomination in relation to the objects that exhibit an accented connection with objects, initially called by these names, and at the same time oppose them. Such cases are many. They are recorded in a special type of communicative situations fixed in the procedure of the analysis of the above-mentioned texts.

Results and Discussion

This research has singled out a particular type of situations which is basically not reduced to the listed

above and which represents a specific use of a sign. These are the cases when in one artistic text there acts a character which has previously acted by the same name in another text. At that this coincidence of names is not accidental; it was originally included in the author's artistic message. With the help of this name the author of the text makes conscious reference to solve certain aesthetic problems.

Such cases are not something exceptional or unique either. They can be traced, for example, in M. Y. Saltykov-Shchedrin's essays "The Well-Meant Speeches" (Благонамеренные речи) and "Messrs Molchalins" (Господа Молчалины). The heroes of these essays Derzhimorda and Molchalin are taken from the works of Russian classical literature N. Gogol's comedy "The Government Inspector" (Ревизор) and A. S. Griboyedov's comedy "Woe from Wit" (Горе от ума), respectively. It should be emphasized that it is not about the cases where the proper name functions as a common noun (this is a well-known type which is ascribed to the above situations and suppositio Occam), but it is about the cases where it nominates another independent character with the reference to the predecessor.

The hero-narrator of the story "Episode in the life of any surfactants or crows" (Эпизод из жизни ни павы, ни вороны) by A. S. Osipovich-Novodvorskiy (1877) says about his family:

"My grandfather – 'the spirit of denial, the spirit of doubt' or just Demon – died a natural death, in his bed, probably bored with flying above the peaks of the Caucasus"; 'All of us gathered near his bed: my father Pechorin, I, my brothers Rudin and Bazarov'; 'In the room, except for the persons stated above, there was no one. Onegin was absent, because he was not my father's brother, as some claim, but only a distant cousin, ten times removed cousin; Oblomov was also absent, for the simple reason that he is Onegin's, not Pechorin's son'; 'My grandfather died in a village of Nebyvalovka, Pechorin's estate (soon, however, it was sold for the debts), after a duel of my father with ill-fated Grushnitsky, after an affair with princess Mary'; 'My brothers were not with me. They had been taken to the foster fathers and mothers. You know the subsequent history of both from the excellent biographies written by Turgenev'.

These contexts (there are more similar cases in the story) mention the names: Demon, Pechorin, Rudin, Bazarov, Onegin, Oblomov, Grushnitski, Mary. They are mentioned with explicit references (in the course of the narrative this relationship for Demon,

Pechorin, Rudin and Bazarov is specially emphasized) to the sources in which they originally functioned: A. S. Pushkin's poem "Angel" (Ангел) and verse novel "Yevgeny Onegin" (Евгений Онегин), M. Y. Lermontov's poem "Demon" (Демон) and story "A Hero of Our Time" (Герой нашего времени), I. S. Turgenev's novels "Rudin" (Рудин) and "Fathers and Sons" (Отцы и дети), I. A. Goncharov's novel "Oblomov" (Обломов).

Though with a strict reference to the original text, without which there simply will be no produced artistic effect, these names are mentioned not as a quote. The characters bearing the same names do not exhibit the same behaviour. It turns out that Demon, scarcely subject to death, had a family and died in his estate surrounded by sons and grandsons, and then the lackey dropped him into the river Lethe. Pechorin, who also had no family in the source code, was the son of the Demon and the father of Rudin and Bazarov, who were the offsprings of different parents in the original text. Besides Pechorin is distantly related to Onegin, Oblomov's father and so on.

In most cases these characteristics represent the ironic reinterpretation of the then existing critical practice which loved to determinate "kinship" between the characters of the various texts. The semantics assigned to the name of the character (no matter whether it is defined as an associated field or as a strict signification) consists of the substantial characteristics of the character. As a result, Pechorin is the one who had no family and the one who had quite a specific family; Onegin is a person who had no son and the one who had a son Oblomov, and so on.

All names in the reproduced contexts simultaneously preserve the old semantics and are endowed with new meanings. All of these names are both independent and dependent signs. They are simultaneously able to operate in isolation from the context of the original work and are not able to do it, because the insulation causes the loss of their semantics, and they cease to perform those functions or to produce the artistic effect, which they are intended to implement. Thus, the sign (proper noun) denotes and, at the same time, does not denote itself; it refers and, at the same time, does not refer to its identity. This is a bifocal sign.

The differences between the structure of a sign in the traditional sense and the structure of a bifocal sign can be presented starting from the model of the semiotic triangle proposed by Ogden and Richardson (1923) displayed in Fig. 1. This model captures the interaction between the three basic components of the sign: the sign itself, its interpretant and object. Here S stands for Sign – material form of the sign (its sound or graphic complex); I means Interpretant – inner form of the sign (its semantic complex which corresponds to it); O is Object – real or imaginary object for naming

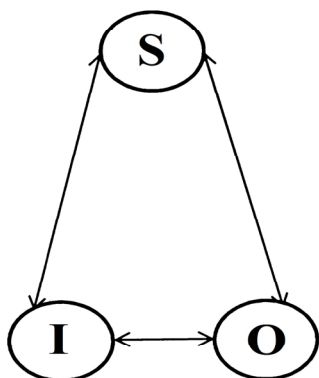


Figure 1. A traditional sign.

which the sign is used.

A bifocal sign in Figure 2 has a principally different structure. It has, in contrast to the traditionally understood sign, two (or more) material forms, two (or more) inner forms and two (or more) objects. Nevertheless, from the perspective of its use and existence nature, it is a single sign. Each of the components of a bifocal sign's duality is not an independent sign; it is a part of the indivisible unity.

It should be emphasized that the integrity of the bifocal sign is not determined by the fact that it consists of two or more base triangles, but by the fact that it is an inseparable unity. A bifocal sign is not a composition of elementary signs; it is a new type of elementary signs with a distinctive typological structure.

The integrity of a bifocal sign gives rise to the functional nature of the sign, its purpose, and effects generated by it. This integrity is predetermined by a special type of situations the essence of which is the establishment and consolidation of the inextricable link between two nominations of two different objects. A bifocal sign is a unit which is simultaneously represented in more than one text (in the broadest sense). Its existence is determined by the author who seeks to emphasize one or another type of interaction of his own text with the pre-existing text. Bifocal signs perform nominative function.

Forked integral signifiers of bifocal signs are not necessarily proper names. This part can also be performed by common nouns, or the whole phrases (deformed quotes). Compare a bifocal sign with signifier "my uncle" or "Yevgeny Onegin's uncle". The first example is taken from A. S. Pushkin's "Yevgeny Onegin" (translation by Ch. Johnston), retrieved from http://lib.ru/LITRA/PUSHKIN/ENGLISH/onegin_j.txt

My uncle - high ideals inspire him; but when
past joking he fell sick, he really forced one
to admire him -and never played a shrewder

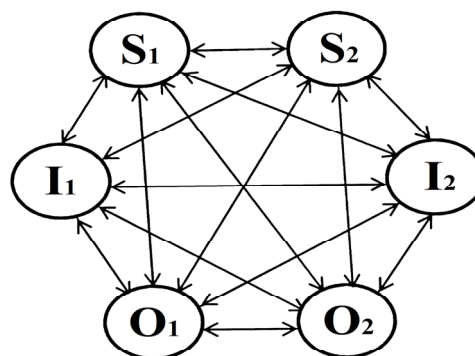


Figure 2. A bifocal sign.

trick.

The second one from the song of Psoi Korolenko is retrieved from <http://www.megalyrics.ru/lyric/psoi-korolienko/moi-diadia-dot-silnyi-kak-orlan-bylobustroien-v-zhizni-kruto-dot.htm>:

My uncle, as strong as an eagle, well-
fixed was in life to the brim: he called a
halt to a minute, and life could transform
in a dream.

This bifocal sign has numerous homonyms. In the poem below, retrieved from <http://www.hohmodrom.ru/project.php?prid=95534>, it is a homonym, not a bifocal sign itself, because its appearance presupposes the presence of unified internal references of the subsequent component to all previous ones.

My uncle - high ideals inspire him, when
he was going on the cops. He really had
the right to do it. Don't give a neighing
like a horse.

Forked integral denotation of a bifocal sign (its semantics) is not a simple sum of the meanings of its components. Their convergence poses special effects of semantic likeness/difference, similarity/opposition. They complement actual text features and mark a specificity of a bifocal sign's meaning, which is often ambivalent or in the direction of ambivalence.

A bifocal sign is present simultaneously in two places (texts), and in this sense it is comparable to the elementary particle that, according to quantum mechanics, can be simultaneously in two points of the space. From another point of view, a bifocal sign can be compared to a diphthong, within which two separate sounds act as a single entity.

Bifocal signs are widely represented in literary parodies and various biographies (and partly in autobiographies). The functionality of these speech genres is based precisely on the nature of bifocal signs, because without reference to the preceding text or a real object, taken in isolation, they completely lose the

ability to produce the effect which they were created to implement. In the case of biographies, a bifocal sign can become more complex and, strictly speaking, transform into a multifocal.

While writing, a biographer can use a model “a real person - a text about him”. Then in case of special intent, fundamental impossibility or simple unwillingness of the biographer to adequately describe the object of the narrative, a bifocal sign appears. When a model “a real person - a source fixing his peculiarities (one or more) - the text about him” is used, there can appear a multifocal sign which is a special case of a bifocal one and hardly has any fundamental features of its own. In both cases there is a shift in the semantics and its divergence.

Another type of texts where bifocal signs are well represented is different cases of lies and misinformation. The peculiarity of these texts is that their authors deliberately seek to portray bifocal signs as traditional and herewith to create the wrong idea about the reality in the data receiver.

The degree of bifocal sign perception completeness depends on the level of language competence of the receiver. The one with a low level of competence having no idea of the source text, perceives a bifocal sign as traditional and, therefore, inadequately reads the entire text, impoverishes it, endows it with non-existent meanings or takes a lie for the truth (and vice versa).

In a broad semiotic aspect, the bifocal signs can be found in replicas of products, forgery, caricatures, and various genres of painting. These signs function as units of language: caricatures = literary parodies, replicas and fakes = lies and misinformation, and various genres of painting = different genres of literature. The difference between these bifocal signs lies only in their physical media (signifiers), but not in their nature or structure.

Another broad area of the bifocal sign's presence is literature and theater. In the case of theater, bifocal signs occur when a performance is not originally related to the drama, such as “The Village of Stepanchikovo” (Село Степанчиково и его обитатели) staged by the Maly Theatre (premiere April 28, 2013). In the case of a movie, it is the transfer of literary texts and sequels on the screen, for example “Solaris” (Солярис) directed by Andrei Tarkovsky (1972) and “Solaris” directed by S. Soderbergh (2002).

All of the above types of texts are only oriented at bifocal signs but do not consist exclusively of them. They also have a high proportion of direct quotations. The more citations these texts contain, the closer they are to the original text; the more bifocal signs they have, the farther they move from it.

The vector of creation (emergence) of bifocal signs is always sent back (backwards, in the past),

they appear due to the interaction of a new text with the previous one. In this they differ from the vector of renaming (the acquisition of a new name by the sign), which is always directed forward (in the future). Even in cases where the sign returns its past name (St. Petersburg - Petrograd - Leningrad - St. Petersburg) the name is functionally in the future and rejects the past tradition or any part of it. On the contrary, a bifocal same sign confirms past tradition, addressing the data receiver to it.

Even in the cases where the name and description (semantics) of the object initially occur in one of imaginary worlds (robot of Karel Čapek, a submarine of Jules Verne, and so on), and then the object is constructed in a real world, a bifocal sign may occur only as a reference to the prior nomination. A bifocal sign actualizes the past, while the renaming seeks to erase it. In a broad cultural context bifocal signs are clamps uniting imaginary worlds into a single unit. They show the connection between imaginary worlds, indicate their spatial and temporal continuity.

Special attention should be given to the comparison of bifocal signs and precedent phenomena, the ratio of which in general is subject to the rule: any bifocal sign, in principle, can be perceived as a precedent phenomenon, but not any precedent phenomenon is a bifocal sign. The scope of intersection between these objects - different in respect of linguistics and semiotics - is limited to proper names and nominative groups which obtain a new reference in a new text. It is important that in this case the proper names are not only anthroponyms. They may be the names of objects as well. For example, the creative legacy of Jorge Luis Borges and Stanislaw Lem contain many bifocal signs - the names of literary works that by their very presence and artistic embodiment generate new imaginary realities. On the other hand, quotations, names and nominative groups which, when used in the new text, retain their old reference are precedent phenomena but not bifocal signs. Traditionally, such cases are perceived by native speakers as allusions or references. Their functionality does not imply any augment of new meanings; it is only a direct indication of the cultural tradition according to which a particular type of dialogue related to actualizing the primary source authority is carried on.

Precedent phenomena operate in all functional styles except for official business but they are most arresting in media. More often than not, the researchers do not distinguish between precedent phenomena, bifocal signs and cases of their superposition. They interpret the full set of facts as a whole, which affects the quality of the interpretation. It is momentous to emphasize that the precedent texts perform the categorization of the existing reality while bifocal signs always create some of its new segments. That is

for the latter, in this aspect, the predominant feature is generating.

A bifocal sign captures not only a new object but its integrated perception as a unit which already has some history in the field of culture. It can be argued that a bifocal sign at the moment of its occurrence and translation always possesses a prospective vector of semantic development, but a precedent text can have both a prospective (when it coincides with a bifocal sign) and retrospective (when it does not coincide with it) vector of semantic development.

Another criterion for differentiation is that the precedent texts themselves may be diffuse by nature, that is, they may simultaneously refer to several texts without specifying (to a book and a film, a poem and a romance, etc.). As a bifocal sign always has a concrete nature, that is, it refers to strictly defined denotata which combine into a single unit.

There is only one functional similarity between precedent texts and bifocal signs: both of them in their perception are connected with the recipient's background knowledge. But the resemblance is external; it is not meaningful and it is not related to the structural characteristics of the objects.

Conclusion

The phenomenon of the sign from the time of Pierce and Saussure has consistently attracted the attention of researchers. Signs are considered in their relation to other objects of varying breadth and complexity and from the aspect of the mechanisms of their occurrence in communication. In so doing, the basic classification of signs varies but remains unchanged. At the same time, it does not allow to interpret the whole variety of sign objects.

There is a large number of facts that are outside the types which are traditionally singled out. It is possible to describe the semiotic specificity of these facts only by using a new classification. It does not exclude or deny the previous one; it has a complementary character. It is based on a due account taken of the way in which the sign functions in the context. The functioning of the sign in the context as a basis for identifying its specific features indicates the existence of two different groups of situations.

The first group is diverse and still not consistently typologized situations in which a sign is used instead of another sign. In total there are six situations of this kind. Each of them is interesting in the communicative context but does not show any previously unknown semiotic potential.

The second group is quite different; it allows discovering the context of using previously unknown

type of sign. From the perspective of the second group, the sign of a special type is a bifocal sign. This is a special semiotic unit in which all components are doubled and their interaction is subject to the availability of bi-directional links between them.

A bifocal sign never exists in one particular context. It is always deconcentrated at least between two texts. It implements various functions and its integrated dual semantics is ambivalent by its very nature.

The correct reading of any text assumes, first of all, the true reading of the aggregate of signs contained in it. Using the concept of bifocal sign and accounting of features of this type of signs identified and fixed in the article will allow a greater degree of consistency and adequacy in perceiving and analyzing different texts. Since bifocal signs are special structural and semantic formations, their perception by the data receiver should be different from the perception of other types of signs. The interpretation of bifocal signs contained in particular texts and statements is always wider than the borders of these texts and statements. For this reason, bifocal signs should be assessed as special linguistic and cultural clamps, as factors that ensure the unity of specific languages and cultures.

Limitation and Future Directions

The conclusions obtained in this study, are mostly limited to the material of fiction language and are not fully extrapolated to the whole semiotic space.

The most promising directions of further research seem to be the following. First, it may be productive to consider how the bifocal signs are represented in different functional styles, what statistical and substantive laws their operation is subject to in them. Second, it is necessary to answer the question if bifocal signs can appear spontaneously, unconsciously, without deliberate will of the speaker. Third, it should be found out what functional capacity is inherent in the use of bifocal signs in spontaneous everyday speech, what restrictions and priorities can be found there. And, finally, it should be established whether the totality of the bifocal signs is an independent semiotic subsystem or whether they are a set of odd local units performing their functions separately and independently from each other.

Addressing all these issues will create a coherent theoretical basis for the meaningful use of bifocal signs in different communication environments.

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Strategic Hedging: A Comparative Study of Methods, Results and Discussion (and Conclusion) Sections of Research Articles in English and Russian

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A great deal of research has established the importance of hedging and its cross-linguistic differences for intercultural academic communication and, consequently, for L2 EAP/ESP teaching and learning. However, strategic hedging seen as discourse-based hedging strategies related to the rhetorical structure of research papers seems to be underexplored. The article reports on a mainly descriptive study of its cross-linguistic variation in the Methods, Results and Discussion (and Conclusion) sections of English-medium and Russian-medium research articles in the field of management and marketing. Based on D. Koutsantoni's taxonomy, this paper analyzes 20 published articles to compare the types, frequencies and reveal some tendencies of using strategic hedges in both languages. The research detects the same two major categories of strategic hedges (agreement with other research and limitations) for both languages, with the same further subcategorization for each of them. The findings reveal differences between the languages in the overall frequencies of strategic hedges and the frequencies of their subtypes, as well as in tendencies of their usage including Russian writers' preference for referring to general opinion, implicit ways of expressing limitations and giving one explanation for obscure results, as compared to English writers. The research outcomes indicate that cross-linguistic variation of strategic hedging in English-medium and Russian-medium research articles is an important feature to be taken into account in EAP/ESP teaching and learning.

Keywords: hedging, strategic hedging, academic research article, methods, results and discussion/ conclusion sections, cross-linguistic

Since the introduction of the term 'hedging' by Lakoff (1972), the hedging phenomenon has been the subject of a considerable body of studies within various linguistic research frameworks (logical and semantic, discourse-oriented, cognitive, pragmatic, and other). Within the pragmatic approach which emerged in the 1980s and has developed into the leading framework for linguistic study of hedging, this phenomenon is viewed as a strategy that 'attenuates either the full semantic value of a particular expression...or the full force of a speech act' (Fraser, 2010, p. 15). Appropriate use and adequate perception of hedging is considered indispensable to achieving pragmatic competence defined as 'the ability to communicate your intended message with all its nuances in any socio-cultural

context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended' (Fraser, 2010, p. 15).

Recent decades have seen an upsurge of interest to hedging in academic discourse, which reveals the critical role of hedging in this type of discourse (Hyland, 2004a, p.6) where the necessity to present new knowledge with both precision and caution is essential. Consequently, a substantial amount of research into hedging in ESP/EAP contexts has appeared (Hyland, 2004b; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hinkel, 2005; Lewin, 2005), pinpointing the clear importance of hedging for developing pragmatic competence in ESP/EAP areas. It is acknowledged that if non-native speakers (NNSs) do not use hedging, or use it inappropriately, they break the communication rules accepted in the target language, therefore their

message can be misapprehended, or they can be seen as impolite, inappropriate or insulting. If NNSs fail to interpret the hedged utterance correctly, they may misconceive it (Fraser, 2010). Both cases are seen as potential sources of communicative error which can impede communication or even cause communication failure.

As important as hedging is in academic discourse, and, consequently, in ESP/EAP teaching and learning, it is mainly lexical and syntactic hedging devices that have been scrutinized in linguistic and pedagogical research. However, little is known about strategic markers of hedging (Hyland, 2004a) in which the mitigation effect does not stem from the use of specific language units, but is rather related to discourse-based strategies referring to an imperfect model, methods, lack of knowledge, and other drawbacks of the research. Moreover, though hedging research definitely has important implications for ESL teaching and learning, specifically, in ESP/EAP areas, even less is known about cross-linguistic differences in realizing strategic hedging in specific domains of science.

This paper attempts to partially bridge this gap by focusing on contrastive investigation of strategic hedges in the Methods, Results and Discussion sections of articles following the IMRD (Introduction – Methods – Results – /and Discussion) rhetorical model, and Conclusion sections for articles following the IMRDC (Introduction – Methods – Results –/and Discussion – Conclusion) model of academic research articles (RAs) on management and marketing written in English and Russian. The research aims to determine if there are any cross-linguistic differences in this respect, and if they are detected, to provide a comparative overview of strategic hedges used in each of the languages in RAs in this field in terms of their frequency and preferences in usage. The research is basically descriptive and does not aim at making a thorough quantitative analysis. Rather, it intends to detect and compare the main tendencies in the use of strategic hedges in the field mentioned for both languages.

In this paper, first a brief overview of the evolution of this linguistic concept will be given and the functions of hedging in academic discourse will be mentioned, then the taxonomy of strategic hedging to be used in this research and the types of strategic hedges used in each language will be determined, the frequency of each type of strategic hedges in English-language and Russian-language articles will be calculated, and the differences will be briefly discussed.

Materials and Methods

The Concept of Hedging

Anticipated by Zadeh (1965 as cited in Fraser,

2010, p. 16) in his fuzzy set theory and by Weinreich in the concept of ‘metalinguistic operators’ (Weinreich, 1966 as cited in Fraser, 2010, p. 16), the concept of hedging was first introduced by Lakoff (1972). He approached hedging from the logical-semantic perspective defining hedges as ‘words whose job is to make things fuzzier or less fuzzy’ (Lakoff, 1972, p. 195). In discourse-oriented research, hedges are often viewed as discourse markers either affecting the truth-conditions of propositions, or demonstrating the degree of speaker’s commitment to the truth-value of the proposition. In pragmatics, hedging is considered to be an interactional / communicative strategy of softening the speech act with the aim of avoiding potential communicative conflicts and is linked up to the notions of politeness (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 2010) and vagueness (Fraser, 2010, among others). From an array of interpretations of hedging in various research frameworks relating it to fuzziness of notions, different pragmatic features and social functions of the discourse, the most widely recognized is probably the one which describes hedging as a way of expressing tentativeness and possibility to display ‘either (a) a complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or (b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically’ (Hyland, 2004a, p. 1).

Hedging in Academic Discourse

The plethora of research into hedging in academic discourse, its functions and frequency in various genres and rhetorical parts of academic research papers (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Koutsantoni, 2006, among others), across various disciplines (Fløttum et al., 2006; Vartalla, 2001; Vold, 2006), and different cultures/languages (Fløttum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006; Peterlin, 2005; Salager-Meyer, Ariza, & Zambrano, 2003; Vassileva, 2001; Vold, 2006) has led to elaborating the concept of hedging, determining its functions, and various types of markers in academic context. Researchers assign several reasons for the frequent use of hedging in academic discourse: first, ‘academics are crucially concerned with varieties of cognition, and cognition is inevitably hedged, with writers offering an assessment of the referential information they provide’ (Hyland, 2004a, p. 6) to introduce new knowledge with the highest precision possible. Second, academic writers use hedges to ‘present unproven claims with caution’ (Hyland, 2004a, p. 6) to minimize potential damage to their image in case they claims are not accepted by the academic community. They do so in situations in which they feel their research is vulnerable due to drawbacks in methodology (too small samples, dubious justification of the research methods, questionable proofs and measurement techniques), ambiguity in interpreting the results,

incompleteness of the research scope. Moreover, academic communication implies collaborating and negotiation between the writer and the reader in solving a problem, and since categorical assertions may contradict the readers' views and leave no way for a dialogue, the authors strive to reduce this potential threat by using hedged statements. Finally, hedging is a 'part of the academic discourse conventions; therefore, it is 'a substantial means by which scientists confirm their membership of the scientific community' (Hyland, 2004a, p. 6), thus creating credibility of their research.

Research Article Structure and Strategic Hedges

Academic research articles (RAs) are viewed as the core genre of written academic discourse due to their leading role in scientific knowledge dissemination and building researchers' reputation. In John Swales' most influential conception, genre is defined as 'a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes' (Swales, 1990, p. 58) and is characterized by distinct rhetorical structure. In much of the ESP/EAP research the rhetorical structure of RAs is seen as comprising moves – 'bounded communicative acts' designed 'to achieve one main communicative objective' (Swales & Feak, 2000, p. 35) – which can be further subdivided into steps.

Though for a long time hedging was supposed to be expressed mainly by lexical and syntactic means, there are some studies which mention, in addition to these, strategic hedges related to the rhetorical structure of an academic paper, i.e. to rhetorical moves and steps (Hyland, 2004a; Koutsantoni, 2006; Laane, 2010).

Hyland (2004a, p. 103) mentions among strategic hedges reference to limiting experimental conditions, reference to shortcomings in the model, theory or methodology and admission to a lack of knowledge. Koutsantoni (2006) provides a more precise categorization by distinguishing between five types of strategic hedging. In 'limitations of method' authors refer to imperfections in the research sample, framework or method to reduce the certainty of their research results, seeking to protect themselves from potential criticism by the discourse community. 'Limitations of scope' emphasize what authors prefer to discuss and what is beyond the scope of the study. 'Limitations of the study' pertain to the validity of the research, admitting the necessity of conducting additional research to confirm the results. Statements of 'agreement with other research' are also regarded as cautious ways for confirmation of one's claims, and are therefore included into strategic hedges. In 'limitations of knowledge' authors concede that they are unable to offer explanations for phenomena, provide comprehensive definitions and perfect models

(Koutsantoni, 2006). As stated by Hyland (2004a, p. 142), in doing so authors 'fix their work in an evidential context of uncertainty', often emphasizing that some of their conclusions are correct under some circumstances, or providing several explanations for a conclusion.

While the fundamental characteristics of the generic rhetorical structure are generally believed to be basically the same across languages and determined, to a large extent, by the international conventions of academic communication, some rhetorical strategies are found to be culture-specific (Peterlin, 2005, p. 308). However, due to the scarcity of cross-linguistic research on strategic hedges, cross-linguistic variation of hedging related to the rhetorical structure still has to be proved, and this study attempts to provide some evidence to support this assumption.

Research Taxonomy

This study aims at exploring frequency of occurrence and the main tendencies in using strategic markers of hedging in the Methods, Results, Discussion (and Conclusion) sections of research articles (RAs) from a cross-linguistic perspective. To this end, Koutsantoni's (2006) categorization of strategic hedges was adopted as a foundation for the research taxonomy. However, in this paper Koutsantoni's classification is modified by extending the 'agreement with other research' subgroup by including, alongside with strategic hedges used to confirm the results by attributing claims to other researchers, strategic hedges aimed at justifying the choice of research methodology, substantiating the research implications, and explanations of the results or admitting to a lack of knowledge. The reason for including the above-mentioned types of agreement with other research into strategic hedges lies in the fact that, like other types of strategic hedges, they shift the responsibility for credibility of statements to other authors, which implies the author's hesitation about their validity and the resulting need for their reinforcement.

In contrast to Hyland's classification and following Koutsantoni (2006), in this paper the limitations of data or experimental conditions are included in the limitations of method. The reason for this is the fact that researchers often mention a combination of these limitations, making their isolation for measurement purposes difficult or impossible (for example, unavailability of data is frequently used to explain insufficient sample size, or deficiencies of the database are mentioned to account for the use of specific research variables).

Corpus and Procedure

Two corpora were used in this research: a corpus

of Methods, Results and Discussion (and Conclusion) sections of 10 English-language research articles, and a corpus comprising the respective sections of 10 Russian-language articles in the field of management and marketing published dating from 2000 to 2014. The articles for the English corpus were randomly selected from several international journals with the impact factor for 2014/2015 not lower than 3: *Journal of Management*, *Strategic Management Journal*, *Journal of International Management*, *Journal of Operations Management*, *Journal of Marketing*, *Research Policy*. It is believed that, as all the articles have been accepted by English-speaking editorial boards, they substantially conform to the discourse or rhetorical conventions of the international English-speaking academic community. The Russian-language corpus comprised the respective sections of RAs published in three top-ranking Russian journals in this domain of science: *Vestnik Sankt-Peterburgskogo Universiteta. Series 8. Management*, *Rossiiskij Zhurnal Menedzhmenta*, *Economicheskij Zhurnal Vysshey Shkoly Ekonomiki*. The limited number of Russian-language journals is explained by the fact that only these journals were found to contain articles that are comparable in length to the English-language ones, and follow the IMRD or IMRDC rhetorical structure accepted in many international journals on management and marketing. Introduction sections were excluded from the analysis for the following reason: due to the limited number of quality Russian journals in this domain and a disparity between international and Russian rhetorical / structural standards for RAs, selecting a sufficient number of articles which strictly followed the format mentioned seemed problematic. Many articles in Russian followed this structure in the concluding sections but failed to do so in the introductory sections (for example, contained a 'Literature review section'), thus impeding comparison between the two corpora.

This research employed a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in data collection and processing. The corpora were searched for strategic hedges manually as there is no software capable of identifying pragmatic or rhetorical functions of language units. All cases detected were then analyzed by two independent researchers. The quantitative approach in the form of simple frequency counts and percentages was used to get comparable data and to find frequencies. Following Koutsantoni (2006), the qualitative approach employed analysis of the detected items in their context by the two researchers trying to identify their pragmatic usage through text analysis. The number of hedges found in the English and Russian corpora were recorded, the hedges were classified according to the predetermined categories, and their proportions per category were counted manually and tabulated for both languages. Then, the detected strategic hedges were analyzed in

terms of cross-linguistic differences in their frequency and usage.

Results and Discussion

The research aimed at detecting cross-linguistic variation in strategic hedging in English and Russian RAs on management and marketing indicated the same types of hedges for both corpora. Both the English (1) and Russian writers (2) admitted to limitations of method by mentioning unavailability of data, too small samples, restrictive conditions of research, imperfections in the research method or model:

(1) Like all research, ours has limitations that open up opportunities for future work. ... Finally, since our study uses experiential simulation with fieldwork, future research could re-examine our predictions in an (albeit less controlled) industry setting (Chen, Katila, McDonald, & Eisenhardt, 2010, p. 1544).

(2) Conducting longitudinal research on the discussed problems for separate industries is complicated by a lack of the information required (Nikulin & Shatalov, 2012, p. 43).

In many cases, both the English and Russian authors attempted to provide a ground for choosing the imperfect data, methods or model through counterbalancing their drawbacks with advantages or giving reasons for their choice with the view of achieving research goals.

Both the English (3) and Russian (4) scientists often admitted to restrictions on the research scope, thus protecting themselves from a negative criticism of incompleteness of the study.

(3) ...the research took a 'bottom up' look at two real projects, but did not systematically research the broader company processes or functions ... (Hobday, 2000, p. 880).

(4) This paper does not touch upon the ways how this jointly created value is distributed among the chain members (Tret'jak & Sloev, 2012, p. 37).

In both corpora, cases of admittance to limitations of knowledge were found (5, 6):

(5) Whether or not these formal organizational solutions to the problems of organizational learning and career development work effectively remains to be seen (Hobday, 2000, p. 888).

(6) Differences in other aspects are less significant, which obscures the answer to the question if export to the markets of the former USSR has a learning effect (Golikova, Gonchar, & Kuznecov, 2012, p. 18).

Both corpora also revealed multiple examples

of agreement with other research to confirm the research method (7, 8) and results (9, 10), and a number of strategic hedges used to strengthen explanations and implications, as well as strategies aimed at indicating limitations of the study (11, 12).

- (7) In line with previous studies (Das et al., 1998; Koh & Venkatraman, 1991; Reuer, 2001), we used the following market model (Park, Mezias, & Song, 2004, p. 15).
- (8) In the present article an original model of strategic entrepreneurship is developed based on the scales proposed by Bierly and Daly (2007) and by Ireland and Webb (2007) (Shirokova & Sokolova, 2011, p. 55).
- (9) Consistent with the literature, our findings also indicate a direct, positive relationship between integration intensity and two financial measures (Rosenzweig, Roth, & Dean, 2003, p. 450).
- (10) These conclusions are in line with the outcomes of earlier research into the problem (Nikulin & Shatalov, 2012, pp. 42-43).
- (11) Our study uses cross-sectional data, which exclude tests for the effectiveness of detailed contract drafting and close partner selection over time (Wuyts & Sou, 2005, p. 114).
- (12) Verifying the approach in different industries may lead to modifying the relationship between customer acquisition and customer retention strategies depending on the branch of industry (Tret'jak & Sloev, 2012, p. 48).

The quantitative results obtained for the English-language corpus are reported in Table 1.

The quantitative outcomes for the English corpus are comparable to Koutsantoni's (2006) research results with some exceptions. In this research, the most frequent strategies are found to be those pertaining to agreement with other research, while in Koutsantoni's research they are ranked fourth according to the order of frequency. This may be explained by the terminological differences: while Koutsantoni includes in this subgroup only those strategic hedges which prove similarity of the research outcomes to the results of other research, in the current paper a wider understanding is adopted (see above). The frequencies of agreement with other Koutsantoni's and the current research (12.5 and 10.2%, respectively). The proportions of strategies acknowledging limited knowledge and limitations of the study are also similar (12.5 versus 10.2%, and 10 versus 9%, respectively). The differences between the results could be attributed to the cross-disciplinary research confirming the results are comparable in Koutsantoni's and the current research (12.5 and 10.2%, respectively). The proportions of strategies acknowledging limited knowledge and limitations of

Table 1
Frequency of hedging strategies in the English corpus

Category	Number	%	Average per RA	
agreement with other research	confirming the method	91.0	37.3	9.1
	confirming the results	25.0	10.2	2.5
	strengthening the research implications	7.0	2.9	0.7
	strengthening explanations	7.0	2.9	0.7
Subtotal	130.0	53.3	13.0	
limitations	limitations of method	47.0	19.3	4.7
	limitations of scope	25.0	10.3	2.5
	limitations of knowledge	20.0	10.2	2.0
	limitations of the study (testability)	22.0	9.0	2.2
Subtotal	114.0	46.7	11.4	
Total	244.0	100.0	24.4	

the study are also similar (12.5 versus 10.2%, and 10 versus 9%, respectively). The differences between the results could be attributed to the cross-disciplinary variation of hedging reported by many researchers of academic discourse (Varttala, 2001; Vold, 2006) or the individual style of the authors. The most significant difference between Koutsantoni's results and this research is detected in the use of limitations of scope (25 versus 10.3 %). One explanation may also be the fact that the articles chosen for Koutsantoni's and this research represent different domains of science (engineering and management, respectively). Another explanation could lie in the fact that Introduction sections where limitations of scope seem to be among the most frequently used strategic hedges were excluded from this research due to the reason mentioned in the Corpus and procedure section of this article.

The results for the Russian corpus are presented in Table 2. As no similar studies have been found, the data cannot be compared to any previous research results.

As is evident from comparing the results presented in Table 1 and Table 2, the most frequently occurring strategies in both the English and Russian corpora are those which the authors used to confirm their statements by referring to other research. These strategies account for 53.3 and 54.7%, respectively, so their proportions in the total number of strategic

Table 2
Frequency of hedging strategies in the Russian corpus

Category		Number	%	Average per RA
agreement with other research	confirming the method	45.0	32.8	4.5
	confirming the results	25.0	18.3	2.5
	strengthening the research implications	1.0	0.7	0.1
	strengthening explanations	4.0	2.9	0.4
	Subtotal	75.0	54.7	7.5
limitations	limitations of method	24.0	17.5	2.4
	limitations of scope	9.0	6.6	0.9
	limitations of knowledge	20.0	14.6	2.0
	limitations of the study (testability)	9.0	6.6	0.9
	Subtotal	62.0	45.3	6.2
Total		137.0	100.0	13.7

hedges are similar for the English and Russian articles. The least frequently occurring strategies in both languages are those relating to strengthening the research implications and strengthening explanations (2.9 versus 0.7%, and 2.9 and 2.9, respectively). However, there are some differences in the percentages of strategic markers between the English and Russian corpora. The percentages of confirming the method and strengthening the research implications are higher in English than in Russian (37.3 versus 32.8, and 2.9 versus 0.7%, respectively), while confirming the results ratio is significantly lower in English than in Russian (10.2 and 18.3 %, respectively). Percentages for limitations of method do not differ much given the fact that they are relatively high both in English and Russian; however, the corpora differ more or less significantly in the percentages of the strategies related to the limitations of scope (10.3 and 6.6%, respectively), limitations of knowledge (10.2 and 14.6%) and limitations of the study (9 and 6.6%, respectively). Surprisingly, the differences revealed in the percentages of different types of strategic hedges between the two corpora were not as considerable as it had been expected, which could probably be explained by the fact that the Russian journals selected for this research rank among the leading in the field and, therefore, try to follow the international standards.

However, Figure 1 and Figure 2 show that the most striking difference between the two corpora is the total number of strategic hedges in both categories (hedges

related to agreement with other research and hedges indicating limitations).

In the English corpus 244 strategic hedges were detected as compared to 137 in the Russian one (1.8 times more), among them 130 and 75, respectively, express agreement with other research, and 114 and 62, respectively, indicate limitations. This is not surprising given the well-known higher density of hedges in English as compared to Russian. Due to different standards of international and Russian journals in the field, the sizes of the English and Russian corpora were not equal (32,4640 versus 25,350 words), which seems to make calculation of the exact ratio unfeasible. However, given the accepted fact that the number of hedges used in a research paper depends on multiple factors (the scientific domain, genre, part of the paper, individual style and other factors), the size of the article being only one of them, a significantly lower frequency of strategic hedges in the Russian corpus is evident.

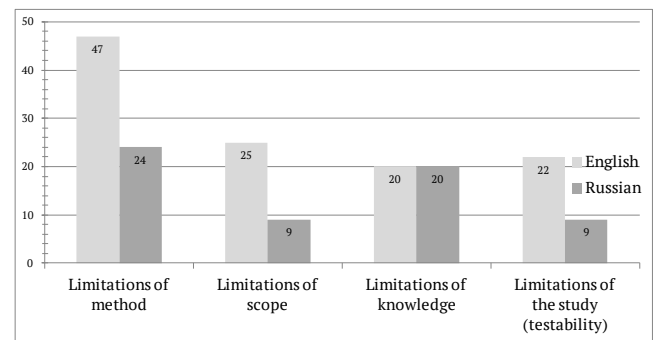


Figure 1. Overall number of strategic hedges using agreement with other research in the English and Russian corpora.

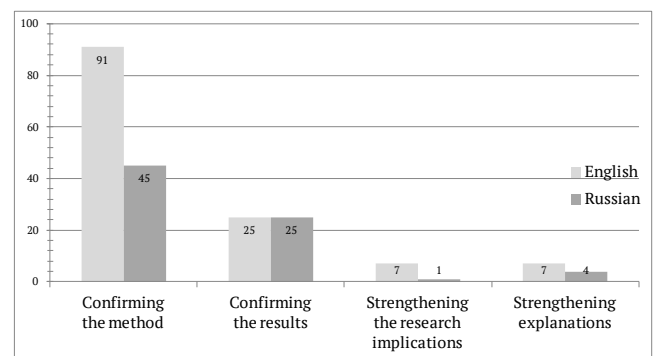


Figure 2. Overall number of strategic hedges expressing limitations in the English and Russian corpora.

Besides quantitative differences, the analysis revealed some qualitative dissimilarities between the English and Russian corpora. Among the most frequent differences the following ones could be mentioned: first, in expressing agreement with other research to confirm their statements the Russian scientists

tended to use more references to general opinion (14) than English authors, while the latter preferred to cite specific authors (13) and used general opinion to confirm their statements only occasionally:

(13). These limitations relate primarily to restrictions in the simulation (for example, inability to make acquisitions (Puranam, Singh, & Zollo, 2006)) (Chen et al., 2010, p. 1543).

(14) This tendency is one of the widely known features of regression analysis (Murav'ev, Berezinec, & Il'ina, 2012, p. 14).

Another frequent difference between the corpora is in limitations of knowledge: while the English authors often gave two explanations for ambiguous definitions, results or phenomena (15), the Russian writers commonly provided one explanation, though in many cases a hedged one (16):

(15) These findings may indicate that e-commerce value creation potential is greater than traditional industries due to information exchange benefits, high reach and richness of information, and network effects. Alternatively, it could indicate that investors' speculation may be greater in this new and fast growing sector (Park et al., 2004, pp. 20, 22).

(16) This fact can be seen as an evidence of the influence the local labor market conditions exert on companies' policies in employee remuneration (Murav'ev et al., 2012, p. 22).

One more discrepancy is that Russian authors often used implicit or generalized ways of admitting to limitations (18), while English writers commonly used explicit and detailed ways of acknowledging these deficiencies (17). These tendencies are particularly apparent in the concluding sections of the articles where limitations are linked up with recommendations for further research:

(17) Third, since our additional analyses offer only a glimpse of performance threshold effects, more detailed analyses could examine these effects further (Chen et al., 2010, p. 1544).

(18) This article is only the first step on the way to understanding relations between shareholders, managers and employees of present-day Russian companies (Murav'ev et al., 2012, p. 29).

In these sections, many Russian writers completely omitted explicit limitations, substituting them for generalized acknowledgement of some imperfections in the study (or restating the focus of the study instead of mentioning limitations) and recommendations for further research (19):

(19) The research focus was on the customer flow model and the possibility to use its dynamics and structure in evaluating the results of value chain functioning. Further research

could specify the contributions of each chain member, as well as describe profit distribution among the interaction participants (Tret'jak & Sloev, 2012, p. 48).

Unfortunately, since no similar comparative research has been found, the reported qualitative differences could not be compared to other researchers' results.

A possible explanation for the reported qualitative and quantitative dissimilarity in using strategic hedges might be provided from the cross-cultural perspective. Though little research has been done into the cultural specificity of Russian academic discourse, it is accepted that cross-linguistic differences are rooted in incomplete convergence of national language pictures of the world while the latter is based on differences in national 'conceptual (cognitive) pictures of the world' and national mentalities. As the discourse features of academic writing are found to be culture specific (Hyland, 1995), this enables a surmise that the reported differences in strategic hedging including qualitative discrepancy and considerably higher frequencies of strategic hedges in English-medium as compared to Russian-medium academic discourse could be accounted for by specific differences in the national pictures of the world. However, determining these differences merits rigorous cross-cultural and cross-disciplinary analysis and is beyond the scope of this research.

Conclusion

Despite the accepted importance of hedging for academic writing and, consequently, for L2 ESP/EAP teaching and learning, as well as a large amount of research into lexical and syntactic hedging devices, strategic markers of hedging (Hyland, 2004a) have received little attention, particularly from cross-linguistic perspective. By focusing on comparing the types of strategic hedges, their frequencies and general tendencies for their use in English-language and Russian-language RAs on management and marketing, this study has sought to describe some most vivid differences between the two languages in this domain. The research revealed that the same types of strategic hedges are used by scientists writing in English and Russian: strategic hedges expressing agreement with other research to confirm or strengthen the method, results, their explanations or research implications, and strategic hedges admitting to limitations in the research method, scope, knowledge and the study (testability). However, the overall frequency of strategic hedges is significantly higher in the English RAs, and there are several important differences between the

percentages of some specific types of strategic hedges between the languages. The qualitative differences detected comprise the Russian authors' aptitude for more frequent use of references to general opinion as compared to English authors, using one explanation for unclear results or phenomenon when admitting to a lack of knowledge, and preference for implicit over overt ways of acknowledging research limitations.

The current research has several implications. First, it could intensify linguists' interest in strategic hedges and their cross-linguistic variation in academic discourse. Second, as hedging is acknowledged to be a clear source of cultural difference, this study is expected to deepen understanding of strategic hedging importance among ESP/EAP researchers and teachers, as well as to inspire them to create ESP/EAP courses which could take into account cross-linguistic variation of this type of hedging with the view of helping L2 learners avoid cross-cultural pragmatic failures stemming from their unawareness of the differences described.

There are several limitations of the research to be acknowledged. First, the results were drawn from comparatively small corpora, and therefore, cannot be claimed to be either precise or conclusive. The size of the corpora as well as the research methodology also accounts for the mainly descriptive character of the study. However, the research did not aim at providing a detailed quantitative analysis of frequencies of strategic hedges and their specific types in English- and Russian-medium articles in the domain; rather, its purpose was to offer a preliminary characterization of the most striking differences in their usage between the languages in this field. Further research could employ quantitative methods on larger corpora to test the results and to provide detailed quantitative research into frequencies of strategic hedging types in each of the languages for this or other domains. Frequencies of different types of strategic hedges and cross-linguistic differences of their usage could also be determined for rhetorical parts of RAs. Finally, by relying on cross-cultural research, future analysis could provide insights into the nature of cross-linguistic variation of strategic hedges.

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Polysemy in Linguistic Terminological Systems Based on the Analysis of French Linguistic Terms

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The article reports on the features of polysemy in French terminological systems of linguistics at inter-system and intra-system levels. The existing studies concerning terminological semantics allow pointing out two aspects of the term structure: a semantic structure representing a complex of meanings, and a structure of the terminological meaning representing a complex of semes. The first aspect supposes the analysis of terminological polysemy regarded as a negative characteristic of terms. According to the second aspect some particularities of denotative and significative levels and their correlation to scientific concepts can be analyzed. In the given study the component analysis of the definitions of French terms – such as ‘sémantème’, ‘mot’ and ‘signe’ – reveals different types of polysemy and terminological variation. The analysis of semantic structures of these terms shows that terminological deviations are caused by objective differences at significative and denotative levels of the meaning as well as by the subjective use of occasional contexts of terms in linguistic research. The suggested results allow constructing a new classification of meaning relations of linguistic terms. Each type of relations is correlated to different elements of the term structure. The hierarchy of these elements is embodied into an abstract model that can be applied for the analysis of any term of the modern linguistic terminology.

Keywords: terminology, polysemy, concept, meaning, variation, seme

A terminological system is usually described as a part of a general linguistic system. However, the notion of a *part* can be correlated to a *term* itself being a set of system elements. The elements included in the structure of the term are, at the same time, elements of a larger system, called a ‘terminological’ system. Kharitonova indicates the unity of an integer and its parts having common properties (Kharitonova, 2004, p. 40). If terms are considered as specific lexical units, among linguistic approaches to the study of terms the method of component analysis allowing the semantic study of terminological system elements is of great importance. The component analysis is characterized as a method that involves consideration of the semantic structure of terms dismembering it into components – semes. A seme can be defined as the smallest unit of the terminological content. Each seme is connected to other semes forming a hierarchy in the meaning structure ‘imitating’ the structure of scientific concepts. If the definition is considered as the expansion of the terminological meaning, the

method of component analysis of definitions of the term can be applied in the given research.

The polysemy of linguistic terms, being characterized as an undesirable feature of an ideal terminological system, is a common phenomenon that, according to Bursina (2014), is due to the transition of words to the category of terms, as well as the transition of elements from one terminological system to another (p. 66). The so-called inter-categorical polysemy is introduced by Leitchik as a common feature of terminological systems. For Leitchik the inter-categorical polysemy can be also characterized as a semantic homonymy (Leitchik, 2012, p. 109). Sometimes one of the homonymous lexical units is replaced and the semantic homonymy is eliminated, for example in *Classification* (object) - *Classifying* (process). Nevertheless, it is clear that the phenomenon of polysemy as well as the phenomenon of semantic homonymy are characteristic for any terminology.

The main reason for the linguistic polysemy of a

term should be explained by one of the characteristics of its meanings: a strong interaction between denotative and significative components forming, in its entirety, a signficico-denotative component that relates to the area of scientific concepts in a term structure. Kosova (2003) notes that meanings of one word can refer to the same *object* but to different *concept areas*: they have a common linguistic reality, but suggest its different conceptual features (p. 66). Terminological meanings may also have unequal objective and conceptual correlations. Khodakova (2010) states that terminological polysemy may be due to two reasons: the correlation of one term with different denotative components or different significative components (p. 179). This paper aims to analyze polysemy features of French linguistic terms caused by the differences at denotative and significative levels.

Materials and Methods

Denotative and Significative Correlations

It is necessary to take into account a fundamental distinction between the *semantic structure* and the *structure of a lexical meaning*. Sternin (1979) considers the semantic structure as all lexical-semantic variants of a word, while the structure of a lexical meaning being a set of semantic features (semes) defined in one lexical meaning (p. 23). In Shurigin's (2005) terminological studies the semantic structure of a linguistic term is also defined as a system of lexical-semantic variants of a multiple-meaning word or as a system of meaning components of a one-meaning word – a set of *semes* (the smallest components of a lexical meaning) (p. 88). All semes in one terminological meaning can be divided into, at least, two groups: denotative and significative. Thus, the *semantic structure* and the *structure of a terminological meaning* represent two aspects of the term (see Figure 1).

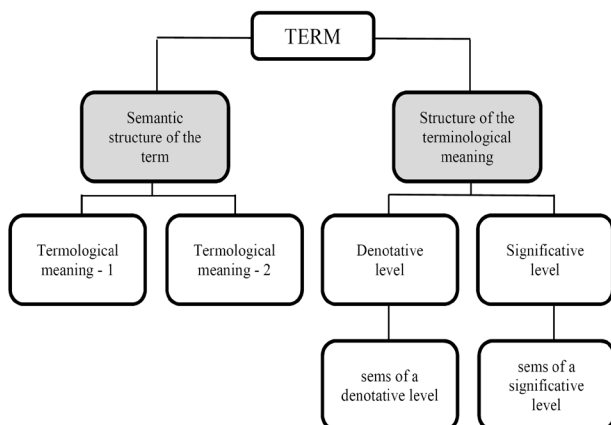


Figure 1. Aspects of the term structure.

Some lexical units also include a connotative level in their meaning structures. As for terms, they are usually deprived of connotative components. However, it should be noted that the lack of connotation is rather an optional feature for the terminological vocabulary. This fact can be particularly applied to the terms of human sciences where the understanding of one concept inevitably involves the appearance of connotative shades. Any operation on scientific concepts always includes connotative representations of the scientist – his personal attitude. It should also be mentioned that the terms are actualized in scientific texts often carrying connotative elements, as indicated by Kosova (2003, p. 74). These elements are constantly integrating in terminological meanings being fixed in some terminologies. Thus, in this study, it is advisable to speak rather about the *weak* role of connotative components in linguistic terms and not about their complete absence.

Components of both significative and denotative levels can be described, as it was mentioned above, by a single term – *signficico-denotative component* as an equivalent in semantics for *a scientific concept* in logics. *The volume of a scientific concept* is presented at the denotative level of the terminological meaning and the significative level is the *content of this scientific concept*. The signification of the object implies an access to its conceptual characteristics that correspond to the positions from which the object is considered in one particular research area. The logic of scientific research leads to the generalization of the object being studied; the appearance of its conceptual characteristics forms a substantial part of the concept. The scientific concept gets expressed in the language with the help of the terminological meaning. The simultaneous expression of a class of objects (denotative components) and their interpretation (significative components) takes place. The observed interaction of these two levels allows correlating the scientific concept with signficico-denotative components of the terminological meaning.

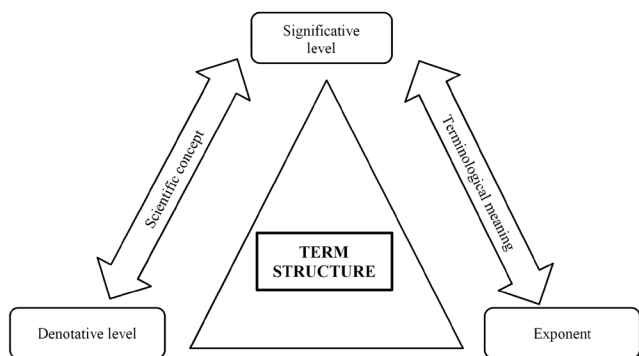


Figure 2. Correlation between the scientific concept and the terminological meaning.

The latter corresponds to a certain exponent (a form, a signifier) in the formal side of the language. This confirmation can be displayed in the following figure (see Figure 2) showing a modified version of a well-known semantic triangle reflecting general features of the term structure.

This scheme shows that the terminological meanings express scientific concepts. However, one can hardly agree with Bursina describing the term as a 'mirror' of a scientific concept through its terminological meaning (2014, p. 30). Given the nature of scientific concepts described in linguistics, Shurigin seems to be right stating that the concept and the meaning do not have the same value because the main characteristics of the concept are expressed in denotative components of the meanings while its significative components include the interpretation of this concept. It appears that some subjective factor of the process of signification does not allow deducing the entire content of the scientific concept to one terminological meaning. Khodakova also notes that the terminological meaning consists of semes representing 'certain cognitive features forming the content of the concept' (2010, p. 156).

Thus, a set of terminological meanings represents the semantic structure of a multiple-meaning (polysemantic) term. The particularities of the semantic structure of a term are caused by the specific features of its separate meaning structures at significative and denotative levels.

A. Correlation of one term with different denotative components (DC): each DC has its own meaning. Given the nature of a DC in a linguistic term, it is necessary to clarify this point by comparing, for example, meanings of a '*sémantème*' described by different French linguists. Greimas (1980) defines the term '*sémantème*' (*semanteme*) as '*investissement sémantique d'un morphème ou d'un énoncé*' (*semantic investment of a morpheme or a statement*) (p. 325). Greimas uses this term in order to refer to the semantic core, combined with contextual semes (meaning variations). For B. Poitiers a '*sémantème*' denotes a separate group of semes: '*l'ensemble de sèmes spécifiques de l'unité considérée*' (*a set of specific semes of a considered unit*) (cited in Tsybova, 2002, p. 27). In Ch. Bally's theory a '*sémantème*' is a term denoting not a content or a part of a unit's content, but a holistic sign expressing a purely lexical meaning (Bally, 1932, p. 64). Therefore, in the presented linguistic theories the term '*sémantème*' is correlated with different DCs:

- 1) a set of semes;
- 2) a set of specific semes;
- 3) a sign having lexical meaning.

At the same time, between the meanings (1) and (2) a stable relationship can be observed - *synecdoche* based

on the respect of 'part-whole' (see Figure 3): a DC (an object) and a part of this DC (Kobozeva, 2009, p. 170). The meaning (3) is also associated with the meanings (1) and (2) since it expresses a whole (sign) to a part (a sign's content). These meanings were formed by *metonymy* that Kosova describes as the cause of terminological polysemy associated with the adjacency of scientific concepts (Kosova, 2009, p. 70). It should be noted that Gadaborsheva (2008) also considers a *metaphor* as the cause of terminological polysemy (p. 53).

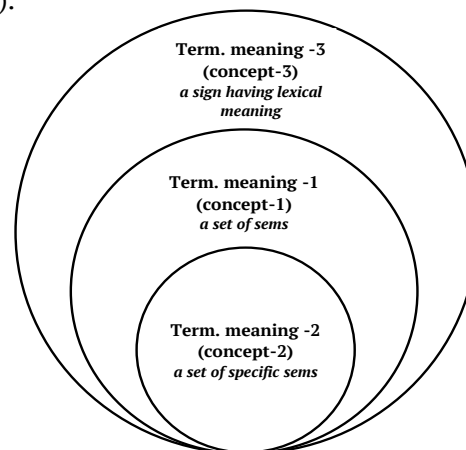


Figure 3. Correlation between three terminological meanings based on synecdoche of the term '*sémantème*' (*semanteme*).

The presence of these links in the semantic structure of three units under consideration allows attributing three meanings to one term – '*sémantème*', which is accordingly a multiple-meaning linguistic term denoting three related scientific concepts.

Despite different definitions of these terms their component analysis establishes the absence of a *homonymy* which can be found only in a complete breakdown in relationship between meanings. Consequently, the establishment of a distinction between terminological polysemy and homonymy requires a consideration of specific features of the relations between terminological meanings expressing a certain denotative component. It can be assumed that homonymy may concern peculiar terms denoting concepts of different scientific fields (compare the meanings of '*langue*' (*language*) in linguistics and '*langue*' (*tongue*) in physiology). As for the homonymy within the frameworks of linguistics, an apt example can be found in the definitions of a '*langue*' in semantics (a system of signs) and phonetics (a tongue).

B. Correlation of one term with different significative components (SC): the existence of two or more variants of understanding of the same denotative component, each variant has a different meaning (Khodakova, 2010, p. 179). The polysemy

of linguistic terms is most often explained by this phenomenon - one term can have several meanings in linguistics, it varies depending on the views of representatives of some linguistic areas. Shurigin (2005) notes that the polysemy of a linguistic term emphasizes its dependence on a particular context; it is a consequence of different points of view on one denotative component – the object of investigation (p. 133). Grinev-Grinevich (2009) also refers to this phenomenon and uses the term *euresemy* (rus. *evrisemia*) to indicate a terminological polysemy as a result of its different interpretations (p. 129). This point allows introducing the term of *conceptual polysemy* to describe a terminological polysemy associated with a significative layer of a meaning. The term of conceptual polysemy can be applied to the co-existence of different meanings of a term ‘*mot*’ (*word*) in French linguistics which can be defined from different points of view (phonological, grammatical, lexicological etc.), but each meaning will refer to the same denotative component – ‘*unité de la langue*’ (*language unit*) (see Figure 4).

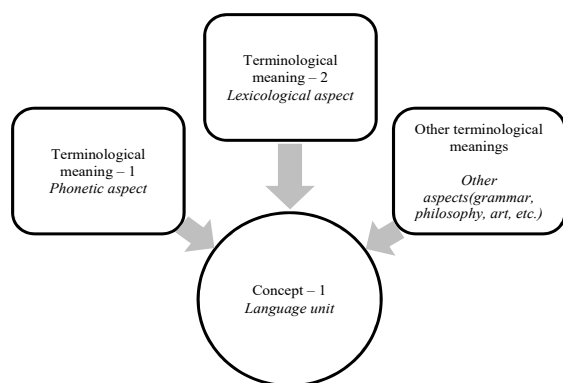


Figure 4. Conceptual polysemy of the term ‘*mot*’ (*word*).

Factors causing terminological polysemy also include an appeal to *occasional research contexts* in which terms are not always well defined (Grinev-Grinevitch, 2009, p. 134). This phenomenon is of a particular importance for the analysis of evolution of linguistic terms: various scholars based on some of their predecessors’ works can modify terminological meanings. Such works do not always include *contextual definitions* carrying out a necessary number of conceptual indicators (meaning components) which are very important for the interpretation of a term.

One can easily see the difference between an occasional context of the term ‘*signe*’ (*sign*):

‘Les deux éléments de l’air sont dans l’ordre matériel, et les deux éléments du mot sont réciproquement dans l’ordre spirituel; notre point de vue constant sera de dire que non seulement la signification mais

aussi le signe est un fait de conscience pur.’ (Saussure, 2002, p. 19)

‘The two elements of air belong to the material order, just as the two elements of the word belong to the spiritual order; we shall be consistent in our view that not only the meaning but also the sign is a fact of pure consciousness.’ (Saussure, 2006, p. 4)

and a contextual definition of the same term: *‘Il y a un premier domaine, intérieur, psychique, où existe le signe autant que la signification, l’un indissolublement lié à l’autre; il y en a un second, extérieur, où n’existe plus que le « signe », mais à cet instant le signe réduit à une succession d’ondes sonores ne mérite pour nous que le nom de figure vocale.’* (Saussure, 2002, p. 21)

‘There is one domain, interior, psychic, where both sign and meaning are to be found; and there is another – exterior – domain, where only a « signe » is to be found, but in this case the sign reduced to a series of sound waves deserves in our view only the designation of vocal figure.’ (Saussure, 2006, p. 6)

It should be also taken into account that a researcher analyses a formed terminological meaning (or being formed) with particular macro and micro components. They develop and supplement them with a new set of semes pointing to this or that conceptual indicator depending on their own scientific point of view. According to Bursina (2014), a researcher always tries to relate an objective content to its subjective vision necessary for clarifying the boundaries of a scientific concept designated by a term (p. 66).

Results and Discussion

Terminological Meaning and Its Variants

It should be noted that Kulikova and Salmina (2002) distinguish the notion of polysemy as a linguistic phenomenon and a *conceptual heterogeneity of a terminological meaning* as a result of different interpretations of the same denotative component (p. 31). Therefore, sometimes a researcher deals not with a new meaning, but its modification or formation of different variants of the same terminological meaning. This phenomenon is first of all observed in co-existence of different definitions describing the same meaning. A similar opinion is shared by Bugorskaya (2009) stating that the existence of multiple-meaning terms is quite possible, but the ambiguity in the interpretation of the same term by representatives of various scientific disciplines can be considered as a variation of one

terminological meaning (pp. 211-258).

Slozhenikina (2010) defines *a semantic variation of a term* as a set of components in a meaning structure that does not match in different interpretations of this meaning, or as a text and lexicographical reflection of the dynamic aspects of change of a term's semantics within the same scientific concept (p. 168). It does not influence paradigmatic and systemic relations of a term. In this study *a terminological meaning variation* is considered as the ability of a terminological meaning to modify a set of semes in its structure (restriction or expansion) without changing the essence of the meaning and its conceptual reference. *A variant of a terminological meaning* is then a quotient that is actualized either in a certain context describing a theory or at a certain stage of development of scientific knowledge. Therefore, *an invariant of a terminological meaning* represents a constant set of significant components. The variation characterizes a term in both synchrony (coexistence of different variants) and diachrony (evolution of a terminological system). For example, Saussure's 'signe' (*sign*) is known to have a great number of definitions:

association arbitraire d'un signifiant et d'un signifié à l'intérieur d'un système = sème (arbitrary combination of a signifier and a signified within a system = seme);

combinaison de deux choses (combination of two things);

être double constitué par une suite de syllabes dans la mesure où on y attache une signification déterminée (double being constituted by a sequence of syllables since a determined meaning is attached);

combinaison du concept avec image acoustique = association [d'un] signifiant [et d'un] signifié [figure] (combination of a concept with an acoustic image = association [of a] signifier [and a] signified [figure]);

entité psychique à deux faces (two-sided psychic entity) (Saussure, 1997, p. 45), etc.

Based on the analysis of 12 different interpretations of the term of *signe* in Saussure's manuscripts one can say that all these definitions are variants of the same invariant: *entité d'un signifié et d'un signifiant (entity of a signified and a signifier)*.

The comprehensive review of the semantic structure of the term, as well as the structure of its meanings allow building a content model of one abstract lexical unit including a few terminological meanings that relate to the field of linguistic research. This model reflects all levels of the hierarchical organization of term components. Figure 5 shows the structure of this lexical unit consisting of the following elements:

Table 1

Variation of the terminological meaning of a 'signe' (sign)

Terminological meaning (invariant)	Examples of variants of the terminological meaning
entité d'un signifié et d'un signifiant (entity of a signified and a signifier)	association arbitraire d'un signifiant et d'un signifié (arbitrary combination of a signifier and a signified within a system = seme)
	combinaison de deux choses (combination of two things)
	être double constitué par une suite de syllabes (double being constituted by a sequence of syllables)
	combinaison du concept avec image acoustique (combination of a concept with an acoustic image)
	association [d'un] signifiant [et d'un] signifié [figure] (association [of a] signifier [and a] signified [figure])
	entité psychique à deux faces (two-sided psychic entity)

- Two commonly used meaning (in general vocabulary) (1 and 2) corresponding to the formal part of the concept (the ordinary concept);
- Three special (terminological) meanings (Terminological meanings 1 and 2) corresponding to the content of the concepts.

The scientific concept - I corresponds to the terminological meaning - I. The fact that the same concept can correspond to different meanings (II - 1 and II - 2) reveals a conceptual polysemy associated with the differences at the significative level. Terminological meanings can decay into different variants (terminological meaning variants 1.1 and 1.2). Terminological meanings (or their variants) can be decomposed into semes. The correlation between terminological meanings and their variants is set by integrating semes (for example, the integrating seme 1.1.1 + 2.2). The differences are indicated by differential semes (for example, the differential seme 2.1).

System of Terminological Meanings

These peculiarities of the semantic structure of linguistic terms can be correlated with the levels of systemic linkages.

A. Inter-systemic level (relations of the elements of terminological systems in the area of linguistic research, as well as with the systems of other sciences) reveals the phenomenon of *polysemy of a linguistic term* associated with its correlation with different denotative components or different significative components. The analysis of the denotative level proves the possibility of the existence of a *multi-meaning term* in linguistics. Its evolution can contribute to the

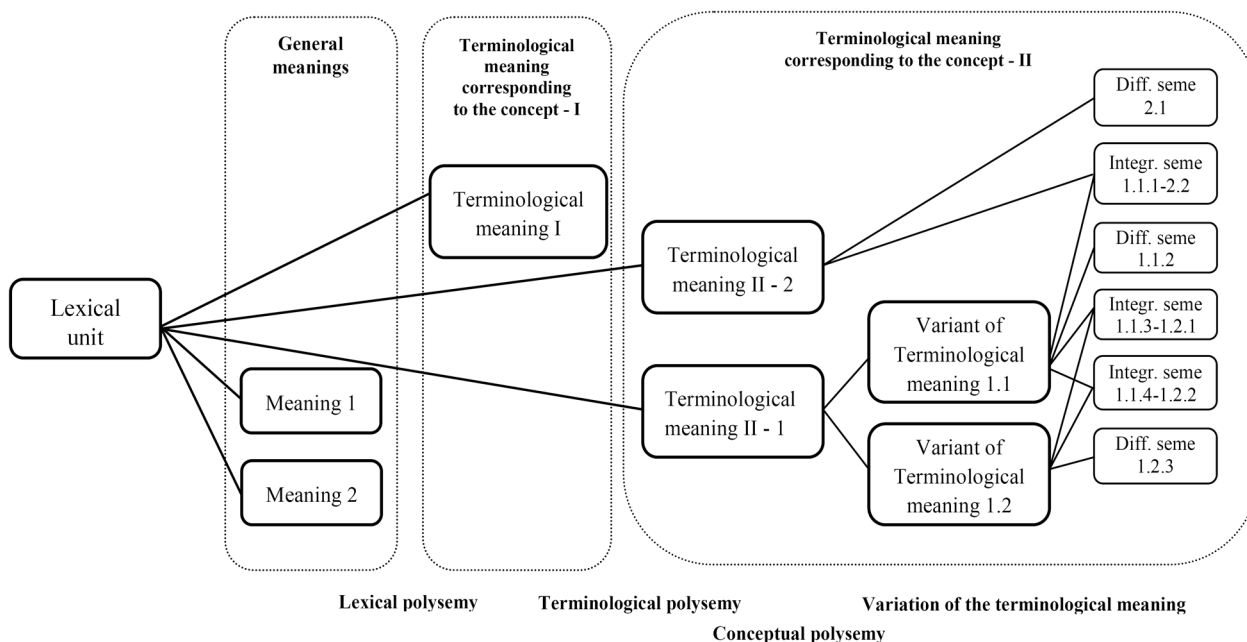


Figure 5. The hierarchical organization of the structure of one lexical unit having terminological meanings.

development of *terminological homonymy*. The study of terminological meaning in the light of a significant component allowed carrying out a phenomenon of *conceptual polysemy of a linguistic term*.

B. Intra-systemic level (relations of the elements describing different linguistic theories) reveals a *terminological meaning variation* associated with the replacement, expansion or restriction of the meaning expressing conceptual indicators. However, this process can develop and promote the formation of *conceptual polysemy* of the term with a possible transition to other terminological systems as well as a formation of homonyms.

The process of development of a terminological meaning has its own characteristics and requires a careful examination of the specific features of the semantic evolution of linguistic terms.

Conclusion

The results of this study demonstrate the need for a careful analysis of polysemy phenomenon in terminological systems. On the one hand, terms being a part of the whole language system have many common features with the elements of the general vocabulary. That is why the method of component analysis can be applied in terminological studies. On the other hand, terms have specific meaning structures. This fact causes the researchers to outline four different types of meaning relations of terms:

1. *terminological polysemy* caused by the differences at the denotative level ('*sémantème*' in the theories

- by A. J. Greimas, B. Poitiers and Ch. Bally);
2. *terminological homonymy* when there is no linkage between two meanings ('*langue*' in semantics and phonetics);
3. *conceptual polysemy* explained by the differences at the significant level ('*mot*' described from different points of view);
4. *terminological meaning variation* ('*signe*' in F. de Saussure's works).

These types of relations are described according to the particularities of linguistic terms developing at inter- and intra-levels. Their polysemy can be explained by the reasons observed at both denotative and significant levels. The latter is of great importance for linguistic terminological systems influenced by differences in interpretation of the same terms as well as by the subjective use of occasional terminological contexts. This research also highlights the importance of comprehensive semantic and terminological approach to the synchronic and diachronic study of terminological systems in French linguistics. Though the given study is limited by the analysis of four French linguistic terms (*sémantème*, *mot*, *signe*, *langue*), it potentially allows creating the model of a term structure contributing to the analysis of other elements of the French linguistic terminological system in further research.

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Systemic Genesis Approach in Psychology

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This article analyses V.D. Shadrikov's scientific work in the field of psychology. V.D. Shadrikov is Doctor of Psychology, Professor, and Fellow of the Russian Academy of Education. The article briefly covers his fundamental publications on activity, abilities, and the human inner world, examining the issues raised in his publications in the context of the evolution of educational theory and methodology. Shadrikov develops the methodology of systemic genesis approach in psychology, demonstrating that the systemic genesis paradigm opens new aspects in fundamental and applied psychology. This paradigm provides an opportunity to carry out research on a new level.

Keywords: systemic genesis, activity, abilities, human inner world, development, teaching, education

"... Nowadays special conditions for the development of systemic genesis approach both in fundamental psychology and in applied psychology are realized..."

V. D. Shadrikov, 1976

Systemic Genesis Paradigm as a New Development Stage of System Approach in Psychology: Headnote

The systemic genesis approach contributes to the 21st century focus on methodological and conceptual problems in the discipline of psychology. It works out the conceptual framework, offering a description and clarification of psyche, laying down the laws of mental functioning and analyzing developmental trends in psychology.

Based on the conceptual framework provided by system theory, systemic psychology considers the ongoing interaction among human beings as a

privileged object of psychological analysis and is, therefore, essentially focused on interpersonal systems. Systemic psychology has allowed further development of the interpersonal features of human behavior that psychological disciplines focused on in the late-twentieth century and its domain is defined by the stress placed on interactive and communicative processes taking place among the members of an interpersonal system. Moreover, a systemic genesis approach provides for an integration of these processes with the intrapsychic dynamics and the personal history of the individual. Methodologically speaking, the systemic genesis paradigm can be largely applied to all human interactive systems.

Vladimir Dmitriyevich Shadrikov has become the founder of much research and theory in the systemic genesis branch of psychology. Born in 1939, he is a prominent Russian scientist, methodologist of Russian psychology, Doctor of Psychology (1977), Professor (1978), Corresponding Fellow of the Academy of

Pedagogic Sciences of the USSR (1982), Fellow of the Russian Academy of Education (1992), and is well-known to all those concerned with psychological issues and pedagogical practices in education. In the field of fundamental and theoretical psychology, he is a conspicuous researcher of human activity and abilities. He has created new, path-breaking trends of study and shown their deep intrinsic relation with methodological problems in human developmental psychology, professional training and learning. Shadrikov's theories offer concepts for resolving some theoretical problems in psychology and practical challenges facing it in different spheres of life in contemporary Russian society. He also lays down regulations, emphasizes new strategies in cognition and understanding of mental world.

He has worked out a strict conceptual framework to describe mental law, human activity and abilities. He has also identified methodological principles and theoretical procedures for a systemic analysis of psyche as a complex object of cognition. Shadrikov has made a great contribution in the development of a system of psychological knowledge of fundamental psychological problems (Suvorova, 2007).

Methodological and Theoretical Issues of Psychology in the Works of V. D. Shadrikov: System Genesis Aspect

Systemic genesis paradigm is oriented towards interpersonal systems, focusing its intervention on the interactive and communicative features of human behavior. So defined, this theory and practice is applicable to every interactive human system, although psyche is traditionally the primary and privileged field of study and application to the point of using the restrictive definition of systemic-relationship paradigm.

The system genesis approach has been elaborated in works by Shadrikov and his pupils from 1976 to the present day (Shadrikov, 1994; 1998; 1977; 2007; 2006; 2009; 2007; 2001; 2009; 1979; 1996; 1976; 1977; 1993).

Despite the important accent on relationships, this kind of genesis paradigm has recently been addressing other important issues, such as the personal 'history' of individuals and of their group, the cognitive style, and individual and systemic characteristics." In 1976, Shadrikov defended his doctoral thesis on "Systemic approach in industrial training psychology" which laid the foundation for the school of thought in activity systemic genesis. Thereafter, his works on human action and abilities (articles, monographs, work-books etc.) were published in which he explicated the main theories and concepts of activity system genesis and psychological theory of human abilities. At the same time, he was working on the main theoretical issues of

human psychology in the context of problems of modern education; this work reflects the growing interest that psychology has shown in the relational features of human behavior and human intellectual activity.

Shadrikov's scientific research on the development of methodological and theoretical psychological issues constitutes a part of the Russian contribution to psychology and education and reflects his diversified scientific activities on the national level. The results of such work were published in several monographs and methodological articles, scientific papers and speeches, which were presented at meetings of psychologists, international and national conferences on psychological issues, academic conferences and round tables, and also in numerous interviews with different educational leaders.

The most important works were presented in the authoritative academic periodical *Psychological Journal* published by the Academy of Sciences of the USSR (today known as the Russian Academy of Sciences), were approved for publication by the Institute of Psychology of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR (currently the Institute of Psychology of the RAS), were published by the publishing house "Nauka (Science)" and in the series "Psychologists of the Motherland" and "Psychological Achievements", received the official stamp of the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation, and are widely recommended as work-books for university students.

Below follows a brief description of his main works. Shadrikov's scientific opinion on addressing the problems of activity and abilities as independent fundamental problems of psychology has a dialectical interconnection. His point of view is represented in four main articles published in *Psychological Journal* – "Psychological Analysis of Activity as a System" (1980), "Problems of Occupational Abilities" (1982), "On Content of Terms 'Abilities' and 'Gifts'" (1983); "On Cognitive Abilities Structure" (1985) – in which he raises basic theoretical and methodological issues that help to form the content for a scientifically grounded program and predetermine, in many respects, the strategy of experimental systemic genesis research of human action and abilities.

Shadrikov's publication "Methodological Problems of Professional Training" published as part of multi-author book *Techniques of Engineering, Labor and Management Psychology* (1981) is based on the analysis of current problems in applied psychology. It is very important from a methodological point of view for the development of higher education systems. Solutions to the outlined problems of psychology for professional training are set forth in another methodologically important work, "Introduction to Psychological Theory of Professional Training".

Shadrikov's monograph *Problems of Systemic Genesis*

of *Professional Activity* (1982) recognized by the Institute of Psychology of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR makes an important contribution toward working out the methods of psychological analysis of activity. The first chapter of this work, "Systemic Approach to the Activity Research", presents the nature and principles of the systemic research of activity as a complex object of cognition. It contains the main operational terms for activity theory used in general psychology and was inserted into "Engineering Psychology Reader" (1991) in a condensed version in recognition of its scientific and didactic significance.

Another of Shadrikov's works entitled "Human Abilities" (1977) published in the series *Psychologists of the Motherland* specifies the system of his scientific views in the field of the psychology of abilities. However, general provisions of abilities theory developed by him reveal the nature, structure, determination of abilities development and ways of achieving self-control over human abilities. They are interpreted by the scientist on the level of perceptual and spiritual abilities in the context of activity. Teaching and development in the process of mastering the activity are approved by experimental findings obtained by post-graduate students, postdoctoral students and fellow-psychologists. The monograph "Human Abilities" (1977) comprises a list of the most significant of Shadrikov's scientific works.

Shadrikov considers spiritual abilities as the object of psychological research in a separate monograph first published in 1998, which has gone through three editions. He analyzes, for the first time, the concept of spiritual abilities, shows the conversion of innate aptitudes into spiritual abilities, and considers issues related to the development of spiritual abilities relevant to the educational system. He also offers a new interpretation of pedagogical abilities as spiritual ones.

Three of Shadrikov's books were published under the imprimatur of the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation. First, *Cognitive Processes and Abilities in the Teaching Process: Workbook for Students of Pedagogical Institutes*, (1990) a new type of workbook on general psychology for pre-service teachers written under the guidance of Shadrikov himself. This work combines informational, as well as practical and technical functions, and offers modern techniques to diagnose the level of cognitive abilities development. Second, *Activity and Faculty Psychology: Workbook* (1996), the first Russian integrative workbook on general psychology, educational psychology, labor and developmental psychology. The book went through two editions; the first entitled *Activity and Abilities* was published in 1994 as part of the program "Renewal of Education in the Humanities in Russia". The book described for the first time the relationship between the problems of individual labor activity, teaching activity

and abilities through comprehension of psychological nature of teaching as a process of developing a system of psychological activity.

It is worth mentioning that the first Russian work in the form of a monograph revealed the psychological nature of a human - *Human Origin: Student Training Manual* (1999) – which went through two editions (the second one in 2001). Studying the process of human evolution, Shadrikov emphasizes special mechanisms of human survival, such as innate aptitudes and intelligence (individual potential) and shows that these are closely related to cognition and emotional intelligence. By studying social cognition and social neuroscience, he discovered many principles along which human social intelligence operates. He outlined the kinds of concepts people use to make sense of their social relations and asserts that expanded opportunities for social interaction enhance intelligence. This suggests that children require continuous opportunities for interpersonal experiences in order to develop a keen "inter-personal" psychology. Traditional schools do not facilitate interaction and complex social behavior; instead, children are treated as passive recipients who must be infused with lots of information. Schools today cultivate very few of the skills that are critical for survival in the world. As the development of the skills of "natural psychologist" in traditional schools is limited, graduates enter the job market handicapped to the point of being incapable of surviving on their own. The categories of spirituality and humanity have been introduced into the psychological sciences for the first time. Raising questions on spirituality as a specific human way of mental life, Shadrikov considers issues connected with the development and education of spiritual abilities. He states that the systemic genesis approach to the human origin and its relationship with morale is very important (2001).

Books such as *Philosophy of Education and Educational Policy* (1993) and *Personalization of the Content of Education* (1997) have methodological prominence and a strong practical connection with pedagogy. In the first book, addressing parents, teachers, education providers, students of pedagogical institutes and universities, Shadrikov points out that social intelligence is a distinctive perspective for education on the eve of the 21st century. In the second work, the scientist points out that the content of education depends on the type of cognition, on pupils' intelligence, on the dominant mode of their thoughts and abilities. The teaching process should be based on individual education plans. Shadrikov thinks that teaching should be student-oriented and should advise and facilitate students to develop their practices, create development learning resources and reflect on their own practices. A deep analysis of universal and ethno-cultural functions of education enabled Shadrikov

to work out principles of individual curriculum and different content of education in a federal state.

Culture and ethnicity were viewed as separate from human behavior. Shadrikov treats ethnicity and culture as interdependent with social processes; in other words, ethnicity and culture are, at the same time, constructed within those interactions. Cultural features that define an ethnicity include family roles, work and recreational activities, shared values and concepts of achievement, shared expectations of behavior, and shared symbols, such as languages (1977a).

The study of learning processes, both cognitive and behavioral allowed Shadrikov to understand individual differences in intelligence, cognitive development, motivation, and self-regulation as well as their role in learning. Shadrikov thinks that the field of developmental education involves the study of memory, conceptual processes and individual differences in conceptualizing new strategies for learning.

In recent years, Shadrikov has published some important new monographs dedicated to the theoretical and methodological issues of psychology. In Shadrikov's *Human Abilities and Intelligence* (2004), Vladimir Dmitrievich reveals the nature of intelligence, offers a new intelligence model and outlines the ways of human intelligence development in the course of learning. Shadrikov also pays attention to the intellectual operations, which help to gain mental experience and are included under the human intellectual activity.

Shadrikov's book *Intellectual Operations* (2006) focuses on human intellectual operations as an independent category of psychological actions. He defines them, systemizes them and works out the possibilities of their development. Some kind of "periodic system of intellectual operations" specifies the development of operational characteristics of abilities: it becomes evident to what extent it is possible to "increase the number of extensively used actions and obtain a general skill in their performance". This book is important to the development of pedagogical psychology, psychology of abilities, psychology of thinking, psyche diagnostics, psychology of educational activity, etc.

The World of Human Interior Life (2006) was very important for addressing the methodological problems of modern psychology. The book was highly praised by the scientific community, which recognized it as a fundamental work that opens up prospects of psychology development and shows the ways of overcoming a permanent crisis and entering a new stage of development in methodological respect. A.V. Karpov notes that in this book he makes a significant step in the development of psychology, defines and implements a strategy of transfer from globally analytical stage of psychology development to a systemic stage where awareness of mental complexity entirety should be

considered as an individual way of learning. (2006). A. V. Karpov compares Shadrikov's book with the book *Fundamentals of General Psychology* (2002) by S. L. Rubinsteinin, taking into account the coverage of psychological problems. The book demonstrates courage and constructiveness of the author's concept, which restores the idea of soul as a superior value of historical, philosophical and psychological thought. It also gives a strictly scientific reconstruction of a human. G. A. Suvorova similarly notes the importance of such a category as "the world of human interior life" in a system genesis interpretation for the purposes of advisory practice in education (Suvorova, 2006a; 2006b).

During the period 2001-2004, Shadrikov published a series of books, *Introduction to Psychology*, in which he gave a new life to the scientific facts and some theoretical and experimental studies that had become available to psychological science during the previous 50 years. He gave a new understanding of the fundamentals of psychology in his books: "Introduction to Psychology: Behavior. Motivation" (2001), "Introduction to Psychology: Emotions and Feelings" (2001), "Introduction to Psychology: Human Abilities" (2001, 2002), "Introduction to Psychology: the World of Human Interior Life" (2002), "Introduction to Psychology: Will and Volition Features" (2004), "Introduction to Psychology: Intelligence and Creativity" (2004), which were designated for scientists and experts in the field of psychology and humanities, as well as for the university students majoring in psychology and/or pedagogy. These works expand the idea of psychology both as a science and as an educational subject.

In his monograph *Psychological Characteristics of a Normal Human Being*, (2009b) Shadrikov describes the systemic genesis of personality traits. Having analyzed different methods of normal (mentally sane) human description in works of Russian and foreign psychologists, he points out ideological, theoretical and methodological issues which arise in the process of its (psychological) characteristics. Speaking about the abilities, motivational and emotional characteristics, Shadrikov demonstrates different personality traits that help to identify and describe aspects of personality. He identifies the relationship between different personalities and achievements in learning.

The most recent Shadrikov book, *From Individual to Individuality: Introduction to Psychology* (2009a) is of special note. In the Foreword to the book, A. L. Zhuravlev and M. A. Kholodnaya note that this is a dense and complex work and summarize it stating: "[it] reflects almost all main branches and problems of a modern psychological science". They believe that the category of "a human" addressed by Shadrikov makes it possible to "include into the theoretical framework of his study mental (cognitive) process, psychological

personality attributes, abilities and activities; and to join anthropological, neurophysiological, psychophysiological and psychological aspects of the problem of psyche; as well as to outline a way to study the individuality phenomenon and higher levels of mental development – intelligence, aptitude and faculty (Zhuravlev, Kholodnaya, 2009). The Shadrikov specifies three aspects of his work: evolution in history, in the subject of psychology and in the theory of activity (Shadrikov, 2009a).

Systemic Genesis of Activity and Human Abilities

The problem of activity is central in Shadrikov's scientific work (see 1994, 2007b, 1979, 1993). A deep and thorough examination of human activity allowed Shadrikov to create a psychological theory of systemic genesis of activity and human abilities which has been tested on models of two core human activities – professional and teaching activity. Special conferences were devoted to the problems of systemic genesis. Different aspects of the systemic genesis approach in psychology have been discussed there. They revealed the solutions of a wide variety of issues in educational psychology (Nizhegorodtseva, 2003; Povarenkov, 2005; Povarenkov, 2007).

'Activity theory' is a term used in social science theory and research with roots drawing on the Soviet psychological activity theory pioneered by Lev Vygotsky, Alexei Leontyev and Sergei Rubinstein. These scholars understood human activities as complex, socially-situated phenomena, and went beyond paradigms of reflexology (the teaching of V. Beekhterev) and physiology of higher nervous systems (the teaching of Ivan Pavlov), psychoanalysis and behaviorism. It became one of the major psychological approaches in Russia and was widely used in theoretical and applied psychology as well as in education and professional training.

Over a number of years the scientific situation around the problem of activity and activity approach in psychology was under discussion (Shadrikov, 1982; Abulkhanova-Slavskaya, Denisov, & Chernyshev, 1981; Suvorova, 2006a; Suvorova, 2006b; Zhuravlev, Kholodnaya, 2009; Nizhegorodtseva, 2003; Povarenkov, 2005; Povarenkov, 2007; Bodrov, 1999; Davydov, 1996; Zhuravlev, 2005; Ilyasov, n.d.; Karpov, 1988; Karpov, 2004; Klimov, 1996; Leytes, Ravich-Shcherbo, 1985; Leontyev, 1977; Lomov, 1984). It is closely related to the problem of psyche. The psyche emerges and developed in history. Activity was the key analytical tool used by Leontyev in his historical analysis (1977). Activity was considered a vehicle for transmitting human experience from generation to generation. The structure of activity changed the structure of human interactions with the world. According to general activity theory, the human

mind develops from historically contextualized, object-practical activity (Leontyev, 1977). B. F. Lomov (1984) stresses the importance of working out the framework of categories and concepts of the psychological activity theory. V. V. Davydov (1996) raises a question of working out "extensive and detailed interdisciplinary activity theory of general psychology". The analysis proved that a wide use of the category 'activity' gave rise to different directions within this approach; this is necessary to describe possible ways of finding solutions for the most important theoretical problems of activity theory.

In activity theory, the individual is the principal object of study with importance also given to developmental, genetic principles and social interactions. However, activity theory is not focused exclusively on this question. Anokhin (1962) and Bernstein (1966) established self-regulation as a theoretical foundation for activity theory. According to the systemic-structural approach, activity is a complex, multidimensional system, requiring the use of systemic principles. One can extract from the same activity different structures as independent objects of study, depending on the purpose of study.

Shadrikov addresses problems arising from this systemic approach; he was primarily interested in the frame of a systemic genesis approach. Firstly it should be noted that the titles of Shadrikov's works on psychology of activity directly address the problems of systemic genesis of activity: "Psychological Analysis of Activity: System Genesis Approach" (1979), "Psychological Analysis of Activity as a System" (1980), "Problems of System Genesis of Professional Activity" (2007 b), "Human Activity and Abilities" (Shadrikov, 1994), "Activity Psychology and Human Abilities" (1996).

Shadrikov highlights the key points in his method: activity – systemic approach to the activity research – system genesis of activity – process, problems and laws of construction of psychological activity system – ways of improvement of activity efficiency. He particularizes the content of psychological analysis of activity both as an independent subject of study and as an explanatory principle. He also provides a paradigm of psychological activity analysis, points out the methodological principles and theoretical procedures of the system analysis of activity as a complex object of cognition, and seeks to settle a matter on activity structure and its mechanisms. It is worth noting that Shadrikov devotes much attention to formulating a clear conceptual framework in all his theories, such as theory of personality system genesis, psychological theory of abilities, evolutionary personality concept, individualization concept of content of education, concept of personality experience in the process of professional and subject training, concept of educational abilities as spiritual ones, etc.

Shadrikov also helped define the basic terms of psychological activity: activity, activity goal, activity result, activity characteristics, activity effectiveness parameters, goal parameters, work method, regulatory approved work method, individual work method, individual work style, structure, function (element, structure, system), system, structure and system elements, structure and system components, dynamic system, activity structure psychological activity structure, functional psychological activity system, psychological activity system and system genesis. A consideration of the activity as “human activity type expressed in hormic transformation of a natural and social reality” pervades all his studies.

In the psychological analysis of activity, Shadrikov identifies, for the first time ever, such terms as “activity structure”, “psychological activity structure”, and “psychological activity system”. Shadrikov also distinguishes the nature of two separate concepts, “system” and “structure”, in psychological activity analysis. The system is defined as a “structure which is considered in reference to its definitive function” and requires the use of systemic principles. As far as system is concerned, it is noted that the same result can be reached by different systems and in one and the same structure the same elements can be distributed among different systems according to the designated use. In Shadrikov’s opinion, the system always has a functional aspect; therefore, such terms as “system” and “functional system” act as synonyms.

“Psychological activity system” as a basic concept of Shadrikov’s systemic genesis theory subsequently became a methodological term. K. A. Abulkhanova-Slavskaya notes this fact (1979, 2007) and states that Shadrikov raises methodological questions in the process of addressing a problem of activity through a clear and complete highlighting of psychological aspect of its analysis. He introduces a new concept of psychological activity system and outlines components and levels of its systemic genesis analysis. Abulkhanova shows that the author of activity system genesis theory traces the relationship between psychological activity structure and real social activity by highlighting the subjective result of activity, comparing it with a social one, and integrating these two different activity realities through a personality (Abulkhanova-Slavskaya, Denisov, & Chernyshev, 1981; Abulkhanova, 2007).

In the systemic genesis approach, cognition is understood as a process and as a system of actions or other functional information processing units. Thus cognition incorporates both structure and system. Shadrikov’s method entails a plan of activity within which all components of activity – goals conditions, tools, etc. – are integrated. He maintains that the psychological character and subject of psychological study of activity is “a functional psychological system

of activity which is formed on the basis of qualities of an individual accomplishes the activity goal” (1996, p. 287).

Having discovered the specific features of cognition using the systemic approach, Shadrikov then outlined the outstanding features and main directions of realization of this approach in the process of activity research by pointing out the conditions for a uniform understanding of systemic research results. Shadrikov states the object, subject and tasks, then specifies the base lines of psychological activity research, and finally offers a general theoretical construct (model) realizing the psycho-physical unity approach in his investigation.

To summarize, in his works Shadrikov specifies: (1) the change of the objective world and the related change in the process of goal-directed activity of a personality; (2) the mechanism of a psychic activity regulation; (3) the change of a human in the process of activity; (4) the impact of activity on human nature (1994, p. 10). In the process of analyzing systemic genesis theory, Shadrikov has created an ideal model of psychological activity system and its theoretical construct. He has also outlined certain solutions in relation to the detailed tasks of psychological activity study using this model. Noting that in the process of developing the architecture of psychological activity system, he based his work on the framework of a functional physiological system created by P. K. Anokhin, Shadrikov emphasizes that the structural elements of a psychological activity system have another content; this distinct content is signaled and described in the psychological theory of activity systemic genesis (1994; 2007b; 1979; 1996). Thus Shadrikov found the answer to the question of a universal psychological mechanism of activity.

Activity is performed through a functional system, which at the level of psychological analysis acts as a psychological activity system. For this reason it is possible to carry out the activity analysis and describe its separate components. Activity can be described by taking into account both developmental and functional mechanisms. However the author of the systemic genesis theory specifies that each activity type has different *content* of psychological activity system, *mechanisms* of development, *relationship* between the components of psychological activity system, *connection* between the compositional analysis and efficiency of psychological activity system, and *system-forming factors* of activity at the various stages of its mastering. He proves that the activity development indicators increase due to the development of a complete psychological activity system, with integrity of its various components (motivational, informational, programming, and controlling) (Shadrikov, 2007b).

In his works, Shadrikov considers the close relationship of professional and teaching activities and the possibility of applying the objective laws of activity

systemic genesis to the teaching activity (1994; 1996). He advances the notion that the structure of activity and behavior determine the human inner world (2006; 2009a).

The genesis approach examines how the cultural means used by society at different stages of historical development influence cognitive and psychic processes. The historical development of human culture and psyche allows for a deeper grasp of activity as a whole. Shadrikov states that a man and his psyche are formed and manifested in the process of activity and, therefore, they can be studied firstly through manifestation in one or another type of activity. In some of his works, Shadrikov reports on human development in the process of activity. In a series of his studies, he demonstrates that the development of psychic qualities in the process of activity is made through the development of operating mechanisms of such qualities; under the influence of activity requirements, the operating mechanisms of psychic qualities are being transformed. He calls this process a process of conversion of operating mechanisms into operative ones. He believes that this is the essence of transfer from psychic qualities to the actively important (professionally and educationally) ones. Taking into account the systemic genesis principles, Shadrikov reveals the psychological mechanism of qualitative formations in the personality ontogeny process. He writes:

“This process is marked by availability of stages and it splits the growth of some qualities... The most formations act as functional systems. It is the functional system that resolves contradictions between the limit of essential personal qualities and the variety of activity and behavior forms. The individual qualities can be manifested at the same time through the activity style and behavior individuality. It is in the functional system that inheritable qualities and qualities to be developed, as well as qualities to be educated and acquired act as a whole and determine activity and behavior” (1993).

He further notes that development process appears both with respect to certain essential individual qualities and in the process of functional systems that realize some types of activity and behavior.

The system consideration of activity and its nature as a multilevel construction are revealed in the system genesis activity theory through a mixed-level analysis: person-motivational, component-objective, structure-functional, informational, psycho-physiological and individual-psychological. Shadrikov estimated the combination of all specified levels and gave a systemic concept of activity, which he believed should be regarded as a multilevel system. Taking this into account, he

developed strategies, methods, and experimental procedures for each level of activity (2007a).

Shadrikov tackled the problem of the relation between abilities and activity. Consideration of general and specific abilities on the basis of psychological analysis of activity allowed him to differentiate the development of professional abilities from general abilities. He offered general principles of abilities diagnostics and validated the abilities diagnostics method, which received the name of ‘activity development method’. Shadrikov motivated his pupils who continued to work out different modifications of this method (Suvorova, 2007).

Shadrikov stated the general principles of systemic approach to the study of complex objects of cognition with two kinds of systemic knowledge (mono and poly-system focusing). He set specific scientific-method requirements to the organization procedure of a system research of activity as a complex object of cognition. He also considered the relationship between cognition, abilities and activity results, and compared scientific cognition levels and scientific thinking methods.

B. F. Lomov qualifies the systemic genesis laws specified by Shadrikov as psychological laws that form the “mechanism” of psychical phenomena (1984, p. 112). A. V. Karpov accentuates that the concept of activity systemic genesis is a unity of system, genetic and psychological study of activity (1988, p. 11). V. A. Bodrov notes that Shadrikov’s systemic genesis concept offers a methodological base for psychological study of professional activity, reflects systemic principles of mental alertness, and its variability; this concept helps to work with “professional activity” (1999, p. 644).

The founder of the activity system genesis theory uses the term “functional system”, which was first studied by P. K. Anokhin and A. R. Luriya, yet Shadrikov fully demonstrates the possibilities of its use in the process of working with the terms “abilities” and “gifts”. Shadrikov considers the role of certain abilities in the activity structure and offers his own point of view. Shadrikov specifies the fundamental hypothesis in tackling the problem of abilities structure. It is based on the principle that this structure is uniform for all abilities and similar to the activity structure, i.e. while there are multiple abilities you have a single and uniform activity structure which is repeated in structures of individual abilities. He points out that ontologically this uniform structure is realized through the brain entirely as a mental organ and is functionally determined by activity goal and motivation. In the abilities theory, Shadrikov allows for the fact that abilities are functional systemic features which fulfill some psychical functions and psychical functions are activity forms and can be characterized as functional activity systems.

The following problems are considered to be most

important by Shadrikov: the determination of the position of category of abilities in the system of base psychological terms and concepts; the determination of human abilities in three dimensions – individual, actor and personality; the detection of abilities position in the psychic structure; revealing the relationship between general and specific abilities; establishing the relationship between abilities and mental processes; detecting the mechanism of abilities development: mastering intellectual operations and developing general skills; classifying the abilities according to their psychical functions; finding the ways of abilities development through activity: integration of certain abilities in the activity system and adaption of abilities to the object world and activity requirements etc.; and finally, interpreting an abilities problem as mental development problem (Shadrikov, 1998; 2007a; 2009a; 1993).

Shadrikov proves and elaborates that intelligence development is made through mastering intellectual operations, developing mental skills, gaining mental experience and introduction into the intellectual activity of the human's inner world (Shadrikov, 2007a).

An analysis of Shadrikov's views on evolution and assessment of his studies in the field of psychology have been carried out by N. S. Leytes and I. V. Ravich-Shcherbo, D. B. Bogoyavlenskaya and I. V. Dubrovina. N. S. Leytes and I. V. Ravich-Shcherbo made comments on B. M. Teplov's publication on abilities and gifts (1985, p. 313) They noted that gift as a synthetic concept characterizing the abilities is considered in his theory as a systemic demonstration of abilities. However, Shadrikov gives a further detailed analysis of this problem in his article "On Content of Terms "Abilities" and "Gifts" (1983).

D. B. Bogoyavlenskaya points out that Shadrikov's abilities theory reveals a new approach to the problem of nature and the relationship between general and specific abilities, offering a holistic comprehension of gifts. It allowed those who studied the operational gifts concept to work out a general position for leading Russian specialists. They observed giftedness as a system quality and specified principles and methods for the development of gifted children (Bogoyavlenskaya, 2003).

Shadrikov's work was presented at the II International research and practice conference "Operational Concept of Gifts – to the Educational Practice" (Dubrovina, 2004). The book was devoted to cognitive abilities. This conference pointed out the existence of Shadrikov's school of thought with its own clear-cut and articulated policy, scientific opinion. The work that has been done over the course of many years on the abilities problem comprises a deep theoretical body of work, which should be considered as a unique event in our academic community. Shadrikov has made

a great contribution to the theoretical understanding of abilities problem by studying the nature of human abilities, their structure and development in the context of a coherent human being. He also formulated an approach to abilities as personal manifestations which are always expressed through a level of skills in any type of activity – teaching, cognitive and professional activity. Placing special emphasis on the complexity of theoretical aspects of abilities, he treated the individual as an actor and personality, and paid special attention to the analysis of the process and ways of abilities development.

The importance of key issues of activity psychology in the elaboration of abilities problems researched by Shadrikov has been stressed by A. K. Bolotova (1977). It should be noted that among topical issues of Shadrikov's psychological theory of abilities which are essential to the development of consultative function of a psychologist in the field of education are the following issues: working at defining the terms "gifts-abilities-psychic activity-activity"; raising a question on development of abilities in a variety of conditions of human vital activity; pointing out the importance of experimental study of mechanisms of human abilities development; operating mechanisms of pupils' development of cognitive abilities; determination of the key role of cognitive actions and tasks in their analysis (Suvorova, 2006a; Suvorova, 2004).

Future Development of System Genesis Approach in Psychology

While not all ideas are claimed in the "intelligent card" of the systemic genesis approach, Shadrikov's contribution can be summarized in three essential points: (1) he developed systemic genesis approach in the process of working at methodological and theoretical problems of psychology; (2) he defined strategies of the systemic genesis approach in the process of studying psyche, activity, abilities, human's inner world and human individuality; (3) he drew weighty conclusions in methodological respect which concern contemporary problems of theory and practice of psychology in the field of education.

Shadrikov's works are very important for specifying the content and strategies of pedagogical psychology as an educational subject in the system of training teachers and psychologists. Any person, his/her activity, activities, morals, spirituality, ability to understand, recognize and transform the external and inner world are placed at the center of educational and developmental psychology.

Methods of the systemic genesis approach are applied in the process of investigation of personal integral qualities and abilities, and metacognitive processes (Karpov, 2004). Children's psychological

readiness for school is an individual manifestation of general/universal human quality – readiness for actions (Nizhegorodtseva, Shadrikov, 2004) etc.

Studies on systemic genesis are fundamental for the development of expert activities of a psychologist in mass media and consulting in the field of education (Suvorova, 2006a). They enable to enter and carry on a multifunctional and multilevel dialogue. The problems they cover are: mental development of a man; his intelligent education both in town and country; self-evolution on the level of personality and individuality; operation of psychological laws; existential psychology and life scenarios; child-parent relationships in new cultural-historical contexts; propaganda of psychological knowledge of spiritual development and growth of a human, etc.

The theoretical and practical role of systemic genesis concepts in psychology of professional training for highly qualified teachers was embodied in a new professional teaching standard developed on the basis of Shadrikov's model of a functional psychological activity system (Kuzminov, Matrosov, & Shadrikov, 2006). Based on the systemic genesis activity theory, a psychological analysis of teaching activities was carried out. Specific theoretical data on teacher's activities, the functional tasks, and the problem of teacher as a subject of teaching activity were generalized. The content of a professional teacher's competency was also defined. The basic competences of a teacher are specified according to the main components of a functional system of his activity, assuring success at work. The psychological framework was established for specifying the content of professional training programs for contemporary teachers. The combination of activity, systemic and competence approach in professional teaching standards defines the strategic areas for the development of psychological innovations in the field of education.

The expansion of reflexive bases of the systemic genesis approach as a new paradigm of psychological science in education can be further developed the coherent research program on activity systemic genesis and human abilities makes such expanded research possible. The study of the problems of socialization and professional self-realization, which are needed in practice, is still a work in progress.

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Articles

Nataliya Denisova, Dinara Yusipova A Comparative Analysis of Temporal Structure of English Poetic Texts for Adults and Children	6
Alexander Kalashnikov Shakespearean Charactonyms in Translations into Russian	14
Flora Komlósi, Siarl Ferdinand Perceptions and Use of English by Secondary School Students From Central Asia	23
Galina Levitskaya, Elizaveta Levitskaya The Problems of Russian-Speaking Students of Non-Ninguistic Specializations in CAE Speaking. Test: Analysis of Teaching Experience	33
Alexander Shuneyko, Olga Chibisova On the Question of the Semiotic Typology of Signs	43
Elena Zanina Strategic Hedging: A Comparative Study of Methods, Results and Discussion (and Conclusion) Sections of Research Articles in English and Russian	52
Denis Zolotukhin Polysemy in Linguistic Terminological Systems Based on the Analysis of French Linguistic Terms	61
 <i>Reviews</i>	
Galina Suvorova, Tatiana Baranovskaya Systemic Genesis Approach in Psychology	68
Notes for contributors	78