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ІМЕНІ М. П. ДРАГОМАНОВА



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REPRESENTATION MODEL OF HYPERREAL FANTASY WORLD: PHRASEOLOGICAL DIMENSION

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Abstract

The article focuses on the most traditional model of knowledge representation – frame, which is the key to discover the mechanisms for conceptualizing the phenomena of surrounding or text reality. Possible worlds, as text reality, are mental structures that need appropriate interpretation, in particular fictional worlds of the fantasy genre. Such worlds are posited as hyperreal, as they demonstrate the simulation of reality, replacing real by means of the signs of the objective reality – simulacra. The hyperreal world in the fantasy novels of the Earthsea cycle by an outstanding American novelist Ursula Le Guin is objectivized at lexical and phraseological levels, thus, by lexical units-simulacra and phraseological units-simulacra. Such expressive units are to be classified according to their semantics, denoting a person, a place, time and a separate notion. The prevailing number of magic component testified the founding and leading role of this phenomenon for the hyperreal world under investigation. It has been ascertained that phraseological units-simulacra, explicating the slots of the Thing, Action and Comparison Frames, enable to decode the information about the hyperreal world in general, enriching it with attributive and activity characteristics of characters in opposition – a person and a dragon. The proposed representation model of hyperreal fictional world ascertained the results and allowed to reveal the plane of the contents of the author's construct. Thus, phraseological units-simulacra are decoded in the slots of: 1) the Thing Frame (SB/STH is SUCH, SB/STH is (exists) SO, SB/STH is THERE), disclosing information about features and locations of characters; 2) the Action Frame (SB/STH acts UPON, SB/STH acts FOR, SB/STH acts BY MEANS OF), exposing their activity peculiarities; 3) the Comparison Frame (SB/STH is AS (LIKE)), enriching the hyperreal world under investigation with expressive-emotional characteristics.

Keywords: frame, slot, explication, representation model, hyperreality, simulacrum, phraseological unit-simulacra, fictional world, fantasy.

1. Introduction.

Cognitive Linguistics has recently firmly rooted in the paradigm of contemporary world science hence, any thorough study of language is impossible without a cognitive approach (Croft, Cruse, 2004). Such an approach to language study stems from the necessity for knowledge understanding (expressed in the form of a text or speech). Thus, non-linguistic factors, which impede or facilitate the process of understanding, are to be taken into account and interpreted. As a result, Cognitive Linguistics broadens its ties with those sciences and disciplines whose subject matter is the factors that affect the functioning of language phenomena at any rate.

Consequently, the sphere of vital interests of Cognitive Linguistics includes the “mental” foundations of understanding and speech production from the perspective of how the structures of language knowledge represented and participate in the processing of information. Such representations and corresponding procedures subordinate to different principles of organization.

Whereas the cognitive paradigm in linguistic field is a relatively new trend, it symbolizes a fundamentally new approach to the process of conceptualising reality, mechanisms for shaping the conceptual picture of the world and individual concepts, and their objectification in language. Within the framework of the cognitive paradigm, special attention has been paid to the study of semantics, and in particular to its varieties, which are being currently developed – conceptual, prototypical, and framing.

Top-priority issues in Cognitive Linguistics are brought to the forefront of research (Pavlova, 2014: 118–124): language consciousness structure, knowledge forms representation, cognitive semantics, cognitive categories, cognitive strategies, cognitive models (Arutjunova, 2004; Boldyrev, 2004; Croft, 2004; Vezhbickaja, 1996; Zhabotinskaja, 2009; Kubrjakova, 2004; Lakoff, 1980; Selivanova, 2008; Telija, 1996; Tyshchenko, 2018)

According to linguistic tradition, the main model of knowledge representation in cognitive science is the “*frame*” (Zhabotinskaja, 1999: 12–25; Novosadska, 2018: 38). The first scholar to introduce this term into conceptual apparatus was the investigator of artificial intelligence and cognitive psychology Minskij (in sociology, the frame was used in concept of Hoffman, where the understanding of the term was borrowed from Mr. Bateson).

There is abundance in definitions of the term “*frame*” by outstanding linguists (Minskij, 1975; Fillmore, 1985; Zhabotinskaja, 1999; Tannen, 1979; Petruck, 1996; Nikonova, 2009; Koljadenko, 2018; Kozak, 2007; Novosadska, 2018), as well as concepts related to the theory of frames.

In his numerous works Fillmore (1985), the founder of the theory of frames, repeatedly referred to the need of taking frames into account (in the sense of Minskij (1975)), who defined the frame as a structure of information data, which reflects acquired knowledge of some stereotypical situation and about the text that describes it) in theories of lexical semantics and text understanding.

According to the theory of the scientist, frame – is a system of correlating concepts, and in order to the understand any of them one must comprehend the whole structure, to which this concept belongs (Petruck, 1996).

Following the ideas of Ch. Fillmore in his most recent works “*frame*” can be interpreted as:

- 1) a unit of knowledge, organized around the concept, which contains data on the substantial, typical and possible for this concept within particular culture (Boldyrev, 2000);
- 2) data structure for stereotypical situations presentation (Minsky, 1975: 211–215);

3) a type of cognitive model representing the knowledge and associated thoughts within specific situations, the structure of knowledge that combines numerous spheres assimilated with a certain linguistic form (Boldyrev, 2000);

4) cognitive structure that exists in the individual phenomenological field, based on presumed knowledge about typical situations, expectations concerning the qualities and relations between real and hypothetical objects (Levickij, 1998: 168).

The study of frames (Baker, Ellsworth, Petruck) provides the key to discovering the mechanisms for conceptualizing verbalized notions and phenomena of environmental reality, hence frame analysis is becoming very popular not only among linguists, but also among literary critics and representatives of other branches of knowledge (Barbanjuk, 2012: 11–12).

Modern cognitive semantics is characterized by a tendency to studying possible worlds (Dolézel, Pavel, Ryan, Semino) as mental structures which reflect surrounding reality on the whole and text world in particular, which is a set of several sub-worlds (Semino, 1999).

At the same time, particular attention of scholars is still being paid to disclosure of ontological and epistemological nature of possible worlds in different literature genres, among which “*fantasy*” still remains a mysterious phenomenon (Attebery, 1980; Manlove, 1986; Kovtun, 1999; Plotnikova, 1998), which requires a deep comprehension through the prism of history, ethnography, anthropology, culturology, mythology, psychology, etc.

New perspectives are being opened for linguists to the study of fiction fantasy texts in perspective of possible worlds theory, borrowed into linguistics from the concepts of modal logics (Babushkin, Baranov, Ivanov, Lewis), where “*possible worlds*” are interpreted as:

- a) mental constructions that “do not reflect the real picture” (Babushkin, 2001);
- b) subjective worlds, created by means of objective realia (Vardzelashvili, 2003);
- c) replacement of real worlds with signs of reality (Baudrillard, 1994) – simulation (illusion) of actual reality, disguising its absence.

Fictional world as well as the real one, according to Vardelashvili, can be studied in two perspectives (Vardelashvili, 2003: 37–45): as a possible state and possible course of events (Babushkin, 2001: 5–8). In this respect, the correct interpretation of the concept “possible world” is required (Mamchur 2000), since it can be understood both ontologically (as distinct from the real world) and epistemologically (as another version of the real world). To our great concern, understanding possible worlds as different from the real one and existing only in the mental sphere is the most appropriate. There are plenty of definitions of such worlds in the scientific literature: *irreal and quasireal* (Medvedeva, 1991), *virtual* (Asmus, 2005; Lugovaja, 2007, 2010; Rudnev, 2000), *anomalous fictional* (Korotkova, 2000; Misnik, 2005; Plotnikova, 1998: 123–131), *utopian worlds* (Rozinkina, 2005), etc.

Such worlds are constructed by means of signs with no reference to the objective reality, which simulate reality, hence we use the term “*hyperreal*” to denote specific, distinct from the real, mental worlds. They are materialized in verbal signs with double referential assignment – an external (a transformational model that has no analogues in the real world) and an internal (objective reflection of the real world in fictional denotations). Such signs are posited as “*simulacra*”.

Fantasy represents such worlds, which demonstratively do not coincide with the ordinary idea of reality. Normally, authors put action into a world invented by them with their own geography, their history, their races and peoples. Another prerequisite for fantasy is magic. Fantasy takes the existence of magic for granted. Moreover, it is the transpersonal, divine, mystical, founding and driving force. The best prove to these ideas, to our deep concern, are the fictional worlds of an outstanding American novelist Ursula Le Guin in her Earthsea cycle (B. 1 – B. 6). Her thoroughly-constructed words are hyperreal and materialized in signs of lexical and phraseological levels.

2. Aim and Objectives. Methodology.

The **aim** of the paper is to present a model of hyperreal fantasy world at phraseological level, based on the texts of the Earthsea cycle by Le Guin.

Objectives of the paper:

- to substantiate the use of the term “hyperreal” to denote the fictional fantasy world;
- to find out the frame structure of this hyperreal world;
- to model hyperreal world of Ursula Le Guin’s Earthsea at phraseological level.

The **method of frame modelling** is applied to interpret the content of the phraseological units-simulacra in the hyperreality of the Earthsea.

3. Results.

First appeared in postmodern philosophy, the term “**hyperreality**” refers to inability of consciousness to distinguish between reality and imagination, the simulation of what in fact never existed (Baudrillard, 1994), authentic fake (Eco, 1983), technological ability to merge virtual reality with physical reality. Hyperreality is more likely to characterize the method that guides consciousness in determining the “reality”.

Hyperreality is posited as an infinite reproduction, a micro-segmentation of objects, transformation into model series, where real objects are absorbed by simulacra. Hence, “**simulacra**” (Baudrillard, 1994) are symbols without reference to the real world, which create *over-real* world, challenge the objectivity, truth and reality, only imitating their existence.

The perception and comprehension of the simulacrum is based on the external similarity effect with subject world, with large inadequacy with the inner essence of reality. The simulacrum creates the effect of the “wrong reality”, **hyperreality**, and, by functioning in the text, it creates a special type of hero, world, as well as, outlook.

Such a special world with its rules and laws is a distinctive characteristic feature of the **fantasy** genre. Having appeared in the first half of the XXth century in English prose, fantasy stays in between “science fiction” and a “fairy tale”, but they should not be confused. Hence, science fiction is focused on the individual obsession with science, on the image of inventors, on forbidden knowledge; therefore, science in the works of science fiction is understood as driving force.

Unlike science fiction, fantasy does not seek to explain the world from scientific point of view. This world itself exists hypothetically, often its location in accordance to our reality is not specified: whether it is a parallel world, or another planet, and its physical laws may differ from earthly ones. In such a world, the existence of gods, witchcraft, mythical creatures (dragons, elves, gnomes, trolls), ghosts, and any other fantastic entities can be quite real. At the same time, the fundamental difference between fantasy and fairy-tale is that magic and wonders are normal for this world and act systemically, like the laws of nature in objective reality.

Fantasy novels most often resemble a historical adventure, thus action takes place in a fictional world close to the real Middle Ages, whose heroes are confronted with supernatural phenomena and mythical creatures. Hence, this literary genre is rich in poetic whimsical images, represents supernatural and unrealistic events and characters.

So, we can give the following definition of “fantasy” – it is a literary work, in which action takes place in a separate world with the indispensable presence of magic, or other phenomena that cannot be rationally interpreted. However, the author of fantasy is not limited either by the plot or thematically.

Among authors who have worked in fantasy genre, alongside with its founders Howard and Tolkien, we find the names of Lewis, Martin, Rowling, Howard, Le Guin. The heritage of Ursula Kroeber Le Guin is in the focus of our scientific interest.

Being an outstanding American novelist, who worked mainly in the genres of fantasy and science fiction, Le Guin is still regarded as one of the most successful and popular authors in epic fantasy.

The creative work of Le Guin (1929-2018) has been in focus of scientific interest in different spheres:

- a) psychology and philosophy (Bailey, Barrow, Littlefield, Mahy, Reid, Walker),
- b) literature (Bittner, Clayton, Cummings, Griffin, Heng);
- c) linguistics (Algeo, Philippopoulos-Mihalopoulos, Robinson, Shippey, Tsai).

Her unique utopian hyperreal worlds, as well as unlimited linguistic potential of the works, still attract many scientists.

The fantasy novels of Ursula Le Guin are original, the hyperreal worlds of the author are verified and perfect (Philippopoulos-Mihalopoulos, 2005), difficult to relate to any spatio-temporal reality. Thus, in the history and philosophy of the Earthsea Archipelago (Le Guin's own fictional detailed world) one can find a combination, a mixture of fantastic elements and elements belonging to various ancient philosophies and mythologies: Scandinavian, Celtic, Chinese.

However, some researchers tend to consider (Lomakova, 2005) that fantasy fiction of Le Guin is somewhat different from the traditional understanding of the genre, since her heroes do not try to fight the world of Evil and compete with evil monsters: the purpose of their lives is to maintain world Equilibrium. Thus, both Good and Evil have equal rights to exist in the world, created by Le Guin. Moreover, a number of Le Guin writings, including the Earthsea series, challenged the conventions of epic fantasies and myths (Bernado, Murphy). For instance, many of the protagonists in Earthsea are dark-skinned individuals, some of the antagonists, in contrast, were white-skinned, which contradicts fantasy tradition (Bernado, 2006).

To our deep concern, the key point in referring works of Le Guin to fantasy genre is the magic component as the founding element in the lives of her heroes. The best verification to this idea is Le Guin's "Earthsea cycle", which is composed of the following novels: "A Wizard of Earthsea" (B.1 WE), "The Tombs of Atuan" (B.2 TA), "The Farthest Shore" (B.3 FS), "Tehanu. The Last Book of Earthsea" (B.4 LBE), "The Other Wind" (B.5 OW), "Tales from Earthsea" (B.6 TE). These first four cycle novels are known under the name "Earthsea quartet", an example of a heroic fantasy – a story about the protagonist, named Ged, who learns the world, is looking for his self. By trying to restore the world balance of the Dark and Light he loses his most valuable abilities – his magic.

Hyperreal world, created by the author, is built on magic, which is based on the knowledge of the True Names of all living beings and inanimate creatures, which allows not only to comprehend the essence of everything, but also to manage the whole world. Thus, the mastery of the sacred **True language** (*the Old Speech*), the Creation language is the key to power, to the self, and at the same time the basis of the simulated hyperreality.

The image of Le Guin hyperreal world is closely interconnected with the well-known Tao symbols – Yin and Yang (Bain, 1986), the essence of which is to combine the opposites. Hence, Earthsea is the world of opposing, but interrelated concepts: *water / land, white magic / black magic, ordinary people / people with magic skills, women / men, fair-skinned / dark-skinned, light / darkness, ordinary people / royals* and other.

Thus, the fictional author's world in the novels of Le Guin of the Earthsea cycle, is a specific mental construction of reality which is complemented by new features, gets a shade of subjectivity, where the miracle is allowed and everything is possible.

Characters in the Earthsea cycle are endowed with magical skills, abilities that significantly differentiate them from ordinary people and open up new real possibilities. It is posited that they are *over-real, hyper-real*. The effect of hyperreal is achieved in the texts by a number of signs with no reference to anything from objective reality, which are the basis of the simulation of reality.

We claim that any fictional world of the fantasy genre is to be defined as “*hyperreal*” in its understanding that this is a simulation of reality. This is a specific world with its own laws, comprehended as a secondary world, organised on other principles than the ordinary world, but its perception is possible only based of the real world (Il'inova, 2007: 85–93). The interrelation between the simulated and real worlds (Baksanskij, 2001), the elements of fiction and reality form *hyperreality*.

The world of Le Guin's Earthsea cycle is a world created by simulacra.

For instance, the word combination *Old Speech* is an absolute reflection of the basic reality, with a clearly defined form and content – *the tongue in which things are named* (B.1. WE).

Nevertheless, such reality is later distorted, modified by the following explanation – *the language of spells, lays, songs, invocations, enchantments* (B.1. WE). And when, in fact, we encounter another interpretation of *Old Speech* – *the language of dragons and wizards* (B.1. WE), *the language the dragons speak; no one can learn it* (B.1. WE), then the reality disguise becomes quite apparent. Therefore, when the author focuses on the fact that *there is no end to this language, this is why no one can learn it to the end* (B.1. WE), then reality in its usual sense (the true form of the existence, the opposite of the notion of “illusion”, “science fiction”) is lost. To sum it up, another example proves the absence of reality – *this is the Hardic Tongue of the Earthsea* (B.1. WE). The illustrations from the text give all reason to recognize such sign (*Old Speech*) as simulacrum, a sign without reference.

Another example of the sign where form does not correspond to its usual content is lexeme *Shadow*, though it possesses some “real” characteristics – *Dark substance* (B.1. WE). However, *that creature was bodiless, blind to sunlight, a creature of a lightless, timeless realm* (B.1. WE), i.e. SHADOW IS CREATURE. Masking the lack of reality, the author gives the following characteristic – *it was not a ghost of a human man, nor was it a creature of the Old Powers* (B.1. WE).

In the end, *Shadow* gets its real quality – *able to take everyone's form and shape* (B.1. WE), *an evil creature, the shadow-beast* (B.1. WE). Consequently, the before-mentioned references give reason to assume that the sign *Shadow* (in the author's interpretation) is a simulacrum, since its correlation with reality is neglected.

Thus, the simulacra that create the hyperreal world of the Earthsea cycle are lexical and phraseological units, with no reference to objective reality, hence they are “lexical units-simulacra” and “phraseological units-simulacra”.

To understand the essence of the hyperreal world, to comprehend it, it is necessary to reveal the meaning of these non-referential units.

At phraseological level, hyperreality of the Ursula Le Guin Earthsea cycle is created by figurative, situational units – phraseological units-simulacra, which add to the author's hyperreal world expressiveness, evidence its peculiar relation to the objective world.

The effect of hyperreality is being achieved by means of phraseological units (170 in number), which, following Chepasova, according to their semantics, are divided into three subcategories and designate:

1) a person – with somatic (28 units), gender (23 units) and animal (26 units) components;

- 2) place and time – with local (18 units) and temporal (4 units) components;
- 3) a separate notion – with magic (50 units) and anthropomorphic (21 units) components.

The most numerous in course of analysis was a subcategory to identify a person, including the group of phraseological units with a somatic component: *Hairy-lipped man* (B.4. LBE); *red-rimmed eyes* (B.4. LBE); *dark, wild, queer heart* (B.4. LBE).

The phraseological units with a gender component are less numerous: *woman witch; a witch-woman; as a woman* (B.1. WE – B.4. LBE); *woman who could change herself into a dragon; man of power; man witch* (B.1. WE – B.4. LBE); *wizardry was man's work; man's skills*.

The number of phraseological units to denote animal features indicate a significant role of animals in highlighting the specifics of the hyperreal world: *with wings like birds* (B.4. LBE); *borne by webbed wings* (B.4. LBE); *men and women were winged; the first musculature of the wings*

Phraseological units-simulacra to denote the place: *doorway of the sky* (B.4. LBE); *the dark land; the dry land; the dry river* (B.3. FS); *the end of earth; the farthest west* (B.3. FS); *as far away as Selidor; the dark places* (B.3. FS; B.4. LBE); *at the center of the world; where sea meets the sky; out of the north and west; farther west than west*; whereas units with the temporal component are few: *as long ago as forever; the end of an age; the beginning of time; that outlived old age*.

To the third group belongs substantial number of expressions with magic component: *great mage; art of magic; wizard's staff; mage-born* (B.1. WE); *mage's staff; beyond the power of wizards* (B.1. WE); *creatures like wizards* (B.1. WE); *woman witch; man witch; shape changing; bone setting; spell of finding; love potion; fertility charms; potency spells* (B.1. WE); *spell of changing; spell of transformation; spell of binding; spell of beguilement; women witch; charms of illusions; gift of healing; gift of chanting; gift of spellcasting; to witch oneself; to set smb's spell; to work illusions; to lay a curse* (B.1. WE).

To the subcategory with anthropomorphic concept we refer simulacra of the phraseological level with the anthropomorphic component of *dragon: dragon-blood; dragon-people* (B.4. LBE); *the speech of dragon; dragon seed; woman who could change herself into a dragon; the Dragon Year; a dragon who could change itself into a woman; it's not easy talking to dragons; dragonlord; dragons do not have plain minds; dragons are thinking creatures* (B.1. WE).

The prevailing number of simulacra in the third group to denote magic rituals, skills, artefacts proves the global role of **MAGIC** in the hyperreal world. It is posited that **MAGIC is HYPERREALITY**.

According to the prepositions filling the slots presented in the frames of the text under investigation – The Thing Frame, the Action Frame, the Possession Frame, the Identification Frame, the Comparison Frame (Zhabotinskaja, 1999: 12–25), it is possible to make such a classification of phraseological units-simulacra of reality.

Taking into account the filling of the slots of the Thing frame, the phraseological units in the text of the Earthsea cycle due to denotative characteristics fall into the following classification:

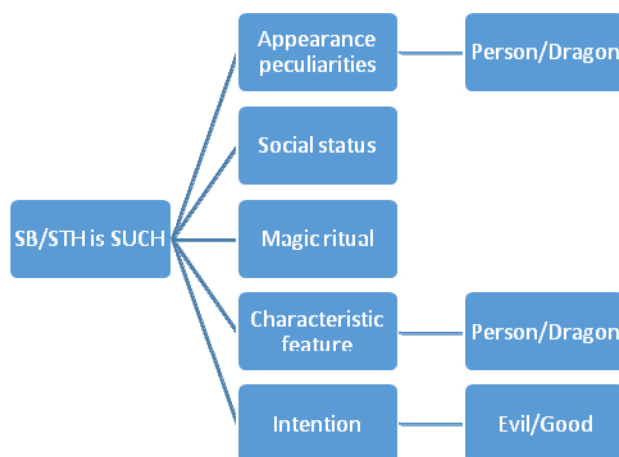


Figure 1. Explication of the slot SB/STH is SUCH at phraseological level

Phraseological units-simulacra, filling this slot, can be classified according to a denotative feature onto the units to denote the appearance peculiarities (both of a person or a dragon), characteristic features, social status, intentions (evil or good), and magical ritual.

So, the group of phraseological units to designate the features of the appearance is comprised of two subgroups – denoting the appearance of a person and a dragon. Expressions, which denote the appearance of a person, are as follows: *narrow-eyed man; hairy-lipped me; smooth-skinned, mild-looking man; red-rimmed eyes; lipless mouth; man's form and body* (B.1. WE).

As opposed to that, the phraseological units which formed a subgroup to denote the features of the appearance of the dragon are more numerous: *sinuous iron-dark body; outreaching claws; narrow nose and flaring fuming nostrils; wings scarlet where sun shone on them; the first musculature of the wings; thorny tail; rustled wings; taloned foot; crooked elbow; rust-dark mail of dragon's neck; long yellow eye of a dragon; dragons of pale, red, blue and green; a red dragon*

The advantage of the phraseological units to designate the appearance of the dragon testifies the importance of the dragon for the hyperreal world under investigation; the details of his appearance indicate the intention of the author to portray her own image, which to some extent contradicts stereotypical images about this mythological creature.

Phraseological units-simulacra, which explicate the motivational basis of the characteristic feature, form subgroups to denote the characteristic features of both a person and a dragon.

Hence, such phraseological units as *bawling-voiced; tending a little too fat; little bag of skin; the third eye; dark, wild, queer heart; the heat of his body; little bag with eyes and voice; flying ends of her hair; men and women were winged; shining fire all about her head; a man dragons will talk to* (B.4. LBE); *god-figures maxed of dolphin, fish, man and sea-bird* (B.3. FS); *a dour creature; dragon-people* (B.4. LBE); *shadow-beast; woman's magic; the Dragon Year; the power of a woman, burned one-eyed child; a shrewd and modest man* (B.4. LBE) designate a person, while *dragon-blood; fire-serpent; dragons born of land and wind; speech of dragons; dragon seed; dragonlord; beast of wind and fire; snake-scaled* reveal the characteristic features of a dragon.

By “characteristic feature” in this respect, we understand the distinguishing feature that gives colouring to a character or mythological creature.

Phraseological units-simulacra denoting social status within the cycle are as follows: *man of power*; *man witch*; *great mage* (B.1. FS); *she-archmage* (B.4. LBE); *woman witch*; *ordinary witch*; *village witch* (B.1. WE). Such examples state the interrelation between the social status of the characters in the Earthsea Archipelago and the magic proper.

Some units can decode the intentions of the characters of the novels of the Earthsea cycle, showing both evil and good: *wicked witch*; *great mage*; *witch-tinker*; *witches were fierce, bitter women* (B.4. LBE). Such units certify that witch-woman is a bearer of evil intentions, while a man is a bearer of the good ones.

Within the novels of the cycle the slot for the Thing frame **SB/SMTH is SUCH** is filled with the following phraseological units to denote magic rituals: *the art of magic*; *shape change*; *bone setting*; *spell of finding*; *love potion*; *fertility charms*; *potency spells*; *spell of chanting*; *spell of transformation*; *spell of binding*; *spell of beguilement*; *charms of illusions*; *gift of healing*; *gift of chanting*; *gift of spellcasting*; *charms and spells*; *finding and mending*; *wizard's staff* (B.1. WE – B.4. LBE). Such a significant number of expressions to denote magical rituals testifies that magic occupies the central place in characters' lives in particular, in the Earthsea Archipelago in general.

Within the texts under investigation we may also single out the following slot of the Thing frame **SB/STH is (exists) THERE (SOMEWHERE)**, which gets its explication (Fig. 2) in such phraseological units

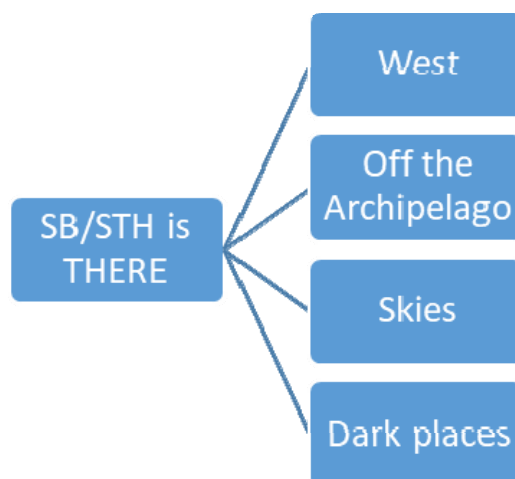


Figure 2. Explication of the slot SB/STH at THERE at phraseological level

Locations in the text are primarily related to the geographical indicator – the western direction, which is expressed by such simulacra as: *the farthest west*; *out of the north and west*; *farther west than west* (B.3. FS); outside the Archipelago – *the end of earth*; *as far away Selidor*; *at the center of the world*; *is Selidor, but not Selidor*; *off the map* (B.3. FS).

However, there is a number of figurative units providing information and the location not related to geographical objects on the map, like:

a) the sky – *doorway of the sky*; *where the sea meets the sky and with the places of domination and the residence of evil* – *dark land*; *dry land*; *dry river*;

b) the dark places – *where sea runs dry*; *where joy runs out*; *the black hole*; *between light and darkness*; *beyond the power of wizards* (B.3. FS).

The slot of the Thing frame **SB/SMTH is (exists) SO** is being explicated by the units to denote the type of activity and characteristic features (Fig. 3).

Thus, we allocate the following phraseological units-simulacra to indicate the kind of activity: *healer or finder; a second mate; dragon-people gathered up treasures; dragon people built houses; cast charms and worked spells* [B.4. LBE]; *weatherworker; patterner* (B.1. WE), while expressions, denoting a characteristic feature are as follows: *heart going hard; some hawk in him* [B.1. WE] *breath caught in the throat; bourn by webbed wings; men must not look into dragon's eyes; where wings had a root; the hawk was in him* (B.1. WE), *wizardry was a man's work; skills; in a complete animal gesture; dragons and human were all one; witch knows witch; spells going wrong; wings half lifted; with a large metallic sound* (B.4. LBE).

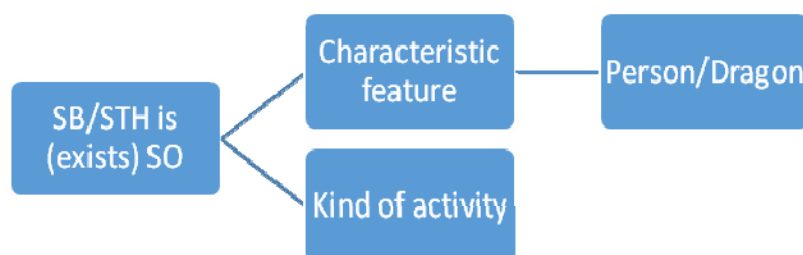


Figure 3. Explication of the slot SB/STH at SO at phraseological level

Taking into account the phraseological units to indicate the characteristic feature, we classify them into two groups, which denote personal traits – *heart going hard; some hawk in him* (B.1. WE) *breath caught in the throat; spells going wrong; the hawk was in him* (B.1. WE); *wizardry was a man's work; skills; witch knows witch*; and some particular features of dragon – *men must not look into dragon's eyes, nor dragon; bourn by webbed wings; where wings had a root; in a complete animal gesture; dragons and human were all one; wings half lifted; with a large metallic sound* (B.4. LBE).

Hence, the explication of the following slot of the Thing frame **SB/STH is SO** provides information about the kinds of activity of the characters, about their work, as well as their characteristic features, which make both individuals and dragons distinctive.

Phraseological units-simulacra also explicate the following slots of the Action frame – **SB/STH acts BY MEANS OF**, **SB/STH acts FOR (THE SAKE OF)**, **SB/STH acts UPON (somebody, something)**. Such units of the phraseological level contribute to adequate understanding of the existing information about the activity of the characters in the Earthsea cycle, as well as give it an expressive emotional colouring.

Hence, phraseological units, filling the slot **SB/STH acts BY MEANS OF**, are to be classified as follows (Fig. 4):

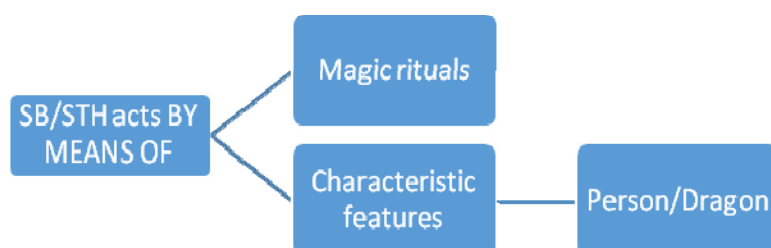


Figure 4. Explication of the slot SB/STH acts BY MEANS OF at phraseological level

According to our classification, the slot is explicated by the phraseological units-simulacra to denote magic rituals and characteristic features (of a person and a dragon). Hence, we find the following expressions to denote magic rituals, which are quite usual for magic hierarchy representatives – *to work illusions; to lay a curse; to perform lowly jobs of finding and mending, to cast a spell* (B.4. LBE) and others.

Characteristic features explicated in the following units denote personal characteristics – *lips and tongue would not form a word* (B.4. LBE); *magic was made by men; could not put off the falcon; mage may know it without your telling him* (B.1. WE), and some of the dragon – *lowered his body into a crouch* (B.4. LBE).

The slot **SB/STH acts FOR (THE SAKE OF) something** of the Action frame is filled with units-simulacra, which, according to intentions, can be classified (Fig. 5) onto the units to denote help, transformation, and personal interest.

Therefore, in the text we find such units to denote the process of transformation: *woman could not change herself into a dragon; mage became a bear; became a pilgrim hawk; turn into another-take form* (B.1. WE).

To confirm that magic is used by the inhabitants of the Earthsea Archipelago for their personal interests we find out such phraseological units, as *to use power for body's lust*. Magic in the Earthsea is thought to be a means of assistance and helping, hence the following phraseological units prove it: *cast a spell to find a child; cast a spell of finding and mending; to cast a spell of increase* (B.4. LBE) and others.

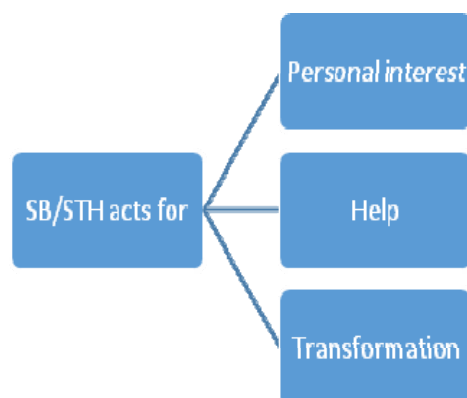


Figure 5. Explication of the slot **SB/STH acts FOR (THE SAKE OF)** at phraseological level

The units-simulacra, which filled this slot, testified that magic skills and knowledge were used for good purposes only.

Discovering the object of any magical activity, described in the novels of the Earthsea cycle, it seems rather obvious to analyse the simulacra of the phraseological level, which explicate the slot **SB/STH acts UPON someone (something)** (Fig. 6). The analysis carried out showed two vectors in the activity direction – regarding another person and regarding the self. Certifying this approach, such units are to be found:

– acting upon another person – *forget what a man thinks; how do you speak to a man of power?* (B.4. LBE); *he stayed a bird* (B.1. WE) *to set somebody's spell; slay a wicked witch* (B.4. LBE); *change him into a monster*;

– acting upon oneself – *turn itself into a gull; the wizard may turn itself into a gull; to witch oneself* (B.4. LBE).

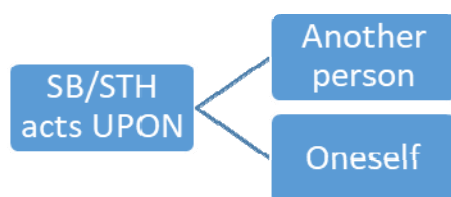


Figure 6. Explication of the slot *SB/STH acts UPON* at phraseological level

The obtained results testified the tendency of the characters, acting rather upon another person than the self.

The phraseological units-simulacra that filled the slot of the Comparison frame, according to the object of comparison, are to be classified as follows (Fig. 7). The comparison within the phraseological units is being carried out in five directions – with an animal, a bird, a representative of the magic hierarchy, a kind of activity and concepts, that is, both with objects of living and inanimate nature.

A characteristic feature of the study is the fact that more often a dragon is compared to the animal and the bird, while a person is compared with the type of activity, the representative of the magical hierarchy and concepts.

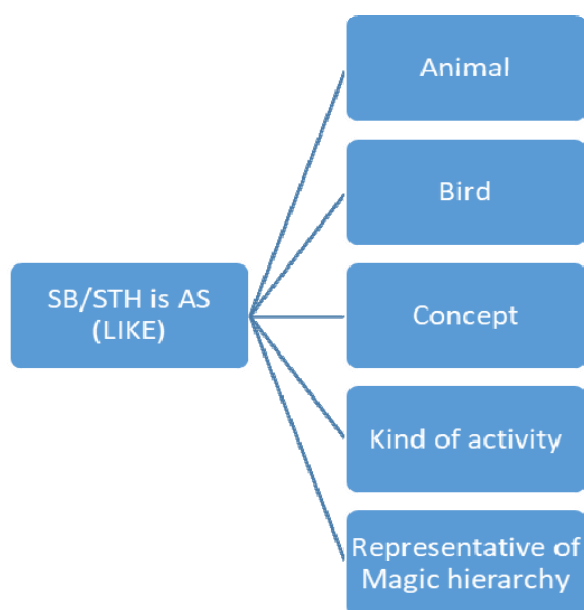


Figure 7. Explication of the slot *SB/STH is AS (LIKE)* at phraseological level

Phraseological units representing a comparison of an object with the animal are as follows: *body arched like greyhound's; clawed like a lizard; creatures like lizards; trapped them as animals* (B.4. LBE); whereas simulacra to demonstrate the metaphorical transfer of features of a bird are: *with wings like birds; flying like a bird* (B.1. WE).

Phraseological units, which objectivize comparison with a representative of the magic hierarchy, are as follows: *as a woman witch; staff like wizard's* (B.1. WE; B.4 LBE) and others. Thus, the motivational feature does not concern a person only, as a representative of a certain magic hierarchical stage, but also the artefacts inherent to them.

Phraseological units denoting a concept, explicating within the slot of the Comparison frame, mainly focus on the concept of MAGIC – *weak as woman magic; wicked as woman magic* (B.4. LBE).

Simulacra providing a metaphorical transference from a kind of activity are not numerous, nevertheless they demonstrate the specific features of a person, such as: *woman's tongue is worse than any thief* (B.4. LBE).

Thus, the transference of the features of the fauna representatives and the signs of the material world provide an emotional colouring to simulacra of reality.

4. Discussion.

The prevailing number of phraseological units-simulacra explicating the slots of the Thing Frame has shown the importance of attributive characteristics of Earthsea objects for unambiguous and unified interpretations of the author's intentions.

The units-simulacra of the phraseological level as expressive-emotional units of the sacred nature supplemented and expanded the information on the multi-faceted hyperreal world, which is in the focus of our interest.

A detailed and thorough analysis of phraseological units-simulacra enables to create a representation model of reality in the novels of Ursula Le Guin of the Earthsea cycle, which will promote adequate understanding and comprehension of the hyperreal fantasy world in general (see illustrations).

5. Conclusions.

To summarize the abovementioned, we state that fictional worlds, fantasy fictional worlds in particular, are unique and specific individual mental constructs. Usually fantasy authors provide readership with their own world with distinct laws and simulated reality, thought to be “real”. This effect of “unreal reality”, known as hyperreality (according to postmodern philosophy), needs a detailed and thorough comprehension and interpretation, which becomes possible by means of frame modelling only. In this respect, frame semantics is the key to discovering the mechanisms for conceptualizing verbalized notions and phenomena of hyperreality.

The Earthsea cycle by Le Guin, composed of six books, proposes such a detailed fictional world, a hyperreal one, realized at lexical and phraseological levels.

A scrupulous survey of the phraseological potential of the texts under investigation allows to interpret fictional world of Le Guin in general, and make some conclusions about it in particular.

The plane of content of the figurative units of the simulated reality is revealed within three frames – The Thing, The Action and The Comparison Frames. Explication of the slots of the Thing and Comparison Frames gave some attributive characteristics of a person and a dragon, while the Action Frame disclosed information about activities of the characters.

The proposed frame model of hyperreal world at phraseological level enables to attribute to decoding the fictional world of the Earthsea Archipelago.

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List of Illustrative Material

- B. 1. Guin, Ursula le *A Wizard of Earthsea*. Retrieved from <http://readr.ru/ursula-le-guin-a-wizard-of-earthsea.html>.
- B. 2. Guin, Ursula le *The Tombs of Atuan*. Retrieved from <http://readr.ru/ursula-le-guin-the-tombs-of-atuan.html>.
- B. 3. Guin, Ursula le *The Farthest Shore*. Retrieved from <http://readr.ru/ursula-le-guin-the-farthest-shore.html>.
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- B. 5. Guin, Ursula le *The Other Wind*. Retrieved from <http://readr.ru/ursula-le-guin-the-other-wind.html>.
- B. 6. Guin, Ursula le *Tales from Earthsea*. Retrieved from <http://readr.ru/ursula-le-guin-ales-from-earthsea.html>

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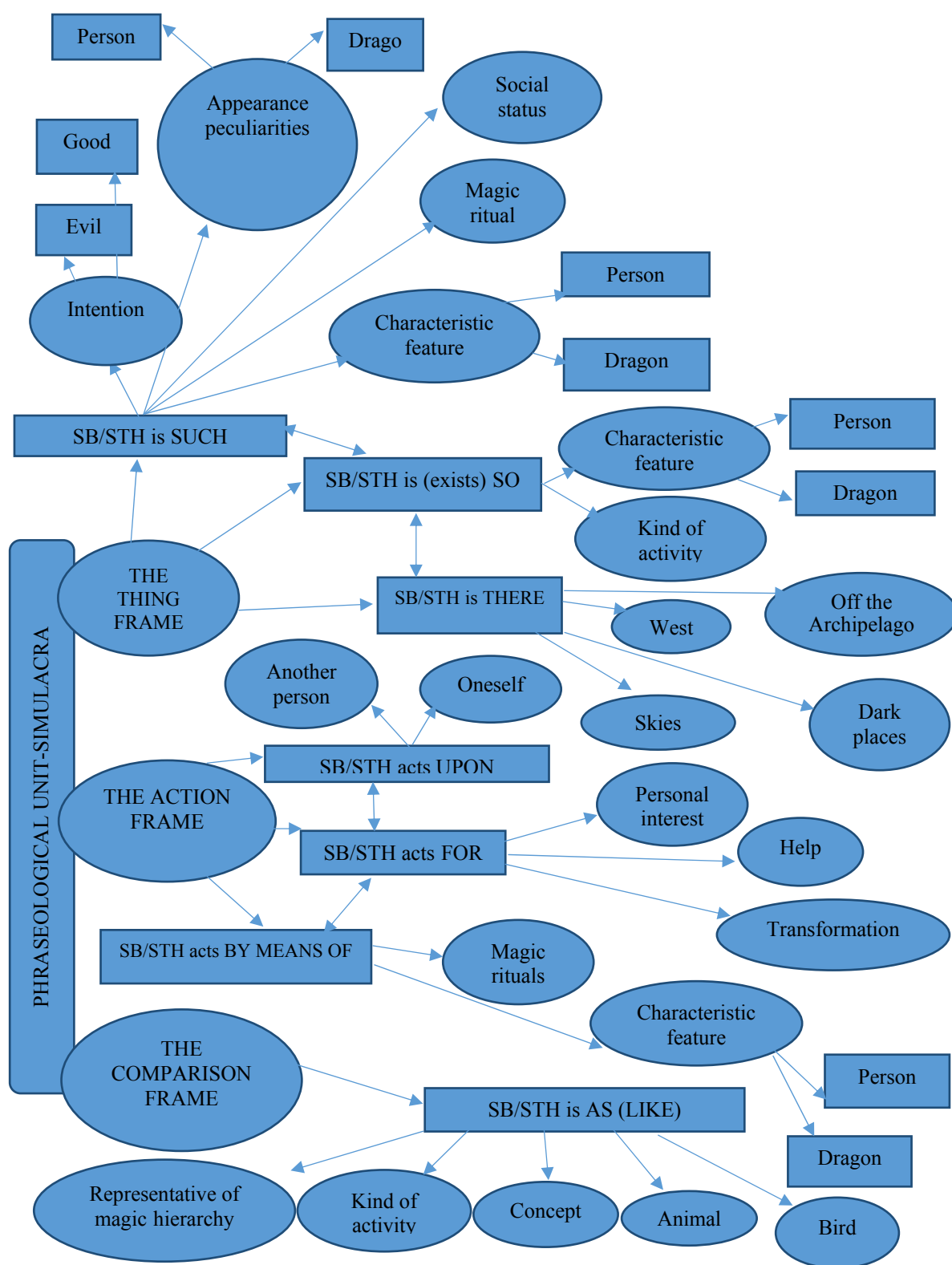
Барбанюк, О. О. (2018). Репрезентаційна модель гіперреального світу фентезі: фразеологічний вимір. *Науковий часопис Національного педагогічного університету імені М. П. Драгоманова. Серія 9. Сучасні тенденції розвитку мов*, 18. 5–22. DOI: <https://doi.org/10.31392/NPU-nc.series9.2018.18.01>

Анотація

Стаття присвячена найбільш традиційній моделі представлення знань – фрейму, що є ключем до виявлення механізмів концептуалізації явищ навколишньої або текстової реальності. Можливі світи як текстова реальність є ментальними конструктами, які потребують відповідної інтерпретації, зокрема вигадані світи жанру фентезі. Такі світи розуміються як гіперреальні, оскільки вони пропонують моделювання реальності, замінюючи реальне за допомогою знаків об'єктивної реальності – симулякрів. Гіперреальний світ в романах циклу Земномор'я, створений Урсулою Ле Гуїн, об'єктивується на лексичному і фразеологічному рівнях, відповідно, лексемами-симулякрами і фразеологізмами-симулякрами. Такі одиниці фразеологічного потенціалу творів класифікуються за їх семантикою, позначаючи людину, місце, час і окреме поняття. Переважна кількість магічної складової засвідчила основоположну роль цього явища для досліджуваного гіперреального світу. Встановлено, що фразеологічні одиниці-симулякри, що заповнюють слоти Предметного, Акціонального і Компаративного фреймів, дозволяють розшифрувати інформацію про гіперреальний світ у цілому, збагачуючи його атрибутивними характеристиками персонажів та позначеннями різних видів їхньої діяльності. Запропонована модель репрезентації гіперреального вигаданого світу підтвердила здобуті результати та дозволила розкрити план змісту авторського конструкту. Так, фразеологізми-симулякри отримують своє змістове наповнення у межах таких слотів 1) Предметного фрейму: ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ є ТАКИЙ, ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ є (існує) ТАК, ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ є ТУТ(ТАМ), декодує інформацію про характерні риси та місце проживання персонажів; 2) Акціонального фрейму: ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ діє НА, ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ діє ЗАДЛЯ, ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ діє ЗА ДОПОМОГОЮ, розкриваючи особливості їхньої діяльності; 3) Компаративного фрейму: ХТОСЬ/ЩОСЬ є НАЧЕ, НІБИ, збагачуючи досліджуваний гіперреальний світ експресивно-емотивними характеристиками.

Ключові слова: фрейм, слот, експлікація, модель репрезентації, гіперреальність, симулякр, фразеологізми-симулякри, вигаданий світ, фентезі.

REPRESENTATION MODEL OF HYPERREALITY: PHRASEOLOGICAL DIMENSION



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ENGLISH PHRASAL VERBS AS COGNITIVE AND SEMANTIC COMPLEXES AND FRAGMENT OF MULTILATERAL KNOWLEDGE OF MATRIX FORMAT

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Abstract

The article suggests a novel approach to the study of the English phrasal verbs, which is currently at the frontier of the cognitive syntagmatics. Based on the works in this domain, this paper specifies the definition of phrasal verbs as cognitive-semantic complexes which represent / describe a certain fragment of multi-dimensional knowledge of the matrix format. Particular attention is paid to the critical analysis of the scholars' views on the problem of the second component of these entities, which to this day are not univocal both in terms of discussing their functions performed in the structure of the phrasal verbs, and of their morphological nature and the associated terminology.

It is assumed that the semantics of the phrasal verbs is created by the interaction of the conceptual structures of both the verb, and its second component, where the abstract meaning of the latter gives wide opportunities for evolving of new meanings. In this case, the function of both components of a compositionally complex linguistic unit or a cognitive-semantic complex, which is a phrasal verb, consists in the profiling of certain aspects of the situation described by this formation, contributes to the new properties, which otherwise cannot be individually described/labelled by none of its components: neither the verb nor the post-positive component.

It has been proved that the English language possesses a characteristic cognitive-semantic construct “verb + postpositive component” that reflects a certain grammatical pattern of the combinatorial construction of phraseological entities bases on the mechanisms of conceptual integration, when the metaphorical selection of the verb initial mental space and the initial space of the postpositive component form a new blend - a new conceptual structure which absent in the initial mental spaces of each of the components.

Keywords: phrasal verbs, cognitive-semantic complex, postpositive component, matrix format, conceptual integration.

1. Introduction. New Preconditions for the Study of Phrasal Verbs.

Current verbal semantics in general and phrasal semantics of verbal complexes in particular are primarily discussed in the context of three key concepts: 1) structural and semantic syntax once initiated by (Tesnière, 1988), 2) new theory of verbal syntagmatics (Ufimtseva, 2002: 135–137), and compositional semantics (Kubryakova, 2015), based on which, according to Ufimtseva, “[...] the verb, in conjunction with other parts and in its various word-building combinations [...] displays [...] minimal discrete fragments (quanta) of reality [...]” (Ufimtseva, 2002: 135–137), and, of course, 3) cognitive syntagmatics (Vlavaczkaya, 2013 et al.) closely related to Fauconnier and Turner’s conceptual integration theory.

Representatives of all three concepts have prepared a powerful ground for developing a new theory of cognitive and semantic reconstruction of verbal syntagmatics mechanisms, which will allow approaching to the solution of extremely complex and still controversial issue of ontological and epistemological essence of phrasal nature of English verbal constructs (for details, see Petrovich) and proving an assumption that such constructs have matrix nature and are the products of conceptual integration of language phenomena in general. Petrovich expresses the same opinion in her thesis: “[...] reconstruction of the process of phrasal verb formation and identification of conceptual contribution of the components of such verb are quite possible and necessary procedures for identification of its nature” (Petrovich, 2004: 7).

However, in spite of strong tradition of studying English phrasal verbs as a specific construct of this particular language, as a result of which the scientists (both experienced and young) 1) defined *semantic and derivative structure of such constructs* (Anichkov, 1997; Grigoriyev, 2003; Zhluktenko, 1954; Ivashkin, 1988; Kubryakova, 1975; Belaya, 1995; Bogdanova, 2006; Voskres, 2017; Biber, 1999; Lindner, 1982; Meyer, 1975; Povey, 1990, and more); 2) presented *characteristics, including terminological, of the second component* (Viktorova-Orlova, 1978; Kuznetsova, 1998; Nogina, 1988; Paliy, 2008; Chibisova, 2009; Brinton, 1988, and more); 3) categorized them in texts, discourses, and corpuses (Vanivska, 2010; Golubkova, 1990, 2002; Petrova, 2012; Sizova, 2004; Shaposhnikova, 2003, Bolindger, 1971; Povey, 1990, and more), we believe that cognitive essence of an element that follows the verb requires deeper consideration in terms of previously researched matters (for details, see (Nikolenko, 1999), while the role of that element has only recently begun to be reconsidered in terms of its semantic capabilities as part of a verb phrase.

2. Aim.

The **aim** of the article is to consider English phrasal verbs of as cognitive and semantic complexes, formed as a result of mechanisms of conceptual integration.

3. Cognitive-Grammatic Approach to the Study of Phrasal Verbs.

This new turn in the study of English verbal and phrasal constructs is primarily caused by domination of cognitive and semantic concept in grammar, which contributed to a change in traditional view of the verb’s nature as a lexicogrammatical class of words and pushed the researchers (see Lebedeva, and her school students’ concept of polysituational analysis of the verb) to consider the verb, according to Kubryakova “as a designation of reduced situations rather than designation of various processes, actions, or states, which is correct but not sufficient” (Kubryakova, 2004). In this regard, it is important to understand which cognitive structures are actualized in the native speakers’ minds in connection with certain verbal form (in our case, a **phrasal verb** (Lindner, 1982). Incidentally, according to Tom MacArthur, the term, *phrasal verb*, was first introduced in 1925 by Logan Smith in his scientific paper, *Words and Idioms*, where he said that a publisher had prompted him to use such term.

And if the formulation of the issue is exactly like this, we assume that identification of ontological essence of phrasal verb as a cognitive and semantic complex, where both components play important role in the formation of the verb’s idiomatic meaning, is an equally important subject of discussion (it is exactly the idea that was the basis for Smith’s paper and was even included in its name).

In order to confirm the formulated hypothesis, we will analyze the scientists' ideas regarding their understanding and interpretation of phrasal verb, principles and criteria of its various taxonomies. Most importantly, and this requires special focus, the essence of the second component (its morphological and syntactically valent and distributive connectivity, that is the mechanisms of combinatorial syntagmatics) is still very narrow and even terminologically unclear.

Preliminary critical analysis of the above opinions of the authors of various scientific papers on this issue gives ground to state that the overwhelming majority of scientists (Dido, 2016; Malykh, 2009; Chibisova, 2009 and more) refer to and rely on the interpretation of a phrasal verb given in Povey's *Phrasal Verbs And How To Use Them*, where the researcher listed the most important, in her opinion, characteristics of a phrasal verb (Povey, 1990: 8–11), which include: 1) mandatory phrasal verb transformation to a simple verb, 2) idiomaticity, 3) ability to form passive constructs (so called *passivization*), and 4) ability to create interrogative pronoun forms such as *who(m) or what* rather than adverb forms such as *where*.

Jane Povey deduces such characteristics (which, from our standpoint, cannot be ontologically exhaustive for identification of its grammatical and semantic nature) from her own definition of a phrasal verb, which is reproduced in numerous recent articles and theses and which she understands as “a combination of a simple verb (*come, put, go, etc.*) and adverbial postword (*in, off, up, etc.*), which constitute / form a single semantic and syntactic unit” (Povey, 1990: 4). But such explanation still rightfully causes criticism from linguists (Chibisova, 2009: 179), which, in its turn, does not contain sufficiently convincing arguments, being limited to questions to the author such as: *Is it possible to consider the combinations defined by Jane Povey as **phrasal verbs** based on suggested characteristics as none of them is completely reliable – among a large number of such constructs and their variants, there are numerous exceptions* (Malykh, 2009: 106).

Indeed, combinations of verbs that are considered as phrasal is a separate issue. Particularly, such combinations (see (Yatskovich, 2000)) include both actual phrasal verbs (constructs similar to verb + particle / postverb / postpositive, etc. as a conditional term) and constructs such as verb + verb (*make do*), verb + preposition (*dispose of*), verb + particle + preposition (*put up with*), which only emphasizes terminological confusion. Despite lengthy discussion, the issue remains open to date.

In recent articles (Yatskovich, 2000), attempts are increasingly made to assign a phraseological status to phrasal verbs, i. e. to consider them in the context of phrasal constructs consisting of verbs and postverbs (specific construct that is neither an adverb nor a preposition), and the above examples of verb + other components combination are suggested to be differentiated based on their *idiomaticity* (actual phrasal verbs) / *non-idiomaticity* (not phrasal verbs). Such criterion is also suggested by Povey (see above).

One should agree that English phrasal verbs are idioms but cannot be reasonably classified as phraseological constructs – most of them are formed based on cognitive process of metaphorization rather than actual phraseologization (as demonstrated below). Therefore, we support the idea that it is still difficult to draw a clear line between actual phrasal verbs, phraseologisms, on the one hand, and verbs with “pure” adverbs and prepositions, on the other hand.

We will try to demonstrate our view and give answer to this question after a critical review of the papers that discuss the matters related to the issue, which were formulated above. Particularly, we will demonstrate the scientific aspect of our own considerations.

Convincing arguments for the formulation of optimal well-founded definition of a phrasal verb lie in such scientific fields as combinatorial syntagmatics and conceptual integration theories, in terms of which one should consider the mechanisms of combining the verb and its components as a cognitive and semantic complex, which is a fragment of English native speakers' matrix format knowledge regarding the situation / fragment of reality represented by such complex.

To this end, the primary task is to analyze the scientists' views before trying to understand and terminologically interpret the second component added to the verb, such views currently being inconsistent and not unanimous. In this context, consider rightful Paliy's assumptions (see *Verbs With Postpositive Components, On And Off. In Modern English*, Donetsk, 2008), which claim uncertainty of the nature of verbal postpositive component, its categorical status and complicated semantic structure.

4. Categorical Status and Cognitive- Semantic Gist of Post-Positive Component.

First of all, two issues are still disputable: 1) terminological designation of the second component and 2) its morphological essence. In the above paper, Paliy, following Amosova (Amosova, 1963), calls the element attached to the verb a *postpositive component* as compared with different adjacent and synonymous doublets such as *adverbial postposition* (Anichkov (1947)), *prepositional adverb* (Berlizon, 1954; Karyagina, 1977), *adverbial particle* (Zilberman, 1955; Povey, 1990), *particle* (Linder, 1983); *postverb* (Dukhon, 1983), *postpositive prefix* (Zhluhtenko, 1954), *verb-adverb complex* (Voskres, 2014), etc. and defines it as "a postverb component, which, due to the weakening of its adverbial function, forms more or less stable semantic and syntactic combinations with verbs" (Paliy, 2008). However, new papers, the ideas of which are based on Linder and her followers' papers, try to persuade us that such repeatedly replicated and somewhat obsolete understanding of postpositive component does not contribute to answering the above two issues. In her thesis, Paliy, unfortunately, analyzes its superficial nature reduced to word-building and semantic essence of the phrasal verb in general, etc. rather than its cognitive essence.

Indeed, phrasal verb definition in Petrovich's paper (*Cognitive Basis For The Formation Of New Phrasal Verbs In Contemporary English*, Kalinigrad (2004)) is sound and enables to comprehend the ontological nature of the postpositive component – phrasal verb is defined as a derivative unit (secondary nomination product), the semantics of which is based on interaction of conceptual structures of the verb and the particle. In such case, phrasal verb is a special compositional or integrative construct with a specific type of meaning (as defined by Kubryakova), which is not completely reduced to the meaning of its parts (Petrovich, 2004: 6-7) (it is not about weakening, particularly, of the functions of the second component – *our clarification* – N. B.), but is constructed according to Langacker's cognitive grammar laws.

Obviously, the simplified vision of grammatical and semantic essence of the phrasal verb complex caused a discussion problem, which scientists have tried to solve according traditional compatibility theory, which later developed as an individual field of combinatorial syntagmatics. Key elements of the theory are as follows.

In the times of classical structural linguistics, the issues of linguistic signs combinatorics, according to Vlavaczkaya, were researched in terms of syntagmatics / actual connectivity theory, which included the analysis of linear relations between linguistic signs. Back then (in the middle of the XX century), the linguists understood that the study of syntagmatic structure of a language should become an individual area of language studies, which will directly cover the rules of language units' combination depending on the given meaning (Vlavaczkaya, 2013: 3).

Without going into detailed history of development of the above theory, note that after lengthy discussions about valency as a key term of syntagmatics, mainly associated with Tesnière, who defined it as verbs' connectivity rules based on their ability and possibility to attach a certain number of actants (Tesnière, 1988), the term is now considered as the words' paradigmatic and semantic ability to form valence bonds with other components in a sentence – not only with verbs. In his theory, Tesnière considered sentences as an implementation of syntactic valency of words but still emphasized the key role of predicate in a sentence. And in this regard, his standpoint regarding the valence partially coincides with Katsnelson's position, who also considered the incompleteness of a statement in the context of predicate verb (Korolyova, 2018).

The most promising and optimal definition of valency was suggested by Boguslavsky, implicitly reflecting its connections and relations with the context of a statement. "Valency, as noted by Boguslavsky, is the ability of word L to describe a situation with participant X [...]. Accordingly, a word has as many valencies as the number of participants (semantic actants) of the situation that shall be described to fully interpret its meaning" (Boguslavsky, 1996).

The represented view on the essence of valency suggests that, in a broad sense, it is about a cognitive character of category that reflects native speaker's ability to connect certain linguistic units in a particular communication situation, which is called the regular context, or the environment (Ispiryan, 2012: 75). To that end, the context is understood as a verbal environment of a linguistic unit, which is now associated with the concept of *distribution* rather than valency when considering various connections of a word with other words (see Kochergan, *Word and Context*) in a particular communication situation.

The issue of phrasal verbs and verb connections with the second component became an individual aspect of this trend in English. The issue of nature of connection between the components, reflecting either their analytically verbal or syntactic essence, caused lively discussion.

Scientists who defended the functional equivalence of phrasal verbs with individual analytical words (Anichkov, 1992; Zhluktenko, 1954; Nikolenko, 1999; Smith, 1998, etc.) believed that postpositive component is a word-building element that modifies or radically changes the meaning of the source verb. Meanwhile, the opposite vision was stated by researchers who considered the second component as an adverb or preposition (Arnold, 1985; Gursky, 1975; Smirnitsky, 1998, etc.), and the status of the entire verbal complex as a verb-adverb or, respectively, verb-preposition construct with varying degree of compatibility and, naturally, valent or distributive connections.

Well-founded are the opinions of supporters of the first standpoint, which gave priority importance to the postpositive component as such (although they erroneously considered phrasal verbs as analytical words rather than combinations of two independent components), which radically changes the meaning of the verb associated with the postpositive component – we believe it has more abstract semantics and actualizes new meanings of a verb with more specific semantics (e.g., the verbs reflecting emotional states of a human). At the same time, the significance of the theory of adherents of the second approach lied in the fact that they attempted to solve the problem of connectivity / syntagmatics (valency / distributivity) of both components of a verb phrase. We believe that results of studies of supporters of both approaches have gradually raised the question of exact scheme of interaction between the components of complex units of different order such as phrasal verbs.

4. Theory of Conceptual Integration and Its Role in Revealing the Mechanisms of Phrasal Verbs Formation.

At the beginning of the XXI century, scientists initiated the study of this issue in the context of the theory of conceptual integration (Kubryakova, 2004; Fauconnier, Turner, 2002; Sweetser, 2000, etc.), which is considered to be one of the most common cognitive operations, where source connected mental spaces (actual verb as a structure describing the situation and postpositive component with its spatial semantics) create a new integrated structure that develops according to own laws (Petrova, 2004: 5), that is according to cognitive grammar.

Langacker's cognitive grammar theory states that description of any item or situation is determined by native speaker's choice of certain parameters (e.g., the level of specification, definition of certain component as a part of the whole, etc.) and the designation that best describes such choice. Therefore, linguistic signs are essential as constructs that give access to various conceptual structures of consciousness, activating their individual parts necessary for understanding of the meaning of name/expression and its adequate interpretation rather than names / designations of respective situations. In terms of cognitive grammar, this process involves profile superimposition over the base (Petrova, 2004: 14). In such case, the base is a

conceptual matrix consisting of comprehensive set of respective cognitive structures and the profile is the base structure (Langacker, 1988), which is actualized with a phrasal verb. Therefore, the function of both components of a compositionally complex linguistic unit, or, according to our terminology, a cognitive and semantic complex (a phrasal verb), lies in profiling (Langacker, 1991), or cognitive emission (Kucher, 2015), of certain aspects of the situation described by this construct, which contributes to formation of new properties that none of the components (neither a verb nor a postpositive component) could describe / designate separately.

Such direction of phrasal verbs study was first suggested in the 80s by Lindner, who considered phrasal verb as a construct encoding the entire integrated scene. Each component of such construct emits certain aspects of the scene (Lindner, 1983: 251). Phrasal verb as a combination of two equally important components superimposed on each other is the result of formation of a new meaning. Lindner rejects standpoints and taxonomies of phrasal verbs where the postpositive component, which Lindner calls a particle, seemingly does not have own meaning. She believes that phrasal verb particles always encode certain semantic component of such verbs. Moreover, individual phrasal verbs (semi-idiomatic) should be analyzed based on the meaning of particles rather than verbal elements, because the former have more general (abstract) meaning which is further specified through the semantic range of respective verbs.

The scholar suggests to consider the meaning of a particle within phrasal verbs as a set of certain interrelated meanings and their generalizations (schemes) that have something in common with specific verbal meanings but are more abstract. The meaning of a particle sets a series of configurations with a verb – from direct meaning to figurative, typically metaphorical.

Let us give examples from the paper of Petrovich's, who analysed Pamela Morgan's cognitive metaphorical approach (Morgan, 1997: 345) to identification of the essence of a particle within a phrasal verb and metaphorization of the entire cognitive and semantic phrasal verb complex.

The phrasal verb, *figure out*, is the result of four metaphorization processes. Firstly, the verb, *to figure* (which means "to manipulate numbers") derived from the noun using metonymy acquires more abstract meaning "to reach a solution by thinking", using conventional metaphor that conceptualizes thinking as a form of calculation. Secondly, the direct meaning of postpositive, *out* ("not within the boundaries of a container"), is extended and now correlates, in the minds of native speakers, with things that are pictured / conceptualized as a container. Thirdly, from these two sources of domains – directly from the verb, *to figure*, using conceptual metaphor THINKING IS CALCULATING, and the postpositive component, *out*, using conceptual metaphor A PROBLEM IS A LOCKED CONTAINER – a newly created phrasal verb, *to figure out*, gives the target domain the meaning: "to make a solution cognitively accessible by thinking". As a result, the phrasal verb, *to figure out*, becomes an integrated construct (in our terminology, a *cognitive and semantic complex* – *N. B.*) both cognitivosemantically and syntactically. And, finally, fourthly, conceptual metaphor KNOWING IS SEEING (based on metaphor INACCESSIBLE IS OUT / VISIBLE IS IN) is activated, forming the content of the phrase, *to figure out a solution* ("causing smth to be known by thinking about it" (Petrovich, 2004: 25).

It is what the matrix format of phrasal verb lies in; such format can be reconstructed with mechanisms of conceptual integration of mental spaces, which, as shown by the previous example, are organised using cognitive models. The model of conceptual integration of phrasal verb includes two source mental spaces – the space of the verb, *to figure*, and the space of the postpositive component, *out*, between which there is a cognitive operation involving connection of elements of both structures based on similarity and analogy (Fauconnier, Turner, 2003). In the cognitive metaphor theory, such cognitive operation is called mapping (Lakoff (1995) et al.) and in the theory of classical verb syntagmatics, such complicated mechanism of mapping, or conceptual integration, was attempted to be explained through ready-made morphological and

semanticsyntactic configurations of adverbial or prepositional component and the verb, that is strictly linguistically rather than cognitively.

Common conceptual features of the verb and the postpositive component combining the source mental spaces are projected in so-called generative space based on a complex cognitive and combinatorial syntagmatic mechanism. During conceptual integration, a new model of generative space is transferred to each of the models of initial mental spaces, ensuring structural coherence of their elements. It is followed by selective integration of structures and elements of source models to create a new space, the blend, which results in the integrated structure (in our case, the phrasal verb) with a new meaning. A new meaning (new structure of consciousness) is created using three cognitive operations: 1) combination of elements of source mental spaces and establishing relations / connections between them; 2) formation of new background conceptual structures and their reflection in the native speakers' minds; 3) comprehension / interpretation of the new structure. G. Fauconnier and Turner note that the above operations are performed instantly, which means that their sequence is a rather conditional scientific explanation of conceptual integration phenomenon (Fauconnier, Turner, 2003).

Integrated mental spaces reflect one of the fundamental properties of human thinking and language – ability to combine language signs in a particular situation of their use based on cognitivogrammatical and lexicosemantic connections of the components of newly created language constructs as a result of structuring of the experience represented in their meanings.

This reasons our assumption that English phrasal verbs are cognitive and semantic complexes representing a certain fragment of matrix format multidimensional knowledge (structured experience).

As a result of interaction of conceptual structure of the verb and the postpositive component, a new conceptual structure is created, absent in source mental spaces of each of the components. During conceptual integration, the connections between the blend (a new meaning of verb phrase complex) and the generative space and between the blend and source mental spaces are maintained. A phrasal verb becomes the linguistic fixation of new conceptual structure and the resulting blend is a new construct of the situation.

Conceptual integration creates a cognitive and semantic complex of verb and postpositive component (consisting of two structures: 1) new meaning of phrasal verb and 2) combination of verb and postpositive component) due to generation of new knowledge apprehensible to English native speakers.

5. Conclusions.

To summarize, note that the process of English phrasal verbs formation can be reconstructed based on conceptual integration theory. It is reduced to the formation of a blend (new meaning of phrasal verb) during conceptual integration of source mental space of both the verb and the postpositive component. Elements of source spaces and relations that connect them are projected by metaphorical selection. Specific feature of phrasal verbs formation is that categorical meaning of the verb is always projected in the blend from the verb's source space, which becomes the basis of the blend structure. The blend, that is a phrasal verb, as a new combinatorial structure, is not copied entirely from source spaces but is generated by combining projections from source spaces, background knowledge of English native speakers and mental reflection of the fragment of reality designated by the construct in their minds. Therefore, there is a cognitive and semantic construct: *verb + postpositive component* in English, which reflects certain grammatical scheme of conceptually combinatorial design of phrasal constructs. This process, as well as entire mechanism of conceptual integration, is both innovative and conservative. Its innovativeness lies in selective metaphorical projection of conceptual structure from initial spaces and the action of involving the background knowledge, while the conservativeness is in formally grammatical expression of phrasal construct according to English grammar.

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Анотація

У статті пропонується новий підхід до вивчення фразових дієслів англійської мови, що наразі активно розробляється представниками когнітивної синтагматики. Спираючись на праці, виконані в рамках цього напрямку, уточнено визначення фразових дієслів як когнітивно-семантичних комплексів, які відображають / описують певний фрагмент багатовимірної знання матричного формату. Особливу увагу приділено критичному аналізу поглядів учених на проблему другого компонента цих утворень, які й донині не є однозначними як у плані обговорення виконуваних ними функцій у складі фразових дієслів, так і щодо їх морфологічної природи і у зв'язку з цим термінологічного позначення.

Зроблено припущення, що семантика фразових дієслів твориться при взаємодії концептуальних структур як власне дієслова, так і його другого компонента, де саме абстрактне значення останнього дає широкі можливості для випромінювання нових значень. У такому разі функція обох компонентів композиційно складної мовної одиниці або когнітивно-семантичного комплексу, яким є фразове дієслово, полягає у профілюванні певних аспектів описуваної цим утворенням ситуації, що сприяє появі тих нових властивостей, які жоден із компонентів: ані дієслово, ані постпозитивний компонент не міг би описати / позначити окремо.

Доведено, що для англійської мови є характерною когнітивно-семантична конструкція "дієслово + постпозитивний компонент", яка відображає певну граматичну схему комбінаторного конструювання фразових утворень на основі механізмів концептуальної інтеграції, коли шляхом метафоричної селекції вихідного ментального простору дієслова і вихідного простору постпозитивного компонента утворюється новий бленд – нова концептуальна структура, відсутня у вихідних ментальних просторах кожного з компонентів.

Ключові слова: фразові дієслова, когнітивно-семантичний комплекс, постпозитивний компонент, матричний формат, концептуальна інтеграція.

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CONTRASTIVE PARAMETERISATION OF THE INTERVIEW AS A GENRE OF BRITISH AND UKRAINIAN MEDIA SPACES

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Abstract

This typological study presents a contrastive parameterisation of the dialogue in the form of the interview within modern British and Ukrainian media spaces. It has proved to be effective if conducted as a complex investigation facilitated by the achievements of Comparative, Structural, Cognitive and Communicative Linguistics. The parameterisation of the dialogue is seen as a polyparadigm methodological procedure of decomposition and taxonomy of the dialogue systems within the British and Ukrainian lingual cultures. A definite discourse practice is considered to form with the help of mode, genesis and genre filtering. In general, the first one results in oral or written practices, the second reveals itself in natural everyday and social (everyday and political) varieties, and the latter shapes primary and derivative genres of the dialogue. All these use the language and speech means of their own to embody themselves in the appropriate surface forms. In the framework of the created theoretical platform the interview is defined as an oral derivative genre of the socio-political dialogical interaction between the journalist and the respondent. This talk is both personal and institutional; it unfolds itself in a "question – answer" form and aims at generating facts, ideas and opinions stirring up public interest.

The parameterisation of the interview has embraced its ontological, structural, lexical, syntactical, lingo-cognitive, non-verbal and communicative-pragmatic facets. It has become clear that within both British and Ukrainian media spaces the TV interview incorporates the same intrinsic features and composition. This results from the uniformity of the Action and Possession Frame networks that shape the conceptual bases of the interview – the INTERVIEW / IHTEPB'IO concepts – in the discourse spaces under analysis. The salient features of the British and Ukrainian interviews are the abundant use of terminology, preference for simple sentences as well as prevalent stylistic employment of homogeneous parts of the sentence and repetition. The ethnic varieties of the interaction are both of cooperative nature, but the Ukrainian one is more emotion saturated and apt to reveal its collaborative character than the British one.

Keywords: communication, dialogue, interview, parameterisation, mode, genesis, genre, lingual culture.

1. Introduction.

Modern contrastive explorations held in the framework of cognitive-discursive paradigm continue to deal with different aspects of communication and discourse. Among the other phenomena of social and psychological existence of the person, they focus on the dialogue looking into its multiple facets (Antaki, 2008; Langlotz, 2015; Linell, 2015; Norrick, 2016; Robinson, 2014, etc.).

The dialogue exists as an invariable and embodies itself in all sorts of dialogues within ethnic lingual cultures. Such dichotomy between the cognitive model and its specific representations in discourse reveals itself in the ability of the members of the society to contact each other and create an interactive space of mutual intelligibility, which provides the background for pursuing individual or common communicative and objective goals. It also manifests itself in different kinds of the dialogue embodied in various situations of everyday and institutional interaction. The above mentioned brings up the necessity for parameterisation of the ethnic varieties of the dialogue (Bergqvist, Kittilä, 2017; Jakubowska-Branicka, 2014; Mallinson, 2011; Nitoiu, Tomic, 2015; Reiter, Kádár, 2015; Reuzel, 2013; Shatalova, Vararut, 2014; Wodak, Meyer, 2015, etc.). It may be useful for both theoretical and practical purposes, particularly for the purpose of specifying common and distinctive features of the dialogue kinds and genres as well as establishing the guidelines for cross-cultural communication.

2. Aim and Objectives.

The study is devoted to the parameterisation of the interview, a dialogue genre usually transmitted by mass media and aiming at the mass addressee (Apalat, 2013; Ipatova, Rogozin, 2014; Linell, Keselman, 2012; Maier, 1976; Mann, 2010; Mel'nik, 2008; Tomaschuk, 2015, etc.), which plays an important part in the social interaction of the British and Ukrainian communities (Denyskina, 2005; Djakiv, 2018; Kochubej, 2015, etc.). To achieve the goal set it was necessary to accomplish a number of objectives: to define the terms "dialogue", "interview", "parameterisation" in the framework of modern linguistics; to establish the intentional component of the interview; to conduct an ontological, structural, linguo-cognitive, lexical, syntactical, stylistic, non-verbal and lingo-pragmatic contrastive parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian interview.

In linguistics, parameterisation is generally viewed as a process of formation and verbalization of the parts of national pictures of the world represented by different language units (Boldyrev, 2000: 92–93; Dem'jankov, 1996: 118–121; Kuzina, 2010: 194; Mallinson, 2011: 88–89; Yule, 2006: 66–105). This process is triggered by the basic mechanism of a person's constant cognitive orientation in the objective-reality and social environments. The cognition of their fragments takes place and the number of their parameters tends to increase due to the regular satisfaction of the basic human need to possess up-to-date information (Langlotz, 2015: 84–91; Preston, 18: 2017). Thus, specific parametric pictures of the world are distinguished. They superimpose on the conceptual linguocultural fields and discretise them in a nationally predetermined way (Dem'jankov, 1996: 120; Fillmore, 2003: 250; Jakubowska-Branicka, 2014: 30–31; Shatalova, Vararut, 2014: 210–213; Zhabotynskaja, 2009: 3–4).

We believe the parameterisation of the dialogue by ethnic community to account for a standard set of different language and non-verbal elements used in this or that personal or institutional interaction. Such language and speech differentiation results in various dialogical types and genres creation. The dialogue is viewed as a universal complex dynamic cognitive-communicative-discourse construct that finds its realization in different social situations of information exchange between language speakers and gets its cultural colouring in discourse practices of ethnic lingual communities (Borysov, 2017: 7). Thus, the dialogue

parameterisation as a linguistic method helps to model its national varieties of realization, define their intrinsic features, elaborate a scheme of these interactions and find out the means of their different stages running (Hisamova, 2013; Kuzina, 2010; Vorozhbitova, Potapenko, 2013, etc.).

The topicality of the article is determined by the general anthropocentric character of modern linguistics and substantiated by consideration of the dialogue and its types as an indispensable part of both individual and social being of the person and lingual community. That leads to understanding that such a complex and multifaceted object should be studied first and foremost in the perspective of cognitive-discourse studies theory and methodology. This scientific research is connected with such topical problems of modern linguistic science as the investigation of people's communicative activity in various everyday institutional and personal situations, highlighting discourses with intentional meanings, categorization and conceptualization of dialogical interactions with the establishment of typical verbal and non-verbal means of their ethnic realization.

Thus, our investigation has been conducted with the help of the general scientific methods of induction, deduction, synthesis and analysis as well as such specific linguistic methods as parameterisation, the componential and conceptual analyses of the meanings of the lexemes that denote the interview in English and Ukrainian.

Besides, we used linguopragmatic analysis aimed at establishing typical speech acts, strategies and tactics used by interlocutors, the method of statistics to get the objective results of this or that unit frequency followed by the descriptive method, and contrastive analysis for establishing allomorphic and isomorphic features of the genre within British and Ukrainian ethnic media spaces.

3. The Essence and Principles of Dialogue Parameterisation.

In the study, the parameterisation of the dialogue is a methodological procedure of decomposition and taxonomy of the dialogue systems within the discourse spaces of British and Ukrainian cultures. The term has got the new meaning within a cognitive-discourse paradigm (Dem'jankov, 1996: 118), which treats the language as a system of human cognition. This means that the dialogue parameterisation presupposes not only its taxonomy according to the language strata, which enables the researcher to establish its morphological, lexical and syntactical features, but also reveals the relations that make the language a system. The language used by native speakers taking part in discourse practices is constrained by the type of interaction, namely the mode (oral or written), genesis (natural everyday or social (everyday or political) varieties) and genre (primary or derivative) (Borysov, 2017: 27). Such complex comparative scrutiny of different ethnic varieties of the dialogue turns parameterisation into an important tool that provides an opportunity to determine the diagnostic properties of genres and their ethnic markers in British and Ukrainian discourse practices.

We believe the parameterisation method to be in accordance with the very nature of the dialogue as a structured, operational, cognitive, verbal and non-verbal, interactional and synergetic system. It is because each time the dialogue as a universal cognitive model stored in the human's mind embodies itself in a definite discourse practice, it undergoes parameterisation in accordance with language code used. In particular, the language means used to embody the ideas constrain the fragmentation of the data whole into pieces of information able to become the meanings of the words and idioms we use. Thus, parameterisation as a method of scientific investigation is in tune with the "natural" parameterisation as a cognitive process engaged in communication. In this paper the peculiarities of parameterisation of the interview as a communicative event are considered.

4. The Parameterisation of the Interview.

The contrastive parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian interview embraces ontological, structural, lingo-cognitive, lexical, syntactical, stylistic, non-verbal and lingo-pragmatic dimensions.

4.1. Ontological Parametrisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The ontological parameterisation of the interview presupposes the identification of the intrinsic features that differentiate this genre from the others and provide the ground for singling out its different types. In the British and Ukrainian media spaces the interview genre shapes the instances of public inquiries about professional or personal issues aiming to present a piece of hot news and influence public opinion (Denyskina, 2005; Djakiv, 2018; Kochubej, 2015, etc.).

The first lexico-semantic variant (LSV) of the lexeme *interview* represents the interview as “a conversation between a journalist or radio or television presenter and a person of public interest, used as the basis of a broadcast or publication”. This definition is a basic one if one deals with mass media communication as the other variants demonstrate other references, e.g. LSV2: “An oral examination of an applicant for a job, college place, etc.” (Interview. 2018 URL: <https://en.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/interview>). In Ukrainian the interview as a media communicative event is also presented by the LSV1 of the lexeme: “Призначена для опублікування в пресі, передачі по радіо, телебаченню розмова журналіста з політичним, громадським або яким-небудь іншим діячем”, whereas it is the result of the dialogue that is stored in its LSV2: “Газетна стаття або передача по радіо, телебаченню, що містить виклад такої розмови” (Interv'ju. 2018 URL: <http://sum.in.ua/s/interv.ju>).

The main common feature of the key definitions is that the interview is understood as a ‘conversation’ / ‘розмова’. The other isomorphic features are presented by the semes ‘journalist’ / ‘журналіст’, that give the profession of the person who conducts the interview. The difference lies in the additional semes a ‘radio presenter’ / ‘television presenter’ that serve as differential semes of the equal rank to the parameter ‘journalist’ being absent from the Ukrainian definition. These semes, however, together with the component ‘publication’ correlate with the Ukrainian ‘преса’, ‘радіо’, ‘телебачення’ which testifies to the fact that these dialogues are used as a means of mass influence by the mentioned media. The features that differentiate the meanings of the units compared are the attributive semes ‘of public interest’ / ‘політичний’, ‘громадський’, ‘який-небудь інший’ that capture the characteristics of the respondent presented by the semes ‘person’ / ‘діяч’. In its turn, ‘діяч’ turns out to be a complex seme consisting of the components ‘person’ and ‘активний’ and ‘енергійний’.

The componential analysis proves the fact that the British and Ukrainians parameterise the interview on the basis of the conversation, an oral and natural for everyday life dialogical genre, and consider it to be a part of the institutional discourse. The formal character of such a conversation is revealed in the following. The communicative roles of the interlocutors are set and functionally predetermined: the journalist produces a number of questions and the respondent produces the answers. So it is the interviewer who generally conducts the interviewee. Being the guest of the studio, the latter has to obey a suggested scenario, which is not typical of a natural everyday interaction (Apalat, 2013: 36; Langlotz, 2015: 16; Mel'nik, 2008: 128). The situation in which a huge amount of specific personal information emerges under such a “social pressure” in no time can be classified as a highly asymmetrical communicative event (Linell, Keselman, 2012: 160). While communicating, the participants tend to cling to the literary language norm as the situation of interaction is official. Its institutional nature is also determined by the complicity of the issue discussed, set time

limits, recording equipment, indirect address to the target audience and. Nonetheless, personal discourse elements are the components of this genre too. They are the intonation of natural excitement not peculiar of the even speech tones of interlocutors, the usage of colloquial elements, rhetorical questions and questions to the interviewer asked when an exchange of communicative roles takes place: G. Anderson: *What roles of women particularly were amazing this year?* Z. Ball: *Well, that was Key Benchers that was amazing! Oh, what are great roles that are played by women?* (Bafta, 2014) and М. Княжицький: *А зараз Ви з кимось листуєтесь?..* О. Забужко: *Ну, хто вже зараз пише листи такі, як писалися раніше?* (TVi, 2011, March 11).

This enables us to present a media interview as an institutional conversation (mingled with the elements of the personal discourse) between the journalist and respondent in the “question-answer” form in order to get facts, ideas and opinions that are of some social interest. The parameters of the mode, genesis and genre create a basis for qualifying the interview as an oral sociopolitical derivative dialogical genre.

The next step of the interview parameterisation is the establishing of typology of its subgenres based on a number of various features. The parameter *the channel of information transmission* results in division of the interviews into *audio* (TV, the radio, the phone) and *visual* (the Internet, the press) (Apalat, 2013: 35; Ipatova, Rogozin, 2014: 21–22). We define the printed interviews as *derivative* ones as opposite to the *primary* broadcast by TV and Internet technologies. The criterion of *spontaneity* helps to classify interviews as *formalized* (which means the compliance with the plan) and *non-formalized* (depending upon the situation, introduction of new topics, etc.) (Mel'nik, 2008: 124). A set of other criteria enable the linguists to distinguish *free*, *analytical*, *qualitative*, *thematic* as well as *portrait*, *protocol*, *problem* interviews (Denyskina, 2005: 3; Mann, 2010: 6–7; Mel'nik, 2008: 100–102). Together with it, we created a new typology based on the *functional* parameter. We distinguish the *information* (an event highlighting), *problem* (a discussion of some problem or phenomenon of public interest) and *portrait* (a conversation with a famous personality aiming at revealing some facts of their personal life) *interview*, which can be found in both ethnic media spaces.

4.2. Structural Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The British and Ukrainian interviews under analysis reveal the same structural components. They correspond to the subsequent stages of the interview unfolding. The first phase is *the beginning*. Its purpose is to break the ice between the interviewer and interviewee; the journalist creates a positive psychological climate in the studio, introduces the respondent and the topic / problem planned to be discussed, e.g. D. Frost: *We'll join some of the key individuals of the present day ... and now as promised... Good morning, Elton!* E. John: *Good morning, Dave!* (EltonStuff, 2013) and В. Гайдукевич: *А поговорити ми будемо з людьми, які були там і можуть висловити свою позицію щодо цієї події. Активіст громадянського руху “Спільна справа” Сергій Тищенко* (TVi, 2013, February 21). This stage is of high importance for the whole interview and to get the most from it the host ideally should produce some facts from the biography of the guest followed by their positive evaluation.

The second phase is the *body of the interview*, its information nucleus, in which the topic unfolds and facts, views, ideas are presented, e.g. D. Cameron: *Well, you know all the forecasters are forecasting growth for this year, but frankly the job of the government is not to sit back and hope that happens. The job of the government is to roll up its sleeves and do everything possible to help businesses to do that* (Crane, 2012) and І. Луценко: *ці два роки розлуки, два роки між тюрмою, домом і судом, такий цей бермудський трикутник, дали можливість все-таки зрозуміти, що найцінніше – це сім'я* (TVi, 2013, April 8).

The success of the whole interview depends upon this phase. The aim of the journalist is to lead the dialogue in order to produce a desired impact on the target audience.

The third stage is the *end of the interview*. It's meant for making conclusions, expressing gratitude and warm wishes before the dialogical contact is over, e.g. J. Vine: *Chuka Umunna, Shadow Business Secretary, thank you very much indeed!* C. Umunna: *Thank you!* (Phelps, 2013) and М. Княжицький: *Дякуємо, що Ви до нас прийшли!* О. Забужко [smiles]: *До побачення!* (TVi, 2011, March 11). Thus, each interview phase has got a purpose of its own but the main one is to get necessary opinions and to influence mass audience in order to form the planned thoughts and attitudes.

4.3. Cognitive Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The investigation of the dialogical interaction peculiarities can't avoid the reconstruction of socially and culturally relevant conceptual models structured as frames used in the lingual culture (Croft, 2004; Fillmore, 2003; Fodor, 1998; Minsky, 1983; Zhabotynskaja, 2009, etc.). Frames are multidimensional conceptual schemas storing declarative and procedural knowledge of typical situations of personal interaction. They are responsible for orientation within prototypical events as they facilitate an adequate interpretation of other people's behavior, which is necessary for planning what to do in a definite environment (Goffman, 1974: 81–82; Jakubowska-Branicka, 2014: 32; Yule, 2006: 13).

To elaborate the conceptual models of dialogical genres we use a system of basic frames: the Thing Frame, the Action Frame, the Possession Frame, the Identification Frame, and the Comparison Frame (Zhabotynskaja, 2009) that capture the relations between the reality objects (Bergqvist, Kittilä, 2017: 21). There are two steps of the analysis. The language data analysis gives the ground for invariant interview frame modelling. It analyses the definitions of the words *interview* and *інтерв'ю* presented in the dictionaries. The analysis of interviews that have taken place within the British and Ukrainian discourse spaces lets us expand the models and present contextual details.

The conceptual analysis of the definitions of the *interview* and *інтерв'ю* revealed the following. The meanings of these language units are based on the common Action-Possession conceptual model that determines the organizational, regulative and dynamic peculiarities of interaction (Borysov, 2017: 8). The frames of the concepts *INTERVIEW* / *ІНТЕРВ'Ю* possess an isomorphic form:

[[THERE-place / THEN-time] SOMEBODY /SB/1,2-agent [is SUCH-quality] acts SO1 (*verbally/formally*) [*with* SOMETHING /STH/1,2-instrument [is SUCH]] *upon / for* SB2,1-patient/benefactor [is [THAT MANY-quantity] SUCH] *because of* STH2-goal].

The proposition [SB2,1-affected/patient/benefactor [is THAT MANY (*two/more*) / SUCH] stores information about the *journalist* and *respondent* (SB1,2-agent) who interact *formally* (SO1) both for the sake (STH2-goal) of each other and other people (THAT MANY (*public*)) thus acquiring a set of new semantic roles (*patient / benefactor*). The proposition [*with* STH1,2-instrument is SUCH] contains the knowledge of the verbal character of communication (*words*) and the medium that delivers the news (*press / TV / radio*). This proposition together with the slots THERE / THEN is important in several aspects: 1) it implies that the target audience is at some distance and get the news later than the interlocutors who communicate face-to-face; 2) this communication with the public is indirect; 3) the professional type of the interviewer is revealed. Allomorphic is the fact that slot SUCH of the frame *ІНТЕРВ'Ю* is more information saturated than the corresponding one of the *INTERVIEW*. It gives the information about the type of SB2-agent (*respondent*) and their characteristics (*політичний, громадський, який-небудь інший; активний, енергійний*).

The study of the videomaterials has contributed to the expansion of the common frame network *INTERVIEW / ІНТЕРВ'Ю*. The slots *THERE / THEN* become more elaborated as the time and place (e.g. the studio) of the interview is highlighted. The slot *SB2,1* gets a new semantic role (*SB2,1-affected*) as interlocutors can get emotionally excited during the interview. The number of participants is also increased when, for instance, two or more guests are invited (*THAT MANY (more than two)*). More than that, the semantic role of *owner* is activated as the partners have got some problem / problems to solve and topic / topics (*STH3-owned*) to discuss: [*SB1,2-owner has STH3-owned (problem) [is [THAT MANY] SUCH]*]. The success of the event is captured in the slot *SO2 (positively / negatively)*. The slot *SO1* (together with the slot *THERE*) is filled with the information absent from lexicographical sources, namely 1) non-verbal behavior of the interview participants (proxemics, phonetics, kinesics, tacesics, etc.), 2) the style of socio-political interaction (non-formal); 3) the intellectual efforts of the communicators made to find the necessary solutions or to develop the topic suggested.

The expanded frame of *INTERVIEW / ІНТЕРВ'Ю* possesses the isomorphic structure:

[[*THERE / THEN*] *SB-agent1,2* [*is SUCH-quality*] *acts SO1 (verbally / non-verbally; (non-) formally; intellectually) [with THAT MANY STH1,2-instrument [is SUCH]] upon / for SB2,1-affected/patient/benefactor/owner [[is [THAT MANY] SUCH] has STH3-owned (topic/ problem) [is [THAT MANY] SUCH] because of STH2-goal [SO2 (positively / negatively)]*]].

This model varies structurally and semantically in both cultures depending on the type of the interview, its topic, problems, etc.

4.4. Lexical Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The lexical aspect of parameterisation was discussed in detail in (Borisov, 2016: 17–18). In this paper only the most essential issues will be presented. So, the Ukrainian interview participants may employ the Russian language to express themselves clearer, more vividly or emotionally, specifically while producing a quotation referring to an original precedent text, e.g. О. Забужко: *Вони вийшли в люди як Проня Прокопівна, яка чотири місяці була в пансіоні і всі науки “превзошла”* (TVi, 2013, July 17). Allomorphic is the fact that language switching is not peculiar of the British.

A common feature of the British and Ukrainian interviews is the active usage of contact-establishing verbs that perform a metacommunicative function and contribute greatly to the coherence and speech etiquette of the interaction, e.g. *(you) know, let (me) listen, look* and *пробачте, перепрошую, бачите, розумієте*, e.g. D. Cameron: *Look, I'm in favour of people setting up great businesses in Britain* (Crane, 2012) and Є. Чечеринда: *От давайте про висування в президенту трошки пізніше* (TVi, 2013, August 5).

To characterize events, phenomena, situations and underline the ideas expressed both British and Ukrainian interlocutors are apt to employ: 1) evaluative adjectives of different degrees of comparison, e.g. C. Flint: *And, of course, our electricity pool will make that easier* (BBC, 2014) and М. Томенко: *Найбільша проблема трапилася в перші дні* (TVi, 2013, August 5), and 2) evaluative adverbs: М. Gove: *Yes, I think she's done a really good job!* (Leeves, 2009); J. Stirrup: *That's exactly right!* (BBC, 2010) and К. Бондаренко: *Тим більше, Москва чудово розуміє, що підписання Угоди...* (TVi, 2013, August 27); В. Брюховецький: *Ці тести... є абсолютно не досконалі* (TVi, 2013, July 31).

The usage of *stylistically colored vocabulary* is predetermined by the formal style of speech. The units found refer to two categories. The first group of words belong to the literary vocabulary; they are mostly *terms (meltdown, price freeze, private consumption / маржа, прайм-тайм, таблоїдизація* (Engl. 75,7% / Ukr. 64,4%)) and *bookish words (en masse, whilst / пролеткульт, штиблету* (Engl. 2% / Ukr. 7,4%)). Another group consists

of the *colloquial* vocabulary, namely *low colloquial* (*yeah, chunk, damned, gonna / люди добрі, прустібатися, прикольно* (Engl. 21% / Ukr. 27,1%)) and *slang* words (*crack/ to take crack, honcho / лох, мороз, бомба* (Engl. 1,3% / Ukr. 1,1%)). The literary vocabulary frequency is 5,9% higher in the British interviews (cf. 77,7% / 71,8%), while colloquialisms predominate in the Ukrainian ones (cf. 22,3% / 28,2%).

4.5. Syntactical Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

It is common for the media interview interlocutors of both cultures to use more *simple* sentences (Engl. 51,7% / Ukr. 57,2%) than the *composite* ones (Engl. 48,3% / Ukr. 42,8%), though this tendency is more vivid in the speech of Ukrainians. As for the types of syntactical structures *compound* sentences (Engl. 73,3%; Ukr. 86,9%) are commonly used in contrast to the *complex* ones (Engl. 26,7%; Ukr. 13,1%). The composite sentences are mostly used by the respondents who produce a lot of information and ground their thoughts thoroughly whereas the journalists widely use simple sentences as they try to formulate their questions as neatly as possible.

If the criterion the *purpose of the utterance* is taken into consideration, then the interview participants of both ethnic communities, naturally, mostly use declarative sentences (Engl. 81,2%; Ukr. 81,5%), while the percentage of the usage of interrogative ones is lower (Engl. 17,9%; Ukr. 15,7%), and that of imperative sentences is the lowest (Engl. 0,9%; Ukr. 2,8%). The Ukrainian dialogues are more emotion saturated if we speak of the number of *emotional utterances* in the dialogues (4,4%, cf.: Engl. 4,7% / Ukr. 9,1%).

The analysis of syntax *stylistics* revealed the following. The British interviews are characterized by more intensive usage of such stylistic elements, as 1) *repetition* (Engl. 23,6% / Ukr. 20,9%), e.g. J. Vine: *I mean just to be clear. Just to be very clear!* (BBC, 2014, May 19) and Т. Шевчук: *Мене всі там знають уже! І навіть більшість працівників "Беркуту" я бачила 25-го числа. Вони мене теж знають!* (TVi, 2013, February 21); 2) *detached constructions* (Engl. 18,1% / Ukr. 11,2%): Ch. Umunna: *But can I just say, you know, a word of caution here, we've got to be clear, of course we need a properly managed migration system* (Phelps, 2013) and І. Луценко: *Те, що це два роки тому вважалося важливим – боже, я цього не зробила! якісь справи по роботі, по фірмі, – це були інші пріоритети* (TVi, 2013, April 8).

This is also true of *emphatic sentences* in general (9,2%, cf. Engl. 23,6% / Ukr. 14,4%), though 1) *inversion* dominates in Ukrainian discourse (Engl. 2,8% / Ukr. 7%), e.g. C. Carlisle: *...and it definitely is a possibility!* (BBC, 2012) and В. Ярема: *Затримувати людей, які не вчинили адміністративного правопорушення, міліціонер не має права!* (TVi, 2013, February 21). The other components of emphatic sentences are 2) *lexical repetition* (cf. Engl. 11,8% / Ukr. 5,3%), e.g. D. Cameron: *What I think is wrong is pay going up and up and up when it's not commensurate with the success* (Crane, 2012) and М. Томенко: *...що це її хрест, який вона мусить нести, на собі нести* (TVi, 2013, August 5), and 3) *emphatic constructions proper* (Engl. 9% / Ukr. 2,1%): A. Marr: *That is quite a big chunk!* (BBC, 2014) and О. Забужко: *Ну, ніяк він не працює!* (TVi, 2013, July 17).

In its turn, the Ukrainian interview is marked by the usage of the following stylistic units, e.g. 1) *elliptical sentences* (Engl. 11,1% / Ukr. 17,6%): J. Stirrup: *Reductions in number of fast jet aircraft, reductions in numbers of ships, reductions in equipment within the army* (BBC, 2010) and Ю. Луценко: *Триста книжок прочитав!* (TVi, 2013, April 8); 2) *homogeneous parts of the sentence* (Engl. 18,8% / Ukr. 21,9%): C. Flint: *And some of our package around breaking up the generation supply, the pool, the regulator, that's not new* (BBC, 2014) and В. Гайдукевич: *Чи можуть вони як громадські активісти наступного разу ... прийти підготовленими – шоломи, налокітники, наколінники* (TVi, 2013,

February 21); 3) *parceling* (peculiar of Ukrainian speech only (1,6%)): І. Луценко: *І я відповіла коротко – я буду гордитися своїм чоловіком! І собою!* (TVi, 2013, April 8), and 4) *break-in-the-narrative* (Engl. 2,8% / Ukr. 10,2%): Е. Джон: *Well, I think, I don't know if it's going to be number one for Christmas but I think it will be number one this afternoon judging by the mid-week figures, so...* Д. Фрост: *I think all the people are going to rush into the shops at eleven a.m. this morning* (EltonStuff, 2013) and М. Барчук: *Двадцять років... двадцять років покоління міняється, і ми переживаємо те саме* (TVi, 2013, July 17).

The common feature is the same frequency of *rhetorical questions* (2,1%; 2,1%), e.g. А. Марр: *You won't? Okay* (BBC, 2014) and В. Єшкілев: *Бо що може бути жахливіше, ніж рожевий смартфон?* (TVi, 2013, December 16).

4.6. Non-verbal Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The peculiarities of non-verbal behaviour of the British and Ukrainian interview interlocutors are predetermined by the formal character of interaction and existing ethnic stereotypes. The British are more reserved socially (Miall, Milsted, 1999), than the Ukrainians who are more emotional in everyday situations (Denyskina, 2005); though in both cultures the participants demonstrate an unhurried way of behavior to prove the significance of the information presented. The looks of the partners are locked creating the sincerity of communication and genuineness of their words. The serious tone of conversation underlines the importance and truthfulness of both questions and answers. The speakers actively employ *logical* or *emphatic stress* to attract each other's attention, e.g. М. Гов: *And I think it's wrong to try to argue that this government is favouring one group of individuals over another in public appointments!* (Leeves, 2009) and М. Белкін: *Але так масово активістів, які не... ну, то, що я бачив!* (TVi, 2013, February 21).

The proxemics of the interaction, when the journalist and respondent are at some distance at the table, proves the official communication to take place. The typical modest and elegant clothes, make-up, hair-do that correspond to the simplicity and exquisiteness of the studio serve as a background for the positive perception of the information by the target audience.

4.7. Pragmatic Parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian Interviews.

The analysis of the *speech act* component of the British and Ukrainian interviews has established a general tendency towards the predominant usage of constatives (Engl. 82,6%; Ukr. 82,8%), as well as the minimal usage of performatives (Engl. 2,3%; Ukr. 1,6%) and promissives (Engl. 0,2%; Ukr. 0,5%), while menaces are completely absent. There is a slight difference in the activity of the quesetives (Engl. 14% / Ukr. 12,5%) and directives (Engl. 0,9% / Ukr. 2,6%) usage.

The study of the *strategic* line of communicative behavior of the interviewer and interviewee found out the following tendencies. In general, the Ukrainian interviews are more of a cooperation type (Engl. 79,3% / Ukr. 94,6%). During the interviews the British journalists implement more cooperative tactics than confrontational ones (Engl. 58,8% / Ukr. 41,2%), the fact concerns the respondents as well (Engl. 89,8% / Ukr. 10,2%). Similarly, both Ukrainian journalists (Engl. 92,1% / Ukr. 7,9%) and their guests (Engl. 94,6% / Ukr. 5,4%) involve more tactics of cooperation. The common feature of these conversations is that the scope of interviewee's tactics is larger than that of the journalist a little bit limited by the goal of getting new information. For instance, the interviewer has to use a number of such typical cooperation tactics, as the tactic of support and tactic of the opinion enhancement: В. Джонсон: *There's a billion pounds being lost...* А. Марр: *People are evading stamp duty by companies abroad* (Crane, 2012) and І. Луценко: *... протягом цих двох років пізнала його як мужнього чоловіка, як людину з величезною силою волі,*

втримки. І. Довгань: *Ви мусите дружину зрозуміти, бо коли жінка щаслива, її зупинити важко* (TVi, 2013, April 8), the tactics of agreement: С. Umunna: *We may have that important... very important symbiotic relationship*. J. Vine: *Hugely ... sensitive to the economy!* (Phelps, 2013) and О. Забужко: *Це епіграф, у якому все видно і більше нічого не треба про наш час говорити. Одного цього епізоду досить! Розкішна метафора!* М. Барчук: *Країна все більше зникає до абсурду. Де є точка неповернення? У мене враження, що ми стаємо все менш чутливими до цього* (TVi, 2013, July 17), etc.

The unique feature of the British interviews is the participants' employment of some communicative tactics of explicit confrontation never found in the Ukrainian ones, e.g. the tactic of sheer sarcasm: С. Flint: *No, we're supporting ...* А. Marr [interrupts]: *You won't? Okay*. С. Flint: *... we are supporting the contract* (BBC, 2014); the tactic of mockery: М. Gove: *And if it's the case that there's an outstanding candidate ...* А. Marr [interrupts]: *Tory donor called Mr Agnew!* (Leeves, 2009), the tactics of language aggression, non-cooperative interruption and mockery: J. Hunt: *That's what the BBC are saying. I think if you actually look at...* J. Vine [interrupts]: *I've just asked it! Just answer it here!* J. Hunt: *Well, if you look at the policy issue of substance...* J. Vine [interrupts]: *Have you seen the papers today?* (BBC, 2014, May 19). The establishment of these tactics testifies to the fact that the style of conducting the interview by the British journalists is more aggressive in comparison to the communicative behaviour of their guests: the journalists being aware of the presence of the target audience try to make their guests answer their questions directly, using the tactics that are not peculiar of the Ukrainian journalists. Nevertheless, the amount of such tactics and their contextual implementation is regulated by the following principle: to reach the planned goal of the interview one should get as much information as possible from the respondent without any useless assaulting of one's dignity and social status.

5. Conclusions.

The contrastive parameterisation of the British and Ukrainian media interview allowed to establish the following. The interview consists of a number of common components, such as the journalist / respondent, the socially approved intentions of the first party to inquire and of the second to give out ideas, facts, views, assessments, emotions, the plan of the conversation, topic / problem, set time and place, mass media coverage, institutionality / personality, distant mass audience, etc. Another isomorphic feature is its composition, namely the beginning of the interview, the main body and the end, being the stages of its unfolding. The common nature of the interview is explained by the existence of the same Action and Possession frame network in the British and Ukrainian ethnic mind that serves as a structural basis for the concepts *INTERVIEW* / *ІНТЕРВ'Ю* and their media space realization. This also explains the fact that the same language, speech and non-verbal communication levels are involved in the parameterisation of the genre by the representatives of both lingual communities. Nonetheless, the analysis reveals qualitative and quantitative differences in the use of the units of the above mentioned levels. The British and Ukrainian interlocutors tend to use terminology in simple syntactic constructions, while turning to homogeneous parts of the sentence and repetition as predominant stylistic devices they use. The Ukrainian dialogues are more emotion saturated than the British ones. The ethnic varieties of the interview demonstrate high rates of the employment of the cooperation tactics, but the Ukrainian speakers follow the cooperation strategy more consistently. The results of the research seem to be convincing enough and support the achievements of the other linguists in the linguocultural and communicative fields of studies devoted to the British and Ukrainian communicative behaviour.

Thus, the proposed conception of parameterisation can be employed in thorough contrastive investigations of dialogical interactions of different modes and genres. In

particular, it is possible to proceed with the contrastive parameterisation of the genre of the interview in the other Germanic and Slavic lingual cultures.

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Анотація

У запропонованій зіставно-типологічній розвідці здійснено параметризацію діалогу-інтерв'ю в межах сучасного британського та українського етнічних медіапросторів. Обґрунтовано ефективність її проведення у форматі комплексного дослідження із залученням здобутків порівняльно-історичної, структурно-семантичної та когнітивно-дискурсивної парадигм мовознавства. Параметризацію діалогу представлено як методичну поліпарадигмальну процедуру дискретизації та типологізації діалогових систем у комунікативних просторах британської та української лінгвокультур. Доведено, що конкретна дискурсивна практика твориться крізь комунікативні фільтри формату (усний / писемний), генези (природно-побутовий / соціальний, з поділом останнього на соціально-побутовий та соціально-політичний) та жанру (первинний / вторинний), отримуючи відповідний ресурс мовних та мовленнєвих одиниць для своєї реалізації. У площині розробленої методологічної концепції вдалося ідентифікувати інтерв'ю як усний вторинний жанровий різновид суспільно-політичної діалогічної взаємодії, в якій відбувається інституційно-персональна бесіда журналіста і респондента в режимі "запитання-відповідь" та генерується інформація, думки та судження, які становлять суспільний інтерес. Параметризацію інтерв'ю здійснено в онтологічному, структурному, лексичному, синтаксичному, лінгвокогнітивному, невербальному та комунікативно-прагматичному напрямках. Установлено, що телеінтерв'ю в обох етнічних медіа-просторах характеризується як спільними конститутивними ознаками, так і структурно-композиційною побудовою, що зумовлено загальною акціонально-посесивною фреймовою структурою знання концептів INTERVIEW / ІНТЕРВ'Ю. Виявлено, що британські й українські інтерв'ю демонструють тенденції до активного вживання термінології, використання простих речень, а у стилістичному плані – однорідних членів речення та повторів. Етнічні інтерв'ю є кооперативними жанрами, при цьому українські є більш емоційно навантаженими та частотнішими у плані дотримання принципів кооперації, ніж британські.

Ключові слова: комунікація, діалог, інтерв'ю, параметризація, формат, генеза, жанр, лінгвокультура.

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TYPOLOGICAL STRUCTURE AS A MODEL TO STUDY LANGUAGES IN CONTRAST

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Abstract

The article studies the typological system of languages belonging to Indo-European language family and the influence of native language interference on creative written productions of English language learners. It has been defined that the components of linguistic complexity in writing follow different developmental trajectories related to different levels of language proficiency, interference being observed not only throughout closely related languages. Based on this assumption linguistic complexity has been studied in the aspect of the native language transfer and the languages have been classified according to the typological similarity of language patterns but not according to language family relation. It has been proved that typologically similar languages belonging to the same language group or family cause the same mistakes in the process of ESL studying, specifically while producing complex speech structures. The last stage of the research involves the analysis of the native language influence on English creative written productions depending on the proficiency level of the producer. Finally, languages have been classified into clusters which have the same characteristics (morphological and syntactical) in their influence on ESL studying and a new model to study language interference in contrast has been proposed.

Keywords: *interference, creative productions, language typology, hierarchical clustering.*

1. Introduction.

The importance of learner corpus-based research has been always strongly emphasized in terms of second language (L2) learning and teaching. The learners' written production data and its analysis can help to reveal the patterns that are shared among different learners, demonstrate the first language (L1) influence on the acquisition process, detect the most complicated stages in the second language mastering for individual learners and learners with the common language background. Such knowledge is a crucial part of the effective teaching methodologies, tools for second language learning, and resources development.

The analyses of such data can shed the light on how and when specific L2 structures are being acquired and how the first language shapes such developmental curves. However,

it should be highlighted that such large-scale learner corpora are still scarce (Granger et al., 2007). The number of errors produced while studying foreign language and the difficulty experienced in the process were first studied by the school of Contrastive Analysis, with its memorandum stated by Stockwell (Stockwell et al., 1965). The founding principle of the researchers at the time was to enable machine, algorithm or didactic studies to predict negative transfer by means of comparing the linguistic systems of two languages. Thus, the Contrastive Analysis group stated that the main source of errors produced and learning difficulties experienced is L1 interference.

In the 2nd part of the 20th century the interest towards the Contrastive Analysis gradually declined as it proved unable to answer to questions stated due to the lack of theoretical background and empirical studies and experiments that could predict errors produced and difficulties experienced in the course of L2 studying. Another question stated by researchers of that period was the similar mistakes observed in learners with different L1 background. This problem was addressed by Peck (Peck, 1978), Schumann (Schumann, 1979), Odlin (Odlin, 1989), Klee and Ocampo (Klee & Ocampo, 1995). Hyltenstam (Hyltenstam, 1977) supposed that better results and more profound explanations could be gained at studying one interconnected language space instead of several unrelated ones, marking the beginning of language-pairs studying dominating over attempts to build all-inclusive language structure.

2. Literature Review.

Most recent illustrations in the field discuss the degree of L1 influence on L2 acquisition regardless of the proficiency level of the learner or within one level of proficiency (e.g. elementary learners, advanced learners, etc). Having in mind that manual analysis of such data is almost unfeasible, nowadays researcher make use of Natural Language Processing techniques such as POS-tagging, lemmatization, parsing, discussing the developmental trajectories of English grammatical morphemes (Lee, 2015; Murakami, 2014), relative clauses (Alexopoulou et al., 2015) and the developmental paths of the English article accuracy (Murakami & Alexopoulou, 2016), which again leads us to the idea of wholly comprehensive research instead of describing separate language phenomena, however complex they might be.

The implementation of the aforementioned studies and other works in the same field the efficiency of linguistic complexity measures while creating readability classification of texts in specific language (Hancke et al., 2012) with accuracy of almost 90% or classifying different age groups (Vajala & Meurers, 2014) with accuracy of 95,9%. Age groups and linguistic complexity are also under study in some methodological researches and interlinguistic studies (Paradis, et al., 2017). In addition, linguistic complexity features are used in the systems that are designed for written production scoring: e-rater (electronic essay rater) system integration (Attali & Burnstein, 2006); integration in proficiency level assessment of the texts produced by learners of specific L2 (Vajala and Loo, 2013); Native Language Identification task integration (Bykh & Meurers, 2016; Bykh, Vajala, et al., 2013); partially used in related fields – as a part of studies devoted to neurodegenerative disorders (Pakhomov et al., 2011).

In this paper we address not only the question of second language development but also L1 transfer. The principle of Transfer to Somewhere (Andersen, 1983) predisposes that both L1 and L2 have impact on transfer. This idea was further developed in the study by Klee and Ocampo (1985) and can be used in other multilanguage researches exemplifying the thesis that language learners tend to adapt structures of L2 to make it more similar to L1 which can have both positive and negative impacts.

The idea that typologically similar languages (languages that belong to one family or group) can be the key factor of producing the similar mistakes by the learners as they are alike in their influence on English as second language in terms of complexity is also the subject of study in our research.

It is predicted that according to their impact on the second language acquisition native languages may be clustered not necessarily according to the distance of their language family relations, but rather according to the inner laws and patterns which coincide or don't coincide with the patterns of English.

Another hypothesis is that level of learners' proficiency may be more important factor considering the degree of language transfer than relation between L1 and L2, which means the more fluent the learner is in L2 the less likely he or she is to produce errors or use deviations in his speech production.

3. Aim and Objectives.

The **aim** of the article is to define the impact of L1 on the linguistic complexity of the learner, forming cluster structure of related and unrelated language pairs. In order to achieve this aim, the following **objectives** are to be achieved:

- to define linguistic complexity as the measurable unit;
- to study the realisation of linguistic complexity at different language levels;
- the study the learners' acquisition, error production and language proficiency at different levels of studying English;
- to compare and contrast language pairs using hierarchical clustering technique.

4. Methodology.

To conduct the aforementioned analyses we use new longitudinal data source – EF-Cambridge Open Language Database (EFCamDat) that comprises 1 180 453 essays collected from 174 771 different learners from 209 countries. The essays represent different levels of proficiency. On average every student produced 7 scripts. The background information to every script includes id of the script, id of the learner, id of the topic, nationality of the learner, date of submission, received grade, level, unit number, unit title, lesson title, lesson aim.

Furthermore, 69% of the essays have an error annotation. However, in the supporting article to the database there is no information on how reliably and systematically different types of errors have been marked by correctors (Geerzen et al., 2013).

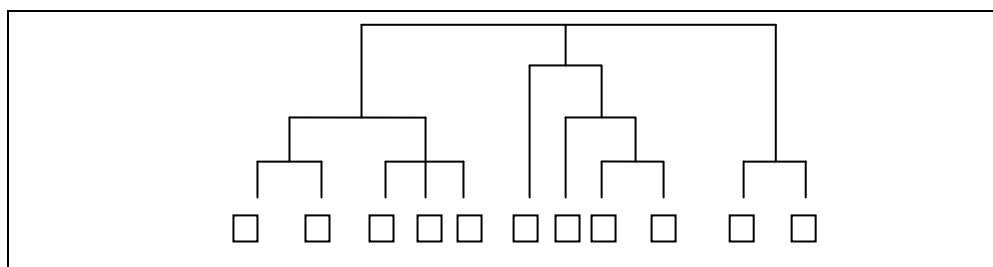
This number of submitted essays is then reduced to exclude the same essays (cases of copied texts). Then the essays where the pair nationality-first language could not be defined were also taken out of the corpus. That made 1 156 252 scripts. At this stage, our data comprised 113 languages where Portuguese, Chinese, Spanish, Russian, Arabic and German were consuming the largest part of it. Moreover, the majority of L1 in EFCamDat represented Italic and Slavic groups of Indo-European language family (71,2% of data). In order to have a solid picture that is not learner dependent, we considered instances with specific L1 that appear at least 100 times in our corpus. Ultimately, we selected 58 languages and 14 language families.

Table 1*The number of essays with different L1 background under study*

Language	Number of essays submitted	Language	Number of essays submitted	Language	Number of essays submitted
Portuguese	465098	Hungarian	760	Norwegian	244
Chinese	196108	Slovak	723	Irish	224
Spanish	127899	Romanian	722	Albanian	212
Russian	70036	Greek	632	Kyrgyz	203
Arabic	58247	Finnish	610	Pashto	194
German	58046	Latvian	570	Serbian	184
Italian	44516	Azeri	539	Hebrew	179
French	42755	Belarusian	533	Danish	176
English	23442	Swedish	525	Armenian	171
Japanese	21711	Lithuanian	523	Moldovan	163
Turkish	14316	Mongolian	513	Haitian	152
Korean	5554	Czech	505	Malagasy	133
Indonesian	3021	Malay	425	Uzbek	128
Thai	2251	Farsi	392	Afrikaans	126
Ukrainian	1637	Filipino	337	Bosnian	124
Vietnamese	1570	Urdu	334	Bulgarian	110
Dutch	1476	Estonian	293	Sinhalese	106
Kazakh	1337	Georgian	275	Emakhuwa	101
Polish	1283	Slovenian	271		
Hindi	979	Croatian	252		

The overall algorithm is as follows: 1) form the dataset for investigation minding the first language of the speaker, originality of the written speech production, and number representation of essays submitted; 2) define the features for the analyses of linguistic complexity; 3) define the components of linguistic complexity and levels of their realization in speech; 4) analyze the essays according the aforementioned features via WEKA software (see table 2); 5) cluster the L1s that have alike patterns with L2; 6) study the development of linguistic complexity and the degree of L1 transfer through different levels of proficiency.

While structuring, grouping, clustering and analyzing the material in the course of our study we make use of structure identification techniques. First, we use clustering in order to group a set of data points which is closely related to unsupervised type of machine learning as the input data is not labeled (Shalev-Shwartz & Ben-David, 2014, 311; Witten et al., 2016, 81) (see Fig. 1).

*Figure 1. Representation of clusters (Witten et al., 2016)*

The type of clustering which fits machine learning algorithm is hierarchical one with two prevailing forms: agglomerative (bottom-up approach) represented by Witten and divisive (top-down approach). Agglomerative type matches each unit under study to its own

cluster, after that the distance between clusters is computed and two most similar ones are merged at the bottom of the dendroid. Likewise, the higher pairs of clusters are merged at the higher levels of the hierarchy. Divisive type assigns all units under study to a single cluster and then split the cluster to two least similar clusters.

The approach represented by Mooi and Sarstedt (see Fig. 2) assumes that the type of the clustering basically depends not on the algorithm or features of the analysis, but on its direction while both types represent one and the same technique.

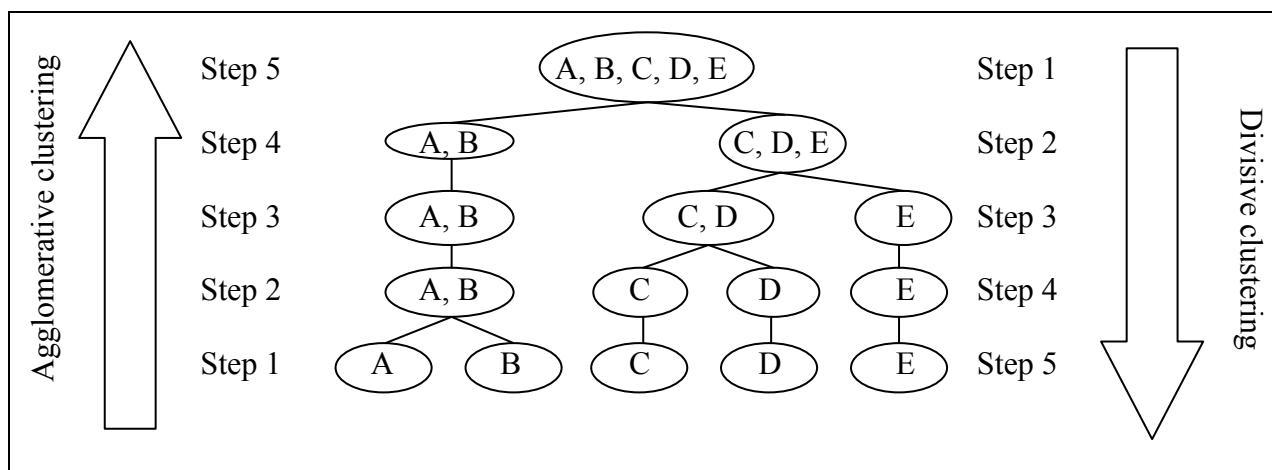


Figure 2. Agglomerative and divisive clustering (Mooi and Sarstedt, 2010, 20)

For determining the distance measure most commonly are chosen Euclidean and Manhattan equations:

$$Euclidean = \sqrt{\sum (a_i - b_i)^2}$$

$$Manhattan = \sum |a_i - b_i|$$

However, we admit the fact that distance metrics can have different influence on clusters as, according to Pandit and Gupta (Pandit and Gupta, 2011, 29-30), some data points can be close according to one measure and far away to another, hence, the normalization of data is essential for equal data contributing. The easiest and most widely used way of doing this is z standardization where each variable has a mean 0 and standard deviation 1, however better performance is usually observed at the range 0,1 or -1,1 (Mooi and Sarstedt, 2010, 38).

5. Results.

As it can be inferred from the title of our paper, the research deals with two main concepts – language transfer and linguistic complexity. According to Jarvis and Odlin (Jarvis & Odlin, 2000) transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously and perhaps imperfectly acquired.

First language transfer refers to the process of applying knowledge from the first language to the target language in speaking and writing. Transfer can have an impact on all dimensions of the target language (e.g. syntax, morphology, lexicon, etc). According to Ellis (1994, 101-120) transfer study involves the studies of negative (i.e. errors) and positive (i.e. facilitation) transfer, avoidance (underproduction) and overuse (overproduction) of the target language forms. Some studies also involve production errors and misinterpretation, however these two aspects may be studied only with the help of cognitive linguistics methods.

Let's consider the levels of transfer realization more thoroughly. Negative transfer is usually associated with the transfer of items or structures that are not alike in both languages.

According to Lado (1957, 23-35) the degree of difficulty experienced by language learners lies in a difference between first and target languages.

In our study while analysing the data via WEKA software we came across a great number of out-of-vocabulary words, i.e. tokens that NLP tool has not seen during the training (usually NLP systems are trained on newspaper corpora) – the fact that is easily explained, as learner language contains different deviations from standard language which in turn depend on different learner variables (e.g. L1, age, level of proficiency). Based on study conducted by Keeper (Keeper et al., 2016) and in order to avoid decreasing quality of POS tagging, we transferred this part of the data from misspellings to the normalized correct forms. Leaving these out-of-vocabulary units in the general amount of words analysed by WEKA software would lead to decreasing or increasing indexes of lexical sophistication level as the words would be treated not as unknown but as rarely-used, thus changing the real index of lexical proficiency. The words with improper capitalization (e.g. “i’m”) were not treated as misspelling in our study as many scripts were improperly capitalized in general (e.g. fully capitalized or non-capitalized at all). All these manipulations required manual pre-processing of the error annotated essays with solving of the aforementioned issues. The final list consists of 312 tokens which gave us the opportunity to normalize 48 413 words, out of which only those who number more than 100 are represented in this study.

Table 2

The list of misspellings and the number of their occurrences

<i>Item</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Number</i>	<i>Item</i>	<i>Number</i>
dont	9935	diferent	375	comming	252	tomatos	127
fourty	3144	resturant	369	apartament	236	scool	127
principal	2195	doughter	366	promiss	234	choise	125
studing	1337	peaple	357	responsability	230	shool	123
becouse	910	colum	353	rainny	223	swimm	121
coffe	828	teacher	343	beachs	221	necenary	118
nigth	809	happend	337	succesful	205	questionnair	118
swiming	800	beacause	325	goverment	197	holyday	118
departament	788	litle	320	exemple	193	thankyou	118
realy	781	sweter	320	awfull	181	tommorow	115
successfull	758	wonderfull	315	becuase	179	sity	115
isnt	757	freind	313	blu	178	therefor	110
companys	689	wether	313	dolares	177	color	109
alot	601	yong	312	foward	177	shold	108
adress	575	enviroment	305	potatos	176	vaccum	106
colleague	531	verry	286	stright	169	occured	106
yers	444	yars	280	holliday	156	immediatly	105
lifes	424	begining	276	delicious	153	attention	105
tomorow	419	beutiful	269	yelow	144	nowdays	104
recomend	416	recieve	266	programm	140	trainning	103
writting	413	tecnology	265	jewelery	138	excercise	101
finaly	411	untill	265	sucessful	137		
shoud	393	pepole	265	daugter	131		
sincerly	384	prefered	254	remeber	128		

Cases of positive transfer can be hard to identify (Ortega, 2013, 42). According to Odlin (1989) cross-linguistic similarities can lead to the following positive transfers:

- vocabulary similarities can lead to the time reduction to achieve good reading comprehension;
- vowel system similarities can make the process of vowel sounds identification easier;
- writing system similarities can make it easier to read and write in the target language;

– syntactic structures similarities can promote grammar acquisition.

The case of avoidance according to Schachter (1974, 193-213) can be exemplified by the cases when learners tend to avoid using specific structures different from their L1 background.

According to Ellis (1994) and Odlin (1989) overuse can be a result of avoidance, that is when learners avoid using structure uncommon for their L1 and instead of it overuse the structure that is typical for both L1 and L2. To detect overuse Ellis (1994, 761) suggests involving groups of learners with different L1s, which is just the case with our study.

The concept of linguistic complexity is used as a basic indicator of the second language development. Researchers define complexity as component, and the most difficult one, of Complexity-Accuracy-Fluency triad that assesses learners' language development and proficiency (Ebrahimi, 2015, 118; Housen & Kuiken, 2009, 461; Kuznik & Ollala-Soler, 2018, 20; Lintunen & Makila, 2014, 378; Palotti, 2009, 590-592; Shekan, 2009, 510-511; Timpe-Laughlin, 2016; Vyatkina et al., 2015).

If L2 complexity is considered in terms of language performance it can be represented by cognitive complexity and linguistic complexity. According to Housen and Kuiken (2009, 464), cognitive complexity is learner-centered and refers to the difficulty of the language features such as processing and acquisition, whereas linguistic complexity (which is of mostly of interest in our study) refers mainly to the system of the language being studied. Palotti (Palotti, 2015) bases his studying of the linguistic complexity on different linguistic structures used by learners of L1 and L2, whereas Eliot (Eliot, 2009, 474-476) defines complexity as the capacity to use more advanced language.

Linguistic complexity is multidimensional by its nature and traditionally three main components are defined – lexical, syntactic and morphological (Bulte & Housen, 2015, 46; Palotti, 2015, 121-123). Considering the fact that the native language background targets all L2 dimensions, we trace L1 influence on lexical, syntactic and morphological levels. According to Bulte and Housen (Bulte & Housen, 2015, 53), only the following concepts of linguistic complexity are represented in L2 linguistic complexity and mirror the rise in complexity level:

- more phonemes, inflectional forms, derivation, etc.;
- longer linguistic units (clauses, sentences, etc.);
- more deeply embedded units (recursion, subordination, etc.);
- more varied or diverse lexical items;
- more marked, infrequent, sophisticated, cognitively difficult or later acquired features.

The studies aimed to uncover the relationship between linguistic complexity and second language acquisition, development and proficiency were conducted by Xiaofei Lu (Lu, 2011; Lu 2012) and a number of other theorists (Gleitman L.R., et al., 2019, 9), who split it into two dimensions – syntactic and lexical. The theory further developed (Ai & Lu, 2013; Lu & Ai, 2015) provides us with a theoretical background in our study, indicating that significantly different measures observed at different levels of L2 development can predict the quality of learner's production and errors produced.

In our study the idea of linguistic complexity is a part of contrastive analysis idea implemented by computational linguistics approach as complexity is mainly used for proficiency evaluation, performance assessment and developmental level benchmarking (Ortega, 2012).

The basic measures of assessing linguistic complexity components are lexical richness, syntactic complexity and morphological complexity. As the theory goes, the notion of lexical richness is concerned with how many different words and what types of words are produced

in spoken and written production. This multidimensional feature of the language use is composed of the following interrelated components: lexical density, lexical variation (also called lexical diversity or lexical range) and lexical sophistication (also called rareness) (Read, 2000, 188-221).

Previous research in this field has demonstrated that spoken texts are disposed to have a lower lexical density comparing to the written ones having value of 40% or even higher (Halliday, 1985; Ure, 1971). Furthermore, it was reported that language learning materials on the Internet have a higher lexical density than in traditional textbooks (Kong, 2009, 38-47). It has been suggested that the reason for this is the website longing to diminish difficulty of possessing online texts, as a result, the number of sentences in each paragraph is reduced and the processing difficulty is unintentionally increased, due to the fact that more content is packed into a single sentence (Kong, 2009, 48-51).

The notion of lexical variation refers to the range of different lexical items used in specific texts. Basically, the written or spoken production has a high index of lexical variation, if the writer or speaker uses many different words and the percentage of word repetition is very low.

Lexical sophistication can be referred to the number of advanced or sophisticated words used in a text. The notions of advanced and sophisticated items strongly depend on the frequency list or lists of basic words used in the study.

The notion of syntactic complexity refers to the range and degree of sophistication of syntactic structures produced. Syntactic complexity itself takes a significant place in second language research, as the growth of syntactic repertoire and its appropriate usage is an integral part of a learner's development in second language (Ortega, 2003).

Lu (2011) grouped syntactic complexity measures into five categories:

- length of production;
- sentence complexity (clauses to sentences ratio);
- subordination: clauses per T-unit, complex T-units per T-unit, dependent clauses per clause, dependent clauses per T-unit;
- coordination: coordinate phrases per clause, coordinate phrases per T-unit, T-units per sentence;
- particular structures: complex nominals per clause, complex nominals per T-unit, verb phrases per T-unit.

De Clercq and Housen (2016) claim that native speaker level in morphological complexity can be approached by learners of English quickly enough. Morphological features can be split into: general features, segmentation features, stem allomorphy features, derivational transformation features, morphological analysis status, noun-verb-affix compound features in all their various levels of realization.

All the aforementioned features make up the list of items that form the grounds for analyses. For this purpose two feature selection algorithms provided by WEKA were used – *CfsSubsetEval* and *InfoGainAttributeEval*. *CfsSubsetEval* is a correlation based selector that assesses the predictive ability of each attribute individually and prefers sets of features that are highly correlated with the class but have low intercorrelation (Witten et al., 2016, 422). *InfoGainAttributeEval* measures the information gain of attributes with respect to the class (Witten et al., 2016, 393, 422).

The difference between selected features by two algorithms is basically insignificant.

Table 3

Feature selection on the whole data

CfsSubsetEval	InfoGainAttributeEval
Lexical complexity	
Conjunction density	Conjunction density
Determiner density	Determiner density
Modifier variation	Modifier variation
Modal verbs density	Modal verbs density
Past participle verb density	CTTR
RTTR	RTTR
Lexical sophistication	MTLD
Syntactic complexity	
Clauses per sentence	Clauses per sentence
Sentences	Sentences
Constituents per sentence	Constituents per sentence
Noun phrases per sentence	Noun phrases per sentence
Verb phrases per sentence	Verb phrases per sentence
Subordinating conjunctions per sentence	Subordinating conjunctions per sentence
T-units per sentence	T-units per sentence
Average parse tree height	Average parse tree height
Average sentence length	Average sentence length
Prepositional phrases per sentence	Prepositional phrases per sentence
Clauses per T-unit	Complex T-units per T-unit
Wh-phrases per sentence	Subtrees per sentence
Morphological complexity	
Words of foreign origin	Words of foreign origin
Words not found in CELEX	Words not found in CELEX
Noun-verb-affix compounds, derivations	

Consequently, for syntactic and lexical complexity we selected attributes that occurred at least three times in the sets obtained by WEKA, for morphological complexity we included measures that appeared twice – words with stem with unmarked transitivity and words with derivational transformation.

The list of features for analyzing the essays that belong to the learners with the higher rates of proficiency should be modified in order to reveal the picture of error-producing more accurately.

Table 4

Feature selection on the higher proficiency level subset

CfsSubsetEval	InfoGainAttributeEval
Lexical complexity	
Conjunction density	Conjunction density
Determiner density	Determiner density
Modifier variation	Modifier variation
Lexical sophistication	Modal verbs density
Sophisticated token ratio	
Syntactic complexity	
Subtrees per sentence	Subtrees per sentence
Clauses per sentence	Clauses per sentence
Sentences	Sentences
Constituents per sentence	Constituents per sentence
Noun phrases per sentence	Noun phrases per sentence
Subordinating conjunctions per sentence	Subordinating conjunctions per sentence
T-units per sentence	T-units per sentence
Average sentence length	Average sentence length

	Verb phrases per sentence
	Clauses per T-unit
	Wh-parses per sentence
Morphological complexity	
Words of foreign origin	Words of foreign origin
Words not found in CELEX	Words not found in CELEX
Verbal stem with unmarked transitivity	Verbal stem with unmarked transitivity
Words with derivational transformation	Words with derivational transformation

Based on the results we come to a number of conclusions. It seems that Sino-Tibetan and Altaic families have similar patterns in linguistic complexity. Speakers of Baltic language (i.e., Lithuanian and Latvian) are very close in English written production in terms of linguistic complexity. Moreover, we observe that Baltic and Slavic languages from different language groups have similar influence on the complexity. Moldovan, Romanian, and Portuguese have alike influence in linguistic complexity to Farsi, Hindi, and Sinhalese.

We observe that native speakers of Germanic languages have similar patterns in English complexity, especially learners with Dutch and German, Danish and Norwegian background. Data analysis shows that French and Italian are closely connected and result in a very similar influence on English written production.

Further insights into the database reveal that proficiency level has more profound effect on linguistic complexity than L1 background of learners and is more influential. In our study we use the representation based on the development curve. The developmental curve shows a relation between the language learner proficiency and the amount of errors produced. Theis language transfer can be represented on the developmental curve in two ways. First, it is the direct relation between the proficiency level of the learner and his/her fluency in L2. It is based on the logical assumption that the better the learner know the language and the higher his/her level is, the less mistakes are produced at each level, meaning the acquisition of language skills is getting easier and easier when it is built upon the knowledge of L2. The second way of developmental curve representation is based upon the notion "U-shaped behavioural development" first introduced by Kellerman (Kellerman, 1985). It denotes a process of L2 learning, when the learner production is error-free at the early stage, then the deviation from the target norm is observed and finally the use of the feature is correct. Such a developmental curve can be explained by the fact that at first stages learners make use of corresponding forms of their first language, i.e. L1 has a facilitative effect at the first stages of acquisition.

The number of conclusions inferred from the analysis of the database subset with regard to the proficiency level of the learners is as follows. Through all the levels Arabic and Hebrew have alike patterns, which means that the languages of Afro-Asiatic family have similar linguistic complexity patterns independently of the proficiency level. Regarding Altaic family and the level differences, we infer that the distance between languages of this group is getting smaller with every level.

The next language family under examination was Austronesian. Even though Filipino, Indonesian, Malay and Malagasy belong to one family, learners of English with these L1 have absolutely different performance in terms of language complexity.

Finnish, Estonian and Hungarian that are of Uralic family also perform independently. However, it is worth noticing that within levels A1-A2-B1-B2 of European Framework Finnish and Estonian have short distances, it means that some patterns of linguistic complexity can overlap. Unfortunately, we are not able to state whether the relation between these languages is retained at the advanced levels, because we do not have essays that correspond to learners with Estonian background.

It should be noted that across all six levels (A1-C2) Kazakh language has very short distance to East-Slavic languages – Ukrainian and Russian. This can be explained by the fact that the Russian language is one of the official languages in Kazakhstan, so that both languages (Kazakh and Russian) have impact on English written production in Kazakhstan.

East-Slavic languages (i.e., Ukrainian, Russian, Belorussian) independently of the proficiency level have extremely short distance between each other.

Germanic group of languages across A and B levels with exception of Swedish, has alike patterns of written speech production. Moreover, Dutch and German, that represent West-Germanic group, seem to have very similar impact on complexity in written production. We should admit that at the levels A1-A2 and B1-B2 the performance of Swedish learners of English is absolutely different from Germanic languages.

The learners that are native speakers of Baltic languages have similarities in complexity only at A1-A2 levels, however, it is hard to draw conclusions about C1-C2 levels, because we do not have essays submitted by learners with Lithuanian as L1.

Native speakers of Italic languages at the levels B1-B2 and C1-C2 have some similarities in their production. Notably, at the B1-B2 and C1-C2 levels not only Italian and Portuguese are connected, but also Moldovan and Spanish have fairly short distance.

According to the obtained data native speakers of Indo-Iranian languages tend to have similar patterns in written production only at the A1-A2 levels. Furthermore, it is worth noticing that Albanian and Bosnian languages that represent different groups are connected across all proficiency levels. Consequently, we can assume that these L1s have alike effect on English writings.

6. Discussion.

Considering the aims and the methodology of analyses, we explored the interrelations of L1s within six levels of proficiency (A1-C2). Our clustering experiment revealed that the production of learners with typologically similar L1s (i.e. belonging to one language family or group) has the following interrelations:

- alike patterns in English linguistic complexity regardless of the proficiency level (Afro-Asiatic family or East-Slavic group of Indo-European family);
- alike patterns in English linguistic complexity at the intermediate level (Austronesian and Uralic family);
- the distance increases with every level of proficiency (Baltic or Indo-Iranian groups of Indo-European family, emphasizing the use of forms and structures shared within one family or group);
- the distance decreases with every successive level of proficiency (Altaic family, Italic group of Indo-European family, some languages of Germanic and Slavic groups of Indo-European family, implying that at the C levels the typologically similar L1s have alike influence on linguistic complexity).

Additionally, we observed the development of linguistic complexity components with regard to the first language. In general, the learners with different L1 background have common tendencies in the development of linguistic complexity; however, at some stages of acquisition the rates of some structures are higher or lower for specific languages.

Further works in this area can be dedicated to a more detailed comparison of different L1 and L2 structures that can assist in the research on how the presence or absence of L1 structures can affect the developmental trajectory. Moreover, the knowledge about the differences in L2 linguistic complexity development of learners that have mastered one or more foreign languages or even bilingual learners can be beneficial in educational resource development and teaching.

7. Conclusions.

In this paper we investigated the influence of the native language on linguistic complexity patterns in English production using the large-scale educational resource – EFCamDat. We target three dimensions of linguistic complexity namely lexical, syntactic and morphological and consider a wide set of languages. To present the L1s interrelations and similarities in L2 written production complexity we used the software presented by WEKA and defined the features to be analysed. Additionally, developmental trajectories of lexical, syntactic, and morphological complexity components with regard to the first language have been introduced. Based on the results obtained by clustering, we proved that the level of learners' proficiency affects linguistic complexity much stronger than the first language background.

Another aim of research was to compare the developmental trajectories of linguistic complexity through all levels of proficiency. The results lead us to the conclusion that linguistic complexity is hard to be analysed as a whole unit as most of its components develop in different way. Although some degree of first language transfer is still retained, the key factor is still the level of learners' proficiency and not the first language background.

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Анотація

У статті досліджується типологічна структура мов індоєвропейської сім'ї та вплив інтерференції рідної мови на письмне мовлення творчого характеру тих людей, що вивчають англійську мову. Виявлено, що компоненти складності письмного мовлення мають різні траєкторії

розвитку, пов'язані з рівнями володіння мовою, але при цьому інтерферентність має місце не лише між близькоспорідненими мовами. Ґрунтуючись на цьому припущенні, розглянуто мовленнєву складність з огляду на вплив рідної мови та класифіковано мови на основі типологічної подібності їх структур, а не на основі спорідненості. Доведено, що типологічно близькі мови, які до того ж належать до однієї мовної родини або мовної групи, зумовлюють однакові помилки у процесі вивчення англійської мови як іноземної, зокрема на етапі творення складних конструкцій мовлення. На останньому етапі дослідження здійснено аналіз впливу рідної мови на писемне англійське мовлення творчого характеру залежно від рівня володіння цією мовою. У підсумку, класифіковано мови у кластери, що за своїм впливом на вивчення англійської мови мають однакові характеристики (морфологічні та синтаксичні), та запропоновано нову модель для дослідження інтерферентності мов при їх зіставному вивченні.

Ключові слова: інтерференція, творче мовлення, типологія мов, ієрархічна кластеризація.

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DEGREE OF AFFINITY BETWEEN KOREAN *mōi (h), *mōró AND JAPANESE *māri AGAINST ALTAIC *mōr[u] "tree, forest" (According to Starostin's Version)

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Abstract

The article has an attempt to prove the genetic level of relationship between the Korean *mōi(h), *mōró "1) mountain; 2) forest" and Japanese *māri "forest" that reach the Altaic *mōr[u] "tree, forest". It is based on the comparison of the genetic matches of the Korean and Japanese languages, proposed by Starostin in *The Global Lexicostatistical Database "Babel Tower"*. The three versions of the degree of affinity between these languages are provided: genetic (according to Kyzlasov) and universal (according to Burykin), as well as its absence (according to Vynogradov). A historical note on the Korean-Japanese linguistic relations with the assumption of the areal contacts has been presented.

Although the reconstruction of the Altaic took place based on the reconstructed etymons from different language groups: 1) Mongolian *mo-du (< *mor-du) "tree"; 2) Tungus Manchu *mō "tree", the article focuses on 3) Korean *mōi(h), *mōró "1) mountain; 2) forest" and Japanese *māri "forest".

In the process of the study, an attempt was made to prove the genetic relationship between the Korean and Japanese languages based on the phonomorphological processes that appeared to be common to these languages: 1) the law of prosody as a doctrine of emphasis in the Altaic languages, where the presence of low and high tones, as well as musical accent is observed; 2) the law of articulation; 3) the law of the morphemic structure of words, the effect of which is to fix the law of composition for the Korean and Japanese languages. In this case, the actions of certain laws are typical only for the Korean language: 1) the law of palatalization of the sonorant phoneme /m/, which hardness / softness becomes soft /m'/ in the Modern Korean language; 2) the law of articulation while pronouncing the palatalized consonants; 3) the law of harmony of vowels; 4) the law of prosody, in particular the presence of a long tone and force accent; the Japanese language: 1) the law of articulation, while pronouncing the velar consonants; 2) the law of the morphemic structure of words, in particular the law of the mora as a special unit of the Japanese language, which is absent in the composite languages, as well as the law of open composition.

The comparison of the semantic structure of genetic matches has shown that the meaning of “forest” is common to the Korean *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese *mári “forest” that reach the Altaic *mōr[u] “tree, forest”. Its choice is associated with the archeological culture of the Huns on the system of homebuilding and heating.

Keywords: degree of affinity, etymon, phonomorphological and semantic processes, the Korean and Japanese languages.

1. Introduction.

The formation and development of Altaic Studies (Illich-Svitych (1963), Ramstedt (1957), Poppe (1960), Tsintsius (1949), Shcherbak (1970) et al.) continues to be at the center of attention of many scholars (Burykin (2014), Kizlasov (2008) et al.). It is explained by the fact that the issues of the levels of relationship of the Turkic, Mongolian, Tungus-Manchu, Korean and Japanese languages belonging to the Altaic language family remain disputable. There are three versions on it.

The first version belongs to Martin (1924–2009), who proposed the reconstruction of the Proto-Korean-Japanese language and a list of lexical correspondences in 1966 (Miller, 1971). Miller (1924–2014) continued to work in this direction and in 1971 in his monograph he includes Korean and Japanese into one subgroup. By the way, Miller drew attention to statistical asymmetries in the reconstruction of Martin (Miller, 1971). He offered the reconstruction on the phonetic and lexical levels, involving a number of personal pronouns. Another representative of the proximity of the Korean and Japanese languages is Kizlasov, who assumes that “the proximity of the Altaic languages is now shown in such detail and in such a diverse, the material of the different level of linguistic order that should be considered not as a hypothesis, but the grounded scientific fact – **the Altaic theory**” (Kizlasov, 2008).

The second version belongs to Burykin (2014), who notes that the Altaic hypothesis / theory “is little known to the general public of linguists of different generations”. This situation did not even change the significant successes that had been achieved by the Moscow Altaic School in the 90’s of the XIX century in the monograph by Starostin “The Altai Problem and the Origins of the Japanese Language” (Starostin, 1991), in Dybo’s work “Semantic reconstruction in Altai etymology” (Dybo, 1995), in the publication of the Etymological Dictionary of Altaic Languages (Starostin, Dybo, Mudrak, 2003). Burykin also adds that with the advent of these researches the work on the publication of a series of collective works prepared in the Department of the Altaic Languages of the former Leningrad Branch of the Institute of Linguistics of the USSR Academy of Sciences was stopped¹. The problems, associated with the history of comparative-historical study of the Altaic languages, are not so much in the specifics of the material², but in explaining some special evolution of ideas about the origin of the Turkic, Mongolian, as well as Tungus-Manchu languages, etc.

¹ *Problema obshchnosti altayskikh yazykov* [The Problem of Common Criteria of the Altaic Languages]. L.: Nauka, 1971. 404 p.; *Ocherki sravnitel'noy leksikologii altayskikh yazykov* [The Essays on the Comparative Lexicology of the Altaic Languages]. L.: Nauka, 1972. 362 p.; *Ocherki sravnitel'noy morfologii altayskikh yazykov* [The Essays on the Comparative Morphology of the Altaic Languages]. L.: Nauka, 1978. 271 p.; *Issledovaniya v oblasti etimologii altayskikh yazykov* [The Studies in the Etymology of the Altaic Languages]. L.: Nauka, 1979. 262 p.; *Altayskiye etimologii* [The Altaic Etymologies]. L.: Nauka, 1984. 225 p.

² Nasilov D. M. (1978). Ob altayskoy yazykovoy obshchnosti (K istorii problemy) [On the Altai Language Community (To the History of the Problem)]. *Tyurkologicheskii sbornik 1974*. M. Pp. 90–108.; Nasilov D. M. (1981). Altaistika XIX v. [Altaic Studies of the XIX century]. *Tyurkologicheskii sbornik 1977*. M. Pp. 150–155.; Nasilov D. M. (1977). Iz istorii altaistiki (statya pervaya) [On the History of the Altaic Studies (article one)]. *Sovetskaya tyurkologiya*, 3. Pp. 77–93.; Nasilov D. M. (1978). V. V. Radlov i problemy altaistiki [V. V. Radlov and Altaic Problems]. *Sovetskaya tyurkologiya*, 1. Pp. 96–102.; Nasilov D. M. (1979). Iz istorii altaistiki [On the History of Altaic Studies]. *Sovetskaya tyurkologiya*, 4. Pp. 94–100.

The third version. In the books on Comparative Linguistics literature Burlak and Starostin (2005) note that “the existence of an Altaic family causes – including those who are not familiar with the Altaic language material – doubts, since not all specialists in the Turkic, Mongolian and Tungus-Manchu languages agree that the Altaic languages are related”. However, in the work of Reformatzky there is a note belonging to Vynogradov that “many scholars hold the idea of a possible distant relationship between the three language families – Turkic, Mongolian and Tungus-Manchu, which form the Altaic macrofamily. However, in the accepted terms, the term “Altaic languages” means rather a conditional association than a genetic group” (Reformatzky, 1996: 224). We may recall Vovin, who devoted a special book “Korea-Japan” (2010) to refute attempts to substantiate the Korean and Japanese affinity. Considering the similar affixes in the Korean and Japanese languages, Vovin points out that the parallels between the Western Ancient Japanese and Korean have no analogies in the Japanese group, which proves rather about the areal, but not the genetic proximity (Vovin, 2010).

These preliminary observations give grounds for talking about three views on the problem of the Altaic languages: genetic (according to Kizlasov) and universal (according to Burykin), as well as its absence (according to Vynogradov).

In the previous work (Kapranov, 2018) an attempt was made to assume and substantiate the distant degree of language affinity based on *Mongolian* *mo-du (< *mor-du) “tree” and *Tungus Manchu* *mō “tree”. In this paper we will try to analyze the material of *Korean* *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and *Japanese* *móri “forest”, as well as to assume an appropriate degree of language affinity between them.

2. Aim.

The **aim** of the article is to fix the degree of affinity between the Korean *mōi(h), *mòró and the Japanese *móri against the Altaic *mōr[u] “tree, forest” proposed by Starostin in The Global Lexicostatistical Database “Babel Tower”.

3. Methodology.

The reconstruction of Altaic *mōr[u] “tree, forest”, carried out based on Korean *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese *móri “forest”, allows us to trace the procedural moments of Starostin. They correspond to **the method of etymon** (or **archetype**) **modelling**, or **prediction**, proposed by Serebrennikov. It means that “the very course of the historical process is not obvious to the researcher, who sees only the final result of this process, but knowledge of certain regularities allows him to hypothetically assume the nature and orientation this process” (Serebrennikov, 1974: 7). Sometimes this method is called the **probabilistic reasoning** in Comparative Studies, but in essence it is identical to the **modelling**, which also consists of several consecutive procedures, techniques, etc.

“The combination of two possible levels in direct connection with a specific lexical material is specific for etymology” (Martynov, 1963: 4). In this context Eckert wrote the following: “the inclusion of the phonomorphological structure of the comparable words ensures a more complex approach to the complex issues of language relations” (Eckert, 1978: 80). That is why the question of combining the phonetic analysis of a word with its study in the lexico-grammatical system (Köhler, 1970: 16–52) is recognized as an urgent necessity by many comparativists.

Starostin, using the material of the Korean and Japanese languages, tried to prove their genetic relationship with the help of **the comparative-historical method** with the parallel application of **internal** and **external reconstruction procedures**: if **the internal reconstruction procedure** is reflected in the material of one language (either Korean, or Japanese), but **the external reconstruction procedure** – on the material of two languages that

reach Korean *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese *móri “forest”, as well as the Altaic *mōr[u] “tree, forest” (GLD). We assume that *the method of step-by-step reconstruction* (according to Starostin), applied by the scholar, made it possible to reconstruct the etymons of the first (Korean *mōi (h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese *móri “forest”) and the second (Altaic *mōr[u]) degrees. The most reliable criterion for the genetic affinity of these languages is predetermined not only by the complete sound coincidence of words or forms of words of these languages, but by the actual partial coincidence of sounds and their partial differences.

4. Results.

4.1. Historical Reference on the Relationship of the Korean and Japanese languages.

The scholars began to study the problem of relationship between the Korean and Japanese languages more than three centuries ago. For example, let's recall the glossary of Korean-Japanese correspondences, represented in the work of Arai Hakuseki in 1717 (Calvetti, 1999). But at the beginning of the XVIII century the idea of the relationship between the Korean and Japanese languages was attempted by Fiji Teikan (1732–1797).

With the release of Japan on the international arena at the end of the XIX century the problem of the origin of the Japanese language was of interest to Western scholars (Gutslaff, de Rosny, Edkins, Aston). However, unlike Japanese scholars, Western-European linguists and historians have suggested several hypotheses about the genetic relationship of the Japanese language. The most popular of them were the “northern” and “southern” theories of the origin of the Japanese language.

The supporters of the “northern” theory, trying to prove the affinity among the Japanese and the Altaic languages, often compared only their lexical similarity. The studies conducted by Aston were represented in a scientifically systematic work “A Comparative Study of the Japanese and Korean Languages” (1879). His work has greatly influenced the scholars engaged in scientific studies in the field of related relationships in Japanese. However, there were no proof of the affinity between the Japanese and Korean languages in the first half of the XX century. Although Rammstead, the founder of Altaic Linguistics, did not conduct enough research in this field, but the professor at the University of Helsinki in 1920 first specified the affinity between the Japanese language and the language of Puyo. This led to the fact that many scholars are inclined toward a version of the origin of the Japanese language from the Austronesian languages (Ivanov, 2000: 52–60).

At the same time, the supporters of the “southern” theory (one of them is Simmur), recognizing the relationship among the Japanese and Ural-Altaic languages, suggested that the simplicity of Japanese phonology is caused by confusion with languages that are related to the languages of the Pacific Islands (Shibatani, 1990: 103). Polivanov brought the Japanese prefix ma- (Polivanov, 1968: 144) closer to the Malay-Polynesian forms. He also drew attention to the Japanese accentuation, seeing the relationship with the Malay language (Polivanov, 1968: 150–151). Thus, he concluded that the “hybrid origin” of the Japanese language involved both the Altaic and the Malay-Polynesian elements (Polivanov, 1968: 152; Shibatani, 1990: 103–104). Instead, Hizanosuke Izu (1953) believed that the Austronesian elements act as old borrowings in Japanese (Shibatani, 1990: 103–104). Vono, who believed that popularising the theory of the southern substrate, was speaking in a language of southern origin in Japan during the Jomon period. It is phonologically similar to the Polynesian ones. Later, in the Yayoi period the aliens from South Korea brought the Altaic language (Shibatani, 1990: 105).

Following Aston (1879: 317–364), the problem of the relationship between the Korean and Japanese languages was developed by Kanazawa (1910) and Ogura (1934). The

restraint on this issue was shown by Hattori (1959) (Vovin, 2010: 3). From the beginning of the XX century the study of Korean-Japanese linguistic connections by the Japanese scholars was mainly aimed at proving the origin of the Korean language from the Japanese one. It reflected the tendency of research relevant to the policy pursued by Japan in relation to Korea. The most representative scholars who were engaged in pre-war research in the field of Korean-Japanese linguistic connections were Kanazawa, Simmura, Ogura (Ivanov, 2000: 52–60).

However, until 1945 in Japan this problem was studied very little, since the current hypothesis about the origin of the Japanese nation in general denied the possibility of the existence of any relatives (Ivanov, 2000: 52–60). Such a version can be traced in particular to Kwon (1962), denying, for example, the Korean-Japanese relationship (Miller, 1971: 16-19).

The reconstruction of the **Altaic mōr[u] “tree, forest”**, proposed by Starostin, was conducted based on the reconstructed etymons from different language groups: *Mongolian* *mo-du (< *mor-du) “tree”; *Tungus Manchu* *mō “tree”, as well as *Korean* *mōi(h), *mōró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and *Japanese* *mōri “forest” (see Table 1).

Table 1*External Reconstruction of Altaic*

Altaic language family		Mongolian language group		Tungus Manchu language group		Korean language		Japanese language	
PE	PC	PE	PC	PE	PC	PE	PC	PE	PC
*mōr[u]	“tree, forest”	*mo-du (< *mor-du)	“tree”	*mō	“tree”	*mōi(h), *mōró	“mountain, forest”	*mōri	“forest”
m	“tree, forest”	m	“tree”	m	“tree”	m	“forest”	m	“forest”
ō		o		ō		ō / ò		ó	
r		d / r				i/r		r	
[u]		u				o		í	

However, in this paper, the focus will be on analyzing the material of *the Korean* (Modern Korean mwē, me (arch.), Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], mōró) and *the Japanese* (Ancient Japanese m(w)ori; Middle Japanese mōri; Tokyo mōri; Kyoto mōri; Kagoshima mōri) languages. Their genetic matches will help to consider and call the key criteria for justifying one or another of their relatives or unlikelihood?

4.2. Phonomorphological Processes.

The issues concerning the phonological reconstruction are directed to the restoration of the phonetic structure of archetypes (proto-forms) and ultimately to the construction of the phonological system of the Proto-Language (Klimov, 1989: 92).

That is why the archetypes of sounds that have already disappeared or have changed significantly become the object of study in it. But since (Klimov, 1989: 11; Makayev 1970: 136–141) it is possible to reconstruct what has been preserved, but not something that has disappeared, then in this case the characteristics of archetypal sounds can be judged by their reflexes (Serebrennikov, 1974: 319). Tsintsius defines the notion of *reflexes* as the series with the regular correspondences (Tsintsius, 1979: 12). Let's try to analyze those basic phonological / phonetic laws that are fixed among the references given by Starostin to the correspondences of the Korean and Japanese languages. They not only reach the corresponding etymons, i. e. Korean *mōi(h), *mōró and Japanese *mōri, but also Altaic *mōr[u].

The first law is **the law of palatalization**, reflecting the sonorant phoneme /m/, which hardness / softness becomes soft /m'/ only in Modern Korean me. This phonetic process is typical for vowel phonemes, which correspond to the front row at the place of creation (Shym et al., 2001: 43), i. e. the phoneme /e/ at the place of creation corresponds to the front row. As you can see, the sonorant phoneme /m/ is consistently traced in Korean *mōi(h), *mōró and Japanese *móri, as well as in the Altaic *mōr[u]. In this context, it is worthwhile to show on the example of the Altaic proto cowel *ō as there was an independent development of the Korean and Japanese languages that came out of the Altaic language.

For example, the reflex of the Altaic vowel *ō corresponds to Korean vowel *ō represented in *mōi(h) and Korean vowel *ò represented in *mòró, which, in turn, correspond to four phonemes: short /e/, /o/ (in Modern Korean me, Middle Korean mòró), long /e:/, /o:/ (in Modern Korean mwē, Middle Korean mōi [mōih-]). These examples demonstrate that the short vowel /e/ in Modern Korean me caused the effect of **the law of palatalization**. And concerning the long vowels that were reconstructed for the Korean language, as it is demonstrated by the Korean vowel *ō in *mōi (h), based on the Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], S. Starostin clarifies that they are marked by two points, or a line as a “original” tone (Starostin, 1991: 38). In addition, the reflex of the Altaic vowel *ō corresponds to Japanese vowel *á, which, in turn, corresponds to the vowel /o/ represented in Ancient Japanese m(w)ori, Middle Japanese móri, Tokyo mòri, Kyoto móri, Kagosima móri. The choice of the etymologist of the vowel *á is explained by the “Yale system” (which is not intended to reflect the pronunciation) (Erico, 2014). According to the hypothesis with four vowels, it is the equivalent to the vowel *o, if it has neither phonetic, nor functional meaning, nor evolutionary characteristics. We also draw attention to the fact that the vowel /o/ in various correspondences is fixed without tone (Ancient Japanese m(w)ori), with low (˘) tone (Tokyo mòri), high (ˊ) tone (Middle Japanese móri, Tokyo mòri, Kyoto móri, Kagosima móri) (Starostin, 1991: 101).

The second law is **the law of articulation**, in which the middle part of the palate approaches the middle part of the palate, and by doing so the sounds become soft, palatalized (Shym et al., 2001: 43). For example, in Modern Korean me, where sonorant /m/, which hardness / softness becomes soft /m'/. The action of this law is also recorded in the Ancient Japanese m(w)ori, where the consonant /w/ is represented. It is the verbal and actual version of the vowel phoneme /u/ in the place of creation, because it is pronounced with compression of the lips, rather than its rounding.

The third law is **the law of the morphemic structure of words** for the Korean and Japanese languages: if the Korean language belongs only to the syllabic languages, i. e. it is characterized by **the law of composition**, whereas the Japanese has two segment “ultramount” units – **the law of composition** and **the law of the mora** as a special unit of the Japanese language that is missing in syllabic languages.

The root morphemes involved in the analysis of the Korean language correspondences are represented by *one* (Modern Korean mwē, me (arch.), Middle Korean mōi [mōih-]), *two* (Middle Korean mōró) *syllables*. According to Mazur, sometimes there may be *three* or *more syllables* (Mazur, 1960: 37). The scholar explains that the words of Ancient Korean consisted of two or more syllables, so the words of Modern Korean with one syllable are either the result of the accumulation of two syllables of the specific Korean word in one, as it is demonstrated by Modern Korean mwē, me (arch.); Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], or words borrowed from other languages (mainly Chinese), as it is shown by the Middle Korean mòró (Mazur, 1960: 37).

As for the correspondences of the Japanese language, it is necessary to say that today there is a discussion of the relation of syllable and mora. Feldman wrote the following:

“There are different points of view on the relation of the mora and syllable, as well as on the long vowels (in other words, the coincidence of two short ones): some scholars distinguish between mora and syllable (for example, Syro, Syromyatnikov, with different motivation); others (Hideo, Haruhiko) identify the mora and syllable and see here two moras and two syllables (also with different motivations)” (Feldman, 1996: 17).

According to Rybin, **the mora** (from the Latin *mora* – “delay, pause”) is a rhythmic unit that is singled out in the phonology of Ancient Greek, Latin, Sanskrit, Japanese, as well as a number of other languages (Rybin, 2012: 10). That is why Kasevich says that the mora is equal to the open syllable with short vowel and words where two or more syllables are represented, if these components exhibit a functional similarity with a short syllable: they can bear their own emphasis and they are taken into account when determining the place of accent, the laws of “phonological length” of morphemes and words, verse sizes, etc. (Kasevich, 1990: 310).

In the early 70's XX century Mabuti, the Japanese linguist, published the work “Phonology of the native language”, which gives an analysis of the Japanese language from the materials of written monuments of the VIII century. In this paper, based on the state of the Japanese language of that time, he suggests the probable connection with the origin of the Japanese language. Thus, the views of this scholar can be traced in the correspondences that were involved in the analysis: the mora is constructed in the following way: [...] one consonant is combined with one vowel, which is traced in the correspondences of Middle Japanese *móri*, Tokyo *mòri*, Kyoto *móri*, Kagosima *móri*, in which the consonants /m/ and /r/ are combined with the vowels /o/ and /i/ respectively.

According to Rybin, this law was either not inherent in the Ancient languages of the Korean peninsula, nor in the languages of the “northern direction” are represented up to now. However, for example, in the Modern Malay-Polynesian languages (“southern direction”) this phenomenon is just observable. Therefore, one can speak of a strong tendency of influence (in Japanese language) from the south (quot.: Rybin, 2012: 38).

In addition, the Korean and Japanese correspondences indicate that the Korean words are *monosyllabic* with a vowel at the end (Modern Korean *mwē*, *me* (arch.), Middle Korean *mōi* [mōih-]), whereas the Japanese words are *two-syllabic* (Ancient Japanese *m(w)ori*; Middle Japanese *móri*; Tokyo *mòri*; Kyoto *móri*; Kagosima *móri*). As Ivanov notes, such differences arose due to the fact that the words of Ancient Japanese, gradually departing from their general Korean language lexical similarities and obeying the mandatory law in the Japanese **law of open composition**, were burdened with a new vowel (Ivanov, 2000: 52–60).

The fourth law is **the law of harmony of the vowels**, the effect of which is traced in the Middle Korean *mòró*. It means that the syllable of vowels in the word deals with the formation of some of its forms, and sometimes with the formation of words in a certain way. It is regulated depending on the quality of the vowel of the root or the phonemes of its final phoneme syllable: the vowel /o/ in the first syllable corresponds to the vowel /o/ in the second syllable (Mazur, 1960: 30).

The fifth law is **the law of prosody** as a doctrine of emphasis in the Altaic languages (Baskakov, Illich-Svitych, Kolesnikov, Starostin et al.) is trying to be developed gradually. Because, according to Starostin's words, “the Proto-Altaic accent system has not been restored yet”, which “is explained primarily by the lack of information on the accent systems of the Turkic, Mongolian and Tungus-Manchu languages”. However, we currently have “sufficiently detailed accentual information for the Korean (where the system of Middle Korean accentuation is well-known) and the Japanese (where the Priaponic accent system was reconstructed and the accent recordings have been available since the beginning of the XII century)” (Starostin, 1991: 133). Let's consider, on the one hand, **the accent**, and on the

other hand, **the system of tones / tonisation** in Korean and Japanese.

Under the supervision of Mazur, in Korean there is both *force* and *musical accent*. The musical accent is to increase the voice tone, which can either fall into one syllable or spread to several syllables. In Korean one can also notice the elements of force accent, and the accent in different words (depending on the number of syllables) falls into different syllables of the order (Mazur, 1960: 30–31). Korean correspondences can be divided into one- and two-syllabic words. They may trace both force and musical accent: if Modern Korean mwē, me (arch.) and Middle Korean mōi have long vowels /e:/ and /o:/, on which the accent falls, then in the Middle Korean mòró the accent falls on the last syllable (Mazur, 1960: 31).

The prosodic characteristic of the Japanese language deserves special attention. Polivanov emphasized that “accentuation is the most difficult – or difficult issue of the Phonetics of Japanese” (Polivanov, 1968: 146–147), because there can be no language concerning description of the Japanese accent “without precise dialectical localization of this system, as well as any historical and phonetic constructions are possible only after acquaintance with typical for different territories of systems” (Polivanov, 1968: 149). In one of Polivanov’s works it is mentioned that in 1906 the musical accent in Japanese was discovered by “Meyer, the experimenter”, who suggested “the presence of a musical accent in Japanese by exploring the instrumental writings of several Tokyo and Kyoto words” and published this material in the magazine *Le Monde Orientale* (Polivanov, 1968: 153–154).

The Japanese language refers to languages with *musical accent*, the main correlate of which is the change of melody of the voice tone – the registered differences of the accentuated, pre-accentuated and post-accentuated segments (Rybin, 2012: 11). “Japanese words and phrases are pronounced in equal tones. Instead of accent, the tone of voice is used that is needed to distinguish the meaning” (Berlitz, 2005).

As for force accent, “in Japanese there is no accustomed force accent, but the importance deals with the height of the tone, with which the words are pronounced” (Barinov, 2005). And unlike the force accent, the music one can be distributed to several syllables, as well as only to a part of the syllable. From the tone that the word is pronounced, its meaning often depends (Vlasova, 2006). It means that the meaning depends on the localization of the tone in a syllable (Kolesnikov, 1994).

Since the accent in Japanese does not have the force, but the tone character (“musical accent”), i. e. the syllable is pronounced with an increase or decrease in the tone from which the meaning of the word may depend (Kolesnikov, 1994), then the system of tones / tonisation deserves special attention. It is also typical for Korean. However, according to Mazur, the increase of the voice tone in the Korean language as a sign of musical accent should not be confused with the system of tonal differences (Mazur, 1960: 30), typical for the Japanese language.

Korean and Japanese accent systems have a different number of tones: if in Korean there are three types of tones: low (ˊ), high (ˋ), long (ˉ), then in Japanese – two types of tones: low (ˊ) and high (ˋ).

Two correspondences are noteworthy: Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], mòró and the Middle Japanese mórí, which have different types of tones: if there is long in Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], but there is low in Middle Korean mòró in the first syllable and high in the second one; there are high tones in Middle Japanese mórí in the first and second syllables. The reasons for such a law are found in the work of Murayama (Murayama, 1984), which is devoted to the comparison of accent systems of Middle Korean and Middle Japanese (in the Dictionary “Ryjizmuigies”). Based on the comparison of the accentuation of words (most likely borrowed from Korean to Japanese), Murayama concludes that Korean and Japanese accentwriters are almost identical in them (i. e. the low tone in Middle Korean corresponds to

low one in Middle Japanese, the high tone in Middle Korean – to the high one in the Middle Japanese; the third (“long”) tone in Middle Korean corresponds to the accumulation of the sequence of low and high tones, such a sequence precisely corresponds to Middle Japanese) (Starostin, 1991: 133). These accentual correspondences can be traced in Middle Korean mòró and Middle Japanese mórí, in which the high tone is recorded in the second syllable. In addition, we find matches with a low tone in the first syllable, it is Middle Korean mòró and Tokyo mòri, i. e. the low tone in the first syllable in Middle Korean corresponds to the low tone in Tokyo.

At the same time, some correspondences of Korean and Japanese, although showing the coincidence of vowel reflexes of the first syllable (in most cases, the vowel /o/ and / or /o:/: for the Korean language – Middle Korean mōi [mōih-], mòró; for the Japanese – Middle Japanese mórí; Tokyo mòri; Kyoto mórí; Kagoshima mórí). According to Starostin, they have a “diametrically opposite system of accent correspondences in the first syllables” (Starostin, 1991: 135): there is a low tone in the first syllable of Middle Korean mòró, whereas there is a high one in Middle Japanese mórí; Kyoto mórí; Kagoshima mórí.

According to Starostin’s assumptions, despite a certain number of exceptions, the regular accent correspondences are established in the main the register of Korean-Japanese lexical coincidences. It allows to reconstruct at least the Proto-Korean-Japanese system of tonal opposition in the first syllable – this is *A (high (‘)) and *B (low (‘)) (Starostin, 1991: 136).

In addition, despite the fact that there is vowel *ō in Altaic *mōr[u] (Murayama, 1983), which is long and, according to Starostin’s version, it corresponds to the high tone traced in Middle Japanese mórí and even Japanese *mórí. In this context, the scholar clarifies the following point: one can not speak of the connection between numerous long vowels and high tones that are typical for the Japanese language correspondences, because “if the Korean-Japanese tones are projected into a Common-Altaic state, then it must be recognized that in the Joint-Altaic (it means *Altaic etymon* – my italics – Y. K.) there were independent opposition in the longitude / shortness and high / low tone” (Starostin, 1991: 137).

Returning to the interpretation of the Japanese accent, which is based on the registry differences between the corresponding segments, it should be noted that the Japanese accent is movable and is not fixed. Phonetic words characterise the accent contour (which could be called “intonational relief”), which is associated with the distribution of low / high segmented segments into which these moras are part of. The accent contour is characterized by predictability: if the location of the last high (not-low) is known (it can take the first position in the phonetic word, if it is itself accentuated). It is quite easy to imagine the entire melodic “curve” of the phonetic word (phrases) (Bykova, 2005).

Despite the fact that the Japanese language probably inherited a certain number of prosodic processes from Korean, Bykova formulated the laws of Japanese accentuation (Bykova, 2005), which are traced in the correspondences of the Japanese language, selected by Starostin:

First, in Middle Japanese mórí, Tokyo mòri, Kyoto mórí, Kagoshima mórí, it can be seen that the increase or decrease of the register occurs when the transition from the first to the second mora is observed. For example, if there is the increase of the register on the first mora in Kagoshima mórí, then there is the decrease on the second mora; if there is the increase of the register in the first mora, then there is the increase on the second mora, like Kyoto mórí. As we see, the law deals with the increase or decrease of the register that can be either on the first or on the second mora. At the same time, the decrease of the register on the first mora in Tokyo mòri testifies to the accent on the very first mora, which is an accentosaucer, because there is no sign of accentuation on the second mora. Incidentally, if

such a first mora (not only in the anlaut) is part of the bimonthly composition, then it is considered to be stressed.

Second, it is not allowed to be more than one increase of the register, as well as more than one decrease of the register after the accent nucleus, like in Middle Japanese *móri*, Kyoto *móri*. It means that a word can not have more than one accent nucleus, despite the fact that these correspondences have two high tones on the first and second moras. We can assume that Middle Japanese *móri*, Kyoto *móri* have two high tones on the first and second moras where one is probably the accent nucleus.

Third, all segments of Middle Japanese *móri*, Kyoto *móri*, prior to the last mora with high tone, are pronounced in high register than the first (low) mora (Bykova 2005).

4.3. Semantic Processes.

We draw attention to the fact that **Korean *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest”** and **Japanese *móri “forest”** have the common meaning of “forest”, which is traced in one Korean language correspondence – Middle Korean *mòró* “2) forest” – and in all the correspondences of the Japanese language – Ancient Japanese *m(w)ori*; Middle Japanese *móri*; Tokyo *mòri*; Kyoto *móri*; Kagoshima *móri*. It makes it possible to absorb **the borrowing** of certain elements from the Middle East in Ancient Japanese, and subsequently into other correspondences of the Japanese language. The meaning of “1) mountain”, which is also given by Korean **mōi(h), *mòró*, can be traced only in the correspondences of the Korean language – Modern Korean *mwē, me* (arch.) “mountain”; *mōi* [*mōih-*] “mountain”, *mòró* “1) mountain”.

Despite the fact that the semantics of Altaic **mōr[u]* “tree, forest” was formed based on the reconstructed etymons from different language groups: 1) Mongolian **mo-du* (<**mor-du*) “tree”; 2) Tungus Manchu **mō* “tree”, including 3) Korean **mōi(h), *mòró* “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese **móri* “forest”, we notice that the “forest” has become one of the meanings along with Altaic, which is traced only in Korean and Japanese. The choice of this variant is associated with the archaeological culture of the Huns on the system of homebuilding and heating (Davydova, 1996).

5. Conclusions.

The analysis of the correspondences of the Korean and Japanese languages, which reach Korean **mōi (h), *mòró* “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese **móri* “forest”, help to identify, on the one hand, the common morphemes of Korean **mōr-* and Japanese **mār-* and, on the other hand, the common meaning of “forest”, which, in turn, reaches the Altaic **mōr[u]* “tree, forest”. It made it possible to talk about their genetic affinity.

The genetic affinity of the Korean and Japanese languages can be justified by the phonomorphological processes based on the phonomorphological processes that appeared to be common to these languages: 1) the law of prosody as a doctrine of emphasis in the Altaic languages, where the presence of low and high tones, as well as musical accent is observed; 2) the law of articulation; 3) the law of the morphemic structure of words, the effect of which is to fix the law of composition for the Korean and Japanese languages. In this case, the actions of certain laws are typical only for the Korean language: 1) the law of palatalization of the sonorant phoneme /m/, which hardness / softness becomes soft /m'/ in the Modern Korean language; 2) the law of articulation while pronouncing the palatalized consonants; 3) the law of harmony of vowels; 4) the law of prosody, in particular the presence of a long tone and force accent; the Japanese language: 1) the law of articulation, while pronouncing the velar consonants; 2) the law of the morphemic structure of words, in particular the law of the mora as a special unit of the Japanese language, which is absent in the composite languages, as well as the law of open composition.

The comparison of the semantic structure of genetic matches has shown that the meaning of “forest” is common to the Korean *mōi(h), *mòró “1) mountain; 2) forest” and Japanese *móri “forest” that reach the Altaic *mōr[u] “tree, forest”. Its choice is associated with the archeological culture of the Huns on the system of homebuilding and heating.

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Анотація

У статті здійснено спробу довести ступені споріднення між корейським *mōi(h), *mòró “1) гора; 2) ліс” і японським *mǎrí “ліс” етимонами, які сягають алтайського етимона *mōr[u] “дерево, ліс” на основі порівняння генетичних відповідників корейської і японської мов, запропонованих С. А. Старостіним у Глобальній лексикостатистичній базі даних “Вавилонская башня”. Надано три версії щодо спорідненості зазначених мов: генетичної (за версією І. Л. Кизласова), загальнолюдської (за версією А. А. Бурикіна) і взагалі про її відсутність (за версією В. О. Виноградов). Представлено історичну довідку щодо корейсько-японських мовних зв'язків з припущенням ареальних контактів.

Хоча реконструкція алтайського етимона відбувалася на основі реконструйованих етимонів з різних мовних груп: 1) монгольський етимон *to-du (< *tor-du) “дерево”; 2) тунгусоманьчжурський етимон *tō “дерево”, у статті основну увагу зосереджено на матеріалі 3) корейського етимона *mōi(h), *mòró “1) гора; 2) ліс” і 4) японського етимона *mǎrí “ліс”.

У ході проведеного дослідження виявлено генетичний ступінь споріднення корейської і японської мов, що демонструють фonomорфологічні закони дивергентного розвитку мов від алтайського прамовного стану: 1) закон просодії як вчення про наголос в алтайських мовах, в яких простежується наявність низького і високого тонів та музичного наголосу; 2) закон артикуляції; 3) закон складової структури слів. Зафіксовано відмінності у дії законів для корейської мови: 1) закон палаталізації сонорної фонemi /m/, яка за твердістю / м'якістю стає м'якою /m'/ у сучасній корейській мові; 2) закон артикуляції при вимові палаталізованих приголосних; 3) закон гармонії голосних; 4) закон просодії, зокрема наявність довгого тону і силового наголосу; для японської мови: 1) закон артикуляції при вимові велярних приголосних; 2) закон мори як особливої одиниці японської мови, а також закон відкритого складу.

Порівняння семантичної структури генетичних відповідників показало, що значення “ліс” є спільним для корейського *mōi(h), *mòró 1) “гора”; 2) “ліс” і японського *mǎrí “ліс” етимонів, які зводяться до алтайського етимона *mōr[u] “дерево, ліс”, вибір якого пов'язаний з археологічною культурою гунів за системою домобудівництва й опалення.

Ключові слова: ступені споріднення, етимон, фonomорфологічні закони, корейська і японська мови.

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METHODOLOGY OF LANGUAGE CONTACT STUDIES AND THEIR RESULT – LEXICAL BORROWINGS

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Abstract

The article is devoted to the study of those sociolinguistic processes, which became the main factors of the lexical borrowings appearance as the result of the language contacts in general and the English language contacts with other languages in different stages of the development in particular. It is described the process of new lexical units appearance, which adapting to the language-recipient, became the integral part of its vocabulary. It is defined the notion “Language Contacts” and its meaning for English enlargement. It is shown the methodological approaches for language contacts and borrowing process investigation. It is established the relation between such variants of linguistic contacts as bilingualism and interference, which contribute new lexical elements to the borrowing process. Types of interference are established which stimulate the borrowing process to English. Two main approaches (structural and sociological) were found to comprehend the process of language contacts and reveal ways of borrowed units adapting as the result of assimilation of the language of a new word. Available methods of lexical borrowing analysis are analyzed which had been developed by representatives of the structural approach (distributive analysis, component analysis, transformation analysis, oppositional analysis, semantic field analysis). Two types of factors, influencing borrowing processes within the limits of the sociological approach are characterized: 1) different social phenomena and 2) conscious society influence. Extralinguistic factors are found out which influence the increasing English vocabulary. It is defined the notions “Linguistic planning”, “Linguistic construction”, “Linguistic Politics”. The scale of borrowing analysis (Thomason) is represented and it predicts the extent of interference and bilingualism (irregular, more regular and intense contacts). The developed methods for the adaptation analysis (non-adaptation) of new words in English are systematized by researchers, taking into account sociolinguistic and proper linguistic processes.

Keywords: borrowing, language contacts, lexical borrowing, structural and sociological approaches, social factors, structural method and its methods, adaptation of borrowing, interference, bilingualism, assimilation of borrowings, dihlossia.

1. Introduction.

Modern globalization, as well as the close and constant contact of the languages during the study of general patterns and specific manifestations of their interaction, contributes to the successful organization of the communication process (Gudkov, 2003; Kulikova, 2006; Lebedeva, 1999; Pocheptsov, 2001; Salmina, 2001; Ter-Minasova, 2000 et al.).

In the conditions of the transcultural communicative space, intensification of the languages and cultures dialogue takes place (Pocheptsov, 2001; Salmina, 2001; Ter-Minasova, 2000; Ufimtseva, 2000; Chernyak, 2016; Khraban, 2016) the result of that is the lexical borrowing, because, as rightly had been noted by T. Kharban, “[...] borrowing processes reflect, on the one hand, changes in the life of each society, and on the other hand, – record the tendencies of the development of the lexical language system [...]” (Khraban, 2016: 139). It constitutes that the problem of mutual influence of languages remains the multiplicity and one of the most general and important topics of the modern linguistic research (Weinreich, 1979; Gudkov, 2003; Lebedeva, 1999; Martine, 1972; Rozenzweig, 1972; Salmina, 2001; Haugen, 1972; Scherba, 1974; Algeo, 2010; Thomason, 2001 et al.).

As the methodology of the research is oriented on the study of the borrowings analysis methods in English, the background of the general processes of the different languages contacting, we pay special attention to this particular language.

In the context of the outlined issue of the study of linguistic contacts which took place at different time intervals and their result – lexical borrowings, in particular during the development of the Old English language (Algeo, 2010; Jespersen, 1935; Singh, 2005), scholars began to search the causes and factors that influenced these processes.

Although the Old English language had been extended to a small territory and there was not literary standard at that time (Smirnitsky, 1998: 22), this did not become an obstacle to the penetration of the first wave of linguistic borrowings, which were necessary elements of the development of the English language for the reflection of socio-political, cultural, and economic processes for the transitional period of its functioning (Leleka, 2010: 7).

In the scientific space of Language Contact Studies the first who started to investigate the linguistic contacts and at the same time the processes of interference and bilingualism was Ascoli, Baudouin de Courtenay, Weinreich, Martine, Haugen and others (Vajnrakh, 1979; Haugen, 1972; Martine, 1972). The term “Linguistic Contact” was first introduced by A. Martine, subsequently U. Weinreich introduced it into the wide scientific use (Martine, 1972; Vajnrakh, 1979), who is considered to be the founder of Linguistic Contactology – the special area which studies issues of the languages influence (Vajnrakh, 1979: 2–27).

One of the variants of linguistic contact is the interference (Baudouin de Courtenay, 1963; Weinreich, 1979; Martine, 1972; Haugen, 1972 et al.), the condition of its became linguistic interaction (Vajnrakh, 1979; Martine, 1972; Haugen, 1972).

The term “Linguistic Interference” was initiated by the representatives of the Prague Linguistic Group, who addressed to the the issues of language unions, contacts and interactions. Weinreich, who subsequently deepened the study of this problem, considered the concept of interference as “[...] deviation from the norms of some languages observed in communication [...] and causes changes in models as a result of the introduction of the foreign language elements into those spheres of language which are distinguished with the higher structural organization, for example, in the core of the phonemic system, in Morphology and Syntax, in some spheres of the dictionary [...]” (Vajnrakh, 1979: 22). This definition of the scientist became commonplace in all further scientific studies devoted to the study of the problems of language contacts.

Another methodological problem in the field of linguistic contacts is connected with the process of bilingualism. Scherba identified two possible forms of bilingualism at one

time. The first form is when a person belongs to two opposing different language groups and uses a certain language for communication in each of them. Languages in this case can not be used together. This is the so-called “pure” bilingualism. The second form is determined by people who officially use one language, and in everyday life – another. Such bilingualism is called “mixed” by Shcherba, because there is the mixing of languages (Shcherba, 1974: 314). So, based on this differentiation, we might consider that pure bilingualism is bilingualism, and interference is mixed. The methodology for linguistic analyzing contacts develops within both processes, showing which principles will help to determine as its effectiveness as prospects of development.

2. Aim.

The **aim** of the article is to describe the methodology which had been developed by the researchers for the investigation of language contacts and their result – lexical borrowings in the English language in various stages of its development.

3. Methodological Approaches of the Borrowing Investigation Process.

One of the first researchers of the XX century, who was interested in the issue of language contacts, as it has been already mentioned, was Weinreich, having written the monograph called “Language Contacts”, where two main methodological approaches of the study of this sociolinguistic phenomenon were pointed out: 1) **sociological**, which, in his opinion, is connected with the fact that the transfer of vocabulary from one language to another is due to the cultural environment, and 2) **structural**, on the basis of which the language is perceived as new elements transmitted through other languages, as well as changes as a result of what is happening in the language (Vajnrakh, 1979: 184–186).

The structural approach was further developed in the framework of descriptive linguistics in the works of the Prague phonologists (Jacobson, 1935) at the end of the XX century – beginning of 30-s, who had solved the problem of interference (Jacobson, 2011: 197). They agreed with Weinreich who adhered to the ideas of structuralism that the transfer of linguistic features from one language to another was a process of general language change. Accordingly, every language is considered to be in exposition to potential interference originating from neighboring languages. And at first the scientists were focused on studying the structural issues of language contacts, but the social sphere was not at the time deeply meaningful, although Weinreich noted that since the end of the XIX century attempts were also made to explain the causes of linguistic contact with the socio-cultural environment (Vajnrakh, 1979: 27, 31, 103, 83–84).

In the opinion of Weinreich, in the course of time, Martine united epy sociological and structural approaches (Martine, 1972; Vajnrakh, 1979: 184–186), because, according to his observations, when it applies even to unpopulated pre-territory, there is the possibility that the new environment and way of life will determine the development of speech in the area, and directly and the language in general. As a rule, the language spreads through the bilingual situation, which, regardless of whether the language continues its existence after the linguistic confrontation or the disappearance of one of the two, always greatly affects the language (Martine, 1972). It was quite correct that his assumption was that “[...] language is not the coincidence of words and sounds, but it is clearly organized by the whole [...]” (Martine, 1972), and therefore “[...] the structure of language must be understood as the stable systemic-structural formation in its dynamics (Martine, 1972)”.

Martine assumed that, with the contact of languages, certain number of people would be forced to use two language systems in the course of their communicative activities, and as a result, the influence of one system on another would arise (Martine, 1972). The main thing is that these changes are not possible without the activity of the linguistic community,

because “[...] society is not homogeneous and hardly has ever been closed (Martine, 1972)”. The scientist explained this methodological necessity of combination of two approaches with the language influence analysis. If the structural approach allows to analyze language changes from the standpoint of the general structure of the language, the reasons for these changes should be analyzed already in the aspect of the sociological approach as the possible influence of another language in these changes of the contact language structure (Martine, 1972).

Another methodological approach for studying the process of language influences was suggested by Rosenzweig, who had distinguished the “microscopic approach” of their analysis – the synchronous study of the phenomena of linguistic contact, and the “macroscopic approach”, that is, the diachronic analysis of the language interactions results.

The researcher noted that the simulation of the process of changing contact languages in synchronization and diachrony has common features: the first approach is aimed at describing the process of interference with analyzing the language of bilingual individuals, including the experimental facts obtained with psychological methods. The second approach – the process of convergence of contact languages is verified with historical facts (Rozenčveig, 1981).

The appropriate methodology was developed directly for the analysis of speech interference, which included methods for analyzing of various types of it: phonetic, grammatical and lexical interference.

Phonetic interference is associated with the transfer of pronunciation from one language to another. It is the sound substitution that allows to perceive linguistic units without altering the secondary phonemic system. With regard to grammatical interference, it arises only when “[...] rules of grammatical units which are the part of the system of another language adapt to the rules of the language grammar” (Vajnrajh, 1979: 36). According to Weinreich, the result of grammatical interference is the identification of morphemes, syntactic constructions or grammatical categories of two languages on the basis of their formal similarity or functional similarity (Vajnrajh, 1979: 74). As a result, the grammatical model with invariant forms wins during long contact between two (Vajnrajh, 1979: 76).

The lexical interference is due to the lack of specific words to refer to the phenomena of being (Vajnrajh, 1979: 40). Weinreich developed even the typology of lexical interference. The first type is represented with the direct transfer of the phoneme sequence from one language to another without changing the meaning of the word; the second is the expansion of the sphere of use of the specific word on the model of another word, on the basis of which the transfer of value occurs; the third type is the change of the language sign expression plan with analogy and its congregation (single-word) in the contact language without changing in the content plan.

As for the lexical interference of complex words and phrases, it causes such processes as the adaptation of the components of a complex word or phrase to the word-formation or syntax models of the language-recipient; the reproduction of complex words and phrases is also done using specific equivalent words. This type of lexical interference Weinreich called replication and singled out the different types (actually replications, explanation replications, formation replications) (Vajnrajh, 1979: 83–89).

However, there is another Haugen’s approach of the interference analysis, which divides two contact languages, calling them P – “primary” and S – “secondary”, and he suggests that the switching of codes in the direction from P to S and back is not interference, as there is no interference and the material of the language P in the language S, which was completely assimilated to it (Haugen, 1972). This view is more closely connected with the results of language contacts and their adaptation (non-adaptation) in the language.

Proceeding from the understanding of various types of interference process as the problem of linguistic contact, it becomes necessary to investigate the result of the interactions of language borrowings, particularly their lexical layer, which enlarge the vocabulary of each language with the new components and English as well.

4. Methodological Approaches of the Results of Language Contacts Studying.

Since the linguists had been involved into the borrowed lexical units, the problem of the methods development for their analysis appeared. And even then I. Baudouin de Courtenay expressed the opinion that in general methods of research in linguistics should approach to the methods of exact sciences; “[...] it is necessary to describe the language on the basis of statistical calculations, introduce the concept of small quantities for the calculation of differences between languages, etc. [...]” (Baudouin de Courtenay, 1963: 8), which in one way or another relate to the development of adequate methods of analysis, differentiation and quantitative and statistical calculation in the contact languages of lexical borrowings.

The methodological principles of borrowing research were formed on the basis which has been already mentioned, also the structural approach and the methods which were used mainly for the analysis of methods of adapting borrowings in general and lexical in particular, including the sociological approach.

4.1. Structural Approach and its Methods for the Adapting Process Analysis of Borrowings in English.

Representatives of the first approach used *structural analysis techniques*, including distributive analysis, component analysis, transformation analysis, opposition analysis, semantic fields, which, according to many contemporary researchers (Eldarov, 1984; Sapranova, 2002; Timofeeva, 2005 et al.) were effective and appropriate to detect changes in English after the implementation of new elements into it.

The main issue after the penetration of borrowing was due to the discovery of whether the new lexical unit (Bogachenko, 2003; Volodina, 2007; Eldarov, 1984; Sapranova, 2002) “got accustomed” to the new English language environment. The verification of this task was carried out with the help of traditional structural methods in order to identify different processes of adapting borrowings in English.

The distributive analysis was used to identify the processes of *phonetic* (Bogachenko, 2003; Sapranova, 2002), *graphic* (Bogachenko, 2003; Eldarov, 1984; Sapranova, 2002), *grammatical* (Bogachenko, 2003; Eldarov, 1984; Proshina, 2002; Sapranova, 2002; Timofeeva, 2005), *semantic* (Bogachenko, 2003; Eldarov, 1984; Karimova, 2013), *phonographic* (Eldarov, 1984; Proshyna, 2002) *adapting*, and identify the differential characteristics of debt and their changes after acquiring lexical units adaptation in English.

As a result of these studies (Bogachenko, 2003; Proshyna, 2002; Timofeeva, 2005 et al.), it was concluded that not only the borrowing changes the structure, but even the English language has certain lexical, semantic and grammatical transformations (Bogachenko, 2003; Sapranova, 2002; Eldarov, 1984; Proshina, 2002; Timofeeva, 2005; Karimova, 2013).

The methodology of structural analysis method was the *analysis of semantic fields*, which also was effectively used for the researching of the new vocabulary, including determining of the minimum significant element – *sema*. And for this, as a rule, component analysis was used. In works of Bitco and Proshina’s with the following method, the borrowing was combined on the basis of its conceptual, functional and substantive similarity to the all-encompassing field, which was interpreted as the linguistic and cultural field of borrowing in the English language. In the process of this analysis Proshina revealed the national-cultural component of the semantics of Chinese, Korean, Japanese borrowings in

English. The same technique was used in the study and it also was found semantic borrowings from German, Dutch, Spanish, French into English by Taganova (Taganova, 2003; Proshina, 2002; Bitco, 2008).

That analysis of semantic fields became crucial for the implementation of *component analysis* method, with the help of which borrowed lexical units were decomposed into minimal values – semas for their further semantic classification and analysis. As a result, researchers systematized thematic-semantic blocks of new words to the English language (Bitco, 2008; Ganieva, 2010; Karimova, 2013; Kotov, 2003; Mikheeva, 2010).

This technique was proved as effective in the study of Sapranova for the study of the changes in the semantic structure of mono- and polysemantic lexemes of German origin in the English language. The changes of the new vocabulary, their evolution and word-forming models of German borrowings were analyzed. As a result, it was found the tendency of German borrowing assimilation in the lexical-semantic system of English subject to the general rules of the system: only those words adapt from the new vocabulary which denote essential objects and phenomena, wholly or partially replaced because of the influence of phonetic or lexical peculiarities of the English language.

Mikheeva also noticed such tendencies for the French borrowings and suggested that in the English language contacts there are the significant semantic changes and plurecentrisms which are the main characteristics of modern English and this is manifested in the existence of different regional variants associated with the interference (Mikheeva, 2010; Proshina, 2002; Sapranova, 2002).

For analysis the phonetic borrowings adaptation in English, researchers used actively the *oppositional analysis*, in particular to identify different variants of phonetic changes, when the same phoneme can be implemented in several sounds depending on its lexical environment. Eldarov used such analysis to identify changes in the Italian language, concluding that these borrowings are monosemantic (87%) mostly, but only a small part of the new vocabulary (13%) in English turned polisemantic (Eldarov, 1984).

Transformational analysis as an integral part of the structural method has been tested in the scientific research of Timofeeva, who investigated the grammatical transformations in the translation of the secondary predicate constructions, and noticed that the highest degree of interference was manifested in constructions where the Latin language and the Old English language were similar. In general, the Latin influence contributed to the more intensive use of syntactic models in such situation which was also existed in the Old English language, as well as the emergence of new models with analogy (Timofeeva, 2005).

The preliminary and review of the works where the complex methodology of the structural method was used to analyze the adaptation processes of borrowings in English gives grounds to claim that as a result of linguistic contacts these units complemented the English vocabulary in the field of scientific terminology, English literature and life.

Three levels of borrowing adaptation were presented as: 1) partially adapted, 2) unadapted and 3) fully adapted (Bogachenko, 2003).

As the adaptation is considered as the complex process of difficult words adapting to the new language, but the assimilation refers to more phonetic assimilations of one sound to another (Slovník ukrajinštinou, 2018), then in the English language scientific sources (Baugh, 2002; Cable, 2002; Piltz, 1981; Singh, 2005 et al.) terminologically and conceptually both processes are different, where “adaptation – a process of changing to suit different conditions [...]” and meanwhile “assimilation – the process of becoming a part [...]” (Cambridge dictionary, 2018).

However, we have to determine that in most of the scholarly works which are devoted to these processes, both terms are used as synonyms (Bogachenko, 2003; Komarov, 2007;

Eldarov, 1984 et al.). In our opinion, assimilation concerns the phonetic adaptation, while the adaptation deals with the grammatical adaptation.

Conditionally, this can be defined as the gradual stages of the entry of the new vocabulary into the language-recipient, where the first stage is assimilation, and the next one is the adaptation of the new vocabulary, that is, the penetration of the new word into another language, and subsequently its adaptation to the structure of another language. At the last stage it is determined whether new words will be coped with the specific vocabulary or will be taken forever from the use of the language (Bogachenko, 2003; Komarov, 2007; Eldarov, 1984; Cable, 2002; Piltz, 1981; Singh, 2005).

U. Weinreich referred these questions to the tasks of *the sociological* approach in the borrowings study. The scientist distinguished three complexes of relevant factors which influence both lexical borrowing processes: extralinguistic (sociolinguistic), internal (psycholinguistic) and actually linguistic (Vajnrajh, 1979).

4.2. Sociological Approach and its Methods for the Influence Factors of the Lexical Borrowings Adaptation in English.

As each language, including English, is the social phenomenon, then its functioning, as Mirsamirnova suggests, and it is worth agreeing with, is closely connected with the life of society at the various stages of its development (Mirsaminova, 2017: 117).

During the history of English, according to Komarova, there were many changes, as political and social, and which influenced on the functioning and development of the lexical fund of the English language significantly. In general, factors influenced differently, each of which had certain features that distinguish them from each other (Komarov, 2007).

Jh. Algeo called these factors as *extralinguistic* and defines them as: the parameters of extra-language social activity, which predetermine changes in language, both global and partial (Algeo, 2010). Borrowings can also be attributed to sociological (more sociolinguistic) factors of influence on linguistic changes, which made the language progress. Therefore, learning language not only from a linguistic point, but also from a social approach, we are convinced that language is not the closed system, it is open to external influences (Bersyrov, Bersyrova, 2016: 44). During the process of new elements borrowing, external, extralinguistic causes are of paramount importance, while internal, linguistic factors begin to influence a little later – in the process of borrowings adapting to the new language environment (Bogoslovskaya, 2003).

Obviously, the language is changing and evolving continuously (Bersyrov, Bersyrova, 2016), but the influence of society is not always the same or homogeneous. Different social factors affect the new lexical elements, especially their adaptation to the language-recipient. There are two types of influence: 1) *the influence of social factors* on linguistic processes, caused with the logic of social development, and 2) *the conscious influence of society* on the development, functioning of lexical elements and their interaction with other linguistic elements (Bersyrov, Bersyrova, 2016: 44).

Under the influence of society we consider with Bersyrova, the conscious influence on the functioning and development of the language, which manifests itself at different levels and in various forms, in particular, such as: society can contribute to the development of language or the gradual release of words of use; society can expand the social functions of the language with creating writing, organizing learning, publishing literature, etc; possible improvement and normalization of sound composition, morphological, syntactic, stylistic, lexico-grammatical systems of language; society has the right to regulate the processes of the languages interaction and regulate foreign language borrowing, etc. (Bersyrov, Bersyrova, 2016: 45).

With regard to the last factor of influence, it is necessary to take into account the fact that there are certain limits that block foreign language borrowings, contributing to the “protection” of the native language. Scholars paid attention to this and made the linguistic theory in language communication as the “language policy”. Schweizer defines this term as: “[...] the set of measures taken by the state and society to change or maintain the functional distribution of languages or linguistic subsystems with respect to the introduction of new and sustainable linguistic norms [...]” (Schweizer, 1987: 117). Of course, appropriate methodological tools have been developed for this purpose.

According to Schweizer, there is also the notion of “linguistic planning” and “linguistic construction”, which are directly related to “linguistic politics”. He defines “linguistic planning” as the concerns the conscious and purposeful factors of influence on language. Thus, “linguistic construction” is one of the elements of “language policy”, and therefore the notion of “linguistic construction” and “linguistic politics” are related to each other as part of the whole.

Direct functions of “language policy”, according to Bercyrov, Bersyrova et al. related to the functional side of the language. “Language policy” is the deliberate process that studies language dynamics through concrete, predominantly experimental methods, including the sociolinguistic experiment that involves studying the tasks of “language policy” and an analysis of the implementation of “language policy”. We are convinced that among these tasks of the sociolinguistic experiment there is a place for analysis of adaptation or non-adaptation of borrowings, since the state also regulates the process of entering new elements into the language (Bersyrov, Bersyrova, 2016: 47).

On the other hand, conditions should be created, conversely, contribute to the processes of borrowings adapting. Kochurova, guided by her scientific observations, suggests that the sociolinguistic analysis should include the identification of such factors as “[...] the presence of contact of culture and society (language contact); the certain level of bilingualism; the quantitative link of contact communities; intensity and duration of contacts; the degree of bilingualism in two languages; the functional significance of both languages in the life of bilingual society, the status and prestige of contact languages and cultures; assessment and relation to multi-linguistics, as well as the interference that accompanies this phenomenon [...]” (Kochurova, 2010: 148).

The analysis of these factors allows to predict the extent of interference and borrowing. Thomason developed the schedule for borrowings analyzing in his work “Language Contact”, which identified: 1) **irregular contacts**, resulting in single lexical borrowings, mainly the Nouns, less often Verbs, Adjectives or Adverbs (Thomason, 2001: 70); 2) **more regular contacts** – bilingual individuals are well aware of the source language but they are the minority among the speakers of the language-recipient. Lexical borrowings include both functional words (Conjunctions, Adverbial particles) and meaningful ones (Thomason 2001: 70). During more regular contacts the number of bilingual individuals increase and social factors contribute to borrowings; 3) **intense contacts** which are characterized by the high percentage of bilingual individuals among speakers of the language-recipient, where social factors favorably affect borrowing – lead to the large number of borrowings in all spheres of vocabulary; the structural borrowing also takes place, which leads to serious typological changes in the language-recipient. Thus, the whole phonetic categories appear or disappear; some changes affect even the substitute for agglutinating fungal Morphology, or vice versa (Thomason, 2001: 70).

It should be noted that in the conditions of diglossia, it can lead to linguistic “death”, and in the conditions of bilingualism, to linguistic convergence and the appearance of

pidgins (simplified language as means of communication between two or more ethnic groups) or Creole (Timofeeva, 2005: 33).

The conscious influence of society is also closely connected with the influence of social factors, among which: trade-economic, political, cultural, religious, domestic, governing assimilation processes and adapting borrowings. There is also the territorial fact of influence, that is, the neighboring location of countries. For example, Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians co-existed peacefully before the Scandinavian invasions, as the result the new words penetrated into English (Mirsaminova, 2017: 121).

However, according to Volnova's observations, it can be noted that the ability of the English language to borrow words was that "[...] Britain was constantly in direct contacts with neighboring countries, which eventually contributed to the spread foreign language words in its territory. The influence of one language or another can always be linked to historical factors, including various conquests, trade, wars and many others [...]" (Volnova, 2014). All these reasons determine the different intensity of borrowings, depending on the circumstances in one or another period of time (Volnova, 2014).

Sarangyeva also agrees that the borrowings of lexical elements from one language to another is the very ancient phenomenon and is known in the languages of the prehistoric world. She assumes that "[...] for the borrowed words in the new language, it is very important which words they got into with [...]" (Sarangyeva, 2015: 23).

As for English, Volnova suggests that the English vocabulary has been constantly changing throughout history. "One of the borrowing problems that came to English is their number, which is quite large compared to other languages [...]" and which represent more than fifty percent of the total vocabulary, and the rest in it are the specific English words and expressions (Volnova, 2014).

In addition to historical factors, the influence of science and technology was powerful when it came to the English language in terms of scientific and technical terms (Komarov, Mirsaminova), first of all, since the long period of their development.

It should also be said that "[...] borrowings in the Old English language were due to the presence of lacuna in its lexical system, that is, the absence of the necessary names for the expression of new concepts and objects. The Old English language, perceiving words, corresponds to the notions for which it has no signs, borrowed both the concept and the very name [...]" (Tukalevskaya, 2008: 246).

All this suggests that the causes of contact-induced changes exist not only in the structure of interrelated languages, but also outside of it. For the most part, the same linguistic material in different languages acquires the opposite transformations, which is associated with many non-linguistic factors (Kochurova, 2010: 148).

In order to understand why some borrowings are fully adapted and others disappear, *methods* should be identified to help first analyse the ways in which they are assimilated to a new language and, as a consequence, subsequently their adaptation or non-adaptation.

At one time the researchers used the elements of the *comparative-historical method* to reconstruct the historical factors that led to the entry of borrowings into a new language due to the presence of lexical gaps very successfully. In particular Timofeeva directed this method on the analysis of those extra-linguistic factors which had influenced the adaptation of new words in the Old English language. The researcher believes that the linguistic interference and bilingualism, due to writing and religion, directed the Old English language to the assimilation of Latin words due to the lack of their own terms and concepts that were necessary at that time. Although the Anglo-Saxons resisted the new vocabulary, however, they were forced to adapt new words to fill lexical gaps, which have come from different fields and sources in other languages (Timofeeva, 2005).

Using this method, and the comparative-typological method and the method linguogeography Sapranova determined the degree of adaptation depends on different reasons, including genetic kinship of languages, typological similarity, frequency of use of the borrowed units, duration of use of the word, the degree of intensity assimilating the influence of the language-recipient. The main condition, in its view, should be bilingualism, where a foreign word is first used in the bilingual environment, and then extended to the wider language industry (Sapranova, 2002).

In addition, as it has already been mentioned, the researchers applied *methods of structural techniques* (Bogoslovskaya, 2003; Kotov, 2003; Lantsova, 2006; Taganova, 2003 et al.) to explain the borrowing characteristics at the certain stage of language development. For example, Taganova, analysing the factors of influence on American English, found that the process of borrowing occurs in two cases: 1) during the penetration into the culture of the recipient of the new concepts, and 2) when entering the culture of the recipient of the new concept. Mostly the reasons for linguistic borrowing is due to lack borrowed the culture concept, and therefore, the certain concept (Taganova, 2003).

The structural method as *the component analysis* is very effective in this technique, which, spreading the words in semas, can determine a new word which group borrowings belong to: domestic, religious, political, ritual vocabulary, etc. (Bitco, 2008; Lantsova, 2006; Proshina, 2002; Taganova, 2003 et al.).

It gave them reasons to identify the social factors that contributed to the occurrence of borrowed lexical units of the language-recipient at different stages of the English language development, that is, to show the areas of life where the lack of new concepts or terms.

Krasnikova and Bogoslovskaya used *the component analysis* together with *the semantic* one in order to trace spheres to enhance the impact of new words and “neologic” lexical units that came out at the time of use, and in general to identify extra-linguistic factors that led to the emergence of such linguistic processes (Krasnikova, 1994; Bogoslovskaya, 2003).

Exploring German loanwords in the English language, I. Sapranova found the tendency to expand semantic structures: some borrowed words at the present stage of development of the English language have already been used in the indirect sense which were borrowed for other purposes before and used in the direct meaning (Sapranova, 2002).

Also to determine the social factors influencing new lexical items and their further adaptation (non-adaptation), it was received the new linguistic method of *psycholinguistic analysis* (Kocherhan, 2006), which can reveal unconscious perception (denial) of new words by society. These subliminal (cognitive) processes provide an opportunity to explain why some elements, falling to the language, effectively survive and operate while others disappear forever (Krasnikova, 1994).

5. Conclusions.

In conclusion, we note that contemporary globalization and the constant language contacts, which are bilingualism and interference, actualize the appearance of borrowings in different languages, particularly in English. Borrowings came in the speech at different historical stages of their development. According to the English language, this issue remains debatable and controversial in terms of its borrowings in the Old English period. However, observations show that although the Old English was spoken in the small area and did not have the single literary standard, it did not prevent the penetration of new words in the lexical structure of the language, which is not permanent and is constantly changing throughout its history. There were developed two approaches for analyzing these processes: the sociological and structural analysis for borrowings. Representatives of the structural approach used structural methods (distribution analysis, componential analysis,

transformational analysis, opposition analysis, analysis of semantic fields) for the study of new vocabulary, which was allowed to identify different degrees of adaptation to the language-recipient (non-adapted, partially adapted, fully adapted).

The sociological approach helped to identify two main factors influencing the process of adaptation of lexical borrowings in general and English in particular: at first, that social factors impact directly on language contact (conquest, war, trade, religion, etc.), and then social factors which determine the further conditions of adaptation (non-adaptation) of borrowings (“language policy”).

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Анотація

Стаття присвячена вивченню тих соціолінгвістичних процесів, що стали головними факторами появи лексичних запозичень як результату контактування мов загалом та контактування англійської мови з іншими мовами на різних етапах розвитку зокрема. Описано процес появи нових лексичних одиниць у мові-реципієнті, які адаптуються і стають складовою частиною її словникового складу. Визначено поняття “мовні контакти” і його значення для збільшення словникового складу давньоанглійської мови. Представлено методологічні підходи для вивчення мовних контактів і процесу запозичень. Установлено співвідношення між такими варіантами мовного контактування, як білінгвізм та інтерференція, що сприяють процесу запозичень нових лексичних елементів. Визначено типи інтерференції, що слугують поштовхом появи нових слів у англійській мові. Виявлено два основні підходи (структурний і соціологічний) до осмислення процесу мовних контактів і розкриття способів адаптації запозичених одиниць у результаті засвоєння мовою нового слова. Проаналізовано наявні методики аналізу лексичних запозичень, які розроблялися представниками структурного підходу (дистрибутивний аналіз, компонентний аналіз, трансформаційний аналіз, опозиційний аналіз, аналіз семантичних полів). Схарактеризовано два види факторів впливу на процеси запозичень у межах соціологічного підходу: 1) різномітні соціальні явища й 2) свідомий вплив суспільства. Виявлено екстралінгвістичні фактори впливу на поповнення словникового складу англійської мови. Окреслено поняття: “лінгвістичне планування”, “лінгвістична конструкція”, “лінгвістична політика”. Представлено шкалу аналізу запозичень (С. Г. Томасон), яка прогнозує масштаби інтерференції та білінгвізму (нерегулярні, більш регулярні та інтенсивні контакти). Систематизовано розроблені дослідниками методи для аналізу адаптації (неадаптації) нових слів в англійській мові з урахуванням соціолінгвістичних і власне мовних процесів.

Ключові слова: запозичення, мовні контакти, лексичні запозичення, структурний і соціологічний підходи, соціальні фактори, структурний метод і його методики, адаптація запозичень, інтерференція, білінгвізм, асиміляція запозичень, диглосія.

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MODELS OF ARTISTIC-FIGURATIVE METAPHORS OF WISDOM IN ENGLISH FAIRY TALES

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Abstract

The article uses a cognitive-semantic approach to the study of metaphor, through which prisms all abstract phenomenon is considered as an image sensory knowledge and perception of the world, existing in the experience of the speaker. An attempt has been made, on the one hand, to differentiate language, artistic and folk-poetic metaphors, on the other hand, to consider them as components of a conceptual metaphor, which includes artistic figurative metaphors of Wisdom. The correlation between the metaphorical concept and the conceptual metaphor, which forms the two main layers: figurative and value, is specified. The spheres-sources of conceptual art-figurative metaphors of Wisdom in the discourse of English-language fairy tales, revealing schemes of rethinking of the phenomena of the world and the mechanisms of metaphorisation are revealed.

It has been established that metaphorically, wisdom has the size, it can vary, grow and develop, is a certain thing that a person has, has quantitative parameters inherent in animals, inherent in non-existence in general, is love, a receptacle for storing information, is differentiated on the basis of youth and old age, is a description of the environment, some surface, has a voice, is the key to understanding and identifying meaning, and so on. It is proved that in the discourse of the English-speaking fairy tale, Wisdom appears as the actual concept, formed on the basis of conceptual metaphors. Conceptual metaphors that form the concept of wisdom are represented by five major productive metaphorical models with their submodels: WISDOM is a LIGHT; WISDOM is a MIRROR; WISDOM is the FIRE; WISDOM is an OBJECT; WISDOM is HUMAN.

Keywords: artistic-figurative metaphor, metaphorical models, cognitive mechanisms, metaphors of wisdom, English-language fairy tale.

1. Introduction.

The nature of the correlation of language as a variety of means of expression and linguistic metaphor as one of the most burdensome means corresponds to the complex and still unresolved problem of communication of folk-colloquial / folklore and artistic speech. In the process of studying this issue, researchers eventually differentiated between such adjoining but not identical concepts, such as linguistic and artistic metaphor. The main

difference between these entities was explained by the fact that the linguistic metaphor has a semantic equivalent in the language system, in contrast to the artistic metaphor.

However, Popova also highlights a potential metaphor, which functions as a ready lexical unit, but which is not generalized in dictionaries (i. e. in the language system). This metaphor has an analogy with linguistic metaphors, while it is different from those of higher order, which are created on non-standard metaphorical bonds. And the very existence of significant creative potential prevents the introduction of this metaphor into the language system. Such metaphors, as a rule, are popular in folk poetry, in its various products, including fairy tales. In addition, these metaphors can be generated on the basis of artistic images, turning into a colloquial language, and vice versa (Popova 2003: 59).

Most of them acquire the status of conceptual metaphors of a particular culture, which includes the metaphors of Wisdom.

Wisdom has been repeatedly tried to comprehend in philosophy (Batseвич, 2004; Benvenist, 1974; Karasik, 1999), psychology (Fillmore, 1988) in sociology (Stepanov, 2001) repeatedly as a phenomenal ability of man, cultural studies and others like that.

Actually in linguistics from the standpoint of the cognitive-discursive paradigm, WISDOM / WISDOM was viewed as a concept in the spiritual-mentalist aspect, as well as one of the teleonomic concepts (Sternin, 1974), which is the highest, spiritual and valuable property of the individual. And previous observations of the structure of this metaphorical concept give reason to suppose that it is a universal phenomenon inherent in various linguocultures (Losev, 1978 et al.). At the same time, giving the status of a metaphorical concept to the concept of Wisdom still needs to clarify its cognitive essence, first of all, in terms of determining the relationship with the conceptual metaphor of wisdom, actualized in artistic texts through the prism of folk-poetic creativity. To this end, we will summarize the cognitive nature of the artistic and folk-poetic metaphors in general.

2. Cognitive-Conceptual Essence of Metaphor.

As already mentioned above, the modern scientific paradigm of linguistics is characterized by a cognitive-discursive vector, which is observed in the study of metaphor and which has recently been called a conceptual phenomenon.

Currently, there are several cognitive theories of metaphor, which are viewed on the background of other interpretations of the nature of the metaphor of its conceptual basis.

1. According to the theory of Losev, the basis of the metaphor is the deep thought process – the implementation of comparison by analogy, which reflects the set of logical-cognitive operations. The researcher attributes the metaphor to the primary cognitive function, which is inseparable from rational thought and the process of awareness of the phenomena of the world (Losev, 1978: 623).

Formulating the definition of a metaphor, Losev emphasizes, first of all, the cognitive mechanism of analogy as a logical-cognitive operation (Losev, 1978: 623). This cognitive mechanism is universal, based on the psychological process of association, under which Novikov in the cognitive-conceptual plan understands psychological and psychological operation, based on the ability of man to combine the real, true properties of the object with the characteristics of other objects, integrated into the human consciousness (Novikov 1983: 124–137).

But, as it seems to us, the representatives of Gaskell's theory only partly explain the constitutive nature of the process of metaphorisation.

2. The most widespread theory in which the cognitive and at the same time the conceptual essence of the metaphor is developed is the concept of Lakoff and Johnson, whose subject matter was the everyday (naive) metaphor.

According to Stepanov, “everyday used metaphors are used to structure the surrounding reality and control the intellectual activity of man and his actions. And it is here that the conceptual essence of the metaphor lies, for, as the scientist points out, the everyday conceptual system of the person whose categories she thinks is essentially metaphorical and plays a significant role in designating everyday realities” (Stepanov, 2001: 990).

3. And another view of the cognitive essence of the conceptual metaphor is obviously promising, whose representatives (Sternin, 1974 et al.) Believe that the metaphorical meaning is not elemental, since it is created as a result of a whole complex of knowledge processing, and not only on the basis of analogies and associations. And in this case, it is worth agreeing with Sternin, who, quoting Fillmore, states: “The cognitive metaphor is an instrument and at the same time the result of cognitive processes that forms new psychic categories, new conceptual systems, generates new knowledge, etc.” (Sternin, 1974: 447).

After reviewing the views of the representatives of the three theories of cognitive metaphor, we assume that the metaphor is a conceptual entity that reflects the complex processes of knowledge, fixation and interpretation of the phenomena of the surrounding world and which most thoroughly reveals the theory of conceptual integration of Fauconnier and Turner.

3. Cognitive Mechanisms of Creation of Artistic-Figurative Fabulous Metaphors of Wisdom.

The cognitive approach to the study of metaphor contributes to the fact that any abstract phenomenon can be explained as the image of sensory perception of the world that exists in the speaker's experience. This process is accompanied by an axiological assessment. At the same time, the description of the abstract phenomenon can be carried out through a more specific situation.

Thus, the artistic potential of the metaphor lies in their ability to transform into new images that prove the originality of reflection (comprehension) of the world by native speakers of different languages. Thus, in the process of artistic knowledge of the world, conceptual metaphors undergo changes, because they are based on the cognitive mechanisms of creative rethinking.

Creation of a vivid image is based mainly on contrast - the cognitive mechanism that underlies the creation of figurative metaphors. Considering, on the one hand, the figurative and valuable layer of the concept, which is formed mainly on the basis of the conceptual metaphors, and on the other hand, the cognitive mechanisms on which they are based, assume that such a methodological approach will enable to reveal not only the schemes of metaphorical simulation of Wisdom in English-language fairy tales, but also to reveal a valuable attitude towards this phenomenon in general.

In English-language tales, their authors created a kind of syncretic – an artistic and folk-poetic image, which we propose to call a fabulous metaphorical image. This image is created using such figurative metaphors that do not belong to any classical artistic image. The conceptual metaphor of Wisdom is based on giving the heroes of fairy tales unspecified features and sometimes absurd. Let's consider the most typical patterns and models of figurative metaphors of wisdom in English-language fairy tales:

1. The first metaphorical model **WISDOM is a LIGHT:**

Wisdom – the lamp may go away. Example: *Her mind seemed to darken when she tried to think of it. There came upon my dark and troubled mind a calm, as when the tumult of the City suddenly ceases. With the darkness came a darkness into Tenar's mind, so that she understood less and less of what was said* (Nesbit, 1993: 224 p.).

Wisdom has a quality of transparency. Example: *It was, indeed, a difficult matter to obtain a legal commitment to the hospital, so powerful and lucid did the youth's mind seem* (Popova, 2003: 59 p.).

I grant, at least, that there are two distinct conditions of my mental existence – the condition of a lucid reason, not to be disputed, and belonging to the memory of events forming the first epoch of my life – and a condition of shadow and doubt, appertaining to the present, and to the recollection of what constitutes the second great era of my being.

Wisdom may shine. Example.: *Her none too brilliant mind was not of much service in this crisis* (Oxford Dictionary, 2009: 1907).

The moment this permission was accorded, the countenance of Uncas changed from its grave composure to a gleam of intelligence and joy (The Columbia Encyclopedia, 2015 URL: <http://www.encyclopedia.com/topic/Rotterdam.aspx>).

He had even thought of retreating beyond a curvature in the natural wall, which might still conceal him and his companions, when by the sudden gleam of intelligence that shot across the features of the savage, he saw it was too late, and that they were betrayed (Shisler, 1997 URL <http://reocities.com/SoHo/Studios/9783/phond1.html>).

Those large, clear gray eyes were full of intelligence (Shisler, 1997 URL <http://reocities.com/SoHo/Studios/9783/phond1.html>).

Wisdom may have color. Example: *It was, indeed, a difficult matter to obtain a legal commitment to the hospital, so powerful and lucid did the youth's mind seem.*

I grant, at least, that there are two distinct conditions of my mental existence – the condition of a lucid reason, not to be disputed, and belonging to the memory of events forming the first epoch of my life – and a condition of shadow and doubt, appertaining to the present, and to the recollection of what constitutes the second great era of my being (Shisler, 1997 URL <http://reocities.com/SoHo/Studios/9783/phond1.html>).

2. The second metaphorical model **WISDOM is a MIRROR**: Wisdom has the properties of a mirror. Example: *This is only the Mirror of Wisdom.*

But suffer me to enter into thee again, and be thy servant, and thou shalt be wiser than all the wise men, and the Wisdom shall be thine. Suffer me to enter into thee, and none will be as wise as thou.

3. The third metaphorical model **WISDOM is the FIRE**:

Wisdom – fire can sparkle. Example: *He hoped at last to get what he had never received before – a rekindled spark of reason and perhaps a normal, living creature.*

Wisdom has the qualities of brightness and pallor. Example: *He hoped at last to obtain what he had never obtained before – a rekindled spark of reason and perhaps a normal, living creature;*

Wisdom may burn. Example: *He hoped at last to obtain what he had never obtained before – a rekindled spark of reason and perhaps a normal, living creature.*

Then I sank prone to the stone floor, my mind aflame with prodigious reflections which not even a death – like exhaustion could banish (MacMillan, 2012: 1748).

Would to Heaven we had never approached them at all, but had run back at top speed out of that blasphemous tunnel with the greasily smooth floors and the degenerate murals aping and mocking the things they had superseded – run back, before we had seen what we did see, and before our minds were burned with something which will never let us breathe easily again! (Oxford Dictionary, 2009: 1907).

4. The forth metaphorical model **WISDOM is an OBJECT**:

Wisdom may have shades. Example: *It was perhaps an effect of such surroundings that my mind early acquired a shade of melancholy.*

Wisdom has a category of beauty. Example: *The beauty and resourcefulness of his mind, which, after hours of intimate contact with her, he was pleased to reveal.*

'But then I should not have had my wonderful brains!

Wisdom has a sign of flexibility. Example: *And when his small mind bent entirely upon that, Odeen would give in, and then Dua would have to.*

Wisdom has a quality of acuity. Example: *His mind is finally keen enough to remember what has happened in all those temporary unions during melting* (Nesbit, 1993: 224).

She was populous with deep thinkers and subtle intellects (Nesbit, 1993: 190).

Still, so little was he practiced in the arts of deception, that his expressive countenance was, of itself, understood by the quick – witted Judith, whose intelligence had been sharpened by the risks and habits of her life (Nesbit, 1993 :190 p.).

The Scarecrow decided to think, and he thought so hard that the pins and needles began to stick out of his brains.

Wisdom has elasticity. Example: *His mind and will displayed less resilience and initiative* (Shisler, 1997 URL: <http://reocities.com/SoHo/Studios/9783/phond1.html>).

Wisdom has the properties of the cold. Example: *Always an ice-cold intellectual machine; slight, blond, blue – eyed, and spectacled* (Nesbit, 1993: 224).

He was not without sensibilities of the highest order, only they were governed and controlled in him by that cold iron thing, his reason, which never forsook him.

Wisdom has the property of metal hardness. Example: *He was not without sensibilities of the highest order, only they were governed and controlled in him by that cold iron thing, his reason, which never forsook him* (Nesbit, 1993: 224).

To give birth to an idea – to discover a great thought – an intellectual nugget, right under the dust of a field that many a brain – plow had gone over before (Nesbit, 1993: 224).

Wisdom May Vibrate. Example: *O holy Father! pardon in me the oscillation of a mind* (Kipling, 1994: 224).

Wisdom is in the Middle. Example: *Sound mind in a sound body.*

Wisdom may resize. Example: *His head was quite bulged out at the top with brains.*

Wisdom has a category of beauty. Example: *The beauty and resourcefulness of his mind, which, after hours of intimate contact with her, he was pleased to reveal* (Wilde, 1994: 207).

Wisdom – It can be tricky and rewarding. Example: *His own shrewd, political mind was working* (Wilde, 1994: 207).

He was not more than thirty – seven years of age – a big, flabby sort of person with a crafty mind (Leibin, 2010: 1219).

Wisdom some way. Example.: *Pis great competitor, if not his rival, was a brave distinguished in war, notorious for ferocity, and remarkable, in the way of intellect* (Leibin, 2010: 1219).

Wisdom is the Way. Example: *I do believe that I blushed with shame when this idea crossed my mind* (Leibin, 2010: 1219).

Wisdom can fall victim. Example: *On such a voyage, with its eternal monotonies, people's intellects deteriorate* (Literary Encyclopedic Dictionary, 1987: 751).

5. The fifth metaphorical model **WISDOM IS HUMAN:**

Wisdom can wander. Example: *Has it become to thee a labyrinth never ending, Where thy lost reason strays?* (The Dictionary of English Phonaesthemes, 1997 URL <http://www.geocities.com>).

Wisdom may be born. Example: *The birth of human mind – that is the basis of the universe growth, and not that rubbish you have just uttered* (The Dictionary of English Phonaesthemes, 1997 URL: <http://www.geocities.com>).

Wisdom is executioner. Example: *Her mind had all her feelings executed* (The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, 1994: 1042).

Does this have anything to do with intellect, that executioner of yours? (Baum, 1993: 145).

Wisdom – Sea or Ocean. Example: *The changing color of the waves that break upon the idle sea– shore of the mind!* (Carroll, 1994: 160).

Wisdom may be mistaken. Example: *Were half the power, that fills the world with terror, were half the wealth, bestowed on camps and courts, given to redeem the human mind from error* (Carroll, 2008: 144).

Wisdom has the signs of the ship. Example: *My mind, with loosely – hanging sails, lies waiting the auspicious gales* (Kipling, 1994: 224).

Wisdom – Servant. Example: *And his reason served him damn well* (Kipling, 1994: 224).

Wisdom is the mountain. Example: *The vision shook the whole mountain of his reason* (Kipling, 1994: 224).

Wisdom – It can boast. Example: *So long as the boastful human mind consents in such mills as this to grind* (Kipling, 2007: 400).

Wisdom may not act. Example: *Ye minds that loiter in these cloister gardens, or wander far above the city walls...* (Milne, 1994: 284).

Wisdom has a voice, can speak. Example: *Your reason told you that I was much more likely to be trapped by you than by him* (Milne, 1994: 320).

And it was so easy for the resourceful mind of Frank Cowperwood, wealthy as he was, to suggest ways and means (Wilde, 1994: 207).

Perhaps he has seen enough to change his mind, and make him hear reason (Nesbit, 1993: 224).

Wisdom can sing. Example: *“Not only the voice sings,” she said. “The mind sings. The prettiest voice in the world’s no good if the mind doesn’t know the songs.”*

Wisdom has a category of silence. Example: *He yelled and yelled in the silence of his mind.*

Wisdom is inherent in animals. Example: *‘There is no one in the Jungle so wise and good and clever and strong and gentle as the Bandar– log.’*

The river – turtles, had long ago been killed by Bagheera, cleverest of hunters, and the fish had buried themselves deep in the dry mud.

‘But are the beasts as wise as the men?’ said the chief.

Petersen Sahib came in on his clever she – elephant Pudmini (Fillmore, 1988: 52–92).

There was nothing in the way of fighting that Kala Nag, the old wise Black Snake, did not know, for he has stood up more than once in his time to the charge of the up more than once in his time to the charge of the wounder tiger...

‘It’s Novastoshnah over again, but ten times better,’ said Kotick. ‘Sea Cow must be wiser than I thought.

He would go ten miles to the seal – holes, and when he was on the hunting– grounds he would twitch a trace loose from the pitu, and free the big black leader, who was the cleverest dog in the team.

‘It’s Owl who knows something about something.

But the Nightingale understood the secret of the Student’s sorrow, and she sat silent in the oak – tree, and thought about the mystery of Love (Wilde, 1994: 207).

4. Conclusions.

Exploring the conceptual artistic-figurative metaphor of Wisdom in English-language fairy tales, the spheres-sources of its origin were discovered that reveal the schemes of its

rethinking. So, metaphorically, Wisdom has a category of size, it may change, it can grow and develop, it is a certain thing that a person possesses, has quantitative parameters inherent in animals, inherent in non-existence in general, is love, a receptacle for storing information, is differentiated on the basis of youth and old age, is a description of the environment, some surface, has a voice, is the key to understanding and identifying meaning, and so on.

In the English-language discourse of tales, Wisdom appears as a conceptual essence: as its own concept, formed on the basis of conceptual metaphors. The main structural components of the concept of wisdom are figurative and valuable. Conceptual metaphors that form the concept of wisdom are represented by five major productive models with their submodels. The first metaphorical model WISDOM is a LIGHT: Wisdom - the lamp may go away; Wisdom has a quality of transparency; Wisdom may shine; Wisdom may have colour; the second metaphorical model WISDOM is a MIRROR: Wisdom has the properties of a mirror; the third metaphorical model WISDOM is the FIRE: Wisdom – fire can sparkle; Wisdom has the qualities of brightness and bliss Wisdom can burn; the fourth metaphorical WISDOM model is an OBJECT: Wisdom may have shades; Wisdom has a category of beauty; Wisdom has a sign of flexibility; Wisdom has a quality of acuity; Wisdom has elasticity; Wisdom has the properties of the cold; Wisdom has the property of metal hardness; Wisdom May Vibrate; Wisdom is in the Middle; Wisdom may resize; Wisdom has a category of beauty; Wisdom – It can be tricky and rewarding; Wisdom some way; Wisdom is the Way; Wisdom can fall victim; the fifth metaphorical model WISDOM is HUMAN; Wisdom can wander; Wisdom may be born; Wisdom is a killer; Wisdom – Sea or Ocean; Wisdom may be mistaken; Wisdom has the signs of the ship; Wisdom - Servant; Wisdom is the mountain; Wisdom – It can boast; Wisdom may not act; Wisdom has a voice, can speak; Wisdom can sing; Wisdom has a category of silence; Wisdom is inherent in animals.

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Анотація

У статті застосовано когнітивно-семантичний підхід до вивчення метафори, крізь призму якого будь-яке абстрактне явище розглядається як образ чуттєвого пізнання й сприйняття світу, що існує в досвіді мовця. Зроблено спробу, з одного боку, диференціювати мовні, художні й народно-поетичні метафори, а з іншого, розглянути їх як складники концептуальної метафори, до яких належать і художньо-образні метафори Мудрості. Уточнено співвідношення між метафоричним концептом і концептуальною метафорою, яка утворює основні два його шари: образний і ціннісний. Виявлено сфери-джерела концептуальних художньо-образних метафор Мудрості в дискурсі англomовних казок, які розкривають схеми переосмислення явищ навколишнього світу та механізми метафоризації.

Установлено, що метафорично Мудрість має розмір, може змінюватися, рости й розвиватися, є певною річчю, якою володіє людина, має кількісні параметри, властиві тваринам, притаманна неістотам взагалі, є любов'ю, вмістилищем для зберігання інформації, диференціюється за ознаками молодості та старості, є описом навколишнього середовища, деякою поверхнею, має голос, є ключем до розуміння й виявлення смислу тощо.

Доведено, що в дискурсі англomовної казки Мудрість постає як власне концепт, утворений на основі концептуальних метафор. Концептуальні метафори, які утворюють концепт Мудрість, представлені п'ятьма основними продуктивними метафоричними моделями з їх субмоделями: WISDOM is a LIGHT; WISDOM is a MIRROR; WISDOM is the FIRE; WISDOM is an OBJECT; WISDOM is HUMAN.

Ключові слова: художньо-образна метафора, метафоричні моделі, когнітивні механізми, метафори Мудрості, англomовна казка.

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METAPHORIC MODELLING IN MODERN LINGUISTICS

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Abstract

In modern science modelling is one of the main methods of scientific research. Metaphor began to be considered as a simulated object only from the end of the last century. In Eastern Slavic linguistics two approaches to modelling of metaphorisation have emerged – semantic and cognitive. Based on the analysis of linguistic studies in the sphere of metaphorical modelling, various ways of parametrising metaphors as a semantic and cognitive model have been characterized, their common parameters have been established, disputable questions have been highlighted. The author has developed a new semantic-cognitive approach to the study of metaphor and modelling of metaphorisation. According to it, metaphor is considered as a mental and verbal construct created in the process of human metaphorogenic activity. However, the study of cognitive mechanisms, including metaphorisation, is possible only based on the research of the results of their realisation in language (speech). Through the study of the semantics of the metaphorical nominations of a language and the construction of corresponding metaphorical models, the semantic-cognitive approach allows to establish the models of national metaphorical thinking characteristic of any historical period. The main points of this approach are briefly outlined, a parametric description of the metaphor as a semantic-cognitive model is represented, a rationale for the introduced notions of metaphorical mega-model and sub-model, semantic-cognitive formant is provided. The proposed technique is intended both for corpus research of metaphors and for the study of separate facts of a metaphorical nomination.

Keywords: metaphor, metaphorisation, metaphorical modelling, metaphorical model, parameter of model, sphere-source, sphere-target.

1. Introduction.

In modern science, modelling is one of the main tools for understanding the world, which is determined by the logic of the development of various scientific fields and the expediency of indirectly studying of individual fragments of objective reality. The methodology of modelling has a great research potential, the implementation of which contributes to the penetration into the essence of many complex phenomena of reality.

Modelling as a way of understanding the world that arose in ancient times received a wide recognition in many fields in the XX century (Glushkov, Ivanov, Vedenov, Shtoff et al.). It happened thanks to the intensive development of mathematical methodology; that is why new research opportunities and prospects of this method appeared in the disclosure of general laws and structural features of systems of different nature. In the XXI century modelling is actively used in a variety of scientific fields, due to the rapid growth of computer technology and the expansion of technical capabilities for obtaining new knowledge.

The study of language as an object inaccessible for direct observation implies an analysis of the results of mental-verbal processes in the human mind that is expressed in written (text, discourse) and oral speech. Therefore, modelling is one of the most important methods of linguistic research. In linguistic methodology, modelling is considered as a method of studying the properties and structure of linguistic units or phenomena based on the study of the properties and structure of their model.

The notions of model and modelling were first used in linguistics by the adherents of structuralism in the first half of the XX century (Bloomfield, Harris et al.). They did not set the global task of creating a general linguistic theory that would explain the phenomena of a language and their interrelations, but they developed the methods for modelling and synchronous description of a language. The terms “model” and “modelling” were introduced in 1950–1960 in a broad linguistic context in connection with the emergence of mathematical linguistics, which developed a formal apparatus for describing the structure of natural and artificial languages, as well as the penetration of mathematical methods into linguistics (Apresyan, Revzin et al.). At the same time, the views were expressed both about the limited possibilities of this method, despite its universality (Apresyan, 1966), and about the danger of narrowing the science of language caused by the emerging theory of models (Losev, 1968). The latter was considered not only to be the mathematical or logical theory, but the linguistic one (Revzin, 1978). Currently, modelling is actively used in linguistics and in unity with other methods of language learning is acted as a means of deepening the knowledge of hidden mental-linguistic mechanisms.

In recent years, modelling has become one of the leading methods for studying metaphors, since the active study of metaphorisation led scientists to understand metaphors as a simulated object (Balashova, Baranov, Teliya, Chudinov et al.). The imaginative mental-verbal activity of native speaker is carried out according to certain, relatively limited models. Metaphorical nominations resulting from cognitive processes, which are directly influenced by language and the method of conceptualization of reality characteristic of a given culture, are accumulated by an ethnos during its historical development. As a result, a metaphorical picture of the world is formed and modified, revealing a certain stereotype of national figurative thinking. In different periods of the existence of a language, certain metaphorical models are inherent in it (Balashova, Baranov, Kravtsova, Chudinov et al.).

The analysis of publications on the problem of metaphorical modelling (Baranov, Kudryavtseva, Laguta, Rezanova, Teliya, Tropina, Chudinov et al.) showed that modelling as a method of linguometaphorological research is still in the formative stage: there are relevant metalinguistic differences in the use of terminology in characterising metaphorical modelling, so there is no clear boundaries of the description of the simulated object; definitions of the metaphorical model and modelling in connection with the wide application of these concepts are somewhat amorphous; due to the ambiguity of the interpretation of the metaphorical model and modelling their characteristics are difficult to determine; the use of models and modelling in other branches of linguistics creates issues with the definition of the status and boundaries of the description of the object being modelled. Consequently, the use

of modelling in linguometaphorology requires further unification of its categorical and conceptual apparatus.

2. Modelling in Linguometaphological Studies.

In the Eastern Slavic linguometaphorology, two main approaches to metaphorisation modelling have emerged – semantic and cognitive. The *semantic* approach continues the traditions of linguistic semantics and proceeds along the lines of semantic derivatology in the context of key points of cognitology (Kudryavtseva, Laguta, Sklyarevskaya, Tropina et al.). The *cognitive* approach is based on the postulates of linguistic cognitive science taking into account the achievements of linguistic semantics (Baranov, Budaev, Chudinov et al.). According to these approaches, metaphor is regarded respectively as a semantic and cognitive model. Quite a few applied studies have been devoted to establishing and describing specific metaphorical models in different genre-style differentiation texts and discourses (Filatenko, Solodovnikova et al.), but many questions still remain unresolved or debatable.

Within the framework of semantic and cognitive metaphorical modelling, there are different ways of parametrising metaphorical models, the principles of their description and classification. However, despite the differences, there are similar features: the unity of the basic concepts of metaphorical modelling (with different terminology), operating with the same term “metaphorical model”, a commonality in the selection of such model parameters as the source sphere and the target sphere of metaphorical projection.

2.1. Metaphor as Semantic Model.

From the standpoint of linguistic semantics, metaphorical modelling can be described as the construction of metaphorisation models that demonstrate the regular transfer of names from one class of objects to another based on the similarity of their characteristics and reflecting the specificity of the ethnos figuratively-associative thinking at a certain stage of its development. Modelling is a “powerful learning tool and a convenient way to describe motivational-derivational processes. The introduction of the notion of the model makes it possible to move from the scattered facts of the vocabulary replenishment using the method of semantic derivation [...] to generalizations. It makes it possible to see the particular manifestations of the patterns characteristic of the semantic development of words” (Tropina, 2003: 116).

The term “model” (“semantic model”) in linguistic semantics first appeared in the work of Shmelev in describing regular polysemy. He noted the prevalence of “context-specific metonymic substitutions based on a certain more or less stable semantic model” (Shmelev, 1964: 54). The scholar emphasized the need for words to be included in one semantic unification as an indispensable condition for the development of parallelism of semantic structures. However, at that time the term “model” as applied to the results of the secondary nomination was not widely used and began to be used only in the late 1980s: “Essentially, a metaphor is the model that performs the same function in the language as the derivational model, but only more complex and, moreover, acting “hidden” and non-standard” (Telia, 1988: 38).

The understanding of a metaphor as a semantic model is based on the theory of regular ambiguity (Shmelev, Apresyan et al.). In accordance with the semantic approach, every model predetermines the possibility of transforming the meanings of words that are close in meaning. However, the metaphor as a semantic model is interpreted ambiguously: a way of formation that takes into account the denotative-conceptual meaning of the motivating and motivated sememes, as well as the semantic formant (Tropina); regular transfer of words, ideographically correlative, from one class of objects to another based on the similarity of

their properties; typical correlation of direct and figurative meanings for thematically close words (Ponomareva, Sklyarevskaya et al.), etc. Thus, the metaphorical model is interpreted as a regular relationship between denotative-conceptual spheres deriving and derived meanings of words based on a certain semantic motivation.

It should be noted that in semantic studies the descriptions of metaphorical models have significant differences in the characteristics of their parameters both in quantitative and qualitative terms: the basis of metaphor as the thought of the world (object, event, property, etc.); some figurative representation of auxiliary entity; the very meaning of the reinterpreted name (Teliya); archiseme, the replacement of which is carried out; the seme updated in derivative; new differential semes (Kudryavtseva); agent (parameter word); main and auxiliary subjects (figurative and direct meanings); attributable properties of objects; base of comparison; context (argument word) (Balashova); parameter word (image carrier); argument word (microcontext) (Vardzelashvili); ideographic relatedness of motivating and derived meanings (sphere of donor and sphere of recipient); lexicosemantic group of motivating and derived meanings; lexical meaning of motivating and motivated meanings; meaningful and formal characteristics of semantic formants (Tropina), etc. For example, the metaphorical model can be described in the following way: functional transfer from the anthroposphere to the sphere of artifacts; motivating lexicosemantic group “person” – replenishable lexicosemantic group “mechanism”; nomination: person by occupation is a mechanism that performs a similar function; semantic formant: differential seme with the meaning of a specific function, maintaining its status in a motivated meaning (*заправищик, калькулятор*, etc.) (Tropina, 2003: 124).

In the works describing the results of semantic modelling of metaphorisation is carried out the classification of metaphorical models for various criteria based on the analysis of a significant amount of language data (Kudryavtseva, Laguta, Sklyarevskaya, Vardzelashvili et al.). Thus, Sklyarevskaya (1993), relying on the data of ideographic dictionaries, describes the regular models of substantive metaphorisation established by it on the data of the explanatory dictionaries of the Modern Russian language. It indicates the sphere-source of metaphorisation and the direction of the metaphorical projection: e.g., “Animal → Human” (*осел, петух*); “Human → Human” (*актер, барин*); “Item → Human” (*лонух, пробка*); “Subject → Subject” (*гора книг, джунгли города*), etc.

Thus, in accordance with the semantic approach, every model predetermines the possibility of converting the meanings of words close in meaning to each other. Modelling can be based on various principles, which is accordingly reflected in the nature of parameterisation and classification of models. Therefore, when describing metaphors as a semantic model, denotative-conceptual spheres are most often characterized (or other semantic associations – lexicosemantic / thematic groups, semantic fields, etc.), which include the corresponding words in primary and secondary (metaphorical) meanings, as well as motivating metaphorical transference signs. In various semantic studies, the metaphorical models include components of different nature and quantity, but the separation of ideographic spheres of deriving and derived meanings is similar. Such works are usually characterised by a thorough consideration of the facts of a secondary nomination. Based on component analysis, it contributes to a deep insight into the essence of metaphorisation. However, such descriptions of metaphorical models are carried out, as a rule, on a relatively small amount of data, often of a selective nature. It is characterized by the complexity of structuring and the ambiguity of parameterisation of models.

2.2. *Metaphor as Cognitive Model.*

Metaphorical modelling in the linguocognitive aspect is a means of comprehending, categorizing, presenting and evaluating reality, reflecting national self-consciousness at a certain stage of development of society (Budaev, Chudinov et al.).

Understanding of a metaphor as a cognitive model established in East Slavic cognitive linguistics (in Western European and American cognitive linguistics, the term “model” is practically not used in relation to metaphor) is based on a mental phenomenon reflecting the process of cognition of the world and fixed in language. Metaphor as a cognitive model is interpreted in different ways: thematic field of significate descriptors; the sphere of the source, whose elements are connected by various semantic relations (Baranov, Kobozeva et al.); an existing or emerging in the minds of native speakers a communication scheme between two conceptual spheres, which can be represented by a certain formula: “X is Y” (Budaev, Chudinov et al.); projecting the source sphere onto the target sphere, as a result of which this or that denotative sphere receives insight and figurative representation using concepts that are borrowed from another sphere closer and more comprehensible to native speakers (Ryaposova); projecting the source sphere onto the target sphere (Kabachenko et al.), etc. Thus, the metaphorical model is considered in two ways: most often as a correlation between the source sphere and the target sphere of the metaphorical projection (the interaction of two conceptual spheres), fixed in the language and reflecting the national-cultural traditions of a given society, more rarely as a conceptual sphere, correlated with the sphere of the source of metaphorisation.

In cognitive linguometaphorological studies, the parameters of a metaphorical model are described in different ways: a significate descriptor; tree of the significate descriptor (Baranov); initial conceptual domain (source sphere, donor sphere); new conceptual domain (target sphere, recipient sphere); typical scenarios; frames; typical frame slots; the component that connects the primary and secondary meanings of words (Chudinov); source sphere; sphere of metaphorical attraction (sphere-target, sphere-aim); source sphere and / or target sphere frames; slots of sphere-source and / or sphere-target frames (Shinkarenkova); initial conceptual sphere; new conceptual sphere; conceptual subsphere; model indicators: frequency, productivity, dominance (Kerimov), etc.

Within the framework of cognitive modelling of metaphorisation, there are two leading theories – *descriptor* (Baranov) and *cognitive-discursive* (Chudinov) *theories*. They suggest the appropriate metaphorical model building techniques for corpus research of metaphors in some discourse; although metaphorical model is interpreted in them in different ways, which is reflected in the principles of modelling, parametrization, classification and description of models.

In accordance with descriptor theory (Baranov, 2004, 2006, 2014), the metaphorical model (M-model) is a thematic field of significate descriptors. Every descriptor includes the hierarchically ordered “trees”. The author of this theory identifies M-models of war, sports, games, transport, machinery, family relations, fauna, etc., structured in the form of “trees”. For example, the metaphorical model “War” includes several conceptual spheres “weapon”, “types of military actions”, “participants of military actions”, etc., which, in turn, are formed by a set of terminal concepts: “weapon” – *винтовка, меч, динамит*, etc.

The method of analysis and corpus description of metaphor proposed by Baranov makes it possible to use standard computer data processing tools and to involve for analysis considerable amounts of actual (language) information, which significantly increases the reliability of the obtained results. The corpus inventory of metaphorical models is an important stage in the scientific description of the functioning of metaphors in real use, as

evidenced by the emergence of an increasing number of such studies (Kobozeva, Mikhailova, Shipova et al.).

According to the cognitive-discursive theory of metaphor (Chudinov, 2001, 2003, 2013), while describing the metaphorical model, it is proposed to characterize such parameters as the original and new conceptual spheres (source sphere and magnet sphere), which structure their typical scenarios, frames and slots. For example, the model “Political realities is the human body” appears in the form of frames “human body”, “physiological organs”, “body parts”, “physiological actions”, etc. The frame “physiological actions” consists of slots “nutrition, digestion and adjacent processes” (*глотать, переваривать*), “sleep (and its phases)” (*дремать, спать, спячка*), “breath” (*дышать, перекрыть кислород*), etc.

The cognitive-discursive theory of metaphor acquired quite a few followers in the East Slavic linguometaphorology (Budaev, Filatenko, Ryaposova et al.). In the existing works, the data of scientific research is a sphere-target (type of discourse) and the description of metaphorical models is reduced, as a rule, to an inventory and classification of spheres-sources of metaphorical nomination and their frame-slot structure.

The linguistic-cognitive study of metaphors and the description of metaphorical models were carried out to a greater extent on the data of political discourse (Baranov, Budaev, Kerimov, Ryaposova, Filatenko, Chudinov et al.), and to a lesser extent artistic, scientific, medical, ecological, economic, pedagogical discourses (Kabachenko, Shinkarenkova et al.).

Consequently, when describing a metaphor as a cognitive model, it is usually indicated its parameters: the conceptual spheres of the source and the target of the metaphorical projection (or only the sphere of the source), their frames and slots. In the cognitive approach, conceptual convergence is perceived as a factor much more important than level or structural differences. As a result, when describing metaphorical models, restrictions defining features of the semantic approach are eliminated (a clear structure of models by semantic fields / micro-fields, lexicosemantic / thematic groups, etc., which includes the deriving and derived meanings, the seme's hierarchy). This leads to certain discrepancies in the representation of frame-slot characteristics of the same conceptual spheres. In general, cognitive studies of metaphor are distinguished by the scale of the material represented in them, the thoroughness of its systematization, and a detailed analysis of the structure of metaphors. However, in some works, metaphor is understood very broadly and often includes, as a research data, the facts of metonymy, paraphrases, comparisons, phraseological units.

2.3. Semantic-cognitive Modelling of Metaphorisation.

The author of this article (Kravtsova, 2011, 2014) has developed a new *semantic-cognitive approach* to the study of metaphors and modelling of metaphorisation. According to it, a metaphor is considered as a phenomenon of language and thinking. Through the study of the semantics of the metaphorical nominations of any language and the construction of appropriate metaphorical models it allows to establish the models of national metaphorical thinking, which are typical for certain historical period. The study of cognitive processes, including metaphorisation, is possible only based on the research of the results of their realization in language (speech).

Metaphor is understood as a mental and verbal construct intended for characterisation and nomination of an object and created based on its analogy or associative similarity with another object, which already has a name, in the process of human cognitive activity. As it is known metaphor plays a significant role in the cognition and understanding of human reality. On the one hand, it serves to name certain phenomenon, objects, processes, etc., which

contributes to the formation of a figurative concept of this reality. On the other hand, the constant use of the same metaphor in relation to a particular object of reality allows us to form a stereotypical view of it.

Metaphorisation is a cognitive and semantic mechanism that allow to detect commonality among various objects of reality based on the analogue and associative complexes existing in the minds of representatives of certain ethnoculture. Human thinking has all abilities that are necessary for metaphorisation: to analyse the perceived objects and situations, to compare different entities, to draw analogies among similar ideas about these or that realities. Thus, in the process of cognition of reality, a human highlights important elements for him, decomposes them into parts in his mind and then interprets what he has perceived, based on the components he has laid apart. The results of such a figurative cognition of reality are fixed in language (speech).

Metaphorical modelling can be defined as the construction of metaphorisation models that reflect the national stereotypes of the figurative analogue or associative thinking of any ethnocultural community (or individual ideas about the world of a native speaker) at a particular stage of historical development.

Technique of semantic-cognitive metaphorical modelling developed by the author is based on the following principles: understanding of a metaphor as a mental and linguistic phenomenon; synthesis of ideas of semantic and cognitive metaphorical modelling; implementation of metaphorical modelling based on the reconstruction of fragments of a national (or individual) metaphorical picture of the world; analysis of the representative corpus of metaphorical contexts; description of the metaphorical model as a three-component structure – original and new denotative-conceptual spheres, semantic-cognitive formant, which deal with a manifestation of metaphorical motivation (base of metaphorisation); the establishment of regular / frequency and productive metaphorical models; the possibility of structuring the metaphorical models as components of the mega-model and organisation of sub-models.

According to the outlined principles, a metaphorical modelling is carried out in several stages: 1) analysis and systematisation of metaphoric nominations of representative sample (studying various metaphorical contexts and establishing links among them); 2) the construction of metaphorical mega-models, models and sub-models (the ascertainment of the basic structures – mega-models and models, but then the detailing of every model, the identification of sub-models); 3) analysis and systematisation of metaphorical models (finding out the general properties of different mega-models and models based on which they are systematised); 4) summarising the preliminary results of the study of models (comparison of metaphorical models, the detection of the general and the particular, the ascertainment of the consistent patterns of metaphorical modelling); 5) analysis of the obtained results and their application (verification of the simulation results, elucidation of the extent of their practical application and the nature of their use in the further development of the theory of metaphorical modelling).

The developed technique of constructing and describing metaphorical models can be used: 1) as an independent operational mechanism in the semantic analysis of metaphorisation facts or a mandatory stage of the semantic-cognitive research of metaphors; 2) as in the corpus study of the metaphors of texts or discourses and in the study of separate facts of metaphorisation, which makes it universal. In addition, depending on the research objectives, it is possible to modernise the structure of the description of metaphorical models (for example, to exclude sub-models).

The *metaphorical model* is understood as a scheme of verbalization of correlative in analogue and associative terms of notions that exist in the minds of native speakers. The

parameters of the model should clearly reflect the essence of the metaphorical nomination process, describing the following main stages: the motivation (basis) of metaphorisation – the source of metaphorisation – the target of metaphorical projection (the metaphor itself). According to it, a metaphoric model is a three-component structure that includes original and new denotative-conceptual spheres, semantic-cognitive formant, which reflect the metaphorical motivation (for example, “human physical properties → atmospheric phenomenon | sound”). The ideographic way of representing the metaphorisation spheres (original and new) makes it possible to understand the system of logical and conceptual connections between motivating and motivated meanings. In such a description, sphere-source (denotative-conceptual sphere of motivating meaning) and sphere-target (denotative-conceptual sphere of motivated meaning), that are common for semantic and cognitive modelling, are topical and the grammatical differences are eliminated, that is typical for cognitive studies (in the semantic studies, descriptions are usually carried out based on certain parts of speech).

One of the most important parameters of the metaphoric model is the *semantic-cognitive formant* (my term – Yu. K. – that was introduced to describe a metaphor as a semantic-cognitive model) are a formal indicator of metaphorical motivation. *Metaphorical motivation* is understood as the relation of the original conceptual sphere (primary meaning) and the new conceptual sphere (secondary meaning) based on the common semantic-cognitive sign of different objects of reality. The semantic-cognitive formant is mental and semantic element that integrate different entities similar in some relationship. It act as a motivating sign of a metaphorical projection from the original conceptual sphere into a new one. In other words, it is a semantic component that connect the conceptual spheres of the deriving and derived (metaphorical) meanings and reflect the system relations of linguistic and cognitive structures. The semantic-cognitive formants are formulated as “form”, “sound”, “colour”, “dynamics”, etc. This terminological designation makes the content topical and typical for the formant (the conceptual spheres that form this) and displays the systemic relations of cognitive and language structures, emphasizing the essence of metaphor as a phenomenon of language and thinking.

To describe the results of metaphorical modelling, we introduced the notions of *metaphoric mega-model* and *sub-model*. The number of metaphorical models with similar conceptual spheres forms a mega-model, i. e. the direction of a metaphorical projection from one ideographic sphere to another, formulated in the most general form. A metaphorical model can have variations that are a means of its specification and are characterized by the variability of the original and / or new conceptual spheres and / or semantic-cognitive formant within a given invariant (model) called sub-models. For example, the metaphorical model “the physical properties of human → atmospheric phenomenon | sound” is implemented in the following sub-models: speech → precipitation | sound power: *голоса дождя*; *молчанье снегов* (Gippius); *дождь шептал* (Inber); speech → precipitation | sound power + sound quality: *бормотание дождя*; *лепет дождя* (Gippius, Inber); speech → airflow | sound power: *голоса ветра* (Bely, Tsvetaeva); *крик ветра* (Tsvetaeva), etc. In turn, this metaphorical model is a part of the mega-model “Human → Inorganic World”.

As a result of a corpus study of the metaphors of Russian poetry and prose of the first half of the XX century (Bely, Gippius, Inber, Tsvetaeva et al.) based on the existing works on the cognitive metaphorical modelling (Baranov, Chudinov et al.), ideographic dictionaries (Baranov, Karaulov) and own observations on the facts of metaphorisation have developed a classification of spheres-sources and spheres-targets of metaphorical projection. They are the parts of the following seven mega-spheres: “Human” (physical, physiological, psychical,

soulful properties of a human); "Socium" (social groups; social relations; art; as a sphere-source also: the army); "Fauna" (animal species; as sphere-source also: animal groups; physical properties and habitat conditions of animals); "Flora" (types and totality of plants; physical properties of plants; plant physiology); "Inorganic world" (physical and atmospheric phenomenon; cosmic, terrestrial and water bodies; minerals; gemstones); "Artifact" (buildings; housewares; foodstuffs; clothing; tools; equipment; military attributes); "Time" (properties of time; time intervals). As spheres-sources of metaphoric projection in fictional texts, the most often are the denotative-conceptual spheres "physical properties of a human", "physiological properties of a human", "physical properties of animals", "physical phenomenon", "water objects", "minerals", "buildings", "clothes".

Analysis of the facts of metaphorisation from fiction based existing works on the problem of metaphorical motivation (Laguta, Usminsky et al.) allowed to identify the main semantic-cognitive formants that motivate the metaphorical projection: form (outlines, structure), colour (tone, hue), sound (pitch, strength, tempo, rhythm, sound quality), dynamics (movement, action, development), quantity (multitude, small quantity), measure (size, degree of smth.), correlation (order, location, connection), object manifestations (detection, intensity, activity, reaction to smth., realisation), consistency (density, transparency, hardness), condition (type, character), time (duration, continuity, sequence), functionality (purpose), assessment (positive / negative).

The obtained data and the analysis of the results achieved by different scholars demonstrated that the revealed integral semes of the motivating and motivated meanings on different data are very similar. It indicates the objectivity of the conducted studies. However, there are still many controversial and unresolved issues in linguistics, the study of which should lead to the development of a general typology of the signs that motivate the metaphorical projection.

4. Conclusions.

In conclusion it should be noted that in modern linguistics modelling is one of the main methods for studying various linguistic phenomenon and consists in constructing models that recreate certain properties of the objects being modelled. Metaphor in recent years has also become regarded as a simulated object. In accordance with different linguistic approaches, it is described as a semantic or cognitive model, in the construction and description of which different ways of parameterization are used.

According to the proposed semantic-cognitive approach, metaphorical model is a scheme of verbalisation of correlative in analogue and associative terms of concepts that exists in the minds of native speakers. It is a three-component structure, including original and new denotative-conceptual spheres (sphere-source and sphere-target), semantic-cognitive formant. The developed technique of metaphorical modelling can be used in the study of both large metaphors corpus in texts or discourses of various genre-style qualifications, as well as separate facts of metaphorical nomination.

The main point of the semantic-cognitive approach to the study of metaphors is that through the study of the semantics of metaphorical nominations and the construction of metaphorical models reconstructed as a result of analysing any fragment of the language picture of the world, it is possible to reveal models of the national (or individual) metaphorical thinking typical for a certain historical period.

The further development of the theory and practice of metaphorical modelling based on the data of various languages in descriptive and comparative aspects is one of the promising directions of linguometaphorology. Conducting such studies will contribute to a deeper penetration into the essence of metaphorisation, identification and systematisation of productive metaphorical models at different stages of the evolution of one or the other

language, generalisation of the results of scientific research and objectivity of describing the processes of metaphorical nomination, which will open up great opportunities for ascertainment general trends of metaphorical modelling of reality.

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Анотація

У сучасній науці моделювання є одним з основних методів наукового дослідження. Метафора стала розглядатися як модельований об'єкт лише з кінця минулого століття. У східнослов'янській лінгвістиці сформувався два підходи до моделювання метафоризації – семантичний і когнітивний. На основі аналізу лінгвістичних досліджень з метафоричного моделювання схарактеризовано різні способи параметризації метафори як семантичної та когнітивної моделі, встановлено їхні спільні параметри, висвітлено дискусійні питання. Автором розроблений новий семантико-когнітивний підхід

до вивчення метафори та моделювання метафоризації, згідно з яким метафора розуміється як ментально-вербальний конструкт, що створюється у процесі метафорогенної діяльності людини. Однак вивчення когнітивних механізмів, у тому числі метафоризації, є можливим тільки на основі дослідження результатів їхньої реалізації в мові (мовленні). Семантико-когнітивний підхід дозволяє через дослідження семантики метафоричних номінацій будь-якої мови та побудову відповідних метафоричних моделей встановити моделі метафоричного мислення етносу, характерні для того чи того історичного періоду. Стисло викладено основні положення такого підходу, представлено параметричний опис метафори як семантико-когнітивної моделі, надано обґрунтування введених понять метафоричної мегамоделі та субмоделі, семантико-когнітивного форманта. Запропонована методика призначена як для корпусного дослідження метафор, так і для вивчення окремих фактів метафоричної номінації.

Ключові слова: метафора, метафоризація, метафоричне моделювання, метафорична модель, параметр моделі, сфера-джерело, сфера-ціль.

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PSYCHO- AND SOCIOLINGUISTIC TOOLS FOR RECONSTRUCTION OF INFERENCE / ASSOCIATION MECHANISM AS INDIVIDUAL COGNITIVE ABILITY

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Abstract

The present paper justifies the need to elaborate new methodology in psycholinguistics for the disclosure of such a complex cognitive mechanism of producing senses as an inference based primarily on various human associations. It was assumed that the tools of the empirical method of observation are the most appropriate for the reconstruction of this mechanism. It consists in obtaining data with the help of sensory organs, which are involved in the display of relations between things, objects, phenomena, processes and states both of the surrounding world and the inner subjective state of man. Therefore, the process of empirical study of reality is considered in detail, which provides for three main procedures: 1) actualization of the observed phenomenon, 2) its reflection in the form of scientific hypotheses, and 3) fixation of the obtained facts as the results of the study. Since the reflection process is the most significant, the article provides a critical review of the experimental methods and techniques for its analysis developed in psycholinguistics and partly in sociolinguistics tested in numerous cognitive-oriented works. It is proved that the most relevant results have been obtained by psycholinguists during the experimental study of reflected in native speakers' consciousness the association meaning of the word as an ordered set of all semantic components: more or less expressive, nuclear and peripheral things etc. The main of these experimental methods of observation (direct and indirect) were the following: free association experiment and targeted association experiment, during which the following methods were developed and applied: Osgood method of semantic differential, Levitsky method of multidimensional scaling, Sternin and Sternina comparative and parametric, Bendix method. As a result of numerous psycholinguistic studies, the experimenters pointed to the advantages (mostly) and disadvantages of the methods, which require further improvement of the developed experimental procedures.

Keywords: cognitive mechanism of the inference, association meaning of the word, free association experiment, targeted association experiment, reflection process, empirical observation.

1. Introduction.

Modern cognitive-oriented linguistics grounds on anthropocentrism as its basic principle, according to which the study of any linguistic phenomena and appearances must be carried out in close connection with consciousness and thinking of man, his culture, spiritual and social life, etc. with ethnic groups' values and their attitude to life in general being shaped.

Each social era has its own specificity, which is determined by analysing key ideas and concepts of society and builds its axiological scale on the basis of previous information knowledge of collective consciousness. From this point of view, every epoch has its own outlook and its limits, according to Lotman, are marked with bifurcation points giving impulses for unpredictable changes (Lotman, 1996: 341). The basis of the formation of value and world outlook of each ethnos, afterwards reflected in the layers of value-evaluative concepts, is the cognitive mechanism of inference (Zalevska, Kubriakova, Lakoff, Suvorova, Turner, Fauconnier et al.), which grounds on thinking processes of native speaker to produce unrealized logical connections in the evaluation of phenomena, items, events etc., which have not received language-rated objectivation. Based on own background knowledge, a person is able to make conclusions, including the ones of the evaluating nature, about the observed phenomenon on the basis of the associations arising in consciousness and those that can be disclosed by conducting various empirical observations and experiments with native speakers of a particular language.

2. Methodological Basis for Empirical Observation as a Tool of the Psycholinguistic Method.

The methodological prerequisite for any psycholinguistic (experimental) research is an observation over the object under analysis. And depending on the research tasks Leontiev distinguishes three main types of such observation: 1) purposeful observation, when according to the plan of the researcher (experimenter) the situation with the participants of the experiment (recipients) is partially changed; 2) self-observation (introspection); 3) empirical observation (Leontiev, 2005: 73). In the collective monograph "Fundamentals of the theory of speech" one of its authors Iliasov states, "the empirical (primarily experimental) study of aspects of speech activity, which is the object of psycholinguistics, is carried out using a number of methods borrowed from the related sciences – psychology, physiology and linguistics. In his opinion, the empirical study of reality consists in obtaining data through the senses (with or without equipment), which are a reflection of the relations between things, objects, phenomena, processes, and states of both the external and, in fact, the internal subjective world of a human. Provided the acquisition of data on the properties of phenomena of material and spiritual culture is impossible, then their indirect study is carried out by means of empirical observation of other properties tangent to the object of scientific research. Data obtained in empirical studies is called facts (factual information)" (Iliasov, 1974: 106).

Referring again to Iliasov, there are no objections to his assertion that the theoretical stage of such a study is in the analysis of facts based on assumptions, in their systematization, generalization and, most importantly, in the formulation of new facts based on their principles in the form of hypotheses, models, which should subsequently be checked in an empirical study, and, in case of actual confirmation, hypotheses become theories (Iliasov, 1974: 107).

The facts can be obtained via a self-conducted empirical observation or can be borrowed from other authors with binding references and arguments. Proceeding from this methodological path, there are such types of scientific observations: "1) purely empirical (experimental), in which the method of obtaining facts is described, 2) purely theoretical, in

which there is a critical analysis of the facts (obtained either independently or jointly with other authors), formulation of hypothesis and models, or 3) mixed (most often) – the facts are obtained and analysed separately or together with the facts received by other researchers. At the next stage, as follows from the goal of empirical study of reality, three basic procedures are determined: 1) actualization of the studied phenomena, 2) their reflection in the scientific concept, and 3) fixation of the facts” (Iliasov, 1974: 107).

We fully agree with this researcher, who assumes that “in the empirical study of various aspects of subjective and objective reality, the scholar must perform the procedure of actualization, in particular those properties of the phenomenon under investigation, [...] which should be monitored and reflected in the process of research and then recorded” (Iliasov, 1974: 108).

The procedure for displaying the properties of the investigated phenomena is a selective process on the part of the researcher (or recipients, in case of the study of mental phenomena) that occurs either directly by the senses or on the basis of internal reflection, or indirectly, by means of assumptions involving the identification of certain logical relations between the properties of phenomena to be empirically observed.

This procedural stage is the basis of selection of two main types of empirical observation method: direct and indirect.

The next third procedure – the record of facts through natural language or other sign systems is a transitional methodological step from the empirical stage to the theoretical one. At the same time, the most significant of the three above-mentioned interrelated procedures of empirical research, according to Iliasov, is a reflection (Iliasov, 1974: 108). And, as the results of numerous psycholinguistic cognitive-oriented studies show, this does not raise objections, in which various combinations of ways and means of reflection of the facts analysed were applied.

The important role in the organization of direct reflection is performed by correctly compiled protocols for recording individual indicators. They contain the list (concluded in advance) of what is to be reflected, which is a reliable way of organizing its results, which helps to make it consistent and systematic. At the same time, this list is also a way of fixing the data obtained, which later become a subject to statistical processing, which is the first procedure of the next theoretical stage of the study (Iliasov, 1974: 109).

It is assumed that the direct method of empirical observation is the most effective methodical tool for obtaining data about the properties of various mental processes and human conditions. For this purpose, when analysing certain mental processes, it is worthwhile for the recipients, who will reflect phenomena under study, to be well-prepared for such a reflection. The respondents are required to pay attention to the various properties and aspects of the psychic phenomena that occur in the process of their actualization in order to distinguish and fix them properly (Iliasov, 1974: 109). With this objective in view, an effective presupposition method in organizing a direct empirical reflection of the properties of internal processes is an interview of the researcher with the recipient(s) in the focused questions and answers session, which tend to contribute better and more accurate responses given as their reflexive report (Iliasov, 1974: 110).

Why is this method so important for empirical observations? Let us turn to the interpretation of this method in the “Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of Modern Terms” (by Shapar), where the interview, although determined as a supplementary method, is given a significant propaedeutic role, since during its implementation, various issues between the researcher and the recipients can be revealed, including distrust, incomprehensibility of certain questions, the purpose of the formulated tasks, etc. A conversation is necessary at different stages of the empirical research both for the primary

survey and clarification of the results and conclusions obtained with the help of other methods of observation (Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of Modern Terms, 2009: 38). With this in view, the following types of conversation are distinguished: 1) “introduction to experiment” – the stage of engagement in cooperation; 2) “experimental conversation” – the stage of checking the working hypothesis; 3) “conversation-interview” – the stage (my specification – *N. S.*) of obtaining information through an oral interview. Compared with the questionnaire, the conversation provides more freedom of the respondent in the formulation of answers, comprehensive response, and so on.

There are two types of interviews: 1) free interviews – not regulated by the topic and structure of conversation, and 2) standardised interviews – their structure is close to the questionnaire with closed questions. The differentiation of these types depends on the complexity of the problem, the purpose and the stage of the research. The extent of freedom to choose the answers of participants in empirical observation is measured by the availability and form of questions; the level of information received – by the complexity of the answers. Interview questionnaires are stacked by type of sociological questionnaires, which aim to get typical answers to a great number of questions (Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of Modern Terms, 2009: 39). They are pertinent in the first stage of empirical research for initial orientation in a scientific problem. However, questionnaires can provide the necessary information during further refinement of the properties under study and formulation of the new hypotheses (Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of Modern Terms, 2009:169).

According to Iliasov, compiling [...] questionnaires, forms, cards etc., facilitates a methodical organization of the procedure for direct reflection of properties of internal processes (Iliasov, 1974: 110).

Generally, above-mentioned two main types of empirical observation method – direct and indirect – make up the basis of the differentiation of psycholinguistic methods of study of speech, depending on the disciplines they are borrowed from. There are three main groups of empirical research methods of psycholinguistic aspects of speech on the basis of observation and experiment: 1) psychological (direct methods of studying the mental processes underlying the speech, and indirect methods of studying these processes through other parameters of one or another mental process), 2) physiological (indirect methods of studying mental processes that ensure the implementation of speech activity through the parameters of physiological processes associated with them, and also direct and indirect methods for studying objective processes associated with speech), 3) linguistic (which are tangent to psychological but differ from the latter only by those particular subjective parts of the mechanism of speech activity that are the subject of linguistics and studied by means of linguistic methods) (Iliasov, 1974: 112–113).

3. Experimental Linguistic Research as a Reconstruction Tool for Cognitive Mechanism of Human Associations.

One of the effective tools for combining methods and separate techniques of linguistic and psychological empirical research, which was consistently described in the already mentioned collective monograph “Fundamentals of speech activity theory”, is a linguistic experiment. But as it is shown by modern psycholinguistic studies (Bisovetska, Zahorodnia, Korolev, Terekhova, etc.) purely linguistic experiments do not exist.

For this purpose, let us clarify the scientific scope of the term “experiment” in “Psychological explanatory dictionary of the modern terms”, which is defined as “one of the main, along with empirical observation, methods of scientific knowledge in general and psychological research – in particular [...], which involves a special organization of the research situation [...] and the purpose of which is to register changes in the behaviour of the object under study”. Traditionally, there are three types of experiments: 1) laboratory,

2) natural, and 3) field [...]. In addition, it is possible to distinguish the ascertaining and forming parts of experiment (Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of the Modern Terms, 2009: 112).

The authors of the dictionary note that “a properly organized experiment allows us to test hypotheses for cause-effect relationships, and not only to establish the connection between variable characteristics” (Psychological Explanatory Dictionary of the Modern Terms, 2009:113).

In linguistics, according to Shahnarovich, one of the first researchers who began to discuss the need to verify the particular nature of a particular language phenomenon experimentally, was Shcherba (Shahnarovich, 1974: 125). He believed that the researcher of natural languages, having constructed some abstract system on the linguistic facts, should check it on new facts (this has been discussed at the beginning of this study), that is to see if the facts derived from this system correspond to reality (Shcherba, 2007: 31–32). These his ideas became the basic for conducting experiments in linguistic works.

The researcher assumed that the method of linguistic experiment is especially productive for syntax and lexicography, and, definitely, for stylistics. And in general, Shcherba was right to claim that without experiment it was almost impossible to study these areas or directions of linguistics objectively (Shcherba, 2007: 32). We are convinced that it refers not only to the named directions but also to other various aspects – as purely linguistic as interdisciplinary areas. Shcherba expressed interesting self-reflection ideas on this subject, in particular, about close connection between psychological methods with experimental ones: “something that I once called the psychological method [...], was a method of experiment, only back then I did not realize this completely [...]. Experimenting with various linguistic forms and observing what happens to their meanings, what senses they produce in their new qualities, etc.” (Shcherba, 2007: 33), – these were the first steps of the researcher, which were later followed up by the modern representatives of psycholinguistics.

As to the problem of developing effective methods of disclosing the meaning of the word, Sternin notes that exactly the psycho-linguistic approach demonstrates the real complexity of the matter. The meanings manifested through psycholinguistic experiments are always much more extensive and deeper than their representation in traditional explanatory dictionaries (Sternin, 2007: 12). This again confirms the existence of various scientific positions on interpretation of the nature of values in linguistic paradigms (structural and cognitive) and on the ways of its presentation in dictionaries.

In the context of this discussion, Popova suggests differentiating terminologically two types of meanings: 1) the meaning presented in the explanatory dictionary, and 2) the meaning reflected in the consciousness of native speaker (Popova, Sternin, 2007: 94).

Accordingly, this implies a different methodological approach to its analysis: purely linguistic – to detect the first type, and psycholinguistic – the experimental one – to reconstruct it as an element of the structure of native speaker's consciousness and the language world view in the whole. Kochergan emphasizes that associative connections are important for the reproduction of the language world view (Kochergan, 2006: 314).

“Lexicographic meaning, according to Sternin, can be considered as a set of basic nuclear semes, which constitute, as lexicographers consider, the main essence of meaning” (Sternin, 2011: 13). Meanwhile, Popova is convinced that “there is another type of meaning – the psychological, real or psycholinguistic meaning of the word as an ordered unity of all semantic components that are actually associated with a certain sound envelope in the consciousness of the native speakers. This is the content of semantic components that actualizes a separate (isolated) word in the human mind in the unity of all its semantic features: more and less expressive, nuclear and peripheral. The psycho-linguistic meaning is

structured according to the field principle, and the components that make it are built hierarchically according to the expressiveness of actualization in the consciousness” (Popova, Sternin, 2007: 97). The motivational continuum of value senses (as a complex matrix reciprocity of some components of various meanings, configuration of which creates layers of value concepts) of social axioconceptospheres is organized according to this principle. Their ethnosemiometric measurements are carried out most effectively through psycholinguistic experiments.

In this case we agree with Sternin, who notes that the experimental description of the semantics of the linguistic units makes it possible to imagine the content of the word as a certain psychological reality, to discover such semantic components that are not fixed by other methods and approaches of semantic analysis. Anthropometric methods (methods of measuring the reflection degrees of the phenomena of being in a human consciousness – my specification – *N. S.*) provide for acquiring of knowledge about language via addressing the native speakers with the language various questions and tasks consisting of two procedures: the actual linguistic experiment and linguistic interviewing (Sternin, 2011:13).

4. Linguistic Experiment and Linguistic Interview and Their Procedural Methods for Detection of Associations.

The scientist distinguishes between these two procedures: a linguistic experiment and linguistic interview (polls), with one often meaning another in the practice of psycholinguistic research (Sternin, 2011: 18). An experiment involves an indirect inquiry of information – receiving from recipients (surveyed) some new linguistic material, which is subject to interpretation, and only afterwards the results obtained are used for generalization and conclusions. Meanwhile, linguistic interviewing is aimed at a direct request for information – questions are formulated, and the answers to them are directly the result of the study, and on their basis generalizations and conclusions are made.

Sternin considers a method of linguistic interviewing in the form of a questionnaire as a not completely psycholinguistic but a sociolinguistic research, which is a direct appeal to the consciousness of native language speakers with direct questions for the detection of studied signs of speech phenomena (Sternin, 2011: 18–19). Linguistic interviews are conducted both orally with individual informants and in written form with large groups of informants; respondents’ (informants’) answers are recorded by the researcher or by the respondents themselves in writing. A written form (questionnaire) is most commonly used (Sternin, 2011: 19).

The experimenter directs native speakers to a conscious comprehension of the content of the linguistic units or concepts that verbalize them as well as the verbal formulation of their reflection (Sternin, 2011: 29). After receiving the answers, the researcher summarizes and statistically processes the results.

Sternin highlights the following methods (methods of analysis – my specification – *N. S.*) of linguistic interviewing method: procedure of direct linguistic interviewing, procedure of semantic differentiation (technique of detection of differential signs of a linguistic unit), procedure of evaluative differentiation, receptive approach, exemplification approach (Sternin, 2011: 19–20).

The procedure of direct linguistic interviewing aims at identifying the direct knowledge of the native speaker about the meaning of words, the possibility of word usage etc., and reliably reveals the mechanisms of designation of objects and phenomena of the real world (Sternin, 2011: 29–30). The procedure of direct linguistic interviewing takes place in several successive stages (with my correction – *N. S.*):

- 1) submission of the list of questions and written questionnaires to informants;
- 2) generalization of answers which differ in form but are close in meaning;

- 3) formulation of semantic components on the basis of the answers received;
- 4) ranking of the obtained semantic components by the frequency of their presentation in the questionnaires;
- 5) formulation of association meanings of the word (Sternin, 2011: 30);
- 6) comment on the word usage in a given construction, which makes it possible to establish which semes are actualized in the word when it is used.

Sternin argues that direct linguistic interviewing is appropriate in solving tasks related to the allocation of an empirical component of meaning as well as for the allocation of peripheral and dispositional semes. Although this procedure can also be used to identify the main, permanent, vivid semantic components, but for this purpose, it is necessary to develop a clear system of purposeful questions based on the specific study group of vocabulary (Sternin, 2011: 32).

The method of semantic differentiation as a procedure for the method of linguistic interviewing (the method of identifying the differential features of the linguistic unit) aims to obtain answer from the informants in the form of formulated differences in the semantics of words offered by researcher. This procedure is effective in identifying the peripheral components of the word meaning. The method of evaluative differentiation as a procedure is oriented on fixing the evaluative component of semantics in the proposed register of words and their subsequent differentiation for this component. The receptive method involves determining the meaning of the linguistic unit in the context and receiving answers to the question: what meaning from the suggested list has the word used in the context? The method of exemplification analysis – in another terminology – illustrative analysis consists in selecting linguistic examples-illustrations for one or another proposed linguistic concept or word by informants) (Sternin, 2011: 33).

The method of a linguistic experiment is an appeal to informants with the task of extending, modifying, supplementing, completing, etc. some text, phrase, forming a phrase with some word-stimulus (Sternin, 2011:20). There are two basic and the most demanded types of psycholinguistic studies (Belianin, Bisovetska, Goroshko, Zagorodnia, Sternin, Frumkina, Grimm, Engelkamp): 1) **a free association experiment**, in which an informant has to respond to the word-stimulus by the first word which comes to mind without limiting in any way the formal or semantic features of the reaction-word; 2) **targeted association experiment**, in which the experimenter restricts the choice of the word-response, for example, gives the instruction to respond with nouns only, etc. [Goroshko 2001: 16]. An association experiment in its two varieties is aimed at identifying the associations that have developed in the individual in his previous experience (Ibid.).

The researchers of various spheres of expertise, and not only psycholinguists, tried to reconstruct the history of these procedural experimental tools.

It is assumed (Yaroshevsky) that “sphere of imagery” (according to Aristotelian terminology – a sphere of imagination) was discovered as an object of scientific research even by Aristotle. Before, in the cognitive process there were two forms: feeling and thinking, then Aristotle showed that these forms did not exhaust the work of the cognitive mechanism. An important role in it belongs to the imagination. Aristotle not only identified such a cognitive ability of human as the representation of objects, which is a specific level of its cognitive activity, but also formulated the hypothesis that representations occur according to certain rules / mechanisms, which modern science calls laws of association, and cognitive linguistics – cognitive mechanisms (mechanisms of connections of representations by adjacency, similarity (metaphorical and metonymic) and contrast (binary)). It is apparent that Aristotle is the founder of one of the most powerful psychological theories – cognitive-associative (Yaroshevsky, 1976: 68–69).

The method of free association began to be actively applied in the early XX century in the practice of psychoanalysis as a way of reconstructing subconscious layers of the human psyche. Jung, the German psychiatrist and psychoanalyst, considered the association experiment as a valuable diagnostic tool, since he discovered that a latent period increased when words-stimuli were associated with circumstances that injured the respondent. During the reading of the stimulating words, the patient had to say the first thing that came to mind; the reaction time, changes in the breathing rhythm, and other indicators that would indicate the emotional response of patients were recorded in this process. If psychophysiological reactions to a certain word were different from reactions to the rest of the words, Jung concluded that the respondent had certain subconscious emotional problems associated with the stimulus word or possible response to it (cit. by Zagorodnya, 2018: 61).

Jung's ideas in psychology were developed by Luria (early XX century), who developed an "adjoint motorial method", which was a modified version of Jung's test and involved the discovery of hidden reactions of affect. In the early XX century the first psycholinguistic studies created associative norms based on association experiments of G. Kent and A. Rozanov, the American psychologists (Ibid. 2018, 61–62).

We should note that the modern cognitive vector of psycholinguistics aims researchers at the study of the specifics of language consciousness. Studying the language, according to Karaulov, is not possible without referring to a person as a specific linguistic personality (Karaulov, 1996: 7). And direct reproduction of vocabulary can be carried out [...] mainly by means of addressing the consciousness of the native speaker, that is, using the data of the free association experiment (Zolotova, 2001: 72). Associations have the status of a universal factor of language development (see Chabanenko): "all structural organization of the lexical system of language is determined by associative relations, which are constantly diversified due to changes in thinking and its replenishment with new concepts" (Chabanenko, 2005: 135). The association as a connection between certain objects or phenomena that is based on the subjective experience of a person is so automated that it cannot be understood (Frumkina, 2001: 189–192). And this gives reason to suppose that while studying the associations a researcher turns to the unconscious depth of the human psyche, to archetypes of collective unconscious (Frumkina, 2001: 192).

A free association experiment provides an opportunity to get information about the semantic connections of words that objectively exist in native speaker's mind. Linguistic consciousness, according to Karaulov, is manifested in two modes: active, or sense-forming, and passive, or sign-forming. Associative-verbal network is a material analogue and a source of sense formation, where the relation of stimulus-response is its initial stage (Karaulov, 2006: 89). According to associative reactions, it is possible to find compatibility of words in speech; what is more, the regularities of the distribution of words in a free association experiment and the probability of their appearance in the speech flow are extremely close (Ufimtseva, 2004: 4).

The reactions obtained during the association experiments can be considered the associative profile of images of consciousness which is specific to a particular culture and language. They integrate mental and sensible knowledge accumulated by a certain ethnic group (Ufimtseva, 2004: 5). The reaction in the free association experiment is free, which makes it possible to interpret it as a verbal actualization of the semantic component of a word-stimulus – the most expressive, important for linguistic consciousness of informant (Sternin, 2001: 36). That is why associative reaction essentially depends on age, sex, profession, social status of the informant, and many others factors (Sternin, 2001: 37). In contrast to the free experiment, the targeted association experiment is conducted with one or another restriction on the reaction that is proposed to be given to recipients (Sternin, 2001:

37). The procedural stage of the targeted association experiment is a research operation on the completion of an experimental phrase (incomplete structure). The researcher forms phrases containing the words necessary for analysis and proposes them to the recipients, but at the same time he sets a purposeful task to disclose in a response a certain semantic component of the word (necessary for the researcher) (Sternin, 2001: 38). The results obtained are generalized through the formulation of the corresponding semes, and the frequency of mentioning one or another seme in the experiment allows determining its expressiveness in the structure of the meaning (Sternin, 2001: 39).

5. Procedural Methods for Free and Targeted Association Experiments.

Methods of free and targeted association experiments as tools of an effective combination of procedures of direct psychological methods with linguistic ones were successfully developed and tested by various scientific schools of psycholinguistics during experimental researches. One of such integrated methods was the method of "measurement of meaning" developed by Osgood and tested under the name of "semantic differential" (Iliasov, 1974:114). This method makes it possible to identify components of the word meaning by selective procedures of each of the association experiments.

Chernivtsi scholar school, headed by Professor Levitsky, worked in this direction in Ukraine. This school was one of the first ones whose followers used similar tools to study the meaning of the word in experimental ways. This procedure is to provide recipients with words along with scales containing polar concepts (in the concept of this study, which deals with value concepts, we use the term binary concepts such as: good / evil, truth / false, favour / harm, right / left, etc.). Using these scales, recipients should characterize the meaning of each word, indicating its place on the semantic scale. Levitsky called this procedure the "multidimensional scaling". This method suggests the respondents choose between two binary concepts (Levitsky, 1989: 142).

At the same time Levitsky explains the following: "if the experimenter wants to get the word's evaluation using the semantic differential method in its "pure form", i. e. to find out only the speaker's attitude to the subject, phenomenon etc. marked by the word, then he should develop certain procedural conditions for this. Nevertheless, according to Levitsky, those conditions which should be avoided due to their broad semantic context (for example, 'warm-cold' – for the word *winter*), we believe they are just necessary to reconstruct the associative meaning of the word under study, in comparison with the denotative meaning. Moreover, the researcher claims that, "no procedural conditions can eliminate the influence of different types of context: the influence of phraseological units, set combinations (phraseological context), the influence of the figurative meaning of the analysed word (metaphorical and metonymic contexts) etc., the influence of mythological artifacts (mythological context) as a fragment of national ethnopsychology". Levitsky recommends introducing into the experiment only those scales that allow revealing the denotative signs of meaning, but we consider this procedure to be experimentally inappropriate, because the denotative meanings have already been found and recorded in the explanatory lexicographic sources (Levitsky, 1989:145). For the experimental detection of the semantic structure of the word under study, it is expedient to measure the degrees of overlap (coincidence) of both meanings or the predominance of the association meaning over the denotative, and vice versa (see Zagorodnya).

Levitsky's method of "multidimensional scaling" is the most suitable procedural tool for the study of the semantic structure of the word, which is aimed at verifying the semantic components, previously allocated by means of other methods of analysis and, most importantly, oriented to measure the level of comprehension of individual semantic components of word by native speakers. We assume that by other methods, Levitsky

understood either a definitive analysis or rather a method of component analysis as an integral part of the structural method.

This experimental procedure involves the following stages of its implementation. The first stage is the making list of semes based on meanings of words from various explanatory dictionaries, which can be supplemented by intuitively distinguished features and isolated in previous experiments. The second stage – the informants are offered to identify the presence of each seme from the proposed seme list in the structure of the meaning of the word using a certain scale. With this aim, the researcher formulates the question: “is this seme included in the meaning of the word?” It is possible to use a six-point digital scale to answer the question, for example: 0 – I do not know; 1 – yes; 2 – more like yes; 3 – probable; 4 – most likely not; 5 – no. The results obtained from each seme are averaged out (Levitsky, 1989: 131).

The third stage is the calculation of seme knowledge indices by recipients of the experiment. For the separate semes we can calculate: 1) the average seme index on the semantic scale (as the arithmetic mean of grades set by all informants on the given sign); 2) the index of knowledge (as the ratio of positive grades of informants of a certain seme, grades which differ from 0 – I do not know, to the total number of informants). In terms of the average seme index on the semantic scale, we can determine solid semes (index 1–1,5), relatively solid (1,6–2,5) and indeterminate (2,6–3,5). Solid and relatively solid semes are also allocated in the negative part of the scale. The structure relevant meanings are solid and relatively solid indications with a rather high knowledge index (Levitsky, 1989: 132).

This procedure was improved by Sternin and Sternina and successfully tested by many students of Voronezh scholar school as “comparative and parametric method”. According to the scholars of this method, “its essence lies in the development and application of formalized parameters of the analysis of different languages, conceptospheres and their national specifics. Characteristics of a language or cognitive phenomenon in the framework of the corresponding parameter is expressed as a certain index represented in a numerical form. Comparison of the same indices in different languages and conceptospheres makes it possible to claim the existence or lack of national specificity for this parameter as well as the degree of its manifestation in each language” (Sternina, 2014:3).

This method is also effective for studying the expressiveness of the semes (which was discussed above and can be carried out by using the procedure elements of a targeted association experiment). It also possible to carry out in accordance with the Levitsky's procedure to demonstrate their national specificity in studied languages (Sternina, 2014:51).

Within the framework of further research it is supposed to find out the seme composition of the evaluative-marked word (where the score acts as a parameter) based on the following 5 indices (developed by the followers of the academic school of Sternin and Sternina): 1) index of seme expressiveness (which is effective in carrying out an association experiment, since it shows the ratio of the number of recipients, who actualized the evaluative seme in word-stimulus during the experiment, to the total number of participants); 2) cumulative index of the meaning expressiveness – the sum of the expressiveness indices of all semes, which form the evaluative meaning; 3) index of seme vocabulary fixation (Sternin, Liubova 2014) – amount of fixations of each evaluative seme in the whole set of definitions in the analyzed dictionaries; 4) cumulative index of vocabulary fixation of a specific lexicographic meaning – a set of indices of vocabulary fixation of individual evaluative semes of this meaning; 5) index of the equivalence of the evaluative semes of LG is measured on the basis of the ratio of evaluative semes number of studied LG which have equivalent evaluative semes in the language of comparison, to the total (sum) number of evaluative semes of the LG under study.

Sternin highlights the method of subjective definitions in the procedure of targeted association experiment. According to this method, during experimental study of the word semantics recipients are offered to provide their own verbal definition of the word meaning that researcher is interested in. They are offered a verbal pattern that focuses on determination of verbal definition, which is one of the procedures of a targeted associative experiment (Sternin, 2014: 39).

The associative line of experimental research was actively developed by representatives of the American school of psycholinguistics and is known as method of Bendix. This method was aimed at identifying the components of the meanings of words not necessarily associated with a specific LG by forming experimental structures in which the explored word is opposed to other words in one test phrase. Recipients are offered to answer if the structure (a linguistic structure formed by the researcher) contains the opposition, i. e. whether the words are opposed by meaning in the tested phrase. The revealed opposition gives grounds to suggest in this case the existence of differential features (semes) on which this opposition is based. Informants should complete or expand the test structure, and explain (explore) a differential feature that contrasts the semantics of the studied words.

This procedure is a targeted association method, since the recipients are purposefully directed to the verbal formulation of semantic differences in the form of oppositions, which should complete the structure in the linguistic and semantic aspects. The obtained results are interpreted as an objectification of differential semes of the studied word meanings (Sternin, 2011: 41).

However, according to Sternin, the specifics of the method of Bendix that differ it from the similar techniques is that it can be used to study words that do not form a clear LG (while component analysis necessarily involves the analysis of a certain LG) (Sternin, 2011: 42). Nevertheless, it is expedient, since it makes it possible to find out the seme composition of units with abstract semantics, which are the symbols of binary notions.

6. Chain Experiment.

Apart from two most proven techniques of linguistic association experiment: free and targeted ones, which were described above, Goroshko highlights the third kind – the chain experiment, when recipients are offered to respond by any number of words R_i (responses), the first ones that come to their minds when S (stimulus word) is offered, without limiting either formal or semantic peculiarities of words.

The chain associative reaction is understood as uncontrolled, spontaneous continuation of the reproduction process of fragments of the person's conscious and subconscious minds. The experience of the chain experiment is described in details by Leontiev, who believes that "the chain of associative series is the sequence of individual speech responses (words) of recipient on proposed stimulus for his psyche, which is a special word, spoken by the experimenter, and his task is to pronounce the words immediately, which at this moment fall into his mind. The results of this experiment allow us to consider the associative series not as a simple sum of individual associations (stimulus-response), but rather to record the complex interaction of individual moments of the associative process, which transforms associative series into cognitive structures, understanding of which is possible only with the special analysis of these structures" (Leontiev, 1983: 53).

7. Advantages and Disadvantages of Association Experiments.

Each of the three types of association experiments has its advantages and disadvantages and aims to solve specific research tasks.

Results of free association experiments are the most reliable. Nevertheless, some weak point in the methodological approach of the allocation of seme consists, above all, in the

semantic interpretation of received associations which depends on the competence of the researcher, which reduces the objectivity of procedure results.

According to Goroshko's observations, the targeted experiment also limits the association process and directs the association in the required way, for example, the method of uncompleted sentences imposes some frameworks that can reduce the reliability of the results and distort the real picture of associations (Goroshko, 2005: 53–54).

In the chain association experiment, respondents are offered to name any possible number of words in a limited time. According to the researcher, “it also shows a certain dependence between the sequences of associations that arise in the minds of a speaker. Occasionally, it turns out that i-response is actually a reaction not to the initial stimulus, but to the previous reaction, which became a new stimulus. It is difficult to clearly distinguish the real stimuli, which have led to this or that association because they are in certain connections, most often – in semantic connections between them” (Goroshko, 2005: 54).

8. Conclusions.

In conclusion, it should be noted that for the disclosure of such a complex cognitive mechanism as the inference, which is based primarily on a variety of human associations, the methodological tools of psycho and sociolinguistics will be relevant. Thus, one can get the results of reflection in the human consciousness of the connections between things, objects, phenomena, processes, and states of the surrounding world, and also its internal subjective state recorded in the meanings of linguistic units. The most relevant results are obtained during psycholinguistic experimental study of the associative component of word meaning as an ordered set of all semantic components reflected in native speakers' consciousness: a more or less expressive, nuclear and peripheral things etc. The main of these empirical methods of observation (direct and indirect) are as follows: free association experiment and targeted association experiment, during which the following methods were developed and applied: Osgood method of semantic differential, Levitsky method of multidimensional scaling, comparative and parametric method of Sternin and Sternina, method of Bendix. As a result of numerous psycholinguistic studies, the experimenters pointed to the advantages (mostly) and disadvantages of these methods, which require further improvement of the developed experimental procedures.

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Анотація

У статті обґрунтовано необхідність розробки нової методології у психолінгвістиці для розкриття такого складного когнітивного механізму продукування смислів, яким є інференція, що заснована, передовсім, на різноманітних асоціаціях людини. Зроблено припущення, що для реконструкції цього механізму найбільш доцільним є інструментарій методу емпіричного спостереження, що полягає в отриманні даних за допомогою органів чуття, які беруть участь у відображенні відношень між речами, предметами, явищами, процесами і станами як навколишнього світу, так і власне внутрішнього суб'єктивного стану людини. Виходячи з цього докладно розглядається процес емпіричного вивчення дійсності, який передбачає три основні процедури: 1) актуалізацію за спостережуваним явищем, 2) його відображення у вигляді наукових гіпотез та 3) фіксацію отриманих результатів дослідження. Оскільки процес відображення є найбільш суттєвим, то у статті здійснено критичний огляд розроблених у психолінгвістиці й почасти – у соціолінгвістиці – апробованих у численних когнітивно-орієнтованих працях експериментальних методів і методик для його аналізу. Доведено, що найбільш об'єктивні результати дослідники-психолінгвісти отримали під час експериментального вивчення відображеного у свідомості носіїв мови асоціативного значення слова як упорядкованої сукупності усіх його семантичних складників: більш і менш яскравих, ядерних і периферійних тощо. Основними з цих експериментальних методів спостереження (прямих і опосередкованих) виявилися: вільний асоціативний експеримент і спрямований асоціативний експеримент, у ході яких паралельно були розроблені й застосовані: метод “семантичного диференціалу Ч. Осгуда, метод семантичного шкалування В. В. Левицького і Й. А. Стерніна, зіставно-параметричний метод Й. А. Стерніна і М. А. Стерніної, метод Е. Бендікса. У результаті проведення численних психолінгвістичних досліджень експериментатори вказали на переваги (більшою мірою) і недоліки цих методів, які потребують подальшого вдосконалення розроблених експериментальних процедур.

Ключові слова: когнітивний механізм інференції, асоціативне значення слова, вільний асоціативний експеримент, спрямований асоціативний експеримент, процес відображення, емпіричне спостереження.

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