

Current approaches in Eastern Europe

ISBN 978-3-947170-11-1

© Irina Oukhvanova & contributors 2018

D-ART is a peer reviewed series. It comprises mainly, but not exclusively, monographs of a collective nature written following the International Round Table Discussions (IRTD). It is also open to include thematic collections of articles, collections of lectures, textbooks and readers enriched with glossaries of essential terminology, written as a logical extension of our IRTD, on research and study issues related to interconnected project activities within both theoretical and applied areas of the Linguistics of Discourse.

***Founder and scientific supervisor of the D-ART series***

Irina Oukhvanova

**Editorial board of the series D-ART:**

Arthur Asa Berger (USA), Dmitry Bogushevich (Belarus), Dorota Brzozowska (Poland), Ladislav Janovec (Czech Republic), Tatiana Karpilovitch (Belarus), Indra Karapetjana (Latvia), Alexander Kiklevich (Poland), Nataliya Komina (Russia), Yana Kuzmina (Latvia), Natalja Krukova (Russia), Elvira Murashkina (Russia), Irina Oukhvanova (Belarus), Aliona Popova (Belarus), Hanna Pulaczewska (Germany, Poland), Ksenija Shilihina (Russia), Olga Zernetska (Ukraine), Pavel Zernetski (Ukraine).

**Reviewers of volume II:**

Alan Duran (UK), Yuliya Bekreeva (Belarus), Nataliya Komina (Russia).

**Language editors:** Shala Barszewska, Aliona Popova

**Design:** studio OKO GRAPHia, Jacek Galazka

**Series logo design:** Tomacz Piekot, Marcin Poprawa, Grzegorz Zarzeczny

**Print:** Elpil

All Rights Reserved. No part of this document may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted, in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior written permission of the publisher.

**Sprachlit**

**De-iure-pl**

Berlin 2018



A collection of research papers and insights on

# **DISCOURSE LINGUISTICS AND BEYOND**

*based on International Round Table Discussions*

## **Volume II**

### **Current approaches in Eastern Europe**

*Edited by*

Yana Kuzmina

Irina Oukhvanova

Alena Savich

Ekaterina Vasilenko

**Sprachlit**

**De-iure-pl**

### **D-ART: scientific book series**

The Discourse-Analysis Round Table "D-ART" is an international project based on the Round Table discussion format and thus can be viewed as a collective reflection and construction of the ways that contemporary linguistics in Eastern Europe and beyond implies studying such a macro-level unit as discourse. At the same time, collective reflection does not prevent individual voices from being represented to the benefit of discussion and grounding in the field. The genres of the contributions to the volumes vary from theoretical studies, research and opinion articles to individual researchers' insights and reflections. This variety is aimed at giving an opportunity to a new linguistic field – the Linguistics of Discourse – so that it may be represented from different angles and with different focal points. As a result, these approaches will become grounded and balanced within the frameworks existing in the region and in the world at large. That is, the series is focused on giving a relatively unknown group of scholars who are engaged in a serious research process an opportunity to express themselves and present their research.

**Volume 2:** Current approaches in Eastern Europe, edited by Yana Kuzmina, Irina Oukhvanova, Alena Savich and Ekaterina Vasilenko, continues to develop the phenomena of discourse and discourse analysis. 40 participants from Belarus, Czech Republic, Latvia, Poland, Russia, and Ukraine discuss the field from theoretical, methodological, phenomenological and activity-biased perspectives actual for the region. The researchers disclose what discourse studies underline conceptually, what discourse analysis entails, and what results can be yielded applying it as a theoretical framework and as a method. A special attention is paid to the field's heritage coming with the names of Wittgenstein and Florensky. Alongside there come numerous foci on applied aspects of discourse linguistics, such as the worldviews reconstructed out of contemporary and ancient discourses, hybrid discourse included, national election anti-campaigns and an e-government communication studied to find the core of effectiveness, social subject constructed by personal and community-bias discourses, etc. All together, the authors expand upon the question of the field's place in the humanities and its role for the contemporary society.

### **Acknowledgements**

A year has passed since the series was launched and the first volume was published. During this year we have been reflecting on the academic community reaction to the publication that was filled with a critical stance, positive feedback and encouragement to go ahead with the project. It's been also the time of constructing our research community as a unified network ready to form and expand our studies and to share teaching experience and knowledge.

There have also been numerous on-line messages, calls, and working meetings to prepare and run our conferences and international round table discussions (IRTD) under the auspices

of the Field Committee on Linguistics of Discourse (FCLD) of the International Committee of Slavists. The very recent ones took place in 2017 in Olsztyn, Minsk and Vilnius. Our special thanks go to Alexander Kiklevich and his colleagues, who organized the conference on nomadism at the Centre of Humanities of the UWM in Olsztyn (Poland); to Roma Kriauciuniene and her colleagues, who organized "Linguistic, Educational and Intercultural Research 2017" conference at Vilnius University, Institute of Foreign Languages of the Faculty of Philology, in Vilnius (Lithuania), in October 2017.

"Professional Discourses – 1: representation in readers and dictionaries, in research and education" international scientific conference held in the end of September, 2017, in Minsk (Belarus) turned out to be one of the most fascinating events due to the academics who organized and participated in it coming from England, Russia, Belarus, Poland, Ukraine, Latvia, Lithuania, and Spain. The realization of such an exceptional undertaking could not have been possible without the engagement and support of the Belarusian National Technical University, International University MITSO, and Continuing Education Institute of the State Forensic Examination Committee of the Republic of Belarus hosting and sustaining the conference. In this regard we would like to express our deep appreciation to Vladimir Ivashchkin, Alexander Plaschinskiy, and Irena Lapina. We would like to express our sincere gratitude to The Center of Applied Linguistics of the University of Latvia, Institute of Foreign Philology of Jan Kohanowski University, and in particular to Indra Karapetjana, Joanna Senderska and Irina Rolyak. We are grateful to the active members of the Field Committee on Linguistics of Discourse for their activities in promotion and deepening of the conference programme. The contributions of Shala Barczewska, Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich, and Aliona Popova are gratefully acknowledged.

The FCLD commitment to all these activities is beyond question. Its inspiring, endless support, understanding and engagement are building meaning into our academic community perspective. Its proper activities and publication projects attract new authors and contributors. Being a member of the 6th International conference on Meaning and Knowledge Representation in St.-Petersburg (Russia) the FCLD enriched its pursue of lexicographic experience and dream to dedicate more time and attention to this field. On behalf of the FCLD we are grateful to Maria Del Mar Robisco for her cooperation.

In connection with this particular volume on behalf of our editorial team we would like to express our gratitude to the reviewers of the volume Alan Durant from the UK, Nataliya Komina from Russia and Yuliya Beekreeva from Belarus.

We would like to thank Shala Barczewska and Alena Popova for their assistance on language editing. We also express our thanks to Irina Bykova for her granting time to this series layout refinement.

## VOLUME II

# CURRENT APPROACHES IN EASTERN EUROPE

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface to Volume 2	XIV
<b>ROUND TABLE 1. DISCOURSE AS THE CENTER OF INTEGRATIVE FORCE</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>Moderator's introductory words – Irina Oukhvanova</b>	<b>3</b>
<b>Issue 1. The content of discourse: the basics and its extension</b>	<b>5</b>
<i>Irina Oukhvanova</i> . Discourse viewed from a complex system perspective: Causal-genetic approach as an integral discourse theory (translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)	5
<i>Yuliya Bekreyeva</i> . Basics of the integrated concept of meaning: Cognitive semantic perspective	17
<b>Issue 2. Precedent texts in discourse theory</b>	<b>27</b>
<i>Ilya Putikov</i> . Wittgenstein: Towards meaning and meaning construction (translated from Russian by Maria Soloviova)	27
<i>Irina Oukhvanova</i> . Methodology of discourse analysis in the works on art criticism by Pavel Florensky (translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)	37
<b>Issue 3. Integrative theories and applied practices</b>	<b>45</b>
<i>Ivan Fomin</i> . Transdisciplinary potential of semiotics for discourse studies: Political studies' perspective	45
<i>Ewa Piotrowska-Oberda</i> . Discourse analysis in translation studies' perspective	53
<i>Maria Soloviova</i> . The discourse of neo-Socratic dialogue: Practical philosophy perspective	66
<i>Natela Martyssiuk</i> . Linguistics as a potential for ethnic and cognitive equalities of diverse cultural groups: Ethnolinguistic and cognitive semantic perspectives	71
<b>ROUND TABLE 2. DISCOURSE LINGUISTICS AS THEORETICAL AND APPLIED FIELDS OF KNOWLEDGE</b>	<b>79</b>
<b>Moderator's introductory words – Yana Kuzmina</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>Issue 1. Conceptualizing the field of discourse linguistics</b>	<b>83</b>
<i>Yana Kuzmina</i> . Genre as one of the central categories of discourse analysis	83
<i>Halina Grzmił-Tylutki</i> . Round Table: text, genre, and discourse	93
<i>Irina Oukhvanova, Anna Markovich</i> . Classification of discourse categories	100
<i>Waldemar Czachur</i> . Discursive picture of the world	104
<i>Alena Savich</i> . Discourse picture of the world as a target category of discourse research	109
<i>Darya Ostapenko</i> . Discourse theory and the problem of metatextuality: Translator's metatexts	115
<b>Issue 2. Methodological constraints and applied nature of discourse linguistics</b>	<b>121</b>
<i>Maciej Karpiński</i> . Methodological constraints in discourse analysis	121
<i>Natalia Badiyan-Siekierzycka</i> . Theoretical approaches on national identity construction	141

**ROUND TABLE 3. INTERCROSSING OF FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS AND DISCOURSE LINGUISTICS** 151

**Moderator's introductory words – Ekaterina Vasilenko** 153

**Issue 1. Functional grammar and semantics within the frame of discourse studies** 155

*Gunta Rozina, Indra Karapetrjana.* Systemic functional linguistic theory and discourse research 155

*Boris Norman.* How many grammars of the Russian language do we need? (translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko) 167

*Olga Goritskaya.* Synthetic and analytical hortative forms used in modern spoken Russian: Language – speech – discourse 178

*Ekaterina Vasilenko.* Grammatical categories as a means of creating discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction (on the basis of political discourse) 191

*Alevtina Dinkevich.* Textual-pragmatic function of continuous forms in the modern English literary discourse 204

**Issue 2. Functional syntax in the context of discourse linguistics** 206

*Dmitry Bogushevich.* Several notes on the notion of discourse 206

*Alena Savich.* Functional syntax in the context of discourse linguistics 210

*Dmitry Bogushevich, Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich.* Modeling of the sentence meaning for texts and discourses 215

*Antonina Galagaeva.* Pragmatic aspect of reality presentation 217

*Vasily Zelenkov.* Exposure and comparison of semantic-syntactic foci in English and East Slavic languages 224

*Irina Dmitrieva.* Semantic subject and object presentation as text type marker 229

*Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich, Irina Chuchkevich.* Sentence components as textual semantic net 235

*Alesya Shevtsova.* Syntactic means of natural communicative style in British and Belarusian radio discussions 238

**Issue 3. Functional stylistics and discourse studies: points of intersection** 241

*Stanislaw Gaida.* Style and stylistics in the conceptual system of linguistics: Functional perspective (translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko) 241

*Natalia Klushina.* Discoursology and stylistics: coordinating scientific methods (translated from Russian by Aliaksei Ihnatovich) 246

Concluding notes to Round Table 3 255

**ROUND TABLE 4. APPLIED ASPECTS OF LINGUISTICS OF DISCOURSE: CASE STUDIES** 257

**Moderator's introductory words – Alena Savich** 259

**Issue 1. Hybrid discourse** 262

*Alena Savich, Irina Oukhvanova.* Documentary discourse of the Highest Attestation Commission: Belarusian case study 262

*Hanna Shmagun.* Multistakeholder communication in the Estonian e-government system 271

**Issue 2. Global and national foci** 297

*Olga Zernetska, Pavel Zernetski.* The Internet: Pandiscourse or discourse? 297

*Tatyana Skrebtsova.* Personification of language as a typical feature of Slavic mass media discourse 301

*Alla Kozhinova.* Worldview in ancient Slavic discourse: Introversion in ancient discourses (translated from Russian by Maria Soloviova) 305

*Ladislav Janovec.* Political (and) electoral anti-campaign 315

**Issue 3. Personal and community-bias discourses** 330

*Lidia Mazur-Mezhva.* Bulat Okudzhava in the mirror of Polish translation discourse (translated from Russian by Irina Tolstonogova) 330

*Anna Matyszczyk.* Musical discourse as a cultural manifesto: Verbal representations of the Hip Hop community's identity 334

Concluding notes to Round Table 4 341

Editorial Post-Comments 343

Contributors to Volume 2 345

The Postgraduate Winter/Spring/Summer School Announcement 349

*Dedicated to Anna Duszak*

## Preface to Volume 2

This volume of the D-ART series is dedicated to Professor Anna Duszak, a prominent scientist and wonderful person, whose thoughts and aspirations in the middle of the 2010s were focused on her idea of bringing together Western and Eastern European discourse studies traditions, enabling discourse researchers to hear each other, sharing their experience with various ways of doing discourse analysis, historically and presently, thereby, creating a unified discourse community. In May, 2015, the Department of Discourse Studies of the Institute of Applied Linguistics at the University of Warsaw, held the international conference “GLOBE 2015: East – West European forum on discourse. Talking ‘discourse’ in European linguistics: past, present and future”. Professor Anna Duszak was its inspiring leader and patron.

This volume is considered to be a meeting point and an integrating platform for joint efforts and promotion of academic diversity and merging of perspectives in the field of discourse studies.

Volume 2 aims at representing the variety of approaches to discourse studies (discourse linguistics) of the countries of the participants, namely, Belarus, the Czech Republic, Latvia, Poland, Russia and Ukraine. While thinking about the approaches, perspectives and foci to be selected and included into this publication, it was noted that, first of all, it should function holistically. However, specific each approach may seem, they should form complementary theoretical and methodological paradigm.

The volume contains four Round Tables, and thus, presents four significant topics depicted within their structural development, listed in the following way:

The perspectives within the topic “Discourse as a center of integrative force” (Round Table 1) are represented by:

1. content or meaning construction studies and their foci on macro- and micro- sign studies, involving the perspectives of complex-system-studies (integrating cognitive, pragmatic textual and language systems of knowledge), discourse studies (integrating informative and interactive layers of meaning), and media studies (integrating the visual and the verbal within integrative multi-modal content);
2. discourse linguistics as an applied science and its foci on semiotics for political discourse studies, discourse analysis for translation studies, neo-Socratic dialogue for practical philosophy, and cognitive semantics for cultural group diversity studies.

The perspectives developed within the topic “Discourse linguistics as a theoretical and applied field of knowledge” (Round Table 2) are represented by:

- conceptual functional categories reconsidered as an interrelation of genre, text, and discourse (discourse practice) as key categories of discourse studies enriched with the categories of a cluster type such as discourse picture of the world ;
- interconnection of discourse theory at large and meta-discourse;
- acceptance of methodological constraints of discourse within the applied nature of discourse studies as such.

The perspectives developed within the topic “Intercrossing of functional linguistics and discourse linguistics” (Round Table 3) are represented by:

- perspectives from the functional linguistic theory, and its variability, projected to discourse studies;
- particular categories, which interconnect functional and discourse studies, namely: function and discourse picture in processing; transformation, exposure, and comparison within the dynamic triad “language – speech – discourse”;
- conceptual systems of functional linguistics in their unity and units of representation.

The perspectives developed within the topic “Applied aspects of discourse linguistics: case studies” (Round Table 4) are represented by:

- methods of structuring dynamic models and descriptions, reconstructions and functional-semantic analyses to identify a type of discourse (hybrid type of discourse), which can disappear if its time-bias variation is not reproduced and can transform a type of communication from institutional through community-bias to personal and back;
- the methods of reconstruction, interpretation and description to collect and study a database of discourses of today and the past, to identify the transformation of social relations within time, space, and scale.
- methods of concept analysis, content-analysis, contextual analysis, and interpretative analysis to reveal the communities as they are within their phenomenological, ideational and activity-bias representations.

Through the above presented schemata of the Round Tables, we hope to have managed to outline the full palette of materials collected in this volume and prepare our reader for the engaging process of penetrating into the actual professional reality of the Eastern European linguists who dedicate their research activities to testing the various capacities of the linguistic studies, thereby demonstrating the humanitarian value and social meaning of the field.

With this in mind, we dare believe the contents of this book will be a solid step towards understanding modern linguistics as a versatile cognitive science and an advancing field where different traditions are being met and melted, which could bring about a better understanding of reality in our changing world.

# Round Table 1

**Discourse as the center  
of integrative force**

## Mediator's introductory words – Irina Oukhvanova

Our Round Table discussion opens Volume 2 and its aim is of a double nature. In a way, we continue our talk on discourse and discourse-analysis, or rather the linguistics of discourse (the talk we started before and presented in Volume 1). At the same time, it is a new angle of this discussion within its own logics and tasks. As I see it, it is time to develop the idea that discourse research is a place of meeting two binary oppositive in conventional linguistics paths of research, i.e. semasiology biased and onomasiology biased in one coating. As a result, there are two theories intertwined in it, which are content theory and representation theory. Here in RT 1 our focus is on the content theory. I suggest that we should discuss the idea that seems to be on the surface and still goes deep into discourse roots:

What kind of extension does each new language sign with a more complex mental structure functioning in social communication need from the researcher to process and theorize?

Together with this, there might be two more questions to deal with:

- 1) a reciprocal research question: after finding this complexity in a bigger sign, could we witness it in a smaller one treating it, accordingly, as **replica** to be repeated whenever we study communication process or result in a semasiologic way;
- 2) an interconnected research question: stating a content-bias-type of a complexity as non-corresponding with its form-bias-type, we are to have a closer look at the subjective as the subjective proper and as the subject-bias tied to objective in the content production.

Thus, we can build a hypothesis: a language sign in its content-bias complexity doesn't repeat its form-bias complexity. If proved, it is the biggest issue of contemporary extended linguistics or discourse linguistics.

With this discussion developed in our Issue 1, it is good to have a look at precedent texts available today. Within it, we can reconstruct the steps, which may seem to be basics now but treated as revolutionary ones while formulated. The discussion could be focused on the type of complexity the classics considered important in dealing with communication as a process and as a result bringing with itself complex mental structures to be kept in mind when communication is meant for understanding in its depth. The suggested approaches are reciprocal to ours. As we see it, the approaches to be discussed within this logics are those by Wittgenstein and Florensky, which is our Issue 2.

Finally, in our third issue RT 1 suggests treating (though indirectly) such an opened (in some Eastern European countries) theoretical dichotomy of contemporary discourse studies as: where are we today? Are we with the linguistics of discourse (discourse studies carried out by linguists), which belongs to a theoretical discipline or an applied one? The indirectness comes from the fact that we suggest discussing the discourse studies' methods and approaches within their practical field connection, the latest being political studies, translation studies, practical philosophy and ethnography.

With this in mind I am opening our meetings.

## Issue 1. The content of discourse: the basics and its extension

Irina Oukhvanova

### Discourse viewed from a complex system perspective: Causal-genetic approach as an integral discourse theory

(translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)

It is interesting to observe how the names of university linguistic departments in Slavic universities have been changing during the last twenty years. For instance, departments of linguistics have changed their names to that of language theory (with a possible specification – sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, etc.). Similarly, departments of grammar have chosen a more specific name – departments either of functional grammar or of theoretical grammar. Departments of stylistics and literary editing have been gradually changing its profile, positioning itself as the departments of speech communication. Departments of applied linguistics also have specified their focus, becoming departments of computational linguistics or of cross-cultural communication, etc.

This process is natural as it results from the development of the science of language, speech and discourse. We may say that contemporary linguistics has changed radically merely during the latest generation and these changes are due to its development in all aspects – in depth and breadth, at the macro and micro levels of functioning, in the dimensions of quantitative and qualitative methodological programs. However, we observe the same phenomenon in all humanities and social sciences, and even in the exact, physical and natural sciences: «micro» and «macro» specifications appear in biology, physics, chemistry, economics, sociology, psychology, etc. Each scientific discipline expands its reserves for self-development, not excluding but welcoming an interdisciplinary approach. New scientific disciplines emerge at the intersection of not only “related”, but also quite distant scientific programs. Within such a variety of branches, two tendencies stand out quite clearly:

- 1) ascent to a *high theory* or science (appearance of new *practices of cognition* that meet in science in general);
- 2) maximum actualization of the *practical component* of scientific knowledge, i.e. the *activity* implementing theoretical findings.

In addition, it seems quite inappropriate to make an opposition (like “ascent - descent”) when speaking about the practical component – the significance of the emerging types of activity changes radically our life, as well as the face of modern science in general and the science of language in particular.

We suppose that in this context it is useful to refer to *discourse linguistics* as a discipline, in which both directions inherently combined. These directions represent themselves, *on the one hand*, by advancing towards high abstraction (grand narratives), which forms theoretical and methodological potential of linguistic science in general. *On the other hand*, they represent themselves by reference to the matter, i.e. the real practice of the language as it functions accessing the space of living communication and interaction.

Discourse linguistics is the successor of discourse analysis, when it continues the search for a more subtle differentiation. It focuses its attention on texts in their social “living”. Within it, it does not reject “grand narratives” (grand theories) any longer. Moreover, it consciously collects and develops them. This “collection” builds certain dichotomous pairs as: the theories of *subjective* and “*subjectless*” discourse (*content-bias vs. context-bias*). The intrigue of the simultaneous unity of the *included* and *distant* within the space and time layers of communication arises in the dispute whether postmodernism has killed the subject or has revived it, accepting it within various representations and thus realizations (Ухванова, 2000: 25). We suppose that the subject has returned to the fully-fledged life with its inconsistency and therefore with the search for oneself and one’s world (or, rather, worlds), just as with the search for *Another* and its worlds that can develop in a parallel or at an intersection, collide or “live” in a dialogue (Oukhvanova, Ilyushyna, 2006; Ухванова, Илюшина, 2007). The whole course of our history depends on it.

Our recognition of the subject’s duality has led to the introduction (along with the dichotomy referent/co-referents – their paradigmatic/syntagmatic verbalization) of the dichotomy “subject /co-subjects” – their genre/format verbalization. Otherwise, the new methodological category (*sign-bias subject*) comes into the science with the causal-genetic perspective (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2000: 25-29). The latter clarifies the linkage specificity (verbalization/materialization) of the *interactive* (subject-subject) potential of discourse content (Ухванова, Богушевич, 1992; Ухванова, 1991) specifying at the same time the place of its *informative* (subject-object) potential (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1993). In fact, these two content planes of discourse are relevant for both content and context representation being interchangeable.

Let us take, as a definition of discourse, T.A. van Dijk’s idea of the interpenetration of text and context (and hence, content and context), which is based on the idea of intertextuality

introduced by Jacques Derrida’s follower Julia Kristeva. Within it, we are to accept that the construction of separate theories of content and context is to a certain extent a stage in the static (descriptive) understanding of discourse as a phenomenon and an idea. However, this step has helped to complete and comprehend a clear change of paradigms of the linguistic science in the chain Speech–Language–Discourse, and, in particular, to see the level character of discourse linguistics, i.e. to clarify the specifics of the implementation of all levels of the communicative process (Левицкий, 2013).

Of course, some linguists can be (implicitly) unhappy that the change of research paradigms and foci of attention occurs too quickly. However, *firstly*, one should admit that this change certainly has an evolutionary nature and is prepared by the whole course of the global theory integration. *Secondly*, this change makes us discuss theoretical and practical foundations of discourse linguistics separately, for the phenomenon of discourse appears as natural, and, therefore, having fundamental parameters.

We suggest discussing the theoretical basis of the phenomenon and the very idea of discourse in this particular context (the time of disputes and discussions about what discourse is, and why we need it, has already passed). Thus, at this stage of development of the theoretical thought, we accept discourse linguistics within the dynamics of extensive content-context transformations of discourse vision (just as accepted dynamics of interaction of subjective/subjectless discourses transformations).

We should only add that we did not think about such a shift in the development of our causal-genetic theory in the 1980s and 1990s. At that time we conducted theoretical modeling of the *content* potential and its realization on the example of more and more complex language units: from the word to the sentence/utterance and the text, from the text to the macrotext and the discourse. Within this sequence of research objects, we came to a study of separate issues of newspapers and magazines as holistic discourse macro units. As a result, we accepted periodical issues as an open set of prototypically similar. The conclusion made us accept the fact that each periodical within its issues produced and expected is a certain holistic discourse of rather a discourse type of the field of media production (Ухванова, 1994) as each periodical having its own content/context matrix reproduces itself in its numerous dailies, weeklies, monthlies. As a result, building the theory of content (in the context of discourse generating), we have obtained our causal genetic theoretical modeling of discourse on different levels of its complexity. Today, we present it as the theory of content-context interaction, which is a complex or cluster type of a theory.

We suggest looking (in a somewhat new way) at our interconnected sets of discourse modeling including both prototypic and functional models, which have been discussed

in our numerous publications and conference presentations (in Russian, English, French, Polish, and Ukrainian). For clarity's sake, we will sum up the key points in the form of theses, providing them with comments, illustrations and links.

**Thesis 1.** The *content*, emerging in communication (discourse construction and reconstruction) is much *broader than its semantic and syntagmatic components*. Correspondingly, the *contextual component* is also much *broader than the parameter of a communicative situation* (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1992: 109-111). To find out the *reasons (causes)* for generation of a particular discourse, **type of content** means to find out its very existence (the right to exist) as actualization of content (in its different setting) is to have its cause-and-effect foundations. The same applies to the context (its variability and actualization). Content and context are a sort of a mirror to each other, reciprocally reflecting in each other.

Content is the focus of attention, and context is its frame (occasionally it is not perceived but it determines and shapes a content). Optical illusion pictures are a good illustration of how we actualize contents and how contexts format them, and the way the perception transfers (see Fig. 1 and Fig. 2).

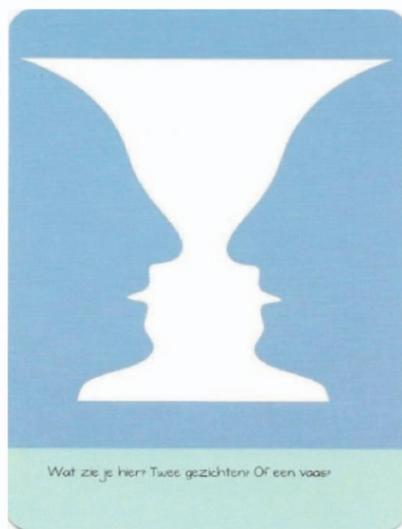


Figure 1. What is in the picture?



Figure 2. Who is in the picture?

When the addressee sees only one thing (i.e. when content seems to persist in being the only possible one, which makes it difficult to turn to the other vision), it is necessary to find a starting point or a shift mechanism (in the context of discourse linguistics this switch point is called a discourse category). I also had this problem of seeing only one possible content (in Figure 2, I saw only a young woman slightly turned back from the viewer). Only fixation on the category *ear* and its transferring to the category *eye* helps to see both images and to actualize a multiple meaning of the picture. Two other focuses of attention – *reference* and *interaction*– work in the same way. Each of them can be both content and context, depending on the reader/listener's focus of attention. It is like reality and a mirror-world: content and context change depending on where the communicant is (i.e. the importance of time and place is actualized). Correspondingly, control of the attention focus helps to realize effective communication: those who understand the shift mechanism manage the switching.

**Thesis 2.** *Reasons (causes)* can be both *factor* (a constantly functioning cause) and *factum* (a resulting cause). Hence, both content and context can serve as:

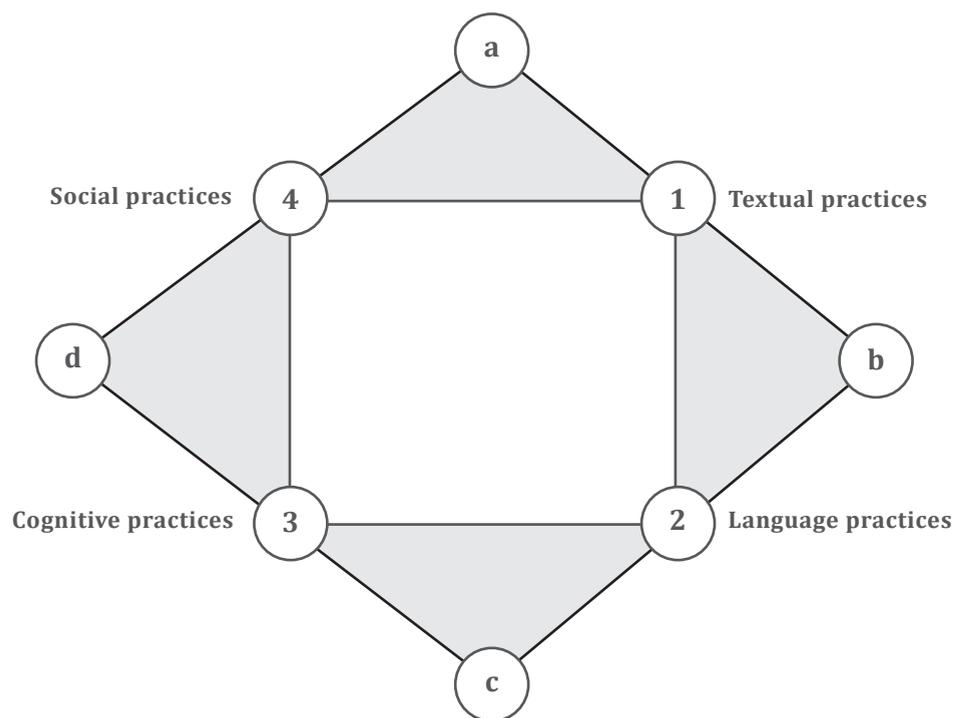
- first, a *phenomenological (or phenomenon-bias) content/context*, which actualizes a link to the denotation (object/event) or to the sign of the denotation (a word-form, a different form of verbalization) or can serve likewise;
- second, an *abstract (idea-bias) content/context*, which actualizes a link to the signification (subject/topic) or to the sign of the signification (a form of verbalization setting the direction of the development of thematic filling) (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1993a, 1993b, 10-27).

*Factor causes* are the so-called **practices**: *social* (building contents and contexts of the hierarchical order – significance), *cognitive or informative* (building mental structures), *textual* (building speech structures or syntagmatic/linear structures) and *language practice* (building paradigm contents and contexts). Factor causes generate **discourse picture** (genesis) of an **ideal** plane, filling it with such content criteria as pragmatic (built by social practice), cognitive (informative practice), syntagmatic (textual) and paradigmatic (practice dealing with language arrangement, e.g. vocabulary, etc.)

*Factum causes* are represented by the following *types of activity*: *speech behavior* (an explicit component of contents and contexts), *language experience* (an implicit component), and also *practical activity* (an extra-linguistic component of contents and contexts) and *language functioning* (their linguistic component). Factum causes generate **discourse picture** (genesis) of a *phenomenological* plane. They fill it with such content parameters as *cortège-bias* (social role's realization in communication: each communicant actualizes the role of the other communicant by being his/her cortège),

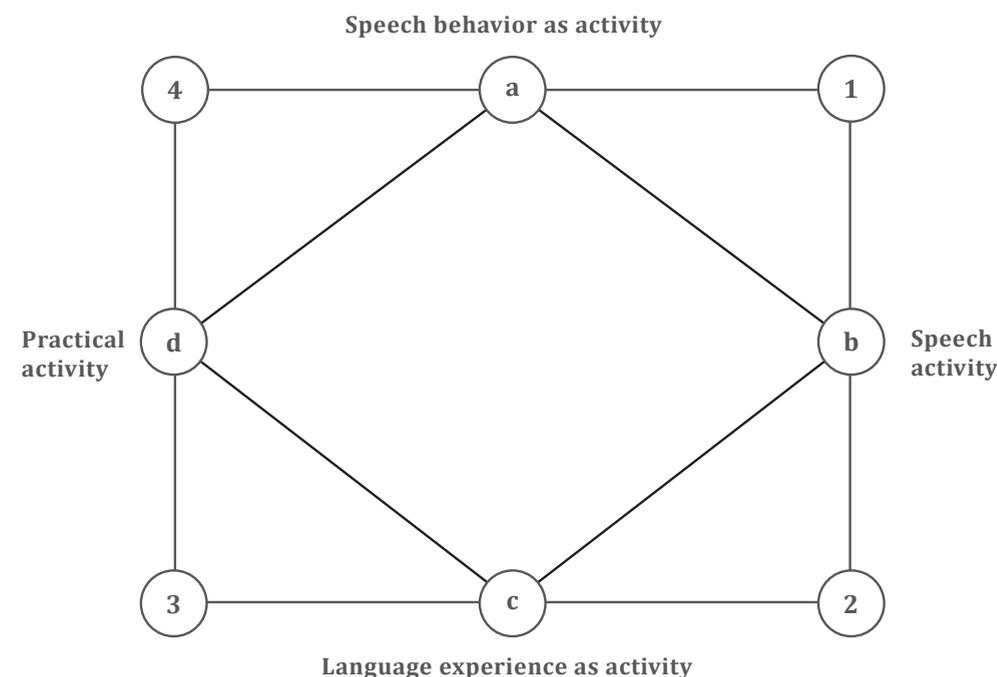
*sign-cortege-bias* (format-genre's realization in communication), *referent-bias* (object-event's realization in communication), and *sign-referent-bias* (referent in its verbalized representation, where verbalization adds its own type of a content).

In accordance with the idea of the first thesis both discourse pictures can act as unities, i.e. they can possess functions of content and context (can be each other's frames). Each of the pictures is in **4D** format (see Fig. 3).



**Figure 3.** Discourse picture of *content* (represented by 4 discourse *practices* - 1, 2, 3, 4) against the background of discourse picture of *context* (a, b, c, d), i.e. practices against the background of *activity*.

As we can see, one of the discourse pictures reflects and simultaneously constructs the *space* of discourse, while the other one reflects and constructs its *time*. Correspondingly, space and time can be each other's context. Moreover, there is also a demarcation line between speech (types of speech activity) and discourse (types of discourse practices) components, which make up communication in general. Correspondingly, this cluster theory of content-context interaction transforms into a cluster theory with a different focus of attention - into the theory of interaction of discourse practices and types of speech activity (see Fig. 4).



**Figure 4.** Discourse picture of content (represented by four types of activity - a, b, c, d) against the background of discourse picture of context (1, 2, 3, 4), i.e. activity at the level of practices.

**Thesis 3.** We consider factum and factor planes (realized in activity and practices) in terms of their *synthesizing*. As a result, we get functional primitives - "bricks" involved in the construction of content and context. We call them *factor-factum content and context primitives*. Our casual-genetic theory, thus, reproduces eight variants or models of synthesis, naturally formed by different combinations of primitives (fractals). In addition, all of them realize themselves in such characteristics as structure, system, hierarchy and line (or order/sequence).

In Figure 5, we mark each functional primitive with both a letter and a number (e.g. c3 or a4). It emphasizes the fact of their dependence both upon factum and factor values. In other words, functional primitives are already the fact of synthesis (they have both «father» and «mother»). Here numbers stand for discourse practices (1 - textual; 2 - language; 3 - cognitive; 4 - social), and letters - for the activity beginning of discourses (a - speech behavior as activity; b - verbalization or language/speech activity; c - language experience as activity; d - practical activity).

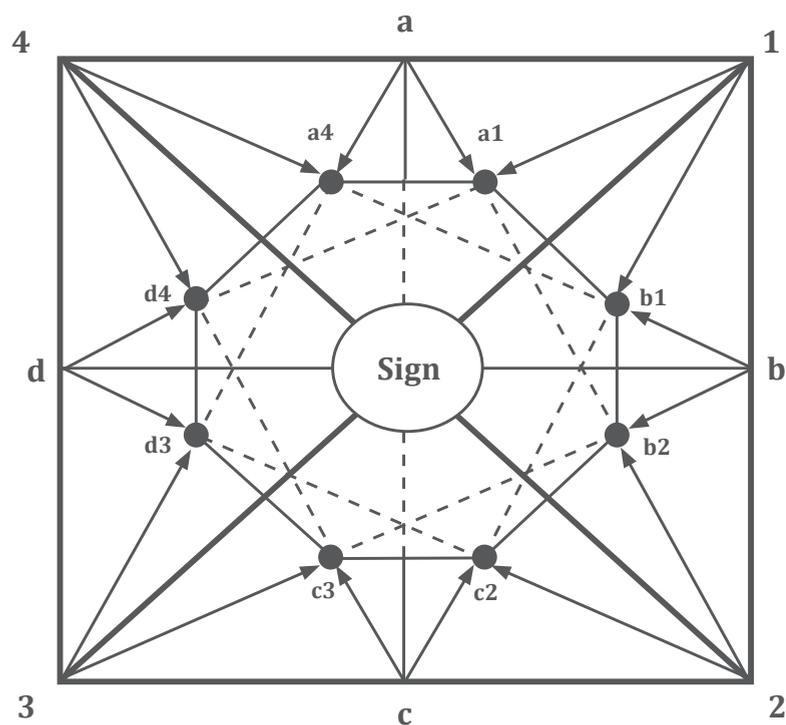


Figure 5. Functional factor-factum primitives (discourse in its 8D format representation).

Taking into account the interdependency of factor-factum components, we can name each functional primitive by either factum or factor beginning. For example, «evaluated referent» (d4), «structured referent», or verbalization of paradigmatic (b2) and syntagmatic (b1) planes are functional primitives. In the same way language experience can be represented in the context of paradigmatic organization of language (c2) or mental structures (c3), and speech behavior – in axiology- (a4) or process-bias aspects (a1) (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1993a, 1993b: 10-27, Ухванова, 1998).

Awareness of the specifics of realization is necessary for effective **constructing** (generating/coding) of discourses, as well as for **reconstructing** (understanding/decoding) of these primitives in the process of a discourse analysis. If the constructor of discourses keeps all these activity-bias and practice-bias 8Ds in *the memory of an active matrix*, s/he can perceive every dimension as an actual content element. In this case *a wide audience* have more chances to find themselves and their worlds in discourses produced (though discourse production is a synthesis, its planning definitely includes an analytic work of a producer to make it influential for many, if not for all).

**Thesis 4.** Eight functionally connected primitives of content and context duplicate each other in different spaces. However, functioning of these *fractals* subordinates to the cluster logic. They *organize themselves* (in structural, system, hierarchical and linear ways) in such clusters (*discourse pictures*) as knowledge and relation (Fig. 6), information and interaction (Fig. 7), social and individual biased (Fig. 8).

**Functional primitives representing and constructing three pairs of discourse pictures in their dichotomist relation**

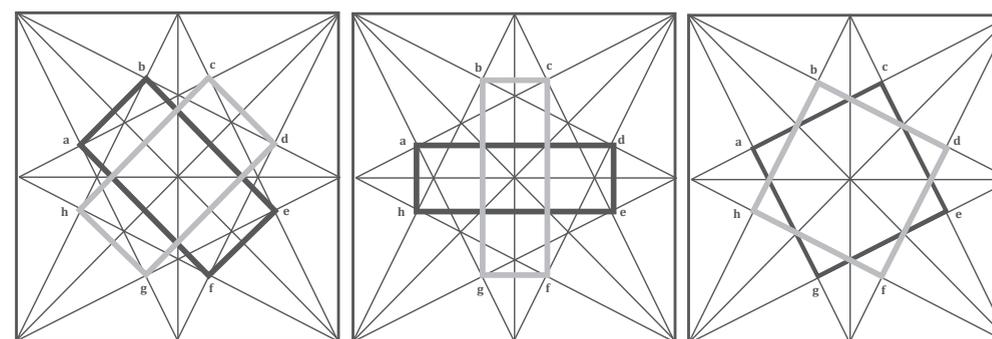


Figure 6.  
Discourse pictures:  
Knowledge – Relation  
(hcdg – abef)

Figure 7.  
Discourse pictures:  
Information – Interaction  
(adeh – bcfg)

Figure 8.  
Discourse pictures:  
Social – Individual  
(aceg – hbdf)

Dichotomy relation in the context of the causal-genetic approach manifests itself by the fact that, when one element of dichotomy (e.g. discourse picture *knowledge*) actualizes itself as content, the other one (discourse picture *relation*) becomes context and vice versa. In addition, effective communication in its turn implies that communicants control the focus of attention in the process of communication. In other words, an effective communicant, according to the scientific slang, is an *illusionist*, i.e. the communicant able to switch *the focus of attention*.

**Thesis 5.** The causal-genetic modeling is therefore (and this is obvious) not only one model, but also the whole set of **self-developing models**. Understanding the process of development is the theory of cognition itself. In other words, the aim of the causal-genetic approach is modeling the process of cognition. Taking into account the focus of discourse-process on the content-bias component of a language sign, this poly-cluster theory can be, in our opinion, the key theory of discourse linguistics.

We can also add that the causal-genetic modeling bases itself on a set of key ideas, which have determined the historical development of the theory of cognition, i.e. from

Aristotle to the present day. Moreover, within it the idea of *universalism*, which has initiated the beginning of scientific (academic) knowledge, stands out (the very idea of a university as a social institution bases itself on the idea of universalism). Within its framework the ideas of semiotics (including social semiotics) are actualized quite vividly; in fact, the notion of semantics is replaced by the notion of semiotics and is also borrowing from the notion of semiology, emerging as a part of discourse linguistics characterized as “extended” linguistics in a relatively recent lexicographic publication (Charadeau, Maingueneau, 2002). Thus, in the causal-genetic modeling approach we can trace the ideas, which started to be the common place of content studies’ reading, namely of Saussure’s semiology, those of semiotic triangles of Frege (1892), Morris (1946), and Peirce (1994), added by semiotic quadrons of Klaus (Клаус, 1967) and Suprun (Супрун, 1975). The list enriches with the approaches and interpretative models of Locke (Локк, 1985: 459-582), Bacon (Бэкон, 1938), Bart (Барт, 1988: 114-163), etc. We continue to find ideas consonant with our approach in the history of science. This very fact proves that our approach to discourse modeling is deeply rooted in content studies history and synthesizes the researching minds of the universe.

**Short comment on the previously mentioned.** Causal-genetic modeling (CGM) of discourses (with its foci on permanent transformations of discourse content unto context and back, factor-bias practices into factum-bias activities and back, just as knowledge and attitude, sense and essence interaction) gave way to new methods and techniques of discourse analysis, namely methods of discourse portraiture (portraying), reconstruction of discourse pictures of reality and social reality. The technique of cognitive mapping (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2008) involving representations of paradigmatic, (systemic), axiological (hierarchy), and syntagmatic (processing) parameters is within the research procedure steps of CGM. During our *round table*, we will return to this approach more than once to cover the possibilities of discourse linguistics developing inter alia with reliance on this methodological apparatus.

The methodology of causal-genetic modeling of discourses (discourse types) was tested on such types of discourse as the discourse of elite media (Попова, 2008), media discourse of lobbying (Савич, 2013), discourse of integration (Маркович, 2006, 2007), discourse of confrontation (Туркина, 2005: 174-183, 2017), discourse of migrants (Ядченко, 2012a, 2012b). The researchers based their research objects (specific discourse types) on reconstructing discourse pictures of “information” and “interaction”. Actualization of discourse pictures “sense” and “essence” were tested in pilot studies of the discourse of *self-identification* in the context of reconstructing the addresser and addressee in the political leadership discourse (Ухванова, Маркович, Ухванов, 2001; Oukhvanova, Markovich, Ukhvanov, 2004, Oukhvanova, Markovich, Ukhvanov, 2008).

## References

- Frege, G. On Sense and Denotation. Translated from German in 1892. In: <https://faculty.washington.edu/smcohen/453/FregeDisplay.pdf>
- Morris, Ch. W. Signs, Language and Behavior. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1946.
- Oukhvanova, I. F. Cause-Genetic theory of text content in its application to mass media text studies. In: B. Caron (ed.) Proceedings of the XVIth International Congress of Linguists. 20-25 July 1997. Paris: Pergamon. An imprint of Elsevier Science, 1998.
- Oukhvanova, I., Ilyushyna, L. Civilization as a Sign: New Perspectives in Civilization Studies. In: *Respectus Philologicus*, 10 (15), 2006. 10–24.
- Oukhvanova, I., Markovich, A., Ukhvanov, V. Discourse Portraits of Belarusian and Russian politicians. In: *Perspectives and Methods of Political Discourse Research*, 3, 2004. translated into English by E. P.Smykovskaya.
- Peirce, C. S. Peirce on Signs: Writings on Semiotic. Ed. by James Hoopes. North Carolina: Univ. of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1994.
- Charadeau, P. Maingueneau, D. (eds.) Dictionnaire d’analyse du discours. Edition du Seuil, février, 2002.
- Oukhvanova, I., Markovich, A., Ukhvanov, V. De portraits discursifs des leaders politiques russes et bielorusses. In: *La methodologie des recherches du discours politique*. Minsk: “Maison d’edition de BUE”, 2008. Traduit par S. Nikonova et T. Dessova.
- Барт, П. Основы семиологии. In: *Структурализм: «за» и «против»*. Москва: Прогресс, 1988. 114–163.
- Бэкон, Ф. Новый органон. Москва: Государственное социально-экономическое издательство, 1938.
- Клаус, Г. Сила слова. Гносеологический и прагматический анализ языка. Москва: Прогресс, 1967.
- Левицкий, Ю. А. Общее языкознание: учебное пособие. Москва: Книжный дом «Либроком», 2013.
- Локк, Дж. Избранные философские произведения, 1 (3), 1985. 459–582.
- Маркович, А. А. Анализ референтного содержания в дискурсе консолидации. In: *Вестник МГЛУ. Сер. 1, Филология*, 5 (25), 2006. 53–66.
- Маркович, А. А. Коммуникативные стратегии интегративного типа в дискурсе Евросоюза. In: *Вісник Харків. нац. ун-ту імені В.Н. Карамзіна*, 745. Серія Филологія, 49, 2007. 76–82.
- Попова, А. В. Дискурс-картины мира и кортежного взаимодействия элитарных средств информации. Минск: Изд. центр БГУ, 2008.
- Савич, Е. В. Медийный дискурс лоббирования: опыт анализа. Минск: БГУ, 2013.
- Супрун, А. Е. Лексическая система и методы ее изучения. In: Супрун, А. Е. (ред.). *Методы изучения лексики*. Минск: БГУ, 1975.
- Туркина, О. А. Анализ актуализации реляционных коммуникативных стратегий в телевизионной игре «Последний герой 1». In: *RespectusPhilologicus*, 7(12). Вильнюс, 2005. 174–183.

- Туркина, О. А. Дискурс конфронтации-соперничества: реконструкция и моделирование. Минск: РИВШ, 2017.
- Ухванова, И. Ф. Формирование и кодирование межличностного компонента прагматического содержания текста. *In: Семантика и прагматика текста.* Барнаул: Алтай. гос. ун-т., 1991. 3–15.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Причинно-генетическое моделирование плана содержания текста как основа для структурирования его контекстной информации. *In: Тезисы научных докладов и сообщений.* Ижевск, 1992. 109 – 111.
- Ухванова, И. Ф., Богушевич, Д. Г. Актуализация потенциальной прагматической информации и типы общения. *In: Веснік Беларус. дзярж. ун-та. Серія IV, 2, 1992.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. План змісту тексту: від аналізу до синтезу від структури до системи. *In: Філософська і соціологічна думка, 3. Київ, 1993а. 10–27.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. План содержания текста: от анализа к синтезу, от структуры к системе. *In: Философская и социологическая мысль, 3. Киев, 1993b. 10–27.*
- Ухванова, И. Ф. План содержания газеты: стратегия выбора: учебное пособие. Минск: БГУ, 1994.
- Ухванова, И. Ф. Постмодернистская модель как альтернативная перспектива. *In: Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Методология исследований политического дискурса: актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов, 2. Минск: БГУ, 2000. 25–29.*
- Ухванова, И. Ф., Илюшина, Л. Цивилизация как открытая динамическая система: взгляд с позиции каузально-генетического моделирования. *In: Гісторыя. Праблемы выкладання. Минск: Адукацыя і выхаванне, 8 (62), 2007. 3–8.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Введение в дискурс-аналитические практики, или чем отличается контент-анализ от дискурс-анализа. *In: Ухванова-Шмыгова (ред.). Методология исследований политического дискурса: актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов, 5. Дискурс в современном гуманитарном знании. Минск: БГУ, 2008. 49–77.*
- Ядченко, Е. И. Реконструкция национально-культурной идентичности из дискурса русского мигранта, проживающего в Германии: потенциал лингвистической методологии. *In: Вестник МГЛУ. Серія 1, Филология, 5. 2012. 47–54.*
- Ядченко, Е. И. Тематический анализ дискурсии как базовый этап в исследовании дискурса мигрантов. *In: Вестник Волгоградского института бизнеса, 4. Бизнес. Образование. Право. 2012. 45–52.*

Yuliya Bekreyeva

## Basics of the integrated concept of meaning: Cognitive semantic perspective

### Introduction

The investigation of meaningful components in the structure of a linguistic unit in its complex progression – in language system, speech, and discourse – is a vital concern of modern linguistics, whose task is to reveal the nature of language and its function in society. We would like to outline theoretical sources for cognitive semantic studies that we employ in our research into the subject-component in the meaning of dynamic verbs. The cluster “*cognitive semantic*” emphasizes the foundation of translanguistic investigation, which stands out as a synthesis of fundamental theses of semasiology and the latest research in cognitive linguistics. On the one hand, the meaning of a linguistic unit is presented as a structure of interrelated sense-components. An important aspect of this approach to meaning is its systemic character and semantic ties with other related units. On the other hand, meaning is regarded both as a manner and as a result of conceptualization. This dualistic view of the essence of meaning has been formed within an integrated concept that has developed as an alternative to a differential, structuralist approach.

### The integrated concept of meaning in Slavic linguistics

The main idea of an integrated concept is that meaning includes a wide range of more or less significant features revealed in a nominated entity in different situations. These features may be irrelevant in terms of an isolated system of language units but they play a distinguishable role as markers of accuracy and correctness of language use and sense presentation in communication. It should be noted that an integrated concept is closely linked to ***a reflexive theory of meaning***, acknowledged in Slavic linguistics. An understanding that meaning is a reflection of real entities in the human mind, a mental product that finds its material form, was established by A. A. Potebnya (Потебня, 1892) and later formulated by A. I. Smirnitckij (Смирницкий, 1955).

Scholars working in the field of psycholinguistics have contributed much to the investigation of meaning as a mental phenomenon. The most influential figures of this line are:

- N. I. Zhinkin (Жинкин, 1982), who worked out a concept of inner code in text understanding,
- A. Leontyev (Леонтьев, 1974; 2011), who developed a theory of speech activity,
- A. Zalevskaya (Залевская, 1990), who studies mental lexicon,

- P. Klimenko (Клименко, 1970, 2009), who investigates an associative field in semantics,
- E.F. Tarasov (Тарасов, 1987), the editor of the Journal of psycholinguistics that serves as a platform for many other scholars to promote their investigations of the problem “language and the human mind”.

I. A. Sternin, one of the most acknowledged scholars in modern Slavic semasiology and psycholinguistics, has elaborated an integrated conception in *the communicative model of meaning* (Стернин, 1985). His theory incorporates the understanding of meaning as a psychic phenomenon and as a part of world knowledge. I. A. Sternin proves that the structure of meaning is variable, unlimited and has a field-type organization with a distinguished center and a periphery. Meaning consists of various components of diverse types and complexity. Some of these are paradigmatically relevant i.e. help to differentiate words in the language system. Some components display communicative relevance – they transport information about a named object or phenomenon in a speech act. Any usage of a word in a communicative act is a variation in a seme structure of meaning (the term “seme” for Iosif Sternin is a minimal component of meaning). When a word is used, some semes of its meaning are actualized, other remain hidden. *Actualization* is the communicatively determined foregrounding of a seme in the structure of meaning that communicants perceive as relevant (Стернин, 1985: 82).

An integrated concept of meaning postulates a direct relation between the contents of a language unit and its function. From the *functional* viewpoint, an unobserved object – meaning – is interpreted through observed reality: in speech acts, texts, and discourse. I. A. Sternin gives the following functionally oriented definition:

“meanings are formed from texts by means of their reduction and comprehension, as well as from people’s practical activity” (translated by Y. B. from Стернин, 1985: 67). An integrated approach to meaning and its structure is applied in the *stochastic theory of meaning* proposed by M. V. Nikitin, a prominent Russian linguist, whose “Fundamentals of linguistic theory of meaning” are regaining popularity among modern researchers (Никитин, 1988). M. V. Nikitin applies logical notions ‘intensional’ and ‘extensional’ to describe the cognitive structure of meaning. The *extensional* outlines the entities (objects or phenomena) nominated by a linguistic unit. The information about the features that define a nominated entity is contained in the *contensional*. The includes two parts: an *intensional*, comprising core semantic features that perform differentiating functions in the language system, and an *implicational*, containing periphery semantic features that have communicative relevance and are “induced by an intensional of a meaning due to implicational ties of features” (translated by Y. B. from Никитин, 1988: 164). Depending

on the degree of implication, or, as we understand it, the frequency of the actualization of a semantic feature, M. V. Nikitin distinguishes the following components:

- a stiff implicational – a feature is always implied in actual use;
- a strong implicational – a high degree of probability of a semantic feature;
- a weak implicational – the presence or absence of a feature in equally possible;
- a neg-implicational – an absence of a certain feature is implied.

In terms of a classical semasiology, an *intensional* is equivalent to a *significative* component of meaning; an *extensional* correlates with a *denotate*; an *implicational* corresponds to *connotations* or *potential semes*. Unlike the rather diffuse notion of a connotative component of meaning, Nikitin’s implicational is presented in a more structured and distinct form.

### Cognitive aspect of meaning

An integrated concept of meaning conforms to the basic thesis of cognitive linguistics that investigates semantics as a verbalized analogue of cognitive structures. A key figure of Russian cognitive linguistics, E. S. Kubryakova, postulates the *iceberg theory*: a meaning of a word is “a concept captured by a sign” (Кубрякова, 1998). What is reflected in the structure of meaning is a mere “tip of the iceberg” of the whole specter of knowledge about a nominated entity (Кубрякова, 1998: 38). A similar thought is expressed by M. V. Nikitin:

“a concept, turned *to* a sign, turns *into* a meaning; a concept becomes the content of a sign” (translated and accentuated by Y. B. from Никитин, 2004: 57;).

Scholars of European and American schools of cognitive linguistics promote a close link of meaning and cognition. R. Langacker in his “Cognitive Grammar” identifies meaning as “the conceptualization associated with linguistic expressions” (Langacker, 1990). Linguistic meanings are grounded in physical reality (the activity of brain) and social interaction based on conventional imagery. Ch. Fillmore postulates the idea that meanings correlate with scenes (Fillmore, 1983). A *scene* or a situation here stands for any recognized and distinguished perception, experience, action, or object. Some scenes are complex, some are elementary, unexplainable and cognized from personal experience. G. Leech regards meaning as a “packed experience” (Leech, 1974). Meaning and its components are presented as an indistinct range of attributes, which assumes that it is hardly possible to define the limits of meaning and count all its comprising features (Leech, 1974: 15–16). The infinite character of meaning determines the flexibility and adaptive capacity of a linguistic unit in its function to nominate different phenomena of the real world.

A language unit has the opposite quality – stability and definiteness – that helps to identify a nominated object or phenomenon of reality in multiple usages in speech.

**Meaning and prototype theory.** A new angle in understanding the nature of meaning is provided by the prototype theory. Within this theory, the nomination of a certain object or a phenomenon is seen as its attribution to a certain class or a category, i.e. as **categorization**. The groundwork of prototype theory was laid by E. Rosch (1975, 1978). The prototypical model of categorization is also represented in the works of W. Labov (1973), P. Neuman (1974), E. Smith and D. Medin (1981), G. Lakoff (1987), J. Taylor (1989), D. Geeraerts (1989) and others.

Investigating the problem of categorization, E. Rosch and her followers and co-workers have demonstrated that most categories used by man have diffuse boundaries and an unclear set of features that single out each categorical member. E. Rosch suggests focusing on the identification of evident facts of categorical membership rather than searching for demarcation lines between categories. In a series of experiments aimed at studying natural categories in language and culture, E. Rosch revealed **prototypicality effects** in people's judgement about category membership (Rosch, 1978). Informants evaluated some members of a category as more representative or typical than others. Moreover, prototypical members were recognized faster and easier. The conclusion followed: not every member is equally representative of a category. The main idea of a prototype theory is that the categorization process focuses around a **prototype** as the most representative member of a category defined by people's subjective judgment and perception. A prototype embodies salient categorical features and is linked to other members of a category on the basis of "family resemblance": each item has one or more common features with other items, but this set of similar attributes shouldn't be one and the same (Rosch, 1975b). Thus, members of a category do not share all salient features with a prototype. New objects or phenomena are classified on the basis of their similarity to a prototype. The degree of prototypicality is evaluated by the number of shared features.

It should be noted that Russian linguistics lacks translations of Rosch's works, although the critical essays of V. S. Демьянков (Демьяков, 1994), R. M. Фрумкина and A. V. Мичеев (Фрумкина, Мичеев, 1991: 47–59), E. S. Кубрякова (Кубрякова, 2004: 99–115) have popularized the main theses of prototype theory. Critical remarks in terms of the prototypical conception of a category are directed to a vague description of an assessment process of **prototypicality** i.e. how people decide whether a given item is a prototype or not. If people use some features, then a category is formed by a set of features named 'a prototype'. This contradiction is overcome in later works: E. Rosch acknowledges that a set of prototypical features stands out as an exemplar for "family resemblance".

However, in perception and recognition it's quicker and easier to attribute an object to a prototypical image. The prototypical features are revealed when a group of categorical members is under analysis. This view on the essence of a prototype in a category logically correlates with the distinction of denotative and a significative component in the structure of meaning. As A. Wierzbicka states: the semantic analysis obviously has a place for prototypes as well as for invariants (Вержбицкая, 1997: 201). An invariant in this case should be defined as a set of features that outline a category.

**Meaning and Metaphor.** Principles of prototypicality are reflected in M. Johnson and G. Lakoff's conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff and Johnson 2003), which has a key significance for understanding the dynamic nature of meaning. The authors interpret metaphor as a cognitive phenomenon, expressed in language, action and thought. Metaphor is analyzed as a mapping between two domains: something already known and familiar (**source-domain**) and something new (**target-domain**). Conceptual elements of a source-domain structure target-domain, which is harder to understand. In terms of semantics we find integrated features between direct and figurative variants of meaning. The conceptual metaphor theory is given much attention in the linguistic study of polysemy. Russian and Belarusian scholars, like N. D. Арутюнова (Арутюнова, 1990), L. M. Лещева (Лещева, 1996), E. V. Падучева (Падучева, 2004), G. I. Кустова (Кустова, 2001) and others, have worked out models of source-target derivation and investigated semantic features that serve as a basis for metaphor in a polysemantic unit.

**Intermediater conclusions.** We have outlined certain conceptions for cognitive semantic investigation that can be summarized in the following theses:

1. Meaning is the manner and the result of conceptualization and categorization.
2. Meaning is understood as an open, prototypically organized structure of inter-related components.
3. Semantic change is largely grounded in metaphor as an understanding of new things via analogy with something known.
4. Meaning is closely related to function, so the presence or absence of certain semantic features is revealed in the usage of a linguistic unit.

#### **Our case study**

The integrated concept of meaning serves as a theoretical and methodological basis for our research "Subject as a semantic component of meaning of English dynamic verbs" (Бекрева, 2013, 2014, 2015).

The meaning of a verb is presented as the semantic realization of a cognitive propositional structure reflecting an event. A **proposition** consists of several interrelated concepts, Subject and Process included. Here, **the Subject** is a semantic notion and denotes the doer

of an action, an actor who causes change, a bearer of kinetic energy in a dynamic situation. A proposition as a cognitive structure is verbalized in different language units: from, so to say, mini ones to maxi ones, e.g. from verbs and deverbals to nouns denoting events, from sentences to messages and sets of messages, thereby opening our case study to a wider discourse perspective.

To illustrate this point, let us look at the verb *toddle*, whose meaning represents a compressed proposition with a foregrounded concept Process being a core seme (or an intensional) and a Subject embodied in an implicational seme “baby”. However, the specific doer of the denoted action may not even be a baby. In the meaning structure of a lexeme in a language system, the implicational seme points to a most probable or typical variant. However, a subject-seme in the structure of verb meaning embodies a result of the generalization of various social interactions and uses of that verb in communication and sketches its further usage in subject-predicate collocations. So even in smaller signs (subject-semes), which are also elements of discourse, we are able to disclose macro-signs of discourse, both in terms of semiosis and genesis (for further detail see Oukhvanova-Shmygova, 2015).

The noun *toddler*, representing the same conceptual elements of proposition, has a Subject seme as a foregrounded intensional and a Process concept in the implicational component of meaning. The same proposition is revealed in the subject-predicate collocation *a baby toddles* (the doer in the collocation is concrete compared to the probable subject seme in the verb meaning). In the utterance *Little Johnny toddled to his mother* the class (or role) of the doer *Johnny* is made concrete by other discourse elements, including the meaning of the verb-predicate and its subject seme “baby”.

To summarize, in the meaning of a verb a proposition is represented in a reduced way: only communicatively relevant features are foregrounded. Specifically, in the meaning of certain dynamic verbs, the subject component is concretized. These verbs we call **subject-oriented** (or *actor-oriented*).

An actor is incorporated in verb meaning in two ways – as a prototype or as a set of attributes. According to the form of incorporation, actor-oriented verbs are divided into:

- **verbs with S-prototype** and
- **verbs with S-attribute.**

The verb *toddle* belongs to the S-prototype class. The prototype seme represents the image of a typical doer of a named action or a process. It serves as the ground for metaphor exhibiting actors linked to a prototype by some features of “family resemblance”.

Some of these metaphors have become conceptual and are included in the lexicon. For example, the verb *bark* contains the prototype subject seme ‘dog’ in its meaning. However, corpus analysis shows, that it is mostly used with the names of people. The class seme ‘of a person’ has become a part of the verb system meaning. This seme combines with another subject seme that implies the attribute ‘angry’. The marked feature draws “family resemblance” with *an angry dog that barks*. It should be noted that in discourse the ground of a metaphor is often the communicant’s choice and it is not necessarily a subject-component. For example, from my experience and perception *a boss barking orders* may be ‘angry’, for another person he may be just ‘loud’ (sound-component) or express other similar features connected with the event or personal issues.

**Actor-oriented verbs with S-attribute** have no prototype seme. A doer is concretized by means of certain attribute semes included in the implicational part of verb-meaning. A set of attributes presents a very schematic image of a subject, profiling general categorical membership, such as ‘animal’, ‘water’, ‘person’ and some characteristic features as ‘aggressive’ or ‘hostile’ for *attack*. Additionally, semes of categorical membership are highly changeable in actual use while attribute semes are rather stable. The usage of a verb with an S-attribute in speech is also dependent on a subjective view of the communicant. In discourse, the actualization of an implicatory attribute seme is supported or confirmed by other discourse signs. For example, actualization of an attribute seme ‘tired’, included in the implicatory subject component of the verb *trudge*, is defined from the content-context analysis of the following text: *I saw a man in the distance and as he trudged nearer, I recognized Mark – tired, sick and dirty – but Mark without a doubt*. In the event described, an observer identifies the specific way of walking of the person in the distance as *trudge*. The actor is recognized thanks to certain facial features (*Mark*) and then his physical state (*tired*) is interpreted. Thus, the attribute ‘tired’ as a probable characteristic of the doer, implied in the meaning of *trudge*, is actualized in the first episode (movement) and repeated in the second episode (visual action) as part of the evaluation of an observed actor. Surely, further analysis would give more details.

*A stochastic model of a subject component* of a concrete dynamic verb predicts its actual use in subject-predicate combinations. The degree of semantic relevance of a subject’s / actor’s semantic feature at the functional level is measured according to a frequency of actualization.

A frequency of actualization of more than 50 % suggests that a subject semantic feature is part of a strong implicational of a verb’s meaning (tagged as ‘most likely’). Less than 50 % is a marker of a weak implicational (tagged as ‘probably’). A tag ‘if not then’ is used to single out lexico-semantic variants of a polysemantic verb. For e.g., with the verb *gallop* the Subject is *most likely* a four-legged animal, *probably* a horse; *if not, then most likely* it’s a man on horse; *if not then* it is *probably* free, uncontrollable, active, or energetic.

The distinction of a subject component within the semantic structure of a dynamic verb is based on the systemic-functional principle. *On the one hand*, the structure of verb-meaning contains differential semantic features that define the subject-participant of a dynamic situation, alongside a categorical semantic feature, expressing a change of situation. These subject / actor semantic features are involved in the paradigmatic and epideictic systemic semantic relations of a dynamic verb. *On the other hand*, subject semantic features are actualized in combinations of a verb-predicate with a noun-subject. A complex two-sided principle helps to reveal communicatively relevant, relatively stable semantic features that compile a “subject” component in the structure of verb meaning. We should emphasize that even this small semantic unit functions as an element of discourse. Our research combines approaches to the concept of meaning acknowledged in Russian and English linguistics and has a clear potential for discourse analysis. Actually, all Discourse is Subject-oriented.

## References

- Geeraerts, D.* Introduction: prospects and problems of prototype theory. *In: Linguistics*, 27, 1989. 587–612.
- Labov, W.* The boundaries of words and their meanings. *In: J. Bailey and R.W. Shuy (eds.) New Ways of Analyzing Variation in English.* Chicago: Chicago Linguistic Society, 1973. 340–372.
- Lakoff, G.* Cognitive models and prototype theory. *In: U. Neisser (ed.) Concepts and conceptual development: ecological and intellectual factors in categorization.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987. 63–100.
- Lakoff, G.* and Johnson, M. *Metaphors we live by.* Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 2003.
- Langacker, R.* *Concept, image and symbol: the cognitive basis of grammar.* Berlin, New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1990.
- Leech, G.* *Semantics.* Harmondsworth: Penguin, 1974.
- Neuman, P.* An attribute frequency model for the abstraction of prototypes. *In: Memory and Cognition*, 2, 1974. 241–248.
- Oukhvanova-Shmygova, I.* Discourse as a macro-sign: The causal genetic perspective of discourse linguistics. *In: A. Kiklewicz and I. Uchwanowej-Szmygowej (eds.) Dyskurs: aspekty lingwistyczne, semiotyczne i komunikacyjne.* Olsztyn: Uniwersytet Warmińsko-Mazurski, 2015. 43–57.
- Rosch, E.* Cognitive representations of semantic categories. *In: Journal of Experimental Psychology: General*, Vol. 104, 3, 1975. 192–233.
- Rosch, E.* and Mervis, C. Family resemblances: Studies in the internal structure of categories. *In: Cognitive Psychology*, 7, 1975. 573–605.
- Rosch, E.* Principles of categorization. *In: E. Rosch and B. Lloyd (eds.) Cognition and categorization.* Hillsdale, New York: Erlbaum, 1978. 26–48.
- Smith, E.* and Medin, D. *Categories and Concepts.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1981.

- Taylor, J.* *Linguistic categorization: Prototypes in linguistic theory.* Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1989.
- Арутюнова, Н. Д.* Метафора и дискурс. *In: Н. Д. Арутюнова, М. А. Журина (ред.) Теория метафоры.* Москва: Прогресс, 1990. 5–32.
- Бекреева, Ю. В.* Особенности инкорпорации субъекта в структуре глагольного значения. *In: Вестник МГЛУ. Сер. Филология*, 6 (67), 2013. 58–68.
- Бекреева, Ю. В.* Признаки категориальной принадлежности субъекта в значении глагола (в контексте теории прототипов Э. Рош). *In: Вопросы психолингвистики*, 3 (21), 2014. 160–169.
- Бекреева, Ю. В.* Субъектный компонент в структуре глагольной многозначности. *In: Вестник Воронежского государственного университета. Сер. Филология. Журналистика*, 4, 2015. 8–9.
- Вежбицкая, А.* *Язык. Культура. Познание.* Москва: Русские словари, 1997.
- Демьянков, В. З.* Теория прототипов в семантике и прагматике языка. *In: Е. С. Кубрякова (ред.) Структуры представления знаний в языке.* Москва: ИНИОН РАН, 1994. 32–86.
- Залевская, А. А.* Слово в лексиконе человека: психолингвистическое исследование. Воронеж: Изд-во Воронежского ун-та, 1990.
- Жинкин, Н. И.* *Речь как проводник информации.* Москва: Наука, 1982.
- Клименко, А. П.* Вопросы психолингвистического изучения семантики. Минск: Минский гос. лингв. ун-т, 1970.
- Клименко, А. П.* Значение слова как предмет психолингвистики. *In: Славянские языки: аспекты исследования.* Минск: Белорус. гос. ун-т, 2009. 111–116.
- Кубрякова, Е. С.* О новых путях исследования значения (теория айсберга). *In: Проблемы семантического описания единиц языка и речи: мат-лы докладов междунар. конференции посвящ. 50-летию Минск. гос. лингв. ун-та, Минск, 10–12 ноября 1998 г.* Ч. 1, 1998. 38–39.
- Кубрякова, Е. С.* *Язык и знание.* Москва: Языки славянской культуры, 2004.
- Кустова, Г. И.* (2001) Типы производных значений и механизмы семантической деривации: дис. ... д-ра филол. наук: 10.02.19.
- Леонтьев, А. А.* *Психология общения.* Тарту: Тартуский университет, 1974.
- Леонтьев, А. А.* Психолингвистический аспект языкового значения. *In: Вопросы психолингвистики*, № 1 (13), 2011. 8–30.
- Лещева, Л. М.* Лексическая полисемия в когнитивном аспекте. Минск: Минский гос. лингв. ун-т, 1996.
- Никитин, М. В.* *Основы лингвистической теории значения.* Москва: Высшая школа, 1988.
- Никитин, М. В.* Развернутые тезисы о концептах. *In: Вопросы когнитивной лингвистики*, 1, 2004. 54–57.
- Падучева, Е. В.* *Динамические модели в семантике лексики.* Москва: Языки славянской культуры.
- Потебня, А. А.* *Мысль и язык.* Харьков: Типография Адольфа Дарре, 1892.

- Смирницкий, А. И.* Значение слова. *In: Вопросы языкознания*, 2, 1955. 79–89.
- Стернин, И. А.* Лексическое значение слова в речи. Воронеж: Изд-во Воронеж. ун-та, 1985.
- Тарасов, Е. Ф.* Тенденции развития психолингвистики. Москва: Наука, 1987.
- Филлмор, Ч.* Основные проблемы лексической семантики. *In: Новое в зарубежной лингвистике*, Вып. 12: Прикладная лингвистика, 1983. 74–122.
- Фрумкина, Р. М.* Михеев, А. В. Проблемы категоризации в работах Э. Рош. *In: Ю. А. Шрейдер (ред.) Семантика и категоризация*. Москва: Наука, 1991.

## Issue 2. Precedent texts in discourse theory

Every national scientific school in any research field has its precedent texts. With time, these texts start to be the material for collection of classical works in the field. These are the texts, which form the core of the field's knowledge, as they tend to not only present key concepts of the field but also systematize them making a research direction a systemic and structurally defined research discipline. Within the names of the authors rooted in contemporary discourse studies there are those who are strong in both: concept representation (description, modeling) and concept application (practical research exercising). Besides, they could be inventive in setting new research practices – research methods, techniques and genres of research presentations. Novelty and depth make their works a special heritage to care and apply.

Among such names within the field of discourse analysis, there are Ludwig Wittgenstein and Pavel Florensky. For some these names are implicitly but for others explicitly linked with discourse studies. The articles below aim at proving how strong the linkage is and how actual it is to study the original texts to set this direct connection, which also demonstrates the necessity for a discourse analyst to be open interdisciplinary. The cases suggested in the issue are based on the following original texts:

1. Wittgenstein, L. *Philosophical Investigations*. Oxford, 1953.
2. Витгенштейн, Л. *Философские исследования*. *In: Новое в зарубежной лингвистике*, 16: Лингвистическая прагматика. Москва, 1985. 79-128.
3. Флоренский, П. А. *Обратная перспектива: Избранные труды по искусству*. Москва: Изобразительное искусство, 1996. 9–72.

Ilya Putikov

### **Wittgenstein: Towards meaning and meaning construction**

*(translated from Russian by Maria Soloviova )*

#### **Introduction**

Modern linguistics is developing dynamically. New post-classical research in methodology suggests conceptual schemes of describing and functioning of language and society, which include both static (structural) and dynamic (functional) aspects. New methods appear to study evolution, procedure, coherence and correlation of different social phenomena.

The main task of these methods is to describe and explain a specific empirical object and embed it in the evolution of social development. For this reason, the current development of linguistics requires a point of contact with other social sciences and philosophy. This search for the common can lead to the appearance of new conceptual schemes and methodologies and enrich not only linguistics but also other social sciences and philosophical systems. Thus, correlation between linguistics and philosophy requires special attention.

As a science, linguistics has been influenced by philosophy not only in its methodological formal aspect. In any case, the content and problems of the 20<sup>th</sup> century philosophy were connected with the search for new concepts in the sphere of language and speech, which, undoubtedly, brought philosophy and linguistics closer together. A terminological basis was formed during that process. For instance, in the 20<sup>th</sup> century philosophy the term *linguistic turn* was used in two meanings. The first one was focused on defining a general tendency in philosophy, e.g. the tendency to analyze a specific character of language from the point of view of a certain philosophical paradigm (analytical, hermeneutical, structural or postmodern ones). The second one kept in itself a special meaning, e.g. as an address to a range of problems in the *analytical philosophical paradigm* proper, which, first and foremost, was connected with the heritage of Ludwig Wittgenstein.

The works of the philosopher significantly influenced the formation of two philosophical paradigms in the continental 20<sup>th</sup> century philosophy. In 1999 the journal "The Philosophical Forum" (Lackey, 2013) carried out the poll "What are the modern classics?" in which the work "Philosophical Investigations" by this Austrian and British philosopher, published posthumously (1953), ranked first as the most important work of the 20<sup>th</sup> century philosophy). "Philosophical Investigations" has had an important influence on the formation of the modern analytical paradigm, while "Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus" (1921) influenced the formation of logical positivism. Within these publications, Wittgenstein initiated two important philosophical tendencies, to which (whatever strange it may seem) he did not associate himself.

Today the interest in Wittgenstein's heritage is not diminishing. There is the Wittgenstein society, which, since 1976, has been holding annually International Wittgenstein's symposia. They cover an extremely broad range of topics: from investigations of Wittgenstein's own works to the problems of mind, memory, language, and discourse (e.g. Austrian Ludwig Wittgenstein Society, 2013). In the context of the appearance of the so called extended or discourse linguistics, Wittgenstein's works are to be analyzed from the point of view of the specificity of his discourse.

The methodological framework of the causal genetic perspective permits to carry out the research of Wittgenstein's discourse with a special focus on reconstructing (from his works of different periods of time) such cognitive structures in their interdependence as "discourse pictures of reality" and "discourse pictures of communicative reality" (social interaction). These dichotomy-like complex functional categories of discourse (functioning as macrostructures of in-built cognitive, pragmatic, syntagmatic and paradigmatic planes) are the ones borne within natural interchange in human communication of content-context actualization. They function by actualizing "the worlds of topics", e.g. a thematic matrix of discourse, or the communicants themselves as a special world, e.g. communicative cortege revealing matrix of discourse (for getting acquainted with the approach closer see the publications by Irina Oukhvanova, Aliona Popova, Elena Savich, and other representatives of the school of CGA).

The two periods of Wittgenstein's creative writing represented by the publications "Tractatus logico-philosophicus" (1921) and "Philosophical Investigations" (1953), are marked as *logocentric* and *linguocentric*. These periods do not only mark a special turn of the philosopher from one to another set of ideas and a shift from one research methodology to another one. They reveal the changes in the ideas about the language, which took place in the 20<sup>th</sup> century. The form of discourse, in which Wittgenstein presents his concepts, openly amends the actualization of the content potential of his ideas. This is the reason why the researchers of Wittgenstein's heritage continue to search for and find new meanings in his books. The style of Wittgenstein's writing forms a special packaging of the ideas making new generations of philosophers interested in unpacking them anew in renewed social contexts.

It is believed that while investigating the sphere of the *ideal* a philosopher does not need to refer his own way of concept ideas to some fixed institutional correspondence. Science and philosophy do not only supplement each other, but also confront each other in the approach to the results of an intellectual activity. In science (linguistics or physics), the presentation of information corresponds to the discourse type of the scientific community, it is incorporated into the tradition and corresponds to the regulations and standards of the given community. But in philosophy, notwithstanding the existence of different schools and traditions, every thinker in some way tends to *an individual style of writing*, and therefore is supposed to be closer to a writer. If a writer is a master of words, then a *philosopher is a master of concepts, ideas, intellectual matrix and methodologies*, which are only destined to *strive for the universal*. Thus, **discourse of philosophical writing correlates with that of science and writer**. A pursuit of *universal* categories brings philosophical discourse closer to scientific discourse, and the author's *individual writing manner* – to writer's discourse.

Individualized writing in the context of philosophical discourse depends on what ideas an author and philosopher reveals in particular. Every concept requires a special form of expression, which at the same time can serve as an example of using one's own conceptual methodology. *The meaning of expression forms itself in the process of usage. In fact, the meaning is the usage.* In this sense the investigation of the *verbalization method* of ideas serves as an additional source of contentually focused understanding of a philosophical statement. Only the unity of form and content forms the holistic picture of reality of any thinker (it is a cornerstone of philosophical discourse).

Wittgenstein's example illustrates the previous statement about a special significance of the connection between form and content, when form becomes content, and content is individually formed and turned into a sign of an idea, thought, concept, i.e. the search of *individual writing* becomes dependent on an author's conceptual task. The dichotomy of the *interactive* (subject-subject) and the *referential* (subject-object) becomes a center (key position), differing the Wittgenstein of the 1920s ("Tractatus logico-philosophicus") from the Wittgenstein of the 1950s ("Philosophical investigations").

In other words, discussing discourse-reality in the context of the CGA approach, we are talking about a phenomenon-centered and idea-centered unity, as well as about activity-centered and subject-centered unity, together with structural, systemic, hierarchic and linear representation of the individual and the universal in philosophical discourse. It is from this point of view that we will analyze and then compare the two main works of the master of philosophical writing.

### Case study 1

The structural arrangement of "Tractatus logico-philosophicus" represents quite an integral, well thought-out and solid discourse, which includes an introduction and seven parts. The empirical material and commentaries on it, presented in Table 1, allow us to describe the work overall.

**Table1.** "Tractatus logico-philosophicus": the analyzed material and comments.

<b>Citations from Wittgenstein's Tractatus logico-philosophicus (1921):</b>	<b>Commenting on Wittgenstein's discourse representations:</b>
(Introduction) <i>I do not want to judge whether my efforts coincide with the efforts of other philosophers. My writing doesn't claim to have new details, that's why I don't mention any sources, because I don't care if there is anyone before me who had thought what I thought.</i>	<i>Emphasis on the author's self, tending to dominate over any possible discourse practices in this discourse and at the same time trying to keep away from general philosophical context.</i>
(Main part) <i>2.1512. It is like a measure applied to reality.</i>	(Main part) <i>Linear text organization; serial numbering in a strictly scientific style.</i>
<i>2.15121. Only extreme measuring points of a scale can touch a measurable object.</i>	<i>Primary usage of simple narrative expressions of the postulated character.</i>
<i>2.021. Objects make a world substance. That is why they cannot be components.</i>	<i>Simple monosyllabic utterances dominate; there are a number of interrogative statements.</i>
<i>2.02. An object is simple.</i>	<i>Reference to the discourse group of neo-positivistic philosophy (Russell).</i>
<i>5.553. Russell said that there were simple relations between different numbers of objects (individuals). However, between what numbers? Moreover, how should it be solved? Through experience?</i>	<i>The metaphysical abstraction of the language system.</i>
	<i>Discourse of a narrative character (monologue)</i>

Here in "Tractatus logico-philosophicus", as the table shows, the referential (thematic) content is actualized to its utmost making the text a collection of intertwined thoughts, ideas, and evaluations. To be focused on this, the author makes himself an excuse, by representing himself to the reading audience in a somewhat exclusive manner of a theme-focused person. Further on, the orientation to external communication is practically not revealed in the text. Wittgenstein follows his idea, and its delineation takes much more place in his work than a search for communication with a potential reference group. It seems that the author is not interested at the moment in how his work will be understood, however, for disclosing subject-subject content Wittgenstein introduces a consecutive linear numbering, thus revealing his respect to the audience by representing the intention of organizing the interactive content. Irrespective of the fact that the author wrote this text for himself, a kind of an inner monologue, there is an orientation to "his" reference group in the text.

The use of special vocabulary indicates the discourse group, which the discourse inscribes and thus forms. The abstract, logically correct and sometimes metaphysical language apparatus precisely describes the community of early analysts, whose language system tends to get over the speculation on all previous philosophy and strives to unite it with science, first, with formal logic. It is the early analysts that Wittgenstein refers to in the text, although such rare examples are an exception to the text structure: an intention to use intellectual sets of early analysts is revealed in the emotional detachment of the text, in the use of laconic expressions of a simple type.

“Tractatus logico-philosophicus”, written when the author was a prisoner-of-war during World War I, aims, in the young Wittgenstein’s opinion, to answer all philosophical problems, which are “based on the misunderstanding of language logic”, and also “to put a limit [...] to the expression of thought”, which can be done “only in language”. The author warned about quite an important detail “verity of these thoughts seems to me undeniable and definitive” (Wittgenstein, 2013). Such stability was reflected in the method of concept presentation: Wittgenstein offers axioms, short affirmative monosyllabic statements, in which the thinker postulates his positivistic program. The work contains a short introduction and seven main theses, each of which is given in a logical linear sequence (every thesis is given a number and each of the dependent thesis is indicated as 1-1.1-1.1.2, etc.). Some of these theses have achieved a form of aphorisms (“limits to my language mean limits to my world” (Wittgenstein, 2013)), which proves not only the author’s intention to achieve logical simplicity, but also his deep feel for language.

Such a presentation of information shows not only the author’s absolute confidence in the verity of his ideas (the author states it in the introduction), but also a correspondence between text organization and the body of the author’s ideas: positivistic thinking is thinking in simple and understandable statements, in simple evident units. Every true statement, organized according to the law of formal logic, has a correlation with external reality (“logic fills the world; limits of the worlds are its limits as well” (Wittgenstein, 2013). Such simple evident units (i.e. adequate to external reality and laws of formal logic) are short axiomatic theses organized in strict mathematical sequence (in Wittgenstein’s case).

“Tractatus logico-philosophicus” had a specific impact on the development of positivistic philosophy in the first half of the 20th century. Other early analysts (Frege, Russell, representatives of the Vienna Circle) have a range of works with similar content, but *it was Wittgenstein’s work that acquired a determinative status because of the original form which Wittgenstein used in his work.*

## Case study 2

“Tractatus logico-philosophicus” was written in another intellectual situation. Despite a specific formal similarity of the compositional organization of the works (both “Tractatus logico-philosophicus” and “Philosophical investigations” have an introduction and sequentially numbered statements), there is a great difference in the presentation of information. Table 2 includes a range of typical statements from “Philosophical investigations” and commentaries to them, giving an opportunity to judge about the structure and the method of the material organization on the whole.

**Table 2.** “Philosophical investigations”: the analysed material and commentaries

Philosophical investigations (1953)	Commentaries
<p>4. <i>Imagine a written language in which letters are used not only to indicate sounds, but also as accents and punctuation.</i></p> <p>18. <i>You should not be confused by the fact that languages (2) and (8) consist of only commands.</i></p> <p>21. <i>Imagine a language game, in which B answering to A tells him about a number of panels or blocks in a stack or about the color and shape of building stones lying somewhere. So the message could sound like this: “Five panels”. What is the difference between the message and affirmation “Five panels” and a command “Five panels!”</i></p> <p>22. <i>Just as well we could make every affirmation in a form of a question with the following confirmation, for instance, “Is it raining? Yes, it is!” Would it not be a proof that each affirmation has a hidden question?</i></p>	<p>The dialogue of the text appeals to a potential reader.</p> <p>Linear and non-linear text organization in a sequential numbering of certain notes, some parts are linearly hierarchical, while others – non-linear, can refer to completely different parts of discourse practices.</p> <p>Metaphoricity, usage of everyday situations for describing concepts, and use of irony. The usage of utterances of imperative and interrogative types.</p> <p>The prevailing complex utterances suggest that the reader should join the author in search of answers to the given problems</p>

The only common feature of “Tractatus logico-philosophicus” and “Philosophical investigations” is the numbering of certain parts. If in the first case the numbering changes the sequence of several logical conclusions, then in “Philosophical investigations” the numbering helps to return from one note to another in non-linear dependence. Sometimes notes form quite long chains of reasoning about the same subject, and their content changes rapidly, moving from one thought to another. Orientation to a dialogue is an obvious intention of later Wittgenstein. Almost every statement begins with an appeal to a potential reader of the text.

However, the emphasis on the interactive form of text organization is one of the methods of reference content expression (subject-object). Later Wittgenstein expresses it almost without using any specific vocabulary and an abstract metaphysical philosophical apparatus (he strove to overcome it in “Tractatus logico-philosophicus”), which shows the author’s intention to expand the discourse group. If “Tractatus logico-philosophicus” is part of the logical positivism community discourse and early analytics, then “Philosophical investigations” aims at a very wide audience: from intellectuals to “simple” people. The intention to attract a wide audience to his discourse is felt in the use of emotional colouring of the text. By using simple everyday situations, the metaphorical nature of natural language, as well as its paradoxicality and irony, which can be found in extended statements, the philosopher deprives his concept of the unambiguity of perception, thus inviting the reader to cooperate. To understand the concept, one should join in, be in the discourse with its author and offer one’s own interpretation.

For Wittgenstein one of the main reasons for not being able to write his work in a different form was the object of research. His object is language, e.g. the language transformed for usage and, thus, those factors that bring meanings to a statement in one case, but interferes with clear meaning production in another case.

Avoiding the division of “metaphysical” language and “practical” speech (Saussure’s dichotomy was not essential for Wittgenstein) the philosopher tries to describe language as an activity, process, a branched complex system, the key concept of its description being language games.

Language games are a concept-metaphor, indicating that, as every game, it has a set of rules. Participants of a language game know these rules (“deep structure”), but they cannot offer a metalanguage, a rule which could describe a universal method of the organization of this or that game. Every language game is a specific situation with particular participants and a proper set of rules and agreements typical exactly of this period of time, place and participants. *Language games are similar to each other like family resemblance,*

“we can see a complicated chain of similarities overlapping and interlacing with each other, similarities in the large and in the small” (Lackey, 2013).

These similarities can be investigated by searching parallels with other language games, but a universal set of rules for the language task is impossible:

“we do not know the limits of the game because they are not set” (Lackey, 2013).

Thus, Wittgenstein offered a **dynamic model of language as a set of different speech practices in context.**

It is this language game, built of non-linear remarks requiring *cooperation* in the process of reconstructing the philosopher’s thoughts and ideas that is reflected in the form of “Tractatus logico-philosophicus”. If language is formed in a natural process of immediate situations to which universal rules of behavior cannot be applied, then Wittgenstein’s text avoids applying these universal rules: postulates, axioms, metalanguage and theorization. It is in this way that the thinker encourages the reader to participate in cooperation, dialogue, communication, joining in.

This interpretation of language underlies the interpretation of society as a set of different social groups and groupings. Each of them has its own specific character and particular “family” traits as well as its own language, language game, and discourse.

There is an obvious correlation between the definitions “discourse” and “language game”, because in every particular event it is necessary to have a correlation with a particular situation, place and a set of rules for the respective situation. Linguistic discourse develops applied methods, which can be useful for an analysis of some speech situations and useless for others: discourse sets the rules for research as well.

## Conclusion

Wittgenstein’s heritage is extremely topical for researchers of discourse. While “Tractatus logico-philosophicus” predetermined the search for a correlation between reality and language, the code of “Philosophical investigations” signifies a turn to the analytics of real communicative conditions of language functioning, which has become a premise for the development of discourse analysis.

The application of the complex highly analytic method of reconstructing the interplay of the discourse key content foci developed in the cause of philosophical discourse production, based on splitting subject-bias and object-bias content-bearing components, helped to see two precedent publications as if woken up by the interchange of subject-object biased content elements (its inner content-context game). Within this vision the texts “Tractatus logico-philosophicus” and “Philosophical investigations” are accepted as revealing the method of Wittgenstein’s writing as the one filled with flexibility in a focus change and thus audience change coming together with representation change by manipulation dialectically with macro- and micro markers (verbal and nonverbal) of cognizing. Such focus shifts are determined, as I see it, not only by the author’s intellectual intentions, but also by the development of ideas within certain discourse research groups forming in his own way their openness to the new ways of reality processing. From a pure context point of view, such changes in ideas representation might be also explained by the change of Wittgenstein’s status: from a young ambitious researcher, craving

to solve all problems in philosophical discourse, to Philosophy professor at Cambridge, who tries to express a range of non-structured remarks on an immense problem - the functioning of language.

The significance of Wittgenstein's works for humanities overall allows us to speak about the author exceeding the boundaries of inner philosophical discourse. Wittgenstein is a symbolic figure for the whole range of humanities. Having raised questions about humanitarian cognition as such, he is one of the key figures in the humanities and philosophy of the 20th century.

## References

- Austrian Ludwig Wittgenstein Society*. International Wittgenstein Symposium. <http://www.alws.at/index.php/>
- Lackey, D. P.* What are the modern classics? The Baruch poll of Great Philosophy in the Twentieth century. *In: The Philosophical Forum*. Vol. 30 (4), 1999. 329–46.
- Витгенштейн, Л.* Логико-философский трактат. [http:// philosophy.ru/library/witt/01/01.html](http://philosophy.ru/library/witt/01/01.html).
- Витгенштейн, Л.* Философские исследования. <http://filosof.historic.ru/books/item/f00/s00/z0000273/st000.shtml>.
- Вригт, Г. Х.* фон. Людвиг Витгенштейн: Человек и мыслитель. <http://elenakosilova.narod.ru/studia4/wittgenstein.pdf>.
- Путиков, И.* Витгенштейн: реконструкция смыслов и методического аппарата ученого, философа, мыслителя. *In: Ухванова, И., Кожина, А., Савич, Е.* (ред.) *La Table Ronde*, 2. Лингвистика дискурса и перспективы ее развития в парадигме современной славистики. Минск: РИВШ, 2013. 234–241.
- Савич Е. В.* Медийный дискурс лоббирования: пространственная организация содержания. *In: Ухванова-Шмыгова, Сарновски, М.* (ред) *La Table Ronde*, 1. Дискурс в академическом пространстве. Минск: БГУ, 2010. 90–99.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф.* Каузально-генетическая перспектива исследования дискурса. *In: Ухванова-Шмыгова, Сарновски, М.* (ред.) *La Table Ronde*, 1. Дискурс в академическом пространстве. Минск: БГУ, 2010. 82–90.

Irina Oukhvanova

## Methodology of discourse analysis in the works on art criticism by Pavel Florensky

(translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)

### Introduction

Discourse analysis came into linguistic research with a number of techniques, deriving their names from the verb “to construct”. The reason was the understanding of discourse in general and separate discourse practices in particular as an activity or an open and context-organized holistic field of signs that construct meanings, contents, knowledge.

Discourse analysis is aimed at (1) deconstruction or splitting of the whole into components in order to understand the scope and depth of the meaning generated and, at the same time, (2) reconstruction of the whole to witness the interaction of components. The first represents a descriptive paradigm of the field, whether we label it the linguistics of discourse, discursology, or discourse studies, while the second represents its functional modelling-targeted paradigm.

The former becomes the subjects of semiotics and semiology, which are the fields of their own methodologies deeply rooted in an applied science giving a push to both social and linguistic qualitative discourse studies (and hence the linguistic turn to social sciences). The latter becomes the subject of discourse linguistics, which is still developing its methodology by realizing the specific character of the phenomenon – peculiarities of functioning of language units larger than a word form (a word, word phrase, phraseological unit). Further, the appearance of functional grammar, syntax, semantics, and stylistics is required with a focus on the peculiarities of content functioning in terms of integrity of sentence/utterance, text/macrotext, discourse practice/discourse, i.e. from language micro to macro units in functioning. Together with this, the development of such actively forming areas of linguistics as psycho-, socio-, ethno-, pragma-, and other hybrid linguistics are required in order to focus on the peculiarities of context functioning, i.e. awareness of the fact that besides linguistic context, social context is included and actualized in communication process and communication product – discourse practice.

Thus, the place of content deconstruction and reconstruction techniques in discourse analysis becomes clear. Integration of content and developed context in its turn, gives rise to the definition of discourse that now is common in discourse linguistics: discourse is text plus social context (T. van Dijk). Accordingly, in this continuum of theoretical development of discourse space, or to be more exact, discourse level, as discourse is a somewhat level characteristic of the language, there appears the causal genetic theory

of meaning/content first of the word (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1982) and then of a language macrounit space (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1990, 1992, 1993). As a result, there is a further justification of theoretical foundations of the process of constructing and reconstructing meanings in a macrounit space (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 1986, 2000, 2003).

The new theory (presented in our Round Table one earlier as a cluster type of a theory) allows us to include certain spaces (planes) into potential discourse content, and, thus, in the very process of generating discourse meanings. These planes are an informative one (subject-object biased) with its diverse informational potential, generated, *inter alia*, by the specific character of the process of human being's cognition of reality, and an interactive one (subject-subject biased), where each communicant plays the role of a cortege of the other and thus influences the discourse content. The communicants, while involved into communication, actualize their own knowledge, peculiarities of cognition, attitudes, moods, prejudices, cultural background, gender, age, professional and other characteristics, predisposition to see something, to find, or not to see and not to find it. Still the very communicative process regulates what is to actualize out of them and in which way making discourse content specific and even unique.

Inclusion of these two content planes (informative and interactive) are of equal importance generating, while processing, a third one, that is a mobile, but holistic content plane open to further dynamic transformations. Reconstruction of discourse content in functioning is only possible when based on grasping the discourse's complexity and simplicity at the same time.

The techniques of discourse content reconstruction suggests:

- knowledge of what makes up discourse and how it functions, i.e. how numerous content elements confront and organized giving space for new angles and shades of meanings;
- knowledge of who are involved and what is social specificity of meaning actualization;
- knowledge of both physical and social worlds for meanings are drawn from their comprehension and specificity of one's comprehension of these realities goes through self-cognition;
- knowledge of communication process and communication medium, e.g. specificity of encoding, transmitting and decoding processes; and
- the very awareness of what might be expected, otherwise, foreseeing the results of communicative acts, actions, events.

We become aware of the notions of texts at large and thus discourses in the context of knowledge representation. In this case, text is any sign within its form (sign verbal structure) and content (sign cognitive structure), open to enter various sign systems and comprehension of the ways they (these systems) form interaction and, therefore, transition to discourse.

Certainly, discourse represents itself by any object of contemporary culture involved into communicative processes – from quite serious to seemingly trivial. For example, in the context of contemporary culture, a toy can display, for example, the quality of friendliness or hostility towards the child who owns it. It is significant that on this basis, each child, for example, in the state of Minnesota, USA (which I happened to witness) has the right to return (within some time span) the toy to the store, where it was purchased, or exchange it for another one, that might be friendlier to that particular child. After all, the toy functions to communicate with a child, and not for any other reason. In such a way a simple object is constructed by society as complex and interactive, and gains within it a very specific discourse based meaning.

When involved in interaction (and thus becoming discourse in effect), a textual object, being a communication activity produced idea-bias phenomenon, gains meaningfulness and becomes precedent. Hence, the change in the content of the notion “precedence” in discourse linguistics is when any text) produced for functioning in the society; previously as if not noticed, gains its importance and thus socialized content. Within it paintings of different styles and circulation can be and in fact are a special focus of discourse analysis. Within this application, discourse expertise needs to adopt its methods accordingly, which is the topic of an extensive discussion in the field of art critic.

### Case study description

The Orthodox icon is within the field of art critic an interacted cultural object, which can be, thus, treated as a discourse and studied accordingly. Its significance and openness to interaction as a textual or rather narrative object of the Orthodox culture reveals itself while interacting with the church believers and visitors. Let us look at an Orthodox icon as a special purpose painting through the eyes of the theologian and art critic Pavel Florensky, a distinguished personality of the Slavic intellectual culture<sup>1</sup>.

<sup>1</sup> Pavel Florensky is known as theologian, philosopher, mathematician, and art critic. The Tartu school of Semiotics evaluated his works in terms of their anticipation of themes that formed part of the theoretical avant-garde's interests in a general theory of cultural signs: “Florensky's thinking actively responded to the art of the Russian modernists. His publication ‘Reverse Perspective’ (represented by citations here) appeared in 1919 (and is devoted to) spatial organization in the Russian icon tradition, a concept, which Florensky, like Erwin Panofsky later, picked up Oskar Wulff's 1907 essay, ‘Die umgekehrte Perspektive und die Niedersicht’”. In his work Florensky contrasted the dominant concept of spatiality in Renaissance art analyzing the visual conventions employed in the iconological tradition. This work has remained since its publication a seminal text in this area down to the present day. In that essay, his interpretation has recently been developed and reformulated critically by Clemena Antonova, who argues rather that what Florensky analysed is better described in terms of “simultaneous planes” ([https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pavel\\_Florensky](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pavel_Florensky)), Pavel Florensky's biography in English is written by Avril Pyman. See: <http://www.bloomsbury.com/uk/pavel-florensky-a-quiet-genius-9781441120984/#sthash.PGzEZHCO.dpuf>.)

Our special attention to his research – the work «Reverse Perspective» (Флоренский, 1996) – is based on the fact that the way he reconstructs the icon's content can be viewed as a precedent text on what the methods of discourse reconstruction is like, when we deal with real content-context's complexity. We can judge this work as precedent for discourse analysis coming at least from three perspectives:

1. Firstly, his paper presents a vivid example of meaning's (re)construction: the author finds meanings in reality itself and brings them to the world of symbolic plane. At the same time the content of the sign remains mobile, alive, because by constructing meanings a researcher at the same time separates the sign and reality, and combines them into a single communicative space.
2. Secondly, the work teaches how to reconstruct meanings, interacting both with the text and communicants' space, taking into account their functional unity and exclusive importance of either of them.
3. Thirdly, we have an example of how the scientist, ahead of time, communicates with the audience, introducing it to a quite new, sophisticated, and somewhat ambiguous field of knowledge – the field of discourse analysis.

Florensky applies the method of meaning/knowledge reconstruction on the example of a multidimensional communication process. The process includes interaction of the artist (the one who paints a church building on the icon violating the simple perspective technique because of its obviousness and thoughtlessness) with a real structure – the object of his cognition (an idea), trying to comprehend it and transmit his vision of it with the help of signs / images / codes. The image implemented according to its 'diverse perspective' (diverse vision as a special sign code) and guessing (mental code), e.g. adding what is seen indirectly (mentally) rather than directly (visually).

An interaction of (1) an artist (painter) with (2) a church's image (phenomenon) as a (3) structure (idea), where phenomenological enriched by ideational, brings (4) a process of painting and (5) a resulting picture (icon), which further interacts with (6) its viewers. The result of the latest interaction is as if foreseen by Florensky in the process of his reconstruction of the (7) icon's contents (polifunctional meanings derived).

Further acquaintance with the work by Florensky "Reverse Perspective" (Флоренский, 1996) gives an idea of the possibility to see the process of interaction as represented by eight successive stages. These eight stages start to be my object of reconstruction, for which I apply the technique of 'text's interviewing'. Accordingly, the description of these stages will be presented by original quoting of Florensky's words and preceded by my questions. The purpose of applying this very technique currently used in qualitative

sociology is to insert into the text by Florensky a number of 'breaks' that could help the reader to form certain expectations. I do believe that it allows the reader to come deeper into understanding why and how reconstruction contributes to our understanding and what specifically it does to conduct professionally the role of a discourse expert.

As I believe, the author of «Reverse Perspective» provides the reader with several tasks (roles) simultaneously:

- 1) to read the text carefully,
- 2) to take a good look at it as if from above and, with the change of a focus,
- 3) to 'listen' to its content for 'hearing' greater complexity (different voices of the text),
- 4) to gain the experience of the observer and thinker, and, thereby,
- 5) to learn what is an in-depth reading,
- 6) to benefit from this type of reading by reconstructing meanings and its shades,
- 7) to transfer them from one space to another and still further,
- 8) to think analytically (by splitting the complexity) and, at the same time, synthetically (by transforming elements into different holistic shapes).

Each of these tasks is the concern of Florensky's writing and thus my questioning. So let us start the process of reconstructing the method of discourse reconstruction in the way it was proposed by Pavel Florensky.

### **Eight steps for reconstruction the meanings**

**Question 1:** How to teach oneself the skill of reconstruction, i.e. the skill of meaningful vision (understanding) of what one observes, reads, listens to? How to teach a young researcher in-depth analysis? How to look and see, seek and find, listen and hear? How to teach an artist to understand what he sees, generates and transmits?

*Pavel Florensky: "To see and to examine the object, rather than just look at it, one needs to consecutively translate its image on the retina by separate sections to the sensitive spot of it" (Флоренский, 1996: 66).*

**Question 2:** How to be sure that one has seen the essence of the object and then of the text (the sign, which constructs this object)? How is its content organized? How to encrypt the meanings, which I look for, I find and want to transmit?

*Pavel Florensky: "This means that the visual image is not given to consciousness as something simple, easy and effortless, but is built and consecutively composed by parts coming one after the other" (Флоренский, 1996: 66).*

**Question 3:** How does my mind work so that I can find meanings as pieces of a whole and put them together?

**Pavel Florensky:** “... each part of it is perceived, more or less, from its own point of view. Further, the boundaries extend synthetically by a special act of the mind and the visual image is created in a consecutive manner, it is not given ready-made” (Флоренский, 1996: 66).

**Question 4:** How do I (searching for meanings in their interrelation) perceive a complex (sense carrying) object, that I myself have chosen for cognition? How does the understanding of it, of its complexity come to me?

**Pavel Florensky:** “In perception, the visual image is not contemplated from one point of view, but due to the vision, it is an image of a polycentric perspective. Attaching here the surfaces added to the image of the right eye by the left eye, we must admit the similarity of any visual image with iconic chambers, and starting from this point the dispute may be only about the extent and the desired degree of this polycentrism, but not about its fundamental assumption” (Флоренский, 1996: 66–67).

**Question 5:** So what is next, when we have seen one object but from different perspectives (with both eyes as if with different text codes)? Shall we seek to combine what has been decomposed, or shall we transmit it in a divided (polycentric) form? Synthesis or analysis? The rule (of a single perspective) or its violation? Shall we construct the final product of cognition as an immutable monolith, or let it remain as if incomplete, in perpetual motion?

**Pavel Florensky:** “Then comes either the demand for an even greater mobility of the eye, for the sake of a heavily thickened synthetic character, or the demand, if it is possible, to fix the eye, – when decomposing vision is searched for, with the perspective standing in the way of this visual analysis. But man, as long as he is alive, cannot fully fit into a perspective scheme, and the very act of vision with a fixed eye (if we forget about the left eye) is mentally impossible” (Флоренский, 1996: 67).

**Question 6:** If the final product of reconstruction has gradually gained volume, due to several ‘approaches’ to it, can we really ‘see’ this volume? In other words, can the object cognized by the first code (eye), the second (the second eye), and the third (thought) in their time continuum be put together, seen as if happened at once, at one moment and transmitted exactly the way it is? After all, this is what we have been looking for and have already understood.

**Pavel Florensky:** “They still would say: «But you cannot see three walls of the house in one go!» [...] In one go you can see neither three, nor two walls of it, nor even one. In one go – we see only a tiny piece of the wall; in fact, we do not see even this piece at one go, as at first we see literally nothing. Not at one go, but we surely get the image of the house and three of the four walls, thus having the whole image of it” (Флоренский, 1996: 67).

**Question 7:** Does it mean that finding meanings is analytical, gradual, sequential work, and the result (getting some knowledge) is only a temporary stop before going on? Maybe that is why the accent is on the word ‘analysis’ within the expression ‘discourse-analysis’ although the ultimate goal of the process of reconstruction is to connect what is found into some functional complexity as a holistic product, which says alive and variable? Do we as discourse analysts striving for building some final variable (cognitive) structures as variable models of a communicative, interactive product staying alive in it?. However, without understanding the process, the model can hardly be accepted as a researcher’s target goal received, I guess.

**Pavel Florensky:** “In live perception, continuous streaming, overflowing, measurement, and struggle take place, playing, sparkling, pulsating but never becoming in inner consciousness a dead scheme of the object. An artist ... takes the most vivid, expressive pieces from different parts of the image and instead of mental fireworks continuing in time gives a fixed mosaic of some most striking moments of it” (Флоренский, 1996: 67).

**Question 8:** And how does the process of sharing knowledge, e.g. the process of transmitting of what has been reconstructed, happen? Does the model of content decoding repeat the model of content coding?

**Pavel Florensky:** “When contemplating the picture (the discourse – I. O.), the viewer’s eye [...] reproduces [...] the image of playing and pulsating perception. However, it is now much more intense and holistic than the image of the object itself. It is so because the bright moments observed at different moments are given per se, e.g. concentrated. They do not require mental efforts to clear them of waste products” (Флоренский, 1996: 67).

### Instead of a conclusion

Being an experienced researcher in discourse reconstruction, just as a producer of several techniques for reconstructing for different purposes the content from different types of discourses, I wouldn’t find a more straightforward expression for representing the very process of such an intensive and focused brain storming practice of a discourse analyst as reconstruction. I would definitely advise young researchers to reread these descriptions and follow the steps of reconstruction not once for those who wish to be a discourse expert in contemporary multifunctional discourse research. This precedent text teaches how to deal with complexity communication and to overcome the inertness of a routine action.

## References

- Кибрик, А. Е. Дискурсивный анализ. *In: Энциклопедия Фонда знаний «Ломоносов»* <http://lomonos. ov-fund.ru/enc/ru/encyclopedia>.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Построение семантической модели слова на основании соединения внелингвистического и лингвистического семантических треугольников. *In: Веснік БГУ, IV, 3, 1982.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Семантика слова, предложения, текста: точки соприкосновения. *In: Семантико-стилистические исследования слова и предложения.* Барнаул: АГУ, 1990.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. В поисках реалій семантического ядра текста. *In: Веснік БГУ, IV, 3, 1992.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. План содержания текста: от анализа к синтезу, от структуры к системе. *In: Философская и социологическая мысль, 3.* Киев, 1993.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Модель эффективной речевой деятельности. *In: Веснік БГУ, IV, 4, 1986.*
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Елсукова, Н. А. Тема и ее знаковая репрезентация (двунаправленный анализ содержания газетной статьи). *In: Русский язык как иностранный. Теория. Исследования. Практика.* Санкт-Петербург, 2000.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Реконструкция харизматической и других моделей речевого поведения субъектов коммуникации. *In: Материалы международной конференции.* Каунас, 2003.
- Флоренский, П. А. Обратная перспектива: Избранные труды по искусству. Москва: Изобразительное искусство, 1996. 9–72.

## Issue 3. Integrative theories and applied practices

Ivan Fomin<sup>2</sup>

### Transdisciplinary potential of semiotics for discourse studies: Political studies' perspective

#### Introductory note

Today's political studies is an extensive multi-paradigmatic area of knowledge that includes various approaches, schools and traditions. However, when it comes to the overall structure of its research toolkit, it is usually described in terms of the general distinction between *qualitative* and *quantitative* methods. Moreover, even though the introduction of the category of *mixed* methods slightly nuances the picture, the basic quantitative / qualitative dichotomy still plays the role of the central structuring principle (e.g.: Creswell, 2003; Given, 2008: xxix). At the same time, the foundations of this distinction seem to lack clarity. While quantitative methods can be defined as those based on the apparatus of mathematics (Muijs, 2004: 1-2), the methodological substratum of qualitative ones is rather amorphous. One can define their foundations "apophatically" (by negation), saying that qualitative methods are simply those, which do not involve the use of mathematic instruments, but it is difficult to accept this kind of solution as a satisfactory one. Even though one has to admit that qualitative methods do tend to be fragmented and to resist the attempts to impose a single meta-paradigm (Denzin, Lincoln, 2005: xv).

Is it possible to find a better way to define the fundamental structural aspects in the methodology of political research? As it is difficult to determine the essence of qualitative methods "cataphatically", should we, probably, be careful, at least, in using the very concept of the qualitative research? Should not we accept that, while quantitative methods based on mathematics, qualitative ones can have several different "mathematics" of their own (as each of those "mathematics" actually gives a separate type of a method)?

In this article, I propose to consider semiotics as one of those "mathematics" of social sciences and to explore how it functions in this role in the political discourse analysis and

<sup>2</sup> This research was supported by the Russian Science Foundation (project №17-18-01536, "Knowledge transfer and convergence of methodological practices: cases of interdisciplinary integration of political, biological and linguistic research").

in the political research in general. The *aim* of this article is to outline the structure of the semiotic toolkit in political studies, to explore its growing points and to locate the gaps that exist in it today. Since, as I mentioned above, the notion of *qualitative methods* is rather questionable, my analysis focuses on the set of techniques labeled as *semiotic methods*; the extension of this concept is less broad, but its intention is much clearer and distinct.

### Political semiotics today

In 1993 American sociologist Charles Lemert wrote:

“Who, among readers of Lévi-Strauss in the late 1940s, could have dreamed of the extent to which virtually every corner of the human and social sciences would be, today, touched by the ideas and literature of semiotics?” (Lemert, 1993: 31).

Just as Wolfgang Drechsler (Drechsler, 2009: 73-74), I find it quite difficult to share Lemert’s enthusiasm. Due to its almost omnipresent influence of structuralism, the 20th century has introduced semiotics into all social sciences giving rise to a number of today’s widespread approaches. However, a genuine semiotic Copernican revolution in social studies and in political research still has not happened.

It is in the first half of the 20th century that one of the founders of the theory of signs Charles William Morris projected that semiotics can become a unifying metadiscipline and supply “the foundations for any special science of signs” (linguistics, logic, mathematics, rhetoric and etc.) . According to Morris,

“[t]he concept of sign may prove to be of importance in the unification of the social, psychological, humanistic sciences in so far as these are distinguished from the physical and biological sciences” (Morris, 1938: 2).

Even before Morris, we can see semiotics mentioned as one of the key elements in John Locke’s triad of “sorts of science”:

- *physica* as the knowledge of things,
- *practica* as the skill of right actions, and
- *semeiotike* as the doctrine of signs (Locke, 1995: iv–xxi).

The same we witness in Charles Sanders Peirces’s fundamental trivium of sciences:

- *science of things*,
- *science of forms*, and
- *science of representations*, or *semiotic* (Peirce, 1982: 303).

However, it is to this day that semiotics has not acquired this metadisciplinary integrative position. Even for the trends in this direction that did take place, political science was, perhaps, one of the least touched areas (Drechsler, 2009: 73-74).

The semiotic methodological project does not implement itself coherently in political science. Moreover, probably, it has not even begun to do so. The semiotic research methods used today in political studies and rarely considered as elements of a wider metadiscipline. They exist rather as a nebula of techniques, scattered across various sub-disciplines, schools and traditions. Various versions of discourse analysis constitute one of the dominating areas in this fragmented field, but it also includes a wide range of other tools, such as content analysis, concept analysis, metaphor analysis, narrative analysis, conversation analysis etc.

In an attempt to structure all the multitude of semiotic research tools used today in political science and in the social studies in general, I suggest to locate them along the axis with the poles of a *descriptive* research and a *critical* research. All these instruments aim at the study of language, speech and discourse (with the broadest reference of these terms) in connection with certain social and political contexts. While on the descriptive pole, the research focuses on the intralinguistic issues, on the critical pole it almost exclusively deals with the study of social and political conditions of text production. Thus, the discourse studies deeply rooted in the direct analysis of texts can be located near the descriptive pole, while various poststructuralist, deconstructionist and postmodernist interpretations (aimed at exploring the social, historical and psychoanalytical conditions of discursive practices) incline to the critical one.

The descriptive semiotic tools in political studies include the political content analysis, the analysis of political metaphors and concepts, cognitive mapping techniques and most of the research in political linguistics. A number of important developments in this domain contributed by the American researchers of political communication of the early 20<sup>th</sup> century made a significant contribution to the study of public opinion formation, political influence of media and political text analysis (e.g. Lazarsfeld & Merton, 2004; Lasswell & Leites, 1965).

As for the critical semiotic research, it is largely based not on the linguistic analysis, but on the Marxist and psychoanalytic perspectives. This approach is largely developed from the French school of philosophical discourse analysis (e.g. Baudrillard, 1968; Foucault, 1969; 2009; Lacan, 2002). For this tradition it is typical to focus not on the study of language itself, but on how and why discourse influences the production of knowledge. Together with Foucault’s discourse analysis and other philosophical approaches to the study of discourse, the critical pole dominates in a number of approaches labeled

as *critical discourse analysis* (CDA). (Wodak, 2005; Wodak, Meyer, 2001; Dijk, 1991). In these approaches, both critical and interpretative aspects are forming a new tendency of paying attention to the analysis of concrete corpora of texts and to particular linguistic means inherent in ideology-biased communication.

### Semiotics' transdisciplinary face

A deep fragmentation is typical not only for political discourse analysis and political semiotics, but to the field of semiotics in general. The rapid development of discipline-bias semiotic tools led to the situation of semiotics being "privatized" by a number of separate domains. The main role here is, of course, within linguistic semiotics, as today it is the most developed sphere of research. However, along with it, there are other intensely growing semiotic disciplines, like semiotics of literature, semiotics of culture, semiotics of cinema, zoosemiotics, biosemiotics, phytosemiotics etc. While these separate subject areas arise, the general foundations of semiotics are still not enough articulated and developed. In such a situation I suggest putting on agenda the issue of general semiotics (or as Ch. Morris suggested to call it, "pure" semiotics) and to considering how we can develop it into a functional metadisciplinary integrator.

The semiotics is facing the challenge, which I suggest to define, in terms of Charles Peirce, as the task to become not only an *idioscopic* but *cenoscopic* science. According to Peirce (who used the concept, originally proposed by George Bentham), *idioscopic sciences* are

"the special sciences, depending upon special observation, which travel or other exploration, or some assistance to the senses, either instrumental or given by training, together with unusual diligence, has put within the power of its students" (Peirce, 2012: 66).

In contrast, *cenoscopic science* in accord with Peirce

"deals with positive truth, indeed, yet contents itself with observations such as come within the range of every man's normal experience, and for the most part in every waking hour of his life" – these observations "escape the untrained eye precisely because they permeate our whole lives" (Peirce, 2012: 66).

It is crucial to bridge the gap between the adumbrative cenoscopic outlines of general semiotics and a much richer range of various particular semiotic idioscopies, since in the current situation these specialized semiotics with their often very advanced but subject-specific toolkits and unique languages risk to encapsulate itself hermetically. With these fields becoming increasingly isolated today, an efficient transdisciplinary interaction is almost impossible, because any attempt to transfer techniques and categories across

subdisciplinary borders is inhibited by the fact that they are either inextricably intertwined with particularities of a specific subject-matter or dependent on the personal artisanship of concrete analyst.

However, it is quite encouraging that even today there are still some semioticians, who continue to insist on the development of general semiotics and on the implementation of its transdisciplinary-bias potency. Among them, for example, vice-president of the International Association for Semiotic Studies Li Youzheng, who suggests developing general semiotics:

"as a functional-operative organizer with respect to promotion of interdisciplinary interaction not only between different departmental semiotic practices but also between various social-human sciences" (Li, 2015: 38).

According to Li Youzheng, general semiotics can become an effective epistemological solution against the dogmas of ideologically changed "philosophical fundamentalism" (Li, 2015). Another prominent contemporary researcher John Deely also insists that semiotics is capable to provide the "cenoscopic antidote" to the intense specialization inherent in contemporary science (Deely, 2015: 31).

Since 2013, the transdisciplinary capacity of semiotics has been explored in our research project in the Center for Advanced Methods of the INION Institute (Ильин, 2014; Кокарев, 2014; Круглый стол, 2014; Авдонин, 2015; Фомин, 2014, 2015; Золян, 2016; Ильин, Фомин, 2016). In this project semiotics was studied alongside with two other methodological integrators – mathematics and morphology. We call those integrative transdisciplinary methodologies *organa* (sg.: *organon*).

In order to understand how such transdisciplinary organa function, we introduced the dichotomy of 'thick' and 'thin' methodologies. In our framework the methodology that is narrowed for and specialized in a certain subject-area (e.g. political semiotics or political morphology) are called *thick* versions of organa, seen as *saturated* versions of more abstract *thin* methodologies (e.g. general semiotics or general morphology). The thin versions of organa can be less effective, when it comes to the analysis of particular specialized subject-area or matter, but they are crucial for the development of a more integrated transdisciplinary vision. It is with those thin (*purified*) organa that it can be possible to "translate" research data from one disciplinary narrowed methodological language to another.

### On the prospects of semiotics in political science

One of the most important contemporary challenges for the semiotic methods in political research is to eliminate the gap between the descriptive and critical approaches, since both these extremes have a number of deficiencies. Content analysis is often effective

for certain tasks. Though from the point of view of the general semiotic triadic structure of discourse levels – *semantics, syntactics, pragmatics* (Morris, 1938) – we see that this method allows an effective analysis only at the semantic level, while the level of syntactic representation lacks proper investigation. Thus, a pragmatic level studies is described by interpreting outside the methodological scheme itself. In a sense, the opposite situation revealed in case of critically oriented methods. For example, in CDA the researchers often tend to reduce the analysis of discourse to the study of pragmatics, while the semantic and syntactic levels ignored or analyzed superficially. As it goes, it is crucial for contemporary semiotic studies to develop a more comprehensive methodological framework to study the semantics of politics, the syntactic links between semiotic entities in it, as well as their pragmatic (identitary, axiological, ideological etc.) aspects.

It is also important to pay more attention to the “cryptosemiotic” categories already used in political studies though not systematically conceptualized and operationalized as semiotic ones. For example, the categories of *symbol, image, myth, brand* or *meme* often used in a quite sloppy manner can actually be developed into potent research tools, if filled with more concrete semiotic essence (Kull, 2000; 2014; Фомин, 2014; 2015).

Another crucial task for the field of political studies is to pay more attention to the tools that would allow analyzing not only writing and speech, but the texts / discourses of other modes as well (sound, image, movement etc.). One of possible solutions here is to look for instruments that can be borrowed for this purpose from other fields. For example, the work by Gunter Kress and his colleagues shows that semiotic studies can effectively apply some of the concepts from the domain of design, when it comes to the analysis of multimodal texts (Kress, 2010; Kress, 2015). At the same time, according to Kress himself, the aim of *multimodal social semiotics* is not to add “yet another thing to be attended to” the usual linguistic framework, but

“to achieve a comprehensively transformed perspective of a problem domain, and to turn that new perspective into the ‘taken-for-granted’ basis informing research and practices” (Kress, 2015: 53-54).

The ability to apply semiotic apparatus at its full potential can also become a way to go beyond the ideographicity in humanities. For today’s political research, it is much more common to use mathematic tools for this goal, though from the point of view of semiotics it is also possible not only to study social phenomena as unique objects, but also to explore them nomothetically, as the results of more general laws and regularities of semiosis. Besides, the development of general (*thin*) semiotic tools, as well as systematic elaboration of their saturated (thick) versions more targeted at political research, can

contribute to political studies becoming more integrated into a wider field of social studies. It can be productive both for semiotics and political science to build a methodological and conceptual interface that will, *on the one hand*, enrich the tools of semiotics by their political reconceptualization and, *on the other hand*, will advance the apparatus of political science by making it more susceptible to the semiotic aspects of political phenomena.

## References

- Creswell, J. W. Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method approaches. Sage, 2003.
- Deely, J. Semiotics “Today”: The Twentieth-Century Founding and Twenty-First-Century Prospects. *In: International Handbook of Semiotics*. Dordrecht: Springer, 2015.
- Denzin, N. K., Lincoln, Y. S. Handbook of qualitative research. Sage, 2005.
- Dijk, T. A. van, Racism and the Press. Routledge, 1991.
- Drechsler, W. Political semiotics. *In: Semiotica*. 173, 2009.
- Given, L. M. (ed.). The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods, 1. SAGE, 2008.
- Kress, G. Applied linguistics and a social semiotic account of multimodality. *In: Theory in Applied Linguistics Research: Critical approaches to production, performance and participation*, 2015.
- Kress, G. Multimodality: A Social Semiotic Approach to Contemporary Communication. London: Routledge, 2010.
- Kull, K. Copy versus translate, meme versus sign: development of biological textuality. *In: European Journal for Semiotic Studies*. 12(1), 2000.
- Kull, K. Towards a theory of evolution of semiotic systems. *In: Chinese Semiotic Studies*. 10(3), 2014. 485–495.
- Lacan, J. The function and field of speech and language in psychoanalysis. *Écrits: A selection*. New York: Norton, 2002. 237–268.
- Lasswell, H. D. and Leites, N. Language of politics: Studies in quantitative semantics. Cambridge, Mass: M.I.T. Pr., 1965.
- Lazarsfeld, P. F. and Merton, R. K. Mass Communication, Popular Taste, and Organized Social Action. *In: Mass Communication and American Social Thought: Key Texts, 1919-1968*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield, 2004. 230–241.
- Lemert, C. Political semiotics and the zero signifier. *In: Ahonen, P. (ed.). Tracing the semiotic boundaries of politics*. Berlin; New York: Mouton de Gruyter, 1993. 31–41.
- Li, Y. General Semiotics (GS) as the all-round interdisciplinary organizer: GS versus philosophical fundamentalism. *In: Semiotica*, Issue 208. La Haye, 2015, 2016. 35–47.
- Locke, J. An essay concerning human understanding. Amherst, New York: Prometheus books, 1995.
- Morris, C. W. Foundations of the theory of signs. *In: International encyclopedia of unified science*, 1 (2). Chicago: Univ. of Chicago press, 1938.
- Muijs, D. Doing quantitative research in education with SPSS. London: SAGE, 2004.
- Peirce, C. S. Philosophical writings of Peirce. New York: Dover publications, 2012.

- Peirce, C. S. Writings of Charles S. Peirce: A chronological edition, 1. 1857–1866. Bloomington: Indiana Univ. press, 1982.
- Wodak, R. and Chilton, P. A. (eds.). A new agenda in (critical) discourse analysis: theory, methodology, and interdisciplinary. Benjamins, 2005.
- Wodak, R. and Meyer, M. Methods of critical discourse analysis. London: SAGE, 2001.
- Baudrillard, J. Le Système des objets. Gallimard, 1968.
- Foucault, M. L'ordre du discours: Leçon inaugurale au Collège de France prononcée le 2 décembre 1970. Gallimard, 2009.
- Foucault, M. L'archéologie du savoir. Gallimard, 1969.
- Авдонин, В. С. Методы науки в вертикальном измерении (метатеория и метаязыки-органоны). In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 5. Москва, 2015.
- Золян, С. Семиотика как органон гуманитарного знания: возможности и ограничения. In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 6. РАН. ИНИОН. Москва, 2016.
- Ильин, М. В. Методологический вызов. Что делает науку единой? Как соединить разъединенные сферы познания? In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 4. Москва, 2014. 6–11.
- Ильин, М. В. Фомин, И. В. И смысл, и мера. Семиотика в пространстве современной науки. In: Политическая наука, 3. Москва, 2016. 30–46.
- Кокарев, К. П. Институционализмы: Сад расходящихся исследовательских тропок. In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 4. Москва, 2014.
- Круглый стол «Математика и семиотика: две отдельные познавательные способности или два полюса единого органона научного знания?» In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 4. Москва, 2014. 122–142.
- Фомин, И. В. Семиотика или меметика? К вопросу о способах интеграции социально-гуманитарного знания. In: МЕТОД: Московский ежегодник трудов из обществоведческих дисциплин, 5. ИНИОН РАН. Москва, 2015. 208–219.

Ewa Piotrowska-Oberda

## Discourse analysis in translation studies' perspective

### Introduction

Discourse analysis is not a new tool in the field of interpretive social studies. Although the modern theoretical framework of discourse analysis was established in the twentieth century, its genesis might be traced back to the history of exegesis and hermeneutics. As an interpretative tool of written and spoken texts, discourse analysis may be applied not only to discover the true meaning of the analysed discourse but also to evaluate the translation equivalence provided that the outcome of the discourse analysis of the source text and that of the target text is comparable and statistically significant.

Since not long ago have translation studies shown an interest in discourse analysis (Nida et al., 1969) though the importance of interpretation theory was emphasised a long time before (Tytler, 1781; Schleiermacher, 1838). As an interdisciplinary combining social science and humanities, translation studies have grown significantly since ancient times with the interpretation theory included in the translation process. The translator, being the reader of the source text and the first reader of the target text is expected to possess interpretative skills developed to such an extent so as to translate professionally any type of verbal and nonverbal discourse.

Understanding the true meaning of the discourse in the source language and the target language is a psychological process indispensable for the translator to perform his job professionally. Therefore, the discussion of the discourse analysis might shed light on the conceptual framework of this interpretive tool to be applied in the translation studies. The aim of this article is to illustrate the multidisciplinary nature of discourse analysis and elaborate on the main levels of discourse analysis in the translation studies. By examining the nature and levels of discourse analysis, we show that the objective of discourse analysis in the translation studies is to interpret the true meaning of the source text as well as that of the target text and evaluate the quality of translation equivalence achieved in the process of translation.

### Origins and development of discourse

According to *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Word Origins* edited by Hoad (1986) the English term 'discourse' dates back to the fourteenth century. The meaning of this term derives from Latin 'discursus', which originally denoted 'conversation, speech'. *Online Etymology Dictionary* (2013) indicates that the meaning of the Middle English term 'discourse' was borrowed from the French word 'discours' to denote a "process of under-

standing, reasoning, thought". The same etymological source states that the first usage of the term 'discourse' in a sense of "formal speech or writing" is recorded in 1580s.

Currently the original meanings of the Middle English term 'discourse' are preserved in English as a Language for General Purposes (LGP) to mean either 'verbal communication; talk; conversation' or in its archaic use 'the ability to reason or the reasoning process' as stated in *The Free Dictionary* by Farlex (2013).

In English as a Language for Specific Purposes (LSP), the term 'discourse' has two more meanings defined in *The Free Dictionary* by Farlex (2013). As a literary and literary critical term 'discourse' means 'a formal treatment of a subject in speech or writing, such as a sermon or dissertation' whereas as a linguistic term 'discourse' means 'a unit of text used by linguists for the analysis of linguistic phenomena that range over more than one sentence'. According to *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners* (2001) in linguistics 'discourse' is 'natural spoken or written language in context, especially when complete texts are being considered'.

Discourse as a unit of spoken or written text in context is subject to linguistic analyses not only in sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic studies but also in critical linguistic studies. A classification of *discourse functions* in relation to the type of subject matter and behaviour of the speaker or the writer becomes the object of discourse analysis (DA) in sociolinguistic studies (Crystal, 2008). A broader discourse function viewed as

"a dynamic process of expression and comprehension governing the performance of people during linguistic interaction" (Crystal, 2008: 174)

is adopted in psycholinguistic studies. In critical linguistic studies, the emphasis is put on a classification of discourse function in respect of "the relationship between discourse events and socio-political and cultural factors" (Crystal, 2008:174). These linguistic perspectives on the discourse analysis distinguish discourse linguistics from text linguistics as the former includes both linguistic and non-linguistic factors to the analysis, whereas the latter consists in analysing the content and form of the text according to linguistic principles and rules governing its structure. Despite the ontological and epistemological difference between discourse linguistics and textual linguistics there is a considerable overlap in these two domains.

### **Hermeneutical approach to discourse**

The origins of discourse analysis might be traced back to the history of exegesis. In the past exegesis was traditionally related to an interpretation of Sacred Scripture to discover the true sense of religious texts and render it into the target texts during the process of intralingual or interlingual translation. Nowadays *exegesis* refers to a critical interpretation of any text and includes the analysis of historical and cultural backgrounds of

the author, text and the audience. Additionally to linguistic analysis of the text, which is mainly concentrated on grammatical and syntactic features of the text, exegesis is involved in the classification of literary genres present in the analysed text. In terms of a critical interpretation of the text the term 'exegesis' is frequently identified and used interchangeably with the term 'hermeneutics' although the latter includes the entire interpretative process of all forms of communication.

Since antiquity hermeneutics has developed into a widely recognised discipline of interpretation theory used in the studies of religion, philosophy, psychology and translation. Originally, as an art of text interpretation, it was reflected in the theoretical and practical interpretative study of literary, religious and legal written texts. However, as a result of Schleiermacher's philosophical approach (1838) and Gadamer's universal approach (1975) to the interpretation theory, modern hermeneutics deals with all verbal and nonverbal discourses which affect communication process.

Schleiermacher's approach to hermeneutics (1838) is based on the nature of understanding in relation to all human discourses. Their interpretation should include not only grammatical interpretation (text linguistics) but also psychological interpretation. Since the question of interpretation is based on the problem of understanding, Schleiermacher (1838) states that both grammatical and psychological interpretations are needed to attain a true understanding of the internal unity of discourse. Grammatical interpretation reveals the composition of general ideas, expressed in the form and the content. Psychological interpretation, in its turn, includes all possible combinations, which characterise the discourse and its author. In *Hermeneutics and Criticism* Schleiermacher's (1838) explains how to discover this internal unity of discourse by analysing the linguistic, psychological, historical and stylistic levels of the discourse. As a result, hermeneutics should help the interpreter attain the real meaning of the discourse, whereas criticism should determine the truthfulness of the discourse. In Schleiermacher's approach (1838) to interpretation theory, both hermeneutics and criticism are interrelated. Therefore, the real meaning of the discourse is possible to discover, if these relations between grammatical and psychological interpretations are determined and objectively discussed.

According to Schleiermacher's (1838) the objective of hermeneutics is to avoid the misunderstanding. It is only possible if the interpreter of the discourse relates grammatical understanding and psychological understanding (in fact, they presuppose each other being mutually conditioned). To avoid the misunderstanding of the discourse the interpreter should be very sensitive to such causes of misunderstanding as ambiguity of lexical and structural meaning, contradictions and inconsistencies, context of the discourse as well as mistaken preconceptions of the lexical meanings.

The misunderstanding of the discourse contributes to the occurrence of errors in the interpretation of the discourse meaning. Schleiermacher (1838) distinguishes two types of errors namely quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative errors are related to the discourse form and they may result from the misinterpretation of grammatical rules or principles. The qualitative errors refer to the misunderstanding of the discourse content. To avoid misunderstanding it is necessary for the interpreter to determine the relation between grammatical meaning and psychological meaning and discover how they constitute the unity of absolute meaning.

Contrary to Schleiermacher (1838), Gadamer (1975) argues that hermeneutics is not merely an art of determining truth, but an activity, which attempts to clarify the conditions for understanding to occur. He believes that truth may not be defined by a particular technique or procedure of inquiry. It may only be revealed when the conditions of understanding its meanings are discovered.

In the third part of *Truth and Method*, Gadamer (1975) discusses the linguistic nature of understanding. Having discussed the aesthetic and scientific concepts of truth in the preceding parts, he is preoccupied with the linguistic concept of truth in the third part. Since the understanding of the language may change according to the interpreter's historical situation Gadamer (1975) states that an understanding of the linguistic meaning should be treated rather as an event or experience than an act of mind. Being critical of Schleiermacher's psychological interpretation of the discourse, Gadamer (1975) neglects his argument that both linguistic and psychological interpretations of the discourse are interrelated and the real understanding of the discourse meaning depends on the determination of the relations between them.

According to Gadamer (1975), since the understanding of the discourse meaning is conditioned by the interpreter's historical background and experience, the understanding of the discourse may change over a period of time. With historical and experiential conditions on understanding Gadamer (1975: 258) states that

“[u]nderstanding is not to be thought of so much as an action of one's subjectivity, but as the placing of oneself within a process of tradition, in which past and present are constantly fused” (Gadamer, 1975: 258).

The 'hermeneutical situation', in which the interpreter is located, becomes the 'horizon' giving a possibility of hermeneutical vision, or understanding. In fact, the interpretation of the discourse may include all individual preconceptions of the discourse meaning, as these preconceptions contribute to the understanding or misunderstanding of the discourse. The interpretative experience and historical background of the interpreter

make him recognize that the extent of change in understanding over a period of time. Gadamer's approach (1975) to hermeneutics displays his understanding of language as a medium of historical and interpretative experience. In fact, it is a vehicle of human understanding. Therefore, it displays the universal aspect of hermeneutics, which shows an ontological relationship between the interpreter and a language.

### **Different approaches to discourse analysis**

The development of discourse analysis theory and methodology has resulted in different approaches. Glynos, Howard, et al. (2009) discuss six approaches and techniques in the discourse studies. Since discourse analysis has acquired a wide range of meanings in the last century from LGP to LSP including social and political practices Glynos, Howard, et al. (2009) distinguish Post-structural Discourse Theory (PDT), Critical Discourse Analysis (discourse historical approach) CDA, Interpretive Policy Analysis (IPA, Rhetorical Political Analysis (RPA), Discursive Psychology (DPs) and Q Methodology (QM).

The classification of the six approaches to discourse analysis by Glynos, Howard, et al. (2009) is based on three dimensions, e.g. ontology, focus and purpose. The objective of ontology dimension is to capture the nature of social relations, structure and their interaction. Focus dimension is related to the analytical level of the object studied along a linguistic and non-linguistic axis as well as a micro and macro axis. Purpose dimension is to capture the central motivation stimulating the analysis of the discourse researcher.

The outcome of the classification of those six approaches conducted by Glynos, Howard, et al. (2009) emphasises comparisons and contracts between them on the basis of the overview of the six approaches to discourse analysis, which include their origins, internal complexity, main intellectual sources and the applied methods and techniques. Although six different approaches to discourse analysis show various ontological assumptions, analytical objects and conceptions of discourse to be treated as heterogeneous and complex, which makes capturing the essence of one common perspective impossible Glynos, Howard, et al. (2009) indicate some typical characterisations in terms of their relationships, which makes the development of the possible connections feasible. The conclusion of the research conducted by Glynos, Howard et al. (2009) is that despite 'different yet compatible' ontological assumptions, methods and levels of discourse analysis all the approaches are combined in the common critical and empirical concern to discover the real meaning of the discourse.

### **Discourse analysis in translation studies**

With the emphasised diversity of discourse analysis approaches and the subsequent difficulty to organise these approaches along one coherent theoretical framework

the question occurs which mechanism of discourse analysis might be useful for translation studies if any and at which stage of the translation process it should be applied. In order to provide the answer to this question we should review the approaches to discourse analysis from the perspective of translations studies.

According to Nida and Taber (1969), the analysis of the discourse structure should involve its primary and secondary features. The former involves time, space and class whereas the latter refers to rank, consequence and dialogic sequencing. The primary features of discourse are subject to the non-linguistic analysis of the classes of entities, events, characteristics along the orientations of time and space. The secondary features of discourse though being the extension of primary features (Nida, Taber, 1969) are subject to linguistic analysis of the discourse structure to determine dominance vs dependence dimension, cause and effect dimension organised in terms of purpose, condition, concession and result as well as intratextual and intertextual dependency dimensions.

With a view to answering the question on the usefulness of the discourse analysis mechanism in translation studies, we define *the discourse analysis* as an analytic tool of both linguistic and non-linguistic phenomena that may range over more than one sentence. As an analytic tool, discourse analysis may be used for both source and target discourses. It may likewise be applied to Language for General Purposes (LGP) as well as to Language for Specific Purposes (LSP).

In both the source and target language, the object of the discourse analysis (DA) is a spoken or written discourse. The aim of DA to reveal the real meaning of the source discourse in the target language. The function of DA is to categorise both structures and processes revealed in the source discourse within the source LGP or LSP. As an analytic tool, DA may be carried out by the translator, who performs different roles, as that of a linguist and a discourse analyst (Childon, 2004; Geis, 1987; Flairclough and Flairclough, 2012; van Dijk, 1997), just as the role of a critic.

For the purpose of translation studies, the contextualisation of spoken or written discourses in LGP or LSP puts language items into non-linguistic contexts to reveal their real communicative value. The analysis of a discourse in the non-linguistic context prevents language items from being treated in isolation only for language manifestation practice. As such, it becomes important for the translator to reach equivalence between the source and target texts as it helps him understand the contextualised source language usage and guess the meaning of a spoken or written discourse from context.

For the translation studies, the analysis of the context properties should concentrate on the non-linguistic features of the discourse, which is subject to contextualisation. In case

of LSP for example, this characterisation of the non-linguistic discourse features should focus on the domain, system, institution, ideology, as well as actors, action, relations and processes to reveal the context structure and facilitate the contextualisation of linguistic discourse analysis. For the needs of political discourse analysis van Dijk (1997) discusses the whole mechanism in details.

The objective of the discourse analysis should be searching for interaction between linguistic discourse structures and non-linguistic discourse structures. The same metaphor used for educational function when occurred in a political context may aim at attacking political opponents (van Dijk, 1997), which clearly shows that the actual meaning of the same metaphor in the educational source text and the political source text is different and it should be translated differently in the target language.

### Discourse analysis as an interpretative tool for the source text and the target text

The mechanism of discourse analysis should occur before and after the process of transferring the source text into the target text. The aim of the discourse analysis conducted on the source text is to reveal the true meaning of the source text. It should likewise prevent the translator's misunderstanding that may occur due to his comprehension and interpretation of the source text. The mechanism of discourse analysis should draw the translator's attention to different levels of analysing the text with linguistic and non-linguistic factors included in this analysis. The same mechanism of discourse analysis, which is applied, for the source text should also be applied to the target text by the translator as the first reader of the target text to check and compare the adequacy of meanings in both source and target texts.

In the Nida's model (1964, 1969) of the translation process the analysis of the source text occurs before the actual transfer of the source text into the target text, as stated below (Figure 1):

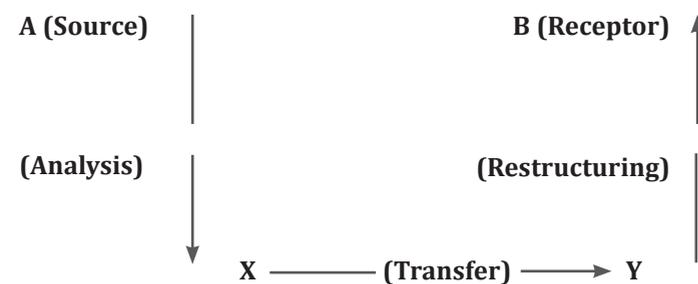


Figure 1. Translation process source Nida and Taber (1969:33)

In Nida's approach (1964, 1969) to the Bible translation, this analysis involves both primary and secondary features of discourse. In fact, Nida's analytical approach to translation concentrates both on the content, the form and the context to underline the importance of this type of analysis for the translator as a practitioner. The emphasis of the discourse analysis importance in the translation practice is illustrated with the discussion of different types of meaning i.e. referential and connotative meanings, different types of forms and its influence upon the meaning as well as the impact of the context on shaping the meaning of the source text.

Despite the temporal, spatial and conceptual differences in the theories on translation created by Tytler (1791), Schleiermacher (1838) and Nida and Taber (1969) we can observe certain underlying similarities that relate to the need for analysing both linguistic i.e. semantic and syntactic and non-linguistic i.e. psychological and pragmatic aspects of the source text. Tytler's view (1791) on translation draws the translator's attention to the basic functions of translation arranged along three basic dimensions i.e. semantic, syntactic and pragmatic. According to Tytler (1791), the translator should follow the semantic dimension of translation to give the idea of the original work in the target text, the syntactic dimension to recreate the same style and manner of the original work in the translated work, and the pragmatic dimension for the translation to bear all the sameness of the original work. Schleiermacher's theory of interpretation (1838), which is used for translating purposes, indicated the need for analysing the linguistic, psychological, historical and stylistic levels of the discourse to discover the unity of the text.

To reflect the unity of the source text in translation, the translator should determine it first in the source text and then recreate it in the target text. Discourse analysis as an interpretative tool should clarify how key concepts are represented in the source text and how key interactions are constructed between them. The aim of the discourse analysis is to identify such main factors that prevail in the source text as key concepts and the relationships between them.

The translator may use the mechanism of the DA, which entails a three-stage analytical process. The stages of the analytical process correspond to three levels of the discourse analysis, namely, textual analysis, contextual analysis and relational analysis. The first stage of the discourse analysis is the identification of textual properties in the source text. It usually covers the analysis of the texture, argumentation, syntactic features, syntactic relations, syntactic moods, words, phrases and symbols. This *analytical stage* requires that the translator develop criteria to prioritize textual issues to allow for their quantification and objective comparison. Textual priorities may be identified on text linguistic analysis. The second stage of the discourse analysis is to assess the effects that the key concepts may have in the changing contexts. This *contextual analysis* should include

the identification of various contexts and determination of the semantic change of the concepts in contexts. The *relational analysis*, as the third stage of the discourse analysis, should ensure the objective perception of the interactional relationships between linguistic and non-linguistic capacities of the source text.

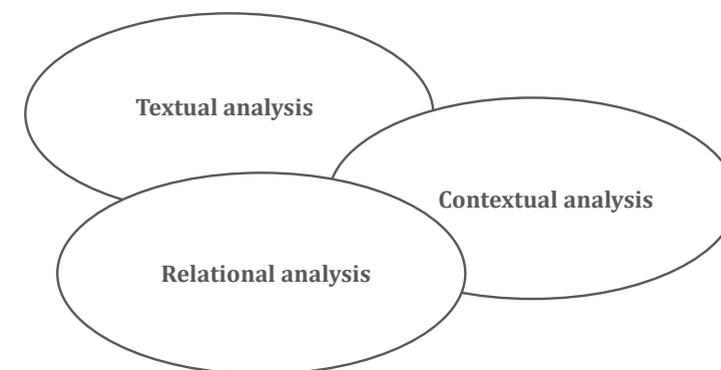


Figure 2. Stages of discourse analysis for translation purposes

Textual analysis is a systematic analysis of the source text content (Holsti, 1969; Neuendorf, 2002) to determine its objective meaning. It is

“a summarising, quantitative analysis of messages that relies on the scientific method (including attention to objectivity, intersubjectivity, a priori design, reliability, validity, generalisability, replicability, and hypothesis testing) and is not limited as to the types of variables that may be measured or the context in which the messages are created or presented” (Neuendorf, 2002: 10).

As a research tool, it focuses on the actual content of the source text and its internal features. According to Berelson (1952), it is used to determine the content of the source text by breaking it into manageable categories at the levels of word, phrases, clauses as well as themes and messages. The primary aim of the textual analysis is to establish the existence and frequency of the concepts in the source text. The secondary aim of the textual analysis is to provide the input for both contextual and relational analyses at the subsequent stages.

As indicated above, the text driven relational analysis builds on the outcome of the conceptual analysis by examining the internal relationships among concepts in the source text. For this analysis to occur it is necessary to determine the key concepts and the types of relations which the translator is to investigate. This process of relational analysis is usually performed with the application of a research qualitative and quantitative methods which evoke the issues of reliability and validity.

The application of qualitative and quantitative methods in the text driven relational analysis should guarantee the reliability of the discourse analysis as it refers to its stability in time, thus increasing its relative validity. Nevertheless, the issues of reliability and validity are also usually related to the nature of conclusions. Firstly, it involves the question of the substantive amount of the analysed data to reach the standard or statistical norm and secondly it refers to the problem of generalization, which is determined by not only selection and reliability of concept categories.

Not only does the textual analysis result give an input for the text driven relational analysis as stated above but it also provides an input for the contextual analysis in the view to analysing the linguistic and non-linguistic environment in which the source text occurs. Therefore, the contextual analysis is understood a phase of natural language processing which follows semantic analysis in order to elaborate the semantic representation of what has been made explicit in the utterance with what is implicit from context. In terms of the linguistic context we should concentrate on different types of context.

In the linguistic environment, *context* is of prime importance to understand the actual meaning of words, phrases, sentences as well as structural and semantic relations. To determine the contextual word meaning Dash (2005, 2008) identifies four types of context i.e. local, sentential, topical and global contexts, which are responsible for meaning variations of words. Although Miller and Leacock (2000) classify context into two types, namely the local context and topical context as being sufficient to understand the actual contextual meaning of the key words used in the text, Dash (2008) states that the two contexts are insufficient to comprehend the intended meaning of a word. By adding sentential and global context, Dash (2005a; 2008) shows how to retrieve the contextual meaning of the key words. The sentential context in which the key word occurs provides syntactic information whether the key word is in any explicit or implicit syntactic relation with other words used in the sentence. Additionally it helps the translator identify other words with which the key word has a kind of semantic relation in a sentence. Since meanings of key words are related not only to linguistic environment which occurs in local, topical and sentential contexts but also to non-linguistic environment surrounding the linguistic acts which Dash (2005a; 2008) defines as a 'global context'. The information of the global context comes from the external world and it refers to place, time, situation, pragmatics, culture (Allan 2001, Dash 2008). This non-linguistic context is an important source of information for the translator to understand meaning variations of the key words.

The interface between the linguistic environment and non-linguistic environment of the discourse is the main objective of the relational analysis, which is the third stage of the discourse analysis. Similarly to semantic analysis (Palmquist, Carley, & Dale, 1997) it seeks to identify concepts presented in the source text in terms of their meaningful relations.

These types of relations are 'ideational kernels' (Nida and Taber 1969; Carley 1992) connected with other ideational kernels on emotional/psychological scales (Gottschalk, 1995) or grammatical scales (Carley, 1990). The relationships between discourse concepts, ideas or attitudes may be logical, inferential, causal or sequential to create a general cognitive mapping showing the interaction of concepts with linguistic and non-linguistic environment taken into account.

Three stages of discourse analysis result in the network of interrelated concepts reflecting conscious and subconscious perception of the depicted reality. The mental models or cognitive mappings may be numerically and graphically analysed. Therefore, the translator converts the source text into a map of concepts and relations to retrieve explicit and implicit meaning of the source text due to affect extraction and cognitive mapping. According to Gottschalk (1995), the emotional evaluation of the concepts which are explicit in the source text leads to affect extraction. It aims at exploring the emotional or psychological state of the author of the source text. In Gottschalk's relational analysis concepts are assigned with a numeric value on the emotional/psychological scales to be statistically examined. Gottschalk maintains that the emotional or psychological state of the author is expressed by his verbal behaviour.

The three stages of discourse analysis results in the determination of the co-occurrence of explicit concepts in the source text. It leads to the creation of the concept matrix or a group of co-occurring concepts to retrieve an overall meaning of the source text. In order to carry out the discourse analysis at different stages, the translator may apply different techniques such as clustering, grouping, or scaling.

The mental model of cognitive mapping is based on the results of affect extraction and concept matrix. It compares the results of the previously conducted analyses and represents them visually. In fact, it recreates the overall meaning of the source text operating on the vertical and horizontal relationships between concepts and ideas presented in the source text. The visual cognitive representation is provided in the form of a graphic map showing semantic connections between different semantic units of the source text. Not only does it show the shift of meanings in space and time (Palmquist, Carley, and Dale, 1997) but also it presents the actual interaction of the related concepts to reflect both the author's conscious and subconscious perception of reality as reflected in the source text.

## Conclusion

In translation studies, discourse analysis may be applied as an interpretative tool of both the source and target text. Despite its theoretical framework, diversity of ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions discourse analysis may be applied for

practical purposes to reveal the true meaning of the source text and the target texts and as such, it may be a tool to compare translation equivalence levels between them.

The application of the three stages of the discourse analysis may not only provide a description of the data collected and analysed but it may also show the interplay of the conceptual relationships in various linguistic and non-linguistic contexts in order to reveal the true meaning of the source and target texts.

Although the application of the discourse analysis in the process of translation has its limitations due to the translator's analytical skills and his efficiency it has some important advantages as well. Firstly, the flexibility of discourse analysis leads to various applications in the translation process. The translator may use the discourse analysis for a particular translation problem solving, understanding the true meaning of the text or verifying the quality of translation. Secondly, the flexibility of discourse analysis allows the translator for operating on the selected stages of discourse analysis with reference to the type of the translation problem related to either micro or macrostructure. Additionally due to its capacity of modification, the selection of data and contexts become variables subject to not only conceptualisation but evolution as well. Finally, it helps the translator understand both explicit and implicit meaning of the source text and compare it with that of the target text.

Since the stages of the discourse analysis are considered to be possible analytical paths closely related to each other the complete three staged discourse analysis of the source and target texts are recommended. However, as indicated above, the translator may define the scope of discourse analysis depending on the type of the translation problem to be solved. In order to find the solution to a problem under investigation, the translator may apply different techniques including computer aided text analysis as well as computer aided relational analysis. Perhaps the most important point in the application of discourse analysis in the process of translation is that different stages of discourse analysis may be applied either in the sequential manner as suggested above or in the manner conditioned by the translation needs provided that the complete data have been collected before. Additionally due to a high degree of computer aided discourse analysis, the interpretation of qualitative and quantitative analyses becomes easier and more reliable thus making it more objective.

## References

- Allan, K. *Natural Language Semantics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers, 2001.  
 Berelson, B. *Content Analysis in Communication Research*. New York: Free Press, 1952.  
 Carley, K. M. *Group Stability: A Socio-Cognitive Approach*. In: E., Lawler, B., Markovsky,

- C. Ridgeway, and H. Walker (eds.) *Advances in Group Processing: Theory and Research*. Vol. VII. Greenwich: JAI, 1990. 1–44.  
 Carley, K. M. and Palmquist, P. *Extracting, representing and analysing mental models*. In: *Social Forces* 70, 1992. 601–636.  
 Chilton, P. *Analysing Political Discourse: Theory and Practice*. London: Routledge, 2004.  
 Crystal, D. *The Cambridge Encyclopaedia of Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2008.  
 Dash, N. S. *Context and contextual word meaning*. In: *SKASE Journal of Theoretical Linguistics*. Vol. 5, 2, 2008.  
 Dijk, T. A. van *What is political discourse analysis?* In: J. Blommaert and C. Bulcaen (eds.) *Political Linguistics*. Amsterdam: Benjamins, 1997.  
 Flairclough, I. and Flairclough, N. *Political Discourse Analysis A Method for Advanced Students*. Routledge: Taylor & Francis Group, 2012.  
 Gadamer, H. G. *Truth and Method*. London: Sheed and Ward, 1975.  
 Geis, M. L. *The language of politics*. New York: Springer, 1987.  
 Glynos, J., Howarth, D., Norval, A., and Speed, E. *Discourse analysis: Varieties and Methods*. In: *National Centre for Research Methods NCRM/014*, 2009. 1–41.  
 Gottschalk, L. A. *Content analysis of verbal behaviour: new findings and clinical applications*. Hillsdale, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1995.  
 Hoad, T. F. (ed.) *The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Word Origins*. London: Guild Publishing, 1986.  
 Holsti, O. R. *Content Analysis for the Social Sciences and Humanities*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1969.  
 Miller, G. A. and Leacock, C. *Lexical representations for sentence processing*. In: Y. Ravin and C. Leacock (eds.) *Polysemy: Theoretical & Computational Approaches*. New York: Oxford University Press Inc., 2000. 151–160.  
 Neuendorf, Kimberly A. *The Content Analysis Guidebook* Thousand Oaks: Sage, 2002.  
 Nida, E. A. *Towards a science of translation, with special reference to principles and procedures involved in Bible translating*. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1964.  
 Nida, E. A. and C. Taber. *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E.J. Brill, 1969.  
 Online Etymology Dictionary (2013). <http://www.etymonline.com/>  
 Palmquist, M., Carley, K. M., and Dale, T. *Application of computer-aided text analysis. Analyzing literary and non-literary texts*. In: C. W. Roberts (ed.) *Text Analysis for Social Sciences: Methods for Drawing Statistical Inferences from Texts and Transcripts*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1997.  
 Sinclair, J. *Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners*. Glasgow: Harper Collins Publishers, 2001.  
 Schleiermacher, F. *Hermeneutics and Criticism, And Other Writings (1838)*. Translated and edited by Andrew Bowie. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.  
 The Free Dictionary by Farlex (2013). <http://www.thefreedictionary.com/>  
 Tytler, A. F. *Essay on the Principles of Translation*. In: *The Essential Tytler* by James S. Holmes, *Modern Poetry in Translation*, 43 (Autumn 1981), 1781. 27–46.

Maria Soloviova

## The discourse of neo-Socratic dialogue: Practical philosophy perspective

Neosocratic dialogue in the tradition of German philosophers Leonard Nelson and Gustav Heckmann is a method of regressive abstraction based on dialogic communication and aiming at seeking the truth (Heckmann, 1993; Nelson, 1992). The peculiarities of Neosocratic dialogue and the experience of its application allow one to assume that this type of dialogic communication represents a special kind of discourse.

On the one hand, it is *philosophical discourse* because the goal of such dialogues is to find truth regarding a question in the sphere of general philosophy or ethics. The answer is sought by a group of participants in the process of analysing an example, based on a concrete real life situation. As Neosocratic dialogue is a method of regressive abstraction, the group gradually moves from the concrete to the abstract. This helps to avoid speculations and thinking within the framework of ideologies instead of investigating real events, probing one's own beliefs, and forming true statements about reality. The fact that the Neosocratic method is a kind of philosophical discourse does not mean that dialogues are necessarily carried out with professional philosophers. And what is more, the main precondition of performing such dialogues is an assumption that every person having sufficient language competence is able to investigate an ontological, epistemological, ethical, or mathematic problem. This kind of dialogue could be called lay, that is non-professional, philosophical analysis. This is why some theoreticians of Neosocratic dialogue, for example H. Gronke and G. Raupach-Strey do not consider it proper philosophical discourse (Gronke, 1996; Raupach-Strey, 1999).

On the other hand, Neosocratic dialogue is a specific practice of dialogic communication which has its own rules, regularities and has been researched from different points of view: those of *philosophy* (H. Gronke, A. Ihnatovich, D. Krohn, G. Raupach-Strey, U. Siebert, and others), *discourse theory* by K.-O. Apel and J. Habermas, as well as different fields of linguistics. We have been tending to develop linguistic theory of Neosocratic dialogue for the last seven years (Ihnatovich, Nosovich, Soloviova, 2010; Соловьёва, 2012; Соловьёва, 2013) in synthyony with the western researchers (Raupach-Strey, 1999; Siebert, 2002). The peculiarity of Neosocratic dialogue lies in the fact that, unlike ancient Socratic dialogue, it is carried out in a group guided by a facilitator. The facilitator assists the dynamics of the dialogue, but is not allowed to interfere into its contents. Thus, the notional plane of communication, the development of ideas, put forward by the group, for all practical purposes, depend on the participants. Certainly, the facilitator has in mind the direction and the desired outcome of the discussion and can, for example, ask the group whether

they would like to consider some of the aired but abandoned points. But generally, the search for the answer to a question is the responsibility of the participants and depends on the composition of the group.

The founders of Neosocratic dialogue L. Nelson and G. Heckmann developing their ideas of the field within philosophical discourse claimed to avoid voluntarism in answering core philosophical problems within the notion of consensus. Apart from this, G. Heckmann formulated the so-called *six pedagogical measures* which serve as rules of Neosocratic dialogue. They are

- 1) non-interference of the facilitator in the contents sphere,
- 2) appealing to a personally experienced, real life situation as the starting point for the process of regressive abstraction,
- 3) seeking mutual understanding,
- 4) being focused on the current issue and keeping to a "red thread" in the discussion,
- 5) striving for consensus,
- 6) the facilitator's strategic direction of the discussion into a productive channel (Heckmann, 1993: 84–90).

The performance of a Neosocratic dialogue presupposes going through several stages, each of which refers to a certain type of discourse. At the stage of choosing an example for analysis, it is *discourse of immediate subject-subject communication*, which aims at a precise and truthful reconstruction of the circumstances of the experienced situation. It differs from an everyday discussion in the way that Neosocratic dialogue allows for only direct speech acts, where a question is formulated as a question, a doubt as a doubt, an assumption as an assumption.

The next stage of the discussion is fixing the example in the form of a text, which is formulated by the participants. The text is written down on flipcharts, which are hanged frontally and must be visually accessible at any moment of the discussion so that the participants can always appeal to the written information, resort to the facts previously stated, or find a basis for formulating new, statements evidenced by these facts. In this case, we deal with *textual discourse*. In contrast to other narrative discourses, the example, being investigated and written down, must be truthful and fully transparent from the language point of view. At the stage of writing down the example, the participants face the first cases of searching for a consensus, without which no further discussion is possible. Communication at this stage, just as at the previous one, requires that the participants possess certain skills of communicative behaviour. The participants must strive for mutual understanding through an attentive, respectful attitude to their own and other people's thoughts and propositions. This can be achieved by trusting their

own and other people's rationality. Those communicating must show this trust not only in the mode of thought, but also in their speech behaviour. Thus, Neosocratic dialogue is both a discourse and a social practice.

Further discussion of the written example aims at the definition of the motifs of the example-giver's behaviour, the deduction of regularities and the clarification of basic notions, which form the core of the case discussed both from the point of view of behavioural and philosophical aspects. At this stage, a transition from the concrete to the abstract is observed, when the conceptual basis of the answer to the initial question is investigated and formulated. Thus, this stage of the dialogue is postulated as *notional discourse*, where abstract notions, used in the discussion and relevant to the initial question, are analysed and specified. The experience of carrying out dialogues shows that this task is quite possible to perform, and its result is worth considering, despite the fact that the analysis of a philosophical problem is not being done by professional philosophers. One might say that, in this respect, Neosocratic dialogue embodies the ideals of ancient Socratic dialogue. At the same time, owing to the method developed by L. Nelson and G. Heckmann, the former surpasses the latter because Neosocratic dialogue is an *egalitarian type of discourse* and does not possess the directiveness of Socrates' method.

The next stage of Neosocratic dialogue is phrasing an answer to the initial question. As experience shows, a group does not always manage to formulate a complete answer. This can be the result of a time limit as well as lack of consensus at the final stage of the discussion. In this case, the task of the facilitator and that of the participants is to guarantee complete clarity and preciseness of counterarguments, and to express them clearly to the opponents so that they can either accept the point of view or give a corresponding counterargument with full understanding of their opponents' logic. In such situations, a compromise is unacceptable, and it is even preferable not to have a false, forced consensus if there are people in the group who think that a statement formulated is not true and can support their dissent. In contrast to a debate, a discussion, a scientific argument and other kinds of dialogic communication, Neosocratic dialogue presupposes complete sincerity, openness, and honesty on the part of the participants. In this kind of dialogue, there should be no hidden motifs, especially such as to show off, to demonstrate background knowledge, to quote great philosophers, and so on. The main task of Neosocratic dialogue is to look for a true answer to a raised question. The dialogue is considered especially successful when, at the end of the discussion, the group, having formulated an answer to the question, comes up with a new one, deduced from or related to the initial topic of discussion.

The peculiarities of the Neosocratic method considered above show that Neosocratic dialogue, as a special discourse practice, demands from the participants great self-discipline in the domains of reflection, speech, and behaviour. This task is certainly quite

complicated because the Neosocratic method, even though it strives to do so, cannot completely eliminate the psychological and pragmatic factors, usually studied by discourse analysis (gender, subordination, cultural peculiarities, and so on), which are inherent to interpersonal communication and are undesirable in a subject-matter investigation of philosophical and scientific problems. So that the participants can fully concentrate on their search for the truth and be free in their thinking process from the stated above aspects, a metadialogue was introduced into the method of Socratic philosophising. This is a stage of self-reflexion or *metadiscourse*.

During metadialogue, the participants discuss and evaluate the dynamics of the group work, the facilitator's behaviour, the way the rules are being observed, the participants' own emotional state, and a common emotional background. This stage presupposes quite deep sincerity of those communicating, and their readiness to face criticism of their own behaviour in the group. Sometimes metadialogue reveals problems which would not be perceived as such in other forms of communication but are interpreted by the participants as a hindrance in their search for the truth. As a rule, these are psychological and pragmatic factors of communication, which are otherwise considered as integral regularities of discourse. It must be admitted that a metadialogue is rarely a source of conflict although it can sometimes be. Actually, it is a tool of conflict solving, and, as a rule, it is quite productive, because the participants are interested in finding an answer to the question and see their goal in optimising this process. Consequently, the group can decide that they do not need a metadialogue and employ just one of its elements – that is developing a strategy for the following discussion of the subject-matter.

It can be concluded that Neosocratic dialogue is a special type of discourse. It has several discourse planes. They are discourse of the immediate subject-subject communication, text discourse, notional discourse, and metadiscourse. Neosocratic dialogue, which is basically practised as lay philosophical analysis, has a great potential for use in professional philosophical and scientific (mathematical and humanitarian) discourse and is studied in these frameworks. In Europe, Great Britain, Japan, the United States, Mexico, Canada, and China, Neosocratic dialogue is used in teaching children and adults, in business consulting, and in solving ethical and social problems. Neosocratic dialogue as a method has a high potential to solve problems in scientific discourse and can be studied within the framework of discourse linguistics.

In Slavonic countries, Neosocratic dialogue has been actively practised and researched in the field of humanities since the end of the 90-s of the 20th century. The method has been spread owing to the activities of the German Society of Socratic Philosophy (GSP – Gesellschaft für Sokratisches Philosophieren) and a British organisation SFCP (Society for the Furtherance of Critical Philosophy). During the period of 1998–2008, educational

projects on Neosocratic dialogue were carried out in Belarus. They took place in the most significant universities of the country (Belarusian State University, Minsk State Linguistic University, Belarusian State Pedagogical University), public organisations (the House of Friendship) and involved teachers, pupils, undergraduate and postgraduate students, and public figures. At the moment, Neosocratic dialogue is practised in Belarus in adult pedagogics, in business consulting and as a teaching method. It is studied in scientific philosophical and linguistic discourse by A. Ihnatovich, D. Klechko, M. Soloviova (Ihnatovich, Nosovich, Soloviova, 2010; Соловьёва, 2012; Соловьёва, 2013).

In the Czech Republic, the Neosocratic method has been introduced into the teaching process of higher education. It is studied and practised in seminars on arts owing to the activity of L. Vinklerova.

Neosocratic dialogue is also actively used in the pedagogical process in Bulgarian schools and universities. The Neosocratic method is studied in Bulgaria within the framework of philosophy (E. Ivanova, M. Ivanov-Georgiev, A. Karageorgieva) and philosophy of language (A. Karageorgieva), as well as in children's and adult pedagogy (Ivanova, 2013; Karageorgieva, 2004).

## References

- Gronke, H.* Die Grundlagen der Diskursethik und ihre Anwendung im Sokratischen Gespräch. In: Schriftenreihe "Sokratisches Philosophieren". Philosophisch-Politische Akademie. Frankfurt am Main, 1996. Band III: Diskurstheorie und Sokratisches Gespräch. 17–38.
- Heckmann, G.* Das sokratische Gespräch. Frankfurt am Main: dipa-Verl., 1993.
- Ihnatovich, A., Nosovich, I., and Soloviova, M.* Practising Socratic Dialogue in Belarus. In: Schriftenreihe "Sokratisches Philosophieren". Philosophisch-Politische Akademie und Gesellschaft für Sokratisches Philosophieren. Berlin, 2010. Band XII: The Challenge of Dialogue. 183–190.
- Ivanova, E. and Krohn, D.* Gemeinsames Philosophieren in einer Fremdsprache. In: Schriftenreihe "Sokratisches Philosophieren". Philosophisch-Politische Akademie und Gesellschaft für Sokratisches Philosophieren. Berlin, 2013. – Band XV: Sokratic und Urteilskraft in pädagogischer Praxis. 149–164.
- Karageorgieva, A.* Environmental Ethics and Dialogue with Children in Bulgaria. In: Schriftenreihe "Sokratisches Philosophieren". Philosophisch-Politische Akademie und Gesellschaft für Sokratisches Philosophieren. Münster, 2004. Band XI: Ethics and Socratic Dialogue in Civil Society. 128–131.
- Nelson, L.* Ausgewählte Schriften. Frankfurt am Main: dipa-Verl., 1992.
- Raupach-Strey, G.* Das Paradigma der Sokratischen Methode in der Tradition von Leonard Nelson (1882–1927) und Gustav Heckmann (1898–1998). In: Schriftenreihe "Sokratisches Philosophieren". Philosophisch-Politische Akademie. Frankfurt am

Main, 1999. Band VI: Das Sokratische Gespräch – Möglichkeiten in philosophischer und pädagogischer Praxis. 36–68.

*Siebert, U.* Bildung vom Menschen aus: das Sokratische Gespräch im Entwicklungsprozeß Einer Welt. Kassel: Weber und Zucht, 2002.

*Соловьёва, М. А.* Сократовская беседа как дискурсивная практика. In: Материалы ежегодной научной конференции преподавателей и аспирантов университета, Минск, 25-26 апр. 2012 г. Минск, 2012. Ч. 4. 160–163.

*Соловьёва, М. А.* Неосократовская беседа в свете теории дискурса К. О. Апеля и Ю. Хабермаса. In: Вестник МГЛУ. Серия 1. Филология, 1(62), 2013. 59–66.

Natela Martysiuk

## Linguistics as a proponent of ethnic and cognitive equality of diverse cultural groups: Ethnolinguistic and cognitive semantic perspectives

### Introductory word

Being rooted not only in linguistics but also in social sciences and philosophy, Discourse Studies involves not only numerous practices of data collection and analysis, but also a variety of theoretical assumptions. The Ethnolinguistics research paradigm is one of these. An overview of recent publications in Discourse Studies demonstrates that scholars are increasingly bringing up the issue of culturally sensitive verbal behavior. Hence, by pursuing the goal of drawing more attention to developing intercultural competence and by revealing the cultural roots of economic, political, and sociological events, as well as the ideological standards of a society, Discourse Studies is of social value.

These goals suggest that the Ethnolinguistic perspective should be a *model* comprising a search for specific information and a general interpretation of speech communication as a cultural and social system within discourse research. By considering the Ethnolinguistic perspective in this way, we inevitably come across the problem of *speech efficiency*, a major concern for discourse analysts.

### Discussion

It is commonly acknowledged that in order to describe and analyze discourse practices it is necessary to deal with discrete units that have recognizable boundaries. The notion of a *model* as an analytical tool emphasizing certain points relevant to discourse seems to be essential in this respect. Since Discourse Studies is an interdisciplinary domain of research, we can define it as a science of discourse models.

The necessity for modeling arises when the object of study implies information not accessible to direct observation. In this case, such an object is associated with the black box, a device with certain input and output data but a trans-phenomenal method of operation (Апресян, 1966: 78).

The psychiatrist W. Ross Ashby, one of the founding fathers of both cybernetics and systems theory, was the first to introduce the so-called Black Box theory, or Black Box model, into a wide scientific use (Ashby, 1957). Since it is impossible to decipher the black box without damaging its operation, there is only one way of understanding the object, by making a model of the object based on the juxtaposition of input and output data (Апресян, 1966: 78). In other words, we must put forth a hypothesis or hypotheses about its possible structure and present it as a logical unit capable of processing data in a manner similar to that of the black box. Many of the assumptions (though research tested) might be equally confirmed or disconfirmed (otherwise, partially confirmed). As Dell Hymes put it,

“The significance attached to what is found will depend on understanding what is possible, what is universal, what is rare, what is linked, in comparative perspective” (Hymes, 1986: 53).

At this point, modeling is worthwhile to provide a testing ground and a source of new insight, as well as of a new theory. James A. Bill and Robert L. Hardgrave advocate this point of view:

“A model is a theoretical and simplified representation of the real world. It is an isomorphic construction of reality or anticipated reality. A model, by itself, is not an explanatory device, but it does play an important and directly suggestive role in the formulation of theory. By its very nature, it suggests relations. [...] The jump from a model to a theory is often made so quickly that the model is in fact believed a theory” (Bill, Hardgrave, 1973: 28).

Such an emphasis seems uncontroversial since language itself is an abstract object not accessible to direct observation. By considering it this way, the scholars emphasize the theoretical, abstract, implicit, general character of a model. We share with them an interest in understanding this character of a model and believe it is affected by cultural characteristics of human communities. As with Ethnolinguistics, it makes predictions of cognitive mappings of cultures that need modeling possible.

This is the case with the Black Box method of processing hidden data. But what about modeling input and output data that are apparent to direct observation and might comprise

part of a general model? Here, at the level of applied or empirical research a number of models depend on the aims, methods and procedures undertaken by the investigator to achieve particular goals (Milroy, 1987: 3).

As with Ethnolinguistics, the Black Box method involves data collection, analysis and interpretation of culture reflected categories such as folk terminology, various terminological systems (color terms, kinship terms), and the like for a model-based reasoning. Following this line of thinking, we can state that empirical models may differ depending on the goal (goals) of the investigator.

Thus, from our theorizing above it is evident that Ethnolinguistic modeling integrates two interrelated ways of cognition: applied and that of theory formative. We would call the former applied modeling and the latter Semantic modeling (by analogy with Aprasian’s “semantic modeling”); each is based on the communicative competence of speakers (Апресян, 1966: 106). Since we aim to both focus on the role of each of the practices as a complete Ethnolinguistic domain of discourse analysis and to discuss Ethnolinguistic perspective as a program improving our understanding of culture-related discourse practices, there is no need to distinguish them.

After this bird’s-eye view on modeling, we can turn to another point concerning Ethnolinguistic research as one of the perspectives of Discourse Studies. These include *speech efficiency* (Мартысюк, 2012: 197–201) modeled in terms of language and culture, conventionality as common cultural knowledge shared by a community (Мартысюк, 2015: 159–169) and understanding as an effect upon the addressee (Мартысюк, 2013: 166–171).

The problem of modeling speech efficiency has been of considerable interest to researchers since Aristotle. This article does not pretend to do justice to the depth of evidence on this problem; we hope instead to sketch some important results that have been achieved. In other words, a good deal of multidisciplinary research contributes to the domain of speech efficiency studies. All the disciplines are important and, in many respects, dependent on each other.

For us, the promise of Semantic-modeling to provide novel insights into the bases of verbal behavior is applicable: the natural development of Ethnolinguistics aspires to understand how cultures represent themselves in discourse patterns, so authentic discourse analysis has become its primary goal. In pursuit of this goal, linguists tend to “accept the principles of hermeneutic interpretation to let the material observed and collected speak for itself” (Tokareva, 2006: 530–537).

Let us briefly recall that the method of hermeneutic interpretation of speech is based on the fact that, in addition to referential meaning, speech yields information about patterns of use in language, and about the culture of language users (Gadamer, 1998). It is also based on the intention of the investigator to avoid any preconceived concepts as far as possible. This method needs a significant amount of authentic data in the form of natural speech samples as well as the ability of the analyst to notice particular things and to draw conclusions. We can see that such an approach closely relates to H. Garfinkel's ethnomethodology as it is concerned with discovering the underlying processes that speakers of a language utilize to produce and decode speech (Garfinkel, 1984). The approach, however indisputably appropriate it may seem, begets a number of subsequent theoretical issues related to the effect of cultural differences on interpersonal relations where mutual understanding is expected to be the most desirable result.

Thus, scholars face a series of obvious and acute questions that demand a methodological resolution. For example, having studied the latest publications on Ethnolinguistics, the founder of the Belarusian Ethnolinguistic School, prof. Irina Tokareva put forward three sets of questions that imply the need for cross-cultural understanding (Tokareva, 2006: 530–537). We shall try to accompany them with possible answers and considerations.

#### Firstly,

- 1) *How to find a balance between theoretically construed "pure cultural groups" and a variety of "cultural layers" within every real personality, i.e. between a genetic cultural group identity and an individual self-perception?*
- 2) *How to range a system of societal cultural groups singled out on different and overlapping conceptual premises like ethnic, religious, national, gender, etc.?*

These have become classical questions for the last twenty-five years of intense cross-cultural study. The first question is the central topic of inquiry in Cross-cultural Psychology, while the second question is an important and special case of Sociology and Cultural Anthropology. We are sure that the answers lie at the intersection of these disciplines concentrating on social and cultural characteristics of either individuals or groups of individuals, in other words, concentrating on social and cultural identities. The identities reflect the way individuals and groups of individuals internalize established social and cultural categories within their societies, such as their gender identities, class identities, and so on. These categories

“shape our ideas about who we think we are, how we want to be seen by others, and the groups to which we belong” (Zevallos).

We will bear this mind for our discussion in response to the third set of questions.

The **second** set of questions concerns, as professor Tokareva held, *a language diversity of speakers and a cultural diversity of one language speaker* (Tokareva, 2006: 530–537). In the first case, we have communicative incompetence distinguishing native speakers of a language from non-native ones; in the second case, we have cultural incompetence based on such observable human characteristics as ethnicity, gender, wealth, health, sexual orientation, and the like. It is difficult to say which of the incompetences begets conflicts that are more communicative in nature. However, the fact is that speakers are misled to a false assumption that they should share the same cultural communicative patterns as long as they share the same language code, which is not necessarily the case. Faced with these cross-cultural uncertainties, speakers of a cultural majority

“are unlikely to suspend judgment about differences in behavior because they assume unconsciously that their own ways are normal, natural, and right. Those of the other culture, therefore, must be abnormal, unnatural, and wrong. This presumption of superiority of one's own culture is, of course, characteristic [...] of most peoples of the world” (Stewart, Bennett, 1991: 3).

Unfortunately, there is no longer such a thing as a culturally homogeneous community in which competent speakers would know and detect variable strategies of verbal behavior of cultural, racial, and social class groups as authentic derivatives of societal constraints and demands.

**Thirdly**, *with the mosaic of cultural indexes and markers, with an increasing social mobility, why do we still face communicative social issues of cultural minorities?* (Tokareva, 2006: 530–537).

First of all, to answer this question we should proceed from the assumption that a cultural minority is an arbitrary term used to define a minority group of people speaking a language different from that of the majority and hence possessing a different culture. Although things are more complex, let us assume that a cultural minority can be identified with a linguistic minority.

Furthermore, in order to specify the binary opposite ‘linguistic minority/linguistic majority’, we can give a generalized definition: it is a group of people speaking a language predetermined by a specific communicative setting. In other words, it is the awareness of difference, or the awareness of the self: a cognitive pattern of one's perception of the world acquired at the very early stages of person's socialization.

Edward C. Stewart and Milton J. Bennett's point of view is that

“cultural self-awareness is not always easy since culture is internalized as patterns of thinking and behaving that are believed to be “natural” – simply the way things are” (Stewart, Bennett, 1991: X).

It supports our assumption of cultural groups, whether this or that cultural group represents a minority or a majority. In speech, the self is reflected in valued and subconscious strategies of communicative behavior.

To understand the notion of the self, we have to resort to the notion the Other, as well as to the ideas of similarity and difference. These ideas are central to the way in which we achieve a sense of identity (and social belonging). However, here our considerations seem to be endless. It is because our mind categorizes reality as a set of binary opposites with an inherently unequal relationship between its constituents. And it is clear that the philosophic law of unity and struggle of opposites simply must be taken for granted. We can thus answer prof. Tokareva's question by saying that according to this law cultural minorities as well as cultural majorities will always exist.

Here the following question arises: while discussing speech efficiency in cross-cultural communication, do we confuse the notions of cultural identity and social identity, as Ron Scollon does (Scollon R., Scollon, S.W., 1995: 36)?

Indeed, cultural identity is presumed to be naturally learnt at mother's knees, at the very early stages of socialization, whereas social identity is not natural. It is obtained consciously at further stages of socialization, it represents

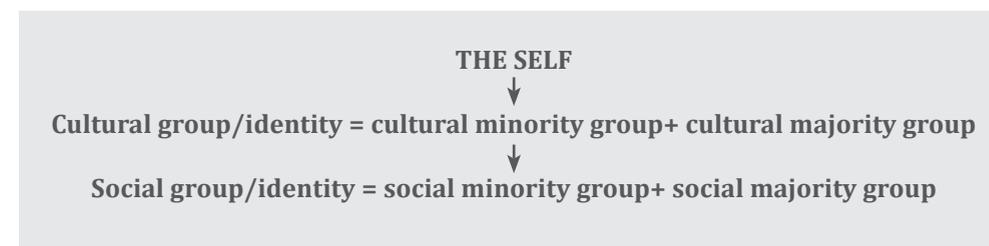
“an established social order, a hierarchy where certain groups are established as being superior to other groups”(Zevallos)<sup>3</sup>.

From this perspective, it appears that social identity and cultural identity (mutually presupposing and mutually predetermining each other) may enter into conflict. As Tom G. Lewis and Robert E. Jungman put it,

“adaptable as he is, man has nearly as much difficulty in adjusting to a human culture other than his own as he does to a different physical environment” (Lewis, Jungman, 1986: XIII).

<sup>3</sup> see, for example, social role theory

Schematically, then, we have the following picture:



Acknowledging such a state of affairs, we may speak, on the one hand, of the fundamental level of the Self in relation to both the identities, and, on the other, of the basic position of cultural identity in relation to social one. Only later, within every personality, the hierarchy of preferences of self-identification determines which of the markers will prevail in the course of communication.

We are now at the end of our theorizing and thus may conclude that this article is an attempt to tie together some of the general ideas of discourse research that emerge while studying intercultural communication models. Despite much thought and in-depth analysis, there is still a need for further research that will develop the ideas mentioned above and will contribute to a general theory of effective communication.

Finally, we want to conclude with an issue, which has been implicit throughout the discussion: discourse analysts should consider the existing variability of communication types and work out a particularly balanced and sensitive approach to deal with multicultural speakers.

## Conclusion

The gradual accumulation over the years of Ethnolinguistic and Cognitive Semantic information and insight into discourse practices has resulted in making Linguistics a proponent equality of diverse cultural groups. For this reason, the evidence has not resulted from labeling cultural groups of speakers with stereotypes derivative from the impression produced by otherness, but proceeded from the ideas of historically established conventional modes of communicative behavior as a subconscious layer of cultural knowledge shared by the whole of the community in particular.

## References

- Ashby, W. R.* An Introduction to Cybernetics. 2<sup>nd</sup> impression. London, 1957.
- Bill, J. A.* and *Hardgrave, R. L.* Comparative Politics: The Quest for Theory. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1973.
- Gadamer, H.-G.* Praise of Theory: Speeches and Essays. New Haven, Conn., 1998.
- Garfinkel, H.* Studies in Ethnomethodology and Conversation Analysis. Cambridge, 1984.
- Hymes, D.* Directions in Sociolinguistics: The Ethnography of Communication. Oxford, 1986.
- Lewis, T. G., Jungman, R. E.* On being Foreign: Culture Shock in Short Fiction. Maine, 1986.
- Milroy, L.* Observing and Analyzing Natural Language. A Critical Account of Sociolinguistic Method. New York, Oxford, 1987.
- Scollon, R., Scollon, S. W.* Intercultural Communication: A Discourse Approach. Oxford and Cambridge, 1995.
- Stewart, E. C., Bennett, M. J.* American Cultural Patterns. Intercultural Press Inc., 1991.
- Tokareva, I.* Towards the Foundation of Culturally Competent Communication in Medical Encounters. In: Ю. В. Стулов (ред.). Американские исследования=American Studies: 2004–2005: Европа и Соединенные Штаты Америки: взгляд извне. Минск, 2006.
- Zevallos, Z.* What is Otherness? <http://othersociologist.com/otherness-resources/>
- Апресян, Ю. Д.* Идеи и методы современной структурной лингвистики (краткий очерк). Москва, 1966.
- Мартысюк, Н. П.* Восприятие и понимание как каузальный базис эффективности речевого воздействия. In: Н. А. Качалов (ред.). Межкультурная коммуникация: теория и практика : сб. статей XII Междунар. науч.-практ. конф. «Лингвистические и культурологические традиции и инновации»; 15–17 ноября 2012 г. Томск, 2013.
- Мартысюк, Н. П.* Канвенциянальнасць як семантичны фактар эфектыўнасці маўлення. In: Acta Albaruthenica. T. 15. Warszawa, 2015.
- Мартысюк, Н. П.* Проблемы терминования коммуникативных качеств речи. In: Мова і культура. Вип. 15. Т. V (159). Київ, 2012.

# Round Table 2

## Discourse linguistics as theoretical and applied fields of knowledge

## Mediator's introductory words – Yana Kuzmina

Discourse linguistics (also referred to as discourse studies, discursology and discourse analysis, depending on the school the researchers follows) subsumes different academic disciplines, which results in a variety of theoretical, methodological and cultural frameworks. The present round table will disclose how these frameworks are interwoven into the research of Eastern European researchers, knowing the scarcity of translations on discourse analysis into Slavic languages. It consists of two sections, with each further divided into two issues. The overall discussion in each section develops from specific to general. *Issue 1* reviews the key categories in discourse linguistics, while *issue 2* deals with methodological constraints and reveals the applied nature of the discipline.

The definition of discourse as “utterances”, i.e. “units of linguistic production (whether spoken or written) which are inherently contextualized” (Schiffrin, 1994: 41) is fundamental and is addressed by the researchers of this Round Table. It sets not only sequential or syntactic aims for discourse analysis, but also semantic, pragmatic and paradigmatic ones, laying the foundation to formal and functional approaches. Which dichotomy of Schiffrin, i.e. viewing discourse as a structure, a unit of language that is larger than the sentence or the realisation of functions as the use of language for social, expressive, and referential purposes is more topical in the articles under discussion? (ibid.) Which definitions of discourse, i.e. **anything beyond the sentence level; language use and a broader range of social practice** (Schiffrin et. al., 2001) are explored by researchers in the Eastern European research space and what research questions will be answered by their means?

The scholars consider text, co-text, rhetorical moves, genre, context, intertextuality and other categories depending on the focus of the research. Moreover, they look at the mutual interrelation of various categories, which result in complex research design. In institutionalised, professional or socio-cultural setting we might discuss discourse and genre relations, viewing situated linguistic behaviour, highlighting the typification of rhetorical action within an activity system, the significance of communicative purposes or regularities of goal-oriented social processes. Depending on the genre school, the analysis is located within textual and socio-cultural dimensions and is implemented involving the analysis of the context of situation and beyond and resulting in the application of multiple research perspectives, methods and data collection tools. It is interesting to observe which key questions are raised by the researchers and whether they compare the tenets of genre schools.

Considering the variety of the categories mentioned above, discourse analysis addresses problems at textual, generic and socio-cultural levels. Which methodological constraints

do the researchers face? Conducting **textual** analysis and providing linguistic descriptions of texts, especially the analysis of lexico-grammatical systems in register analysis, text-linguistics and much of discourse analysis based on **systemic-functional** framework has been extremely influential in the studies of textualisation of a range of professional genres and will be thoroughly investigated in Round Table 2.

**Cognitive** considerations guide the language acquisition and knowledge dissemination of genre as a social construct.

**Critical** and **ethnographic** analysis, interviews and case studies have become increasingly important means of collecting data in academic, educational and professional contexts, for the research of developmental aspects of individuals' language and genre dynamism and will be considered in Issue 3 of the present round table. Undertaking **corpus** studies, the computational analysis of language unveils patterns of form and use in particular genres and areas of language in local linguistic context. This methodological framework was discussed in Volume 1 of the present series.

The abovementioned perspectives are thoroughly summarised by Bhatia (2002) who suggests a multi-faceted, rather than a linear analysis for genre as an integral part of discourse. It is significant to which methodological issues Eastern European researchers face and where they stem from.

## References

- Schiffrin, D.* Approaches to Discourse: Language as Social Interaction. Wiley: Language Arts & Disciplines, 1994.
- Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., and Hamilton, H. E.* (Eds.) The Handbook of Discourse Analysis. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers, 2001.

## Issue 1. Conceptualising the field of discourse linguistics

Yana Kuzmina

### Genre as one of the central categories of discourse analysis

The present paper examines the concept of genre in linguistic tradition and carries out a comprehensive analysis of the views by Bhatia (1993, 2004), Swales (1990), Halliday (1994), Martin (2000), Eggins (2004), Miller (1984), Berkenkotter (1995), Bazerman (1997, 2009) and other scholars who consider genre as an inherent part of discourse. It provides an overview of the definitions of genre, highlighting the social, cognitive and structural perspectives. It also compares the main principles of the Systemic Functional Linguistics (hereafter referred to as SFL), the New Rhetoric and the English for Specific Purposes Genre Schools (ESP), suggests an integrated framework for the applied genre analysis and discloses genre-related phenomena, namely genre intertextuality and interdiscursivity, genre recontextualisation, genre conventionalism and dynamism.

### Defining genre

Genre analysis finds its roots from the ancient Greek rhetorical studies. Genre is conceptualized in literary theory, art, and media. In the contemporary linguistic perspective, its development has significantly been promoted by the SFL, the New Rhetoric and the ESP Schools. Its founders and supporters have approached the analysis from sentence-based (register analysis) through discourse-based rhetorical to social perspective, analyzing the situational context, the communicative event, the communicative purpose and the recurrent linguistic features. (Kuzmina, 2013: 77). In 1990, the definition of genre from the point of view of applied linguistics was formulated by Swales, claiming that genre is “a noticeable communicative event associated with a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the academic or professional community in which it regularly occurs” (Swales, 1990).

Later definitions are similar, for instance Bloor and Bloor (1993) defined genre as a specific product of a social practice which can be described structurally and taught because of its formal characteristics. Roseberry (2012) asserted that genre is identified as a sequence of moves or segments where each move accomplishes some part of the overall communicative purpose of the text.

Bhatia and Swales also claimed that

“it [genre] most often is a highly structured and conventionalized [...] and various genres display constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value [...]. These constraints are often exploited by the expert members of discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose (s)” (Bhatia, 1998: 14-15).

Bruce (2008) best summarized the twofold approach to genre and genre analysis and distinguished (a) social genre, and (b) cognitive genre, the former relating to communicative purposes, the latter focusing on the internal organization. It determined the analysis stages in the empirical part, namely, after building genre network and establishing genre intertextual relations the communicative aims of recurrent IT professional genres are identified and their rhetorical structure is defined.

The dichotomy depends on the genre schools the scholars descend from. The Systemic Functional Linguistics emphasizes a functional perspective of the study of language and highlights the relationships between the genres and text types and the contexts in which they occur; the English for Specific Purposes School highlights communicative events which have typical schematic structures recognized by its users. Thus, they focus on communicative purposes and their formal linguistic features in various academic and professional settings; the New Rhetoric Studies investigate rhetoric, composition studies and professional writing (Karapetjana, 2009: 126).

Similarly to the textual, functional and social views of discourse, genre schools emphasize the textual, functional and social pre-requisites of genre analysis.

The author of the paper shares the views of Swales (1990) and Bhatia (2004) and attributes the concept of genre to the textual representation of a communicative event associated with a set of discursive practices and communicative purpose(s) recognized and consumed by the members of the professional community in which it occurs recurrently.

### Genre schools

The Systemic Functional Linguistics or Australian (Sydney), the ESP and the New Rhetoric Genre Schools appeared roughly at the same time, however, developing independently and having different preconditions in the basis. The unifying factors for all three Schools are the significance of the social context, the functional use of language and considering genres as constituent parts of discourse.

The ESP (Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Swales, 1990, 2004; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001 a.o.) and the Sydney Genre Schools (Martin, 1997; Martin and Christie, 2000; Martin and Rose, 2012) possessed educational implications in genre analysis and, therefore, the research was initiated, viewing genres as relatively stable linguistic phenomenon, whereas the scholars of the New Rhetoric Studies placed the correlation of the social action and text rhetoric central to their investigation, admitting the flexibility of the linguistic means required to express regular social/ communicative events of the members of discourse communities in activity systems (discursive practices) (Devitt, 1991; Bazerman, 1997; Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010).

The differences stem from the discourse community or the target audience involved in genre production/consumption. For the SFL scholars, these are students who either acquire English as a second language or whose English L1 literacy skills need considerable scaffolding. For the ESP specialists, the primary audiences are students in EFL situations or who need to acquire specialized EAP discourses as a part of their professional activity. And for the New Rhetoricians, the primary audience consists of undergraduates taking composition or rhetoric courses as part of a Liberal Arts education (Bazerman et. al., 2009: 3).

Swales (2009) and Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) asserted that the disparity in target audiences has important implications for modeling the social context and conducting the genre analysis. Primary and secondary school students are not taught to write genres for professional communication. Therefore, SFL researchers, according to Swales (2004), investigated “pre-genres” or text types such as explanations, recounts, or description. Conversely, the ESP and the New Rhetorics scholars worked with more advanced students and professionals, thus, their academic disciplines and professional/occupational settings were distinct and the genres belonging to their contexts were clearly identifiable during the needs analysis stage, e.g. research articles, research proposals, CVs, meeting minutes, e-mails, manuals etc.

### Genre in the SFL tradition

The Systemic Functional (Halliday, 1994; Halliday and Mathiessen, 2004; Eggins, 2004) tradition viewed the linguistic forms as the systems of choices and highlighted their functions (ideational, textual and interpersonal) in social settings. It was initiated by Halliday (1994), defining the context at a macro level in terms of field (the activity or the domain), tenor (the participants involved) and mode (the channel of communication) and further applied to genre by Martin (1997), Martin and Christie (2000), Paltridge (2006) and others, criticizing process-based pedagogical approaches to writing.

The field is concerned with systems of activity, including descriptions of the participants, process, and circumstances these activities involve. The tenor focuses on social relations, as these are enacted through the dimensions of power and solidarity. Mode highlights the semiotic distance, as this is affected by the various channels of communication through which we undertake activity (field) and simultaneously enact social relations (tenor), forming a genre, which is schematically represented in Figure 1 (Martin, 2000).

Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) emphasized the mutual relation of the linguistic forms and the social context and wrote that

“the concept of “realization” is especially important within SFL, for it describes the dynamic way that a language realizes social purposes and contexts as specific linguistic interactions, at the same time as social purposes and contexts realize language as specific social actions and meanings” (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010: 30).

Based on the integral macro-contextual components, Martin defined genres as

“staged, goal-oriented social processes through which social subjects in a given culture live their lives” (Martin, 1997: 43).

As he explained further, genres are identified with social processes as “the members of a culture interact with each other to achieve them”; they are goal-oriented “because they have evolved to get things done”; and staged “because it usually takes more than one step for participants to achieve their goals” (ibid.: 59).

The major Martin’s contribution to the development of genre in the systemic functional tradition is correlating the concepts of genre and register and their mutual significance, as presented in Figure 1. Halliday, in his research, focused on register rather than genre, whereas his followers (Martin and Christie, 2000; Martin and Rose, 2007) have elaborated on genre theories within a systemic functional framework exploring primary and secondary school genres and non-professional workplace texts rather than university and professional writing, which distinguishes them from ESP or New Rhetoric School researchers. Figure 2 below illustrates that register functions on the level of the context of situation, whereas genre functions on the level of the context of culture of a discourse community.

The SFL scholars’ research (Martin and Christie, 2000; Martin and Rose, 2007) facilitated a very strong movement of the integration of genre into the learning curriculum to elaborate on literacy of indigenous communities, disadvantaged groups, schoolchildren as well as run teacher professional development training programs in Australia and across Europe (Reading to Learn and Learning to Write National Projects, LERN Literacy and

Education Research Network project). They claimed that an explicit focus on pre-genres and genres in literacy teaching helps to reveal the relationship between text structures and social purposes, which can be observed in the diagrams above.

Turning to the rhetorical analysis, SFL framework of stages and phases in genre analysis (Paltridge, 1996, Martin and Rose, 2012) resembles the one by Swales, i.e. CARS (Creating a Research Space) model of moves and steps (1990, 2004), which proves the fact that the boundaries between the tenets of these schools are vague.

The focus on text form distinguishes the Australian work from the socio-contextual genre descriptions in the New Rhetoric in terms that there is far greater emphasis by the Sydney School scholars on explicating textual features, using Hallidayan schemes of linguistic analysis. (Paltridge, 2006; Martin, 1997; Martin and Christie, 2000).

As a result of the overview, it can be concluded that both the SFL and the ESP movements share analytical strategies and were driven by language acquisition implications to teach genres to different discourse communities. Genre can be defined as conventionalized organizational stages recognized and consumed by the discourse members and related to lexico-grammatical phenomena, which in the SFL tradition are genre defining, whereas in ESP genre is a determinant of lexico-grammatical choice (Swales, 1990: 41-2).

### Genre in the ESP tradition

As the name suggests, the ESP focuses on researching and promoting the acquisition of specialized varieties of English, namely for academic or professional/occupational purposes to non-native language users of a more advanced level. It has been developing since the 1960s and researchers in ESP have been interested in genre as a tool for analyzing and teaching the spoken and written language required for non-native speakers in academic and professional settings since the 1980s (Widdowson, 1983, 2003; Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990). However, its development was significantly facilitated by Swales who theoretised key principles and methodology. The scholar (1990) highlighted the significance of the need for communication and communicative purposes driven by communicative events which give rationale to genre and are characterized by typical internal formal structures recognized by other discourse participants. Therefore, the investigation of the discourse community and the communicative event and the communicative purpose often serve as a starting point while conducting a genre analysis and is reflected in the empirical part. Since the 1960s the ESP has gained a narrower focus from register analysis of overarching domains, e.g. EAP (English for Academic Purposes), EST (English for Science and Technology), English for Legal or Medical Purposes, to generic varieties pertinent to these domains. Swales wrote that this

“deeper or multi-layered textual account” resulted in “assessing rhetorical purposes, in unpacking information structures and in accounting for syntactic and lexical choices” (Swales, 1990: 3).

The ESP researchers pursued a structural move analysis to describe global organizational patterns in genres such as experimental research articles (Swales, 1990), medical abstracts (Salager-Meyer, 2008), business letters (Bhatia, 1993) a.o. Others looked at sentence-level grammatical features, such as verb tense, hedges, and passive voice, in these genres (Salager-Meyer, 1994; Swales, 1990; Connor and Maurannen, 1999).

Early work in the ESP implemented corpus linguistics tools to undertake quantitative studies of the linguistic properties of genres. As a matter of fact, textual patterning of content through moves and steps was challenged by corpus linguists Biber (1989) and Paltridge (2006). Having extensive corpus data, Biber claimed that genres cannot be solely described in linguistic terms and should be “defined and distinguished on the basis of systematic, non-linguistic criteria”, which gave rise to the development of genre as a social phenomenon, highlighting the significance of a discourse community, implementing ethnographic approach, thus broadening the concept of genre (1989: 39).

More importantly, later Askehave and Swales (2001) revisited the notion of communicative purpose and claimed that it has assumed a taken-for-granted status, a convenient but under-considered starting point for the analyst. In their view,

“purposes, goals, or public outcomes are more evasive, multiple, layered, and complex than originally envisaged [...] and we are no longer looking at a simple enumerable list or ‘set’ of communicative purposes, but at a complexly layered one, wherein some purposes are not likely to be officially ‘acknowledged’ by the institution, even if they may be ‘recognized’ – particularly in off-record situations – by some of its expert members” (Askehave and Swales, 2001: 197-199).

Similarly, Bhatia admitted that genre peculiarities are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s) (1993: 13).

The abovementioned and later research activities brought ESP closer to the New Rhetoric Studies (e.g. Swales’s study of textography of university institutional context and genre networks (2004), Bhatia’s papers on intertextuality and interdiscursivity (2008, 2010), Bruce’s research on social genre knowledge (2008).

## Genre in the new rhetoric tradition

In contrast to the ESP, the representatives of the New Rhetoric Studies (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995; Bazerman et. al., 2009) viewed genre as a social action, a reflection of the activities performed by the community, creating a shared knowledge base. In their views, genres not just express the communicative purposes within the discourse community but mediate the activities pertinent to the domain. Thus, while the ESP scholars set an objective to identify genres and their communicative aims and to examine structural and lexico-grammatical peculiarities, the New Rhetoric researchers address genres as

“sociological concepts embodying textual and social ways of knowing, being, and interacting in particular contexts”

and consider genre textual regularities as socially constructed (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010: 57).

Influenced by activity theory, ethnomethodology, Bakhtinian dialogism, phenomenology and rhetoric studies, the scholars asserted that genres reflect the recurrent practices of a discourse community, are inextricably tied to the social context and form genre repertoires (Orlikowski and Yates, 1994), genre systems and sets (Swales, 2004) or genre ecologies (Spinuzzi, 2000) etc.

One of the most notable definitions in the New Rhetoric tradition was provided by Miller who theorised upon and recontextualised the concept of genre as a social action and defined it “as typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations” (1984: 31).

Other definitions are similar, e.g. Bazerman et. al. advocated that

genres are not just forms. Genres are forms of life, ways of being. They are frames for social action. They are locations within which meaning is constructed. Genres shape the thoughts we form and the communications by which we interact. Genres are the familiar places we go to create intelligible communicative action with each other and the guideposts we use to explore the unfamiliar (1997:19).

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) followed a similar view and claimed that genres dynamically reflect the knowledge and activities of a discourse community and the processes of knowledge formation and genre formation are bound by a socio-cognitive perspective. They outlined the following genre characteristics in relation to genre as a social action belonging to a discourse community:

- 1) dynamism;
- 2) situatedness;
- 3) form and content;

- 4) duality of structure;
- 5) community ownership.

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) claimed that genres change in accordance with the communicative needs of the discourse community and are viewed as

“dynamic rhetorical forms that are developed from actors’ responses to recurrent situations and that serve to stabilize experience and give it coherence and meaning” (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995: 4).

They considered that genre repertoire, system or ecology reflect discourse community activities, actions and operations, and, therefore, change as soon as the activities change since

“our knowledge of genres is derived from and embedded in our participation in the communicative activities of daily and professional life” (ibid.).

The activity being overarching, discourse community in New Rhetoric tradition should be regarded as a community of practice, which not only recognizes the form and structure of certain genres, but also locates it in wider linguistic and socio-cultural context and applies it appropriately. Duality of structure presupposes that genre and social actions mutually influence each other. The ownership of genre as a social action is unique in a way that the participants involved in the process of communication share common knowledge base, but for the outsiders they are difficult to identify and manipulate. The abovementioned explains the significance of the social situational context modeling at the initial stage of linguistic investigation and the correlation of the professional activities and genres.

Driven by applied implications, activity theory, ethnomethodology and having background in education, technical communication, sociology, workplace communication and linguistics, New Rhetoric Studies scholars initiated their research by identifying the repertoire of genres used by that community and proceeded with the investigation of mediation of social activities, characterised by the phenomenon of genre ecology. Orlikowski and Yates, (1994), Berkenkotter (2001), Bazerman et. al. (2009), Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) claim that despite being dynamic, adaptive and focusing on compound mediation the interrelations among genres tend to be stable and can be explored in terms of genre sets, genre systems, genre repertoires and, most consistently, genre ecologies.

To conclude, with the advancement of genre as a social action in the New Rhetoric tradition genre research moved from analysis of single genres proposed by SFL and ESP researchers to groups of connected genres and the relationships among them within activity systems. This shift facilitated recontextualisation of the concepts of uptake and intertextuality, the consideration of interdiscursive processes and the concept of meta-genre, research

in professional communication to explore genre within their local and wider social context (e.g. healthcare (Berkenkotter, 1995), software development (Spinuzzi, 2000), research project management (Connor and Maurannen, 1999) enabling scholars to uncover complex social and intertextual relations within their professional communication models, building an organic and dynamic genre ecology, system or network based on social discursive processes. Investigating genre communicative aims and expectations of discourse community allowed researchers to develop move and step structure and address genre conventionalism.

## References

- Askehave, I. and Swales, J.* Genre identification and communicative purpose: a problem and a possible solution. *In: Applied Linguistics*, 22, 2001. 195–212.
- Bawarshi, A. and Reiff, M.* Genre: An introduction to history, theory, research, and pedagogy. West Lafayette, Indiana: Parlor Press, 2010.
- Biber, D. A.* Typology of English texts. *In: Linguistics*, 2, 1989. 3–43.
- Biber, D., Connor, U., and Upton, T. A.* Discourse on the move: using corpus analysis to describe discourse structure. Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 2007.
- Bazerman, C.* The Life of genre, the Life in the classroom. *In: W. Bishop and H. Ostrom (eds.), Genre and writing: issues, arguments, alternatives.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann, 1997. 19–26.
- Bazerman, C., Bonini, A., and Figueiredo, D. (eds.)* Genres in a changing world. Fort Collins, Colorado: the WAC Clearinghouse, West Lafayette; Indiana: Parlor Press, 2009.
- Berkenkotter, C. and Huckin, T. N.* Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Association, 1995.
- Berkenkotter, C.* Genre systems at work: DSM-IV and rhetorical recontextualization in psychotherapy paperwork. *In: Written Communication*, 18, 2001. 326–349.
- Bhatia, V. K.* Analyzing genre: language use in professional setting. Harlow: Longman, 1993.
- Bhatia, V. K.* Generic conflicts in academic discourse. *In: I. Fontanet, J. C. Palmer, S. Posteguillo, J. F. Coll (eds.) Genre studies in English for academic purposes.* Bancaixa, Fundacio Caixa Castello, 1998, 15–28.
- Bhatia, V. K.* Worlds of written discourse: a genre-based view. London: Continuum International, 2004.
- Bhatia, V. K.* Towards critical genre analysis. *In: V. K. Bhatia, J. Flowerdew, and R. Jones (eds.), Advances in discourse studies.* London: Routledge, 2008. 166–177.
- Bhatia, V. K.* Interdiscursivity in professional communication. *In: Discourse and Communication*, 21, 2001. 32–50.
- Biber, D.* A typology of English texts. *In: Linguistics*, 27(1), 1989. 3–43.
- Bloor, M. and Bloor, T.* How economists modify propositions. *In: Henderson, W., Dudley-Evans, A., and Backhouse, R. (eds.), Economics and Language.* London: Routledge, 1993. 153–169.

- Bruce, I. *Academic writing and genre: A systematic analysis*. New York: Continuum, 2008.
- Connor, U. and Mauranen, A. Linguistic analysis of grant proposals: European union research grants. In: *Eng. Specific Purposes*, 18 (1), 1999. 47–62.
- Cook, G. *Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.
- Devitt, A. J. Intertextuality in tax accounting: generic, referential, and functional. In: Bazerman, C. and Paradis, J. G. (eds.) *Textual dynamics of the professions: Historical and contemporary studies of writing in professional communities*. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, WI, 1991.
- Eggins, S. *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. New York, London: Continuum, 2004.
- Flowerdew, J. and Peacock, M. *Research perspectives on English for academic purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2001.
- Halliday, M. A. K. *An introduction to systemic functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold, 1994.
- Halliday, M.A.K. and Mathiessen, C. *An introduction to systemic functional grammar*. London: Hodder Arnold, 2004.
- Karapetjana, I. *Lingua-functional research competence*. Riga: RTU, 2009.
- Kuzmina, J. Genre analysis of ISO 9000 quality documentation. In: *Baltic Journal of the English Language, Literature and Culture*, 3. Riga: LU Akadēmiskais apgāds, 2013. 76–87.
- Martin, J. R. Analysing genre: functional parameters. *Genre and Institutions: social processes*. In: Christie, F. and Martin, J. R. (eds.) *In the Workplace and School*. London: Cassell, 1997. 3–39.
- Martin, J. R. and Christie, F. (eds.) *Genre and institutions*. London: Continuum, 2000.
- Martin, J. R. and Christie, F. (eds.) *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. New York: Continuum, 2001.
- Martin, J. R. and Christie, F. *Language, knowledge and pedagogy: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives*. London: Continuum, 2007.
- Martin, J. R. and Rose, D. *Genre relations: mapping cultures*. Equinox: London, 2007.
- Martin, J. R. and Rose, D. *Learning to write, reading to learn: genre, knowledge and pedagogy in the Sydney School*. Equinox, 2012.
- Miller, C. Genre as social action. In: *Speech*, 70 (2), 1984. 151–167.
- Orlikowski, W.J. and Yates, J. Genre repertoire: norms and forms for work interaction. In: MIT Sloan School, Working Paper (36), 1994. 71–79.
- Paltridge, B. *Discourse analysis: an introduction*. London: Continuum, 2006.
- Roseberry, L. An investigation of the functions, strategies and linguistic features of the introductions and conclusions of essays. In: *System*, 25, 2012.
- Salager-Meyer, F. Reading medical English abstracts: a genre study of the interaction between structural variables and the reader's linguistico-conceptual competence (L2). In: *Journal of research in reading*, 17(2), 1994. 120–146.
- Salager-Meyer, F. Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: a study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. In: *Discourse Studies*, 10, 2008. 231–250.

- Spinuzzi, C. *Describing assemblages: genre sets, systems, repertoires, and ecologies, Computer writing and research lab, White paper series, essays and addresses*. New York: Macmillan Publisher, Benjamins Publishing Company, 2004.
- Swales, J. M. *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1990.
- Swales, J. M. *Research genres: exploration and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2004.
- Widdowson, H. G. *Learning Purpose and Language Use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1983.
- Widdowson, H. G. *Defining issues in English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003.

Halina Grzmil-Tylutki

### Round table: Text, genre, and discourse

The present article is aimed at disclosing the concept of genre in the French linguistic tradition and placing it in the discursive environment. It also describes the characteristic features of the round table as a genre.

#### The theoretical considerations underlying the concepts of text, genre and discourse

In the French linguistic tradition discourse is viewed as a sociolinguistic unity and inscribes context as its immanence. Context along with subjectivity, responsibility, suprasententiality, normativity, action, orientation and other concepts constitutes an integral part of the definition of discourse. The binomial name of the compound “sociolinguistic ritual” reflects the isomorphic character of the described phenomenon: the social aspect and the linguistic aspect of the activities undertaken in a given area, in a given domain are subject to the same logic. Thus, it is not possible to say that discourse (similarly as genre or text) is immersed in the context, as the context is linked with the linguistic realization of action, resembling the link between the signified (*signifié*) and the signifier (*signifiant*) in the definition of the linguistic sign according to de Saussure (Harris, 1987).

The French linguistic tradition, unlike Polish or German, presupposes that the concept of text is not viewed as a theory-generating category and has never been a category constituting an analytical level in the theoretical considerations rather than a “product” of the discursive activity within the genre, thus constituting the discourse-genre-text triad. Culturally foreign conceptions as, for instance, text grammar and the functional perspective of the sentence extended onto the text are recognized, however, it is not possible to talk about a typically French textology (except for the Swiss school of text typology, e.g.

Adam (1992) and Rastier (1987). Text analysis was for a long time associated with literary studies: narratology, rhetoric, poetics, stylistics, hermeneutics, semiotics in the French research context. In this respect, Benveniste's (1939) theory of the statement influence on the European linguistic tradition, which referred to the dynamism of language as a discursive instance, should also be marked. According to him, discourse is the enactment of language. The French linguistic discourse theory makes use of the operational concept of genre as an intermediate link between discourse and text. Discourse, a sociolinguistic activity in a given field (politics, religion, administration, entertainment, health service, education a.o.), the normative way of using language by subjects interacting in a given institutionalized context, has a teleological character. Discourse is open towards purposeful activities and their number depends on the variety of possible inter-subject relations which are motivated by a specific intention. This openness (*dispositif discursif*) is identified with genre, becoming an instrument of discourse realization.

The relations among the concepts of text, genre and discourse unfold in the following way. Discourse, a sociolinguistic ritual, in a certain domain is realized through its own repertoire of genres (purposeful activities) and is expressed in specific forms, called *scenographies*, i.e. in texts. Its interpretation is possible after it has been assigned to a certain purposeful sphere of activity, which implies certain denotations, intersubjective relations, a suitable ideology and axiology. Hence, any text should not be analyzed in isolation from discourse and its pertinent genres, considering the epistemology accepted and presented in the present paper. Scenography, which is the text form, may be fixed, which happens in texts representing non-literary, strictly normative genres. It may also show variation, which is the result of the selection of concrete strategies (e.g. of persuasion, information, manipulation, humour and the like in the realization of the genre of the press profile).

Taking discursive features into consideration, we define genre as a tool of a textual sociolinguistic ritual in given historical and cultural circumstances. Such an approach to the issue makes it sufficient to use shortened generic names from the point of view of a concrete discourse (e.g., in the private discourse: a letter and a conversation will be immediately identified with types of subjects, with space-time, and with possible contents and forms). When referring to the genres of a different discourse we must assign them explicitly to a concrete area of activity, and thus – for instance – talk about a business letter, a motivational letter, a warrant of arrest, a literary letter or about a small talk, a university interview, etc.

The reflection on the generic variation within the bounds of a single discourse frees one, in the first place, from too much effort put into describing the discursive whole each time and makes it possible to focus solely on the scenography and the accepted strategies of realization. Secondly, it enables one to compare various genres of the same discourse

with one another, or possibly various forms of realization of the same objective, since a characteristic feature of discourse is a system of discourse spaces typical of it, the contextual data, the content, and the possible media of communication. These features are, thus, iterative for each genre of a given discourse (purpose). For instance, the above mentioned principle can be seen in legal discourse, namely, the subjects of the sender and the receiver (regardless of their number), contextuality, contents will coexist both in the constitution and in other statutes, codices, ordinances, decisions, contracts, petitions, verdicts, etc. Consequently, the definition of a discursive genre may be limited to giving the purpose of the activity and the so-called preferred form of its realization, without the necessity to quote the whole complex pragmatic characteristics. We will identify the above-mentioned genre of the constitution with the determination of the foundation of the socio-economic system of the state, its organisations, competences and ways of establishing the most important state organs, the basic rights, liberties and obligations of the citizens. One may provide the possible forms of recording the purpose in the form of chapters, paragraphs, etc., without the necessity of defining the position of the legislator, the law-taker, their mutual relations, time, place and other circumstances, as well as the semantic field of law, however. This does not mean that the definition of the constitution is deprived of this characteristic. This constitutes the implicit knowledge for the discourse community of lawyers, which is easily accessible to educated citizens, however, it does need to be specified for many of the uninvolved ones. This regards each genre in the network of the domain. The above mentioned example from legal discourse leads us to the significance of the concept of discourse type.

The attempts to classify discourse resulted in the functional typologies (the legal, religious discourse) and the formal ones (the narrative, didactic, polemic discourse) (Maingueneau, 1987) firmly rooted in Europe in the structuralist thought as well as the discursive formations immersed in Foucault's philosophy. Functionalism has become a distinctive characteristics of discourse, based on the precondition that discourse is an institutionalization of subjective-situational relations and is realized in many different forms, for instance via genre. As the etymology of the concept suggests, the Old French *discurre* (coming from the Latin etymon *discurrere*) means „to talk profusely on a subject.“ Later research by Maingueneau (2005), the author of numerous syntheses concerning the French linguistic paradigm as well as one of its important reformers, defines discourse as a domain sociolinguistic activity. Revisiting his first typology, the scholar suggested a new division of discourse into topical (the domain specific being types, and the overview being registers) and non-topical (discursive formations and so-called *parcours*). As, according to the definition, discourse may be identified with the domain and the subjective and situational relations prevailing there, we may single out: the political, religious, administrative, legal, commercial, the media, medical, academic,

educational, entertainment discourse etc. Other types, e.g. feminism or racism do not belong to an institutionalized area of human behaviour. They, in their turn, are linked with the ideological position, strategy, the place of realization or the medium.

To make the classification complete, the author of the article proposes the typology of discourse (Grzmil-Tylutki, 2009a, 2009b) based on transtextuality by Genette (1992). The affixal derivation appears to be then a perfect tool of the systematisation of the phenomena of discourse. The typology concerns prefixes, i.e., intracategorical affixes, namely, arch-discourse is a determinant discourse, transcendental with regard to concrete realisations; intra-discourse defines all the immanent features enumerated in the definition: partners, place, time, medium and the ideological/doctrinal status (the maternal discourse, the radio discourse, the nationalistic discourse, the feminist discourse). Inter-discourse, as the most difficult one to grasp, manifests itself within the framework of one act of communication we enclose various contracts and shift from, e.g., the legal advice to the social chat. Meta-discourse, in keeping with its etymology, is a discourse about discourse, a classical example of such relationship is the discourse of the media: while being autonomous, a normative sphere of activity (as other discourses), it is at the same time a discourse involving politics, economy, science, health sector, culture, sport, etc. Last but not least, dia-discourse expresses the relationship binding the partners of a discourse and ways of organizing the statement (scenography) by the protagonists, their strategic choices; the same strategies may be observed in various discourses (e.g., persuasion may be used in the media, science, politics, medicine, and the like) and *vice versa*, the same discourse genre may be realized differently, e.g., the school lesson may be structured around information, persuasion, manipulation, didacticism, game, humour etc. (Grzmil-Tylutki, 2010).

### **Round Table as a dynamic genre**

Applying the theoretical considerations discussed above to the genre of Round Table, it should be regarded as a genre functioning in the discourse of academic debates. The Round Tables, initiating this project were first held in April 2011 in Opole and resulted in a considerable knowledge base sharing and enactment of language, e.g. through the collection of articles and collaborative projects .

Generally speaking, the Round Table is a widely known genre in the political and academic discourse. If we identify the genre with the purposefulness of human activity, then the Round Table is oriented towards bringing together representatives of at least two differing (or outright opposing) parties and making it possible for them to reach consensus in equality, peace, and harmony. The Round Table and its function of equating all the participants sitting behind it has been known since Arthurian legends: Arthur was known to be a righteous and fair king treated his knights in an equal manner.

Depending on the sociolinguistic ritual: the political or the academic one, we deal with two descriptively distinct genres. The author of the present article defines academic discourse as a sociolinguistic sphere connected with acquiring new knowledge about the world, generating it, and passing it on (cf. Gajda, 2001). Both the sender and the receiver may be of a micro-social character (the academic community or one limited to a given discipline) or an individual one. Both interacting subjects are characterized by cognition: the recipient of texts (“products” of the discursive activity) is most often a scholar who uses the acquired knowledge for the benefit of his or her research and further investigation of the problem. Both of them are motivated by the same idea of searching for the subject matter knowledge, i.e. attaining the state of knowledge corresponding with the status quo (according to one of the definitions of the truth) in an objective manner, even if the master-disciple relationship is considered. In the “administrative” dimension the academic community ranks its members (depending on the acquired experience expressed through the number of publications) by awarding them academic degrees and titles. However, in terms of the most important cognitive aspect the subjects of the academic discourse (in a given discipline), equal in respect of their search for the truth, vary in terms of the information they possess, its evaluation, criteria of assessment as well as the research methodology. This may lead to conflicts, polemics, arguments, as a result of which the standpoints may get modified, but not necessarily. The repertoire of genres of the academic discourse is rich and many of them account for conducting on disputes. The communicative aim of the Round Table is an agreeable, harmonious exchange of ideas and striving for consensus. The academic Round Table will, therefore, be defined as a meeting of subjects who perform cognitive activities, search for the truth in a given discipline, generate new knowledge about the world, and differ in terms of their state of knowledge, methods of its demonstration, and the evaluation of the obtained results; however, it is a meeting whose aim is to exchange views on a given subject in an agreeable manner and search for understanding in order to work out a joint message (this message may be a harmonious polyphony).

Political discourse perceives its subjects and relations between them differently. It sets the sender (the political force) against the receiver (the civic force) (cf. Charaudeau, 2005). The former, in fact consisting of two adversarial options, the governing subject and the oppositional subject, is in a state of struggle for power: the governing ones fight for its maintenance, the opposition – for its seizure. The latter defines itself through its symbolic membership of the national community, realizing a part of the liberties by means of its participation in the election of the authorities. All the subjects function in the sphere of politics; that is for the benefit of the state organization and the society following the accepted criteria, which have with time got modified. According to Aristotle, it was mainly about an activity for the sake of the common good; at present this criterion means striving for a share in power, and even the art of gaining power and improving

the comfort of exercising it. Contemporary definitions of the content of the political discourse (incidentally, not very optimistic) emphasize the antagonisms between political forces as well as between them and the civic forces. A marked conflict of interests is not conducive to harmonious cooperation. One of the genres of this discourse, described as a political Round Table, aims to search for a consensus between the opposing standpoints presented by the governing force which struggles for maintaining power and the opposing force which searches for ways of seizing it, or between the political force (regardless of the above distinction) and the civic force (represented, for example, by trade unions and social organizations). The achieved consensus has its consequences and it is not my task to evaluate it; from the genealogical point of view, however, one may see clear differences between the academic Round Table and the political Round Table. The purpose (in the abstract sense) is the same, as it defines the essence of the genre, however, the difference between the academic Round Table and the political Round Table is contained in the discursive characteristics as well as the relations and activities typical of this domain.

The genre of Round Table can be viewed as a model, a dia-discursive formula abstracted from the strictly discursive markers present in its actualization. Describing the given genre from the point of view of the discourse-genre relation as an example, one may try to present the so-called preferred scenography, separately for the academic Round Table and for the political Round Table, or describe the scenography of a given actualization of a genre which gains the status of text. A text understood this way bears the characteristics of a sociolinguistic activity: in the scenography there are both the material items (the room, the table or some substitute piece of furniture, chairs, etc., the persons participating, the paraphernalia, etc.), their activity (the order of taking the floor, the way of taking the floor, the duration of the talk, gestures and other non-verbal elements) as well as the linguistic elements (formulas which start and end the statement, the content of the statement and its organization as well as other linguistic and paralinguistic items) leading the us to its communicative purpose as an inherent feature of genre functioning in a typified discourse. We realize this generic communicative purpose in a specific domain, be it the political or academic discourse, enriching it at the same time with all the pragmatic data. However, when using the term discourse in order to define this or that activity which is presented broadly-pragmatically, or narrowly-teleologically, we must remember that these are not equivalent.

In order to sum up the reflection concerning the subject of the relation between discourse and genre one should in the end mention the valuable typology of genres proposed by Maingueneau (2004) (cf. Grzmil-Tylutki, 2007). Its merit lies in the fact that it does not distinguish between the literary and the non-literary genres, thanks to which it constitutes a coherent generic conception. It locates all the genres in one categorical *continuum*, which allows one to notice the fluidity of boundaries between particular types as well as

the possibility of hybrids arising at their points of contact. The degree of transparency of the scenography (form) in relation to the discursive features and the purpose of the genre constitutes the typological criterion. To begin with, we have the maximally routinized, utilitarian genres, which facilitate people's lives in society: these do not permit any variability of the form which reflects the whole essence of discourse (e.g., the birth certificate). As the routine relaxes, the scenography becomes more varied, allowing for a stylistic variation and permitting controlled originality (e.g., the cooking recipe), up to the very free, innovative genres, often surprising by their form, in which the discursive features can be discerned with difficulty (e.g., the satire). At the end of the generic *continuum* situated are the auctorial genres (e.g., the meditation) which need a denominational label, a categorizing name which gives the text a generic sense, unrecognizable without this operation. Each discourse, as a result, creates a repertoire of genres typical of it.

## References

- Genette, G. The architext: an introduction. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1992. 83–83.
- Harris, R. Reading Saussure: A critical commentary on the Cours de linguistique generale, La Salle, Illinois: Open Court, 1987.
- Adam, J. M. *Les textes: types et prototypes. Récit, description, argumentation, explication et dialogue*. Paris: Nathan, 1992.
- Benveniste, E. Nature du signe linguistique. *In: Acta linguistica*, 1, 1939.
- Charaudeau, P. Le discours politique. Les masques du pouvoir. Paris: Vuibert, 2005.
- Grzmil-Tylutki, H. Discours politique, discours nationaliste, discours persuasif, discours manipulant – une même typologie? *In: Komur, G. et Celle, A. (eds.) Discours du nationalisme en Europe*. Paris : L'Improviste, 2010. 155–166.
- Grzmil-Tylutki, H. L'analyse du discours à la française – tendances majeures et proposition d'une typologie de discours. *In: Dutka-Mańkowska, A. et Giermak-Zielińska, T. (eds.) Des mots et du texte aux conceptions de description linguistique*. Warszawa: Wyd. UW, 2010. 173–181.
- Maingueneau, D. Nouvelles tendances en analyse du discours. Paris: Hachette, 1987.
- Maingueneau, D. Retour sur une catégorie: le genre. *In: Adam, J.-M. et al. (eds.) Texte et Discours: catégories pour l'analyse*. Dijon: Eds Universitaires de Dijon, 2004. 107–118.
- Maingueneau, D. L'analyse du discours et ses frontières. *In: Marges Linguistiques*, 9, revue on-line, 2005.
- Rastier, F. *Semantique interpretative*. PUF: Paris, 1987.
- Gajda, S. Styl naukowy. *In: Bartmiński, J. (ed.) Współczesny język polski*. Lublin, 2001. 183–199.
- Grzmil-Tylutki, H. *Gatunek w świetle francuskiej teorii dyskursu*. Kraków: Universitas, 2007.
- Grzmil-Tylutki, H. *Francuska lingwistyczna teoria dyskursu. Historia, tendencje, perspektywy*. Kraków: Universitas, 2010.

Irina Oukhvanova, Anna Markovich

## Classification of discourse categories

The present article addresses discourse categories as operational components of discourse analysis, being the constituent parts of discourse functional streams. On the one hand, discourse categories represent a semantic structure of discursive practices. This is a group of discourse categories of the first range, based on language aspects (phonetics, grammar, lexis, stylistics). On the other hand, in the course of analysis (an inductive approach) composite/complex discourse categories are identified – the discourse categories of the second range, based on the components of communication process (addresser, addressee, the message with its thematic and *cortège* components, codes, contexts). Herewith, the categories of the first and second range are interdependent, being mutually complementary.

### Discourse categories as constituent parts of research frameworks

In the course of analysis a researcher selects either inductive or deductive framework, implementing an abductive logic, that is, building hypothesis aiming at its further validation. It is possible to start the research process from the general to the particular, when the categories of the second range are identified at the first stage, and then the first range categories are considered. Interestingly, an experienced discourse researcher immediately detects discourse categories while analyzing a specific discursive practice, but he/she can hardly claim whether they are composite or primary categories. The traditional division of discourse categories into the language categories of the first-range, and the speech categories of the second-range works only partly. This fact was identified and published in a series of discourse studies conducted within the Causal-genetic approach by Oukhvanova (2002, 2010), Popova (2010), Savich (2011, 2012, 2013), Markovich (2006, 2007), Turkina (2005, 2006), Yadchenko (2011, 2012), Zinchenko (2010).

### Discourse categories in the Causal-genetic research

As a result of the fundamental and empirical research, the advocates of this framework have concluded that dividing the discourse categories into composite and primary one can see that their individual filling-in and development in each discursive practice constitute the essence of each discursive practice. Thus, one can hardly bring all discourse categories to a uniform classification. Apparently, we should talk about the need to classify discourse categories on the basis of various grounds: their *presence* (a structural component) in the discourse as a whole or in a particular type of discourse, reflecting a particular discursive practice; their *valeur/significance* (a hierarchical component) in the discourse as a whole, in a particular discourse type and in a particular discursive

practice; their *functional* filling (a linear component) determined on the basis of their role viability; their *specifics of representation* (a systemic component).

Classifications of discourse categories within the Causal-genetic research approach were proposed and tested in various contexts, including the reconstruction of discourse-portraits Oukhvanova (2002: 15–35, 354–355), where the classification is provided by the first of the abovementioned criteria (their presence). Herein, all the discourse categories (33 of them have been identified in the study, concluding that the list of categories is open) are classified as reflecting and constructing (1) the addressee, (2) the addresser, (3) the *cortège*, (4) the communication codes. This classification is an attempt to make an inventory for the convenience of the reader, who may become a researcher, applying the method of discourse portrayal.

The **first group** of discourse categories (addresser-identifying group) includes such discourse categories as *self-identification* (of the addresser), *attributes* (addresser's qualities – the actual or ascribed ones), *activities* (a set of addresser's activity characteristics), *space* and *time* (addresser is placed into), *roles* (of the addresser), *the mission*. The **second group** consists of three discourse categories: *the audience*, *the target audience*, *the relational communicative strategy*. The **third group** includes such categories as *directed information*, *communicative strategies*, including *object-oriented*, *cortège strategy*, *contact strategies* (contact with the audience), and three inter-categories: *intertextuality*, *intervention*, *intersubjectivity*. The **fourth group** includes the category – *correlation "myth-reality"*, *rhetorical and discursive practices*, *linguistic status*, *encyclopedic knowledge*, *appropriateness of speech*, *language variant*, *specific terminology*, *stylistic diapason*, *interactivity*, *non-verbal behavior*, *openness / closure in interaction*, and *addresser's activity in a communicative situation*.

The classification of discourse categories according to researcher's activities is also provided in the discourse portrayal. Thus, if the researcher carries out the **identification-interpretative analysis** aiming to make a discourse-portrait, he/she relies on such discourse categories as *self-identification*, *attributes*, *activity*, *deixis (time and space)* and *mission*. The **analysis of the code** requires the reconstruction of *modality* specific traits (real-virtual) as well as the attention to such discourse categories as *audience*, *target audience*, *contact with the audience* (form of addressing), *directed* or *packed information* (lexical-semantic fields of discourse practices). The **narrative analysis** implies paying attention to the *relation "myth-reality"*, *the keyword line*, *attitudes*, as well as the categories of *open / closed genre* (genre is considered from the standpoint of content, but not the form here). The **analysis of communicative strategies** or **motivational analysis of the objectives of communication** draws researcher's attention to the specific traits

of the *discourse type*, represented via actual discursive practices. In this context it is important to reconstruct all the three aforementioned *inter-categories*. Finally, **the rhetorical analysis** focuses on the *techniques of value, fact, neuro-linguistic influence*.

The identification-interpretative or nominative analysis is akin to the theme-rheme analysis, but is not applied to a narrow text space (like a segment of a text-producing practice), but to a larger text space – a macro-text. Its purpose is to identify all the positions which become or can be themed, including the cross-cutting themes of the discourse practice (its topics); determine the character of their development and their focus. The analysis of the code implies a thoughtful and careful attention to verbalization of the discursive practice, that is, topics and corteges, potential meanings and focuses of attention, as far as the potential involves incorporating all the possible diverse audience (each segment of the audience actualizes its own content). The object of the narrative analysis is the event, as far as the discursive practice is a happening, a performance, which would subordinate addresser's vision of the events. It is interesting that the discourse categories of all four subclasses mentioned in the previous classification are active here. The narration serves as a suppressive factor, and the degree of audience's freedom in the interpretation of the phenomena of reality and social relationships depends on the power of this factor. The analysis of communicative strategies is a diagnostics used in the case of discourse portrayal for a targeted analysis of motivation of communicants. It is a point where all the components of the first (structural) classification intersect. Similarly to the abovementioned cases, the analysis of discourse practices and the rhetorical analysis assume not just a statement of the fact that a certain phenomenon is present in the discourse, but is also an indication of how it is present and in what combination, with what purpose it is realized.

To conclude, we can see that various types of classifications allocate discourse categories differently as well as the relations between them, thus highlighting the flexibility of discourse categories in the research frameworks. It means that the classification of discourse categories, can turn from a description to modeling as far as it helps to penetrate deeper, to see the essence of the phenomenon, to understand the nature and mechanism of its functioning depending on researcher's focus. For instance, other ways of classifying the developed discourse categories, based on the task of constructing models of specific discourse types are seen in the research papers on the discourse of elite media (Oukhvanova, 2010), media discourse of lobbying (Savich, 2013) and discourse of migrants (Yadchenko, 2012). The categories serve to represent the content-context interaction (binding the unity of the phenomenon and the idea), and are considered hierarchically, structurally, systemically, and linearly. We believe that the cluster approach to discourse categories (of the content-context order) allow researchers to be more flexible in the reconstruction of meanings in actual discourses.

## References

- Зинченко, Я. Р. Опыт дискурсивного анализа интертекстуальности в политических ток-шоу. Вестник МГЛУ, 4 (47), 2010. 74–84.
- Зинченко, Я. Р. Роль как средство структурирования дискурсивного пространства в формате политического ток-шоу (на материале русского и немецкого языков). In: Ученые записки УО «ВГУ им П. М. Машерова»: сб. науч. трудов. Витебск: Витебский гос. ун-т им. П. М. Машерова, 2010. 47–53.
- Маркович, А. А. Коммуникативные стратегии интегративного типа в дискурсе Евросоюза. In: Вісник Харків. нац. ун-ту ім. В. Н. Карамзіна, 745, Сер. Филологія 49, 2007. 76–82.
- Маркович, А. А. Анализ референтного содержания в дискурсе консолидации. In: Вестник МГЛУ, Серия 1. Филология, 5 (25), 2006. 53–66.
- Попова, А. В. Дискурс-картины мира и кортежного взаимодействия элитарных средств информации. Вильнюс: Изд-во Вильнюс. ун-та, 2010.
- Савич, Е. В. К вопросу о построении интегративной методики анализа дискурса. In: Respectus Philologicus, 19 (24), 2011. 212–219.
- Савич, Е. В. Imagery as Discourse: Approach to studies. In: Respectus Philologicus, 21 (26), 2012. 170–180.
- Савич, Е. В. Медийный дискурс лоббирования: опыт анализа. Минск: БГУ, 2013.
- Туркина, О. А. Анализ актуализации реляционных коммуникативных стратегий в телевизионной игре «Последний герой 1». In: Respectus philologicus, 7 (12), 2005. 174–183.
- Туркина, О. А. Исследование конфликта и конфронтации с позиций современной теории дискурса. In: Вестник МГЛУ, 1 (21), 2006. 80–86.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. (ред.) Методология исследований политического дискурса: Актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов, 3. Минск: Технопринт, 2002.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Каузально-генетическая перспектива исследования дискурса. In: La Table Ronde (1), Дискурс в академическом пространстве: материалы международного круглого стола, 3–5 апреля 2009, Минск, Беларусь. Минск: Изд. центр БГУ, 2010. 82–90.
- Ядченко, Е. И. Реконструкция дискурс-категории «оценочность» из дискурсии русского мигранта в Германии. In: Типологія мовних значень у діхронічному та зіставному аспектах: сб. науч. трудов. Донецк: ДонНУ, 2012. 112–122.
- Ядченко, Е. И. Реконструкция национально-культурной идентичности из дискурса русского мигранта, проживающего в Германии: потенциал лингвистической методологии. In: Вестник МГЛУ. Серия 1. Филология, 5, 2012. 47–54.
- Ядченко, Е. И. Значимость реконструкции дискурс-категории «коммуникативный тип мигранта» в рамках стимулирования диалога культур. In: Дискурс как социальная деятельность: приоритеты и перспективы: материалы междунар. науч. конф., 17–18 ноября 2011 г., Москва. М: ИПК МГЛУ «Рема», 2011. 176–178.

Waldemar Czachur

## Discursive picture of the world

The article aims to present the discursive picture of the world as a category describing the dynamic process of meaning manifestation in discourses. The value of this category lies in the fact that it enables the researcher to identify the participants and their respective points of view in discursive practices. The article also outlines the selected methodological frameworks to investigate the discursive picture of the world.

### The origin of discourses, discursive event and discursive practice

According to Zarzycka (2006), the origin of discourses is related to a specific social, cultural, political etc. event as well as the process of negotiating meanings and points of view (2006: 25). Reisigl adds that they are

“pluri-perspective semiotic bunches of social practices that are composed of interrelated, simultaneous and sequential linguistic as well as other semiotic acts and that are both socially constitutive and socially constituted” (Reisigl, 2010: 36).

Discourses may be considered as intermediaries between the linguistic, social and cultural environments, reflecting and stabilising the culture(s) of a community and at the same time reflecting the knowledge constituted by the language.

### The role of media in creating the discursive picture of the world

Discourses originate when public discussions or debates<sup>4</sup> gain social value, namely, when the problem under discussion concerns the society and when the society and involves it in participation, be it actively or passively. Therefore, the media play a constitutive role in the process of creating new knowledge formations. One may posit that the media as a carrier and creator of public discourses, including political ones, tackle those problems and discuss them in the way which is expected by viewers. Thus, the view of professor Bartmiński's should be challenged. He claims that

“values currently present in the public media are not a simple reflection of actual social opinions but, rather, contain an element of authors' creation and serve to present specific ideological and political options” (Bartmiński, 2010: 123).

When analysing specific media, it is possible to reconstruct the profile of their potential target viewer or listener and, therefore, the media do reflect actual opinions and social expectations. Since any individual in an open, or democratic, society has the right to

<sup>4</sup> The term debate is used to refer to important, temporarily restricted discussions on particular topics in societies. Specific features of the public discourse in a society are manifested through debates, i.e. debates execute certain cultural code of discourses as condition of possibility. Discourse is regarded as a category which is superior to debate or discussion.

express their own views, the media are, in a sense, the secondary subject in social life as that they channel (and, thus, also reflect) the potential of world outlook and ideologies locating those individuals in the foreground.

According to Wierzbicka (2014), the media discourse becomes a representative of public discourse since it is based on well-established (accepted) knowledge formations in the society, and knowledge has its sources either in experience or in narratives in the society. Given their particular characteristics, the media activate what is socially relevant and strongly anchored in the society, thus targeting potential viewers and listeners. Therefore, the author sees the category of the picture of the world differently from, for instance, the Lublin Ethno-linguistic school, primarily as a result of operating media discourses which are generated in democratic societies on topics which are relevant to the country and its discourse community.

The knowledge held and shared by the members of the community is, on the one hand, determined linguistically and socially/culturally yet, on the other, it is also linguistically and socially/culturally constructed. Thus, if we aim to reconstruct the thinking patterns of a particular cultural community and their picture of the world contained in language, Chlebda (2010) suggests analysing specific discourses and the pictures of the world typical of those discourses. This brings us to the differentiation between the (linguistic) picture of the world as a certain static category, describing language, and its dynamic variant, i.e. the discursive picture of the world<sup>5</sup>.

The discursive picture of the world (hereafter referred to as DPW), much like Bartmiński's linguistic picture of the world (2010) is exactly the discursively supported knowledge of the world or the current interpretation of reality which can be captured as a set of views of the world, people, things and events. It should be stressed that the DPW – as knowledge formation – is linguistically constructed and negotiated on the basis of either emotional or rational arguments distributed via the media (cf. Warnke, 2009). The linguistic and mediated construction of the DPW means that the slogan of fighting for the truth is used to reconcile facts and, moreover, the truth is not an ontological phenomenon but only a discursively negotiated one. We share Kloch's views (2006) that the media

“construct the criteria of predicating what the truth is and in what ways it can be verified” (Kloch, 2006: 36).

Knowledge is negotiated on the basis of arguments which can be called semantic wars (Felder, 2006) or wars on values. This is how meanings and senses are created for all processes, objects etc. Therefore, facts are reconciled via techniques and strategies that

<sup>5</sup> Such attempts had been made earlier and the focus was mostly on distinguishing between the picture of the world and the linguistic picture of the world, and into the linguistic picture of the world and the textual picture of the world [cf. Zimny, 2008; Żuk, 2010].

either justify or negate the linguistically constructed knowledge. For this reason, the DPW is a dynamic, open and flexible unit which results from the fight between various dispute strategies, antagonisms, powers, strengths of interpretations etc. The distribution of the DPW is expressed in the fact that systemic regulations (access to the media) and cultural regulations (possibilities and constraints of the media, possibilities and constraints of what can and cannot be verbalised in the community) influence the field and the impact of those pictures of the world and manage the possibilities to multiply those pictures. One should also assume that the process of linguistic construction of knowledge and the negotiation of knowledge through arguments and mediated distribution is strongly culture-dependent. Therefore, each time the DPW is a discursive actualisation of the cultural matrix and this actualisation may contain numerous changes: certain elements are eliminated while others are added.

One might ask whether the DPW is an alternative to the LPW (linguistic picture of the world). The author is inclined to think that it is, but not as an epistemic category but certainly as an analytical one. However, one should note that the distinction between the linguistic and the discursive picture of the world does not overlap with a similar distinction between collective and discursive symbols. The former are defined by Fleischer as “signs which have an interpretant established to such an extent that it shows a cultural meaning and strongly anchored loading (value attribution), either positive or negative, which is binding for the entire national culture” (Fleischer, 1996: 23).

Discursive symbols are those elements of discourse which refer to subcultures and appear from subculturally defined, specific semantisation (ibid.). When reconstructing the DPW, it is much easier to incorporate the aforementioned postulates into the analysis. The DPW analysis enables us to do the following:

- to capture specific (dominant, marginalised etc.) actors in discourse and, through this, their points of view;
- to capture a broader cultural and social context which immediately influences the profiling of linguistic knowledge in the form of notions, flag words, collective symbols, metaphors, argumentative patterns in specific analysed discourses etc.;
- to capture the discursive moment as a section of a whole culture and cultural continuity, cognitive and axiological schemata which are typical of the cultural community in question.

### **The methodological considerations studying the DPW**

When investigating language in the light of the DPW, we approach the principle of *analytical adequacy*, as postulated in corpus linguistics, which incorporates such quality criteria of

empirical methods as reliability and validity. Those criteria refer to both the creation of corpora and to the analysis and interpretation of results. In social sciences, the criterion of objectivity is also mentioned in this context.

We should also point out that the DPW, much like the LPW, is just an analytical approximation and an ideal model in the sense that

“while accumulating various cognitive perspectives or world outlooks, it does not appear in full in any specific textual realisation” (Nowak and Tokarski, 2007: 29).

The author believes that the DPW is a more faithful reconstruction of cultural patterns of thinking and interpretation of reality whereas the DPW analysis helps to demonstrate how a community thinks, perceives and interprets the reality and it unveils its specific profiling method in a specific discourse. The analysis of actors and their action strategies which reflect their perspectives reveals the culture-specific opportunities to construct such discursive pictures of the world.

At this point we may question whether the model of analysis proposed by Bartmiński (2010) can be used to analyse the discursive picture of the world. It seems that three research perspectives, i.e. the lexicographic one (dictionary definitions), the discursive-textual realisation and the sociological component are mutually complementary and create a perfect combination. However, one should also admit that due to the dynamics of discourses and their possibilities to investigate new meanings, dictionary definitions will always deviate from the results of textual and sociological analysis, which was also pointed out by Chlebda (2010).

The question which method we should use to analyse textual elements as realisations of specific discourses should also be addressed. In the case of a discourse which is a comprehensive and multilayered linguistic, social and cultural phenomenon, the point is to use a multi-level model of analysis. So, what kinds of planes for discourse analysis seem necessary?

In order to analyse the DPW, three dimensions must be considered: the dimension of a text as a product of actions and an object of analysis, the dimension of actors and their communicative strategies and the discursive meanings that have been produced (Czachur, 2011). To conclude, it should be noted that the DPW is a category that integrates the existing ways of thinking about the linguistic picture of the world. The integrative nature of the DPW is expressed in the polyphonic perspectives of the analysis. The discursive picture of the world, therefore, is both a linguistic (as it is constructed via language), mediated picture (since the linguistic construction and multiplication of this picture is done through the media), textual (since the linguistic construction as cultural actualisation occurs exactly in the textual dimension), mental (since, when focusing on the analysis of subjects

which are discursively active, it enables us to reconstruct points of view, thinking patterns and axiological schemata) and cultural (as the only aspects expressed in discourse are the ones which are permitted by the system of values of the diverse community, whereas aspects activated in the collective awareness are typical and familiar). Therefore, it depends on the discourse analyst which aspects he/she will put a particular emphasis on. The DPW analysis also integrates various linguistic and sociological traditions: it is both an epistemological phenomenon which can be activated in individual and collective consciousness as well as an analytical instrument which can be reconstructed using a toolbox of methods known in both linguistics and sociology.

## References

- Wierzbicka, A. and Goddard, C. *Words and Meanings: Lexical semantics across domains, languages, and cultures*. Oxford: UP, 2014.
- Bartmiński, J. Pojęcie językowego obrazu świata i sposoby jego operacjonalizacji. In: Czaplinski, P., Legeżyńska, A., and Telicki, M. (eds.) *Jaka antropologia literatury jest dzisiaj możliwa?* Poznań, 2010. 155–178.
- Chlebda, W. W stronę językowego obrazu Europy. Analiza słownikowo-tekstowa. In: *Etnolingwistyka*, 22, 2010. 85–104.
- Czachur, W. Dyskursywny obraz świata. Kilka refleksji. In: *Tekst i dyskurs – text und diskurs*, 4, Warsaw, 2011. 79–97.
- Fleischer, M. *System polskich symboli kolektywnych. Wyniki badań empirycznych*. Wrocław, 1996.
- Kloch, Z. *Odmianny dyskursu. Semiotyka życia publicznego w Polsce po 1989 roku*, Warsaw, 2006.
- Nowak, P. and Tokarski, R. Medialna wizja świata a kreatywność językowa. In: Nowak, P. and Tokarski, R. (eds.), *Kreowanie światów w języku mediów*. Lublin, 2007. 9–35.
- Reisigl, M. *Dyskryminacja w dyskursach (Discrimination in Discourses)*. In: *Tekst i dyskurs – text und diskurs*, 3, 2010. 27–61.
- Wojtak, M. *Głosy z teraźniejszości. O języku współczesnej polskiej prasy*. Lublin, 2010.
- Zarzycka, G. *Dyskurs prasowy o cudzoziemcach. Na podstawie tekstów o łódzkiej wieży Babel o osobach czarnoskórych*. Łódź, 2006.
- Zimny, R. *Kreowanie obrazów świata w tekstach reklamowych*. Warsaw, 2008.
- Żuk, G. *Językowy obraz świata w polskiej lingwistyce przełomu wieków*. In: Karwatowska, M. and Siwiec, A. (eds.) *Przeobrażenia w języku i komunikacji medialnej na przełomie XX i XXI wieku*. Chełm, 2010. 239–257.
- Felder, E. *Semantische Kämpfe. Macht und Sprache in den Wissenschaften*. Berlin, New York, 2006.
- Warnke, I. H. *Die sprachliche Konstituierung von geteiltem Wissen in Diskursen*. In: Felder, E. and Müller, M. (eds.) *Wissen durch Sprache. Theorie, Praxis und Erkenntnisinteresse des Forschungsnetzwerks, Sprache und Wissen*. Berlin: de Gruyter, 2009. 13–140.

Alena Savich

## Discourse picture of the world as a target category of discourse research

### Defining discourse and discursive picture

There can be several alternative approaches when deriving a conceptual system for discourse-based research. Discourse being a complex communicative and social phenomenon, it is possible to attribute it to the conceptual system of linguistics as well as derive its own set of categories. For discourse linguistics the second approach seems to be more relevant, for it initially recognises discourse not solely as a linguistic aspect, but also as the object of research. Therefore, while talking about the justification of the object of discourse studies (in the Western European tradition) or linguistics of discourse (in the Eastern European), the author intends to interpret discourse as a lingua-semiotic experience and activity, as presented by the scholars at this Round table as well as investigate a *discursive picture* as a type-defining category of discourse. The notion of discursive picture is also attributed to author's prior research of media discourse of lobbying. However, the author prefers another term to designate it, the one of *discourse picture*, borrowed from the Causal-genetic theory. Interestingly enough, the classification of *discursive pictures* and, respectively, discourses, offered by Leshchak (2007), highlights the static aspect of discourse research, while the typology of *discourse pictures* covers its dynamic aspect and the assumption that discourse is a type of lingua-semiotic activity. Further in this paper, the term *discourse picture* is considered with the aim of the introduction into linguistic studies of discourse, its working definition is provided, and a classification of discourse pictures, invented and used by the Causal-genetic theory is given.

### The significance of the concept of context in discourse

To define discourse picture as an operational category of discourse research one should start with the reflection on the concept of discourse *per se*. An integrated approach to this complex phenomenon presupposes a complex definition. Having considered integrated analysis of discourse approaches (Oukhvanova, 2010), the author has arrived at the following commonalities: discourse is defined through its *persuasive* language metafunction as both an activity (social and communicative) and the result of this activity; discourse is described through the interrelation of (1) its *context*, (2) *linguistic* and *extra-linguistic manifestations* and (3) *an image of the world/reality* constructed by discourse. The author considers that these three interdependent elements of discourse constitute the conceptual system of discourse linguistics, meaning that any analysis of discourse aimed at one of them inevitably involves all the others.

It is firmly believed that among the elements named above the central concept of discourse research is the one of *context* as, on the one hand, it surrounds and regulates the discourse process, and, on the other hand, is reflected in the discourse product. Thus, the development of the tools for discourse research is inevitably connected with further classifications of external and internal contexts of discourse.

The analysis of the frameworks that study situations in which communicative interaction takes place (Halliday, 1994; Devitt, 1991; Widowson, 2003) allows the author to describe **discourse context** considering:

- 1) *the relativity of the communicative situation* that makes physical context of discursive interaction into **wide** (cultural and historical context) and **narrow** (rhetorical situation of communication);
- 2) *the nature of the extralinguistic reality* included into the context into **ideational** (immediate settings of communication taken statically as the elements of reality) and **interactional** (context of subject-subject interaction);
- 3) *the nature of mental constructs* that make the cognitive context of discourse into **gnoseological** (knowledge about the world) and **axiological** (evaluations and appraisals).

All these constructs find their actualisation in discourse, that is, they add certain complementary meanings to human communication (Попов, 1984). While being actualised in discourse, a context turns into an element of content. It is just evident that the mental construct representing the context of communication in the mind of discourse participants is not equivalent to the physically existing 'pre-actualised' cognitive context. Hence, in order to prevent confusions over terminology it is necessary to introduce a special term for the context actualised in discourse. The Causal-genetic theory offers the term **discourse picture of reality** derived from the terms **world picture**, **world model** and **image of the world** which have already been used in the linguistic science (Топоров, 1988). To distinguish between these terms a small digression to the history of the concept "world picture" is made.

### Defining discourse picture of the world: a historical overview

The concept and the term **world picture** is operated by different social and human sciences. However, its foundation, laid by Heidegger (1977) in his work "The Age of the World Picture", wasn't reconsidered by any discipline. According to Heidegger year, the world is a picture itself which is subjective and essentially realised. The reference point where it begins is a person as an active subject; besides, the picture of the world exists

only as a representation of reality. Following Heidegger's provisions year, the picture of the world is always an interpretation of reality that is apprehended by the subject in the course of social activity, processed in the course of cognitive activity and manifested in signs in the course of discursive activity.

The definitions by V. N. Toporov and V. I. Postovalova (Топоров, 1988; Постовалова, 1982) treat *the world picture* as a simplified and condensed global image of the world, specific to a concrete tradition and created as a result of an activity. It means that carriers of tradition can be aware and realise an incomplete world picture. The distinguishing characteristics of such picture of the world are

- 1) *consistency* that determines cognitive potential of a world picture, and
- 2) *operationality* that determines its behavioural potential for individuals and groups.

Gurevich calls *world picture* 'a grid of coordinates'; there are lots of them and each one includes, besides universal concepts and categories (time, space, changes, reason, destiny, number, etc.), ethnic features specific to each social group (Пороцова, 2006). In the research by G. Andreyeva, O. Shkaratan and N. Sergeyev year with reference to other renowned representatives of social science (P. Blau, L. Belyaev, P. Bourdieu, N. Shmatko, N. Tikhonova, etc.) it is shown that the main distinctive characteristics of a social group are: its place in the system of social relations as well as its function in the economy, culture, politics and ideology. Therefore, any picture of the world reflects the specific interaction of individuals, social groups and social institutions both at the prototypical level of universal relations and at the situational level of relations within the society and within a concrete situation of communication (Шкаратаң, Сергеев, 2000).

Various classifications for pictures of the world are offered by B. Serebrennikov, E. Kurbryakova, V. Postovalova, V. Thalia, A. Ufimtseva (1988) in the collective monography "Роль человеческого фактора в языке: язык и картина мира" (*The Role of the Human Factor in Language: Language and Picture of the World*). These classifications are:

- **according to the subject of world picture** (who represents), i.e. world picture of:
  - 1) a certain individual (empirical subject);
  - 2) a separate group of people (community);
  - 3) separate people (peoples);
  - 4) humanity in general.
- **according to the object of world picture** (what is represented):
  - 1) a complete picture of the world (about the world in general);
  - 2) a local picture of the world (about a world fragment).

- **according to the result of an activity** (the very image, actual picture):
  - 1) pictures with a dominant rationally processed image of the world; they differ in the type of categorical paradigm used as a means of rationalisation (functional, informational, theoretical pictures of the world, etc.);
  - 2) pictures with a dominant vivid figurative (artistic) image; they differ in the way the artist places the viewer: a) outside the picture (focusing on the subject-object relations depicted in the picture); b) inside the picture (focusing on the subject-subject relations).

One more typology of world pictures (against the result of activity) can be found in the works by Pogosova (Погосова, 2006). She singles out conceptual and emotional pictures of the world. The former exists in close interrelation with the language picture of the world which, in turn, corresponds to the cultural one. The emotional picture of the world is projected by the emotional sphere of consciousness and reflects axiological priorities. The conceptual picture of the world is treated as a system of typical social positions, relations and attitudes which find its sign display in the system of national language. The language picture of the world, designed in this way, coincides with the logical reflection of the world in people's awareness. At different times language picture of the world was an object of considerations in the works by W. von Humboldt, J. L. Weisgerber, E. Sapir, B. L. Whorf, A. Potebnaya, G. Brutyan, G. Kolshansky, M. Black, D. H. Hymes, N. Arutyunova, N. Sukalenko, S. Vasilyeva, and others. The common moment for all these researchers is their recognition of the language models, historically developed in the consciousness of language community as a by-source of reality awareness which supplements and corrects the conceptual picture of the world.

### Discourse pictures and their classification

By including the language picture into the conceptual one, this classification actualises the people as its subject and represents the picture as being complete and providing a full description of the world. Here, it is important to emphasize that in case of local pictures of the world and actualisation of other subjects (an individual or a social group), the ethnic component of the picture of the world is transformed and set aside in favour of a social-group component. It seems that in the research of such subjective fragmentary pictures it is reasonable to use the term **discourse pictures**.

This term is convenient for many reasons:

- 1) unlike the one of *language picture* that emphasises just the sign characteristic of the picture of the world, the term *discourse picture* underlines its sign and activity nature and allows to treat world picture as a process and as a persuasive force;

- 2) this term has no claim for universality, it assumes fragmentariness of the picture (which doesn't exclude its validity);
- 3) the discourse component of the term emphasises formal and content unity of the image of the world and the importance of the comprehensive approach to its study;
- 4) this term is quite applicable to the pictures of the world of all the possible subjects/viewers;
- 5) it places the world picture into the situation of communication and reflects its dependence not only on its carrier/creator but also on the addressee/secondary interpreter;
- 6) it allows researchers to shift from a theoretical typology of pictures of the world (from analysis) to the description of a concrete fragment of reality as their compilation (to synthesis).

The author of the present paper finds the term *discourse picture* convenient, grounded and appropriate for further use in discourse research. All the above-mentioned characteristics and typologies of world pictures are integrated in this term. Thus, it can be defined as follows.

Discourse picture of reality is a unity of ideas about the world (a certain way to conceptualise the reality), characteristic for a concrete social/communicative phenomenon and reflected in the discourse of its subjects. Discourse picture has the following characteristics: *locality* (it reflects the way a fragment of reality functions), *systemic and structural nature* (it names and orders the elements of the interpreted fragment of reality and their relations), *operationality* (it sets behavioural models within the described fragment of reality), *social and situational conditionality* (it is limited to the communication situation).

Considering content, discourse picture of reality is multi-variative; it comprises a number of smaller discourse pictures as it simultaneously reflects the specifics of reality in many different contexts:

- 1) with the focus on the reflected reality – **discourse picture of subject-object relations** (corresponds to ideational context) – and with the focus on the reflected social relations – **discourse picture of subject-subject relations** (corresponds to interactional context);
- 2) with the observer's focus on the reality facts – **discourse picture of knowledge** (corresponds to gnoseological context) – and with the focus on the observer's being an involved and, thus, interested and estimating subject of relations – **discourse picture of attitudes** (corresponds to axiological context);

- 3) with the focus on the timeless prototypical level– *discourse picture of essential/intrinsic relations* fixed by cultural and historical tradition and language through universal concepts and categories of time, space, changes, reasons, destiny, number, etc. (corresponds to wide context) – and with the focus on the time-conscious situational level – *discourse picture of functional relations* reflecting specific features of each social group and individual interpreter (corresponds to narrow context).

To conclude, research aimed at a complete description of a discourse type should be directed to the reconstruction and explanation of the construction mechanisms for each of the presented discourse pictures. Thus, *discourse picture of reality* comes to be the key category of discourse analysis; it is operationalised with such discourse categories as discourse picture of subject-subject relations, discourse picture of subject-object relations, discourse picture of knowledge, discourse picture of attitudes, discourse picture of intrinsic relations and discourse picture of functional relations.

## References

- Devitt, A. J. Intertextuality in tax accounting: Generic, referential, and functional. In: Bazerman, C. and Paradis, J. G. (eds.) *Textual dynamics of the professions: Historical and contemporary studies of writing in professional communities*. University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, WI, 1991.
- Halliday, M. A. K. *An introduction to systemic functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold, 1994.
- Heidegger, M. The age of the world picture. In: *The question concerning technology and other essays*. Lovitt, W. (trans.). New York: Garland Publishing Inc., 1977.
- Leshchak, O. V. The theory of discourse - theories of discourse - theories of discourses: on the possibility of creation of particular linguistic theories. In: *Culture of the nations around the Black Sea*, 110 (1), 2007. 319–322.
- Widdowson, H. G. *Defining issues in English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2003.
- Попов, Ю. В. Трегубович, Т. П. Текст: структура и семантика. Минск: Выш. школа, 1984.
- Постовалова, В. И. Язык как деятельность. Опыт интерпретации концепции В. Гумбольдта. Москва: Наука, 1982.
- Погосова, К. О. Картина мира и ее виды. In: *Бюллетень Владикавказского института управления*, 17, 2006. 217–230.
- Серебренников, Б. А. (отв. ред.) *Роль человеческого фактора в языке: язык и картина мира*. Москва: Наука, 1988.
- Топоров, В. Н. О ритуале. Введение в проблематику. Архаический ритуал в фольклорных и раннелитературных памятниках. Москва: Гл. ред. вост. лит., 1988. 7–66.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. (ред.) *La Table Ronde: сб. материалов, 1. Дискурс в академическом пространстве*. Минск: Изд. центр БГУ, 2010. 22–23.
- Шкаратан, О. И. Сергеев, Н. В. Реальные группы: концептуализация и эмпирический расчет. In: *Общественные науки и современность*, 5, 2000. 33–45.

Darya Ostapenko

## Discourse theory and the problem of metatextuality: Translator's metatexts

The phenomenon of metatextuality was one of the mainstream issues in both Western and Eastern literary (D'haen, 1986; Genette, 1982; Lyotard, 1979; Bakhtin, 1986; Lotman, 1999; Tsyvyan, 1995), linguistic and translation (Nida, 2002; Nord, 2005; Wierzbicka, 1978; Kashkin, 2000, 2009, 2011; Popovič, 1980) studies within the last thirty years. However, this issue remains topical nowadays, which is primarily due to the ambiguous nature of the notion “metatext”.

### Metatexts and their classification

A *metatext* (from Greek *μετά* – after, following something; from Latin *textus* – tissue, structure) can be defined as a text about another text created as a result of the reaction to the latter. From the structural point of view, a metatext, as opposed to metatextual elements of utterances (Wierzbicka, 1978), retains all the characteristics of a text and is regarded as an autonomous, cohesive and coherent complex of linguistic signs. Metatexts are notable for their multi-functionality and are able to perform a number of functions, such as:

- an introductory function,
- a descriptive function,
- an analytical function,
- an explanatory function,
- an assessment function,
- a parodic function.

*Reontologisation of an object* refers to one of the most important metatextual characteristics (Ivanov, 2007: 43). It is a consequence of the explanatory function which is considered to be the leading one for any metatext. According to the main function, the author of the article proposes to classify metatexts into the following types:

- introductory metatexts,
- descriptive metatexts,
- analytical & assessment metatexts,
- commentary metatexts,
- parodic metatexts.

As far as the size and the position towards the *prototext* are concerned, metatexts can be also divided into two groups:

- metatexts which are included in the source text and, hence, are relatively small in size;
- metatexts which are excluded from the source text, which leads to a considerable increase in their size.

**Translator's metatext** is a specific form of transtextual relations. In this case the specificity of transtextual relations is determined in the first place by the fact that in the system of relations "source text - metatext" there appears a new element: "source text - translation - metatext". Translator's metatext is a text about the source or the target text, usually of an explanatory kind. There are two main differences between translator's metatexts and other metatext types: first, the authorship (which is quite obvious) and, second, their bidirectionality. Such bidirectionality implies that the translator's metatext deals with both author's and translator's communication.

When losses in translation are inevitable, translators often have to recourse to creating explanatory metatexts. In fact, communicating with the recipients of the target text in such a way the translator apologises, as it were, to them for not having completed the task – something has been left unspoken and under-translated. But, according to Zenkin,

"things which are the hardest to translate in a certain text are usually the least banal"<sup>6</sup> (Online 2).

For this reason, they deserve special attention. In addition, as Avtonomova (2009) states, any translation as "an analytical, synthetic, scientific and artistic act" (Avtonomova 2009: 145) needs to be carefully considered. In order to do this the translator should understand the author's intentions, "dip into the specific historical and cultural material" (ibid.), study the source text in detail, and choose a particular translation strategy based on the analytical work that has been done. All these steps can be reflected in a commentary metatext created by the translator.

Certainly, translator's metatexts are produced not only in regard to the source text as an explanation of some decisions that have been made by the translator but also in regard to the form and the content of the author's communication. Translator's commentaries quite often deal with culturally specific information which is found in the text, for example, proper names, culture-specific concepts, historical events, scientific phenomena, intertextual allusions, foreign words and expressions, etc.

<sup>6</sup> Here and elsewhere translated by D. Ostapenko.

## Foreword as a metatext: translator's role

*A foreword* is a type of translator's explanatory metatext. It is

"an introductory article of critical, textual, historical or other content which prefaces a book in order to give the reader some information" (Online 1)

needed for a better understanding of the text. A foreword can be written by the author of the text, a translator, an editor, or a publisher. When a foreword is written by the translator it is the result of the analytical work which follows the preparatory stage and the translation itself. A foreword can be described as a pre-text which is intended to prepare the recipient for understanding and interpreting the author's text.

Translator's foreword usually has a clear layout; it can contain a capsule biography of the author, a historical note on where, when and in which circumstances the work was created, an analysis of its genre peculiarities and the form of presentation, information about the early published works as well as the elements of literary criticism. For instance, "The Heart of the Hearts", a part of the collection "Children of England and Glory" (Children of England and glory, 2007), is devoted to the works of the XIX-century English poet Percy Bysshe Shelley and is prefaced by an introductory article "I feel the pain of the whole world" by Usova (Usova, 2007: 214–228). At the beginning of the foreword the translator provides the main facts of the poet's biography (ibid: 215–217): P. B. Shelley was born in 1792 in a family of hereditary aristocrats; surrounded by four sisters he spent his childhood in a quiet atmosphere. At the age of twelve he went to Eton, a prestigious private boarding school for boys, where he dedicated himself to reading serious classical and contemporary literature as well as to chemistry and physics. After graduating from Eton College the poet-to-be became a student of Oxford University and took a great interest in philosophy. Amid social and political events which took place in England at that time P. B. Shelley began

"to reflect upon life and death, the meaning of existence and social justice" (ibid: 216).

As a result, in March 1811 he published a short treatise "The necessity of atheism". Although P. B. Shelley himself held more agnostic views, he was expelled from the University for this tract. However, despite financial difficulties, he didn't return to his parents' house. He married Harriet Westbrook instead trying to save the young lady from her father's tyranny. At the end of 1811 they settled down in Keswick, a small town in the Lake District, where P. B. Shelley got acquainted with one of the Lake poets, R. Southey. In February 1812 P. B. Shelley together with his wife went to Ireland where

"he hoped to find a use for his energy helping the long-suffering Irish people to fight for independence from England" (ibid: 217).

In Ireland P. B. Shelley was actively involved in political rallies and was circulating his pamphlet "Address to the Irish people". However, he failed in his attempts to help the Irish people and had to come back to England.

Usova noted that this moment marked the prime of P. B. Shelley as a poet. In 1813 P. B. Shelley published a poem "Queen Mab" which is remarkable for its serious social and philosophical implication. In it he "showed the glaring contrasts of his epoch" (ibid.), which indeed made the Government indignant. The poet fell from grace, and the civil marriage with Mary Godwin who completely shared his freedom-loving views made the situation even worse. Together with his new wife and her stepsister Claire P. B. Shelley went on a trip around France, Italy, Germany and Holland, but they had to return to England quite soon due to the lack of money. In 1816 he created a poem "Alastor" which reflects his rueful feelings about his wanderings in poverty and hardship as well as the acknowledgment of his vain attempts to save the mankind.

The translator repeatedly highlights the connection between the poet's life and his works. For example, in the spring of 1816 P. B. Shelley, Mary and Claire went to Lake Geneva where they rented a house near the Villa Diodati occupied by the renowned D. G. Byron. The poets spent a lot of time together discussing philosophical and political issues. Having returned to England P. B. Shelley learnt that his first wife committed suicide. The poet's foes immediately put all the blame for this on him; moreover, after failing to take his children from their grandfather the poet was declared "a libertine and an atheist" (ibid.: 219). As a response to these events P. B. Shelley published a poem "The revolt of Islam" (1818) in which he argued against tyranny and oppression. Shortly after that he married Ms. Godwin, and they set off to Italy, "heaven for exiles" (ibid.: 220). In Italy P. B. Shelley created numerous large pieces of poetry, i. e. dramas "Prometheus unbound" (1820), "The Cenci" (1819), "Hellas" (1821), "Oedipus Tyrannus, or Swellfoot the Tyrant" (1820), poems "Epipsychidion" (1821), "Adonais" (1821), "The triumph of life" (unfinished) (ibid.).

In 1819 social and political tensions in England started growing again, and indeed the poet reacted to this situation with poetry. For instance, after the Peterloo massacre which led to the death of about 15,000 people fighting for the universal suffrage he published the following rhymes and poems: "England in 1819", "To the men of England", "Lines written during the Castlereagh administration", "The masque of anarchy", "Peter Bell the third". G. Usova observes that "The masque of anarchy" is characterized by "clear, lucid, aphoristic" language unusual for P. B. Shelley; the poet,

"who loved diverse stanza prosody and intricate rhyme so much, wrote this poem using clear trochaic quatrains where there rarely appears the fifth line" (ibid.: 221).

In the next part of the foreword the translator proceeds to analyse the main distinctive features of P. B. Shelley's poetry (ibid.: 222–223): his lyric works are notable for their special philosophical depth; being a Romantic poet he writes a lot about nature, but, unlike D. G. Byron, P. B. Shelley prefers describing calmness and tranquility to the raging storms. The poet emphasizes the unity of mankind and nature as well as pantheism in the understanding of nature. For P. B. Shelley a poet is

"now a lark flitting about in the blue clear sky and trilling in a beautiful musical way, and then he is at one with the furious western wind free from the burden of his time which weighs him down to the ground" (Usova, 2007: 223).

According to Usova (2007), P. B. Shelley's poetry was not very popular during his lifetime which was mainly due to its innovative character and complexity:

"owing to the dramatic tension he was not always able to use the language that was more accessible to the general public; his scenes abound with the elevated abstract imagery" (ibid. 2007: 221).

In Russia P. B. Shelley also remained unknown for quite a long time: the first Russian translations of his works (which, in fact, proved to be not so good) appeared only in the mid-XIX century. It can be well explained by the originality of P. B. Shelley's poetry, by

"its complex system of imagery which is hard for the translator to fathom at once, the deep meaning that every line is full of, the high significance of every word; furthermore, it is difficult to reproduce complex systems of stanza prosody and rhyme in another language" (ibid. 2007: 225).

P. B. Shelley's poetical works were translated into Russian by K. Balmont, B. Pasternak, S. Marshak, K. Chemen (the latter, as Usova (ibid.) admits, managed to understand P. B. Shelley's poetry to the greatest extent). Usova argues that

"the task to translate P. B. Shelley's poetry into Russian is immense and infinite" (ibid.: 226).

She sees her aim in making another translator's attempt rather than in suggesting some final ideal translation, since

"every translating poet tries to understand the works of their favourite poet by translating them into their native language knowing in advance that they will get only the relative truth" (ibid.).

In conclusion, translator's foreword is a type of a metatext and can be defined as an explanatory text which is created by the translator about the source text and is placed before the target text. A foreword together with other translator's metatexts, such as footnotes, endnotes, commentaries, etc., forms an additional information field around the target text facilitating it to enter another culture and ensuring its better understanding.

The translator also acquires an opportunity to explain their choice of the strategy and some certain decisions as well as to express their thoughts and feelings about the translation. However, when translating a particular text the translator should assess the necessity of creating an additional information field and identify its size.

## References

- D'Haen, T.* Postmodernism in American fiction and art. *In: Fokkema, D. and Bertens, H.* Approaching postmodernism. Amsterdam, 1986. 211–231.
- Nida, E.* Contexts in translating. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Co., 2002.
- Nord, Ch.* Text analysis in translation. Theory, methodology, and didactic applications of a model for translation-oriented text analysis. Amsterdam: Rodopi, 2005.
- Genette, G.* Palimpsestes: Le littérature au second degree. Paris: Éditions du Seuil, 1982.
- Lyotard, J. F.* La condition postmoderne: Rapport sur le savoir. Paris: Editions de Minuit, 1979.
- Автономова, Н. С.* Перевод как рефлексивный ресурс понимания *In: Скворцова, Л. В. (ред.)* Человек: образ и сущность. Гуманитарные аспекты. Москва, 2009. 139–162.
- Бахтин, М. М.* Эстетика словесного творчества. Москва: Искусство, 1986.
- Блейк, В.* Дети Англии и славы. Из поэзии английского романтизма. Санкт-Петербург: DEAN, 2007.
- Вежбицкая, А.* Метатекст в тексте. *In: Новое в зарубежной лингвистике* Лингвистика текста, 8, 1978. 402–424.
- Зенкин, С. Н.* Послесловие переводчика. Philosophy.ru <http://www.philosophy.ru/library/deleuze/02/deleuze9.html>
- Иванов, Н. В.* Интертекст – метатекст: культура, дискурс, язык *In: Языковые контексты: структура, коммуникация, дискурс.* Москва, 2007. 43–50.
- Кашкин, В. Б.* Метакогнитивные исследования перевода. *In: Университетское переводоведение, Фёдоровские чтения-10.* Санкт-Петербург, 2009. 230–242.
- Кашкин, В. Б.* Метакоммуникация в пространстве обыденного и научного познания. *In: Вестник Тверского гос. университета* Секция Филология. 1, 2011. 21–27.
- Кашкин, В. Б.* Повседневная философия языка и метаязыковая стратегия пользователя. *In: Актуальные проблемы языкознания и методики обучения иностранным языкам.* Воронеж, 2000. 94–95.
- Литературная энциклопедия. Akademik: (web-site). [http://dic.academic.ru/dic.nsf/enc\\_literature/](http://dic.academic.ru/dic.nsf/enc_literature/).
- Лотман, Ю. М.* Внутри мыслящих миров. Человек – текст – семиосфера – история. Москва: Языки русской культуры, 1999.
- Тичер, С.* Методы анализа текста и дискурса. Харьков: Гуманитарный центр, 2009.
- Попович, А.* Проблемы художественного перевода. Москва: Высшая школа, 1980.
- Цыван, Т. В.* О метапоэтическом в “Поэме без героя”. *In: Лотмановский сборник*, 1, 1995. 611–618.
- Усова, Г.* Боль всей земли бежит во мне. *In: Эстетика словесного творчества.* Москва: Искусство, 1986.

## Issue 2. Methodological constraints and applied nature of discourse linguistics

Maciej Karpiński

### Methodological constraints in discourse analysis

#### Introductory remarks and working definitions

Humans deal with the complexity of their environment extensively using mechanisms of categorisation and categorical perception. With the growing knowledge and experience, they start to cope with the (physical and mental) reality using previously acquired categories, becoming less and less flexible in the adaptation of their mental representations. Dealing with discourse is not very different. To survive, a discourse analyst must categorise phenomena and abstract from some of their natural properties. The difference is that, at least to a certain extent, scientific categorisation procedures and inventories of categories are consciously built on the basis of systematic studies. But some preconceptions are always involved and the danger of “subjectivity”, of “bias” is unavoidable. On the other hand, it may be useful to represent the results of research in terms which are available, comprehensible and useful to researchers.

The concepts of *discourse* and *discourse analysis* (henceforth DA) have been used and abused in many contexts. While they were probably never well defined, today they are extremely vague and obscure. DA is often depicted as grounded in social constructionism (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002) and strictly related to social studies. Social processes, including the process of communication, cannot be simply extracted from their environment are treated as “closed” or “finished”. Therefore, DA can hardly avoid subjectivity and it is to eternal approximation, never producing “final” or “definite” results. Fortunately, it can offer simplified but still useful models of discourse processes. Another difficulty in the methodology of DA comes from the fact that discourse studies are often concerned with and, sometimes simultaneously, underpinned with ideology and driven by current social or political issues (e.g., the fight for gender or race equality). In this context, it is not surprising that Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 2001; Wodak and Meyer, 2001) has earned much popularity but simultaneously it faces methodological problems.

DA is frequently viewed as multidisciplinary or interdisciplinary, methodologically heterogeneous studies (Graesser, Gernsbacher, and Goldman, 2003: 5-14). As it will be shown below, nowadays it involves corpus-based research and goes far beyond qualitative methods. It remains under a significant influence of psycholinguistics and cognitive science. It draws much on formal linguistics and modern semantics (e.g., dynamic semantics). Speech and language technology demands formalised, precise and computationally feasible discourse models which may be applied, for example, in speech recognition and understanding engines. But, in turn, it offers computer-supported techniques of data collection, processing and analysis which gain an increasing number of applications in DA. In the introduction to their book, Jaworski and Coupland (1999: 1–3) list ten significantly different definitions of discourse coming from influential authors in the field. The list starts with the widely known definition by Stubbs who understands discourse as “language above the sentence or above the clause” (Stubbs, 1983:1). There are also more elaborated definitions like the one by Brown and Yule (1983:26) who describe discourse as

“a dynamic process in which language was used as an instrument of communication in a context by a speaker or a writer to express meanings and achieve intentions [...]”.

In the present article, discourse is understood as the process of communication, involving some actors (not necessarily humans) and their environment (of which actors themselves are also a part). Such a definition embraces a very wide scope of phenomena (including “national discourse” or “social discourse”). This working definition bears resemblance to many commonly accepted ones. However, for the purpose of the present, selective overview, a more limited understanding of discourse will be adopted, including only more “graspable” communicative events that occupy relatively limited time and space, like, for example, a conversation between two or three persons.

The methods and techniques of DA are obviously determined by the particular aims of studies and the characteristics of the material under study. Jorgensen and Phillips declare that

“the aim of discourse analysis is to map out the processes in which we struggle about the way in which the meaning of signs is to be fixed, and the processes by which some fixations of meaning become so conventionalised that we think of them as natural” (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2005: 25-26).

They also note that

“the aim of discourse analysis is to extract other meanings from the material than those which are at the foreground” (ibid.: 189).

Before declaring a new approach and a different direction in her own article, Duszak (2009: 37) defines the focus of traditional discourse studies as “patterning in discourse structures” and „rationality and cooperation in discourse processing.” These as well as many other formulations leave a huge space for specific topics of individual studies and offers much “freedom” to researchers. It often leads to hazy and obscure definitions of the aims and means of studies.

In the present paper, the general aim of DA is understood as the reconstruction of discourse structure in terms of discourse entities and their mutual relations as well as their relations with the participants and discourse context.

Given all the variety of approaches to discourse and its study, one certainly cannot expect that the methods used by different analysts will be fully coherent, compatible and result in directly comparable results. Nevertheless, even in this huge collection of ways of doing DA some commonalities and tendencies can be found. In the present investigation, the practice of DA is depicted as involving two intervening activities: identifying the realisations of relevant discourse units (and their properties) and studying their mutual relations. This viewpoint is here extended and supplemented with some remarks on the properties of discourse data, the levels of analysis and the “direction of study” (top-down vs. bottom-up). Since the paper is not intended as an overview of entire DA methodology but just as a presentation of a certain perspective, many otherwise important issues are not covered here.

### **Discourse data: abundance and complexity**

DA often involves dealing with extremely rich, heterogeneous data. In order to explain a given communicational process or event, one is supposed to collect all the potentially relevant information about its spacial and temporal surrounding. The physical and mental states of the participants also play important roles and must not be underestimated. It is clear that the analyst is expected to collect much more than it has been traditionally understood as “linguistic data” and that many traditional methods and techniques of linguistic analysis will fail. Obviously, it is never possible to collect “all the potentially relevant data”. And even the data which can normally be gathered are difficult to cover and analyse because of their abundance and complex interdependencies.

While one cannot say that discourse analysts rejected the importance of prosody, voice quality, gesture or facial expression, these factors came into play in DA more seriously only when technological possibilities occurred. Sound recording was possible in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and first attempts to use film in the studies of interpersonal communication started as early as in the 1940s (Jones, 2011). But only in the seventies of the 20<sup>th</sup> century audio recorders became cheap and lightweight, and it took a dozen or so years

more to produce budget, portable camcorders of reasonable quality. Recording allowed researchers to create archives, for multiple close listening and visual scrutiny. Various kinds of signal analysis have become possible. With the access to audio recordings, one may systematically study prosody and voice quality as well as many segmental phonetic phenomena which can potentially influence the ultimate meaning of an utterance. Video recordings allow researchers to conduct the analysis of facial expression, gesture, posture as well as the relative positions of subjects.

Audio and video data collections as such, although may have a great value, in most cases facilitate only impressionistic studies. It may become much more valuable once coded. Coding is understood here as producing symbolic representations of discourse processes, possibly including salient external factors.

Corpus linguistics approaches may also be beneficial to facilitate the processes of data collection, coding and analysis. Some suggestions can be found, e.g. in (Baker 2006). Bednarek (2009) advocates for a three-pronged framework to the analysis of discourse which consists of large-scale computerised corpus analysis, semi-automated small-scale corpus analysis, and manual analysis of individual texts. Biber et al. (2007) outline seven major analytical steps that must be followed to obtain generalizable top-down corpus-based descriptions of discourse structure. They include

- 1) communicative or functional categories,
- 2) segmentation,
- 3) classification,
- 4) linguistic analysis of each unit,
- 5) linguistic description of discourse categories,
- 6) text structure,
- 7) discourse organisation tendencies.

### Coding

Even in the age of high technologies, “manual” transcription belongs to primary tools of spoken discourse analysts and it is often the starting point of discourse coding. It is usually aimed at representing the “verbal content”. Therefore, it is most frequently based on the writing system and spelling rules of a given native language. Such an approach, however, involves many arbitrary choices on one hand and neglects a huge number of important phenomena on the other. “Purely orthographic” transcription was quickly extended and supplemented with additional symbols and strategies of notation, e.g. (DuBois et al., 1993; Gumperz and Berenz, 1993). Some spelling and punctuation rules were rejected. For example, comas, full stops etc. are rarely used in their “original” func-

tion because it is impossible to objectively and consistently judge about the placement of these marks in transcribed utterances. Additional symbols were introduced to mark paralinguistic phenomena (like silent or filled pauses, smile, laughing, crying, shouting, etc.). In many cases, orthographic notation is replaced by phonetic or phonemic symbols to reflect more precisely the actual realisation of the utterance. However, since digital technology makes direct access to audio and video data so easy.

Transcription systems are designed to match the theoretical perspectives of their authors and the aims of planned studies (Ochs, 1979; Edwards, 1993, 2001). Even well-trained transcribers vary in their perception and understanding of communication-related phenomena. They may be influenced by any kind of personal experience more or less immediately preceding the transcription session. Many transcription decisions are cued by multiple and complex contextual factors. For example, the decision whether a silent pause should be tagged as “long” or “short” (or maybe of “middle-length”) may be influenced by the phonetic context (not only the preceding one), general speaking style and tempo, the length and frequency of neighbouring pauses, and many other factors. The procedure of “close listening” which is employed by many annotators may produce misleading results because, in this way, they perceive much more than an average participant of the communicative event under study. As a consequence, they may introduce too much “information noise” in the transcript which makes it difficult to read and analyse. This problem is related to the question whether of “emic” and “etic” (as defined by Pike) perspectives of study. In practice, such decisions largely depend on the aims of research and planned applications of its results. Stating that a silent pause took three seconds may be useful in some technological contexts but there may be situations where a comment that “it took ages” would be equally useful.

Coding may serve to cover many other phenomena besides the “lexical content” of utterances. Prosody, voice quality, gesture or facial expression should not be regarded as merely additions to the lexical-syntactic tier but systematically treated as natural components of utterances because of their influence on the resulting meaning. But these components are complex. For example, prosody is sometimes viewed as comprising two quasi-independent components – the linguistic and the non-linguistic one (Gussenhoven, 2003). One of the problems is how to practically distinguish them in actual utterances: how to determine the ranges of their influences on the final shape of melody. The existing methods of intonation tagging somehow reflect this fact. For example, Grabe (2004) proposes, besides the “linguistic”, phonological level of prosody annotation, an additional, phonetic one, to capture the phenomena that may be not considered as a part of the phonological system for intonation of a given language but still contributing to the meaning of an utterance and to intonational variation in dialects of English. Jassem (2002) suggests even more levels of analysis. Similar issues may be expected and encountered in other modalities and channels.

While phonetic transcription requires much training, gesture labelling may be much more painstaking and time-consuming. Gesturing may involve not only hands but also legs or the head moving simultaneously, and each movement may follow a complex trajectory. One approach is to base on one's intuition and experience, and try to identify movements as belonging to certain predefined categories. Such a procedure may save much time but it increases the degree of subjectivity and related problems. On the other hand, more "objective" and detailed systems, like, e.g., FORM (Martell, 2002), require incredible effort from transcribers. According to Kipp et al. (Kipp, Neff, and Albrecht, 2007), approximately one hour of work is needed to annotate three seconds of video material using this system. Multi-tier systems for multimodal discourse labelling may consist of plenty of independent or hierarchical tiers and, dividing annotations into independent tiers describing quasi-independent phenomena (e.g., movements of the left and the right arm) is often more convenient in further stages of various study (Karpiński et al., 2008). There are a number of free and commercial software tools which facilitate the process of coding, starting with *Praat* or *WaveSurfer* meant mainly for phonetic analysis and spoken utterance transcription, to *Elan* or *Anvil* which are the examples of excellent tools for multi-tier frame-by-frame multimodal annotation. Using automatic speech recognition (ASR) for phonemic transcription and motion capture systems (MoCap) has been initiated years ago but present solutions still have some significant limitations and machine-generated transcripts often have to be corrected by hand.

Coding does not end at the level of the most "immediate" components of utterances (like words, vocalisations, gestures). In most cases, discourse analysts need higher level representations and label the recordings in terms of, for example, speech acts, dialogue acts or dialogue turns. Many of these units do not correspond directly to categories of "physical actions" (words being said, gestures being performed) but rather of mental level entities (like intentions or obligations, e.g., (Kreutel and Matheson 2000, Grosz and Sidner 1986)). However, although they may be more abstract, the coding problems remain similar (e.g., the inventory of categories, their definitions, hierarchy, techniques of identification, their boundaries and possible overlaps). Coding may also cover relations between some entities and the hierarchical structure of discourse. These issues are briefly discussed also in the sections confessed to discourse chunking and identifying discourse relations.

### Bottom-up and top-down data collection

The process of data collection is driven by the aims of a given study and the theoretical perspective of the researcher. It may be influenced by many other factors. The same applies to coding. As a result, one often obtains a relatively selective and subjective symbolic representation of some discourse phenomena. This poses a methodological problem, namely, the result of analysis may more reflect the transcription or segmentation strategy

than some "actual" tendencies in the material under study. Such a danger is difficult if not impossible to avoid. Using extremely detailed and well-designed coding systems and technological support, one may achieve more coherent transcripts and avoid inter-labeller differences. On the other hand, the "human factor" may be lost then. Automatic coding should, therefore, involve some modelling of human perception processes so that machines could focus on perceptually salient phenomena. Looking at it from an even wider perspective, we perceive the world as humans and when we study it, we may want to see the results in terms of our perception and understanding possibilities.

### Context

A huge number of factors contribute to the process of communication. Even their general categorisations are often declared as tentative while it is certainly impossible to formulate their comprehensive, universal list. It is also difficult to decide in advance which of them should be mentioned in a description of a given communicative event and how they may influence it. Although the notion of *context* is omnipresent in discourse studies, few researchers succeeded to propose working methods of its identification and analysis. It seems to be used to refer to all these factors or components of the situation that somehow influence discourse and usually are not its active parties. Still, the boundary between what context is and what is not sometimes remains unclear.

Glanzberg (2002) offers a review of current ways of understanding and using the notion of context in DA with some references to the philosophical background. In his texts, van Dijk presents a cognitive view to context but also critically discusses some earlier approaches for e.g., (van Dijk, 1997, 1999, 2006, 2008). There is also a growing body of more formal or computational works confessed to context and its modelling, for e.g., (Bunt, 2000; Morante et. al., 2007).

There have been many attempts to identify, categorise and arrange (potential) components of context. Hymes (1972) offered his SPEAKING paradigm and Lewis (1972) designed his own categorisation which involved components like time, place, speaker, audience, indicated object, previous discourse and assignment (understood as infinite sets or sequences of things). Brown and Fraser (1979: 35) proposed a complex hierarchical scheme for arranging the components of *situation* that includes two main concepts: *scene* and *participants*. Still, even if some general frameworks are given, there are few cues in the literature of how identify, describe and analyse context. Among many other possibilities, one may consider studying the mechanisms of reference as they may signal relations between the text and external reality as well as their importance to the flow of conversation. A comprehensive review of these issues that covers also some problems of multimodal reference has been recently published by Kibrik (2011).

Another disputable issue is what actually is influenced by context. A number of targets may be taken into account, including the mental and physical states of the participants, their physical or “sensory” interactions, or more abstract variables like the “flow of discourse” (which may be, in turn, expressed in more concrete ones, like interruptions, overlaps, pausing, etc.). In any case, it is difficult to deny a two-way dependency. Not only certain „external factors” may shape discourse but also discourse may shape the “external reality”.

Context is dynamic. It changes over time as subsequent actions (including utterances) become “past” and are incorporated into it, modify it or are modified by it, for e.g., (Lewis, 2011). This implies a kind of incrementality – the growth of information in time and dynamic changes of meaning. One of possible approaches to this problem is dynamic semantics. On the grounds of linguistics, it was applied in, for example, Discourse Representation Theory (Kamp, 1981). It was criticized but further developed by Asher and Lascarides in their Segmented DRT by replacing the “append-based” definition of discourse update with more elaborate mechanisms based on rhetorical relations (Asher and Lascarides, 2003). Among other possible upgrades related to the dynamics in discourse models, one might suggest a dynamic weighting mechanism for possible factors and an extension which would account for their interactions.

As some of the important features of context are gradually incorporated into mental representations (or are already there), the representations themselves may be subject to many complex processes that may “form” or “influence” the picture of context from the perspective of discourse participants. On the other hand, some important contextual factors may not be incorporated in mental representations as their owners (interlocutors) do not realise their importance or even their existence.

### **Time and space as context**

Time – both the absolute and relative – plays a number of roles in discourse, some of them being rarely mentioned or studied. Discourse events are distributed over the time axis but their temporal boundaries are sometimes not very clear. Relative temporal distance from certain events may influence their contextual roles and potentially influence the process of communication. The temporal configuration of a set of events may influence the ways of their perception and understanding. But time is also used as a means of expression. A long silent pause may provide a planned, intended context for an important statement. Certainly, *time* as a dimension of discourse, has many other significant roles which are not directly “contextual” but may contribute to the mental or physical context. For humans, time means forgetting. Human discourse processing is, to a certain extent, incremental. Discourse participants accumulate, extend or enrich their mental representations of what

has been said and done. But developing representations, especially in real time, means abstracting from some facts that may become hardly available for recall.

Time is also a dimension for alignment. Some activities (e.g., speech and gestures) are normally somehow synchronised in order to build a coherent multimodal message. McNeill proposes (1992) three synchrony rules (see also (Kendon, 1972); for more recent studies, see, e.g. (Leonard and Cummins, 2009) or (Karpiński et al., 2008)). The parties of a communicative event also tend to mutually synchronise their behaviour in the process frequently referred to as (rhythmic) entrainment (Cummins, 2009). Lack of synchrony and peculiar features of entrainment may also be meaningful.

Communication takes place in the physical space. Even if the parties are isolated by a significant distance or cannot see each other, each of them occupies some space and makes use of it in his or her communicative behaviour. The mutual spatial location of interacting people may be of importance to the process of interaction (Kendon, 1990, 2010). Sitting on a higher chair may indicate a higher position in a group. Getting on one’s knees may mean humiliation or adoration. Turning back from one’s conversational partner may signal the end of dialogue. But there are much more subtle aspects of behaviour related to mutual position of the communicating parties.

### **Internal and external contextual factors**

Contextual factors may be traced in external, physical environment, but also in discourse participants themselves – both in the physical and mental sphere. Headache or a broken leg of a discourse participant may also act as strong contextual factors. Humans form representations of the world and approach it with certain preconceptions. Their minds also provide their own facts or filter the input due to the characteristics of their senses and the process of perception. The affective factor may be of high importance in many communicational situations. Both short-term emotions as well as long-term attitudes towards oneself, other participants of discourse or discussed topics may prove very influential and may change the flow of communication. Here, the boundary between context and non-context also becomes very difficult to draw.

### **Cutting discourse into pieces**

Analysts cut discourse into pieces in order to obtain items which would be relevant for the intended types of analysis and adequate for the nature of discourse data. As a consequence, discourse segmentation proposed in a given study depends mostly on the theoretical approach of its author and his or her aims. Mann and Thompson (1998) postulate that units of text in discourse study (specifically, for RST analysis) should be based on a theory-neutral classification is difficult to fulfil. The fundamental question

considers the nature of what is cut and the nature of the resulting segments. This is the question of the theoretical status of “discourse units” as well as the practical aspects of their applications. Discourse segmentation is sometimes literally understood as the segmentation of discourse transcripts (which are themselves results of earlier segmentation procedures, e.g., the division of the speech stream into realisations of words or phrases). However, the actual segmentation is usually done at more abstract levels and it can be only partially reflected in the orthographic or phonetic transcript. It means that some higher level discourse units are defined and used by analysts and looked for in the recording or transcripts.

There is a variety of discourse units that have been proposed so far and it is easy to notice that they cover a wide spectrum of sizes and levels of abstraction. For Benveniste, discourse as a whole may be regarded as a behavioural unit – a set of utterances (Benveniste, 1971: 208–209). Van Dijk (1981) proposes *episode* as a unit in discourse analysis. On the other hand, there are many reasons to define and apply much smaller and simpler units. Schauer and Hahn (2000) argue that prepositional phrases may serve as elementary discourse units. Degand and Simon (2005) suggest that minimal discourse units should be defined in terms of syntax and prosody. In principle, they accept and follow Selting’s definition of *Turn Constructional Unit* (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974) as

“the smallest interactionally relevant complete linguistic unit(s), in a given context, that is constructed with syntactic and prosodic resources within their semantic, pragmatic, activity-type-specific, and sequential [...] context” (Selting, 200: 477).

Polanyi defines *Discourse Constituent Unit* (DCU) as

“a contextually indexed representation of information conveyed by a semiotic gesture, asserting a single state of affairs or partial state of affairs in a discourse world” (Polanyi, 1995: 5)<sup>7</sup>.

Some units specifically designed for the analysis of dialogue (turns, exchanges, sequences, etc.) have been proposed. Traum and Heeman (1997) point to many weaknesses of “utterance units” applied in dialogue analysis and make an attempt to grasp this notion more firmly. In their recent work, Asher and his colleagues (2011) propose that there exist both “elementary discourse units” (EDU) and “complex discourse units” (CDU), the latter may comprise two or three EDUs but they may well be much larger. Schauer’s paper (2000), although not very recent, still gives an interesting picture of the entire process of computational modelling of discourse units, from elementary to complex ones. Segmented Discourse Representation Theory (SDRT) (Asher and Lascarides, 2003) comes with a concept of *Segmented Discourse Representation Structures* which are defined in

terms of nodes and labels of their representations which, in turn, stem from the rhetorical relations between constituents. One should also mention attempts of automatic segmentation of discourse based solely on the acoustic properties of the speech signal (e.g., pauses, pitch frequency, loudness). With large corpora of audio recordings such an approach may be reasonable for quantitative purposes if the error rate is under control.

### Linguistic entities and mental processes

One possible approach to discourse segmentation resolves itself in looking for entities in the stream of speech which are realisations of units present in the tradition of linguistic research (words, phrases, clues, sentences, and others) without any references to their reality. This approach is most probably somehow inspired by the idea of incorporating discourse analysis directly in the tradition of linguistic research in a possibly effortless way. But “linguistic units” like *syllable*, *word*, or *sentence*, are rarely clearly defined and some of them (like *sentence*) are largely useless in the analysis of spontaneous speech. Moreover, there is a question of well-formedness. For instance, is a mispronounced “actual word” still an acceptable realisation of the intended lexical unit? Is an ill-formed syntactic phrase still a syntactic phrase? How much flexibility is allowed in the identification and categorisation of the utterances and their components? These issues have very serious practical consequences in speech transcription and annotation. Therefore, more favoured are approaches based on different types of units. Analysts tend to focus on the mental phenomena and processes which are reflected in the flow of discourse, simultaneously being its “driving force.” It mostly refers to intentions and obligations, but also to the mechanism of attention. Grosz and Sidner (1986) claim that intentions of the speaker provide a basis for determining which utterances belong to one discourse segment. Litmann and Passoneau (1993) attempt to study empirically the relations between discourse segments and intentions. Speech Act Theory as well as later approaches based on the notion of *dialogue acts* do not operate, in principle, on the linguistic level. Most of them more or less overtly refer to intentions as well as some specific mental states and processes. Bunt defines *dialogue act* as

“the combination of a communicative function and a semantic content” (Bunt, 2000: 144).

However, in later works, *dialogue act* is also regarded as a behavioural unit described as

“a unit in the semantic description of communicative behaviour produced by a sender and directed at an addressee, specifying how the behaviour is intended to influence the context through understanding of the behaviour” (Bunt and Romary, 2002; Bunt, 2005).

*Dialogue act* is also defined as “the effect of an utterance on the context” (Popescu-Belis, 2005-2007: 5).

<sup>7</sup> In her later works, she also introduces Elementary DCUs; see, e.g. (Polanyi 2001).

However, intentions, as well as many other on-going mental processes, are impossible to be accessed as a subject of study in a direct way even with modern neuro-imaging techniques in hand. As a consequence, the process of analysis may involve circularity. Intentions are detected and identified on the basis of some behavioural cues (available in utterances) that are assumed to be manifestations of these intentions. Then, analysts consider that intentions were actually identified and describe their properties – but the properties of the identified intentions are actually the properties implicitly presupposed beforehand.

And the problem becomes even more serious when the fact that a single utterance may realise a number of functions is taken into account. One may hypothesise that various functions may be triggered by various (almost) simultaneous intentions or – taking a different approach – that intentions themselves may be not simple entities and one intentional process may involve a couple of different objectives or aims. Multi-tier labelling systems and annotation that involves hierarchical structures may also lead to problems. Popescu-Belis (2008) points out that one-dimensional systems may be computationally more convenient and efficient. He concludes his search for standards in dialogue act labelling by suggesting that new standards should not offer „ready-made” taxonomies but rather propose the best ways of designing them. In fact, in many studies which employed existing dialogue act taxonomies, the annotation schemes were adjusted to the aims of studies and to the specifics of the material.

### Vertical and horizontal division

Discourse is a multi-level process. One way to split it into tiers is distinguishing and separating its modalities or modality-related channels. Although the modal components of utterances (verbal component, prosodic component, facial expression, gestures, posture and more) tend to be coherent in conveying communicative intentions, they may work independently and, by some apparently “clashing” configurations produce, for example, the effect of irony. Researchers tend to transcribe gesture and speech independently in order to avoid inter-modal influences (e.g., visible gesture peaks may somehow bias or cue the perception of prominences in speech). But, while both speech and gestures can be read as conveying some independent messages, discourse analyst would be, in principle (i.e., with some obvious exceptions), interested in the ultimate meaning of the complete multimodal message.

Another approach to splitting discourse is based on the idea of multi-functionality. As it is widely agreed, each utterance may have a number of functions which are realised more or less simultaneously. Such an approach is promoted by Bunt and his colleagues in their DIT++ system of dialogue act labelling (Bunt, 2009), which occurred in many earlier works on dialogue acts. DIT++ is based on the Dynamic Interpretation Theory which was originally developed for information dialogues and drew on some other influential annotation systems, for e.g., DAMSL (Allen and Core, 1997). Bunt and his colleagues distinguish

*General Purpose Communicative Functions* (which may be applied to any kind of semantic content) and *Dimension-Specific Communicative Functions* (which include *Domain-Related Functions* and *Dialogue Control Functions*). The entire taxonomy is relatively complex and, in its recent versions, it has been extended with *Qualifiers* which can be attached to Communicative Functions to make them more specific (Petukhova and Bunt, 2010).

### Looking for discourse relations

Linguists have always been looking for relations in each and every sub-system of language but also between the text and the speaker (pragmalinguistics), between the linguistic behaviour and respective mental states (psycholinguistics) or social context (sociolinguistics). Text linguistics has put much effort in the study of relations between (or among) stretches of text. However, it gradually became clear that without taking extra-textual links into account, many analyses would fail. References to the “external reality” (including other texts) turn out to be indispensable for understanding of incoming messages. A question arises whether there are any relations inherent to the text itself. Different listeners may build different mental representations of a given text which means different ways of understanding. The same text may be produced as subjectively coherent by one person and perceived as incoherent by another. Therefore, coherence should be viewed as a process taking place in human mind, not as an objective property of a given sequence of utterances (Givón, 1995). Accordingly, discourse relations also may be defined as dynamic mental constructs or processes that occur in discourse production and understanding. Relations can be built, adjusted, cancelled or simply forgotten. They can be of different strength and importance, and of different consequences for discourse processing. Again, as it was in the case of discourse units, analysts work mostly on the level of mental processes, not directly with texts or linguistic units.

A relatively sparse approach is offered by Grosz and Sidner (1986) in their theory (Grosz and Sidner Theory, henceforth, GST) who stress two aspects of discourse: purpose and processing. They assume that three components must be taken into consideration to account for a variety of discourse phenomena: (a) linguistic structure, (b) intentional structure, and (c) attentional state. Discourse can be divided into discourse segments (DS) and each discourse segment has its purpose (DSP) which somehow contributes to the purpose of the entire discourse (DP). Only two structural relations between DSP are defined: *Dominance* and *Satisfaction-precedence*.

A much more complex system of relations is proposed by Mann and Thompson (1986) as a part of Rhetorical Structure Theory (henceforth, RST). Rhetorical relations are defined on pairs or sets of stretches of texts. Any non-overlapping stretches of a given text may be bound by a rhetorical relation. They do not have to be neighbouring (subsequent) nor of similar size or status (e.g., the title of a text can be related to its remaining part).

Since the units joined by relations may become new units for relations of higher order, RST analyses the result in hierarchical structures that are conventionally represented as trees. The inventory of relations is relatively rich but the set is declared as open.

Mann and Thompson frequently refer to *text spans* (defined as “uninterrupted interval of text”; (Mann and Thompson, 1987: 4)) as objects among which relations hold and which can function as *Nuclei* or *Satellites* in rhetorical relations. But the definitions of relations clearly show that they must refer to more abstract entities than texts (understood here as a sequence of written characters). For example, the following condition is included in the definition of JUSTIFY relation: *Reader’s comprehending Satellite increases Reader’s readiness to accept Writer’s right to present Nucleus*. Then, although the authors define their units on the “textual level”, the relations seem to refer to the mental states of the *Writer* and the *Reader*. In the GST the relations are explicitly defined as working on abstract “discourse segment purposes” (DSP) which are perhaps easier to associate with certain mental states or processes. Still, it seems that relations are defined on many levels which are not necessarily explicitly stated by researchers.

The differences in the sizes of inventories of relations may come from various grounds, from theoretical influences (e.g., the assumed level of analysis) to very practical requirements. As in the case of discourse units, large inventories may lead to lower inter-labeller coherence rates while smaller may offer representations lacking the required details. GST, with its two basic types of relations may lead to more coherent tagging but, on the other hand, the resulting representation would not be very detailed nor informative, especially without the source text in hand. One can hardly expect to obtain a unified, universal set of discourse relations. Hovy and Maier (1993) made an attempt to summarise and develop a taxonomy over four hundred relations proposed by a multidisciplinary group of researchers. On this basis, they managed to devise a hierarchy of approximately seventy relations. While this study gives a reasonable cue on the possible complexity of the system of discourse relations but it cannot be regarded as the final answer to the questions on their number and properties.

Another recurring problem is that the entities to be bound by relations are somehow defined by the nature of the relations themselves or, the other way round, the types of relations determine the nature of units they can cover. It is not surprising to witness attempts of showing that relation-focused approach is somehow equivalent to the unit-based one. The most important properties of object lie often in how they relate to other objects. It leads to the obvious conclusion that the analyst should use mutually compatible systems of discourse units and relations for a given study.

Similar or even more challenging problems may be faced by analysts who dare to look for other types of relations that may hold between entities of different nature, e.g., the

speaker and his or her utterances. The ways of defining them, their inventories, the entities they are meant to bind are on the top of the list.

## Conclusion

DA goes far beyond the boundaries of traditional linguistics. Moving from multi-disciplinarity to interdisciplinarity, DA methodology falls somewhere between impressionistic observations and more or less formal or experimental approaches. A number of „traditional” methods fail (Antaki et al., 2003) but new ones, imported from corpus linguistics or cognitive studies, still are used tentatively. Another factor that cannot be denied is a huge impact of technology. It allows for easy collection of high quality audio and video data, computer-supported transcription and tagging as well as an advanced statistical analysis. On the other hand, technology has its requirements and limitations, influencing discourse studies because researchers are usually ready to adjust their studies in order to use available technological support more extensively.

In the present article, the following major issues of DA methodology were addressed:

- It is impossible to underestimate the importance of appropriate data collection procedures. Although, as it was mentioned, even at this stage of research some preconceptions and hidden assumption may come into play, it is highly advisable to (at least) clearly describe and justify own paths and procedures as they may strongly influence the results of analysis.
- Coding is another crucial stage of the discourse study. It may involve many levels, from a possibly bias-free orthographic transcription to theory-driven tagging of units or relations or various types. Detailed, systematic and clear coding provides not only rich data for a computer-supported analysis but also ensures the verification of research results. Coding procedures (especially transcription) are sometimes regarded as merely “technical actions” while coding actually is a significant step towards analysis.
- Multimodal analysis of discourse is highly recommended, especially when face-to-face communication is considered. It is impossible to account for a huge number of phenomena in communication if one does not take into account all the modalities and channels involved in the process. Voice quality or facial expression may modify or completely change the meaning of any “verbal” message.
- Possibly precise definitions of basic notions, including discourse and discourse analysis themselves, may prove useful in further stages of many studies. “Working definitions”, tailored for a given study, are justified. While the question whether *discourse* is an objectively existing entity lies in hands of philosophers, linguists would be safer to treat it as an artificial concept, cease to argue about its definitions and accept the fact that in various research context different approaches may prove more efficient or useful.

- The level of analysis may range from physical to abstract (e.g., gestures can be described as body movements of certain trajectories but also as specific signs, speech can be studied in terms of its acoustic properties but also as a semantic message) and it is dependent on the theoretical motivation and the aims of the study. Sometimes it is reasonable to work on a number of levels simultaneously.
- The size of inventories of units or relations which may range from two relations in the GST to dozens in the RST, from three basic categories of speech acts (Austin, 1962) and five subcategories of illocutionary acts (Searle, 1975) in Speech Act Theory to dozens of dialogue act categories forming a relatively complex hierarchy in DIT++.
- The direction of analysis cannot hardly be declared and fixed because the top-down and bottom-up approaches mix and interact (as it happens in human language processing).
- DA goes beyond purely qualitative studies. It may learn much from corpus linguistics which becomes an increasingly influential approach in any kind of language study.
- Analysis and synthesis always intervene in DA, being as difficult to separate as the two directions of analysis. When discourse is divided into manageable bits for analysis, it is done only for the purpose of showing that they fit together. When discourse is reconstructed on the basis of certain representations, they probably must have been extracted from it in earlier stages of the study.
- The question of standards refers not only to tag sets and their applications but also to much earlier stages of research which involve experimental design or spontaneous communication data collection (recording). Standards in communication studies are frequently influenced by certain requirements of technology and especially important in technologically-oriented DA (for standards and best practice suggestion, see (Gibbon, 1997)).

This brief and selective overview still gives a picture of DA as an extremely rich and complex area of multidisciplinary studies. Going beyond impressionistic observations and theoretical speculations on abstract levels demands enormous research potential and effort. In most cases, only multidisciplinary research teams can make significant steps forward and achieve significant results. Given the complexity of the phenomena under study, it is customary to narrow down the scope of research, to select or control the components of communicative events, and to direct the flow of discourse. Nevertheless, in spite of all these conscious and purposeful or not fully realised limitations, research results will be gratifying as studying discourse means studying human nature.

### Acknowledgement

I would like to thank Prof. Władysław Zabrocki for helpful discussions as well as to my colleagues from DiaGest Research Group at the Centre for Speech and Language Processing AMU for our long-term collaboration which certainly influenced my perspective on discourse.

### References

- Allen, J. and Core, M. Draft of DAMSL: Dialog Act Markup in Several Layers. 1997. <https://www.cs.rochester.edu/research/speech/damsl/RevisedManual/>
- Antaki, C., Billig, M., Edwards, D., and Potter, J. Discourse Analysis Means Doing Analysis: A Critique Of Six Analytic Shortcomings. *In: Discourse Analysis Online*, 1 (1), 2003.
- Asher, N. and Lascarides, A. *Logics of Conversation*. Cambridge: CUP. 2003.
- Asher, N., Venant, A., Muller, P., and Afantenos, S. Complex discourse units and their semantics. *Proceedings of Constraints in Discourse Workshop 2011, Agay, France*. 2011.
- Austin, J. L. *How to Do Things With Words*. Cambridge (Mass.): Harvard University Press, 2nd edition. 2005.
- Baker, P. *Using corpora in discourse analysis*. London – New York: Continuum. 2006.
- Bednarek, M. Corpora and discourse: a three-pronged approach to analyzing linguistic data. *In: Haugh, M., Burridge, K., Mulder, J. and Peters, P. (eds.) Selected proceedings of the 2008 HCSNet workshop on designing the Australian National Corpus: Mustering languages*. Cascadilla Proceedings Project, Somerville, MA. 2009.
- Brown, P. and Fraser, C. Speech as a marker of situation. *In: Scherer, K. R. and Giles, H. (eds.) Social markers in speech*. Cambridge: CUP. 1979. 33–62.
- Bunt, H. C. Dialogue pragmatics and context specification. *In: H. C. Bunt and W. J. Black (eds.) Computational pragmatics, abduction, belief and context*. *Studies in Computational Pragmatics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 2000. 81–150.
- Bunt, H. C. and Girard, Y. Designing an open, multidimensional dialogue act taxonomy. *In: Gardent, C. and Gaiffe, B. (eds.) DIALOR'05: Proceedings of the 9th International workshop on the semantics and pragmatics of dialogue*. Nancy, 2005.
- Bunt, H. C. A framework for dialogue act specification. *In: Proceedings of the Fourth ACL/SIGSEM working group on representation of multimodal semantic information*. Tilburg, 2005.
- Bunt, H. C. The DIT++ taxonomy for functional dialogue markup. *In: Proceedings of EDAML/AAMAS, workshop towards a standard markup language for embodied dialogue acts*, 2009. 13–24.
- Conrad, S. Corpus linguistic approaches to discourse analysis. *In: Ann. Rev. of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 2002. 75–95.
- Cummins, F. Rhythm as entrainment: The case of synchronous speech. *In: Journal of Phonetics*, 37 (1), 2009. 16–28.
- Degand, L. and Simon, A. C. Minimal discourse units: Can we define them, and why should we? *In: Aurnague, M., Bras, M., Le Draoulec, A., and Vieu, L. (eds.) Proceedings of SEM-05. Connectors, discourse framing and discourse structure: from corpus-based and experimental analyses to discourse theories*. Biarritz, 2005. 65–74.
- Dijk, T. A. van Introduction: levels and dimensions of discourse analysis. *In: Handbook of discourse analysis*, 2, 1985. 1–11.
- Dijk, T. A. van Cognitive context models and discourse. *In: Event London 1, Faucormier*. 1997(1985). 189–226.

- Dijk, T. A. van* Context models in discourse processing. *In: The construction of mental representations during reading.* L. Erlbaum Associates, 1999. 123–148.
- Dijk, T. A. van* Discourse, context and cognition. *In: Discourse Studies*, 8 (1), 2006. 159–177.
- Dijk, T. A. van* Discourse and Context: A socio-cognitive approach. Cambridge: CUP, 2008.
- Dijk, T. A. van* Episodes as units of discourse analysis. *In: Tannen, D. (ed.) Analyzing discourse: text and talk.* Georgetown: Georgetown University Press, 1981. 177–195.
- Du Bois, J. W., Schuetze-Coburn, S., Cumming, S., and Paolino, D.* Outline of discourse transcription. *In: Edwards, J. A. and Lampert, M. D. (eds.) Talking Data: Transcription and coding in discourse research.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1993. 45–89.
- Edwards, J. A.* Principles and contrasting systems of discourse transcription. *In: Edwards, J. A. and Lampert, M. D. (eds.) Talking Data: transcription and coding in discourse research.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1993. 3–31.
- Edwards, J. A.* The transcription of discourse. *In: Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., and Hamilton, H. E. (eds.) Handbook of discourse analysis.* Oxford: Blackwell, 2001.
- Fairclough, N.* Language and power. Longman, 2001.
- Gibbon, D., Moore, R., and Winski, R. (eds.)* Handbook of standards and resources for spoken language systems. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 1997.
- Givón, T.* Coherence in mind vs. coherence in text. *In: Gernsbacher, M. A. and Givón, T. (eds.) Coherence in Spontaneous Text.* Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing, 1995. 9–116.
- Glanzberg, M.* Context and Discourse. *In: Mind and Language*, 17 (4), 2002. 333–375.
- Grabe, E.* Intonational variation in urban dialects of English spoken in the British Isles. *In: Gilles, P. and Peters, J. (eds.) Regional variation in intonation.* Tuebingen: Niemeyer, 2004. 9–31.
- Greasser, A. C., Gernsbacher, M. A., and Goldman, S.* Handbook of discourse processes. Mahwah – London: Lawrence-Erlbaum Associates Publishers, 2003.
- Grosz, B. and Sidner, C.* Attention, intention and the structure of discourse. *In: Computational Linguistics*, 12(3), 1986. 175–204.
- Gumperz, J. J. and Berenz, N. B.* Transcribing conversational exchanges. *In: Edwards, J. A. and Lampert, M. D. (eds.) Talking Data: Transcription and coding in discourse research.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1993. 91–121.
- Gussenhoven, C.* The Phonology of Tone and Intonation. Cambridge: CUP, 2004.
- Hovy, E. H. and Maier, E.* Parsimonious or Profligate: How Many and Which Discourse Structure Relations? 1993. (Unpublished manuscript available at [www.isi.edu/natural-language/people/hovy/papers/93discproc.pdf](http://www.isi.edu/natural-language/people/hovy/papers/93discproc.pdf)).
- Hymes, D.* Models of the interaction of language and social life. *In: Gumperz, J. and Hymes, D. (eds.) Directions in sociolinguistics: The ethnography of communication.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1972.
- Jassem, W.* Classification and organization of data in intonation research. *In: Braun, A. and Masthoff, H. R. (eds.) Phonetics and its applications. Festschrift for Jens-Peter Köster.* Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner Verlag, 2002. 289–297.
- Jaworski, A. and Coupland, N. (eds.)* The discourse reader. London: Routledge. 1999.
- Jones, R.* Data collection and transcription in discourse analysis: A technological history. *In: Hyland, K. and Paltridge, B. (eds.) Companion to discourse analysis.* London: Continuum, 2011.
- Kamp, H.* A theory of truth and semantic representation. *In: Groenendijk, J., Janssen, T., and Stokhof, M. (eds.) Formal methods in the study of language.* Amsterdam: Mathematisch Centrum, 1981. 277–322.
- Karpiński, M.* From speech and gestures to dialogue acts. *In: Esposito, A., Hussain, A., Marinaro, M., and Martone, R. (eds.) Multimodal Signals: Cognitive and Algorithmic Issues.* Berlin – Heidelberg, Springer-Verlag, LNAI5398, 2009.
- Karpiński, M., Jarmołowicz-Nowikow, E., and Malisz, Z.* Aspects of gestural and prosodic structure of multimodal utterances in Polish task-oriented dialogues. *In: Demenko, G., Jassem, K., and Szpakowicz, St. (eds.) Speech and Language Technology, Vol. 11.* Poznań: Polish Phonetic Association, 2009.
- Kendon, A.* Conducting interaction: Patterns of behavior in focused encounters. Cambridge: CUP, 1990.
- Kendon, A.* Spacing and orientation in co-present interaction. Lecture notes in computer science. *In: Core, J. and Allen, M. Draft of DAMSL15,* 2010. 59–67.
- Kendon, A.* Some relationships between body motion and speech. *In: Seigman, A. and Pope, B. (eds.) Studies in Dyadic Communication.* Elmsford, New York: Pergamon Press, 1972. 177–216.
- Kibrik, J.* Reference in discourse. Oxford: OUP, 2011.
- Kipp, M., Neff, M., and Albrecht, I.* An annotation scheme for conversational gestures : How to economically capture timing and form (pre-print). *In: Journal on Language Resources and Evaluation - Special Issue on Multimodal Corpora*, 47, 2007. 3–4, 325–339.
- Kreutel, J. and Matheson, C.* Information states, obligations and intentional structure in dialogue modelling. *In: Proceedings of the 3rd International workshop on Human-Computer conversation.* Bellagio, 2000.
- Leonard, T. and Cummins, F.* Temporal alignment of gesture and speech. *In: Proceedings of GESPIN – Gesture & Speech In Interaction,* Poznan, Poland, 2009. 24–26.
- Lewis, K. S.* Understanding dynamic discourse (PhD Thesis, unpublished). New Brunswick, New Jersey, 2011.
- Mann, W. C. and Thompson, S. A.* Rhetorical structure theory: Toward a functional theory of text organization. *In: Text*, 8 (3), 1988. 243–281.
- McNeill, D.* Hand and Mind. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1992.
- Morante, R., Keizer, S., and Bunt, H. C.* A dialogue act based model for context updating. *In: Proceedings of the eleventh international conference on the semantics and pragmatics of dialogue (DECALOG 2007, Trento).* Italy, 2007. 9–16.
- Ochs, E.* Transcription as theory. *In: Ochs, E. and Schieffelin, B. (eds.) Developmental pragmatics.* New York: Academic Press, 1979. 43–72.
- Passoneau, R. and Litman, D. J.* Intention-based segmentation: Human reliability and correlation with linguistic cues. *In: Proceedings of the 31st meeting of the association for computational linguistics.* Columbus, 1993. 148 – 155.

- Petukhova, V. and Bunt, H. Introducing communicative function qualifiers. In: Proceedings of ICGL 2010, Second International conference on global interoperability for language resources. Hong Kong, 2010.
- Polanyi, L. The linguistic structure of discourse. In: Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., Hamilton, H. (eds.) The handbook of discourse analysis. Oxford: Blackwell, 2001. 265 – 281.
- Polanyi, L. The linguistic structure of discourse. In: Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., and Hamilton, H. E. (eds.) Handbook of discourse analysis, 2001. 265–281.
- Popescu-Belis, A. Dialogue acts: one or more dimensions? In: ISSCO Working paper, 62, 2005-2007.
- Popescu-Belis, A. Dimensionality of dialogue act tagsets: An empirical analysis of large corpora. In: Language resources and evaluation, 42 (1), 2008. 99–107.
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E. A. and Jefferson, G. A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. In: Language, 50, 1974. 696–735
- Schauer, H. and Hahn, U. Phrases as carriers of coherence relations. In: Proceedings of the 22nd annual meeting of the cognitive science society, 2000. 429–434.
- Schauer, H. From elementary discourse units to complex ones. In: Proceedings of the 1<sup>st</sup> SIGDial Workshop. Hong-Kong, 2000.
- Searle, J. Indirect speech acts. In: Cole, P. and Morgan, J. L. (eds.) Syntax and semantics, 3, Speech Acts. New York: Academic Press, 1975. 59–82.
- Selting, M. The construction of units in conversational talk. In: Language in society, 29 (4), 2000. 477–517.
- Stubbs, M. Discourse Analysis. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983.
- Traum, D. and Heeman, P. Utterance units in spoken dialogue. In: Maier, E., Mast, M., and LuperFoy, S. (eds.) Dialogue processing in spoken language systems: Lecture notes in artificial intelligence. Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag, 1997. 125–140.
- Upton, T. A. and Cohen, M. A. An approach to corpus-based discourse analysis: The move analysis as example. In: Discourse Studies, 11 (5), 2009. 585–605.
- Wodak, R. and Meyer, M. Methods of critical discourse analysis. London: Sage Publications, 2001.
- Karpiński, M., Jarmołowicz-Nowikow, E., Malisz, Z., Szczyszek, M., and Juszczyk, J. Rejestracja, transkrypcja i tagowanie mowy oraz gestów w narracji dzieci i dorosłych (Recording, transcription and tagging of speech and gestures in child and adult narration). In: Investigationes Linguisticae, XVI. 2008.
- Karpiński, M. Struktura i intonacja polskiego dialogu zadaniowego (Structure and Intonation of Polish Task-oriented Dialogues). Poznań: Wydawnictwo Naukowe UAM, 2006.

Natalia Badiyan-Siekierzycka

## Theoretical approaches on national identity construction

### Introduction

National identity is the sense of belonging to the same community or nation which possesses unique distinctive features such as common culture, traditions, customs, language, economy, civic and legal systems which differentiates it from other communities. Identity building process performs *including* and, at the same time, *excluding* functions. While including, the incorporation of the same values and norms of identifier or 'Us' takes place. While excluding, there is a process of elimination of identified 'Other'. The 'Other' can possess both negative features or implications considered to be marginalization, something beyond and outside and also positive ones associated with the distinction, privileged position, etc. The goal of the article is to research how the national identity is constructed, what mechanisms take part in this process. At the first part of the article we analyze how the national identity and nation are seen by the researches. According to Bourdieu (1990), national identity forms on the base of habit or habitus. Snow (2001) understands national identity in terms of collective identity as well as individual and social identity. Anderson (1991) sees nations as imagined communities. He as well as Martin (1995) perceive national identity as opposition of 'we' and 'other'. Anderson (1995) considers national identity to be determined by memory. Nora (1998) and Halbwachs (1979) also perceive national identity as to be strictly connected with memory. Deutsch (1969), Kłoskowska (1996) and Hall (1994) underline the significance of culture in the process of national identity formation. Kedourie (1961) and Jelonek (2011) see the relationship between national identity and nationalism.

In the second part of the article we analyze national identity construction, taking as an example the formation of Albanian national identity. In our analysis we study national identity based on its markers such as 'myth' and 'textuality'. Analyses of texts and narratives on national identity discourse embraces linguistics, sociology, psychology, semiotics and other branches. It allows the researchers to demonstrate how texts and narratives influence the process of national identity formation (in our case – Albanian one). The authors of these texts due to their structures try to send some meanings using *cohesive* and *coherent* narrative structures, categories and concepts marked by certain intentions (*intentionality*), concerning certain situations (*situationality*) and presenting some new aspects about known facts (*informativity*) as well as the addressees who understand the message content and see its *situational* and *intertextual* connection, invoking a certain behaviour and provoking to action. National identity discourse evokes various emotions, both positive and negative, which has an important meaning in the process of national identity formation. It is always formed in opposition of 'self' to 'other'.

We base our research on the texts such as *Invention of a Nationalism: Myth and Amnesia* by Misha (2002), *Myths of Albanian National Identity: Some Key Elements* by Malcolm (2002), *Mehmet Bey Konitza* by Noli (1918) and *Past and Present Conditions of Albania* by Çekrezi (1919).

### Theoretical considerations behind national identity

National identity seen as *habitus*. National identity is a complicated concept which can be viewed from many different dimensions. Thus, every researcher defines it from different perspectives. For instance, Bourdieu (1990 : 53-55) sees national identity as a kind of a *habitus* (*habitus*). According to his *theory of habitus*, people feel belonging to a particular nation as a result of learning and habit. At the same time, they are open to changes and reconstruction through educational practice. *Habitus* is a set of common ideas, concepts shared by the members of a particular community. These ideas and concepts are practiced in the course of national socialization. So, in this case we can speak about *national habitus*. *National habitus* is connected with stereotypes regarding other nations, traditions, history, culture etc. It is not stable, it can be constantly changed. So education is used to form or to habituate national identity. It is also characterized by behavioral dispositions. They include emotional attitudes regarding common community and solidarity with members of the same national group or 'in-group' as well as towards other nations or 'out-groups'. 'Others' belonging to these 'out-groups' are excluded from this particular collective community.

According to Snow (2001) national identity should be investigated through the prism of *collective identity*. Collective identity exists together with individual and social identities. Social identities manifest themselves through the attempt to locate 'others' in the social space. The concept '*collective identities*' can be referred to the idea according to which a certain group of people legitimates the basic similarity between them to be a reason for feeling solidarity within this group. In this meaning the collective identity is a social construct, which means that it appears to be intentional or accessory consequence of social interactions. It allows to differentiate between 'we' and 'others'. It is indicated by the fact that people identify within the groups in which they are situated.

**Nation as imagined community.** The concept of national identity is strictly connected with the concept of nation. Nation is a community of people which have common culture, traditions and customs, often language. Nation underlines a particular group of people belonging to the same ethnicity and usually having common pedigree.

Anderson (1991: 6-7) calls nations '*imagined communities*'. He asserts that members of a particular nation, be it even the smallest, do not know the majority of its inhabitants. Nevertheless, they are convinced to be the part of a particular nation. According to the

author, *imagined communities* are limited by boundaries as even the biggest community inhabiting the largest terrain always remains limited. This limitation is caused by geographical boundaries as well as mental conviction of its members about their belonging to that particular place and national community. None of the nation imagines itself as the whole humankind. So, even the most nationalistic community will not strive to make that every human being will belong to it. It will rather strive to place its members instead of the members of other national communities in order to unify its own nation.

**'We' and 'others'.** National identity is constructed on the basis of inclusions and exclusions taking into consideration nationality, citizenship and history. Anderson believes that nation is an '*imagined community*' which can be only understood through the lens of power, ideology history and language (1991: 13). National identity always undergoes transformations, progressions in the course of historical changes and experiences which are intersected, complemented, produced, reproduced and transformed through different cultures. Internal cohesion of the nation results from its certain separation by the government which independently administrates the territory defined by the state boundaries. Within its territory, a state creates the rules defining who can be its citizen or 'ours' and who will be treated as stranger or 'other'. So it is a classical division 'we' and 'others'.

One of the most important things in the discursive construction of national identity is its strict relationship with the existence or rather intended construction of differences underlining own uniqueness. Within one national identity there is identifier and identified. According to Martin (1995: 6) one identity is unique and homogeneous but it always should be defined by opposition to other identities. The members of the same group or national community identify themselves as '*self*' at the same time as the members of other national communities are identified as '*others*'. As national identity is inseparably connected with the notion of '*other*' it is also defined and determined by the '*other*'.

**National identity and memory.** The construction of national identity is based on a common history, and history is always strictly connected with memory. Anderson (1995) asserts that monuments and graves of unknown soldiers are the most important cultural symbols of a nation. They have a lot of meanings and memorialize the most important events in the history of a certain nation. They help members of a particular nation to remember their history and embed their national identity. As in the graves of the unknown soldiers there are usually no human bones, Anderson (ibid.) calls them national imaginations. As a result many different people have such graves and they do not even find the need to define the nationality of those who do not rest there. National imaginations have close relationship with religious imaginations, which indicates the nationalism being rooted in death. Besides their role in the legitimizing certain dominion systems traditional religious word-views provided an excellent contribution through

taking into consideration the problem of a human being and space, its sense and meaning. Stability of these religions (Christianity, Buddhism, Islam) during thousands of years indicates their effective answers touching human imagination. They give response to such questions as sins of human existence, diseases, suffering, senescence and finally death. This differentiates religions from the majority of evolutionary and progressive ways of thinking which do not have any answer to the questions regarding the sense of human existence. The religion tries to answer these questions (Anderson, 1995: 13).

Nora (1998: 7) sees '*memory place*' which is based on the symbolic meaning of cultural events for constructing communitive identities. According to Nora (ibid.), history of the second range is opposite to the history of the first range reconstructing collective consciousness. This perspective means putting an end to positivist factography, event history and linearity and turning towards symbolic space, asserting collective imaginations and popular culture, analysis of the methods of using and functioning of the past for actual needs. As a consequence of this approach the assumption about inseparable relationship between memory and collective identity. Collective memory crystallizes national identity. Halbwachs (1979: 4) turns his attention to the concept of memory. He asserts that memory is a social phenomenon and we cannot speak about individual memory excluding it from the collective context. Human being collects memories, recognizes and locates them being in a community. Contrary to Freud (1910), Halbwachs (1979) does not intend to consider memory only in psychological context. He argues that remembrance is a social activity framed within memory which unifies our way of thinking and due to which there is a reconstruction of the past. Halbwachs (ibid.) asserts that historical continuity is included into collective memory by means of specific elements which can be recalled from the historical memory.

**National identity and culture.** Deutch (1969: 21) proposes the following understanding of a nation. He conceptualises the nation as a „community for which sake the members have given a part of its loyalty from the other communities (family, local community) after the preliminary process of their demobilization or automation. The nation for Deutsch (ibid.) means the orderliness of a large quantity of the units from the lower social classes and the middle class within the main social groups by means of the channels of social communications and economic discourse. He concentrates the cultural approach of the nationality theory on the nation seen as a product of historical processes. Deutsch (ibid.) notes that in various times and places the emphasis is placed on such aspects as: culture, language, religion, common experience, while preserving the significance of distinction coming from ethnic and racial divisions. However, the link between the nation and culture is salient if the culture can be used in the classless alliance which is necessary to construct a nation. The last is a building material to create a national state. The main part of Deutsch's theory is communication based on undertaking of negotiation, discussion and conversations leading to a complex goal as well as to the information exchange regarding a wide range of problems (1953: 101)

Kłoskowska (1996: 24) asserts that a nation, contrary to a state, is a social community with the nature of cultural community. *National culture* is understood by the scholar as a part of a cultural universe and a cultural universe in her opinion is an accumulation of universal human symbolic systems such as language, art, literature, knowledge and science, religion, customs and traditions. Forming of a cultural universe is conditioned by the mechanisms appearing from species abilities of a human being to create symbolic systems. Forming and functioning of *national cultures* is connected with a process of high lighting of certain parts of this universe being a culture which is appropriate for a given group, which allows its members to differentiate from other groups having different cultures. Thus *national culture* is a certain part among the set of 'all languages' and/or a part of customs considered to be '*own*' among the set of 'all past and present traditions' (ibid.).

Hall (1994: 200–205) underlines the significance of culture in the construction of national identity. Nation is not only a political construct but it is also a '*system of cultural representation*'. *Imagined community* can be interpreted by means of these cultural representations. The members of a national community besides law and civic prescriptions are exposed as well as actively anticipate in the construction process of national identity and nation being represented in their national culture. According to Hall (ibid.), the nation is a symbolic or *imagined community* which has been discursively constructed. *National culture* is a discourse by means of which meanings organizing the perceptions and activities of the members of a certain nation are constructed. *National culture* anticipates in the process of construction of national identity creating notions of the nation with which its members can identify themselves. Meanings of nations are seen in stories as well as in memories which connect its present to its past. Hall (ibid.) claims that the main goal of those who create the national identity and the national culture is to tie the members within a particular national state and to promote their identification with a *national culture*. In other words, the national state and culture have become identical.

**National identity and nationalism.** Inherent part of national identity is *nationalism*. Kedouire (1961: 29) states that nationalism is a doctrine accepting the necessity of organizing the people within the realm of nation-states Albania due to its isolate geographical position and consequently specific state-organizing conditions did not form the unitary until the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century<sup>8</sup>. Having gained fragile independence Albania tries to create the nation and its self-identity and to establish its state on the basis of national identity unifying the people belonging to different ethnic and religious groups. Thus, according to this definition nation is understood as transfer of sovereignty to the culturally, socially, politically and economically united people. The main aims of national self-identity and nationalism is the creation of a natural culture, the system of common values. It is also oriented on the creation of national economy.

<sup>8</sup> Albania gained its independence in 1912 when it was declared to separate from the Ottoman Empire.

Jelonek (2011: 9) understands the nation as a product of historical processes. He underlines that nationalism is also historically formed. The nation and nationalism are related to the idea of independent or constructed community which substituted or appeared on the basis of other previous community forms and which can transform into another form of community entity in the future.

### Construction of Albanian national identity: Case study

According to Smith (1986: 27) the formation of national identity is based on 'objective' and 'subjective' elements. The objective elements are shared by all members of the same nation. They include symbols, common culture and history, national myths, often language and ethnicity, common values, traditions and norms. The subjective elements of national identity are defined as the subjective indication of the incorporating process of the objective elements. National identity determines social identity, religious and ethnic as well as regional identities.

Smith (1991: 11) talks about 'Western' and 'Non-Western' model of nation and national identity construction. The standard components of the Western model of the nation and national identity are historic territory, legal equality of members, common culture, civic ideology and a legal community. Outside the West there is quite a different model of nation and national identity, for example in the Balkans. 'Non-Western' type of national identity is based on native, vernacular culture and original ethnicity. Contrary to the 'Western' concept, the 'Non-Western' concept does not allow the community to choose to which nation one can belong to or which national identity one can take. The member of a community in case of his/her emigration or moving to another community remains a member of the community where he or she (or his/her ancestors) were born. Thus, the nation in this case means, first of all, a community of a common background and a common ethnicity.

In our research on construction of national identity, taking a particular interest in the Albanian case, we use Smith's approach of differentiating 'Western' and 'Non-Western' types of identity building. This model of constructing national identity based on ethnicity has several characteristics. One of its main and the most obvious facets is a significant importance attached to descent. The main idea in this conception is to find and back up its genealogies rooted, in most cases fictive, common descent. Thus, all members of this nation have close ties and this is what differentiates them from others. The intellectuals of this or that nation, for example in the Balkans, try to trace the ancestry and to improve an ancient background using supposedly scientific theories for this aim.

Searching for ancient background. To prove an ancient origin of their nation Albanian intellectualists and nationalist leaders tried to use some theories regarding the origin of Albania. They had to establish a national identity derived from the people of distant

antiquity. In the beginning, Albanian nationalist intellectuals and leaders chose the Pelasgians for the role of the forefathers of the Albanian people. But in the course of time the Pelasgian theory of origin was swapped by the theory where the Albanians had Illyrian origin. The Illyrian theory of origin quickly became one of the main pillars of Albanian nationalism. An important fact of this theory was that it proved constant Albanian presence both in Kosovo and in southern Albania. These areas were subjected to ethnic conflicts between Serbs, Albanians and Greeks (Malcolm, 2002: 77–79). Noli asserts that

“The Albanians are the only lawful owners of Albania. They had possessed that land from time immemorial, long before the Greeks and Slavs came into the Balkan Peninsula” (Noli, 1916: 4–6).

Sekrezi underlines that Illyrian-Albanian origin of Alexander the Great cannot be called into question, thus, underlining the influence and significance of 'Albanian', not 'Hellene'. These theories or rather *mythologised narratives* were used to back up the idea that Albanians were perhaps the only autochthonous nation in the Balkans. They also proved that Albanian folk has been living there longer than all of other Balkan nations (Misha, 2002: 41).

Smith (1991: 12) states that in this ethnic-based model of national identity construction the priority is given to the descent rather than to a territory. However, researching national identity constructing in some countries, for example Albania, the territory is also extremely significant. In case of Albania, the intellectuals and nationalist leaders used an ancient derivation of the nation and have tried to prove it in order to support its precisely territorial claims. The idea of Greater Albania is the belief that people of Albanian origin are treated as a part of Albania and should belong to Albania together with the geographic territories. The concept is based on the claims that Albanian populations have been present at these territories for the long time, if not for ever, at least for many ages, considerably longer than other ethnicities. These territories include Kosovo and the Preshevo Valley of Serbia, some territories of Macedonia, Montenegro and Greece.

**The role of myths.** The other element of ethnic-based model of national identity constructing are *myths* and mythologizing the history. Myth is one of the methods in which a certain nation establishes the background and basis of its existence. Its values and moral systems are also determined by myths and mythologized history. Thus we can say myth represents a certain set of traditions and beliefs which is narrated through generations. These myths concern a nation itself. Although national myths are usually based on historical events and historical heroes, preserving historical truth is not a priority while creating mythologised stories.

Political scientists emphasize the value of *national myths* to ensure national solidarity. They perceive myths as main elements which take significant role in the way how the

members of a particular nation define themselves, how national communities establish and identify their own existence and their own system of moral and cultural values<sup>9</sup>. On the other hand some cultural scientists connect myths with considerably negative connotations, having negative influence on social relations. Yet, all scholars agree that national myths have powerful impact on the process of national identity construction. In the 19<sup>th</sup> century after the beginning of the Balkan national movement the myths of national identity gained political power and domination in Albania. The process of Albanian national constructing should be investigated in the Balkan context. The priority of Balkan nations was based on national independence and formation of national state. For example in Albania myths of heroes representing national values play a very important role. As Schöpflin asserts myths are rather about perceptions,

“about the ways in which communities regard certain propositions as normal and natural and others as perverse and alien” (Schöpflin, 1997: 34). Members of one nation should accept the myths in order to exist as a community or nation. Members of a nation usually know that the myths may not be strictly the same as official versions of history. So the myths can be perceived as obviously false.

In Albania continuous national struggle against Ottoman Empire initiated the myths concerned national heroes, especially noticeable are myths constructed on the historical figure of Gjergj Kastrioti Skanderbeg. During the construction of national myths the heroic elements from the medieval Albanian history were used. Albanian nationalists because of the lack of an ancient great kingdom or empire chose the figure of Skanderbeg as the symbol of their state and its heroic past. He possessed all necessary features for creating a myth. Skanderbeg was well-documented and as a result well-known historical figure. People still remembered his heroic deeds which were fixed in the oral tradition. The figure of Skanderbeg underwent numerous transformations emerging in the myths as a mixture of historical facts, inventions and folklore. Although Skanderbeg was a real historical figure who did significant contribution during the fights with Ottoman invaders, nevertheless his deeds did not involve all Albanians (Misha, 2002: 43).

Vernacular culture. National identity construction is also based on local culture, traditions and customs appropriate for a nation. Opposed to a so called high culture of western nation, based on theatres, operas, high literature local or as Smith (1991: 12) calls it – vernacular culture is based on demotic elements, folkloric beliefs, local traditions and customs. This vernacular culture and local traditions has precedence over civic prescriptions and legal regulations. Often a set of rules was formulated within a vernacular culture and it functions separately from the state legal regulations or even

<sup>9</sup> (see, for instance) Schöpflin, G. The Functions of Myth and a Taxonomy of Myths. In: Hosking, G., Schöpflin, G. Myths and Nationhood, Hurst & Co. London. 1997.

has priority over the last. In Albania, for example so called *Kanun* or *Kanuni of Lek Dukagjinit*<sup>10</sup> is a set of medieval Albanian norms and regulations which regulated (and still regulates) all spheres of human lives. One of its main elements is a solemn oath called *besa* (Book X, Ch. XXII, Art. 129, 1851), for example, is strictly connected with the notion of honour. Then, honour is perhaps the most important notion for Albanians. *Besa* and honour played a significant and ritual role while ensuring national solidarity during the national movement called national reawakening. The blamed honour has to be cleaned up no matter if the official legal norms will be broken. And most probably they will be broken as to clean one's insulted honour is possible only by blood taking, in other words – blood feud (Book X, Ch. XXI, XXII). In this case the custom which comes directly from the medieval regulations (*Kanun*) obviously has priority over the state legal system<sup>11</sup>.

## Conclusion

National identity has been constantly constructed in the course of historical changes and developments. National identity is associated with existing states as well as with states which are expected or remembered by people having links to them. There are many scholar attempts to define national identity and the ways how it is constructed.

As identity is discursive, it is related to other identities. Such notions as 'We' and 'Others' are always present while taking into consideration national identity as "We" is needed to be differentiated from 'Others'. National identity draws strict and definite boundaries between those who belong to a certain community and those who are outsiders coming from other communities. The approach brings with itself both positive (inclusion-bias) and negative (exclusion-bias) connotations. Exclusion as such, being accepted as an unavoidable element of national identity, doesn't unavoidably brings problems with itself. The latest may appear in particular cases as becoming a part of the politics of exclusion and marginalization, it inevitably brings with itself conflicts among included and excluded. The role of national myths is especially significant in the process of building up the differences. On the example of the Balkans we can follow the situations when national myths developing into negative social consequences is turning into severe regional conflicts. Focusing on Balkan nationalist projects, one can still witness plans and moves of intersection of a different kind. This is one of the reasons why national myths including a myth

<sup>10</sup> The Franciscan Shtiefën Gjeçovi (1874 – 1929) began to collect and publish the oral rules of Albanian customary law called Kanun. After his murder other Franciscans collected the remaining materials and published them under his name.

<sup>11</sup> The problem of blood vengeance is still present in Albania, especially in its northern mountainous part where people have limited access to information and state authorities have problems to control these terrains in a proper way. There are several thousands of children who do not attend schools for months staying most of the time at home as a result of family blood feud as they are endangered to be killed. Nevertheless, during my research in Albania I was said by Tirana inhabitants that the problem of blood feud has almost disappeared and even if it exists it concerns only remote mountainous villages. However, the problem of blood vengeance concerns not only distant villages, but it is also present also in cities, and what is remarkable, this tradition is cultivated regardless one's origin. The honour murderer can be rich and poor, educated or uneducated. There are known cases when bankers, teachers, police officers were killed or were killers in the course of blood vengeance. See, for instance: A. Graham at <http://www.bbc.com/travel/story/20141126-blood-feuds-in-albanias-accursed-mountains> (10.07.2015); I. Kadare Komiteti i Pajtimt Mbarëkombëtar at <http://pajtimi.com/faqebrenda.php?newsID=40&lang=eng>

of an on-growing threat from 'Others') are being supported and developed by certain forces. Otherwise myths can play a role of a pretext to discredit the authenticity of the 'Other' out-group. Thus myths start to be an important part of a contemporary critical discourse analysis of such types of situations bringing with itself a core of understanding contemporaneity.

## References

- Anderson, B.* Imagined communities: Reflections of the origin and spread of the nationalism. London: Verso. 1991.
- Bourdieu, P.* The Logic of Practice. Stanford: Stanford University Press. 1990.
- Çekrezi, K.* Past and Present Conditions of Albania in Illyria. 1 (7). 1916.
- Deutsch, Karl,* Nationalism and Its Alternatives, Knopf, New York, 1969.
- Deutsch, K.* Nationalism and Social Communication. London: Chapman & Hall. 1953.
- Gjeçovi, S.* Kanuni i Lekë Dukagjinit: The Code of Lek Dukagjin. L. Fox (tran.). Bakersfield. 1989.
- Kedourie, E.* Nationalism. Hutchinson: Hutchinson University Library. 1961.
- Malcolm, N.* Myth of Albanian National Identity: Some Key Elements in Albanian Identities: Myth and History. S. Schwandner-Sievers, B. J. Fischer (ed.). London: Hurst & Co. 2002.
- Martin, D. C.* The Choices of Identity in Social Identities. 1 (1). 1995.
- Misha, P.* Invention of a Nationalism: Myth and Amnesia, in Albanian Identities: Myth and History. S. Schwandner-Sievers, B. J. Fischer (ed.). London: Hurst & Co. 2002.
- Noli, F.* Mehmet Bey Konitza. Illyria, 1 (8). 1916.
- Schöpflin, G.* The Functions of Myth and a Taxonomy of Myths. In: G. Hosking & G. Schöpflin, Myths & Nationhood. Hurst & Co London. 1997.
- Schwandner-Sievers, S., Fischer, B. J.* Albanian identities: myth and history, Bloomington: Indiana University Press. 2002.
- Smith, A.* National Identity. London: Penguin Books. 1991.
- Smith, A.* The Ethnic Origins of Nation, Oxford: Blackwell. 1986.
- Snow, D.* Collective Identity and Expressive Forms, eScholarship Repository. 2001. <http://repositories.cdlib.org/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1016&context=csd> (accessed 14.07.2015)
- Halbwachs, M.* Społeczne ramy pamięci, tran. Warsaw: Marcin Król, PWN. 1979.
- Jelonek, A.* Nacjonalizmy w Azji w świetle teorii. In: Nacjonalizm, etniczność i wielokulturowość na Bliskim i Dalekim Wschodzie. A.W. Jelonek (ed.) Cracow: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Jagiellońskiego. 2011.
- Kłoskowska, A.* Kultury narodowe u korzeni. Warsaw: Wydawnictwo Naukowe PWN. 1996.
- Hall, S.* Rassismus und kulturelle Identität. Ausgewählte Schriften 2. Argument: Hamburg. 1994.
- Nora, P.* Zwischen Geschichte und Gedächtnis, Wolfgang Kaiser (tran.). Frankfurt am Main: Fischer. 1998.

# Round Table 3

## Intercrossing of functional linguistics and discourse

## Mediator's introductory words – Ekaterina Vasilenko

At present functional linguistics is viewed as only one of the directions of linguistics in general. Functionalism, as characterized by K. Allen, “holds that linguistic structures can only be understood and explained with reference to the semantic and communicative functions of language, whose primary function is to be a vehicle for social interaction among human beings” (Allen 2009: 263). It is important that studying the object in its interaction with the environment, functionalism has to do with the analysis of different types of communicative activity and therefore shows a tendency to interconnection with such fields of study as cognitive science, psycholinguistics, theory of language communication, etc. So, the role of functionalism in modern linguistics can be understood as study of the meaningful phenomena in language and speech in the process of their use by speakers, which leads us to the notion of discourse. The question arises whether functionalism today can be viewed in isolation from the linguistics of discourse, or these two fields tend to have more and more points of contact.

The turn of modern linguistics to the study of discourse seems quite logical: having studied the word and its components and language units larger than a word (phraseological units, sentences, texts), linguists have turned their attention to a higher level of language reality – discourse. This has allowed us to get to the next level of generalization at the same time paying attention to real discourse practices. But if the change of the focus of linguistics in general is understandable (the same tendency can be easily observed in different sciences), the question of a particular scientist's preferences still remains open. Can a representative of functional linguistics who has started working with the corresponding subject stay within its bounds? When does there arise the necessity to speak about discourse? What is the step that a linguist takes to come from functionalism to discourse linguistics? Do we really need to integrate functional and discourse studies? What does this integration help to understand in linguistics in general and discourse linguistics in particular?

The authors of our round table try to answer these questions and believe that it is fair to speak about functional perspective of the linguistics of discourse. It is obvious, though, that nowadays functionalism is quite an extensive field represented by such directions as functional stylistics, functional grammar, functional semantics, functional syntax, etc. In this part, we will try to embrace this whole scope of fields as studied by Eastern European linguists.

Round Table 3 highlights three issues.

**Issue 1** on *functional grammar and functional semantics* opens with the article by Latvian linguists Gunta Rozina and Indra Karapetjana. The other four articles are provided by Belarusian linguists representing different universities but one school: Boris Norman, Olga Goritskaya, Ekaterina Vasilenko, and Alevtina Dinkevich.

**Issue 2** dealing with *functional syntax* contains articles of Belarusian linguists representing the school of compositional syntax: Dmitry Bogushevich, Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich, Irina Dmitrieva, Antonina Galagayeva, Irina Chuchkevich, Alena Savich, and Vasily Zelenkov. The issue closes with a particular case study provided by Alesya Shevtsova.

**Issue 3** is dedicated to *functional stylistics* and includes articles of two linguists representing two different countries and two different schools: Stanislaw Gaida (Poland) and Natalia Klushina (Russia).

Hence, Round Table 3 is expected to represent how different directions of functional linguistics tend to turn to discourse studies and is aimed at focusing on the problem of transition of functional research into discursive.

## References

Allen, K. *The Western Classical Tradition in Linguistics*. Equinox: London, 2009.

## Issue 1. Functional grammar and semantics within the frame of discourse studies

Gunta Rozina, Indra Karapetjana

### Systemic functional linguistic theory and discourse research

#### Introduction

This contribution deals with the analysis of discourse research conducted from the perspective of the systemic functional linguistic (SFL) theory. Presenting a brief theoretical thought on a contemporary understanding of *the SFT theory*, the paper is concerned with illustrating its *role and place within the framework of discourse studies*. The focus of the discussion is on examining selected theoretical contributions that discover a direct interconnectedness between discourse research and functional grammar theory research, and it illustrates how modality as a constituent of functional grammar can be viewed within the perspective of language-in-use studies. In particular, the present study demonstrates how several aspects of modality can be dealt with in discours(al) studies. By analysing selected instances of language-in-use which reveal how the interpersonal language functions achieved for the purpose of establishing a discourse-related meaning, the present contribution demonstrates how the linguo-pragmatic *meaning* can be expressed via the use of *modality*.

#### Language in use: Systemic functional linguistics' perspective

Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth SFL), an approach to language study developed by Halliday (1978: 96), places "language in use in social contexts" at the heart of the approach. Halliday admits that language function is sometimes more important than language structure, and the *systemic approach* means meaningful choices taken by the language user (ibid.). SFL focuses on three metafunctions of the language, such as the ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function (Halliday, 1978). The scholar contends that

"discourse is a multidimensional process and text as its product [...] may contain in itself all the inconsistencies, contradictions and conflicts that can exist within and between high order semantic structures" (ibid.:96).

Thus, Halliday (1970) considers that the three language functions are "intrinsic to grammar". According to him, the ideational language function relates to conveying and interpreting the experience of the world. This function is further subdivided into the experiential

and logical language functions. The interpersonal language function serves as an expression of one's attitudes and can have an impact on the attitudes and behaviour of the interlocutors. The textual function, in its turn, serves as a means of constructing a text, both spoken and written.

At this point it is important to mention that the pragmatician Leech (1983) strongly disagrees with the Hallidayan approach to relate the three functions to grammar and argues that

“the ideational function belongs to grammar [...] the interpersonal function and the textual function belong to pragmatics” (Leech, 1983: 57).

He supports the view by stating that a linguistic act of communication is described as constituting a transaction on three different levels: a) on the interpersonal function level or on the level of discourse, b) on the ideational function level, or on the message transmission level, and c) on the textual transmission level, or the textual level (ibid.: 59). Leech asserts that

“discourse is the whole transaction, and it is regarded as an attempt to convey a particular illocutionary force to the hearer” (ibid.).

Besides, the scholar proposes that the term *discourse* is used in preference to the term *illocution* or *an illocutionary act*, when the whole transaction of information is in the focus of language in use analysis.

### **Modality in communication: Multidimensional discursal perspective**

It is essential to note that modality plays a significant role in the analysis of communication from the perspective of discourse studies. So far, considerable research has been conducted to reveal the complex nature of modality in order to acknowledge that it is considered to be an important constituent of communicative event. The phenomenon of modality has been examined not only in linguistics, applied linguistics including, but also in modal logic within the discipline of philosophy. As concerns linguistics, different approaches to the study of modality are known, for example:

- the traditional *deontism vs epistemism* dichotomy (e.g. Palmer, 1990, Simpson, 2005),
- *extrinsic vs intrinsic* modality, where epistemic modality is labelled as *extrinsic modality*, but deontic modality is labelled as *intrinsic modality* (e.g. Biber et.al, 1999),
- *dynamic vs root* modality, where dynamic modality refers to epistemic modality, but root modality refers to deontic modality (e.g. Palmer, 2003).

Besides, many linguists (e.g. Palmer, 1986; Stubbs, 1986) have considerably contributed to the research of modality, which is “the central organizing principle of the language” (Stubbs, 1986: 2). Palmer (1990: 6) remarks that deontic modality is concerned with “influencing actions, states or events”, and modals work together in a systematic way. To back up his idea of “a systematic way” of modal interaction, Palmer (ibid.: 7) offers the following example for further consideration: to turn down an invitation in a polite way, native speakers of English often use the phrase *I would if I could, but I can't so I won't*. It may be evident that the presented example reveals the systematic nature of modals in a way that characterizes the influence of situational context on the meaning of modals. It seems important to note that meanings of modals can vary across contexts of language use, or even they can change the meanings of utterances depending on cultural values that determine the communicative event the interactants are involved in.

Halliday (1970: 322-361) states that modality can be related to those linguistic items, which deal with “the assessment of probability” and with “the assessment of possibility”. Simpson asserts that

“modality refers to a speaker's attitude toward opinion about the truth of a proposition expressed by a sentence” (Simpson, 1990: 64).

Coates (1983, 1995) and Heine (1995) consider that modality has two main categories: root and epistemic modality, where *epistemic modality* is concerned with the speaker's assumptions or assessment of possibilities (1983: 49). They state that when we use a modal for the purposes of epistemic modality, we express: a) the state of our *belief* or *knowledge*, or degree of *certainty/uncertainty* about a specific subject matter, b) the degree of *likelihood*. At this point, some examples should be offered to back up the above-given statement:

*It might be pork, but it might be beef as well* (a lack of certainty is expressed by the modal verb *might*).

*Well, it must be pork, I'm sure* (certainty is expressed by the modal verb *must*).

*You can take the course “International communication” at the University of Latvia* (the modal verb *can* implies *weak* advice in this case).

*You should not take more courses than envisaged in one semester* (the modal verb *should* implies the degree of *stronger* advice in this case).

*You have to take at least two courses on international communication during one academic year to write your term paper in this subject* (the semi-modal verb *have to* implies *strong* advice in this case).

*You must take at least two courses on international communication if you intend to write your graduation paper in the area of applied linguistics* (the modal verb *must* implies *very strong* advice in this case).

Judging from the examples presented, it is obvious that epistemic modality can reveal either the speaker's confidence or lack of confidence in the truth-value of the proposition expressed and the speaker's degree of knowledge, belief or likelihood about the proposition put forward. In addition, Lyons (1977: 823) points out that *root* or *non-epistemic modality* is concerned with the necessity, or the possibility "of acts performed by morally responsible agents". According to Coates (1995: 55), root modality covers a range of meanings, such as permission, obligation, possibility and necessity.

As regards the analysis of modality in the studies of discourse, they are often associated with the examination of the employment of epistemic and deontic modalities to fulfil the interactional function in a variety of discourses. The grammatical category related to epistemic modality is modal auxiliaries (Coates, 1983). Thus, one modal can be employed in different meanings depending on situational contexts, for example:

*You may submit your paper by the end of this week* (root modality: permission is expressed).

*You may make arrangements about putting off our meeting with your doctor* (epistemic modality: tentativeness of the speaker is expressed).

*When the choice is between expression and repression, we may need to speak for those who have no voice* (epistemic modality: the speaker's lack of confidence is expressed).

*But Democrats and some experts said that the proposal might lead some employers to stop offering health insurance* (root modality: possibility is expressed).

On a practical level, Westney (1986) has surveyed the major forms of expressions employed for the purposes of epistemic modality. Claiming that modals vary in the epistemic scalar levels, Westney concentrates on a discussion of a relatively small set of high-frequency items, such as *I know, I think, may, might, must, should, will, would, perhaps, probably, certainly, possible, likely, certain, sure*. Further, he proposes to value epistemic modals at three levels (Westney, 1986: 315):

- a) strong value epistemic modals, such as *I know, I'm sure/certain, it's certain, must, will* and *should/would* as 'conditional' items; for example:

*I think it must be very tough indeed to combine work with studies.*

A: *It's certain; you must have had someone to rely on.*

B: *Well, I'm not sure, actually.*

A: *The climate in Latvia must be astonishing in winter.*

B: *Yeah, it must be completely invariable, too.*

- b) intermediate value epistemic modals, such as *I think, probably, likely, presumably*; for example:

*"For the year, corn and soy-bean meal increases are likely to approach \$600 million", said President and CEO Richard Bond.*

*This down-and-diaper-pail-dirty celebration of motherhood probably would not suit the 'saccharine sentiments' of Mother's Day.*

- c) weak value epistemic modals, such as *possible that, perhaps, may, might*; for example:

*Angry firefighters from the partnership countries say indecision and delay by superiors may have cost the asylum seekers their lives in the fire on the streets of the town.*

*A professor at the Bremen Centre of Justice said that poll workers might ask for unrequired ID and that some citizens might mistakenly think they perhaps could not vote.*

To add, Hinkel (1995), who has studied how native and non-native speakers of English use epistemic and deontic modalities in argumentative discourse, has discovered that the usage of modalities depends on interactants' cultural and contextual constraints. Thus, when studying the usage of the modals *must, have to, should* and *need to*, Hinkel has found out that native speakers prioritize the modal *need to* in order to convey an intrinsically imposed responsibility or necessity; in the same situations, non-native speakers of English employ the modal verb *must*. As a result, it can be presupposed that the divergence in the usage of modality may lie in both the native speakers' and non-native speakers' culturally-bound understanding of the nature of obligation and in the adherence to the socio-cultural norms and codes being fundamental to Anglo-American and other cultures, for example, the Latvian culture. Besides, epistemic modals play a significant role in mediating interpersonal meaning. They accomplish the following interpersonal *functions*:

- a) reduce the force of an utterance and, thus, protect the interactants' face where the topic is sensitive, or where the topic of interaction/transaction focuses on controversial issues,  
 b) convey the interactant's attitude to the proposition being expressed.

Consequently, epistemic modality can be characterized as the usage of linguistic means to reveal the speaker's/writer's assumptions or assessment of possibilities. In most cases, it indicates the speaker's/writer's ideas relating to doubt, potentiality, judgment, confidence or lack of confidence in the truth of the proposition expressed. Lyons contends that

"epistemic modality is concerned with opinion rather than fact" (Lyons, 1977: 14).

It can be indicated grammatically through:

- a) modal verbs that express possibility, permission, necessity and obligation, such as *may, might, must, can, could*;
- b) adverbs, such as *quite, necessarily, possibly, probably*;
- c) adjectives, such as *necessary, possible, probable*,
- d) linguistic forms, such as: *I think, I know, I suppose, I presume*, which function to express a speaker's/ writer's subjective confidence and uncertainty,
- e) *tag questions*, which qualify the truth of a proposition by making it relative to a speaker's/ writer's level of uncertainty,
- f) lexical units, such as *sort of, kind of, so called, so to speak*, which encode a speaker's/ writer's lack of confidence in the perception of the word or phrase.

Taking into account Simpson's classification of modality (2005: 43), deontic modality is seen as "concerned with a speaker's attitude to the degree of obligation". Besides the degree of obligation, according to Simpson (ibid.), the linguistic concepts of duty, commitment, and desire are expressed by means of deontic modality. For this purpose, not only the relevant modals are employed, but also selected linguistic forms are used, such as *obliged, permitted, forbidden, regretted, regrettable*, and alike.

### Modality, language functions in discourse

As it was stated at the outset of this paper, the functional variety of language is viewed through its ideational, interpersonal and textual functions. As the present paper intends to examine the use of only one language function in discourse, it aims at considering the application of the interpersonal language function in communication in a written mode. Within the social context of language use and its functional parameters, Halliday (1978) views the organization and application of three variables: field, tenor and mode, where the field reveals institutional characteristics, performance, activities and practices, the tenor is an approach to uncover social relations, and the mode deals with the information distribution channels. Thus, the established linguistic patterns are conventionally applied in well-defined social contexts. Considering Halliday's (1978) views, it can be stated that a tremendously wide variation of the linguistic resources that can be employed in different social contexts and in different discourses exist.

Halliday remarks (1985) that the interpersonal function of discourse is associated with two types: the type of *modality* and the type of *mood*. The type of modality refers to the area of expressing the *meaning* that indicates the polarities of statements between *yes* and *no*. The type of mood expresses the *speech function*, for example, offering, ordering, requesting, recommending, advising and many others. The research interest of this paper concerns the application of the Hallidayan (1985) theoretical contributions that relate to the types, categories, orientations, values and the polarities of modality.

Considering the above discussion, the present paper is concerned with the concept of modality as a linguistic representation of expressing the meanings of a) probability and b) usuality, which are realized as indications of the language user's opinion expressed within a range of a positive and negative polarity. Halliday (1985: 332–336) contends that modality in the clause can be manifested via the categories of *subjectivity* and *objectivity*, but the "distinction that determines how the subjective and objective modality will be expressed" depends on the "four possible orientations", such as: a) the subjective orientation (which can be explicit and implicit) and b) the objective orientation (which can be explicit and implicit).

Further, the scholar (ibid.) specifies that the type of modality has two subtypes: a *modalization* subtype, which concerns the *probability* and *usuality* distinctions, and a *modulation* subtype, which concerns the *obligation* and *inclination* distinctions. Both subtypes can have the explicit (i.e. stated very clearly and directly) and implicit orientation (i.e. being not openly stated). The philosophical semantics uses the term *epistemic modality* when it deals with the case of modalization; it uses the term *deontic modality* when it is concerned with the case of modulation.

To illustrate, the *probability* distinction can be expressed through the orientation of the subjective explicitness, that is, epistemic modality, (e.g. *I think, I am certain, in my opinion: in my opinion, the employees are paid by direct money transfer to their bank account*), or through the orientation of the subjective implicitness, that is, deontic modality to express interactants' attitude to the degree of obligation (e.g. by a means of the modals *must, will: the employees will be paid by a direct money transfer to their bank account*). Besides, the probability distinction can be indicated through the orientation of the objective explicitness (e.g. *the employees are probably paid by a direct money transfer to their bank account*) or through the orientation of the objective explicitness (e.g. *it is likely that the employees are paid by a direct money transfer to their bank account*).

As regards the *usuality* distinction, it does not manifest the orientation of the subjective explicitness at all. It can be revealed through the orientation of the subjective implicitness (e.g. by a means of the modal verb *will*), through the orientation of the objective implicitness (e.g. by a means of the frequency adverbs *usually, always, sometimes*), or through the orientation of the objective explicitness (e.g. by a means of the expression *it is usual for*).

Besides, it should be noted that it is the polarity that establishes an integral constituent of modality in discourse. However, Halliday (1985: 86) states that, in general, there exist "intermediate degrees" that fall between *sometimes* and *maybe*, and "these intermediate degrees between negative and positive poles known collectively as modality" have

the three *values* that are based on the modal judgement: high, median and low. As a result: a) a high level modality value can be realized by the modals *must, ought to, need, has to, is to*, b) a median level modality value can be realized by the modal verbs *will, would, shall, should*, c) a low level modality value can be realized by the modal verbs *may, might, can, could* (Halliday, 1985: 337–339).

Further, it should be mentioned that the modalization subtype of modality is employed in discourse to imply the area of meaning that denotes probability and usuality (frequency); the modulation subtype of modality functions to express obligation and inclination. Besides, modalization deals with the description of information flow and can be expressed by the grammatical form of a statement or a question. Modalization is realized via the language function of proposition. In addition, the use of modalization in discourse denotes that the statements made in reference to particular situations or events are true or are likely to be true. In other words, if the situation under discussion is presented by means of modalization, it is usually expressed in an indicative way.

As regards modulation, it works to denote the meaning area that marks obligation or inclination in discourse. The meaning area of obligation carries an imperative indication, that is the evidence that the assumption, idea, or belief exists, and it strongly influences people to act in a particular way, e.g. urgently. At the level of the grammatical form, imperative indications can be expressed by imperative grammatical forms, such as a command or an offer.

To consolidate the above discussion, modulation deals with the language function of proposal that carries either an imperative meaning in discourse, or it is expressed in the imperative grammatical form. Modalization as an epistemic modality subtype that relates to fulfilling the interpersonal language function in discourse is expressed by the language function of proposition, but modulation as a modality type fulfilling the interpersonal language function is expressed by the language function of proposal.

In view of this and considering the conventional commonalities of modalization and modulation use in discourse, the present study limits itself to analysing the probability meaning area within the interpersonal language function of propositions and the obligation meaning area within the interpersonal language function of proposals.

As a result, to characterise modalization that is expressed by the language function of proposition, we should note that one way of viewing the above-mentioned function of propositions to analyse it via the meaning area of probability in the texts generated. Besides, the meaning area of probability has its positive and negative polarity, which can be communicated via:

- *positive probability* (possible, probable, certain); it is manifested via:
  - a) the modal verb *must* (high level probability, high level certainty; e.g. *that must be my new bank account number; that certainly is my new bank account number*);
  - b) the modal verb *will* (median level probability, e.g. *that will be my new bank account number; that probably is my new bank account number*);
  - c) the modal verb *may* (low level probability, e.g. *that maybe my new bank account number; that possibly is my new bank account number*);
- *negative probability*; which can be manifested via:
  - a) the modal verb *cannot* (high level negative probability, e.g. *that cannot be the latest money transfer; that certainly is not the latest money transfer; it is not possible that is the latest money transfer*),
  - b) the modal verb *will not* (median level negative probability, e.g. *that will not be the latest money transfer; that probably is not the latest money transfer*);
  - c) the modal verb *may not* (low level negative probability, e.g. *that may not be the latest money transfer; that possibly is not the latest money transfer*).

As noted above, epistemic modality represented via subjective explicit probability (i.e. a probability statement that is clearly and directly made to mark a personal opinion) is communicated by the linguistic expressions *I think, I am certain*. The subjective implicit probability (i.e. a probability statement that is indirectly made to mark a personal opinion) is manifested by the modal verbs *must, will, may*. The objective implicit probability (i.e. a probability statement that is indirectly made and is not influenced by a personal opinion) is expressed by the adverbs *probably, certainly*. The objective explicit probability (i.e. a probability statement that is clearly and directly made and is not influenced by a personal opinion) is communicated by the linguistic expressions *it is likely, it is certain*.

Another meaning area of the language function of proposal is usuality or frequency, where a high level usuality is expressed by *always*, a median level usuality is expressed by *usually*, but a low level usuality is communicated by *sometimes*. This meaning area is beyond the scope of this paper.

Modulation being a subtype of modality is another language constituent that fulfils the interpersonal language function in discourse. Therefore, it should be noted that modulation is usually communicated by the language function of proposal in discourse. The language function of proposal can be expressed either via the meaning area of obligation or the meaning area of inclination.

Considering the conventional commonalities of modulation in discourse, we have restricted our research interest to the analysis of the meaning area of obligation, that is, deontic modality, as it is manifested within the framework of the language function of proposal. The meaning area of inclination has fallen beyond our study interest.

In view of the above stated, it should be marked that Halliday (1985) has distinguished three variables of modality as regards the meaning area of obligation, such as: a) a high level obligation, i.e. somebody is *required to* do something, b) a median level obligation, i.e. somebody is supposed/*expected to* do something, c) a low level obligation: i.e. somebody is *allowed to* do something. In case of manifesting a high level inclination, somebody is *determined to* do something, in case of revealing a median level inclination somebody is *keen to* do something, and in case of displaying a low level inclination somebody is *willing to* do something (Halliday, 1985: 337-339).

Thus, at a micro-discoursal level and depending on the contextual situations, the meaning area of obligation proposals can be communicated by:

- such modals as *must, need, ought to, have to, is to* (e.g. *you must transfer the tuition fee by the beginning of the autumn semester*, i.e. *you are required to make the money transfer*; a high level positive obligation proposal is expressed);
- the modals *will, would, shall, should* (e.g. *you should transfer the tuition fee by the beginning of the autumn semester*, i.e. *you are supposed to make the money transfer*; a median level positive obligation proposal is expressed);
- such modal verbs as *may, might, can, could* (e.g. *you can transfer the tuition fee by the beginning of the autumn semester*, i.e. *you are allowed to make the money transfer*; a low level positive obligation proposal is expressed).

At this point, it has to be added that Halliday (1985: 337–339) by referring to the semantic category, which does not strictly denote a type of modality, but still it represents the meaning area of a positive obligation proposal (because it denotes the modality of potentiality), discusses the discursive use of the modal verb *can*. According to him, potentiality should be viewed within the framework of a low level positive obligation proposal that specifically bears the nature of the subjective implicit orientation realized by the modal verbs *can/could* (e.g. *you can do it*); on the other hand, the objective implicit orientation is realized by *to be able to* (e.g. *he is able to open an account with the bank in Riga*) and the objective explicit orientation is realized by *it is possible (for...)*. Further, inclination in proposals can be expressed by:

- the modal verb (e.g. *will: I will tell the truth! must: I must tell the truth!*),
- the adjective (e.g. *I am anxious to tell the truth! I am keen to tell the truth!*).

As regards the representation of the interpersonal language function in discourse, it is the modality that represents the language user's point of view. The explicitly subjective (e.g. *I think the government works efficiently*) and explicitly objective (e.g. *it is likely the government works efficiently*) distinctions of modality are 'strictly speaking metaphorical since all of them represent the modality as the proposition' (Halliday 1985: 340).

## Conclusion

The present study was approached from the *functional* perspective of language use in discourse. It focused on meaning examination through studying several aspects of modality. The present paper examined selected instances of how the interpersonal language functions fulfilled for the purpose of expressing the linguo-pragmatic *meaning* (i.e. modality) in discourse and drew the following conclusions:

1. In discourse, modality as a representation of expressing the meaning of *probability* or *usuality* functions as a linguistic instrument to indicate the interactants' opinion expressed within a range of a positive and negative polarity.
2. In discourse, the subjective and objective modality can be expressed depending on the four possible orientations:
  - a) the explicit and implicit subjective orientation,
  - b) the explicit and implicit objective orientation.
3. The use of modalization (known also as epistemic modality), which concerns the *probability* and *usuality* distinctions, the use of modulation (known also as deontic modality), which concerns the *obligation* and *inclination* distinctions, characterises how modalization and modulation subtypes of modality contribute to fulfilling the interpersonal language function in discourse. Both subtypes represent the explicit (i.e. stated very clearly and directly) and implicit (i.e. being not openly stated) orientation in discourse.
4. In discourse, *the probability meaning* area appears to be expressed through the interpersonal language function of *propositions* and *the obligation meaning area* through the interpersonal language function of *proposals*.
5. *Modalization* which is communicated by the language function of proposition is expressed via the meaning area of probability in discourse. The meaning area of probability is communicated through a positive and negative polarity.
6. *Modulation* is communicated through the language function of proposals expressed as obligation in discourse. The meaning area of proposals is communicated through a positive and negative polarity.

As a result, it can be confirmed that discourse represents a well-established model of written communication, which employs the language for instrumental purposes in situational contexts in relevant discourses.

## References

- Biber, D. et. al. Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London, 1999.
- Coates, J. The Semantics of Modal Auxiliaries. London, 1983.
- Coates, J. The Expression of Root and Epistemic Possibility in English. *In*: J. Bybee. and S. Fleischman (eds.) *Modality in Grammar and Discourse*. Amsterdam, 1995. 55–67.
- Halliday, M. A. K. Functional Diversity in Language as Seen from a Consideration of Modality and Mood in English. *In*: *Foundations of Language*, 6. 1970. 327–351.
- Halliday, M. A. K. *Language as a Social Semiotics: The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning*. London and Boston, 1978.
- Halliday, M. K. *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London, 1985.
- Heine, B. Agent Oriented vs. Epistemic Modality: Some Observations on German Modals. *In*: J. Bybee and S. Fleischman (eds.) *Modality in Grammar and Discourse*. Amsterdam, 1995. 17–55.
- Hinkel, E. The Use of Modal Verbs as Reflection of Cultural Values. *In*: *TESOL Quarterly*, 29 (2), 1995. 325–341.
- Leech, G. *Principles of Pragmatics*. London, 1983.
- Lyons, J. *Semantics*. Cambridge, 1977.
- Palmer, F. R. *Mood and Modality*. Cambridge, 1986 (1987).
- Palmer, F. R. *Modality and the English Modals*. London, 1990.
- Palmer, F. R. *Modality in English: Theoretical, Descriptive and Typological Issues*. *In*: R. Facchinetti et. al (eds.) *Modality in Contemporary English*. Berlin, 2003. 1–20.
- Simpson, P. *Modality in Literary-Critical Discourse*. *In*: W. Nash (ed.) *The Writing Scholar: Studies in Academic Discourse*. Newbury Park, 1990. 63–94.
- Simpson, P. *Language, Ideology and Point of View*. London, 2005.
- Stubbs, M. *A Matter of Prolonged Field Work: Notes toward a Modal Grammar of English*. *In*: *Applied Linguistics*, 7 (1). 1986. 1–25.
- Westney, P. *How to be More or Less Certain in English: Scalarity in Epistemic Modality*. *In*: *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 24 (4). 1986. 311–332.

Boris Norman

## How many grammars of the Russian language do we need?

(translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)

There exist dozens of models of speech activity in modern linguistics (among their authors are N.I. Zhinkin, A.A. Leontiev, W. Kintsch, W. Levelt, T.V. Akhutina, etc.). Obviously, all these concepts are imbued with the spirit of functionalism: scientists seek to explain what role language units of different levels play in the communication process and how they interact in the practice of generating and understanding of the text. If we set aside the factors that precede and accompany the speech act (such as the identity of the speaker and the listener, the situation of communication, a specific stimulus of text generation, etc.), and apply to the facts of the language, we can divide the mentioned approaches into two general groups: those based on the choice of a syntactic structure, and those in which this role is assigned to the lexical stimulus and the corresponding chain of word associations (see Кубрякова, 1986: 124–136). In principle, there is no irreconcilable contradiction between these two points of view, because language units of different levels interact with each other in the process of speech activity. In particular, the choice of a syntactic scheme suggests filling it with specific lexis (sometimes it is a quite severely restricted circle), and the choice of a word contains certain marks of syntagmatic deployment – that is, so to speak, the syntactic potential of a lexeme (compare: Кубрякова, 1995).

Of course, it is desirable to construct a kind of an ideal typology, a general sequence of “inclusion” of language levels in the process of speech production. In particular, K.F. Sedov singles out the following stages of the speaker’s activity:

- a) **Motive** of the act of speech activity (why, for what purpose am I speaking?).
- b) **Communicative intention**, which is realized in the form of tuning to a certain typical situation of social interaction between people – a particular speech genre.
- c) **Semantic content (plan)** of a future utterance <...> Here an integral (perhaps still indistinct, diffuse) semantic “picture” of the future utterance is formed: there is already meaning, semantics, but there are no concrete words and syntactic structures yet.
- d) The formed internal programme (plan) begins to transform: a **conversion** mechanism starts to work, a mechanism of **translation** of the meaning from the language of images and schemes into a particular national language – words with their meanings.
- e) **Revealing** of the nuclear sense (topic) into a speech unit constructed in accordance with a psycholinguistic standard of textivity.
- f) In the process, a **syntactical scheme** of the future utterance is formed first. “Internal words”, i.e. word meanings, become already the “prototypes” of external words and gradually occupy “their” syntactical positions.

- g) The next stage of speech generation is grammatical structuring and morphemic **selection of concrete lexis**, after which a **syllable-by-syllable motor programme** of external speech, articulation, is implemented (Седов, 2007: 15-16).

Except for some terminological discrepancies (in particular, the plan here is equivalent first to the semantic content and then to the internal programme of an utterance), we have a fairly logical sequence reflecting the deductive way from sense to text – “top-down”, from the general to the specific. But it is confusing that discourse is marked in the programme as an ultimate goal: the whole process is called “transformation of thought into discourse”. Meanwhile, discourse is a constant background and the condition of all of these stages, it embraces the whole language system. “The Linguistic Encyclopaedic Dictionary” states that discourse is a coherent text together with extralinguistic – pragmatic, socio-cultural, psycholinguistic, etc. – factors; a text taken in the event-driven aspect; speech considered as a deliberate social action (ЛЭС, 1990: 136).

In this case, we set ourselves the task of showing on the facts of the Russian language that the choice of each linguistic unit in the speaker’s activity is determined by its links with the units of adjacent levels, and they all are constantly «controlled» by discourse. Let’s start with the choice of communicative intention which serves as a «spark» for the chain of the following actions in the speaker’s mind. The development of the theory of speech acts has led nowadays to a very extensive taxonomy comprising sometimes several dozens of types of illocutionary utterances. In particular, only within the speech act of expressives, singled out by J. Searle, researchers propose to distinguish thanks, apologies, greetings, farewells, congratulations and wishes (Pisarek, 1995: 28–40). This list could easily be spun out by condolences, curses, reproaches, praises, etc.

However, each of these specific subtypes, actually turning into a speech genre, demands certain conditions for its implementation. It is obvious that congratulating or cursing suggests a certain age and status of the communicants, and also taking into account their number, the place of communication, the information channel, and so on (see Grabias, 1997: 282-289). All this is covered by a broad concept of discourse with its culturological «lining».

One of the objectives of the functional approach in linguistics, which appeared and strengthened its position in the XX century, was to tie together missions of individual units in the general language system and to subordinate them to the functions of the language as such (see Норман, 2008). The heirs of the Prague school build a hierarchy of language levels as follows:

«The relationship between language levels [...] in the direction upwards is an asymmetric relation “means – function”: the function of units of a lower level is to be a means of building units of a higher level. For example, the level of morphemes is, on the one hand, the level of functions of phonemes, and, on the other hand, – the level of means for building wordforms» (Данеш, Гаузенблас, 1969: 16).

However, it seems logical to treat the process of speech production as a sequence of transition from «larger» and more general units to «smaller» and more private ones. The «deductive» or «inductive» nature of this activity has been of interest to scientists for a long time. The Austrian psychologist F. Kainz (1967: 116) wrote: “The meaning of the sentence is more than the sum of individual words”, that is why it is set in advance (*vorkonstruiert ist*). According to W. Kintsch (1982: 357), the speaker “deals with the text rather than with the sentence”. H. Weinrich agrees with him:

«... It is needless to argue about what comes first – the word or the text (sentence). [...] We are not slaves of words, because we are masters of the text” (Вайнрих, 1987: 54).

The essence of the process of speech generation is, of course, verbalization, turning thoughts into words. But the choice of lexical units is just one of the stages and simultaneous «channels» in a complex process, which involves all linguistic units. We can try to show the correlation of the stages of speech activity with separate levels of the language system within specific sublanguages.

Let’s start with the scientific text whose functional specificity is obvious. Here the main intention of the speaker (writer) is to convey information (which, of course, does not negate the right to express a subjective attitude to it). Already at the stage of the plan and internal programme there exists an aim at the complex and «corporate» nature of the future text. Rubrication (verbal, numeric or alphabetic), displaying, presence of links, plenty of tables, diagrams, charts and graphs – all this will strikingly distinguish a modern scientific text from a poetic or journalistic one! For the author of the monograph or dissertation it is natural to prefer nominal structures to verbal ones. Some types of scientific texts (for example, a search image of a document or a list of keywords) can do without any verbs. In a scientific text, there will occur a lot of introductory words and connectors, such as *firstly, secondly, therefore, respectively, thus, nevertheless, etc.* Even syntactic words here are special: *for, contrary to, on account of, on condition that, as, with regard to, in terms, etc.* Sentences will have an increased length and complexity, due to inter alia participle phrases and subordinate clauses. Even texts referring to the humanitarian sphere are often built in such a complicated manner that cause doubt in their grammatical correctness. Here is one, almost random, example.

<p>Будучи попыткой противопоставить познанию, стремящемуся осознать сущее в категории необходимости, практический разум, устремленный на осуществление должного в категории свободы, мистический анархизм – не мораль, поскольку не предопределяет действия, и вместе мораль, поскольку признает императив свободного и цельного самоутверждения нашей конечной воли, императив энергетизма (Вяч. Иванов. Идея неприятия мира)</p>	<p><i>Being an attempt to counter the cognition seeking to understand the matter in the category of necessity, a practical mind directed at the implementation of the due in the category of freedom, mystical anarchism is not morality, because it does not prejudge actions and morality together, as it recognizes the imperative of the free and integral self-affirmation of our ultimate will, the imperative of energetism.</i></p>
--	---

An important role in the scientific text is played by pronouns and the adjacent words (*данный* ‘given’, *соответствующий* ‘corresponding’, *указанный* ‘mentioned’, *следующий* ‘following’, *достаточный* ‘sufficient’, *сказанное* ‘said’, etc.). The frequency of use of case forms here is not the same as at the average in the Russian language: the most frequent case here is the genitive. Chains of genitive cases are also acceptable (such as *возможность применения методов изучения элементов целого* – ‘the possibility of using methods of studying the elements of the whole’), though they are so unwanted in other types of texts.

The question is: how consciously does the author of the scientific text operate exactly these data and not other units? It seems that already at the stage of the communicative intention he activates a definite register, which automatically restricts the further access to the language means.

The same regularities can be observed on the material of any other sub-language – whether it be conversational speech, office documents or lyrical poems...

In particular, the structure of conversational speech takes into account the *presence effect*: a lot of things that in other circumstances should be put into words are omitted here, for they are easily reconstructed from the situation: *here* and *now*. The listener does not only “supplement” in his mind incomplete or broken phrases, but also understands the facts of hesitations and auto-correction. Here is one example:

<p><i>...Венеция нам очень... Там ко... конечно очень красиво все / но жить там невозможно для... // Там такая сы-ы-рость / и там все вода / кругом это // Гостиница / подъезжаешь к ней на гондоле / и видно знаете это... мм где вода-то бывает / что ниже все // И потом это входишь туда / такая сы-ы-рость! Нет / нам там не понравилось //... (PPP 1978: 107).</i></p>	<p><i>...Venice... We really... There... of course everything is very beautiful / but to live there is impossible for ... // There's such da-a-mpness there / and everything is water there / it is all around // The hotel / you draw up to it in a gondola / and see you know this ... mm where the water sometimes is / that everything is lower // And then you come in / such da-a-mpness! No / we did not like it there //...'</i></p>
--	--

Of course, if you approach the specific fragments of oral conversational speech from the standpoint of normative grammar, it appears extremely difficult to establish in them both the boundaries between sentences and the relationship between separate word forms. These peculiarities of conversational speech are reflected also in literary texts. And it is not difficult for the reader to restore the omitted elements of the utterance, to “decode” the structures that have been formed as a result of contraction or deep reconstruction of the phrase. Here are two examples.

*Девуцы выходили из калиток и спешили со своими кавалерами в сквер – в пользу наводнения. – ‘The girls came out of the gates and hurried with their cavaliers to the public garden – in favour of the flood’ (Л. Добычин. Ерыгин; здесь в пользу наводнения – ‘на концерт в пользу пострадавших от наводнения’)*

*В последнее время старалась не попадаться ей на глаза. Мне дали народную СССР, а у нее отняли всё – Таирова, театр, жизнь. – ‘Recently I have been trying to keep clear of her. I have been awarded People’s of the USSR, and she has been deprived of everything – Tairov, theater, life’ (Ф. Раневская. Судьба-шлюха; здесь народную СССР – ‘почетное звание народного артиста СССР’).*

These examples can be interpreted as confirmation of the given theoretical proposition of the subordinate position of the word in relation to the sentence and to the whole text. It is clear that all the differences of conversational speech from the codified literary language are deeply functional. They have been called into being by special conditions – and due to this are closely connected with each other. Charles Bally wrote at the beginning of the twentieth century:

«It would be very strange if the conversational language did not have a special syntax, really, from this point of view it represents a whole range of peculiarities that are as interesting as poorly studied. Spoken syntax is not studied mainly because it is not considered worthy of attention; it is carefully fenced off on the pretext that everything in it is «wrong» (Балли, 1961: 352).

Studies of the Russian conversational speech, intensified in the second half of the twentieth century, found a range of syntactic constructions typical only of this discursive field. In particular, V.P. Pronichev describes more than two dozen models of interrogative nominal sentences, each of which has its own typical semantics in the Russian language (compare: *Письмо? А Дымов? Что сердце? Никак Василий? Неприятная картина, а? Не позорище ли? Чем не подарок?* – ‘Letter? And Dymov? How is heart? Appears Vasily? Unpleasant picture, huh? Not a disgrace? Why not a gift?’ etc.). However, all these constructions – it is important to emphasize – are used almost exclusively in dialogue speech:

«We can say that dialogue is the natural sphere of their functioning, because it is in a dialogue, in a relaxed, living communion where the communicative and pragmatic purpose of an interrogative utterance is disclosed with greater certainty and completeness...» (Пронищев, 1991: 93).

We see that the discursive conditionality of a syntactic unit (its readiness to function in certain social, style and genre boundaries) can influence the degree and nature of its grammatical organization (in other words, its structuring). In fact, it is discourse that determines whether a given sequence of word forms can serve as a communicative unit and what are its boundaries (of this unit). At one time, this idea was categorically expressed by V.A. Zvegintsev:

“The main, principal features of the sentence cannot be found within the sentence, in its internal structural and formal qualities, but beyond – at the level of discourse, where the boundaries of the sentence as an individual, «singled out» unit are determined” (Звегинцев, 1976: 172).

Every now and then a native speaker deals with some «variants» of grammar - and in appropriate circumstances, he takes it for granted. Indeed, such genres as recipe, marriage announcement, horoscope, crossword, technical description, will, set of laws, military report, bus schedule, etc., are characterized by their own set of grammatical characteristics. What is acceptable and even welcome in one style and genre can be regarded as a blunder («abnormality») in other speech conditions. Practically, this means that grammar in its bases is conditional on pragmatics; these two components of meaning «flow» into each other. The choice of one or another set of grammatical rules depends on the discursive conditions, namely on who builds their speech with whom, on what subject and in what adopted conventions.

For example, we do not get surprised or irritated at titles of works of poetry found in the contents of collections. If a poem has no special title, it is called by the first line, which often does not make any syntactic unity. In particular, among the poems of Sergey Yesenin there such as «Дымом половодье...», «По селу тропинкой кривенькой...», «В лунном кружеве украдкой...», «Тучи с ожерёба...», «Хорошо под осеннюю свежесть...», «В час, когда ночь воткнет...» и т.п. (compare: Норман, 2013: 12).

The question is: can we say in Russian «Дымом половодье...» – ‘By smoke flood’? Most likely, the answer is no. No textbook of the Russian language will dare to give such examples of Russian speech. However, they occur in practice. Suffice it to take certain discursive conditions (and in the poetic text a line as a unit of text division restricts the sentence), as an incomplete (broken) sentence takes the form of a rule.

Here is another example. It is known that attributes in concord in the Russian language are usually in preposition to the determinate word: *двухспальная кровать* ‘double bed’, *поваренная соль* ‘table salt’, *пыльная проселочная дорога* ‘dusty country road’. Post-positional attributes (both in concord and not in concord) are a characteristic feature of the nomenclature description: *кровать двухспальная* ‘bed double’, *соль поваренная йодированная* ‘salt table iodized’, *ваза фаянсовая ручной работы* ‘vase faience handmade’.

Under certain conditions, requirements are narrowed: post-positional attribute is detached, and such constructions become not just needed, but the only correct ones. Here are classic examples of the auctioneer's speech:

*Десять стульев из дворца. Ореховые. Эпохи Александра Второго. В полном порядке. Работы мебельной мастерской Гамбса... Четыре стула из дворца. Ореховые. Мягкие. Работы Гамбса. Тридцать рублей. Кто больше? – Ten chairs from the palace. Walnut. From the reign of Alexander II. In perfect condition. By the Gambs furniture workshop... Four chairs from the palace. Walnut. Upholstered. By Gambs. Thirty rubles. Who will give more?» (И. Ильф, Е. Петров. 12 стульев).*

This method of text construction is inherent first of all in professional speech. But here is a similar description embedded in a coherent literary text:

*На соседнюю дачу приехали гости. Старый генерал с молодой женой. И с ними собака. Редкой породы. Далматский дог. Белая. С коричневыми пятнышками. Сучка. Красавица... – To the neighboring cottage arrived guests. An old general with his young wife. And a dog. Of a rare breed. Dalmatian dog. White. With brown spots. Bitch. Beauty...» (Э. Севела. Зуб мудрости).*

M.V. Panov gives the following example of a different verbalization of the same thought (Панов, 1999: 240):

*Николай выдумал интересный фокус.* – 'Nikolai has invented an interesting trick'

Николай не выдумал никакого интересного фокуса. – 'Nikolai has not invented any interesting trick'

Интересный фокус выдуман Николаем. – 'An interesting trick has been invented by Nikolai'

Интересный этот фокус, выдумка Николая. – 'This trick is interesting, Nikolai's invention'

Николаева выдумка... Фокус его... Интересный! – 'Nikolai's invention... The trick of his... Interesting!'

However, these «transforms» are equal only in theory – as reflecting the same proposition. In practice, as soon as we turn to the possibilities of their use in speech, it turns out that the speaker's choice is greatly restricted by discursive conditions. In particular, the example *Интересный фокус выдуман Николаем* 'An interesting trick has been invented by Nikolai' tends to occur in official contexts, and the last two "transforms" bear clear signs of the conversational speech.

And M.V. Vsevolodova draws attention to the use in Russian texts of present participles passive ending in *-им, -ем, -ом*. It is known that the formation of these forms is not very regular. But the author gives a lot of real, though not quite usual, examples, like *президент, не беромый наркозом* 'the president resistant to anesthesia'; *кинжал, кладомый между мужчиной и женщиной* 'the dagger put between man and woman'; *некомый горячим солнцем* 'heated by the hot sun' etc. Observations of such facts are the basis for the following conclusion:

«The very use of participles is the fact of a certain level of knowledge of the literary language. And if they exist, that means that they are demanded by our speech» (Всеволодова, 2012: 45).

On the one hand, such declaration is a clear manifestation of the functional approach: «if there is something in the language, then, for some reason, it is necessary!» On the other hand, doubts arise about the sufficient prevalence of these forms. In her report at XV *International Congress of Slavists* M.V. Vsevolodova is even more categorical:

«As our material showed, in all functional styles such passive participles as *жгомый 'burnt', прятомый 'hidden', пасомый 'grazed'* are systematically used...» (Всеволодова, 2013).

But doesn't it matter how often they are used and in what conditions? Except for the participles like *влекомый 'attracted', ведомый 'led', несомый 'carried'* (they are about a dozen in number), then all the rest suggest specific conditions for their realization. And the first of these conditions is freedom from the rules of the literary language. That means that *беромый 'taken'* or *жгомый 'burnt'* are possible in the conversational speech, or in the literary text, or, as a last resort, in the journalistic text... Indeed, these forms are in posse in the Russian language. But their real formation and use again are derived from discursive conditions.

A lot of original features have been demonstrated in the Russian internet language recently. Among them is a very "free" use of punctuation, capitalization, insertion of a variety of graphic symbols and pictures in the text (we are talking about so-called creolized texts), mixture of basic language units – words and sentences (fusions like *ойнемогу 'ohicannot'* or *мне все равно 'idonotcare'*). And these changes are also deeply functional: it is pragmatics that dominates semantics, emotional intentions dominate rational ones. Each discourse – of on-line information, trade and logistics, technical documentation, live communication, etc. – requires not just conceptualizing the accumulated knowledge of the world, but presenting it in an appropriate style and genre. We can consider the above given examples as some kind of markers of specific genres, types of speech acts, spheres of public relations, even lifestyles. And if we talk about the interaction of units of different language levels in text generation, we should not forget that not only structural organization should be the sign of the text, but also its discursive demand!

We should recall that in recent years, along with the traditional genres of academic, university and school grammars, the reader has received a lot of new, unusual not only by name, but also by the content grammars of the Russian language. Here are some of them:

- Зализняк, А. А. Грамматический словарь русского языка. Словоизменение. Москва, 1977.
- Бондарко, А. В. Функциональная грамматика. Ленинград, 1984.
- Караулов, Ю. Н. Ассоциативная грамматика русского языка. Москва, 1993.
- Золотова, Г. А., Онипенко, Н. К., Сидорова, М. Ю. Коммуникативная грамматика русского языка. Москва, 1998.
- Шарандин, А. Л. Курс лекций по лексической грамматике русского языка. Морфология. Тамбов, 2001.

What do all these attempts suggest? Apparently, the fact that the traditional grammar and traditional dictionary as «a guide to speech acts» do not satisfy a native speaker; or, in any case, they do not reflect the speech reality adequately enough. In the most general terms it can be said that this is rebellion of the supporters of the descriptive grammar against a long-term dominance of the normative grammar.

Of course, a variety of real «grammars» – of speech, scientific and juridical texts, poetry and literature in general, the Internet, etc. - should have some kind of an invariant. It is this invariant that the description of the literary language should match, which is fixed primarily in normative grammars. The canonical grammar is oriented to this invariant grammatical knowledge presented by academic and other reputable publications.

But this functional separation and discursive division of the Russian language happening before our eyes is not limited by the styles of speech, but gets to the level of individual genres. And the task of creating a «grammar of certain genres» it is becoming topical. The well-known researcher of Russian speech O.A. Lapteva stated in the 70s of the last century:

«By this time the functional division, expanding and capturing all layers of the language system, begins to actively influence the grammar defining a plurality of its real-linguistic incarnations» (Лаптева, 1976: 7).

Understanding of the fact what grammatical phenomena are unevenly distributed in the spheres of speech activity began to emerge in the course of research on the grammar statistics, ongoing since the middle of the twentieth century. The frequency of use of certain grammatical categories turns out to be a sign distinguishing different styles and genres. In recent years, it is becoming popular to study grammar «profiles» of words and the whole lexical-semantic groups.

However, does this mean that it is possible to compile a single and comprehensive – «objective» – grammar of the Russian language? This issue has also a serious theoretical aspect. And here we go back to the publications of M.V. Vsevolodova. In already cited abstracts at the *Congress of Slavists* the scholar insists:

«No system can be described “from the inside», it is necessary to go beyond the system. In language, we can either come to diachrony – the history of the language, or to another language, in this case, primarily to Slavic languages» (Всеволодова, 2013: 289).

It is difficult to accept this. Language is open in its lexical subsystem (that is why it is more difficult to reveal systemacy here); as for phonology and grammar, they are a set of units that can be considered closed for a particular slice of the language. We adhere to the opinion that the broader the object studied by the linguist is, the harder it is to see the system in it. Because in some of its parts the «objective grammar» proposed by M.V. Vsevolodova will contradict itself. How can we combine under one roof phenomena that are discursively incompatible? For example, how can paratactic nominative constructions characteristic for conversational speech be combined with polynomial chains of

successive submission in scientific speech? Each «sub-language» (dialect, sociolect, functional style, etc.) is a formation in which all the elements are deeply connected with each other. Summation of their peculiarities will give some mechanical conglomerate devoid of systemacy as the most important property of the language. Therefore, the creation of the «objective grammar», apparently, will remain a good intention. However, the history of science knows such attempts. For example, “Синтаксис русского языка” («The syntax of the Russian language») by A.A. Shakhmatov was built namely in such a way – including diachronic facts and folk dialects, involving the material of related languages, etc. (see Шахматов, 1941). And the result was a solid volume containing a lot of reference information, but of little use for other practical purposes: the language system “dissolved” in it.

Therefore, from our point of view, a more urgent task is to write a series of special «grammars of the Russian language» – the grammar of conversational speech, the grammar of poetic texts, the grammar of legal documents, the grammar of headings, etc.

## References

- Kintsch, W.* Memory and Cognition. Malabar, 1982.
- Kainz, Fr.* Psychologie der Sprache. Erster Band. Grundlagen der allgemeinen Sprachpsychologie. 4-e Auflage. Stuttgart, 1967.
- Grabias, St.* Język w zachowaniach społecznych. Lublin, 1997.
- Pisarek, L.* Речевые действия и их реализация в русском языке в сопоставлении с польским (экспрессивы). Wrocław, 1995.
- Балли, Ш.* Французская стилистика. Москва, 1961.
- Вайнрих, Х.* Лингвистика лжи. In: В. В. Петров (общ. ред.) Язык и моделирование социального взаимодействия. Москва, 1987. 44–87.
- Всеволодова, М. В.* К вопросу об объективной грамматике. In: Urbi et Academiae. Граду и научному сообществу. Санкт-Петербург, 2012. 42–49.
- Всеволодова, М. В.* Грамматики славянских языков XXI века (о необходимости написания объективных грамматик славянских языков). In: XV Міжнародны з'езд славістаў (Мінск, Беларусь, 20-27 жніўня 2013 г.). Тэзісы дакладаў у двух тамах. Т. 1. Мовазнаўства. Мінск, 2013. 288–289.
- Данеш, Ф., Гаузенблас, К.* Проблематика уровней с точки зрения структуры высказывания и системы языковых средств. In: В. Н. Ярцева, Н. Ю. Шведова (ред.) Единицы разных уровней грамматического строя языка и их взаимодействие. Москва, 1969. 7–20.
- Звегинцев, В. А.* Предложение и его отношение к языку и речи. Москва, 1976.
- Кубрякова, Е. С.* Лексикализация грамматики: пути и последствия. In: Язык – система. Язык – текст. Язык – способность. К 60-летию Ю. Н. Караулова. Москва, 1995. 16–24.

- Кубрякова, Е. С. Номинативный аспект речевой деятельности. Москва: Наука, 1986.
- Лантева, О. А. О влиянии функционального расслоения литературного языка на его грамматику. In: Г. А. Золотова (отв. ред.) Синтаксис и стилистика. Москва, 1976. 5–24.
- ЛЭС – Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. Глав. ред. В. Н. Ярцева. Москва, 1990.
- Норман, Б. Сапоги Италия, ванна Новокузнецк, крыша черепица... О дискурсивной обусловленности грамматики. In: Slavica Nitriensia, 1. 2013. 5–17.
- Норман, Б. Функционализм в языке, в лингвистике и в лингводидактике. In: J. Lindstedt et al. (eds.) С любовью к слову. Festschrift in Honour of Professor Arto Mustajoki. Helsinki, 2008. 262–276.
- Панов, М. В. Позиционная морфология русского языка. Москва, 1999.
- Проничев, В. П. Функционирование именных односоставных конструкций в тексте (предметно-ситуативные номинации). Ленинград, 1991.
- РРР 1978 – Русская разговорная речь. Тексты. Москва, 1978.
- Седов, К. Ф. К основаниям лингвистики индивидуальных различий (о принципах речевого портретирования). In: М. А. Кормилицына, О. Б. Сиротина (ред.) Проблемы речевой коммуникации, 7. Саратов, 2007. 6–29.
- Шахматов, А. А. Синтаксис русского языка. Изд. 2-е. Москва–Ленинград, 1941.

Olga Goritskaya

## Synthetic and analytical hortative forms used in modern spoken Russian: Language – speech – discourse

This article discusses Russian hortative (imperative, 1pl) constructions, such as *пойдемте* and *давайте пойдём* (a synthetic and an analytical form of *let us go*). It is a small fragment of Russian grammar that, however, makes one think about such major linguistic topics as competition within language, language change, the correlation between grammar, semantics and pragmatics, etc. Various factors, from systemic linguistic to discursive, affect how hortative forms function in speech. Furthermore, the discursive dimension of such verb forms is of particular interest. It shows the connection between grammatical units and life, i.e. society, culture, communication, etc.

**Sampling.** I used the General Internet-Corpus of Russian (GICR, <http://int.webcorpora.ru>), which is currently available for testing, as the main source for the study of hortative forms. This study uses the subcorpus of LiveJournal, which consists of almost 8.7 billion words. GICR offers another massive subcorpus that includes texts from the Russian social network VKontakte (9.8 million words), but it is less suitable for our purposes due to a

smaller number of relevant linguistic items. For example, we can compare the number of contexts with the following word forms: *пойдемте* ('go' – hortative, synthetic, perfective) – 9 471 (LJ), 3 848 (VK); *пойдем* ('follow' – hortative, synthetic, perfective) – 2 078 (LJ), 469 (VK).

The study also uses the data that I have gathered earlier by means of the Russian National Corpus (RNC, <http://ruscorpora.ru>). The combined volume of the Russian National Corpus is 500 million words, 54 million of which are part of the texts of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (general subcorpus).

RNC demonstrates that the number of usable verb forms ending in *-мте* significantly decreases over time. We can encounter 149 different verb forms in the texts of the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century (see the chart). But in the 21<sup>st</sup> century there are only 11 verbs left: *пойти* ('go', perfective), *идти* ('go', imperfective), *пойти* ('follow'), *отойти* ('move away'), *войти* ('enter'), *зайти* ('come in'), *поехать* ('drive'), *спуститься* ('walk down'), *спеть* ('sing'), *снять* ('take off'), *назвать* ('call'), with the following 4 verbs used in 96 % of the cases: *пойти*, *идти*, *пойти* и *поехать*.

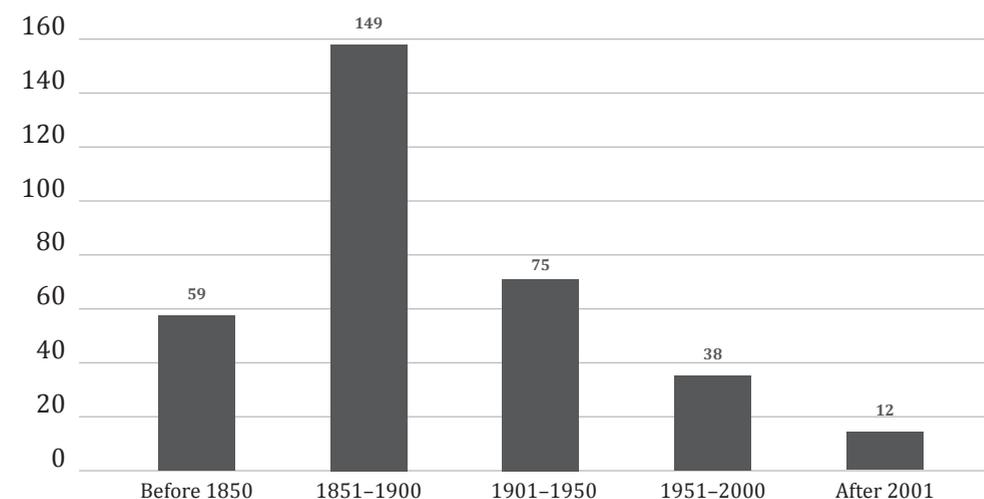


Diagram 1. Number of verbs that produce forms ending in *-мте* (according to RNC)

It appears, however, that RNC does not provide enough data to see the whole spectrum of verb forms ending in *-мте* used in modern speech. I was able to find 160 word forms of this kind in the LiveJournal subcorpus of GICR. As expected, most items are used only in a small number of contexts. Thus, 135 (84.4 %) word forms occur in no more than 5 contexts. Here is the list of the most common hortative forms ending in *-мте* sorted in descending order of frequency:

1	<i>пойдемте</i> – ‘go’ (perfective)	14	<i>выпьете</i> – ‘drink’ (perfective)
2	<i>пройдемте</i> – ‘follow’ (perfective)	15	<i>уйдемте</i> – ‘leave’ (perfective)
3	<i>идемте</i> – ‘go’ (imperfective)	16	<i>отойдемте</i> – ‘move away’ (perfective)
4	<i>поедемте</i> – ‘drive’ (perfective)	17	<i>выйдемте</i> – ‘go out’ (perfective)
5	<i>будемте</i> – ‘be’ (imperfective)	18	<i>начнемте</i> – ‘start’ (perfective)
6	<i>едемте</i> – ‘drive’ (imperfective)	19	<i>сядемте</i> – ‘sit’ (perfective)
7	<i>споемте</i> – ‘sing’ (perfective)	20	<i>войдемте</i> – ‘enter’ (perfective)
8	<i>умремте</i> – ‘die’ (perfective)	21	<i>подойдемте</i> – ‘approach’ (perfective)
9	<i>станемте</i> – ‘become’ (perfective)	22	<i>перестанемте</i> – ‘stop’ (perfective)
10	<i>проедемте</i> – ‘pass through’ (perfective)	23	<i>скажемте</i> – ‘say’ (perfective)
11	<i>зайдемте</i> – ‘come in’ (perfective)	24	<i>забудемте</i> – ‘forget’ (perfective)
12	<i>уедемте</i> – ‘depart’ (perfective)	25	<i>присядемте</i> – ‘take a seat’ (perfective)
13	<i>перейдемте</i> – ‘cross’ (perfective)		

Contexts with the first 5 word forms of this list constitute 94.5 % of all cases where forms ending in *-мте* are used.

Let us look at the word form *будемте* (‘be’) which in this list ranks No. 5 according to frequency of occurrence (occurs about 300 times). According to GICR, this word form is not present in the texts of the 21<sup>st</sup> century and is only observed 3 times in the texts of the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. This is why the RNC-based papers say that only verbs of motion produce forms ending in *-мте* in modern spoken Russian (Кустова, 2011; Дуденкова, 2013). It appears that more extensive corpora like GICR can provide more accurate data on the modern functioning of rare linguistic items, including numerous hortative forms.

**Frequency of occurrence of synthetic and analytical hortative forms.** It is known that most Russian verbs tend to produce analytical hortative forms with the particle *давайте* more often than synthetic ones ending in *-мте* (Русская грамматика, 1980: 622). However, it seems necessary to acquire more accurate data on the quantitative relations between synthetic and analytical hortative forms used in modern Russian speech. Intuition tells us that people say *давайте сядем* (‘sit’ – hortative, analytical) more often than *сядемте* (‘sit’ – hortative, synthetic). Yes, but how often exactly? Which forms are more common: *поедемте* (‘drive’ – hortative, synthetic) or *давайте поедем*

(‘drive’ – hortative, analytical), *споемте* (‘sing’ – hortative, synthetic) or *давайте споем* (‘sing’ – hortative, analytical)? What is the proportion between synthetic and analytical forms of different verbs?

In order to answer these questions, I took 25 verbs that produce the most frequently used word forms ending in *-мте* and compared the quantity of their synthetic and analytical hortative forms in the LiveJournal subsorpus of GICR (Table 1). Verbs *удму* (‘go’ – imperfective; ranked No. 3 in the frequency list) and *ехать* (‘drive’ – imperfective; ranked No. 6) were excluded from the sample due to their inability to produce analytical forms: *идемте* – \**давайте идем*, *едемте* – \**давайте едем*.

**Table 1.** Proportion between synthetic and analytical hortative forms

Lexeme	Synthetic forms		Analytical forms	
<i>пойти</i> – ‘go’	9471	93,4 %	674	6,6 %
<i>пройти</i> – ‘pass, follow’	2078	91,5 %	192	8,5 %
<i>умереть</i> – ‘die’	90	86,5 %	14	13,5 %
<i>поехать</i> – ‘drive’	921	72,2 %	355	27,8 %
<i>проехать</i> – ‘drive through’	40	57,1 %	30	42,9 %
<i>уехать</i> – ‘depart’	30	44,1 %	38	55,9 %
<i>спеть</i> – ‘sing’	111	42,7 %	149	57,3 %
<i>стать</i> – ‘become’	63	22,4 %	218	77,6 %
<i>уйти</i> – ‘leave’	23	21,9 %	82	78,1 %
<i>войти</i> – ‘enter’	9	17,0 %	44	83,0 %
<i>отойти</i> – ‘move away’	15	11,6 %	114	88,4 %
<i>зайти</i> – ‘come in’	22	10,8%	181	89,2 %
<i>присесть</i> – ‘take a seat’	6	9,1 %	60	90,9 %
<i>выйти</i> – ‘go out’	15	5,9 %	239	94,1 %
<i>сесть</i> – ‘sit’	10	5,1 %	186	94,9 %
<i>подойти</i> – ‘approach’	6	4,9 %	117	95,1 %
<i>быть</i> – ‘be’	296	4,1 %	6980	95,9 %
<i>перейти</i> – ‘cross’	21	3,0 %	669	97,0 %
<i>перестать</i> – ‘stop’	8	1,8 %	426	98,2 %
<i>забыть</i> – ‘forget’	7	1,8 %	392	98,2 %
<i>выпить</i> – ‘drink’	28	1,2 %	2302	98,8 %
<i>сказать</i> – ‘say’	8	0,9 %	864	99,1 %
<i>начать</i> – ‘start’	13	0,6 %	2167	99,4 %

Table 1 shows that there are 3 verb groups in Russian:

- 1) verbs that tend to produce synthetic hortative forms (*пойти, пройти, поехать*);
- 2) verbs that exhibit an equal frequency of occurrence of synthetic and analytical forms (*проехать, уехать, спеть*);
- 3) verbs that tend to produce analytical hortative forms (the rest of the verbs in the list), including lexemes that very rarely produce forms ending in *-мте* (*перестать, забыть, выпить, сказать, начать*).

The verb *умереть* ('die') possesses a special status, so it makes sense to study it separately. It is a citation form (Горицкая, 2014с): in 77 of 90 examples, the word form *умремте* is followed by *под Москвой*, with some other contexts also containing references to the same precedent text – “Borodino” by M. Lermontov.

Moreover, Table 1 proves that *будемте* ('be' – hortative, synthetic) should be regarded as one of the “unnoticeable” synthetic forms, as its percentage is only 4.1 % of the total number. This is probably the reason why its absence in RNC was consistent with the intuition of linguists who said that only verbs of motion tend to actively produce forms ending in *-мте* in modern spoken Russian (Кустова, 2011; Дуденкова, 2013).

As can be seen from Table 1, synthetic forms are more often produced by verbs denoting the initiation of motion. For example, *пойти* ('go', perfective) means 'to start the action according to the verb *идти*'; the same semantics can be observed with the verb *поехать* ('drive', perfective).

The verb *пройти* 'pass, follow' is a more complicated one. When it comes to modern spoken Russian, we can find this form primarily in the speech of police officers, KGB officers, etc. In such communicative situations, there is a certain narrowing of meaning of the lexeme *пройти*: it means 'to follow a policeman to the station' (see Горицкая, 2014а). It is quite clear that an immediate execution of an order is expected in situations like this. The word form *пройдемте* ('follow' – hortative, synthetic) is generally perceived as part of the language of the police, and this connotation prevents people from using it in other communicative situations (the form of address *гражданин* had a similar destiny).

There are no such connotations with the verb *проехать* 'drive through', and it produces synthetic forms less often than the verb *пройти* 'pass, follow', as can be seen from Table 1. There is a different proportion of synthetic and analytical forms in lexemes with more specific meanings than 'to start moving'.

Thus, the grammatical meaning of the form ending in *-мте* agrees with the semantics of the verbs *пойти* 'go, start going' and *поехать* 'ride, start riding' and the “police verb”

*пройти* 'pass, follow'. Apparently, it was due to this fact that synthetic forms became attributed to the verbs denoting the initiation of motion. It is a case of lexical and grammatical isosemy. As B. Norman said,

“...within the language system, grammatical and lexical meanings are interdependent. It is as if they were moving towards one another in the course of speech, making it easier for a speaker to produce text, and for a listener to comprehend it” (Норман, 2016: 127).

**Desemantization of verb forms ending in *-мте*.** Synthetic forms ending in *-мте* can be used in such constructions as *пойдемте погуляем* ('go', hortative + 'go for a walk', fut., 1pl). Such constructions usually employ the word form *пойдемте* (Table 2).

Example:

(1) <i>И все-таки я хочу в Царицыно! Люди, не спите, откликайтесь! Пойдемте погуляем!</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/pandohka/42984).	Still, I want to go to Tsaritsyno! People, don't be lazy, come on! Let's go for a walk!
--	---

**Table 2.** Usage of different lexemes in constructions “verb ending in *-мте* + verb in the 1Pl form”

Lexeme	Number	
<i>пойдемте</i>	601	87,1 %
<i>идемте</i>	57	8,3 %
<i>пройдемте</i>	14	2,0 %
<i>поедемте</i>	8	1,2 %
<i>зайдемте</i>	1	0,1 %
<i>проедемте</i>	1	0,1 %

It is interesting that a verb of motion can also be used as the second component (*пойдемте сходим*), with such contexts being quite common (see Table 3). In constructions of this type, the word form *пойдемте* becomes completely desemantized and functions an equivalent of a grammatical marker of a hortative form.

**Table 3.** The most frequently used constructions “*пойдемте* + verb in 1Pl”

Construction	Number	
<i>пойдемте посмотрим</i>	79	17,1 %
<i>пойдемте выпьем</i>	35	7,6 %
<i>пойдемте погуляем</i>	34	7,3 %
<i>пойдемте сходим</i>	22	4,8 %
<i>пойдемте покурим</i>	19	4,1 %

Such changes in the semantics and functioning of the word form *пойдемте* are considered typical. For example, V. Goussev noted in regard to different languages that forms with the meaning ‘let us go’ tend to become desemantized, starting to convey the meaning of mutual encouragement, and over time can turn into markers of the 1pl. imperative (Гусев 2005: 111 et al.), see also (Aikhenvald, 2010: 346–349).

**Pragmatic difference between frequently and rarely used variants.** Earlier (Горицкая, 2014b), I established that such forms as *скажемте* (‘say’ – hortative, synthetic) used in modern spoken Russian can have functions that are typical for archaic forms: these items can be used for the purpose of stylization, to express irony, etc. However, they do not always convey such meanings. It seems that this “borderline” character of rarely used forms ending in *-мте* can be attributed to their textual and systemic relations. For one part, such items as *скажемте* can be associated with the texts of the time when synthetic forms ending in *-мте* were more common and were produced by a larger number of verbs. For the other part, in modern spoken Russian, rarely used forms ending in *-мте* are supported by such widely used forms as *пойдемте* and parallel future tense forms (*скажем*).

One of this article’s goals is to study the specific character of analytical forms, which occur in speech more rarely than synthetic ones. I decided to focus on the lexemes with the most drastic proportion between analytical and synthetic forms – *пойти* (‘go’) и *пойму* (‘follow’). These items clearly do not convey any archaic connotations. So is there any difference at all between the forms *давайте пойдём* (‘go’ – hortative, analytical) and *пойдемте* (‘go’ – hortative, synthetic), and between *давайте пройдем* (‘follow’ – hortative, analytical) and *пойдемте* (‘follow’ – hortative, synthetic)?

My study of the contexts from GICR and RNC has revealed that there are subtle pragmatic differences between synthetic and analytical forms of the verbs *пойти* ‘go’ and *пойму* ‘follow’. Some contexts suggest that mutual encouragement or urging sounds firmer with

synthetic verb forms (the speaker has more control over the situation). It can also be supported by the fact that it is the form *пойдемте* (‘follow’ – hortative, synthetic) that became part of the police language. *Давайте пройдем* (‘follow’ – hortative, analytical) is something that would sound too “soft” coming from a police officer.

Analytical form is perceived as less categorical. The less assured the speaker is of the outcome of his encouragement attempt, the less rights he has to urge his addressee to do something, the more likely he is to choose one of the analytical forms, such as *давайте пойдём* (‘go’ – hortative, analytical). This is why *давайте пойдём* is well suited for unexpected or vague suggestions and invitations.

Examples:

(2) Мы созванивается со своими друзьями, или они звонят нам. « <b>Давайте пойдём</b> куда-нибудь!» – «Давайте, а куда?». (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/ledy_park/2391).	<i>We call our friends, or they call us.</i>  “ <b>Let’s go somewhere!</b> ” – “Sure, let’s go, but where?”
(3) Народ, а кто что седня ночью делать собирается???  <b>А давайте пойдём</b> гулять совместно!!! Мосты... Набережные... Закаты... Восходы... Кофейники и усе дела... (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/suslik_96/18962).	<i>Hey, people, are you all gonna do something tonight?</i>  <i>Now I’ve got an idea: <b>let’s go</b> for a walk together!!! Bridges... Seafronts... Sunsets... Sunrises... Coffeepots and stuff..</i>

Of course, the synthetic form *пойдемте* can also be used in situations like this. However, in contexts like (2) and (3), the analytical forms *давайте пойдём*, which rarely occur in Russian speech (Table 1), sound natural. And vice versa, we can imagine a situation when a person approaches a group of people waiting for him. *Давайте пойдём* is not likely to be used in this case.

Why do such differences exist? According to the theory of grammaticalization (Bybee et al., 1994), the original meaning of the construction determines the process of grammaticalization and the grammatical meaning of the construction. Grammaticalization is also a gradual process, and it seems that such modern constructions as *давайте пойдём* still carry the “memory” of the original meaning of *давайте*, which makes analytical forms sound softer compared to synthetic ones.

There can be found parallels between analytical hortative forms and other constructions with *давай* and *дай*: *Давай это сделаем! Давай Петя это сделает! – Дай я это сделаю! Дай Петя это сделает!* In her paper about the functioning of grammaticalized verbs *дать* and *давать*, V. Podlesskaya pointed out that both asking for a permission and proposing to do something are actions aimed at receiving some sort of sanction from a listener (Подлеская, 2005).

In case of the forms ending in *-мте*, the distance between words and deeds is also perceived as minimal due to the fact that in modern Russian speech (not in diachrony), these items appear to be quite close to future tense forms (Храковский, Володин, 1986: 202). Without *-те*, it is difficult to differentiate between future tense forms and hortative forms. The phrase from a scientific article *рассмотрим формы совместного действия* is perceived as syncretic, i.e. it could mean both a suggestion for a reader and a statement of a future fact.

**Hortative forms in various types of discourse.** Our study showed that some of synthetic and analytical hortative forms tend to become attached to certain discourses.

One form can gravitate towards institutional discourse, and another towards non-institutional discourse. We have already studied the form *пройдемте*, which mainly occurs in the police language. The form *давайте пройдем* ('pass, follow') can be chosen in order to avoid any associations with the police language. This is why the analytical form is the one used in everyday colloquial discourse, e.g. in a situation when the host asks his guests to follow him into the living room.

Moreover, the synthetic form *пойдемте* is more typical for everyday colloquial discourse than, for example, political or scientific discourse. It is due to the fact that the forms with the particle *давайте* are preferred when the verb *пойти* denotes motion of a more abstract nature than spatial motion (*пойдемте* would not sound right in such contexts):

<p>(4) – <i>Тогда, может быть, стоит ужесточить карательные меры? Давайте пройдем путем того же Китая, где за наркопреступления предусмотрена смертная казнь...</i> (GICR: Berezina, E. They're hunting wolves (2003) // Moskovskij Komsomolets, 01.01.2003).</p>	<p>– <i>Should we stiffen the penalties, then? Let us follow the example of China, where drug-related crimes are punished with death...</i></p>
---	---

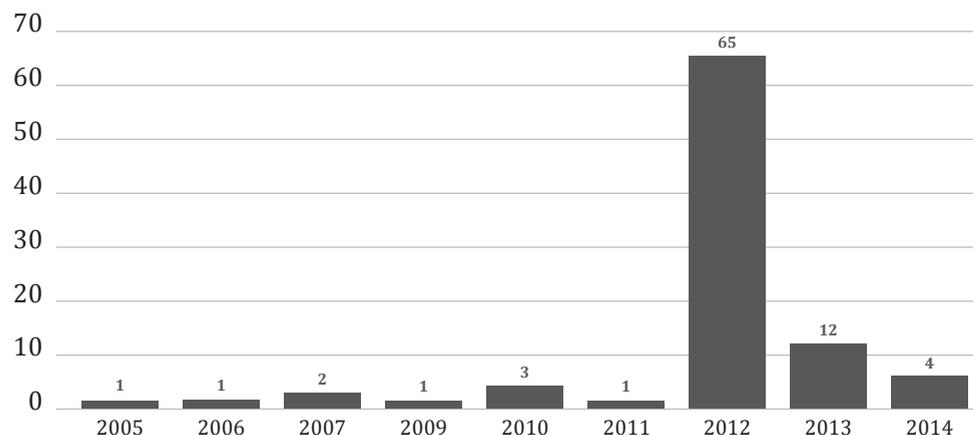
Examples from blogs:

<p>(5) <i>И ладно бы только шоу-бизнес. Все-таки его делают журналисты, коих много, и у каждого свое мнение. Давайте пойдём в культуру, где нормы охраняются веками, а посягательство на них – чаще самоубийство, чем известность</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/derizo/9253).</p>	<p><i>If only it were just showbiz. It is made by journalists after all, and there are many of them, each with an opinion of his own. But <b>let us go</b> into culture, where standards are guarded for centuries, so any encroachment upon them is generally a suicide and not something that promises popularity.</i></p>
<p>(6) <i>Конечно это отображение и визуализация, и не все ее используют, но давайте пойдём дальше, и посмотрим следующие инструменты</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/dedcad/6361) – ?Пойдемте.</p>	<p><i>Sure, it's display and visualization, and not everybody uses it, but <b>let's go</b> further and take a look at the following tools.</i></p>

The form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) is of particular interest in terms of discursive analysis. Asking people to face death together is by no means a typical speech act – however, the Table 1 shows that the lexeme *умереть* 'die' produces hortative forms no less frequently than the lexemes *проехать* 'pass through', *уехать* 'depart', *уйти* 'leave', *войти* 'enter' and *присесть* 'take a seat'. Of course, the relatively low frequency of occurrence of hortative forms produced by such verbs as *проехать* 'pass through' or *войти* 'enter' in blogs is related to the fact the such forms are usually used in oral communication. But why has the form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) become so popular? As we have already mentioned, this form is quotational. Most of the contexts with *умремте* found in the Internet refer to "Borodino", a patriotic poem by M. Lermontov:

<p>(7) <i>И молвил он, сверкнув очами: «Ребята! Не Москва ль за нами? Умремте ж под Москвой, Как наши братья умирали!»</i></p>	<p><i>He called to us, with flashing eyes: 'For Moscow, for the fight! Arise! For Moscow we shall die Like all the rest in battle slain!'</i> (translated by Eugene M. Kayden)</p>
--	--

However, the wide use of the form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) in blogs can hardly be attributed to the Internet users being simply interested in Russian classical literature. As Figure 2 shows, it was in 2012 when the word form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) suddenly became so popular.



**Diagram 2.** Frequency of occurrence of the word form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) in blogs (according to GICR)

As it happens, Vladimir Putin quoted Lermontov's poem in his 2012 campaign rally speech. Russian bloggers were eager to discuss why the presidential candidate had referred to this particular text. These are just some examples:

<p>(8) <i>В своем обращении Владимир Путин не раз призвал участников к защите Родины, читал строки Лермонтова из «Бородино»: «Умремте под Москвой, как наши братья умирали!», вспомнил чудо-богатырей, которые умирали за Отечество. Все это, конечно, эмоционально и патриотично. Но от кого защищать Родину и с кем бороться?</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/ read/user/ mihailovv/109214).</p>	<p><i>During his speech, Vladimir Putin repeatedly urged the participants to protect their homeland, cited passages from Lermontov's Borodino: 'For Moscow we shall die / Like all the rest in battle slain!'; and talked about heroes who had died for their country. Sure, it's all emotional and patriotic, but who exactly should we protect our homeland from and who should we fight?</i></p>
<p>(9) <i>Это не придуманное настроение, до этого ощущения ни один спичрайтер не додумается. Это от сердца. И это наводит ужас. [...] Битва за жизнь. Не образ, не гипербола, а именно битва, последний смертный бой. И из груди рвется: Ребята! Не Москва ль за нами? Умремте же под Москвой, как наши братья умирали!</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/ read/user/d_prelest/212207)</p>	<p><i>It wasn't some made-up feeling, because no speechwriter could come up with this. The words came from the heart. And this is what makes it so terrifying. [...] Battle for life. Not an image, not a hyperbole, but a battle, the last deadly fight. And the heart screams: 'For Moscow, for the fight! Arise! / For Moscow we shall die / Like all the rest in battle slain!'</i></p>

Thus, political discourse gave the word-form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) a new lease of life. I have established that most (70%) of the occurrences of the word-form *умремте* in blogs are direct references to the political events of 2012 and to Putin's speech. Sometimes the quotation is transformed, but the political background stays the same:

<p>(10) ... <i>"умремте ж под Болотной"...</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/read/user/ mornixuur/234982).</p>	<p><i>"for Bolotnaya we shall die"</i></p>
---	--

Diagram 2 shows that the popularity of the word-form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) has drastically reduced after 2012. However, this linguistic item is still associated with Vladimir Putin. Here is an example from 2014:

<p>(11) <i>И вдруг, у кого-то наверху перещелкнуло! Объявить войну понадобилось. Народный Фронт, "умремте ж под Москвой", не дадим посягать на наши культурные ценности. Я бы еще поняла, если бы такая "народная война" объявлена была против терроризма и наркомании</i> (GICR: m.livejournal.com/ read/user/ valianikitiuk/1343).</p>	<p><i>And then, all of a sudden, someone decides to declare martial law. National Front, 'For Moscow we shall die', nobody will infringe upon our cultural heritage, etc. If you want to start some kind of "people's war", then at least make it against terrorism and drug abuse.</i></p>
--	---

## Conclusion

In modern spoken Russian, there are various limitations related to the functioning of forms ending in *-мте*. The number of verbs producing such forms is decreasing. There also exists a group of verbs that tend to produce synthetic and not analytical hortative forms – verbs of motion, the semantics of which also include the component 'to begin something': *пойти, поехать* (isosemy). Moreover, the form *пойдемте* in some cases (*пойдемте сходим* and so on) becomes grammaticalized, conveying nothing but an idea of some collaborative activity.

In this article, hortative forms used in modern spoken Russian were studied both from the perspective of a language system and from the perspective of discourse.

Firstly, the history (the original meanings of words in an analytical form) and systemic relations (synthetic hortative forms – future tense forms) of items determine several specific features of the functioning of hortative forms in modern Russian speech. For example, certain contexts show that the synthetic forms of verbs of motion (ending in *-мте*) tend to sound more imperative and categorical than the analytical ones (with *давайте*).

Secondly, there is a noticeable discourse specialization of some of the hortative forms. A vivid example of such specialization is the form *пойдемте* ('follow' – hortative, synthetic), which is perceived as part of the police language and is more and more rarely used in other communicative situations. Analytical hortative forms produced by the verb *пойти* ('go') are more typical for political or scientific discourse than to everyday colloquial speech. It can be explained by the fact that synthetic forms are associated with spatial motion, and analytical forms with abstract motion. Finally, some of the forms can be related to socio-political and cultural events. For example, in most modern texts, the word-form *умремте* ('die' – hortative, synthetic) is used as a direct or – much more frequently – indirect (through Putin's speech) reference to the classical text by M. Lermontov.

In general, studying grammatical units in terms of discourse offers great opportunities for linguists. Here are some examples of the tasks to be solved by a discourse-oriented functional grammar:

- identify discursive characteristics of various grammatical forms and create grammars of various discourses (see the article by B. Norman published in this collection);
- identify and systematize socio-cultural connotations of various word forms;
- identify discursive factors that influence the functioning of grammatical units (including the competition between grammatical variants);
- identify regional functional characteristics of grammatical units (for example, by studying the Russian language spoken in Belarus and Russia).

Such studies prove that many grammatical conventions are determined by discourse, and the correlation between grammar and "life" is more prominent than it would seem at first glance.

## References

- Aikhenvald, A. Y. Imperatives and commands. Oxford, 2010.
- Bybee, J., Perkins, R., and Pagliuca, W. The evolution of grammar: Tense, aspect and modality in the languages of the world. Chicago, 1994.
- Горицкая, О. С. Социально-прагматические ограничения на употребление грамматических форм (на примере словоформы *пойдемте* в современной русской речи). In: Мир – Язык – Человек: материалы III Всерос. науч.-практ. конф. с междунар. участием. Владимир, 2014. 141–145.
- Горицкая, О. С. Формы совместного действия на *-мте* в современной русской речи (по данным Национального корпуса русского языка и блогосферы). In: Вестник МГЛУ. Сер. 1, Филология. 1 (68), 2014. 117–126.
- Горицкая, О. С. Цитатное употребление форм совместного действия на *-мте* (на материале интернет-коммуникации). In: Вестник МГЛУ. Сер. 1, Филология. № 2 (69), 2014. 138–146.

Гусев, В. Ю. Типология специализированных глагольных форм императива: дис. ... канд. филол. наук. Москва, 2005.

Дуденкова, А. А. Функционирование форм императива на *-мте* в русском языке. In: Глагольные и именные категории в системе функциональной грамматики: сб. материалов конференции 9–12 апреля 2013 г. Санкт-Петербург, 2013. 76–80.

Кустова, Г. И. Лицо. In: Материалы для проекта корпусного описания русской грамматики (Русграм). На правах рукописи. Москва, 2011. <http://rusgram.ru/Лицо>.

Норман, Б. Ю. Жизнь словоформы. Москва, 2016.

Подлеская, В. И. Русские глаголы *дать/давать*: от прямых употреблений к грамматикализированным. In: Вопросы языкознания. 2, 2005. 89–103.

Русская грамматика: в 2 т. Редкол.: Н. Ю. Шведова (гл. ред.) [и др.]. Москва, 1980. Т. 1: Авилова, Н. С. [и др.] Фонетика. Фонология. Ударение. Интонация. Словообразование. Морфология.

Словарь русского языка: в 4 т. РАН, Ин-т лингвистич. исследований; под ред. А. П. Евгеньевой. Москва, 1999.

Храковский, В. С., Володин, А. П. Семантика и типология императива. Русский императив. Отв. ред. В.Б. Касевич. Ленинград, 1986.

Ekaterina Vasilenko

## Grammatical categories as a means of creating discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction (on the basis of political discourse)

### Introduction

The study of political discourse is one of the most complex and urgent problems of modern linguistics (T. van Dijk, R. Wodak, A.N. Baranov, A.P. Chudinov, E.R. Lissan, E.I. Sheigal, I.F. Oukhvanova, etc.). As pointed out by professor E.I. Sheigal, a representative of the Volgograd school of discourse, the author of the monograph "*Semiotics of political discourse*",

«the specifics of politics, in contrast to many other areas of human activity, lies in its mostly discursive nature: many political actions are per se speech acts» (Шейгал, 2004: 18).

Linguists stated not once that many political actions are inherently speech actions:

"Such disputes [...] are politics. Politics partly consists in the disputes and struggles which occur in language and over language" (Fairclough, 1989: 23),

and consequently,

“political speech analysis can be successful when it relates the details of linguistic behavior to political behavior” (Schäffner, 1996: 202).

Of course, language is not the only means of struggle for power, but its role in politics can hardly be overestimated. It is language that helps to correct the individual picture of the world and to affect the listener's thoughts and emotions. That is why the key concepts of my study will be those of discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction (the terms of the representatives of the causal-genetic approach). *The discourse picture of the world* refers to

«object-oriented, or more precisely, subject-object content (other possible names - referent, thematic), which answers the questions: what is discourse about and how is this «what» organized thematically?» (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2009: 21).

*The discourse picture of cortege interaction* is

«subject-oriented, or more precisely, subject-subject content that answers the question: who communicates and how is this interaction presented ...»(ibid: 22).

A chiefly linguistic character of political activity causes the necessity to study language means participating in construction of political discourse. As professor O.S. Issers, the author of the detailed description of the communicative strategies and tactics of the Russian speech, states,

“the main subject matter of the linguistic analysis of speech influence is connected with the study of the speaker's strategies and all the language resources he has at hand that determine his achievement of a communicative goal” (Исцес, 2011: 23).

Despite the interest of linguists in the problem of communication strategies in general and the communicative strategy of persuasion in particular, as well as the active development of this issue in recent years, nowadays most works are devoted to the study of lexical means of realization of various strategies. Therefore, the study of the role of the grammatical categories in the actualization of the communicative strategy of persuasion, and consequently the construction of the discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction, seems very promising. The choice of grammatical categories of person and tense as a subject of study is due to their universality and interdependence, as well as their functional significance in the communicative and suggestive aspects. The universal functional-semantic category of personality is directly linked to temporality, as these two categories relate the particular situation with a certain act of speech.

The study was performed on the material of total 22 scripts of State of the Union Addresses and Addresses of the President of the Russian Federation to the Federal Assembly (11 in each language, 2001–2011, sources: <http://www.presidency.ucsb.edu/sou.php>; <http://www.kremlin.ru/>). The material was chosen due to the possibility of comparing the language material within the same genre, which in the first case is well established in the linguistic culture of the state, while the second – relatively new. Comparison of the grammatical means of the English and Russian languages used by the speaker will reveal general patterns of communication in these discursive conditions as well as specific features of each of the languages.

The aim of the research is to state the role of the grammatical categories of time and person in the realization of the communicative strategy of persuasion and construction of the discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction in presidential addresses to the parliament.

### **Presidential address to the parliament as a genre of political discourse**

The genre structure of modern political discourse is quite diverse: from everyday conversations about politics and political jokes to international negotiations. Differentiation of genres is performed according to different principles. E.I. Sheigal (Шейгал, 2004: 232–246), basing on the analysis of an extensive material of Russian and American political discourse, proposes to allocate the following parameters structuring its genre space: institutionality, or officiality; subject-addressee relationship; social and cultural differentiation; event localization; prototype (centrality) – marginality degree of the genre in the field structure of discourse; the nature of the leading intention.

The studied genre of the presidential address to the parliament has a number of unique characteristics and performs certain functions (informative, integrative and inspirational), the main function of which is to maintain and strengthen the status of the institute of presidency (see Василенко, 2013). According to the plan suggested by E.I. Sheigal, the address refers to institutional prototypical genres performed on the level “politician – the whole society or large social groups”. The most interesting characteristic of the address is the nature of the leading intention as it combines the features of the orientational and ritual genres. It is obvious that the address refers to orientational genres in view of its immediate objective – to give an account of the last year's policy and to present the forthcoming agenda to the parliament. At the same time, the presidential address to the parliament can be treated also as a ritual genre on the basis of its spatial and temporal localization, thematic set of communication and fixed structure.

Due to their long tradition, addresses of American presidents have acquired more characteristics of the ritual genre than those of Russian leaders whose speeches are mostly orientational.

This is evidenced by the presence in the addresses of the US Presidents of a settled speech formula of address to the audience, an open call for unity in the concluding part and a greater solemnity of performances.

In general, the compositional scheme of the genre of address may be presented as it is shown in Figure 1. This scheme allows us to identify the “inner logic” of the address and make the initial assumption about its meaningful space – that is, the discourse picture of the world and the discourse picture of cortege interaction. Analysis of the grammatical structure of the messages will be presented below, but already at this stage it can be argued, for example, that addresses of the president, in contrast to, e.g., their inaugural address that are characterized by the so-called “timelessness” (Campbell and Jamieson, 2008: 46), are focused on modeling of the program “from the past through the present to the future.”

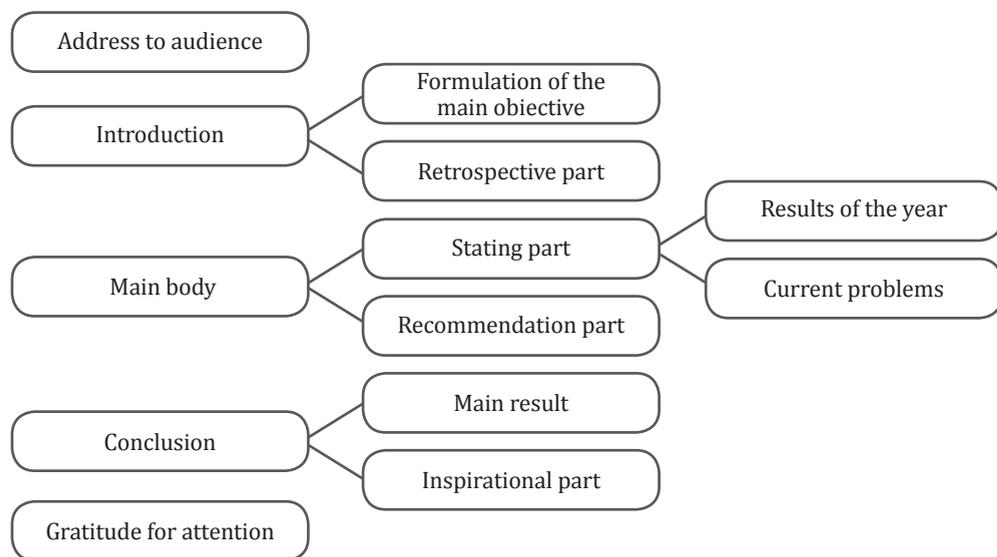


Figure 1. General compositional scheme of the presidential address to the parliament

### Grammatical category of tense as a means of constructing discourse picture of the world

The category of tense, being the morphological core of the functional-semantic category of temporality, is

«a system of grammatical forms used to express the relation of the action to the moment of speech or to the time of another action» (Бондарко, Буланин, 1967: 76).

In addition, the category of tense «inscribes» almost all sentences used in the speech in the deictic coordinates (Арутюнова, Падучева, 1985: 16; Medhurst, 2006: 682).

Given that verbal tense forms indicate the relation of the event to some moment, the most natural and simple form of presentation time is an infinite timeline divided into three segments: past, present and future (Michaelis, 2006: 220). This division follows, according to N.D. Arutyunova (Арутюнова, 1999: 688), from the main condition that determines a person's position in the world: incomprehensibility of the future, knowledge of the past and the given character of the present. Thus, the human factor plays a crucial role in modeling time.

The pragmatic value of the category of tense consists in the fact that the addresser has a certain freedom in the presentation of the event. B.Yu. Norman (Норман, 2009: 117) notes that, depending on the place the speaker assigns himself on the time axis and the way he is going to organize the text, he can manipulate time. With the help of tense forms, that are internally connected with the aspect, the speaker can «compress» or «expand» space, “zoom in” or “zoom out” the event, as well as regulate his relations with other people.

Let us consider the functioning of the category of tense in the addresses of the US and Russian presidents. The total amount of the tense forms analyzed is shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Total amount of the tense forms in the addresses of the US and Russian presidents

	Past	Present	Future	Total
USA	764	4600	705	6069
RF	1091	5168	894	7153

Let us first consider the addresses of the American leaders. The proportion of different tense groups can be seen in Diagram 1.

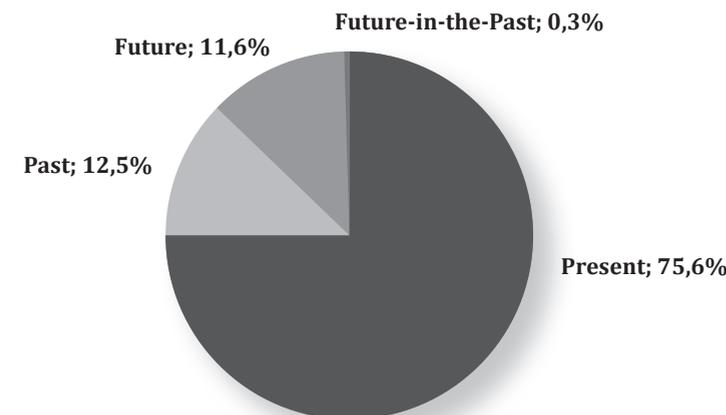


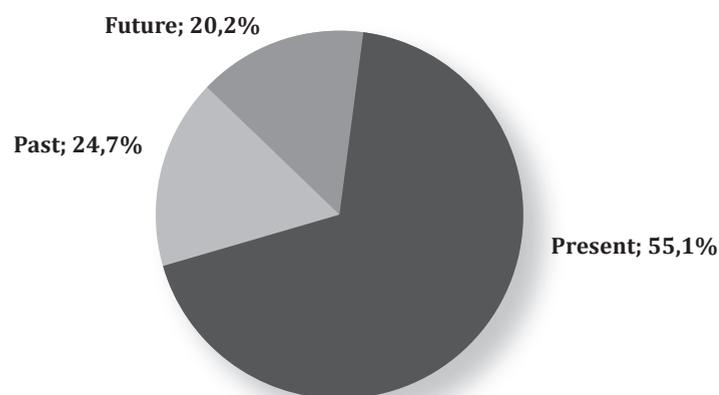
Diagram 1. Proportion of Present, Past, Future and Future-in-the-Past tense groups in State of the Union Addresses

The data presented in the chart show that the most frequently used tense group is Present, and the rarest – Future-in-the-Past. Past and Future tenses occur at approximately the same frequency with a slight superiority of the former.

As stated in normative grammars, 16 times are allocated in the English language. In the analyzed texts, however, occur only 11 of them. There haven't been found any Future Perfect Continuous, Past Perfect Continuous, Future-in-the-Past Continuous, Future-in-the-Past Perfect and Future-in-the-Past Perfect Continuous forms. It is significant that tense forms of Present Perfect Continuous, Past Continuous, Past Perfect, Future Perfect and Future-in-the-Past Simple make up less than 1% of all used tense forms.

At the same time the use of Present Indefinite is the most frequent (58.8%), followed by Past Indefinite and Future Indefinite (12.2% and 11.5% respectively), Present Perfect (9.9%) and Present Continuous (6.8%). The use of these five tenses makes up 99.2% of the total use of tense forms. These data confirm the fact that addresses of US presidents are oriented on the modelling the program «from the past through the present to the future», with emphasis on the present.

We arrive at a similar conclusion after analyzing the speeches of the Russian presidents. Taking into account only available verbal tense forms, the ratio of the tenses in the addresses of the Russian presidents can be represented as follows (Diagram 2):



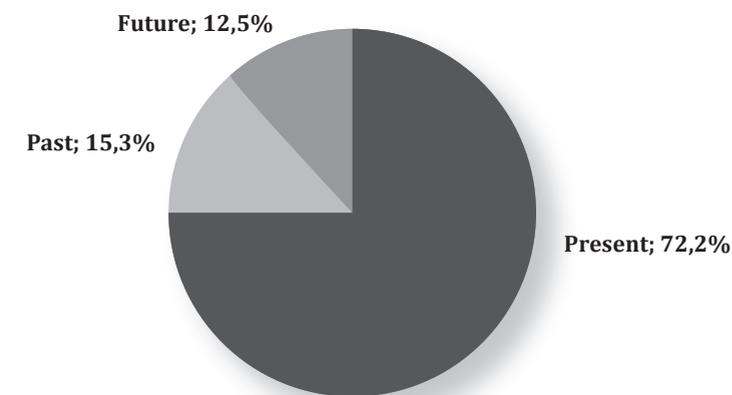
**Diagram 2.** Proportion of Present, Past and Future tense groups in Addresses of the President of the Russian Federation to the Federal Assembly

The data presented in the chart indicate that, similar to the speeches of the American presidents, the most frequent in the speeches of the Russian leaders is the use of present tense forms, and the percentage of past and future forms is approximately the same.

Of greater interest to our study, however, is the analysis of the material in view of the so-called timeless sentences. The specifics of the Russian language allows the speaker to use such language forms in which there is no finite verb form, for example, infinitive sentences (a) or sentences with a compound nominal predicate (b):

- a) *Задача на трехлетнюю перспективу – **снизить** ее до 4–5 процентов в год.*  
The challenge for the three-year term is to reduce it to 4–5 per cent a year' (2010);
- b) *В целом, **очевидна** тенденция к расширению в мире конфликтного пространства.*  
'In general, the tendency to expand conflict zones in the world is obvious' (2006).

Taking into consideration the fact that the vast majority of these sentences relate to the present time (and in English they would have the present verb form), or more precisely, to the time that O. Jespersen calls "generic time" (Jespersen 1958: 259), and I.G. Miloslavskii – present improper ("несобственно настоящее") (Милославский, 1981: 212), since the present form does not necessarily mean the coincidence of the time of the act with the moment of speech, the results of the study of the Russian presidents' speeches are even more similar to those obtained in the analysis of the speeches of their US counterparts (see Diagram 3):



**Diagram 3.** Proportion of Present, Past and Future tense groups in Addresses of the President of the Russian Federation to the Federal Assembly with account of timeless sentences

The given data suggest that, regardless of the language of communication, the use of verbal tenses in presidents' messages is one of the main tools of modeling a specific discourse picture of the world based on the program *from the past through the present to the future*. The speaker focuses mainly on the present, which stresses the importance of the happening events in the mind of the recipient.

Furthermore, regardless of the language of communication, the category of tense is enriched with similar pragmatic tones in the speeches of the American and Russian presidents. Thus, the opposition of different tense forms in one context may indicate a radical change of the situation, or to emphasize the connection of what is happening at the present moment with the events of the past, as well as to emphasize the effectiveness of the taken measures and a pursued policy:

*Thanks to the tax cuts we **passed**, Americans' paychecks **are** a little bigger today. Every business **can write off** the full cost of new investments that they **make** this year. And these steps, taken by Democrats and Republicans, **will grow** the economy and **add** to the more than 1 million private sector jobs created last year (2011);*

*Прежде всего, Россия **была, есть и, конечно, будет** крупнейшей европейской нацией. 'First of all, Russia was, is and, of course, will be the largest European nation' (2005);*

The use of the present form instead of the future one makes the described events closer to the recipient, which creates a sense of belonging to this historical moment.

*At stake right now is not who **wins** the next election. [...] At stake is whether new jobs and industries **take** root in this country or somewhere else (2011);*

*В следующем году мы **празднуем** 65-летие Победы, **чествуем** наших ветеранов – спасителей нашего Отечества, героев, отстоявших нашу свободу, прошедших войну, поднявших страну из руин. 'Next year we celebrate the 65<sup>th</sup> anniversary of the Victory, we honour our veterans – the saviors of our Fatherland, the heroes who defended our freedom, who went through the war, who raised the country from the ruins' (2009).*

For other pragmatic shades of tense forms see (Василенко, 2013).

Thus, the analysis of the use of verbal tense forms in the addresses of the US and Russian presidents shows that for all the structural peculiarities of the English and Russian languages in the given discursive conditions we observe general patterns of use of the grammatical category of tense. It can be stated that tense forms help the speaker to construct a special discourse picture of the world peculiar to namely this genre of political discourse, with its own division of time which underlines the presence of a person in a given place at a given time.

## Grammatical category of person as a means of constructing discourse picture of cortege

In terms of functional grammar, personality is not only

«a semantic category, characterizing the participants of the referred situation in relation to the participants of the speech situation – especially the speaker,»

but also

«a functional-semantic field, based on this semantic category which is considered along with means of its expression in a particular language «(Теория, 1991: 5).

In Russian the two morphological cores of the category of personality are personal forms of verbs and pronouns (Бондарко, Буланин, 1967: 135), while in English pronouns is its sole core.

Since pronouns refer to basic linguistic means of expression of personality in both languages, we will focus on the study of their capacity for constructing a discourse picture of cortege interaction. The classes of personal and possessive pronouns are of the greatest interest in this regard.

We will not focus neither on the semantic complexity of pronouns as a class of words in general (in this regard see works by L. Bloomfield, R. Jakobson, O. Jespersen, A. Potebnja, N.Yu. Shvedova, etc.), nor on the theoretical aspect of these two classes of pronouns in particular (though even the question of existence of the separate class of possessive pronouns is controversial (see Шахматов, 2001, Isačenko, 1968), to say nothing of the scope and content of the category of possessivity). What is relevant to our study is the fact that pronouns the class of words which is very rich in a pragmatic relation. As pointed by G. Yule (1996: 10), “the simplicity of these forms disguises the complexity of their use”.

In the analyzed texts 7771 cases of the use of pronouns were identified. It is significant that in the speeches of American presidents this amount is much greater than in the speeches of the Russian leaders (5075 and 2696 respectively), which is easily explained by the possibility to omit the personal pronoun in a Russian sentence. However, it is interesting that the percentage of the use of pronouns in the analyzed texts is subject to the general rules (see Diagrams 4 and 5).

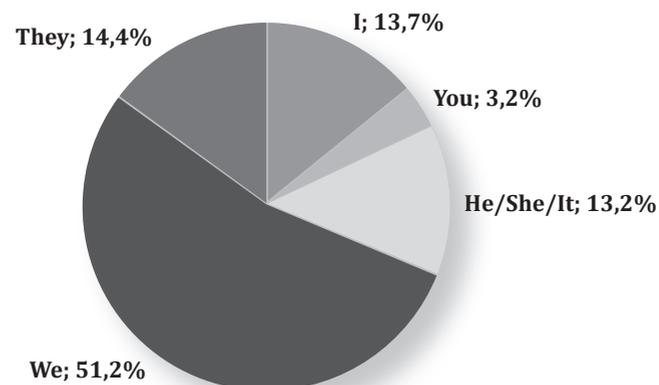


Diagram 4. Proportion of personal and possessive pronouns in State of the Union Addresses

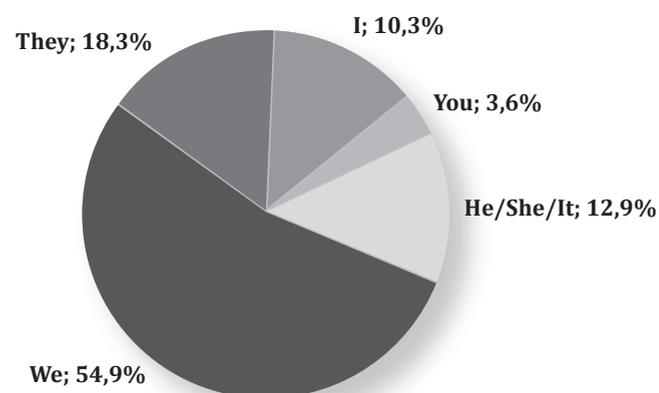


Diagram 5. Proportion of personal and possessive pronouns in Addresses of the President of the Russian Federation to the Federal Assembly

As the charts above show, regardless of the language of communication, we can observe the formation of the similar of discourse picture of cortège interaction, as evidenced by the speaker's general tendency to use most frequently 1pl. pronouns, and most rarely – 2pl. It demonstrates the addresser's desire of solidarity and unity with the audience. The use of 1sing. pronouns is one of the basic means of realization of the tactics of self-presentation an connected with it tactics of promise and call. When used as the subject, pronoun *I* suggests the speaker's positioning above the audience, demonstrating a higher social status, assuming the right to give orders and to impose assessments:

*Some might call this a good record. I call it a good start* (2003);

*Я прошу ускорить формальное согласование. 'I am asking to speed up the formal voting'* (2005);

2pl. pronoun within the genre of address primarily represents the immediate audience, and serves the purpose of maintaining contact and attracting attention:

*As you can imagine, this is a process that will take some time* (2009);

*Вы знаете, финансовые потрясения уже привели к ухудшению платежеспособности ведущих стран [...]. 'You know that financial shocks have already caused worsening of solvency of the leading countries [...]'* (2011).

It is also noteworthy that US leaders also use the pronoun *you* to address one concrete person, which is not typical of their Russian colleagues:

*Shannon, I assure you and all who have lost a loved one that our cause is just, and our country will never forget the debt we owe Michael and all who gave their lives for freedom* (2002).

3sing. and 3pl. pronouns fulfil in the addresses primarily the anaphoric function without any pragmatic meaning.

3pl. pronoun realizes its pragmatic potential when actualizing the tactics of comparative analysis (a) and distancing (b) (especially when used in the context with *we*):

- a) *При этом подчеркну, что наши расходы на оборону [...] уже не идут ни в какое сравнение с расходами Соединенных Штатов Америки. Их военный бюджет в – абсолютных величинах – почти в 25 раз больше, чем у России. Вот это и называется в оборонной сфере «Их дом – их крепость». И молодцы. 'Let me underline that our defence expenses [...] cannot compare with the expenses of the United States of America. Their military budget – in absolute figures – is almost 25 times larger than Russia's one. That is what is called in the defence sphere "Their house is their fortress". And good for them'* (2006);
- b) *Terrorists like bin Laden are serious about mass murder, and all of us must take their declared intentions seriously. They seek to impose a heartless system of totalitarian control throughout the Middle East and arm themselves with weapons of mass murder. Their aim is to seize power in Iraq [...]. But they have miscalculated: We love our freedom, and we will fight to keep it* (2006);

It is not surprising that it is 1pl. pronoun that possesses the greatest pragmatic potential, which is due to its semantic ambiguity. The most frequent use of *we* (see Figures 5 and 6) in the inclusive meaning serves the purpose of psychological rapprochement between the speaker and the audience and creating an atmosphere of cooperation and trust:

*Despite our hardships, our union is strong. We do not give up. We do not quit. We do not allow fear or division to break our spirit* (2010);

*Но даже в этих сложнейших условиях у нас нет права останавливаться в развитии. [...] И только вместе мы сможем пройти этот нелегкий путь. 'But even under these hardest conditions we do not have the right to stop the development. [...] And only together we can go this difficult way'* (2011).

In most cases the inclusive *we* in the speeches of the presidents of both countries is a form of solidarity with the audience important to the speaker – representatives of the authorities. The Russian leaders, in contrast to the American ones, rarely emphasize in such a way the unity of all citizens of the country, which suggests a more ritualism of the addresses of the US presidents and their orientation to a wide audience (for more about the inclusive and exclusive meaning of *we* and other pragmatic shades of pronouns see Василенко, 2013)

Thus, the analysis of pragmatic peculiarities of the use of the category of person within the genre of presidential address to the parliament shows that, for all the structural specificity of the English and Russian languages, in this case quite explicit general regularities take place, i.e. we observe the construction of a similar discourse picture of cortege interaction. These regularities, on the one hand, are determined by the specificity of the genre (for example, a rare use of 2pl. pronouns and the use of 3p. pronouns in the anaphoric function rather than as an implementation of the semiotic opposition *friend or foe*), and on the other hand – are dictated by the general principles of the realization of the tactics of persuasion (the most frequent use of 1pl. pronouns in the inclusive meaning in order to create a psychological atmosphere of trust).

## Conclusion

For all the structural differences of the Russian and English languages the regularities of use of pragmatic potential of grammatical categories in the given discursive conditions (namely within the genre of the presidential address to the parliament) are similar. The grammatical categories of person and tense the main means of constructing the discourse pictures of the world and cortege interaction.

The category of tense in the address is used to actualize mainly the tactics of comparative analysis, illustration, promise, call and cooperation. This category is the most important means of modelling the programme *from the past through the present to the future*, which

leads to the formation in the mind of the recipient the discourse picture of the world with a special division of time focused on the present. Pragmatic shades of different tense forms within this genre do not depend on a particular language and can be explained by the common communicative intention of the speaker.

The category of person in the address is one of the major means of constructing the discourse picture of cortege interaction, which demonstrates the desire of the speaker to get closer to the significant audience. This category is used to actualize, primarily, the tactics of self-presentation (1sing. pronoun), cooperation (1pl. pronoun), accentuation (2pl. pronoun), comparative analysis and distancing (3pl. pronoun). Common discursive conditions explain the tendency to the most frequent use of 1pl. pronoun, and the rarest use of 2pl. pronoun.

## References

- Campbell, K. K., Jamieson, K. H. Presidents creating the presidency: deeds done in words. Chicago & London, 2008.
- Fairclough, N. Language and power. New York, 1989.
- Jespersen, O. The philosophy of grammar. London, 1958.
- Medhurst, M. J. The rhetorical presidency of George H. W. Bush. College Station, 2006.
- Michaelis, L. A. Tense in English. In: The handbook of English linguistics. Malden, 2006. 220–243.
- Schäffner, C. Editorial: political speeches and discourse analysis. In: Current issues in language and society, 3, 1996. 201–204.
- Yule, G. Pragmatics. London, 1996.
- Isačenko, A. V. Die Russische Sprache der Gegenwart. Halle: Teil I. Formenlehre, 1968.
- Арутюнова, Н. Д., Падучева, Е. В. Истоки, проблемы и категории прагматики. In: Новое в зарубежной лингвистике, 16. Лингвистическая прагматика. Москва, 1985. 3–42.
- Арутюнова, Н. Д. Язык и мир человека. Москва, 1999.
- Бондарко, А. В., Буланин, Л. Л. Русский глагол. Ленинград, 1967.
- Василенко, Е. Н. Реализация коммуникативной стратегии убеждения средствами грамматических категорий (на материале политического дискурса): дис. ... канд. филол. наук. Минск, 2013.
- Иссерс, О. С. Речевое воздействие. Москва, 2011.
- Милославский, И. Г. Морфологические категории современного русского языка. Москва, 1981.
- Норман, Б. Ю. Лингвистическая прагматика (на материале русского и других славянских языков). Минск, 2009.
- Теория функциональной грамматики: Персональность. Залоговость. Отв. ред. А. В. Бондарко. Санкт-Петербург, 1991.

*Ухванова-Шмыгова, И.Ф.* Каузально-генетический подход к исследованию политического дискурса. *In:* И. Ф. Ухванова-Шмыгова, Е. В. Савич, Н. В. Ефимова (ред.) *Методология исследований политического дискурса: Актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов*, б. Минск, 2009. 11–29.

*Шахматов, А. А.* Синтаксис русского языка. Москва, 2001.

*Шейгал, Е. И.* Семиотика политического дискурса. Москва, 2004.

Alevtina Dinkevich

## Textual-pragmatic function of continuous forms in the modern English literary discourse

A characteristic feature of any type of discourse is the possibility of regarding it from the viewpoint of the recipient and of the sender. As far as the literary discourse is concerned, it should be regarded as a binary communication. On the one hand, the text reflects the personal interaction of the characters, on the other hand, there is communicative interaction between the author of the work and the reader. This contact is mediated and revealed through the interpretation of the action (speech and non-speech) of the characters.

The basis of human speech is the objective of communication (Кравченко, 1997: 14). The aims of the sender determine the selection of the language means by the author, in such a way as to contribute to the adequate implementation of the intentions of the author.

The present article focuses on the identification of pragmatic role of the English Continuous verb forms in the literary discourse of the Modern English period (XVII–XX c.). The study is based on 19,704 statements with the Continuous forms selected from prose and drama of the period.

The investigation of the use of the Continuous forms in literary discourse under analysis shows the following.

During the period the Continuous forms were used in the author's narration. Aiming for a more expressive and accurate disclosure of his idea, the authors use the Continuous forms in different parts of the paragraph (in the initial, middle and final position), thereby using the form as a means to control and regulate the reader's attention. In the initial position in a paragraph the pragmatic potential of the Continuous forms manifests itself in setting the theme. In the initial position and suggests the development and specification of the

theme – information that explains the details of the situation. In the middle of a paragraph the author can give the narrative a certain pace: creating the effect of dynamism, intensity of action, slowing down the narrative or even an impression of a full stop of the narrative. The Continuous forms can be placed by the author at the end of a paragraph places the action in communicative focus. In this case fulfills a summarizing function. In remarks in drama by using the Continuous forms the author conveys the emotional state of the hero through a detailed description of his actions, or expresses his evaluation of the character's behaviour.

Throughout the Modern English period the Continuous forms the authors use in direct speech to express the speaker's attitude: reproach, anger, criticism, cautions, irony, surprise, complaint, remorse, fear, threat, prohibition, excuse, compliment, politeness, excuse and promise. Thus the Continuous forms are used in various types of speech acts: expressives, satisfactives, constatives, quesitives, injunctives, metakommunicatives, verdictives, menasives, promissives and prohibitives.

The dialogues the pragmatic role of the Continuous forms is to regulate the process of communication between the characters. Continuous Forms are involved in the composition of a dialogue and are used in metacommunicative function: to show that the speaker wishes to support or continue the dialogue (the start or continuation of the contact), to signal the start or end of communication (establishing or opening of the contact).

The function of the Continuous predicates in the dialogues is that of organization of the interlocutor's perception: stimulating the beginning of communication, refer to certain events, facts, previously mentioned in the conversation, and completion of communication. The pragmatic purpose of the the Continuous form in the contact function is also to focus the recipient's attention on of the information, which is important from the point of view of the sender of the message. The Continuous form is then places the necessary information into the communicative focus of the utterance.

Thus, the use of the Continuous forms in literary discourse reflects their undoubted pragmatic potential. The Continuous forms draw attention to the process to distinguish it from other events in the discourse, making it more vivid, intense, considerable. This effect, in turn, serves a particular purpose to the author, who uses the Continuous form as a means to control and regulate the perception of the literary discourse by the reader.

## References

*Кравченко, А. В.* Когнитивная теория времени и вида. *In:* Современный английский язык (Слово и предложение). Иркутск, 1997. 124–139.

## Issue 2. Functional syntax in the context of discourse linguistics

Dmitry Bogushevich

### Several notes on the notion of discourse

In linguistics there are several terms naming systematic approach to the very event of communication. They are, for instance: functional styles, sub-languages, discourses and several others. But discussion about their similarity and difference might be realistic only if we shift it from the epistemological to the ontological sphere, and, first of all, ask the question, if there is a place for these phenomena in the system of human communication. For this we have to analyse the model of human communication paying special attention not only to the units of the language system, but also to the other component, making its use possible<sup>12</sup>. The model proposed by K. Bühler (I, You, About It) includes the necessary but not sufficient aspects of communication (Bühler, 1907). It accounts only for the semantics (About It) and partially for the social aspect (I, You) of the semiotic situation. This model is only the basis which permits development of human communication.

Models of communication appeared different as proposed by R.O. Jakobson (Якобсон, 1975) and J. Austin (Остин, 1986). R.O. Jakobson supplies his model with message and context. Inclusion of the message presupposes not only transference of information about It, but also intention of the speaker (I) directed to the recipient (You). In the structure of J. Austin's speech act, this side of communication is accounted for as illocution, and then was rather thoroughly analysed by logicians and linguists.

Unfortunately, R.O. Jakobson did not speak about context in detail. Context embraces not so much the language context, that is linguistic environment of utterances, but some other properties of environment. Much later it was found that context must include activity in which the episode of communication is used (Пиотровский, 1975). Besides context should include also social environment. The necessity of the latter was very clearly established by the notion of *cortège* (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2000).

<sup>12</sup> Language is considered here as language of F. de Saussure, that is a union of three aspects: system of language (langue), speech (parole) and the system of choice (Богусевич, 1985). The system of choice operates in accordance to the principle of pragmatic sufficiency.

If we analyse the structure of *cortège*, understood as the social and cultural constituent of communication, we can find that it falls into two components. One of them embraces what is directly or indirectly connected to the activity for organizing of which the *analysed event of communication* is used. The second component introduces communication in the *general culture of society*. The latter fact was mentioned by M.M. Bakhtin. Consequently, each our utterance must correlate with norms of behaviour in *socium*, as we understand and accept them.

We can conclude that now we have accounted for all the necessary and sufficient properties of communication. It permits to formulate a full model of communication in the following way:

I – You – About It – with a certain Aim – by a certain means, which meets social, cultural and activity conditions.

The model of communication presented above makes it possible to isolate components obligatory to read and functions of these components. In this respect the most important component is the *Manner* in which I inform You about It. Since it is the result of employment of a sign system, i.e. Language. the *Manner* includes *two necessary operations*. The first is the *semantic* one, which refers to What I inform You about, and the second is the *pragmatic* one, which refers to the aim of My influence on You. When I ask a question, if relations in the *cortège* form special demands both for the pragmatic and semantic manner or, to be more exact, to the manner of formal reflection of semantics. Research, carried out in different styles and discourses, allow to state that such influence actually takes place (see articles of I.V. Dmitrieva and A.V. Galagaeva below).

Now when we have established the specific property of the means we can try and find the place for functional styles and discourses in the general system of communication. Styles cannot be considered as units of language because stylistic features can be found for all units of language starting with allophones and ending with the structure of events of communication. In actual research of functional styles the analysis does not go higher than text-utterances. Consequently we can state that functional styles define rules of use of linguistic units in *text-utterances* employed in broad socially important spheres of life. Pragmatic properties and especially illocution practically are not taken into consideration. Thus the object of functional stylistics is sets of text-utterances incorporated in a certain field of activity of a society.

Research in discursology develops in a different way. Researchers usually analyse not so much a special type of texts, but a set of events of communication, joined together by a common aim (see, e.g., investigations by E.V. Savich). Thus we may conclude that functional

stylistics is text-directed while research in discourse is pragmatically directed. It permits us to formulate at least an operational definition of discourse: *discourse is a system of demands and limitations imposed upon the manner of communication to achieve definite aims of activity*. Consequently discourse is not a part of the system of language but is a *part of the system of culture of a socium* which determines speech behaviour of members of the socium in definite communicative conditions. Or else, it is a definite manifestation of the principle of pragmatic sufficiency in a certain socium.

Since discourses cover series of events of communication, united by a common aim, they are means of organizing definite types of activity. It means that for the sake of investigation discourses might be formed in two ways. Firstly, discourse might be formed out of events of communication, connected with a definite type of activity. Secondly, it is possible to form discourse out of events of communication, connected with different types of activity, but united by their inclusion into one and the same stage of development of activity. In each type of discourse formed like that, we can find specific limitations and demands. We may presume that these limitations and expectations are spread both on pragmatic and semantic aspects of text utterances in each type of discourses. It is evident that if discourses determine specific expectations and limitations for the manner of presenting information about It, they presuppose both usage of special types of speech acts and special manners of reflecting *the picture of the world* in communication. It follows that in each socium and consequently in each language, we can find a basic way of presentation, which is neutral relatively for different discourses and styles, and this way of presentation is established in the given socium for reflecting of the picture of the world. In each discourse, this way of presentation might change creating *variants of reflection, specific namely for this discourse*, which are still grounded on the general, i.e. neutral, image of the world created by an individual belongin.

Until now we did not pay attention to the fact that each text is created by somebody that is by I. This I has its own interests and constructs the semantic configuration of sentences (the term of I.V. Ivanova-Mitsevich (Иванова-Мицевич, 2007)) in such a way, that these texts would reflect and present to the recipient *the author's interest*. This also contributes to peculiarity of the *Manner* of reflecting *It*. Obviously, reflection of the author's interest in the text must be done so that the addressee can find it. It means that in each type of discourse, depending on the activity for which it is designed, we can find specific ways of reflection and both the author and the recipient follow these specific ways.

Some results of the research of the ways of reflecting the author's interest (or, in other words, expectations of the addressee) are described in investigations of our scientific school – the school of compositional syntax. For example, the research of V.V. Zelenkov presents

basic or neutral means of reflecting the picture of the world by the English language or, otherwise, defines and describes diachronic development of the semantic guidelines of the English language. Presentation of this neutral manner in different discourses is given by A.V. Galagaeva, I.V. Dmitrieva. I.V. Ivanova-Mitsevich and I.V. Chuchkevich propose a new way of revelation of the way in which one of the three central and necessary components of communication and namely its initiator, the speaker or else, I, is reflected in texts.

## References

- Bühler, K. Tatsachen und Probleme zu einer Psychologie der Denkvorgänge. In: Archiv für die gesamte Psychologie, 10, 1907; XII, 1908.
- Богушевич, Д. Г. Единица, функция, уровень: К проблеме классификации единиц языка. Минск, 1985.
- Иванова-Мицевич, И. В. Методика моделирования денотативной области вербального информирования. In: Вестник Минск. гос. лингв. ун-та. Серия 1, Филология, 2. 2007. 24–33.
- Остин, Дж. Слово как действие. In: В. А. Звегинцев (ред.) Новое в зарубежной лингвистике: сб. ст. Москва, 1986. Вып. 17: Теория речевых актов. 22–129.
- Пиотровский, Р. Г. Текст, машина, человек. Ленинград, 1975.
- Уханова-Шмыгова, И. Ф. Операционализация коммуникативных стратегий с позиций каузально-генетической теории. In: Методология исследований политического дискурса: Актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов, 2. Минск, 2000. 198–201.
- Якобсон, Р. Лингвистика и поэтика. In: Е. Я. Басин, Я. Поляков (ред.) Структурализм «за» и «против»: сб. ст. Москва, 1975. 193–230.

Alena Savich

## Functional syntax in the context of discourse linguistics

The drive of modern science, including the linguistic science, for transdisciplinarity, mentioned by professor Stanislaw Gajda, is the natural process of development of science as a system. Not wishing to doubt the potential of *stylistics* as a field capable of unification of approaches of different disciplines to the *language* functioning studies, we shall note that currently other functional directions of linguistics have no less a potential (*functional grammar* with its attention to the functioning of language units; *functional semantics*, which studies the dependence of semantic categories from the conditions of communicative process; and finally, *functional syntax*, that detects the entire system of syntactic rules and operations really functioning in the oral activities of the speaker, as well as its determination by the mechanisms and cardinal properties of text creation) (Сигал, 2012). All of them are clearly related by both definitions and direction of the research – from meaning to form. Thanks to such direction, all those directions of linguistics, including functional stylistics, are included into and form the integral part of modern language theory. Thus the modern language theory currently possesses such developed research system that it can (and must!) play the role of “hard” science (Yngve, Wąsik, 2004), explaining, modeling and predicting social realia.

Considering the communicative nature of all the social practices, each of them may be defined as “discursion” and their totality based on the community of the particular category may be defined as “discourse”. And in case the linguistics accepts such object of research, all of its functionally oriented tools become the basis for discourse linguistics. Thus the unique status of *discourse linguistics* is caused in our opinion by the specifics of its object – discourse dynamics – and the related integrativity of the study methodology. Due to the discussion of polycentric nature of modern linguistic science and discourse perspective we would like to bring to your attention the potential of using functional syntax for integrative studies of discourse. When you try to find your way through the metaphors, which surround the “discourse” term, there is the unconscious feeling that only the complex (and combined) image can convey the essence of this phenomenon, and it’s this complex (and combined) essence in its integrity and dynamics that shall be the unique object of research of discourse linguistics. And if the object (discourse itself) is understood as the “irremovable reality” in form of an “actual statement” in combination with the rules of their functioning “woven” into them, “not possessing any external defined borders”, “mobile and unstable” (Ревзина, 1999), it’s the rules of statements functioning, creating this live “language body” which in words of Foucault “lives itself” shall be subject to detection and analysis. In other word the subject for study of this vital

body is *functional dynamic model, scheme, prototypic (universal, invariable) for all the samples of the particular discourse type*, which due to its dynamism may be named the *theory of a particular discourse type*.

You may want to ask what exactly the prototypic model of discourse shall reflect. According to the activity approach to discourse (V.V. Bogdanov, V.Z. Demyankov, N.D. Arutyunova, T.A. Shiryaeva, O.G. Revzina, A.E. Surpun, etc.), which is close to us both in spirit and in time, discourse shall be defined through the speech which shall be viewed as a motivated social action, existing as a part of human interaction and participating in the mechanisms of its consciousness (Арутюнова, 1990). Discourse as an *oral activity* possesses *grammatical structure* (is a sequence of statements), *semantic structure* (is a sequence of propositions with thematic integrity), *cognitive structure* (is a sequence of actualized states of affairs, constructs the world, common for the subjects of discourse, “describing characters, objects, circumstances, times, actions etc.”) (Демьянков, 1982). All those structures are what shall be reflected by the typical model of discourse.

We shall note that apart from the listed structures caused by the oral nature of discourse, there is also another structure originating from its social characteristics – *the structure of interaction between the subjects of discourse proper*. The structure can be actualized in discourse on the level of referential content, and then addresser-addressee interactions and relations become the subject of discourse and part of semantic and cognitive structure. Actualization of addressing also happens on the level of pragmatic content, creating a separate discourse layer and a separate image, common for discourse subjects – an image (structure) of their thematic relations. Thus the prototypic model of discourse shall reflect grammatical, semantic, cognitive, subjective-thematic structures. Causal-genetic theory which is considered heuristic in our research, interprets the structures as discourse images, offering their classification and description (the issue of discourse images will be discussed in more detail later on).

Thus if the exclusive objective of discourse linguistics in our opinion is the necessity to detect the functional typical structures of discourse, its analysis will unavoidably include the study of functional systems of oral means, the use of which results in construction and reflection of all those structures. Since the study object is the *entire* type of discourse, it is reasonable to perform the description of the discursive means not on the basis of classifications of single language and oral units included in them, but on the basis of classification of repeating underlying functional syntactic structures (Кудреватых, 2001: 18).

Classification of the discursive means on the basis of unity of their functional direction brings such discourse studies closer to the studies of functional direction of linguistics.

However while for functional linguistics the classification of linguistic means on the basis of their functional direction is a study objective, in discourse analysis it is only the *opening phase* on the way of creation of a semantic model of complex language units. Thus it is reasonable to use the definitions of functional linguistics for the description of material with which the discourses work, and create the discourse-categories that describe the world constructed by discourse on their basis.

In our study we performed the description of media discourse of lobbying using the framework of categories from the theory of **functional syntax** by A. Mustajoki (Мустайоки, 2006). The reasonability of the choice was justified by the following moments.

*First of all*, the unit of analysis in the functional syntax is a statement, which in opinion of many linguists is a discourse unit (Левецкий, 2005; Норман, 1994; Ревзина, 1999, etc.). Thus, by offering the framework for description of statements, functional syntax becomes one of the theories of discourse linguistics.

*Secondly*, the central concept of functional syntax is the “state of affairs” which is the actualized in speech point of view of the speaker on extralinguistic situation (i.e. the fragment of cognitive context), which relates it to our concept of the actualized context as the base of discourse (“state of affairs” = “discourse image”).

*Thirdly*, functional syntax creates a clear hierarchy of categories of state of affairs description and offers extended classifications as part of each of them. At the same time the classifications have a sufficient degree of abstraction necessary for modeling the semantic structure of the discourse.

*Fourthly*, functional syntax selects the “speech function” modifier as the semantic element mandatory for the review, which presumes the accounting of the objective in relation to which the speaker mentions the particular state of affairs. Thus functional syntax offers at the same time a mechanism and an apparatus for description of reference structure and subject-thematic structure.

Important is also the fact that functional syntax unites the results of research of many functional linguistics theories. Functional grammar theory by A.V. Bondarko (Бондарко, 1990, 1991, 1992, 1996, 2003) “fits” into the theory by A. Mustajoki, since both of them are based on semantic categories and during their division take into account morphologic, syntactic, word-formative, lexical and implicit aspects of linguistic means. The important difference between the two theories is the interpretation by A. Mustajoki of the arsenal of functional and semantic fields offered by A.V. Bondarko (aspectuality, temporal localization,

taxis (Бондарко, 2003), temporality, modality (Бондарко, 1990), personality, genus (Бондарко, 1991), subjectness, objectness, communication perspective of statement, certainty/uncertainty (Бондарко, 1992), locativity, existentiality, possessivity, causality (Бондарко, 1996b), qualitativity and quantitativity (Бондарко, 1996a)) from the point of view of their interaction as part of the situation actualized by the statement, taking into account its predication and actantial composition. The latter circumstance relates functional syntax to the theories by L. Tesnière (Теньер, 1988) and P. Adamec (Адамец, 1978). Also, functional transformation method of P. Adamec is found in specificators classifications by A. Mustajoki. Classification of formal and functional characteristics of the verbs of Russian language, presented in the concept of G.A. Zolotova, N.K. Onipenko, M.Y. Sidorova (Золотова, Онипенко, Сидорова, 2004), was reflected in the classification of predicates categories. The classification of predicates and actants developed in details in functional communicative syntax by M.V. Vsevolodova (Всеволодова, 2000) is adopted by the functional syntax of A. Mustajoki taking into account the “state of affairs” concept (actualized in the statement “message situation”), which, however, does not require the diligent description of formal realization of the denotative roles. In the same area lies the difference between functional syntax and functional grammar of K. Hengeveld and J.L. MacKenzie (Hengeveld, MacKenzie, 2008), as well as role and referential grammar of R. Van Valin (Van Valin, 2001). Nevertheless, the grouping and hierarchy of semantic elements in those concepts match a lot.

*Key concepts of the functional syntax which are convenient to use for description of larger discourse categories, are: state of affairs, semantic structure, nuclear semantic structure, actant, semantic role, functional role, predicate, modifier and specifier* (as part of the report we won't provide the definition for each of those concepts). We shall note that since functional syntax was developed on the basis of sentence and its semantic structure, while discourse analysis deals with language and oral units that are larger than sentence, the terminology of functional syntax may be used *only* on the stage of creation of data body for discourse study, as well as for description of main operational discourse categories. For example, on the basis of analysis of actants and predicates of nuclear semantic structure we can detect *typical referents* (category of the actualist language theory (Попов, Третьубович, 1984)) and to reconstruct *thematic propositions of discourse*. Analysis of the obligatory modifier “verbal function” provides understanding of the communicative *roles of addresser and addressee*, allowing us to reconstruct *typical pragmatic proposition of discourse*. Synthesis of functional and thematic discourse categories may be performed with support of causal genetic theory (Ухванова, 1995): *discourse image of subject-object relations and discourse image of subject-subject relations*. At the same time general dynamic discourse-image can be created around *key category of discourse*, which is strictly individual for each discourse type (the idea of construction of social phenomenon theory around the dynamics of its key category belongs to the justified theory (Страусс, Корбин, 2001)).

Thus the categories of functional syntax are integrated into the categories of discourse analysis (referentors, propositions), and into the categories of discourse itself (discourse-images). The use of functional syntax apparatus for description of discourse type allows us to create its functional syntax model (rather complex but detailed), on the basis of which the propositional and graphic models for this discourse type are created. Fragments of those models for media discourse of lobbying will be presented later as part of discussion on discourse modeling.

In conclusion we shall note that our experience with integrating the categories of functional syntax and functional grammar in the study of particular type of discourse is only one of the possibilities of cooperation of functional directions of linguistics as part of discourse linguistics. At the same time it demonstrates the fact that the conglomerate of functionally oriented theories creates not only descriptive but also the explanatory base of linguistics, as well as the basis for large-scope public application of the science.

## References

- Hard-science linguistics. Ed. V. H. Yngve, Z. Wąsik. London, 2004.
- Hengeveld, K., MacKenzie, J. L.* Functional discourse grammar: a typologically-based theory of language structure. Oxford, 2008.
- Van Valin, R. D.* An Introduction to Syntax. Cambridge, 2001.
- Адамец, П.* Образование предложений из пропозиций в современном русском языке. Praha, 1978.
- Арутюнова, Н. Д.* Дискурс. In: Лингвистический энциклопедический словарь. Под общ. ред. В. Н. Ярцевой. Москва, 1990. 136–137.
- Всеволодова, М. В.* Теория функционально-коммуникативного синтаксиса. Москва, 2000.
- Демьянков, В. З.* Дискурс. In: Словарь англо-русских терминов по прикладной лингвистике и автоматической переработке текста, 2. Москва, 1982.
- Золотова, Г. А., Онипенко, Н. К., Сидорова, М. Ю.* Коммуникативная грамматика русского языка. Москва, 2004.
- Кудреватых, И. П.* Стилистическая роль синтаксических единиц (блоков информации) в структуре русского художественного текста. Минск, 2001.
- Левицкий, Ю. А.* Основы теории синтаксиса: учеб. пособие. Москва, 2005.
- Мустайоки, А.* Теория функционального синтаксиса. Москва, 2006.
- Норман, Б. Ю.* Грамматика говорящего. Санкт-Петербург, 1994.
- Попов, Ю. В., Трегубович, Т. П.* Текст: структура и семантика. Минск, 1984.
- Ревзина, О. Г.* Язык и дискурс. In: Вестник Московского ун-та. Серия 9, Филология, 1. 1999. 25–33.
- Сигал, К. Я.* Единицы функционального синтаксиса. In: Вестник Удмуртского ун-та, 2. 2012. 103–109.

*Страусс, А., Корбин, Дж.* Основы качественного исследования: обоснованная теория, процедуры и техники. Москва, 2001.

*Теньер, Л.* Основы структурного синтаксиса. Москва, 1988.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Введение. Аспектуальность. Временная локализованность. Таксис. А. В. Бондарко, М. А. Шелякин, В. С. Храковский и др. Москва, 2003.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Качественность. Количественность. Отв. ред. А. В. Бондарко. Санкт-Петербург, 1996.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Локативность. Бытийность. Поссесивность. Обусловленность. А. В. Бондарко и др.; Акад. наук СССР, Ин-т лингвист. исслед. Санкт-Петербург, 1996.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Персональность. Залоговость. Ред. А. В. Бондарко, Т. В. Булыгина, Н. Б. Вахтин и др.; Акад. наук СССР, Ин-т лингвист. исслед. Санкт-Петербург, 1991.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Субъектность. Объектность. Коммуникативная перспектива высказывания. Определенность / неопределенность. Рос. АН, Ин-т лингвист. исслед.; А. В. Бондарко, В. Гладров, И. Б. Долинина и др.; редкол.: А. В. Бондарко (отв. ред.) и др. Санкт-Петербург, 1992.

Теория функциональной грамматики: Темпоральность. Модальность. А. В. Бондарко, Е. И. Беляева, Л. А. Бирюлин и др.; АН СССР, Ин-т языкознания; редкол.: А. В. Бондарко (отв. ред.) и др. Ленинград, 1990.

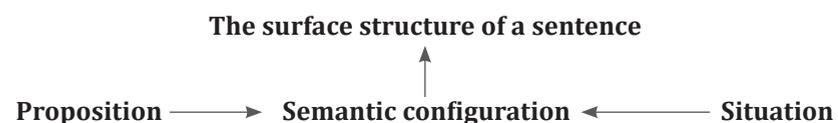
*Ухванова, И. Ф.* План содержания языкового знака: сущность и феноменология (на материале средств массовой информации): дис. ... д-ра филол. наук. Минск, 1995.

Dmitry Bogushevich, Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich

## Modeling of the sentence meaning for texts and discourses

Sentence, text and discourse are the elements of language which are designed for transferring the language system into speech. Thus these units possess certain common features, the first of which is that all of them are used to influence partners of communication (sentence, text), or form into subjective influence. Secondly, this influence or, in other words, illocution, is realized at least in the European cultures, in the manner the speaker formulates the information about the matter of communication. From this follows that each type of discourse, functional style and texts provides special expectations of the listener, violation of which creates necessary pragmatic tension, and is manifestation of illocution of the text. The sentence in this respect is slightly specific. It is the basis of reflection of that part of Bühler's model of communication, which informs us about It.

Because on the one hand the sentence is a model of some state of affairs, and on the other hand, is necessarily connected with the extralinguistic reality, since it possesses predicativity (V.V. Vinogradov). As a result, a sentence might be considered such a model in the semantic sphere of which we can find two components: first, it is *what* reflected, the original, or some state of affairs (situation); secondly, there must be reflection of *how* this situation is reflected, that is the model itself. We have to note that these two structures, the original, which is named “situation” or “field of denotation” and the model, which is named “the signification structure”, are not isomorphic and for producing of the semantic configuration of sentence they have to be united. So the semantic aspect of the sentence might be presented in the following way:



The scheme shows that the semantic configuration of a sentence is the result of union of structures of proposition and situation. This union is variable. E.g. while reflecting the situation of destruction, we can find several variants:

*John cuts the cake with his sharp knife.*  
*Янка разрэзаў пірог вострым нажом.*

*John's sharp knife cut the cake easily.*  
*Востры нож Янкі легка разрэзаў пірог.*

*The cake was cut into three pieces.*  
*Пірог разрэзалі на тры часткі.*

In different languages variants of uniting the proposition and the situation might be formed in different ways. Still pragmatic information is transmitted to the partner namely by the way a fragment of picture of the world is modeled by the sentence. Also it's necessary to point that the modeling aspect of the sentence must be common for all, and thus innate, since otherwise sentence could not be interpreted by the receiver. It means that there must be some operations in creating the semantic configuration which are sensitive to the pragmatic properties of texts and discourses. We believe that these are those operations which limit the possibility of nominal elements (arguments) be filled in. These are the choice of the word for the first position in the proposition, or empathy centre, and the choice of the word for what we named the focus of speaker's interest, which in English is placed just to the right of the predicate. What is most important is the fact that these structures are not isomorphic and, as a result, one and the same fragment

of the picture of the world might be reflected in different ways depending upon the necessities of the text or discourse in accordance with the principle of pragmatic sufficiency.

Antonina Galagaeva

## Pragmatic aspect of reality presentation

We consider the sentence to be a complex nominative sign that reflects a fragment of reality through the juxtaposition of its propositional and denotational structures. The surface structure of the sentence is filled up with the words that the speaker chooses out of the potentially possible lexemes which are assigned by the denotational structure of the sentence (by the situation). Then the speaker combines them according to the logical-semantic structure of the sentence (proposition), which is determined by the predicate. Each lexeme is characterized by a certain set of semantic relations – these are other lexemes that it can combine with in a sentence. In the semantic theory of Katz and Fodor these semantic relations are known as “selective rules” (Katz, Fodor, 1963). The important feature of the selective rules is their connection with the nature of the phenomenon, so semantic combinability reveals the reality itself rather than the structure of language. Thus, defining the types of the lexical-semantic combinability of the predicate and its arguments, we will be able to single out the following means of the reality presentation:

- a) the predicate and its arguments refer to the same denotational sphere and the positions of the arguments are filled according to the logical-semantic structure determined by the predicate. Let's define it as HOMOLEXIA<sup>13</sup>. The main objective of this means of reality representation is to reflect the picture of the universe as close to the reality as possible – *The boy broke the window with the stone.*
- b) the predicate and its arguments refer to different denotational spheres and the positions of the arguments are filled according to the logical-semantic structure determined by the predicate. We define it as HETEROLEXIA<sup>14</sup>. As a result there occurs a lexical-semantic error in the sentence, which should be overcome by metaphoricization of the predicate and the sentence changes its denotational reference – *The boy broke her heart with cruel words.* The verb “to break” in the following sentence denotes a not typical for its usage situation of destruction, but is used as an emotional verb. This means of reality presentation is aimed mainly at transmitting new information by using words that already exist in the language. It can be used either as a necessity when in the language there are no adequate words corresponding to the cognitive function of the metaphor –

<sup>13</sup> “homo”-referring to one denotational sphere; “-lexis” from Greek means “word”.

<sup>14</sup> “hetero”- referring to different denotational spheres; “-lexis” from means “word”.

Nevertheless, in most research on language and computation, grammatical and information-theoretic approaches had **moved** far apart (Pereira 2000)

or it can be used with the purpose of attracting attention to the phenomena that have their naming in the language but the speaker wants to appeal to the emotional sphere of the interlocutor, which corresponds to the expressive metaphor

*Then he fell with a crash to the ground, and she, all her tormented motherhood **flooding** upon her, rushed to gather him up* (Chopin).

- c) the predicate and its arguments refer to the same denotational sphere and the positions of the arguments are filled with an error of the logical-semantic structure of the sentence determined by the predicate, as a result the argumentative positions are occupied with inappropriate situational roles. – *The stone broke the window.* We will define the following lexical-syntactic discrepancy as DIALEXIA<sup>15</sup>. This method of reality representation leads to the focus shift, which allows to bring some elements of the situation into focus and to shade the others. The main function of the following method is to present the reality in a shortened compressed way:

*The many-space model **explains** a range of phenomena invisible or untreatable under the two-domain model and **reveals** previously unrecognized aspects* (Turner 2006).

- d) the next means of the world presentation is the combination of the latter two. The predicate and its arguments refer to different denotational spheres (heterolexia) and with an error of the logical-semantic structure of the sentence (dialexia). We will define it as HETERO-DIALEXIA.

Besides the linguistic reasons that determine lexical-semantic combinability, reality presentation depends on some extralinguistic factors. We understand language not so much as a means of communication but as a means of arranging human activity (Борушевич, 1985). Consequently, we reflect the world around in such a manner as to organize human interaction in the best possible way. As we communicate mainly by means of texts, we face the necessity to devise a new typology of texts based on the activity theory approach. The qualitative difference between different types of human activity typical of functional stylistics cannot be used as the basis of our classification, since variations of human activity are incalculable because of the boundless capacities of human beings. With the development of human activity there will appear some new types of texts and the typology will never be ultimate. We would like to employ such a property that is unique for every human activity. From our point of view, the processual nature of activity presupposes its fragmentation into stages, which is a universal feature of any activity. A.A. Leontiev singled out the following stages:

- a) *the stage of motivation.* The person realizes the need to act. The satisfaction of his need determines the action, but not the execution of the action itself;
- b) *the stage of orientation.* At this stage the doer of the action gets involved into the situation, its circumstances, the person chooses the plan of actions, develops the programme of the activity;
- c) *the stage of execution.* It includes the person's realization of the plan and adjustment of its components;
- d) *the stage of assessment.* At this stage the person compares the result of the action with his initial intention (Леонтьев, 2003).

Each stage of activity is characterized by a certain aim, which corresponds to the pragmatic orientation of the text.

Thus, the aim of the communicant at the motivational stage of the activity is to exert such an influence on the recipient so as to motivate his/her necessary behavior. It is only possible if you affect the evaluative and emotional spheres of their personalities. This aim corresponds to the pragmatic orientation of fiction and newspaper texts. A literary text as a piece of art is connected with aesthetic and moral upbringing of the recipient; it shapes the recipient's mind by bringing into his/her system of motives the aesthetically transformed reality. As a result, the recipient has a different understanding of the world around, which in its turn influences his/her behavior. Besides fiction, the aim of the motivational stage correlates with the pragmatic orientation of the newspaper texts. Mass media do not so much reflect the reality as construct it in order to manipulate the public opinion (Blakar, 1979). The implicit aim of a newspaper article is to install and support the present social balance and to convince the addressee in the correctness of the journalist's point of view (Дроздов, 2003). Thus, reality gains various interpretations and the process of persuasion is performed mainly through the appeal to the mind and emotional sphere of personality. But in addition to motivation the influence of a newspaper article is exerted through its informative function. The aim of the newspaper text is to inform the reader about the world events, thus making the recipient ready to proceed to the next stage of *orientation*.

At the stage of orientation the communicant tries to model the addressee's actions by influencing his/her universal knowledge. In the most general sense, the reorganization of knowledge corresponds to the pragmatic orientation of the scientific texts. In the sphere of scientific communication the information about a certain fragment of reality is specified, solutions to scientific problems are provided, thus forming the recipient's picture of the reality, which further on will provide basis for his/her plan of actions.

<sup>15</sup> "dia" from Greek means "through", or related meanings "across" "-lexis" from means "word".

Besides reorganization of the recipient's knowledge, the communicant may direct the addressee by giving him/her a clear algorithm of actions, which corresponds to the pragmatic orientation of the instructions. Instructions programme the recipient to behave in a certain way, making him/her ready to proceed to the stage of execution of the action itself. The next two stages – the stage of assessment and execution – do not find their expression in any types of texts, although they have their verbal realization. These stages are closely related to the action and may be realized through the dialogue, rather than through the text.

So the above mentioned can be presented in the table.

**Table 1.** Correspondence of stages of human activity and pragmatic orientation of the text

Stage of human activity	Aspect of the stage	Pragmatic orientation of the text	Type of texts
Motivational	Initial	To influence the emotional sphere	Motivational (fiction)
	Final	To influence the emotional and intellectual spheres	Motivational -informative (newspaper texts)
Orientational	Initial	To influence the intellectual spheres	Informative (scientific texts)
	Final	To influence the recipient's operation	Programming (instructions)

To prove our idea of the pragmatic character of the reality presentation we analyzed the four types of texts and singled out 1736 predicates in fiction, 1891 in newspaper texts, 1737 in scientific texts and 707 in instructions to show the dependence of the means of reality presentation on the pragmatic orientation of the text.

**Table 2.** Means of reality presentation in different types of texts

Type of texts	Means of reality presentation		
	Homolexia	Heterolexia	Dialexia
Motivational (fiction)	64%	34%	2,4%)
Motivational-informative (newspaper texts)	58%	33%	12%
Informative (scientific texts)	40%	48%	16%
Programming (instructions)	95%	3%	2%

As it is seen from the table, the homolexical means of presentation is widely used in all types of texts as the main objective of the following means is to show the real, objective relations of the world. Its dominant usage of 95% in the instructions can be explained by the pragmatic orientation of the programming texts. The orientational stage of human activity presupposes that the communicant avoids any ambiguity or misinterpretation so as to prepare the interlocutor for actual operation according to the precise algorithm.

The heterolexical means of reality presentation has overall usage in all types of texts. But its dual nature – cognitive and expressive – varies in different texts in number and quality:

**Table 3.** Heterolexical means of reality presentation

Type of texts	Heterolexia	
	Cognitive	Expressive
Motivational (fiction)	80%	20%
Motivational-informative (newspaper texts)	86%	14%
Informative (scientific texts)	95%	5%
Programming (instructions)	3%	–

The maximum of cognitive heterolexia is registered in the informative texts (95%), which can be explained by the pragmatic orientation to express new information by collocating already existing lexical means. It helps the speaker to express a new understanding of the reality in the most appropriate way as it links the new information with that already existing, thus orientating the communicant for interaction. For example, to describe the gene process the scientist has to use the linguistic means with a certain degree of convention, as if comparing them with the processes that you can observe in the real world: *When bacterial phytopathogens enter the apoplast of plants via wounds, stomata, or hydathodes, they rapidly induce a set of pathogen genes encoding a specialized structure, the Type III secretion apparatus. The type III secretion system (TTSS) acts as a conduit via which a constellation of proteinaceous products known as TTSS effectors are delivered into the host cell* (Ritter, 1994).

These are the only possible predicates, if the researcher had used some new predicates to describe new inventions, it would have complicated the comprehension or even made it impossible.

The expressive heterolexia has its maximum in the motivational texts. The imagery of the world presentation corresponds to the pragmatic orientation of this type of text to appeal to the motional sphere of the interlocutor. Each sentence with expressive heterolexia can be paraphrased neutrally: *She could not **reconcile** her shoes with her stockings* (Henry) – ‘*She could not **make** her shoes congruous with her stockings*’.

But in that case the sentence loses its emotional potential. Besides imagery that the expressive heterolexia conveys, it brings some connotations to the meaning of the sentence. For example, the meaning of the following sentence – *He was **spitting** each word sharply of the tip of the tongue and making a sour mouth to show his extreme state* (Dahl, 1986a: 147) – can be reduced to ‘*He was **uttering** each word...*’, the predicate implies the manner of pronunciation – ‘*in an angry, malicious manner*’.

In the motivational-informative texts the expressive heterolexia has also a wide usage, as the newspaper text emotionally involves the reader so as to shape the motives of the addressee’s behavior, but together with that it informs the public about the events, thus preparing the communicants to get to the next stage. For example, the choice of the predicates in the following sentences helps to express the author’s attitude to the events and thus influence the recipients’ reaction: in the sentence *Rivalries in the liberation movement continued to **fester** after independence* (Tran, Orr, 2008) the predicate implies a kind of a disease that requires medical involvement. It cannot but influence the recipients’ reaction.

The dialexical means of the world presentation is used in all types of texts but for instructions. Its usage is characterized by certain peculiarities that depend on the pragmatic orientation of the text. In the motivational texts dialexia gains some imagery and can be used as an artistic detail to appeal to the emotional sphere of the communicant: as in the following example the author describes the late husband of the heroine accentuating the only detail –

*He used to sit reading in that chair and she would be opposite him on the sofa ... and every now and then **a pair of eyes** would **glance** from the book and **settle** on her, watchful, but strangely impersonal, as if **calculating** something. She had never liked **those eyes**. All her life **they** had been **watching** her. Even after his death **they** were still there, **following** her around, **staring** at her from doorways, from empty chairs, through a window at night* (Dahl, 1986b: 162).

From the point of view of semantic syntax ‘a pair of eyes’, ‘those eyes’ is an instrument that occupies the position of the agent. It leads to the focus shift from the general (a doer of the action) to the detail.

In the motivational-informative texts different ranging of the components of the sentence keeps the reader better informed. For example in the sentence *The wins in Washington and Nebraska **demonstrated** again Obama’s ability to reach out to whites* (Harding 2008) three situations are reflected – (1) ‘*Obama won...*’; (2) ‘*Obama demonstrated...*’ (3) *Obama was able to reach...*’. Together with this dialexia in the newspaper texts provides additional evaluative meaning. In the following sentence the first agentive position is occupied by another element – *A confidential **report** has **recommended** a new generation of plants...* (MacAskill 2007) – (***somebody** commissioned a **report***) *has **recommended**...* Such de-personalization leads to the lack of responsibility of the people involved.

In the informative texts dialexia reflects the objective nature of the scientific text, i.e. its focus on the object of the research (the initial position of the sentence in the scientific texts is usually occupied by any situational role but for the doer of the action, which is presupposed and it is the researcher him/herself) – *An **article in Science** reported a model of intra- and intercellular ‘conduct’ developed by two Oxford biologists – ‘the scientist **reported** ... with **an article in Science*** (Sullivan, 1995).

To sum up, the suggested way of the reality presentation based on the correlation of the lexical and syntactic semantics helps us to see clearly not only what is reflected but also the dynamic process of the reality reflection itself, determined by the pragmatic factor to reflect the infinite world in such a way as to organize the interaction with other individuals.

## References

- Blakar, R.M. Language as a means of social power. In: Mey, J. (ed.) Pragmalinguistics. The Hague – Paris, Mouton, 1979. 131–169.
- Chopin, K. A Pair Of Old Stockings. In: Chopin, K. The Awakening and Selected Short Stories. <http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/160>.
- Dahl, R. Parson’s Pleasure. In: Dahl, R. The best of R. Dahl. London: Penguin Books, 1986. 134–152.
- Dahl, R. William And Marry. In: Dahl, R. The best of R. Dahl. London: Penguin Books, 1986. 161–182.
- Harding, L. Mystery nightclub blaze adds to fears that Russia’s party is over. In: The Observer. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2008/feb/10/russia>.
- Henry, O. A Service Of Love. <http://www.gutenberg.org/etext/2776>.
- Katz, J. J., Fodor, J. A. The Structure of a Semantic Theory. In: Language, 39. (2), 1963. 177–210.
- MacAskill, E., Goldenberg, S. Body of kidnapped US soldier found in river. In: The Guardian. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2007/may/24/usa.iraq>.
- Pereira, F. Formal grammar and information theory: together again? In: Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences, 358. 2000. <http://journals.royalsociety.org/content/31cmr38jpn01v34v>.

- Ritter, C., Dangl, J. L. Interference between Two Specific Pathogen Recognition Events Mediated by Distinct Plant Disease Resistance Genes. *In: The Plant Cell*, 8. 1994. <http://www.plantcell.org/cgi/reprint/8/2/251>.
- Sullivan, L. G. Myth, metaphor and hypothesis: how anthropomorphism defeats science. *In: Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 349. 1995. <http://journals.royalsociety.org/content/ur7x313218r36014>.
- Tran, M., Orr, J. EU powers to recognise Kosovan statehood. *In: The Guardian*. <http://www.guardian.co.uk/world/2008/feb/18/kosovo.serbia4>.
- Turner, M. (ed.) *The artful mind: cognitive science and the riddle of human creativity*. Oxford; New York, 2006.
- Богушевич, Д. Г. Единица, функция, уровень: К проблеме классификации единиц языка. Минск, 1985.
- Дроздов, М. В. Прагматические характеристики информационных текстов в средствах массовой информации: дис. ... канд. филол. наук. Минск, 2003.
- Леонтьев, А. А. Психолингвистические единицы и порождение речевого высказывания. Москва, 2003.

Vasily Zelenkov

## Exposure and comparison of semantic-syntactic foci in English and East Slavic languages

The main assumption of the research presented in this paper is treating a sentence as a model of a fragment of picture of the world (Вартофский, 1988; Bogushevich, 1997). Thus the purpose of this paper is to show relations between the original (a fragment of the picture of the world) and the model (the semantic structure of the sentence). This aim demands us to use a theoretical frame known as compositional syntax. According to this theory the semantic structure of the sentence includes two aspects. One of the aspects shows *what* is modeled in the sentence, or else, it represents the structure of the fragment of the picture of the world to be shown in the sentence. The other is a logical structure showing *how* this fragment is represented by the sentence. The theory postulates absence of natural connection of these two aspects but the necessity of their union. It means that the union should be created by the speaker. The former aspect (or what is reflected) was named denotatum, or denotational structure (situation). The latter (or how is reflected) was named significatum, or significational structure (proposition). Uniting these two aspects presupposes that in their structures there must be special components which are most important for joining these two structures together. One of them is the starting point of uniting these two aspects, known as the *centre of empathy* which shows the speaker's viewpoint (Степанов, 1981).

Positioning of the centre of empathy on the elements of the denotational structure depends upon the language used. The other element is wholly dependent upon the speaker, named as the *focus of the speaker's interest* and determines the choice of the denotational element which the speaker thinks to be most important (Иванова-Мицевич, 2009). However, the choice of the focus of interest predetermines the ways of reflecting the situation within significational structure or the proposition. For example, when someone reflects the situation of burning, the speaker's focus of interest may be concentrated on the object. In that case Russian language uses transitive verb "жечь" and the element, emphasized by the focus of interest, occupies the position of direct object.

*Иван сжег записку.*

The English language also uses the transitive verb *burn*:

*John burned the note.*

If the focus of interest is centered on the burning itself, the Russian language uses a different verb:

*Записка сгорела.*

The English language uses the same verb, but the object of the transitive variant occupies the empathic position, i.e. subject position:

*The note burned.*

That example shows that the mechanism of situational structure being reflected by the significative propositional structure differs considerably in English and East Slavonic languages.

The analysis of syntactic structures showed that there can be four propositional types, as they differ by the essence of the relations, connecting their components. The characteristics of these relations are represented with two binary oppositions: dynamic-static and directed-non-directed. When these characteristics intersect, four types appear, and they are: dynamic directed, dynamic non-directed, static directed and static non-directed. Any propositional type has its own argument structure that can be identified within sentences with the help of a set of transformational rules (Козлова, 1988).

It should be mentioned that one and the same situation can be reflected through completely different propositions. For example, one can describe the battle of Actium with the sentence *Octavian defeated Marcus Antonius's fleet at Actium completely*, and that is a dynamic directed proposition. The same situation can be described with the sentence *The defeat of Marcus Antonius's fleet at Actium was complete*, which is a static proposition. The possibilities of choosing the centre of empathy are defined not only by the speaker's focus of interest, but also by the interrelation between significational and denotational structures.

Both English and East Slavonic languages usually choose a proposition, the element connection in which correlates to the relation between situational components, and reflect the state of affairs through it. So if the situation is dynamic and directed, as situations of destruction or creation, the proposition usually has the predicate with the same characteristics. The relation directness does not permit to place the centre of empathy freely on any component of the state of affairs. Slavonic languages in that case permit placing the centre of empathy either on the doer (than the doer is reflected as agent), or at instrument (than instrument is reflected as agent). The English language permits usage of object in empathic agentive position in situations of destruction, while preserving active form of the verb. For example:

*The Romans broke the city wall with a catapult projectile.*

*The projectile broke the wall of the city.*

*The wall of the city broke.*

The first two sentences have the functional elements of the state of affairs in its propositional reflection:

*Римляне разрушили стену города снарядом из катапульты.*

*Снаряд из катапульты разрушил стену города.*

The third sentence demands using the reflexive verb form in all the East Slavonic languages:

*Стена города разрушилась.*

These examples support the fact that the ways of situational reflection in Russian and English sentences differ. At the same time the differences seem to lie in the preferences of the ways of choosing centre of empathy.

The greatest differences may be noted in the case of reflecting the situations of state, where the relations between the components of the state of affairs are not clear enough.

Before comparing the sentences reflecting these situations in English and Russian, it is necessary to create the model of the situation itself. For this purpose we should use dictionary definitions of predicates naming the relations in this situation. English and Russian explanatory dictionaries showed that situations of physical and mental state have the same structure in these cultures. This structure includes the state's source (causer) and the subject (experiencing and estimating this state). The mental state situation is peculiar in the fact that the estimation refers to causer, while estimation for the physical state refers to the subject.

This situational structure generally permits to place the centre of empathy on two components: either on the source (then the subject of the state gains the addressee function), or on the subject of the state (then the source either shifts to presupposition, or turns into object).

Indo-European languages, including Old English and East Slavonic, invariably placed the centre of empathy of such situations on the source. In that case Slavonic languages omit the source when reflecting human physical state. The English language used for this a third person singular personal pronoun. Another peculiarity of East Slavonic languages is use of reflexive forms for reflecting mental state. Compare with Old English:

*and þat hem **likede** here ... sinnes*

*И тогда грехи ему понравились*

It is obvious that functional characteristics of the elements of these two sentences coincide. Both the English and Russian sentences place "sins" as subject, and the subject of action, who feels affinity to these sins, is placed as addressee, and both languages put this element in the Dative case. The sentences of physical state differ:

*Hit is me ceald.*

*Мне холодно.*

The Russian sentence has the whole world as the centre of empathy, thus the subject position is not filled. The English language, even in the Old English period, preferred filling the subject position, though formally.

However, the principles of noun classification changed significantly because of the reduction of unstressed syllables by the XIII century. Old and Early Middle English classified nouns according to gender, as all the other Indo-European languages. That was supported not by the form of noun itself, but by the form of adjectives, adverbs and possessive pronouns, agreed with them. But in the XIII-XIV centuries the coordination by the formal gender disappeared completely. At the same time the masculine and feminine pronouns became similar phonetically in Nominative case third person singular. After the disappearance of Genitive and Accusative cases from the pronoun declension system, nouns should have become completely indistinguishable when substituted with personal pronouns. But that didn't happen: in contrast to North Germanic languages, English preserved all the three pronouns, phonetically setting apart Nominative case of feminine pronoun. That could mean only one thing – the noun classification in Middle English stopped being formal and began to be based on semantic features. This semantic feature isn't the gender anymore, but sex, something that society connects with a human in the first place. By the XV century that finally consolidates in usage. *He* and *she* substitute the nouns denoting people, everyone else is covered with *it*. At the same time the usage of Genitive case changes gradually. The language starts to use it with inanimate nouns rarely, and by the end of the XV century Genitive case practically stops being derived from them. By that time Genitive case turns into Possessive and covers animate nouns.

Thus, by the end of the XV – beginning of the XVI centuries English nouns split into three major semantic groups distinguished according to potential activity. It is significant that the semantic difference was supported by formal and syntactically connected factors in the first place.

The first group included the names of humans. Nouns of this group had the privilege of being substituted with third person singular masculine or feminine pronouns, and having Possessive case forms. Being the names of humans, they were potential agents.

The second group included the names of animals; they were substituted with the pronoun *it* (barring special reasons), that is – the pronoun of the former neuter gender. But they were able to derive possessive constructions freely. Such nouns had a possible activity as a common semantic feature. These nouns named a strongly acting object in many situations.

Finally, the third group included inanimate nouns. These nouns could be substituted with the third person neuter pronouns, and usually didn't form Possessive case forms. When performing an attribute function, they were attached to their determinate with prepositions. Potential inactivity can be considered to be a common feature of these nouns. Such noun distinction could not but influence morphological characteristics and verbs connected with them, and the preferences of choosing the centre of empathy.

That happened, as the described above placement of the centre of empathy on the source for reflecting mental and physical state changes in XVI and shifts to the placement of the centre of empathy on a potentially more active component – a human being. *Hit is me ceald* transforms into *I am cold*. *Hit me lyciath* – into *I like it*. Actually these sentences reflect only a part of the situation, namely the estimatory part, as the source either is not mentioned (*I am cold*), or is transformed into the object of estimation (*I like it*). Thus we may conclude that in modern English the most active element is a preferred choice of the centre of empathy without additional conditions. As a result the subject position itself becomes the sign of activity of the noun occupying it. That allows us to use so-called middle constructions widely; they are limited with the role of the situational component, named by noun. This component cannot be the result of situation development, and thus middle constructions are not used to describe the situation of creation, in contrast with the situation of destruction. The structure *The house builds* is impossible.

East Slavonic languages, as well as the majority of Indo-European languages of Europe, preserved common Indo-European structures for mental and physical state of a human. The choice of the centre of empathy is directed not to the semantic classes of nouns, but to the structure of the situation itself. That is why the Russian language places the focus of interest on predicative characteristics, and that coincides well with the peculiarities of East Slavonic types.

As a conclusion we may say that the opposition of activity and inactivity became the semantically-syntactic guideline for sentence building in English. East Slavonic languages direct the same semantically-syntactic guideline to the structure of the situation reflected.

## References

- Bogushevich, D. G.* et al. Outline of the compositional syntax. Paper presented at the 16th International Congress of Linguists, July 20-25, in Paris, France, 1997.
- Вартофский, М.* Модели: Репрезентации и научное понимание. Москва, 1988.
- Иванова-Мицевич, И. В. Денотативная область вербального информирования и особенности ее отражения в английском предложении: дис. ... канд. филол. наук. Воронеж, 2009.
- Козлова, Л. К.* Семантическая структура и текстовые функции предложений с неличными формами глагола в современном английском языке (подъязык электроники): автореф. дис. ... канд. филол. наук. Минск, 1988.
- Степанов, Ю. С.* Имена. Предикаты. Предложения. Москва, 1981.

Irina Dmitrieva

## Semantic subject and object presentation as text type marker

Text production is predetermined by the principle of pragmatic sufficiency according to which the explicit presentation is attributed to those elements of information which are considered to be sufficient to achieve the communicative aim in a certain situation of speech interaction (Богусевич, 1985). The non-linguistic reality described in a text is much more complicated and complex than the minimum expected in accordance with the principle of pragmatic sufficiency. The process of text production implies the assessment (conscious or unconscious) of which part of information should be presented directly and explicitly and which part can be devoid of its direct language presentation. A more formal aspect presupposes the choice of those language units and structures which can convey the necessary information in the context when the plane of expression does not correspond directly with the plane of content.

Traditionally the correlation of the textual plane of content and plane of expression is described in terms of lexical items, grammatical (morphological) forms, semantic and structural characteristics of a text. The attained descriptive characteristics build up the foundation for formal identification of the functional style or genre of a given text.

This publication is aimed to describe another possible treatment of linguistic features which does not oppose to those available but still can contribute to a more analytically grounded identification of a text type on the basis of homogenous parameters having some categorial features. We focus on the way one of the basic text categories – information – is verbalized in texts representing different functional styles. Information is understood in terms suggested by I.R. Galperin who specified three types of the textual category of information: factual, conceptual and implicit (Гальперин, 1981).

A universally accepted means of verbalizing factual information is proposition regarded as a semantic structure of the sentence. The latter can be treated as a nominative unit naming the event or situation and specifying its participants as well as actions, processes or states attributed to them. The model of the semantic structure correlates with the frame of a verb naming the action, process or state. Alongside with “full” propositions representing the actual verb frame, linguists recognize the existence of so called curtailed (reduced) propositions in which the verb frame is fully or partially reduced. Curtailed propositions are typically verbalized by potentially predicative units and structures which result primarily from the process of nominalization. Various linguistic studies suggest a different range of such language units. Traditionally they embrace word combinations and predicative complexes with non-finite forms of the verb, nouns and adjectives of de-verbal origin. The above language units are characterized by the inherent property to delete from the plane of expression some or all nominative elements constituting the potential frame of a nominalized predicate. Curtailed propositions can serve as reliable indicators of a text functional type due to two characteristics. First, they possess a potential but not obligatory ability to delete the nominative elements from a nominalized predicate, which makes it possible to analyze the extent to which this ability is employed in texts of different functional styles. Second, the elements which are deleted are predictable components of the frame; hence they can be restored and analyzed.

The curtailed propositions can be reconstructed to make up full propositions; the procedure may be called the transformation of de-implication. Apart from the above mentioned curtailed propositions (non-predicative units and structures) the object of study may include predicative voice forms of the verb as the latter possess the capacity of alternative presentation of the two main nominative elements of a verb frame – the semantic subject (agent) and semantic object (patient), passive forms giving the possibility to eliminate the semantic subject from the plane of expression. Elimination of the semantic subject or semantic object from the plane of expression may be regarded as a manifestation of the sufficiency principle (as well as Martinet’s principle of economy).

Basing on the fundamental postulate of semantic syntax according to which the semantic predicate predetermines the number and types of the nominal elements in its frame and

applying the transformational technique we can reconstruct the potentially possible proposition of a nominalized predicate up to the syntactic predicative structure with the active predicate. Comparing the curtailed structure with the reconstructed one we can figure out which nominal elements were expected due to the nature of the verb, which were presented explicitly in the original curtailed structure employed in a text and which were deleted.

The procedure can be illustrated by the following example. In the sentence

*... she was dealing with a prudent financial expert who would not allow prejudice to obstruct his sound **arrangements** ...*

the noun *arrangements* is a de-verbal noun derived from the verb *arrange*. The potential frame of the verb assumes as predictable the semantic subject (agent) and the semantic object (patient): [smb **arrange** smth]. The chain of transformations of the original textual use may be as follows:

*... a prudent financial expert who would not allow prejudice to obstruct his sound **arrangements** → a prudent financial expert who would not allow prejudice to obstruct **smth that was arranged by him** [a prudent financial expert] → a prudent financial expert who would not allow prejudice to obstruct **smth that he** [a prudent financial expert] **arranged** → He [a prudent financial expert] **arranged** smth.*

As shown by the final transformation the context makes it possible to reconstruct the actual semantic subject of the nominalized predicate (presented in the surface structure by means of the possessive pronoun *his*) but the factual information about the semantic object is eliminated.

The following example illustrates the elimination of the factual information about the semantic subject of a nominalized predicate:

*The entity model as a diagram is simply a crude, though **valuable**, means of demonstrating...*

The adjective *valuable* is derived from the verb *value*, the potential frame of which, like in case of the verb *arrange*, presupposes the information about the semantic subject and semantic object: [smb **value** smth]. The transformation demonstrates that the original textual use does not contain any indicators for the possible semantic subject:

*The entity model as a diagram is simply a crude, though **valuable**, means of demonstrating ... → The entity model as a diagram is simply a crude means of demonstrating, though **smb values (this) means of demonstrating** ... → **smb values (this) means of demonstrating**.*

The final structure proves that the information about the semantic subject is deleted while the position of the semantic object can easily be filled with a meaningful component available in the original surface structure.

This sort of analysis applied to a group of scientific and literary texts allows to reveal some regularity in the way the factual information about the semantic subject and semantic object of the curtailed proposition is presented in them, specifying some common and some distinctive features.

Literary texts tend to present the information about the semantic subject of curtailed propositions in the plane of expression explicitly (up to 80%) though the actual language unit carrying the information about the semantic subject is not always connected with the curtailed proposition syntactically. The information about the semantic object on the contrary is preserved in no more than 50% of similar structures. Scientific texts demonstrate quite the opposite tendency: more than 80% of semantic subjects of analyzed curtailed propositions were deleted while the information about the semantic object was presented explicitly in more than 60% of structures. Moreover literary and scientific texts are characterized by a substantial difference in the frequency of one-place predicates (those not taking objects) used: 25% versus 5% of all analyzed structures correspondingly. Evidently the absence of the semantic object in such structures is not related to the process of reducing and deleting the element but the figures add to the general assessment of the relative importance of the information about semantic objects in different texts.

Scientific texts are generally characterized by the direct presentation of the author and the topic. The actual doer (semantic subject) once stated explicitly (as the author of the publication or the author of this or that theoretical foundation, research, experiment, etc.) can be easily deleted from the plane of expression of the text to follow and likewise easily understood in case of curtailed propositions. For example, the sentence

*A “mountain block”, as **defined** in Section 2, was formed **using** a combination of keyboard and digitizer output.*

contains two nominalized predicates *defined* and *using*. Their potential frames presuppose the information about the semantic subject and object: [smb **define** smth] and [smb **use** smth]. The actual information about their semantic objects is available in the sentence: *A “mountain block” and a combination of keyboard and digitizer output* correspondingly. The information about the semantic subjects is totally deleted from the plane of expression, still the reader easily understands that it is the author of the publication who defined the “mountain block” and used *a combination of keyboard and digitizer output*.

The choice of nominalized predicates making it possible to delete potential subjects from the plane of expression is closely related to the processes of authorization and de-authorization. For example the sentence

*There are some **attempts to provide** “COBOL-like” languages such as *DIBOL* and *SyBOL* which is similar to the better **known** *DATA point DATA SHARE*.*

contains three nominalized predicates whose potential frames presuppose the information about semantic subjects and semantic objects: [smb **attempt** smth], [smb **provide** smth], [smb **know** smth]. Deleted semantic subjects of curtailed propositions with *attempt* и *provide* could have given the information about the researchers involved. Still experts in that sphere could possibly be quite aware of the real names, laboratories, groups undertaking the project. The semantic subject of the potential predicate *known* seems to unite the author of the publication and the reader in a class of those who are better informed about *DATA point DATA SHARE* than about *DIBOL and SyBOL*. As we can see, the deletion of the information about the semantic subject from the plane of expression does not seriously affect the general scope of factual text information.

Literary texts involve various characters and participants, characters’ inner speech, interplay of several plot lines, different types of narration (first person narration, third person narration), etc. Polyphony of literary texts and multiple semantic subjects make it essential to present explicitly the subject of each proposition, including those curled. In case of curled propositions exerting their ability to delete the semantic subject, there should be some possibilities to reinstall it as a definite subject with individual identification and often – with a specific reference. For example, the possible subject of the potential predicate *bring* in the sentence

*There had been a time when Father Dewes’ predecessor made an attempt to **bring** Mr. and Mrs Ferraro into a closer relationship.*

is reconstructed as a definite subject basing on the information of the sentence itself – it is *Father Dewes’ predecessor*.

It seems only natural that literary texts with their wide range of world’s fragments described, variability of participants and situations are more explicit in direct presentation of participants of each situation. Scientific texts present a certain part of a definite sphere of science with a limited scope of possible participants. Semantic subjects once explicitly stated or assumed as known can be deleted from the plane of expression. In many cases they do not require individual identification – class identification appears to be sufficient because scientific texts have a group rather than individual value. Literary texts are focused on the subjects of actions, processes or states with the diversity in inner interactions of definite subjects. Scientific texts are aimed at actions or processes themselves including the objects involved. In this respect they may be identified as

possessing a definitely unilateral direction towards the object. The total combination of linguistic characteristics makes it possible to define literary texts as subject-centred and scientific texts as object-centred in their factual information presentation.

The latter seems to correlate with the results obtained in quite a different sort of linguistic investigation based on the analysis of various texts representing public and political discourse. Studying the types of communicative strategies and the predominant type of interaction (subject-subject or subject-object) the researchers identified two types of text content: topic-oriented and subject-oriented (Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2000).

One more aspect of the undertaken research of literary and scientific texts is constituted by the possible sources of information about the deleted elements of the curtailed propositions and the degree of definiteness to which the deleted semantic subjects or objects can be reinstalled.

The sources of information for reconstruction can roughly be described as textual and presuppositional (background). The analysis shows that deleted nominative elements of curtailed propositions in literary texts can be reconstructed mainly on the basis of the information presented in the texts themselves. This holds true for more than 70% of deleted semantic subjects and 80% of deleted objects. Those reinstalled through textual information were restored up to an individual identity with a specific reference while the rest 30% and 20% of deleted subjects and objects whose reconstruction presupposed the involvement of some background information could be restored as generalized types with generic reference. The prevailing source for reconstruction of deleted semantic subjects and objects in scientific texts was background information: 60% of deleted subjects and more than 50% of deleted objects could be reconstructed through that source (see the above analysis of the sentence

*There are some **attempts to provide** “COBOL-like” languages such as DIBOL and SyBOL which is similar to the better **known** DATA point DATA SHARE.*

taking into account that the background knowledge of a philologist is much narrower than that of a specialist in the sphere of computer programming).

The necessity to expose all possible information about the participants and their interactions within a text is rooted (apart from the above-mentioned) in a literary text addressee (a wide range of readers having different education and background knowledge) as well as in the individual value of a literary text. The addressee of a scientific text on the contrary is supposed to be well prepared and educated in a given scientific branch, which allows deleting of the “excessive” information. Besides the necessity to preserve the straightforward development of the main communicative line accompanied by text space limitations forms the ground for extensive involvement of curled structures.

Summing up the results of analysis of the texts and their interpretation we can conclude that frequency of the use of curtailed propositions, types of nominative elements deleted, possible sources of information for their reconstruction and a specific or generic type of their identification for reconstructed propositions can serve as reliable text type markers.

## References

- Богусевич, Д. Г.* Единица, функция, уровень: К проблеме классификации единиц языка. Минск, 1985.
- Гальперин, И. Р.* Текст как объект лингвистического исследования. Москва, 1981.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф.* Операционализация коммуникативных стратегий с позиций каузально-генетической теории. *In: Методология исследований политического дискурса: Актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно политических текстов.* Вып 2. Минск, 2000. 198–201.

Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich, Irina Chuchkevich

## Sentence components as textual semantic net

It is commonly known that semantic text coherence is provided by different means, including both lexical (semantic repetitions, derived naming units, co-reference names, deixis) and syntactic (parallel structures, actual division of the sentence). The question is what reflects the author’s interest in sentences and consequently in the text.

While analyzing and eliciting the basic text characteristics, we use either so-called key words singled out statistically or theme-rheme (thematic-rhematic) sequences.

Key words are singled out in two ways. The first one is by employing various statistic and probabilistic methods aimed at singling out informatively most significant names. These methods are not connected directly with the contents of the text itself, as they presuppose only certain statistic dependence of word significance in the text on its statistic characteristics. The second method can be treated as the author’s one, since it is the author who is offered to single out a certain number of words that he/she considers significant and important for the contents. Unfortunately, we haven’t come upon the research dealing with both types of singling out key words.

For the present, description of theme-rheme sequences in the text is not formalized insomuch that we can use computer programmes for it. Theme-rheme sequences are singled out by qualified linguists, and they depend mainly on what and which function linguists apply to the rheme.

There are different points of view on actual division of the sentence.

Some scholars (Адмони, 1968; Ковтунова, 1976) consider actual division of the sentence as a semantic superstructure in comparison to a syntactic structure, which doesn't affect the basic type of the subject-predicate relation. It means utterances with a different order of the same words are treated as variants of one and the same sentence.

The others (Богданов, 1977) believe that actual division of the sentence occupies an intermediate level between semantics expressed in the predicate-argument terms and traditional syntax that speaks in terms of sentence members.

G.A. Zolotova doesn't separate actual division from the semantic structure of the sentence but emphasizes its connection with the context. She writes: 'Actual division of the sentence consists of two dimensions: a semantic-syntactic structure of the sentence and a particular text' (Золотова, 2001). Moreover, adhering to the same opinion, I.M. Boguslavskiy states that actual division can directly add some meaning to a sentence (Богуславский, 1998).

Turning to the text as an object of our research and presenting it as a corpus of sentences, organized in accordance with the author's intention, we should mention that the given organization is achieved by means of actual division of each sentence included in the text because it is actual division that provides entering of each particular sentence in the context.

Therefore, actual division is aimed to help the interlocutor to interpret any discourse – in this particular case the text – as a united, structural and semantically connected speech complex and, consequently, reflects the author's interest though only indirectly.

At the same time there are two components in the semantic structure of the sentence that can be treated as the main ones, while modelling the semantic structure of the sentence. Firstly, it is the empathy centre which correlates with any component of a certain state of affairs (situation), and, secondly, it is the focus of interest that is located in the significative structure (proposition) and for which we choose one, the most interesting and most important for the author, element out of all the elements of a certain state of affairs. The focus of interest to a great extent defines what can become the empathy centre, as it occupies the central position namely in the propositional or interpretive structure, different from the first position – the position of the empathy centre.

The position of the focus of interest in different languages can turn out to be different. Particularly in English the position of the focus of interest is clearly fixed. One can define it even by analyzing the surface structure of the sentence. The focus of interest is placed either immediately after the Predicate or on the Predicate itself. In addition to that, variations in representation of the focus of interest cause changes in forms of sentence members. For example:

*Eve gave Adam an apple. Eve gave an apple to Adam.*

In Russian the focus of interest is likely to have its clearly fixed position, too. Compare:

*Ева дала Адаму яблоко, Ева дала яблоко Адаму.*

Moreover, if we compare the sentences, reflecting a psychic state or physical condition, we will find out that, despite their opposite structures in the English and Russian languages, the arrangement of their lexical units is usually the same.

*I like this. – Мне нравится эта книга.*

*I'm hot. – Мне жарко.*

However, until special research is carried out, we can't state for sure where the focus of the speaker's interest is set in the Eastern Slavonic languages and where an interlocutor in the Russian, Belarusian, Ukrainian languages expects to find elements, significant for the speaker. Variability of the focus of interest predetermines different variants of presentation of a denotational field in the surface structure of the sentence. As there are no variants that can reflect a denotational field to the full extent, each of them reflects only what is important for the speaker. So, the focus of the speaker's interest in a sentence actually defines the way in which the author himself perceives the given situation. As sentences in the text are to reflect a certain complicated state of affairs, unity of several denotational fields from a certain point of view, one can consider that the focus of interest in all the sentences can establish a semantic net which integrates different situations and provides the basis for semantic coherence of the text.

As stated above, keywords, actual division and the focus of interest present the author's point of view in the text. They are those operations which he/she produces consciously or intuitively, while creating a text. The foci of interest realize its semantic perspective. Actual division provides information coherence. And keywords turn out to be general information pivots that refer a text to the denotational fields presented in it. As a result, one can say that all the three text characteristics – keywords, the focus of interest and actual division of the sentence – are those pivots that the recipient of the text can employ for text interpretation and understanding.

## References

- Адмони, В. Г. Типология предложения. *In: Исследования по общей теории грамматики.* Москва, 1968. 232–291.
- Богданов, В. В. Семантико-синтаксическая организация предложения. Ленинград, 1977.
- Богуславский, И. М. Сфера действия начинательности и актуальное членение: втягивание ремы. *In: Семиотика и информатика: сб. науч. ст., 36.* Москва, 1998. 8–19.
- Золотова, Г. А. Коммуникативные аспекты русского синтаксиса. Москва, 2001.
- Ковтунова, И. И. Современный русский язык. Порядок слов и актуальное членение предложения. Москва, 1976.

Alesya Shevtsova

## Syntactic means of natural communicative style in British and Belarusian radio discussions

The speech of the participants in 30 British and 30 Belarusian radio discussions under research (“*All Things Green*”, “*Daily Bacon’s Show*”, “*Forum*”, “*All in the Mind*”, “*Беларусы ў свеце*”, “*Беларусь у асобах*”, “*З першых вуснаў*”, “*Зямля, што нам дадзена лёсам*”) is characterized by existence of two opposite tendencies which make the speech of the participants sound more natural and informal – redundancy (syntactic repetitions, excessive interpretation and explanation) and compression (elliptic remarks, scrappy comments). Elliptic sentences assuming omission of this or that member are organic elements of a spontaneous informal conversation. In the Belarusian radio discussions the ellipsis generally occurs in the speech of the radio guests who answer the questions of the hosts (in 82% of responses). For example:

– *Усё, што адбывалася ў нашай гісторыі беларускай – па калекцыі баністыкі [...] ‘Everything that happened in our Belarusian history – by the collection of bonistics’.*

In discussions of the British radio elliptic expressions are typical approximately equally both for the hosts, and for the guests of the studio. The ellipsis in the discourse of radio discussions is provided most often by sentences with a verb predicate in the first person singular or plural with the pass of the subject (more than 50% of cases on the Belarusian radio). For example:

– *But if think how many problems you had to face [...]; – У 72 годзе прыйшла на размеркаванні пасля заканчэння ўніверсітэта на радыёстанцыю “Савецкая Беларусь” [...] ‘In 1972 came on assignment after my graduation to the radio station “Soviet Belarus”’.*

In addition to the speech compression in the discussions on radio, the participants are inclined to use syntactical repetitions which also make a spontaneous character of the discourse. Repeating, guests of the programmes aim to convince listeners and the host of correctness of the line item, to provide their position on the discussed problem clearer and more accurately. For example:

– *I’m going to ask them how their wealth has changed their lifestyle, how it improved their relationships and how it modified their values [...].*

In radio discussions in the Belarusian language for which the preferentially free word order is typical, «natural» deployment of the phrase which reflects sequence of appearance in consciousness speaking components of thought and is in strong sense of the word

syntactically inconsistent. Dependent words not always settle down near the principal ones, «the speech chain» is often broken, there are interruptions in syntactical structure. Between parts of the phrases there take place non-smooth joints, scrappy phrases, spontaneous transitions from one component of the phrase to another when a speaker interrupts one sentence and starts producing another or rephrases the interrupted one. For example:

– *In the surfing element... I mean people came from all over [...].*

It is more often observed in the British radio discussions (14% of total quantity of grammatical markers of spontaneity of the speech) and it takes place only in 7,3% of Belarusian radio discussions. A break-off of the phrase can be caused by self-correction or repetition of the corrected word or part of the phrase that is more characteristic for radio discussions in the Belarusian language.

For the syntax of an informal media conversation it is typical to use parenthetical constructions. Such components containing additional information, passing notes or executing a modal merit function disconnect the continuity of syntactic links in the speech of the participants of radio discussions, mark naturalness, unpreparedness of the discourse. For example:

– *What effect did it make on you, **this experience you had?**; – Гэта ... ну, я не ведаю ... гэта так проста – знайсці падыход да гэтых людзей! ‘Well ... I don’t know ... it’s so easy – to find the common language with these people!’*

One of the brightest syntactical features of the participants’ speech is «chaotic», often uncoordinated layout of words which is, according to Yu.M. Skrebnev, an explicit indicator of a spontaneous informal conversation (Скрібнев, 1985). The Belarusian language, as well as Russian, has preferentially a free word order. In the stylistically neutral speech the theme, as a rule, precedes the rheme. For the Belarusian language the normal word order is when the subject precedes the predicate, the coordinated definitive – to the defined word, the objective complement follows an added word, the uncoordinated definitive follows the defined word, the adverbial modifier follows the predicate (Каўрус, 1980). Spontaneous character of the speech of the Belarusian participants is caused by the subject - rheme inversion of utterances – when the most important, new information is set in the preposition which is expressed both with principal and dependent parts of speech. For example:

– *Гэта вось **упершыню** нашымі навукоўцамі было адзначана ‘It was for the first time noticed by our scholars’.*

In the utterances of Belarusian participants an inversion occurs in the pairs «definitive - determinatum», «transitive verb - objective complement», in the pair “subject – predicate» it takes place more rarely. For example:

– *Радыё, яно зараз больш такога фармату эфэмаўскага, такога вольнага*  
 ‘Radio now is more of a free, liberal format’

– *Кажу, вось калі партрэт сацыяльны ствараць нашых людзей, землякоў нашых у Краснаярску [...] ‘I say if we need a social portrait of our people, our compatriots in Krasnoyarsk to create [...]’.*

In British participants’ utterances the inverted word order is provided generally by «promotion» – relocation of objective complement, adverbial modifier or a subordinate clause to the initial position. For example:

– *About three years ago you started this activity, Tina?*

The use of exclamations and questions, rhetorical questions helps to focus the listener’s attention, to give emotionality and spontaneity to speech which total weight makes 10,2% in the British radio discussions and 5,4% in Belarusian (from the total quantity of grammatical markers of spontaneity of the speech). For example:

– *Why not try something that doesn’t have any drugs? Why not try that first?*

Questions and exclamations add a spontaneous character to the participants’ speech, they regulate the partners’ reaction, help to get their communicative support. As we deal with oral speech we cannot define the exact use of parcellation. The participants of both British and Belarusian radio discussions rather often make hesitation pauses. So it’s often impossible to define whether it’s another sentence, or just the continuation of the same utterance.

Generalizing, it is possible to draw a conclusion that the participants of the British radio discussions give preference to parenthetical utterances, interrupted remarks, syntactical repetitions. In their turn, the Belarusian participants most often resort to inversion and as well as British use parenthetical constructions.

## References

- Каўрус, А. А. Стылістыка беларускай мовы. Мінск, 1980.  
 Скрэбнев, Ю. М. Введение в коллоквиалистику. Саратов, 1985.

## Issue 3. Functional stylistics and discourse studies: Points of intersection

Stanislaw Gaida

### Style and stylistics in the conceptual system of linguistics: Functional perspective *(translated from Russian by Ekaterina Vasilenko)*

1. The key concepts of my paper will be those of *style* and *stylistics*. When discussing them we could touch upon three levels – *conceptual-terminological, historical and theoretical-methodological*. I am not going to provide a detailed description of the first two levels, focusing my attention on the third one, though the attempt of its conceptualization in existing conditions may be general and superficial.
2. The term *style* refers to a complex and content-rich concept, but this concept is not precise and clear enough. During its long history the term got many meanings. Already in antiquity the term evolved from the Greek *stylos* (column) through the Latin *stilus* (stick for writing on wax tables) to the rhetorical *styl* (manner of speaking/writing). In modern times this methodological rhetorical meaning spread in different areas of life, transcending the borders of language, as well as in different concepts of style.

Nowadays we can speak about style with an eye to both the totality of those meanings and to each separate meaning (Compagnon 2010). At the same time it is hard to expect that it is possible to assign to *style* several or a dozen of unrelated and clearly defined meanings (even in application to language).

The problems with *style* have their ontical and epistemic explanation. The complexity of language reality and its changes with the course of time cause serious cognitive problems. In this situation certain relativism is found in cognition – there appear a lot of descriptions and explanations of the same language phenomena. Thus, the semantic polymorphism of the term *style* is the result of the multiconceptuality of style.

Within this article it is impossible to provide even a brief presentation of different concepts of style. They are different already in the fact that they put forward

different language properties in the definition of style, for example, typicality vs. uniqueness, necessity vs. freedom, norm vs. deviations. We may attempt to organize them by placing them on the scale, poles of which are defined on one side by reductionism (focusing of attention on certain aspects and their absolutization), and on the other side by holism.

This ability of the concept itself and the related cognitive situation has created different approaches to the term *style*. Authors holding the extreme positions interpret *style* as an illusion, myth, kind of ether which we need to get rid of by removing the term *style* from science. But without doubt the prevailing position is that one where *style* is viewed as an ontical value. It gets cognitive confirmation in habitual understanding inherent in common sense. It is harder to deal with *style* in scientific research, which leads to the construction of a scientific concept, a concept of the highest order.

3. In the main direction of rhetoric (*rhetorica docens*) the term *style* did not function. In the rhetorical tradition we can observe elocutive selection of *three styles*: high, medium and low. In this case the selection of a respective topic and of the most appropriate means of expression was performed. At the beginning of XIX century the scientific revolution takes place which leads to solidification of modern scientific disciplines including linguistics. The so-called “death of rhetoric” and the birth of stylistics as a science studying style is related to this revolution (the term *stylistics* first appeared in Germany in the 30s of the previous century). Stylistics put forward the concept of style and offered a new language replacing the categories developed by rhetoric with the linguistic ones. Under the influence of the aura of intellectual positivism it adopted the reductive-analytical approach to style interpretation. At the same time stylistics moved away from the holistic orientation proposed by German romanticism (see *Ganzheit*). One shall remember, however, that style was viewed as the indivisible whole (one of the reasons for which was the absence of the respective analytical apparatus). This orientation strongly influenced the so called literature studies stylistics which took the operation categories proposed by the linguistics as insufficient ones.

In the language studies during the entire history (from ancient times to XXI century) we can select several approaches, namely studies focused on learning language structure, on its functioning, on its history (structure and functioning), as well as on application of the knowledge of language. Stylistics, the successor of rhetoric, was a part of studies specializing on language functioning study. XIX and large part of XX century did not create the favourable conditions for those studies. Just remember

structuralism with its flagship precedence of *speech* study (F. de Saussure). Functionalism stayed away from the spotlight though it gave us the Prague School that created functional stylistics.

The border of 1960s and 1970s brought the clear revolution in culture and science, including linguistics. Functionalism comes to the foreground (its focus, however, moves from functioning of language means to linguistic performance and human cooperation). It may seem that these were good times for stylistics. But this never happened. The new way of thinking regarding language and its functioning found its expression under new labels (see *pragma-, psycho-, socio-, anthropo-, ethno-, culture-, neuro-, bio-, etc. – linguistics... analysis... theory..., etc.*).

So aren't the talks about the death of *style* and *stylistics* justified? In recent decades the concepts of style and stylistics are almost disappearing from scientific use even in the linguistics of Slavic countries with their rich stylistic tradition, with exception of, maybe, Russia. Their place is taken by new, more operational terms and names of new schools, movements, subdisciplines. Annuals “Stylistyka” (Opole, since 1992) and “Styl” (Belgrade, since 2002), as well as other scientific-organizational and research activities do not affect the cognitive situation considerably. It seems, however, that rumors about the “death of style and stylistics” are exaggerated and may even forebode a long and rich life of these concepts.

4. The incredibly wide functioning of the term *style* in humanities and social sciences, as well as in other areas of public life (for example, in art, fashion, sports, daily life) is amazing. No humanitarian or social discipline avoids its use. Since its use is unlikely caused by scientific fashion, we may presume that the term refers to some essential characteristics of studied concepts or is the response to some important cognitive necessity. It is impossible to analyze here all these terminological and semi-terminological uses of the word, but all of them have a clear concept core – the term *style* refers to human activity and the derivatives of this activity and is of a unifying character.

Thus when constructing the linguistic concept (theory) of style the following premises shall be accepted as its foundation:

- 1) (language) style is related to communicative linguistic activity and its derivatives, i.e. texts;
- 2) this activity is performed by humans (both by creative subjects and by passive subjects affected by the context);
- 3) style context is determined by subjects (as bundles of psychosocial features), socio-cultural situation and interactive constellation;

- 4) the basis of human (inter)actions is texts as highly organized (semantically, pragmatically, syntactically) entities;
- 5) style permeates the text understood in such a way, integrating its different dimensions and attributes, presenting its highest organizing feature – “humanitarian structure”, soul (Gajda, 1982);
- 6) following the stylistic tradition we may recognize as the main stylistic categories the analytical category of “stylistic means” as well as the integrating category of “style” (compare its different types: style of text, personal style, functional style, style of an era, national style).

Created in such a way the concept of style has an integral (complex, holistic) character. It attempts to overcome the duality of thought and language, content and expression, marking the distributed style concepts leading to elocution (see style as an ornament, as a deviation, as a choice). Thus the connection is established with the pre-romantic and romantic German concepts (see *Ganzheit* and *Gestalt*), and also with directions of functional stylistics development, represented, inter alia in works by K. Hausenblas, M.N. Kozhina, F. Miko.

The concept offered here in brief is more like a research program requiring implementation. However, essentially, it is already implemented as a part of natural development of linguistics by different currents of modern functionalism (anthropocentric, cultural, ecological, cognitive etc.). It is implemented (more or less consciously) by a large number of researchers. They introduce new concepts and terms, often equivalent to the ones already existing in stylistics, but also totally new, enriching and expanding the knowledge of structure and functioning of language (see development of text linguistics, discourse theory, cognitive semantics, communication theory). It creates the problem of correspondence of different styles of thought (paradigms), of commensurateness and coherence of concepts in the style theory. Science, however, requires not only more precise and operational concepts, but also concise, though “nebulous” intuitive categories of a program designing and unifying character.

5. The strength of the *style* concept, deriving, first of all, from its integrating potential, may have an effect on the situation in stylistics. While developing the interest of rhetoric to language functioning, stylistics in recent decades has found itself in a rather odd position. Functionalism with its intense and multidirectional development has little connection to stylistics.

We may say that now it’s time of stylistics without *stylistics*. However, the term *stylistics* does not disappear completely. It is supported mostly by a habitual and research tradition (preservation of *practical stylistics*, *historical stylistics*, Bally’s

*stylistics*, *functional stylistics*; the latter had a very great impact on the development of functionalist in general). However, the term “stylistics” is also present in new post-structuralist disciplines (*pragmatic stylistics*, *intertextual stylistics*, *feminist stylistics*, *cognitive stylistics*).

The chance for stylistics may be seen in the mechanisms of science. The development of science is under effect of the two opposite but at the same time complementary tendencies: towards specialization, i.e. production of narrower but deep knowledge, and towards integration, i.e. synthesis. The integrated knowledge is in demand by both narrow specialists and a wide scientific community, as well as by general public. This manifestation of human needs becomes increasingly obvious in the modern world of fluctuations and chaos. ***After postmodernist departure from “great narrations” we have found ourselves returning to “great theories”.***

What I refer here as functionalism is nowadays a conglomerate of research directions that implement the motto of open linguistics which cannot be isolated from other humanities. However the transborder dialogue is frequently absent among these directions. Tolerance to another point of view degenerates into isolationism and indifference, polyphony. At the same time the complexity of language requires complex consideration. **A linguist must be a discoursologist, a genologist, a communication theorist in order to study and to understand language reality.**

The levels of a transborder dialogue may differ:

- first level – interdisciplinarity, i.e. interaction of two disciplines (directions), e.g. sociolinguistics and language sociology;
- second level – multidisciplinary, i.e. creation of the research group around the particular issue by the scientists developing different disciplines;
- third level – transdisciplinarity, i.e. unification of different disciplines in a single science which is an ideal, unlikely possible to attain. Since, however, the would-be scientific intellectual environment displays the return from specialization, analytism and reductionism to integration and holism, the time has come for linguistic integration as well.

Stylistics, thanks to its tradition and the integration potential of the *style* category, can be an inter-, multi-, transdisciplinary field where different, more traditional and previously dominating research orientations, highlighting inter alia the activity-based and procedural character and wide-context connections of language can be found. The concept of *style* is in the centre of this stylistic integration, together with the concepts of system, text and discourse (Gajda, 2012).

*Inspiration of such integrative actions is provided by big science developing the teaching on complexity (see systems theory, chaos theory, network theory). Complex systems are viewed, inter alia, as hierarchical structures, where:*

- 1) higher levels cannot be reduced to lower levels and their components;
- 2) higher levels possess unforeseen properties, creating emergent integrities.

These systems are characterized by high plasticity, i.e. the ability to adapt to the environment.

## References

- Compagnon, A.* Demon teorii. Literatura a zdrowy rozsądek. Gdańsk, 2010 (1998).  
*Gajda, S.* Podstawy badań stylistycznych nad językiem naukowym. Warszawa, 1982.  
*Gajda, S.* Stylistyka integrująca. In: Poradnik Językowy, 6. 2012. 56–66.

Natalia Klushina

## **Discoursology and stylistics: coordinating scientific methods**

*(translated from Russian by Aliaksei Ihnatovich)*

### Introduction

Methods of stylistic analysis of text had been dominating Slavic philology until the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century because they incorporated literary and linguistic approaches to the study of textual phenomena. In the early 21<sup>st</sup> century, methods of critical discourse analysis were introduced into the domain of Russian (broader – Slavic) scholarship. Being novel to that domain, they were used, among other applications, for text study. The methods of critical discourse analysis developed by Western scientists drew not only upon philological approaches but also included the achievements of related sciences such as sociology, psychology, culturology, mathematical modeling, etc. Since text is the object of research of both stylistics and discoursology, they inevitably faced the problems of their categorial frameworks differentiation, of drawing a demarcation line between these two closely related disciplines, in order to avoid eclecticism in each of them. The delimitation of discoursology and stylistics will enable scientists to understand the phenomenon of text better. Text has to be studied from different points and with different methods for it to be analyzed and described as accurately as possible. The collaboration between scholars of stylistics and discoursology may further the development of interdisciplinary scientific domain – discursive stylistics, which might unite the most significant achievements of both disciplines.

## **Methodological grounds for the differentiation of the categories “style” and “discourse”**

We distinguish the notions of “style” and “discourse” which often merge in contemporary Russian-language philology. Style is the subject of research of stylistics; discourse is the subject of research of discoursology and communication science. We argue that the above phenomena are not mutually exclusive or interchangeable but complementary. Such an approach allows us to develop the communicative aspect of Slavic stylistics. Discoursology also receives a further incentive to the research into the stylistic organization of discourses.

Communication is the subject of research of many humanities. Nowadays, the most notable advances in the study of modern communication have been made in two realms that are developing in Russia simultaneously: traditional Russian stylistics and imported Western discoursology. Each of the disciplines has developed its own scholarly apparatus, created and tested independent methods of and approaches to speech material analysis. Both the disciplines set original and distinct goals. However, text as the common subject of research and Russian linguistics as the common scientific space have predetermined the inevitability of interaction between these two previously independent disciplines.

Stylistics is studied within university courses in the Russian literary language at philology and journalism departments. Discoursology is studied at foreign language departments within the courses in communication science and translation theory. Stylistics is taught at these departments in different capacity and from different textbooks.

The distinctive character of stylistics is clearly seen in works by modern Russian linguists, such as M.N. Kozhina (Perm University, Perm), V.G. Kostomarov (Pushkin State Russian Language Institute, Moscow) G.Y. Solganik (Lomonosov Moscow State University), A.I. Gorshkov (Maxim Gorky Literature Institute, Moscow), O.B. Sirotinina (Saratov State University, Saratov) K.A. Rogova (Saint-Petersburg State University, Saint-Petersburg) N.A. Kupina (Ekaterinburg University, Ekaterinburg “Ural Federal University”), V.I. Konkov (Saint-Petersburg State University, Saint-Petersburg) and other scholars, heirs to the tradition of V.V. Vinogradov, L.V. Shcherba, G.O. Vinokur, M.M. Bakhtin, who were first to set and elaborate on the problem field of stylistics.

In its development on Russian ground discoursology has been drawing upon theories by Western communication scholars such as T. van Dijk, R. Wodak, P. Sériot and other foreign communicativists. However, today it is possible to speak about Russian discoursology as such. It has been developed by the scholarly concepts of V.I. Karasik (Volgograd State Socio-Pedagogical University, Volgograd), V.B. Kashkin (Voronezh State University, Voronezh), V.E. Chernyavskaya (Peter the Great Saint-Petersburg Polytechnic University,

Saint-Petersburg), A.P. Chudinov (Ural State Pedagogical University, Yekaterinburg), G.N. Manayenko (Kuban State University, Stavropol) E.A. Kozhemiakina (Belgorod National Research University, Belgorod), E.G. Malysheva (Omsk State University, Omsk), A.A. Negryshev (Vladimir State University, Vladimir), A.V. Polonsky (Belgorod National Research University, Belgorod) and many other Russian discourse scholars.

### Style and discourse: Concepts comparison

The communicative turn in Russian stylistics appeared in the late 20th century, when it became obvious that the system-centric description of language was running dry. That naturally led to the understanding of stylistics as a science dealing with the functioning of language in line with St. Gajda's definition (Гайда, 2015), where stylistics is represented as a communicative discipline. Communicative stylistics evolved out of functional stylistics and text stylistics which view texts as works of speech, created in a particular sphere of social life by means of literary language. Thus, it can be argued that stylistics studies text formations distributed among the functional styles of literary language. A classical university course in stylistics distinguishes five such styles: scientific, publicistic, business and official, literary and art, as well as colloquial. The status of religious, advertisement, and political styles is currently open to discussion.

Discoursology also studies texts as a representation of human discursive activity embodied in language and also tries to classify these texts. However, unlike functional stylistics, it lacks generally accepted taxonomy of types of discourse. This absence of taxonomy represents the core problem of coexistence of stylistics and discoursology in the single field of Russian and, broader, Slavic linguistics. The problem had remained dormant for quite a while until it got revealed due to utter confusion among stylistics researchers and discoursologists over what *style* is and what *discourse* is, what makes them different and how they are related: whether they complement each other, are mutually exclusive, interchangeable, or are identical and undifferentiated.

The absence of a strict discourse classification, built on a uniform basis, leads to the existence of an open-ended, constantly growing host of discourse typologies, created to a particular scholar's taste and at his or her discretion. The only commonly accepted discourse classification might be their subdivision into institutional and non-institutional (interpersonal, personal, everyday, and existential, according to V.I. Karasik).

The parameters that unite texts in a certain type of discourse are as follows: topic (e.g. theatrical discourse), event (Crimean discourse), genre (news discourse), attitude (aggressive discourse), person (Chernomyrdin discourse), etc. Style also becomes a discourse-

forming parameter which groups texts: scientific discourse, publicistic discourse, business and official discourse, etc. Thus, functional styles, renamed to discourses are translated from the domain of stylistics to the domain of discoursology in a rather limited way, since the parametrization of discourses is not strictly regulated and is far from being complete.

However the reverse adoption of discursive taxa by the domain of stylistics leads to the corruption of functional styles and eclecticism in stylistic scholarship of recent years. It is stylistics that suffers from the expansion of the fashionable word *discourse*, while discoursology has only been enriched by the introduction of style-discourses in its area of interest. This situation has arisen in the realm of Slavic philology, which is not the case in Western countries. In the West, stylistics did not occupy a central position among disciplines studying speech, but existed on the fringes of scientific knowledge, despite the fact that the theory of stylistics was developed in the works by the Western scholar Charles Bally (Балли, 2001). For Russia, discoursology was a borrowed discipline, which was developed at foreign language departments of colleges, and its "seizure" of influential positions in scholarship is still seen as an "intrusion" into the field of the interests of stylistics.

The fashion for discourse and discourse studies in Russian stylistics has led to the replacement of the term "discourse" by the term "style", which deprived stylistics of its central category, the category of style. As O.V. Orlova, a professor from Tomsk, has observed that many Russian stylists have abandoned the word "style" for the sake of the word "discourse". It is worthwhile to add that such substitutions had been unconscious and had been passing virtually unnoticed until a "critical mass" was reached. Thus, discourse becomes the central subject of research in stylistics, and stylistics itself, against the background of rapidly developing discoursology, is increasingly viewed as an atavism.

In order to clear up the situation that has arisen, professor S. Gajda of Opole University (Poland) initiated a round-table conference in March 2011, titled "Style and Discourse". At this conference, Slavic stylists (S. Gajda, E. Malinowska, M. Wojtak, D. Brzozowska, N.I. Klushina et alia) and Slavic discoursologists (V.B. Kashkin, I.F. Oukhvanova-Shmygova et alia) tried to agree upon terms and outline their understanding of what was happening in the field. The discussion marked a crucial stage in the development of both Slavic stylistics and Slavic discoursology and initiated the coordination of methods of these two similar and at the same time distinct linguistic disciplines.

The conference helped the leading stylists and discoursologists of Russia, Poland, Austria, Ukraine and Belarus to state the problem and drew the scientists' attention to the problem. Subsequent scientific reflection on the matter was translated into a collective monograph "Discourse and Style", published as a part of "Scientific Discussions" series

(Flinta Publishing House: Science, Moscow), a topical issue of a reputable yearly Polish journal “Stylistyka” (Opole, 2014), a Belarusian series “La Table Ronde” (Minsk, 2013). An important milestone of the process was the creation of a discoursological commission (chaired by I.F. Oukhvanova-Shmygova) and a stylistic commission (chaired by N.I. Klushina) of the International Slavist committee (Minsk, 2013), which actively develops Slavic discoursology and Slavic stylistics by closely collaborating through sharing scientific achievements and continuing a scientific discussion.

A critical enquiry into the problem revealed discrepancies in the views and approaches of leading stylistics scholars who work the field of Slavistics:

- 1) Style and discourse must be delimited. Stylistics must be purged of everything non-stylistic (B. Tosovic, “Stylistics – Anti-stylistics – Counter – stylistics – Neo-stylistics”).
- 2) Style and discourse can and must be merged and new interdisciplinary discursive stylistics must be created (G. G. Khazagerova, V. E. Chernyavskaya, E. A. Bazhenova, T. A. Vorontsova).
- 3) Stylistics can and must become an integrative, transdisciplinary science, open to new theories and able to serve as a basis for their integration (S. Gajda)

Irina Oukhvanova expressed her solidarity with Stanislaw Gajda's position, having noted that currently the science of communication, interaction, oral and written communication (in Russian-language context represented by functional stylistics and discourse linguistics) has the ambition to become a transdisciplinary science (i. e. both interdisciplinary and intralinguistic). And it does not matter which school of thought takes on this mission. What is important is the very fact of the mission being fulfilled, which in its turn presupposes the assumption of responsibility for the future of scholarship, which is seeking to study its object not in a truncated, dissected form but holistically, as a many-sided living organism realizing itself multidimensionally (v. materials by I.F. Oukhvanova, Introduction and conclusion parts to issues 1 and 2 of «La Table Ronde» series (2010, 2013).

As we can see, the controversy surrounding the situation coincides with the stages of the development of any science: first, it sharply distinguishes itself from allied or rival disciplines, in order to preserve its individuality and independence, then it accepts and incorporates new impulses from other areas of knowledge which is necessary for further development. In this way what evolutionists call “the birth of complexity” occurs (A.V. Markov) making the course of development of any fundamental science. This is precisely what both functional stylistics and discourse linguistics are going through.

## Discoursology as a source of methods for stylistics and other philological and social sciences

Let us start with outlining our vision of the problem. Stylistics and discoursology have a plane where they overlap – it is the common subject of research, which is speech or textological practice. However, for discoursology it is one of the three key practices (the other two being social and proper discourse (or genre-and-format) practices, the latter being also frequently referred to as cognitive-communicative practice).

Speech practice can be described via styles or via discourse, but these will be different methods and different approaches. A comparison of the terminological range and scope of each scientific discipline in question convinces us of the fact that stylistics and discoursology are different sciences. However, they can enrich each other while preserving their uniqueness. Stylistic methods are applicable to the analysis of textological practice in such areas of discourse analysis as CDA or critical discourse analysis thus being able to become its integral part along with sociological methods (e. g. in-depth interview, focus group research or content-analysis), pragmalinguistic methods (speech act analysis) philological methods of context analysis, semantic analysis, etc. Discourse analysis is indeed not a single method but an array of methods for studying communicative process and its outcomes (text, macrotext, discursion, discourse type). Discourse theory can even enrich stylistics by adopting the term “discourse” as part of its scholarly apparatus which will imply semantic expansion of “text” concept. Naturally, in this form the term “discourse” differs from the term “style” in scope, which implies difference in quality. Their lack of interchangeability is clearly demonstrated via the oppositions *style of the period / discourse of the period* or *style of thinking*. As we see, style initially belongs to the sphere of the mental and the aesthetic, while discourse finds its foothold in the real and the pragmatic, and it is the intersection of deductive approach (stylistics) and inductive approach (discourse linguistics) where they meet.

## Discourse within the context of Russian philology

We assume that contemporary Russian linguistics, despite the existence of multiple scientific theories and definitions, employs the term “discourse” meaning “body of texts”, i. e. discourse is a body of texts united by a single parameter, explicated by a noun phrase with an attributive adjective (*Crimean* discourse), or by a prepositional noun phrase (the discourse *of Crimea*). The diversity of types of discourse should probably not be fitted into the Procrustean bed of the one and only system, for it reflects the disorderly real life described through various texts, from various perspectives, and various viewpoints. It is worthwhile to stress the fact that a distinctive feature of discoursology is its keen attention to various discursive practices which are studied and described by a multitude of discourses that model, format and explain the existing fragments of reality.

Discourse is randomness, accident, lack of predetermination, irregularity; on the other hand, discourse is authenticity, pragmatics, attention to the smallest detail.

Discourse demolishes the barriers of genre, as it unites texts beyond and above genres while in stylistics texts are zipped up in genres and packed in styles. Hence the consistency, logicality, algebraic beauty and aesthetic regularity of stylistics.

As a very brief overview of other theoretical and methodological projects within the field of discourse linguistics, we should note that it is a universally accepted practice to couple discoursology with the theory of genres, which discourse scholarship builds in its own way, viewing it from a different systemic perspective. So, in a broader Russian-language scholarship context, in the works by Belarusian scholars I.F. Oukhvanova and I.A. Dylevski one can find a *systematization of the genre representation of the mass media discourse macro-category "event"*. In the given case the researchers have established 6 genre groups based on a reconstruction of 22 speech-and-behavior markers. These genre groups represent a modern newspaper as a single macrotext, as a single complex unit to be analyzed, which functionally represents itself in daily or otherwise regular issues. An example of genre representation within English language theory of discourse can be works by the founder of discourse theory of genre, Swales and like-minded English-language scholars.

My hypothesis about the importance of the "discourse" concept, not coinciding with "style", is proved by the fact that many modern stylists have begun to differentiate between "style" and discourse and include them both into their research. Here are some quotes to name a few:

"The place of a stable system of styles with clear-cut inner boundaries has today been taken by a dynamic discursive space" (Гайда, 2015: 18);

"Speech that belongs to the sphere of knowledge is most often viewed through the lens of functional stylistics. Everyday speech is handled with the help of the categorial apparatus of discourse theory" (Коньков, 2015: 38);

"Most Czech and Slovak authors are not likely to abandon the use of them (style-forming factors – N. K.). They will not let them be dissolved in communicative factors, in the milieu of the contemporary tendency to drift from stylistics to what could rather be seen as sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, anthropolinguistics, and cognitive linguistics" (Гоффманнова, 2015: 54);

"In the Czech language, modern communication is characterized by a very dynamic relationship between style and language varieties", i.e. discursive formations (Мареш, 2015: 69).

As we can see, discourse in stylistics has begun to be viewed not as an equivalent or duplicate of style, but as a category that clarifies and sets off the evasive concept of style, as a legitimate subject of research on a par with style. It may be right to say that multiple types of discourse have become the source of data for study for contemporary stylistics, which is understood as communicative stylistics and which profiles these data according to preset standards of style and well-established style canons. That is, texts which were ascribed to a certain type of discourse according to a certain parameter, receive another, stylistic dimension within the scientific domain of stylistics, which makes modern linguistic research multidimensional.

It is easiest to illustrate this using the example of the mass media style, which, by a twist of fate and through modern linguists' effort, has occupied almost a central place in the scientific research of recent years.

In traditional stylistics the mass media style is called "newspaper and publicistic" or "publicistic" style. It has two substyles: information and publicistic style proper plus a ramified system of genres. It has been thoroughly described within functional stylistics as a special variety of Russian literary language which uses particular language elements of all levels, peculiar to this particular style.

A new communicative-intentional approach to describing publicistic style texts was attempted in a monograph by N.K. Klushina, "The Stylistics of Publicistic Text", 2008. In that work the research method was based not on *function* (as it is in functional stylistics), but on *intension* after which the *intensional method*, tested in the monograph and developed in subsequent articles, was named. Discourse theory gave us a stimulus to formulate and develop one more perspective on the mass media style, which expands the intensional conception, – namely, a conception of the *narrative organization of the media style*. From this perspective *style* is viewed as a category that both distinguishes a style from other styles and integrates texts into a single continuum, while *media discourse* is a totality of media texts, which have a particular narrative structure independent of genres and substyles of media discourse. In media discourse, one can distinguish *an author's narrative* (a journalist's interpretation of topics covered and events described) interwoven with *an eyewitness narrative*, the so called "sync" (accounts by ordinary people of things happening around them), *expert narrative* (by experts evaluating a current situation), *"hero" narrative* (accounts by characters involved, featured in a news piece). It is an author's narrative which is biased. The author's modality frames all other narratives to make them correspond to his central idea. For this reason, it is crucial to know the main techniques of language manipulation that the author may utilize to affect public consciousness.

Thus, discourse and style are not mutually exclusive but they saturate each other, and this interpenetration gives rise to a harmony of methods, which linguists can hear and understand, for them not to create a mishmash of a mere arithmetic addition of methods taken from disparate areas of knowledge. Such an approach would be detrimental to the coordinated development of scholarship.

## References

- Балли, Ш.* Французская стилистика. 2-е изд. Москва: Эдиториал УРСС, 2001.
- Гайда, С.* Актуальные задачи стилистики. *In: Актуальные проблемы стилистики: ежег. междунар. научн. журнал*, 1. Москва: Фак-т журналистики МГУ имени М. В. Ломоносова, 2015. 11–21.
- Гоффманнова, Я.* Концепция стилеобразующих факторов и возможности ее модификации в настоящее время. *In: Актуальные проблемы стилистики: ежег. междунар. научн. журнал*, 1. Москва: Фак-т журналистики МГУ имени М. В. Ломоносова, 2015. 51–57.
- Коньков, В. И.* Слово живое и мертвое (о двух коммуникативных типах речи). *In: Актуальные проблемы стилистики: ежег. междунар. научн. журнал*, 1. Москва: Фак-т журналистики МГУ имени М. В. Ломоносова, 2015. 36–43.
- Мареш, П.* Дифференциация языка и стилевое построение чешских текстов. *In: Актуальные проблемы стилистики: ежег. междунар. научн. журнал*, 1. Москва: Фак-т журналистики МГУ имени М. В. Ломоносова, 2015. 65–70.

## Concluding notes to Round Table 3

The aim of this Round Table was to show how functional linguistics in the plurality of its forms finds its way within the spreading linguistics of discourse in Eastern European linguistic research. The researchers from the universities from Latvia, Poland, Russia and Belarus have been represented. We believe that though using different methods and following various schools the linguists from these countries share the same viewpoint: nowadays it is impossible to speak about language functioning not turning to the notion of discourse. Discourse is no longer a term whose necessity should be discussed. Nevertheless, the transition of functional language studies into discursive research is still in process. Round Table 3 was an attempt to present some of the many ways in which this transition is happening in Eastern Europe.

We believe that on reading Round Table 3 a reader can understand that functionalism cannot be opposed to discourse analysis. In fact, functionalism is the ideological basis of linguistic studies, because “language is the universal means of organizing human activity”. Analysing language, a linguist inevitably tries to answer two questions: “what for do we use this very linguistic unit?” and “how should we construct this very unit?” The answer to the first question is defining the function of any unit and finally indicating its meaning. The articles included into this publication demonstrate this striving of the authors to grasp how the meaning is created. Analysing discourse, we actually do the same. We want to know, how discourse is constructed to transfer information and this influences the participants of discourse. We can state that discourse (events of communication in other trends of linguistics) is the largest unit of communication that is of language. It means, and the texts here show it, that functional analysis of other units produce the necessary material basis for discourse analysis. Some papers in this edition explicitly reveal the way to discourse (e.g. the articles of Irina Ivanova-Mitsevich and Irina Chuchkevich). Moreover, in all papers we see that defining different properties of linguistic units the authors take in their minds the possibility of employing the units analysed in the bigger units and finally in discourse. It is especially shown in the article by Boris Norman. We have asked a lot of questions and not all of them can be answered yet. But we suppose that the publications included into Round Table 3 demonstrate that Eastern European functional linguists have actually moved their research in the direction of discourse analysis. Not only have we seen here a diversity of approaches to understanding discourse and discourse analysis and a variety of ways in which the terms used are interpreted, but also had an opportunity to observe what exact steps are undertaken by the linguists representing functional stylistics, grammar, semantics and syntax when transferring to discoursology. What is more, these separate directions of functional linguistics tend to

make up a holistic research field within the frame of discourse studies. It is also worth noting that all the three directions show a different degree of attention to different sides of language. And if, e.g., its historical and functioning aspects can be analyzed on examples, the cognitive one can be studied only by constructed patterns (this was shown in the papers of the representatives of compositional syntax).

Hence, the works presented in this Round Table demonstrate plurality of standpoints and methods applied thereby confirming that the very process of transition from a language-bias study to a discourse-bias one leads us to the next level of linguistic research. And the main focus of our discussion today is to be open to a deeper and more comprehensive analysis of language phenomena functioning in a particular discursive setting.

# Round Table 4

---

**Applied aspects  
of linguistics of discourse:  
Case studies**

## Mediator's introductory words – Alena Savich

Our Round Table is aimed at representing particular case studies. In inviting the researchers to share these cases, the goal was to demonstrate (to the degree, which the format of the Round Table permits) the scope of research material that Eastern discourse analysts work with including their key foci. The latest appeared to be on the category of *agency* within diverse types of discourses, i.e. the discursive mechanism of representation and the creation of discourse actors and their cooperation, in discourses, which are different in terms of functions and functioning. Otherwise, the talk comes to be about the functional category, which forms the essence of discourse linguistics at large. Thus, we hope to see what is general and what is particular, in some cases even unique, in our researchers' goal-setting and realization.

Linguistics of discourse is a scientific field, which employs findings about language system and its use to investigate and explain society. This appears to be not only possible but also imperative due to the fact, that all social practices in today's highly information society are communicative, i.e. discursive, by nature. Synchronic analyses of these discourses reveals the current state of communities' status and mood, tests and diagnoses actual conditions and relations. Diachronic, dynamic, study of social communicative practices, in its turn, continuously assesses trends in people's behaviors and choices and, thus, create the basis for social prognostication.

Regardless of the type of study, the method of the case study both discloses society's tendencies and presents its condition. It is all the more suitable for discourse studies as, together with the audiences' becoming more and more bored with traditional communication means and techniques, contemporary communicative practices are being constantly modified and gain economic value through proving their uniqueness. For discourse researchers, it is time to admit that the mushrooming of new technologically mediated ways of human interaction have inevitably led to the multiplication of *hybrid* discourses. These are discourses which adopt contextual and formal features of the constituent discourses but, because of unique macrostructure, perform specific functions. One example of this is the media discourse of lobbying, which I have thoroughly studied on the example of Russian, Belarusian and English language cases. While promoting certain social, political, or economic interest via Mass Media, its texts comply with the rules of mundane and institutional discourses.

Therefore, in order to study social processes by means of discourse analysis, it is not enough (and I think many will agree with this) to collect cases and scrutinize just some of content or language related characteristics. There should be systemic investigation into

the core of every single case of discourse practice, that is, into its particular mechanism of building relations between social actors who use this discourse.

Discovering the method of discursive construction of social relationships requires that a researcher is scrupulous about and sensitive to elements of communication process such as its subjects/actors. Any discourse and its specific instances inscribe, directly or indirectly, their addresser and addressee, consider their initial cognitive and speech portraits and aim at developing this primary image, creating in the course of text generation their ideal reader/listener/viewer and writer/speaker. In essence, a discursive practice is nothing more than Public Relations in the flesh of texts, an activity directed at connecting social actors – individuals, social groups, organizations, governments, and peoples – at different levels, interpersonal through global, and developing the existing connections in the desired way. Correspondingly, discourse analysis is nothing less than uncovering the mechanism of *agency*, addresser-addressee relations-making, by studying the complexity of semiotic strategies and techniques used in a metatext to develop the images of addresser, addressee and their interaction. It is the focus on agency that determines the social value of discourse linguistics and provides the answers to the questions such as *how do societies function? Why do they function in such ways?*

Round Table 4 suggests eight case studies that attempt to highlight how discourses are organized in the modern world and how, in turn, they organize and affect people and their interactions. We expect some of the reports to demonstrate the specifics of the Eastern European scientific writing with its trend of elliptical narrative that only implies analysis and explicates researcher's conclusions, based on scarcely revealed discussion.

**Issue 1** contains two articles by Belarusian scholars and is meant to show how *hybrid discourses* make links between actors affiliated with different social groups. In the first article by Alena Savich and Irina Oukhvanova the authors study the documentary discourse of the Highest Attestation Commission of the Republic of Belarus and focus on the Belarusian case of interaction between a state institution and the citizens. The second paper by Hanna Shmagun invites readers to explore the agency in the discursive reality of state intergroup communication on the example of the Estonian electronic government system.

**Issue 2** provides *global and national foci* on the power of discourse to build societies and predetermine people's relationships. The issue opens with the article by Ukrainian researchers Olga Zernetskaya and Pavel Zernetski, who argue for the globally overwhelming and, thus, all-forming role of Internet discourse in the contemporary world. The national level is studied in three other works that complement each other by approaching the topic of Slavic discourse from different perspectives. Tatjana Skrebsova (Russia) and

Ladislav Janovec (Czech Republic) examine modern publicistic discourse of Slavs and contemporary electoral anti-campaigns correspondingly, while Alla Kozhinova (Belarus) reconstructs the Slavic worldview from ancient discourses.

In **Issue 3** two Polish researchers analyze the construction of a social subject by *personal and community-bias discourses*. Lidia Mazur-Mezwa shows the transformation of images created in the texts of a well-known poet, writer, musician, and singer-songwriter Bulat Okudzhava when translated into Polish. The constructing capacity of the hip-hop community's discourse is tested in the article by Hanna Matusczik.

## Issue 1. Hybrid discourse

Alena Savich, Irina Oukhvanova

### Documentary discourse of the Highest Attestation Commission: Belarusian case study

#### Introduction

Different European countries have different traditions of PhD defense procedure. The case of Belarus is characterized by a set of several steps within this procedure, namely:

- (1) official presentation of the PhD paper at the Scientific Seminar of the Department where the applicant for the degree did research (the Department may invite specialists in the field from other Departments of the University or from other universities of the country);
- (2) official presentation of the PhD paper at the Scientific Board of the Faculty (Institute). The Board members are researchers with relevant scientific degrees (PhD or Dr Hab.) and are nominated by the Faculty (Institute);
- (3) official presentation of the PhD paper at a Department in the specific field under consideration at which the applicant for the degree did not do research;
- (4) official presentation of the PhD paper at the Scientific Commission of the University (relevant to the research field of the applicant); the Commission is nominated by the Highest Attestation Commission of the Academy of Sciences of the country and is reelected every 5 years. It may include members of other universities of the country or other countries if there is a lack of specialists in the field in the country (Belarus);
- (5) approval by the Highest Attestation Commission (HAC) of the Academy of Sciences of the country; the approval of the quality of the dissertation is considered by the Relevant Department (RD) or the respective research group of the Academy of Sciences. The group is composed of specialists (experts nominated by the HAC) in a number of different research disciplines related to the research direction. The experts decide whether the paper of the PhD degree applicant requires an additional (anonymous) reviewer (field expert) or not. Theses for the Dr Hab. degree are all sent to an anonymous expert for intermediate approval.

At each (but the last) step, the applicant is to present the thesis, accept or reject the reviewers comments, answer their questions and the questions of all who are present at the defense procedure. The members of the research groups entitled to participate in the defense procedure discuss and decide whether the applicant has passed the respective step of defense successfully or not, or certain conditions are set (the applicant might be suggested to make changes or to strengthen argumentation of the statements).

At the last step, if the RD decision on a particular case is negative, the applicant may be invited to answer questions on the research. Thus, the very invitation by the RD to come is a signal of a failure of the applicant.

The defense of the paper in another country is not recognized by the HAC of Belarus. Joining of Belarus to the Bologna process may change the situation, though as we see it now, still there is a long way to go.

Similar or almost similar procedures, which existed till recently in all the countries of Eastern Europe, were changed during the period of social and political transformations. We used to discuss the procedure at a number of *Round tables* within the framework of our D-ART project. The focus in these discussions was on the difficulties *linguists* experience while defending their PhD thesis in Discourse Studies. Why so? Researchers who deal with textual practices of communication and interaction are willingly recognized as working in the field of linguistics while the research of those who study social and discursive practices is proclaimed to be anti or out-of the field of linguistics. Thus, discourse loses its holistic nature as a research object and starts to be considered unnecessary as such.

The logic is simple: if you are defending your paper in linguistics, then do it by mere textual analysis (i.e. when studying discourse, choose a «piece» of it and study it in the manner of a pathological anatomist). In the situation, when the very field of Discourse Studies is not included into the research field classification of the Ministry of Education and the Academy of Sciences, those who suffer first are not linguists with scientific degrees developing the field as such, but those who are ready to join in with revolutionary ideas, e.g. young researchers doing discourse research projects. Under the existing conditions the latter have no chance to be recognized officially. It is clear that the situation is temporary. But if the official bodies care about the participation of young generation in research, they need at least to offer them the same level of opportunities.

Thus, our aim is to reconstruct the proper place for researchers, ready to defend their PhD and Dr Hab. research projects in Discourse Studies, within the “recognized” academic disciplines. In other words, we are to find the scientific commissions of those linguistic

disciplines which are ready to accept such a kind of research papers. For example, in some countries the defense of theses on discourse studies is included as part of the specialization “Language Theory”, while in other countries it is considered to be part of “Applied Linguistics”. Our discussions on the future of discourse studies in Belarus served as the *motive* for the pilot study presented herein. We examined the official documents of the Highest Attestation Commission of the Republic of Belarus, called “passports of specialties”, describing the scope of academic specialties related to discourse linguistics (our *material of study*) and focused our attention (our *object*) on the representation of new linguistics (discourse linguistics) in these documents and on the operational components of discourse linguistics in particular (*subject*). Our *objectives* were to collect and create a database, to describe and interpret it as well as to reveal (to model) the potential of discourse linguistics as it is inscribed in the written institutional discourse. We call the key *method* of this study reconstruction of the specifics of representation of a new scientific event and employ such analytical practices as syntagmatic and paradigmatic, pragmatic and cognitive analyses of texts, including the analysis of key words, cognitive mapping of meanings as well as search of the variants of inclusion of the events in the document.

Let us review how such an institutional discourse as academic specialty passport is functioning (approaching this type of discourse from the standpoint of the unity of content-related and context-related components).

The development of any scientific direction greatly depends on the official position of the scientific institutions: the university chair, faculty councils on research and methodology, academic council of the university, the Highest Attestation Commission (the latter may be absent in a particular scientific community). Each subsequent stage in the procedure of the research papers defense depends on the preceding one, and all of them together serve as a reference point and a prerequisite for the last one in the list. The most crucial thing about the whole defense is its consistency with the content and instructions registered in the respective documents (which are usually in the public domain) – *specialties passports*. It is understood that the documents are made by particular people who are guided, among other things, by their *experience* of “being” in this particular discipline and in science in general. It is also understood that this experience is inevitably limited by the key directions in the professional area.

All of this signifies that – and this is our *first focus of attention* – specialty passport is a necessary but *limited in time* discursion. In other words, its content (the events, affecting it) changes with time. At the same time the discursion *is related to real space* (geographical, national, cultural), since the content directly depends on the context of functioning of the documents.

*Benefits* of the discussed institutional discourse become obvious when the social context is actualized in it, which views science not as an independent activity but as a *public resource*. It is presumed that the areas of knowledge that have already got the leading positions in the world science will even further strengthen their strong position in the international context, and the new directions, reflected in the documentation, will get extended representation at the national level.

Our *second focus of attention* is on linguistics perceived as a wide and interdisciplinary (in itself) research field, and on discourse linguistics as the field that brings linguistics into the space of macro-signs. All the fields of science worldwide operate nowadays with macro-signs.

Thus, we analyzed a number of specialties passports related to linguistics approved by (and are currently in force) the Higher Attestation Commission of the Republic of Belarus. Among them there were the following research specialties: 10.01.08 – Theory of Literature, Textology, 10.01.10 – Journalism; 10.02.03 – Slavic Languages; 10.02.19 – Language Theory; 10.02.20 – Comparative-historical, Typological and Comparative Language Studies; 10.02.21 – Applied and Mathematical Linguistics. Analysis of these texts, aimed at reconstruction of such a new scientific concept as discourse linguistics, allows us to make the following conclusions.

Despite the fact that legitimization of the term “discourse linguistics” in the world linguistic science took place with the publishing of “Dictionnaire d’analyse du discours” (Charaudeau, D. Maingueneau, 2002: 665), we failed to find a *direct nomination* (i.e. the presentation in explicit form) of this branch of knowledge in the specialties passports. However, it is present implicitly through other nominations. For example, the abovementioned documents contain such terminological units as “linguistics of language”, “linguistics of speech” and “communicative linguistics”. The latter may be interpreted as “linguistics of communication” or “linguistics of communicative processes” which, in essence, includes the ideas of speech macro-spaces and interaction.

The absence of direct nomination makes the passport dependent on the users who initially find themselves in a highly hierarchical interactive context. However, the passport is significant for both the applicant to the specialty field and for the one who is already in the field. If the decision is made by the participant in the field, it is he who determines the rules of the passport reading. In other words, in a particular communicative situation the specialty passport may lose its function to report, inform, i.e. function independently, as a phenomenon of this area of knowledge. In fact, it becomes an attribute of the addresser, while its *content* becomes directly dependent on the context. Interesting is the fact that it happens to the discipline which studies this very subject, namely, communication in its content-context manifestation.

After this preamble regarding the role of social context we shall examine closer our research material: passports of six academic specialties. Attentive reading, focused on the task to reconstruct discourse linguistics in other nominative variants, shows that *nothing contradicts the acceptance of discourse direction into the scope of philological sciences*. (That is why this direction, being not nominated as such, not only exists but also successfully develops, competing with other worldwide trends of this scientific discipline). This circumstance refers us to another context component – objective context. And here, in particular in some Russian-language publications in Belarus – in the series of scientific papers “Методология исследований политического дискурса» (*Perspectives of political discourse research*) and the series of materials of international round tables *La Table Ronde*, and in research papers from Russia (Чернявская, 2012) – the term “discourse linguistics” becomes popular and much used. It is notable that the term “discourse” is of major relevance to linguistic studies both in the field of qualitative and quantitative research and for theoretical and applied language studies. In these publications the phenomenon of discourse is approached as a multidimensional, variable and at the same time holistic fact of linguistics and, hence, of social reality.

### Discourse referents: commonplace of modern language theory in international and Slavic contexts

Although international and Slavic approaches to discourse studies remain unique and somewhat specific in details, today they have no crucial contradictions in their interpretation and application of discourse knowledge. Thus, in the Slavic scientific community discourse is treated as a *complex cross-disciplinary phenomenon*, the study of which presumes *systemic research of verbal structures* with the account of *cognitive* and *interactive* components, as well as of *their interrelations* and *dependence on the external context* (Дискурс, 2010). As early as 1997 Teun van Dijk defined this complex approach to the study of discourse and its *objective*-formulation of theories which could explain the relations between the use of language, beliefs (cognitive formations) and interaction (Discourse, 1997: 2). In all the approaches *components of discourse* are recognized as the *subject of study*, and *structures*, formed by them, come to be regarded as its *object*. Being a *verbal structure*, discourse has its own categories (Discourse, 1997: 6-18, Чернявская, 2012):

- Sounds and abstract sound structures of oral discourses;
- Order and form (here we speak mostly about the units of discourse grammar (syntax)– sentences, i.e. about the influence of the sentences on the distribution of information in discourse);
- Semantic representations (abstract meanings of words, sentences, sequences of sentences and entire discourses); propositions and their structural interrelations within discourses and discourses; referents of discourse – its themes and topics;

- Style and variability reflected in the selection of certain lexical and grammatical units depending on the interaction context of discourse (genre, subjective communicative situation, degree of formality of interaction situation, culture etc.);
- Rhetorical structures;
- Schemata/matrix (totality of typical formal categories, their specific order and functions).

As an *interaction structure* discourse can be studied through the category of “speech (macro) act”. Typology of speech act, in its turn, is determined in accordance with the context of discourse, i.e. within empirical, not normative, approach. Discourse researchers interpret actual speech acts with consideration given to both previous and subsequent speech acts, as well as to extralinguistic interactive/social context of discourse. As a *mental structure* discourse is studied in the terms of knowledge and attitude – concepts, opinions, ideologies, etc. The mental models (which make the basis for discourse production and reception) and interaction models are context-dependent.

It is exactly the integrative approach to discourse as a complex of verbal, mental and interactional structures (probably with uneven detalization of each of them within one study) that distinguishes discourse-analysis (idea- and activity-focused) from discursive analysis (aspect-focused) and gives grounds for this study to claim its results being a *theory of a certain discourse type*. Thus, the **objective** of discourse studies is not so much the very analysis of discourses but *synthesis of knowledge about its functioning* (see Чернявская, 2012; Dijk, 2008; Ревзина, 2004, 1999; Борботько, 2011; Ухванова-Шмыгова, 2014; Савич, 2012).

An important part in theory generation is given to the selection of **method** of discourse study which directly reflects the specifics of the *subject* and *objective* of the study. S. Titscher, M. Meyer, R. Wodak and E. Vetter select 12 methods of analysis (Тичер, Мейер, Водак, Веттер, 2009):

- content-analysis;
- grounded theory;
- ethnographic methods;
- ethno-methodological membership categorization device analysis;
- ethno-methodological conversation analysis;
- narrative semiotics;
- SYMLOG;
- critical discourse analysis (CDA);
- historical discourse method by Ruth Wodak;
- functional pragmatics;
- distinction theory text analysis;
- objective hermeneutics.

Each of the listed methods is a *reconstructing method* as it allows *detecting* in varying degrees different structures of discourse. It is clear that the complex object of discourse studies requires a complex method, and, hence, integrates the methods of different philological (and not only) specialties.

Thus, we can see that the *referents of discourse in Discourse Studies* are the following: its specific complex *subject* (discourse structures and their components) as well as its *objective* (synthesis of discourse theories – detection of discourse functioning mechanisms), and *method* (reconstruction of discourse-structures, discourse modeling).

### Discourse of passports of philological specialties

We analyzed the discourse of passports of philological specialties as a *verbal structure* focusing on the above mentioned key categories and considered all the discourse referents used in modern language theories in international and Slavic contexts. The analysis gives grounds to derive the following **conclusions**:

- The passports reveal some variability of linguistic means selection (for example, the body of the passports for specializations “10.01.08 – Theory of Literature, Text Studies” and “10.02.03 – Slavic Languages” are written in Belarusian, while the name of specialty is always given in Russian);
- Rhetorical structures are absent in the analyzed material;
- Propositions of passports of philological specialties can be viewed as characteristics – the specialty is characterized via its object and subject of study, sometimes via the objective and methods;
- Typical propositional model of passport is as follows: {[A philological specialty has a specific subject and object of study] and [The philological discipline is different from other related disciplines] and [The philological specialty differs from a particular related specialty in its object/subject/objectives/methods]};
- The course of all the discursions of passports is the same: first, the discursion gives the definition of specialty and specifies its object and subject of study; then the specialty is defined through negation, i.e. through comparison with related disciplines; the difference between disciplines is specified via their subject, object, objectives or methods.

The *verbal structure* of the passports under discussion actualizes mostly such referents of studies as “object/subject-matter”. The study of the passports under discussion finds a set of general linguistic categories which match discourse realities, e.g. linguistic universals can well relate to the discourse structures and probability models of language and speech just as perception-process modeling, etc. can become the basis for modeling discourse reality. In other words, the passports under discussion are open to

discourse-linguistic projects for defense though in a somewhat implicit way. At the same time the most “*discourse-rich*” was the passport of specialty “10.02.19 – Language Theory”. First, the discursion itself actualizes each of the searched referents (“object”, “subject”, “objective” and “method”). Second, matching of content of “Language Theory” specialty and discourse studies takes place within each referent.

Taking into account the above mentioned facts let us perform the case study of passport “10.02.19 – Language Theory” but this time with a different focus, e.g. the **topic** represented in the research field at the levels of facts (factual), themes (thematical) and metalanguage (methodology-bias).

Just like for the rest of the passports, the structure of the specialty passport is organized in such a way as to first define the *direction* of science, provide its *formula*, describe the *area*, name the *adjoining* specialties and define the context of their *distinction*. However the **themes** of the discursion in their development are organized both inside every structural element and cross-structurally. We thought it significant to separate here and to build the cognitive map of the cross-structural thematic issues of the specialty passport “10.02.19 – Language Theory”, since, as we think, cross-structural meanings allow us to see the essence of the issue more clearly.

There were several **cross-structural themes**, three of them being unique and significant in themselves. Moreover, it is in them we see the possibility for inclusion of discourse theory (discourse linguistics) in the context of language theory. Those are the ones we are going to discuss in greater detail.

- ✓ *First*, it is the **theme of general linguistic source**. The theme is developed among others in the *specialty formula* (“general linguistic patterns of structural semantic structure of the language and general linguistic methodologies”), as well in the *research area* (“general linguistic patterns of level structure”), and moreover in *distinction between adjoining specialties*, where the seme “*general*” remains the essence of “Language Theory” specialty (previously titled General Linguistics).
- ✓ *Second*, it is the **theme of global interconnection**, represented by at least five positions:

(1) **interconnection itself (as a connection) and interconnection in development.**

The examples of rhemes here include: connection of language to consciousness and social practices, connection (in interaction) with the processes of social and cultural human history, connection between languages, connection between language theory and language teaching practice, dialectic connection of languages with their common features, connection between such orders as systemic, structural, synchronic, diachronic, connections of patterns of realization

and forms of language existence, i.e. connection between language and speech, connection of times (history, ontogenesis), connection between creation and interpretation, connection between languages and ethnicities;

- (2) **“interconnection as an influence”** is realized in the context of interconnection influence on forms, content, structural changes (including the ones in contacting languages), scope, function, processes, standardization, usualization, status, and, finally, on linguistic-geographical landscape of the regions, language situations (fusion of languages, merger of languages, multilingualism);
- (3) **interconnection as an interaction** between speaker and listener, writer and reader; interaction between histories of different linguistics – theoretical, structural, social; as well as between theory of language behavior and psycholinguistics, communicative linguistics and linguistic methodology, areal interaction of languages;
- (4) **interconnection as a measure** or, to be more precise, **characteristics**. For example, the theme is the idea of *specifics of interconnection realization* in system (a language layer characteristics), structure (a cognitive layer characteristics), hierarchy (a social layer characteristics), and sequences (a textual layer characteristics);
- (5) **patterns of interconnections** (*interconnections leading to the expected result*). Passport not only establishes the connection but focuses the attention on regularity of transition from one linking element to another and then to third. For example, there is the development of idea of level-based structure of language from the proper language level (means) to functional (realization) and communicative (activity).

Third, it is the **theme opening the language theory into communicative space, into communication theory**. For example, the phrases “communication theory”, “communication process”, “intercultural communication”, “communicative functions”, “scope of communication”, “acts of oral communication”, “communicative activity”, “reasons of communication failures” and finally “communicative linguistics” were rather harmonically included in the passport.

## Conclusion

The themes reconstructed by us in the context of their development and, thus, their significance allow making a number of statements, and we would like to give three of them in the form of conclusions:

1. Language theory is a general linguistic discipline, organizing the space of linguistics in the context of global interconnection and movement from the language beginnings to the communicative optimum. *Discourse theory* in this context is viewed as natural, regular, non-contradictory continuation of the *language theory*, however, just like the *speech theory* it is a rather independent element used for researching linguist efforts.

2. Discourse linguistics is implicitly written into the specialties passports, however, there are not only the words “discourse linguistics” or “discourse analysis” lacking, but the word “discourse” itself (the exception is the passport of specialty “10.01.10 – Journalism” where the term “discourse” is explicit and relevant).
3. The need for including discourse perspective in the linguistics theory is absolutely clear and it is just a matter of time.

## References

- Dijk, T. van (ed.). Discourse as structure and process. SAGE Publications, 1997.
- Dijk, T. van. Discourse and context: a sociocognitive approach. Cambridge University Press, 2008.
- Савич, Е. В. Медийный дискурс лоббирования: опыт анализа. Минск: БГУ, 2012.
- Борботько, В. Г. Принципы формирования дискурса: от психолингвистики к лингвосинергетике. Москва: Либроком, 2011.
- Ревзина, О. Г. Лингвистика XXI века: на путях к целостности теории языка. In: Критика и семиотика, 7. Новосибирск, 2004. 11–20.
- Ревзина, О. Г. Язык и дискурс. In: Вестник МГУ. Серия 9. Филология, 1. 1999. 25–33.
- Тичер, С., Мейер, М., Водак, Р., Веттер, Е. Методы анализа текста и дискурса. Харьков: Гуманитарный центр, 2009.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И., Сарновски, М. (ред.). La Table Ronde, 1. Дискурс в академическом пространстве. Минск, 2010.
- Чернявская, В. Е. Лингвистика текста. Лингвистика дискурса. М.: Флинта, 2012.

Hanna Shmagun

## Multi-stakeholder communication in the Estonian e-Government system

### Introduction

Building e-Government (e-Gov)<sup>16</sup> system can be considered, within the overall 21<sup>st</sup> century modernization and globalization processes, as an inseparable attribute of the public sector reform agenda in a modern, efficient, and democratic state. A novel global e-Gov phenomenon paved the way for various theoretical and practical frameworks and methodological approaches to analyze it, making e-Gov an interdisciplinary and evolving research area.

**Worked out frameworks and methodological approaches.** Across the broad continuum of e-Gov research, there are studies both from *Computer Science/Information Systems*

<sup>16</sup> See the definitions of key terms presented in Glossary at the end of the article.

(Ahto, 2007; Charalabidis, 2010; Dias & Rafael, 2007; Dignum, 2012; Norta, 2014) and *Social Science* perspectives. The latter mainly includes research in: (1) Political Science and Public/Business Administration/Management (Anttiroiko, 2008; Fountain, 2001; Gil-Garcia, 2012; Kamarck, Nye, 2002; Orlikowski, Iacono, 2001; Rotchanakitumnuai, 2008; Stanforth, 2006); (2) Sociology (Simões, 2012; Sinclair, 2011); (3) Marketing and Communication (Baradei & Shamma & Saada, 2012; Sweeney, 2007; Teerling & Pieterse, 2011); (4) Information and Communications Technologies (ICT) law (Kerikmäe, 2016; Mason, 2012; Nyman-Metcalf, 2014; Solove, 2001).

Most e-Gov studies are interdisciplinary, i.e. several academic disciplines interact with each other within a particular study. Despite the variety of research, e-Gov concept has still had its limitations and vagueness. The e-Gov is one of those concepts that mean a lot of different things to a lot of different groups (Grant & Chau, 2005: 2). According to Simões (2012), e-Gov is an under-explored area of research from the Social Science.

**Communication and Discourse Studies framework.** This article fills the gap in the Social Science research by examining e-Gov from the position of Communication and Discourse Studies. It is important to contribute to understanding of the e-Gov phenomenon from the Communication and Discourse perspective, since e-Gov maximizes a state's external and internal communication potential, making the life of humans (including social minorities) easier and more convenient through transforming public administration into a more transparent and efficient institution. The research is guided by (1) the stakeholder theory (Freeman, 1984); (2) the actor-network theory (ANT) (Callon, 1986; Latour, 2005); (3) the ensemble view of information technology and organizations (Orlikowski and Iacono, 2001); (4) the framework of causal genetic modeling of discourse content (Oukhvanova-Shmygova, 2015).

To date, there has not been sufficient research that reconstructs the e-Gov discourse by identifying communication flows between the key players (social and nonsocial entities) of a complex socio-technical system of e-Gov. Besides, only a few studies thus far have applied the stakeholder theory (or ANT) to e-Gov (Scholl, 2002; Bouaziz, 2011; Stanforth, 2006), and there are no studies that use stakeholder theory together with ANT for a deeper understanding of the way social entities interact with nonsocial entities in the context of e-Gov system.

**The framework of research.** The *object* of this research is direct and mediated (by nonsocial entities) communication between multiple e-Gov stakeholders. The *subject-matter* is a verbal representation of the reconstructed mechanisms, which allow e-Gov stakeholders to get information and interact effectively.

The *aim* of the research is to reconstruct, visualize, and describe mechanisms enabling effective communication between the Estonian e-Gov stakeholders.

The above aim will be accomplished by fulfilling the following research *objectives*:

- (1) to define the essence of the e-Gov phenomenon;
- (2) to identify national and international e-Gov stakeholders;
- (3) to reconstruct, visualize, and describe a communication model from the perspective of interaction between national and international e-Gov stakeholders;
- (4) to reconstruct, visualize, and describe a communication model from the perspective of interaction between a user and national and international stakeholders;
- (5) to reconstruct, visualize, and describe a communication model from the perspective of interaction between a user and national e-Gov stakeholders in the context of public e-service delivery process.

To obtain in-depth, factual information about the object of this research, a case study as a research strategy has been used (Yin, 2003). The Estonian e-Gov system is selected as a case study for several reasons:

*Firstly*, it represents a more mature e-Gov system in comparison with the Belarusian system. According to the United Nations survey, Estonia is one of the world top 15 countries in E-Government Readiness Index, while Belarus takes the 55th place in this survey (The United Nations E-Government Survey, 2014).

*Secondly*, the Estonian e-Gov is of interest to study because of a particular similarity between Estonia and Belarus: the long and difficult state-building process, similar political and economic conditions when getting independence from the Soviet Union, relative poverty in natural resources, the same form of government and the type of legal system. It enables to extrapolate the Estonian individual mechanisms to the emerging e-Gov system in Belarus.

*Finally*, the Estonian e-Gov system has been selected because the author has had experience of observing how this system works in practice.

**Qualitative methods engaged.** For the data collection of this qualitative research, multiple ethnographic methods have been used, such as long-term on-the-spot participant observation, short-term on-the-spot direct observation, structured and semi-structured interviews. In particular, the findings of subsection 3.2 have been primarily generated by using structured interviews and direct observation of user's set of actions in demanding different e-services from the state e-Gov web portal.

Besides, the convenience sampling method has been applied to select the respondents (e-Gov users) from different social groups:

- citizens and residents of the Republic of Estonia;
- people from different backgrounds;
- people with deep knowledge about e-Gov (in particular, Master's degree students in e-Gov Technologies and Services at Tallinn University of Technology and practitioners involved in the Estonian ICT sector and e-Gov initiatives) and ordinary users.

The qualitative data analysis was conducted using methods of document and discourse analysis (including Web discourse analysis – analysis of web sites, web portals, and information systems as e-Gov digital components); modeling; stakeholder and actor-network analysis.

The given study has implications to both theory and practice. On a theoretical level, the intended outcome of the study is modeling a contemporary phenomenon from a different (Communication and Discourse) angle. On a practical level, the study strives to teach readers mechanisms of effective communication between different e-Gov stakeholders, providing readers with an insight into how this type of discourse is conducted.

**Research structure.** Aiming to demarcate the user's level of communication (pivotal level) from the levels of communication of national and international stakeholders, the article has been divided into two parts.

*The first part* outlines the e-Gov phenomenon from the Communication and Discourse perspective and characterizes the e-Gov *discourse as an idea*, as well as it introduces a system of key functional categories that operationalizes the object and the subject-matter of our study. The description of the e-Gov discourse is given both at the level of individual categories (national and international stakeholders) and at the level of mutual interactions between the two mentioned individual categories.

*The second part* presents a practical analysis of the e-Gov discourse from a user's perspective. This part consists of two subsections. The first subsection (3.1) deals with an elaboration and description of a model revealing direct and mediated communication flows that can possibly emanate from interactions between users and particular institutional stakeholders. The second subsection (3.2) elaborates and describes a model revealing a communication process with necessary steps for e-service delivery through the state e-Gov webportal.

The idea of structuring this article is underpinned by one of the basic postulates of *the framework of causal genetic modeling of discourse content* (УХВАНОВА-ШМЫГОВА, 1993; Oukhvanova-Shmygova, 2015): a discourse is the unity of phenomenon (phenomenon-biased content), idea (idea-biased content), and activity (activity which produces certain

events and realizes flows of communication). This approach is the most appropriate for this study, since it helps to explore its functional and dynamically changing (transformable in real communication) object in static representation as well as in contextual and activity representations. Therefore, the given study is holistic in its nature, meaning that theory here lays the groundwork for understanding practice, and practice lays the groundwork for testing theoretical framework.

**Acknowledgement.** In this context, I am very grateful to Professor Irina Oukhvanova, the author of the framework of causal genetic modeling of discourse content, who kindly provided guidance and support in every step of this research. I would also like to extend appreciation to an ICT specialist & lecturer and my Master's thesis supervisor Elena Popova (Попова, 2013) for her constructive suggestions regarding the second part of the research.

#### **National and international levels of communication in the Estonian e-Gov system**

To draw a reader into the discussion, the article starts with the first communication model of e-Gov, which was reconstructed out of the case study (the Estonian functional e-Gov system) for the sake of visualizing the object of this research (see Fig. 1 below).

However, in order to truly comprehend this model, it is necessary first to understand what the e-Gov is as a phenomenon.

Since e-Gov is an interdisciplinary area of research, it is not unexpected that there is no consensus among different scholars about what the e-Gov means. The most comprehensive general definition of the e-Gov phenomenon is proposed by Gil-Garcia (2012). This definition incorporates four conceptual categories such as *e-services*, *e-management*, *e-democracy*, and *e-policy*. Accordingly, e-Gov is:

“the selection, design, implementation, and use of information and communication technologies in government to provide public services, improve managerial effectiveness, and promote democratic values and participation mechanisms, as well as the development of a legal and regulatory framework that facilitates information intensive initiatives and fosters the knowledge society”.

In general, the e-Gov phenomenon could be understood as a subset of a complex socio-technical phenomenon (the use of ICT in government settings). The e-Gov phenomenon itself has appeared since the late 1980s and early 1990s triggered by the introduction of the Internet and related communication technologies, as well as by the emergence of the “*Reinventing Government*” reform movement, started in the USA and inspired by the concept of D. Osborne and T. Gaebler (Ho, 2002). This movement has shifted the focus of government ICT use from internal managerial needs to coordinated network building, external cost-effective communication, and creating one-stop user-friendly public services for citizens (“customers”).

As a socio-technical phenomenon, e-Gov reveals a complex, dynamic interaction between social entities and ICT. Following *the ensemble view of information technology and organizations* approach encompassing different theories (Orlikowski and Iacono, 2001), e-Gov is more than the technological artifacts, but also the complex social relations around those artifacts. There is a mutual dependence between e-Gov and a social system. Different types of social entities through their multi-interaction construct and implement ICT solutions and e-Gov in general. At the same time, e-Gov (as a constant interaction of ICT and social entities) affects a social system by structuring the social world, building collective behaviour patterns, making society well-organized, and creating democratic basis for society (through the development of new communication channels to empower citizens and engage them in the political process).

The focus in the following discussion is the reconstructed model depicted in Fig. 1. In order to describe this model, a system of key functional categories will be used to apply to the whole article.

The Estonian functional e-Gov system involves multiple institutional stakeholders centered on a user, his/her real needs and his/her social practices.

- *E-Gov stakeholders (social entities):*
  - users/"customers" (ordinary, ICT-advanced, and ICT-unskilled);
  - compound institutional stakeholders (international and national);
- *Multi-levels of stakeholder communication:*
  - user's level (communication between a user, inseparable party, and national and international institutional stakeholders);
  - national level (communication between national institutional stakeholders);
  - international level (communication between international and national institutional stakeholders);
- *Communication mediators (nonsocial entities):* ICT, formal documents;
- *Communication flows:*
  - two-way and multi-way flows;
  - permanent (long-term) and temporary flows;
  - direct (cross-stakeholder, face to face) and mediated flows: technology-mediated (stakeholder - technology - stakeholder) and document-mediated (stakeholder - formal document - stakeholder);
  - visible and invisible (to a user) flows;
  - basic and optional flows;
- *Communication process (compound communication flow):*
  - communication steps (constituent communication flows).

Figure 1 on page 296 identifies compound institutional stakeholders in the context of the Estonian e-Gov. These are both national and international stakeholders.

There are seven key stakeholders within the national level of communication: political leaders; epistemic ICT-Community; state authorities; private business; non-governmental organizations (NGOs); educational institutions; and R&D institutions. All these stakeholders are reflected in the multi-communication circle of national significance, which presents political (stakeholders number 1 and 3), economic (stakeholders number 3 and 4), technological (stakeholders number 2, 4, and 7), educational (the stakeholder number 5), and social (the stakeholder number 6) basis of e-Gov.

The flows of communication between national stakeholders are relatively permanent. If we break this communication circle by removing any stakeholder that may seem insignificant, then e-Gov as the integral system of interacting stakeholders will be destroyed. This is because each stakeholder has its own distinctive features not pertaining to the other stakeholders (see subsequent Table 1.1).

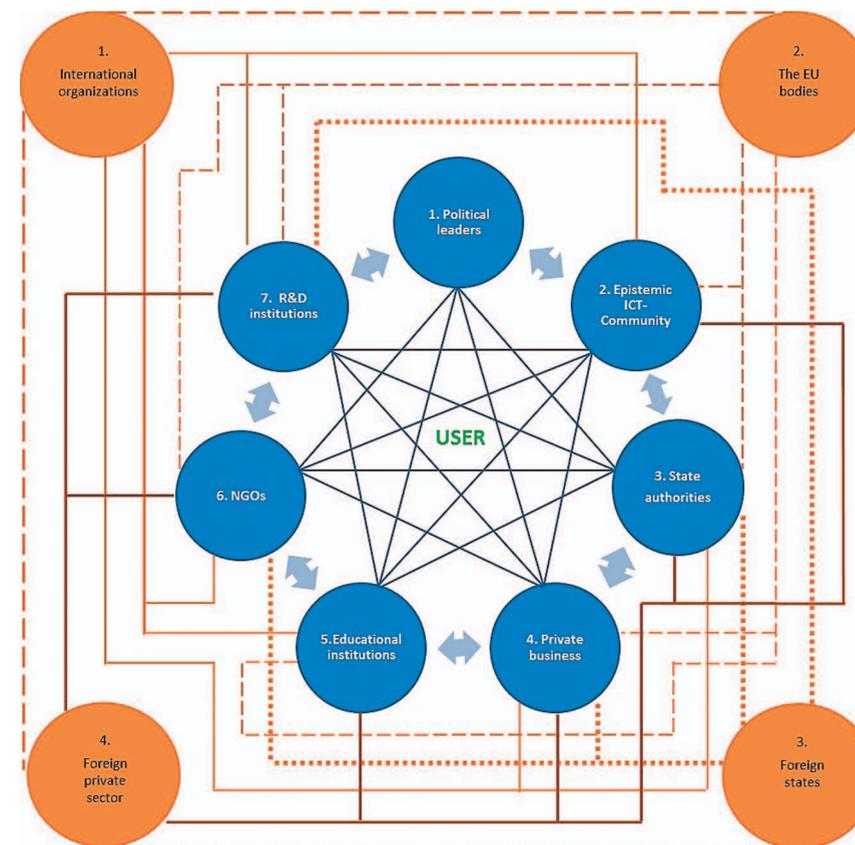


Figure 1. Model of reciprocal communication of institutional stakeholders

The following Table 1.1 uncovers the core functions of national institutional stakeholders and gives a brief description of these stakeholders.

**Table 1.1** Inner multi-communication “circle” of national institutional stakeholders

Compound stakeholder	Core function	Specification
1	2	3
<b>1. Political leaders</b>	Function of political will	Political leadership is a catalyst for e-Gov implementation and development. Political leaders: shape and articulate a unifying concept that can propel e-Gov initiatives; motivate people; and ensure cooperation and coordination between different concerned parties (based on OECD e-Government Studies..., 2003). Political leadership supporting e-Gov initiatives has emerged in Estonia since 1990s. Among such leaders has been, in particular, the former Estonian Ambassador to the United States and current President of Estonia Toomas Hendrik Ilves, the former Prime Minister Mart Laar.
<b>2. Epistemic ICT-Community</b>	Cognitive function	An “epistemic community” is defined as “a network of professionals with recognized expertise and competence in a particular domain and an authoritative claim to policy-relevant knowledge within the same domain or issue area” (Haas, 1992: 3). The epistemic community does not exist within bureaucratic bodies, but it can include members from these organizations. Thus, by the Estonian ICT Community we can understand a loose network of experts from a variety of disciplines and backgrounds (for example, scholars, practitioners, government officials) that have had an impact on state policy decisions on ICT development.
<b>3. State authorities</b>	Management functions (planning, organizing, controlling, administrating)	The main state authorities which deal with e-Gov model development and implementation: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• E-Eesti Council (E-Eestinõukogu);</li> <li>• Ministry of economic and communication (MEAC) – Majandus- ja Kommunikatsiooniministeerium: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MEAC Department of State Information Systems (Riigi Infosüsteemide Osakond – RISO);</li> <li>• MEAC Information Systems Authority (Riigi Infosüsteemi Amet – RIA);</li> <li>• MEAC Technical Regulatory Authority (Tehnilise Järelevalve Amet – TJA);</li> <li>• MEAC Department of Information Society Services Development (Infoühiskonna Teenuste Arendamise Osakond – ITAO);</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Ministry of the Interior (MIA) - Siseministeerium: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MIA Police and Border Guard Board (Politsei- ja Piirivalveame);</li> <li>• MIA IT and Development Centre (Siseministeeriumi infotehnoloogia- ja arenduskeskus – SMIT);</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Ministry of Justice (MOJ) – Justiitsministeerium: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• MOJ Centre of Registers and Information Systems (Registrite ja Infosüsteemide Keskus – RIK).</li> </ul> </li> </ul>

Compound stakeholder	Core function	Specification
1	2	3
<b>4. Private business</b>	- ICT production; - ICT service provision; - Funding function	Most e-Gov projects are public-private partnership projects. Private business concerned with e-Gov development is represented in Estonia mainly by banks, ICT companies, and Certification Service providers (CSPs) /Time-stamping service providers (TSSPs).
<b>5. Educational institutions</b> (not including their R&D departments)	Training function (production of ICT-intensive human capital)	The provision of ICT knowledge and skills at all levels of education (preschool, general, vocational, and higher education) is a strategic priority of the Estonian government. The Information Technology Foundation for Education (HITSA), set up through the cooperation of the state, the ICT industry, universities, and other educational institutions, contributes to the development of a national education system in line with the needs and opportunities in the ICT field. The ICT studies are heavily promoted by offering financial incentives to students (tuition-free degree programmes, scholarships, grants). The main higher education institutions providing ICT study programmes are the University of Tartu, Tallinn University of Technology, and Estonian Information Technology College.
<b>6. NGOs</b>	- Social development; - Consulting function; - Training function	E-Gov Academy (eGA) <sup>17</sup> , PRAXIS, the ICT Demo Center (Demokeskus), Look@World Foundation (Vaata Maa ilma SA), and Robootika are the main NGOs dealing with ICT and e-Gov development in Estonia.
<b>7. R&amp;D institutions</b>	Research and Design function	The Estonian R&D in the e-Gov field is conducted by private company “Cybernetica AS” (traced back to the Soviet-era Institute of Cybernetics of the Estonian Academy of Sciences), eGA, R&D departments at institutions of higher education (for example, Institute of Cybernetics at the Tallinn University of Technology), and the Estonian Academy of Sciences.

In fact, the national multi-communication circle just seems to be closed. It is closed to the extent to which a state is independent and isolated from the world community, but it is inevitably open to the extent to which a state is incorporated into global communication processes.

At the international level of communication of the Estonian e-Gov system, there are two-way and multi-way communication flows between national and international institutional stakeholders. The international institutional stakeholders are represented by four compound stakeholders: international organizations; the European Union bodies; foreign states; and foreign private sector. The following Table 1.2 briefly describes these stakeholders.

<sup>17</sup> eGA has a special status. It can be considered as NGO as well as R&D and Consulting & Training organization in e-Gov. Jointly brought into existence by the United Nations Development Programme, Open Society Institute, and the Government of Estonia, eGA has trained 3000 officials from more than 50 countries and led or participated in more than 60 international ICT projects on the national, local, and organizational levels.

**Table 1.2** Outer “circle” of international institutional stakeholders

Compound stakeholder	Specification
1	2
<b>1. International organizations</b>	The main international organizations affecting the development of the Estonian e-Gov model: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Nations departments: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD);</li> <li>• United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Division for Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM);</li> <li>• United Nations Public Administration Network (UNPAN);</li> </ul> </li> </ul> </li> <li>• United Nations specialized agencies: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• International Telecommunication Union (ITU);</li> <li>• United Nations Development Programme (UNDP);</li> <li>• United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO);</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD);</li> <li>• Council of Europe;</li> <li>• European Telecommunications Standards Institute (ETSI);</li> <li>• Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe(OSCE);</li> </ul>
<b>2. European Union bodies</b>	The Estonian national model of e-Gov is developed in close collaboration with the EU bodies including decision-making institutions such as the European Commission, as well as specific agencies such as ENISA (European Union Agency for Network and Information Security) and BEREC (Body of European Regulators of Electronic Communications).
<b>3. Foreign states</b>	The “foreign states” are understood as government agencies and judicial bodies of all countries collaborating with Estonia in e-Gov issues.
<b>4. Foreign private sector</b>	Foreign private sector collaborating with Estonia in the framework of e-Gov is represented mainly by ICT and R&D companies, CSPs / TSSPs, and private universities (for example, Stanford University in California, USA).

The factual grounds for two-way communication between international and national stakeholders are evidenced in Table 1.3.

As shown in Table 1.3, communication flows between international and national stakeholders can be both permanent (long-term) and temporary. Besides, most of the revealed flows are direct, though there are also technology-mediated and document-mediated flows. In this context, document-mediated flows mean that international and national stakeholders can communicate within the framework of legally binding formal written documents issued by international stakeholders such as the EU bodies or international organizations.

The diversity of two-way communication flows between international and national stakeholders indicates a coincidence of their interests, i.e. e-Gov issues are of great importance to both Estonia and the world community.

The findings of this research show that synergetic interaction of national (Estonian) and international stakeholders not only has impact on the effective functioning and development of the Estonian e-Gov system but also contributes toe-Gov development at the global level.

**Table 1.3** Interactive relationship between international and national institutional stakeholders

Type of communication flow (international stakeholder – national stakeholder)	Examples
1	2
<b>1 International organizations + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>1.1 International organizations – State authorities</b>	All international organizations specified in Table 1.2 communicate with the Estonian state authorities. This is exemplified by: international conferences and projects with participation of national experts (government officials) and representatives of international organizations; international funding for particular national projects in areas falling within the scope of international organization’s activity; recommendatory acts and reports issued by international organizations and targeted at national authorities; etc.
<b>1.2 International organizations – Epistemic ICT Community (experts)</b>	Many Estonian e-Gov experts (in particular, Ivar Tallo, Linnar Viik, Yuri Misnikov) were granted a position as Regional ICT advisor at UNDP.
<b>1.3 International organizations – Private business</b>	Communication between an international organization “ETSI” (European Telecommunications Standards Institute), issuing digital signature technical standards, and the Estonian CSP / TSSP, represented by a private company “AS Sertifitseerimiskeskus” (SK).
<b>1.4 International organizations – Educational institutions</b>	Collaboration between the NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence on one side, and Tallinn University of Technology and University of Tartu on the other, to provide international joint Master’s programme in Cyber Security at Tallinn University of Technology and University of Tartu
<b>1.5 International organizations – NGOs</b>	Communication between NGO “E-Gov Academy” and international organizations concerned with e-Gov. In particular, eGA organizes the international annual e-Gov conference in Tallinn, which calls together world leading e-Gov experts, including representatives of international organizations.

Type of communication flow (international stakeholder – national stakeholder)	Examples
1	2
<b>1 International organizations + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>1.6 International organizations – R&amp;D institutions</b>	Collaboration between NATO and an R&D company “Cybernetica AS” (in the context of participation in the NATO Advanced Research Workshops (ARW) expert meetings).
<b>2 The EU bodies + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>2.1 The EU bodies – State authorities</b>	As a member of the EU since 2004, Estonia via its state authorities tightly collaborates with different bodies of the EU, aiming to foster the cross-border e-Gov services in the Member States. The examples of this collaboration are mutual EU-funded or co-funded projects; expert meetings; legal instruments issued by the EU institutions and carried out by all Member States; etc.
<b>2.2 The EU bodies – Epistemic ICT Community (experts)</b>	Collaboration between the NATO Cooperative Cyber Defence Centre of Excellence on one side, and Tallinn University of Technology and University of Tartu on the other, to provide international joint Master’s programme in Cyber Security at Tallinn University of Technology and University of Tartu.
<b>2.3 The EU bodies – Private business</b>	Communication between the EU bodies and the Estonian CSPs / TSSPs (private companies “SK” and “GuardTime AS”) in a part of the EU regulatory framework for electronic identification and trust services.
<b>2.4 The EU bodies – Educational institutions</b>	Communication in the framework of the EU funded programmes for mobility opportunities in Europe and beyond (for example, Erasmus, Erasmus+, Erasmus Mundus programmes); the EU Structural Fund assistance for modernizing the Estonian educational institutions with the help of ICT (for example, building more broadband connections, teacher training in ICT); institutional accreditation and quality assessment of curricula (by a national quality assurance agency – “Estonian Quality Agency for Higher and Vocational Education (EKKA)”, which is a part of the EU agency “ENQA”).
<b>2.5 The EU bodies – R&amp;D institutions</b>	The European Commission has granted funding to ICT research projects with participation of the Estonian R&D company “Cybernetica AS” (the current EU framework funding programme for Research & Innovation – “Horizon 2020”).
<b>2.6 The EU bodies – NGOs</b>	Collaboration between the EU bodies (financial support) and NGOs while organizing ICT conferences and events in Estonia (for example, ICT Week, the Estonian e-Participation day, Cloud computing in Estonia seminar / Cloud for Europe information event).

Type of communication flow (international stakeholder – national stakeholder)	Examples
1	2
<b>3 Foreign states + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>3.1 Foreign states – State authorities</b>	One of the examples is an intergovernmental agreement (Memorandum of Understanding) between Estonia’s and Finland’s authorities on cross-border cooperation in the field of e-Gov. One of the central provisions of this agreement lays down that the Estonian data exchange layer, known as the X-Road, will be developed jointly with Finland in the future. The other example of foreign states – the Estonian state authorities’ communication is mutual participation in the EU large-scale cross-border pilot projects (LSPs) in the area of digital public services (in particular, e-SENS, e-CODEX LSPs).
<b>3.2 Foreign states – Private business</b>	Cooperation of Latvia’s, Lithuania’s, and Denmark’s authorities with the Estonian CSP / TSSP “SK” providing the authorised certification service of the infrastructure of digital tachographs.
<b>3.3 Foreign states – NGOs</b>	NGO “ICT Demo Center (E-Estonia Showroom)” communicates with foreign state authorities by hosting hundreds of political delegations and demonstrating them how the Estonian e-Gov system’s solutions work in real time.
<b>3.4 Foreign states – R&amp;D institutions</b>	The Estonian R&D company “Cybernetica AS” communicates with different foreign states by selling its products on foreign markets (for example, Azerbaijan, Australia, Canada, China, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Indonesia, Ireland, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Netherlands, Sweden, United Arab Emirates, Turkey, United Kingdom of Great Britain & Northern Ireland, United States of America). Besides, eGA communicates with foreign states during ICT projects and trainings of officials (mainly with transitional societies in Central, Eastern Europe, and in Africa, as well as with the EU countries).
<b>4 Foreign private sector + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>4.1 Foreign private sector – State authorities</b>	Communication in the framework of the EU funded programmes for mobility opportunities in Europe and beyond (for example, Erasmus, Erasmus+, Erasmus Mundus programmes); the EU Structural Fund assistance for modernizing the Estonian educational institutions with the help of ICT (for example, building more broadband connections, teacher training in ICT); institutional accreditation and quality assessment of curricula (by a national quality assurance agency – “Estonian Quality Agency for Higher and Vocational Education (EKKA)”, which is a part of the EU agency “ENQA”).

Type of communication flow (international stakeholder – national stakeholder)	Examples
1	2
<b>4 Foreign private sector + national stakeholders</b>	
<b>4.2 Foreign private sector – Epistemic ICT Community (experts)</b>	Some of the Estonian e-Gov experts have been developers and business owners of innovative technological start-ups which have transformed into international ICT companies. For example, the Estonian e-Gov expert Linnar Viik is a member of the Board of Directors of “Fortumo”, an international privately held company which provides mobile online payment services in 78 countries on six continents and connects foreign merchants to subscribers of more than 350 mobile operator networks.
<b>4.3 Foreign private sector – Private business</b>	Agreement between the Lithuanian private mobile operator “Omnitel” and the Estonian private CSP / TSSP “SK”, according to which the Estonian CSP / TSSP issues “Mobiil-ID” certificates to Omnitel’s clients.
<b>4.4 Foreign private sector – Educational institutions</b>	An international company “Skype” (a part of “Microsoft”) communicates with Tallinn University of Technology and the University of Tartu in a part of providing scholarships for excellent Master’s students of Cyber Security / Computer and Systems Engineering (Tallinn University of Technology) and of Software Engineering / Informatics (the University of Tartu).

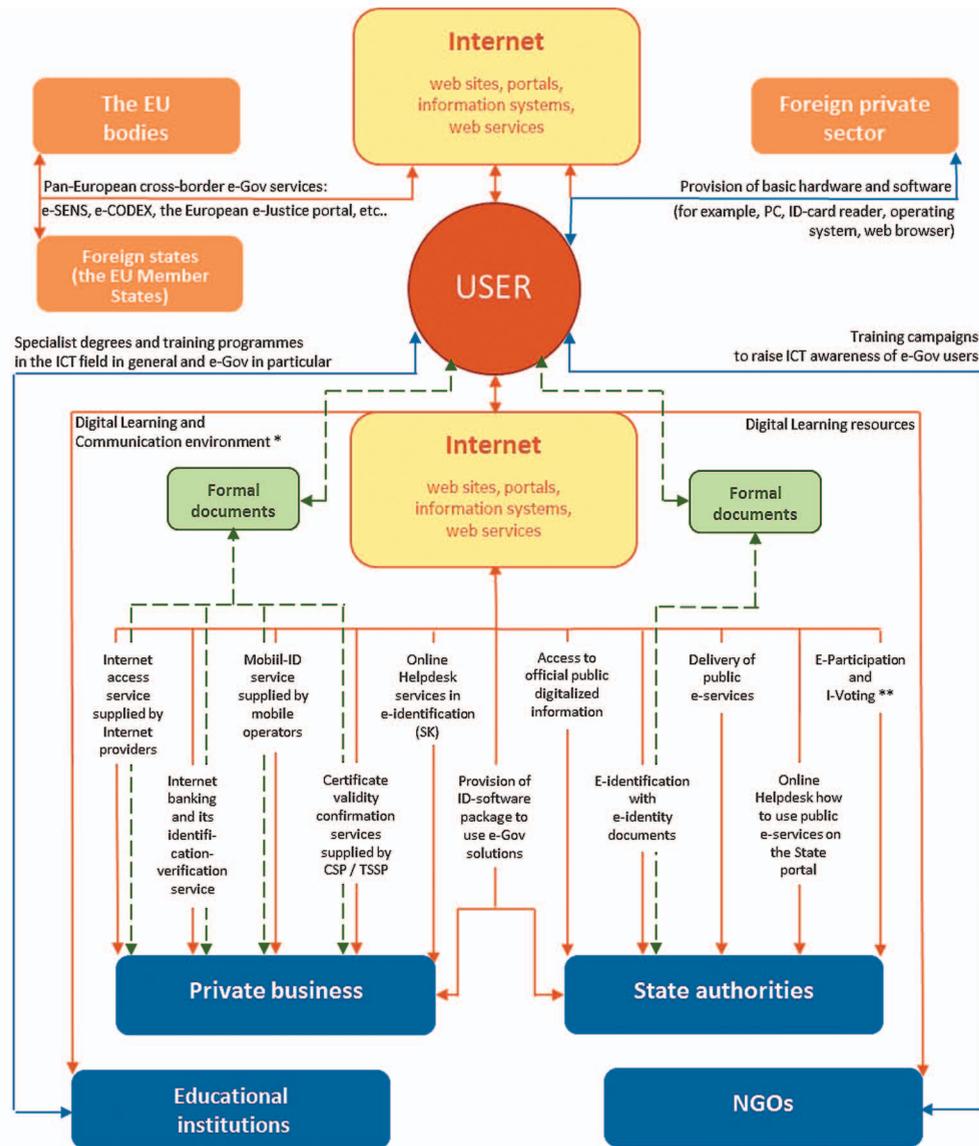
### User’s level of communication in the Estonian e-Gov system

As indicated above, the national and international levels of stakeholder communication aims to address the multiple needs of citizens and residents (users) to provide them with efficient, transparent, and advanced public and private services. Nevertheless, the user’s level of stakeholder communication is a pivotal level in the e-Gov system, since it fully reflects the core function of e-Gov. At the user’s level of communication, a user is the main communication party who builds information-interaction relationship with institutional e-Gov stakeholders in order to obtain particular services. This part of the article will introduce two communication models, which reconstruct direct and mediated flows at the user’s level of stakeholder communication.

**Model of direct and mediated communication between a user and institutional stakeholders of e-Gov.** Figure 2 depicts the possible interaction-information relationship between e-Gov stakeholders at the user’s level of communication. A user, acting through a citizen or resident, is able to establish direct or mediated communication flows with the following national institutional stakeholders: state authorities; private business; NGOs; and educational institutions. Besides, a user can communicate with international institutional stakeholders such as the EU bodies, foreign states (the EU Member States), and foreign private sector.

It should be noted that most communication flows between a user and relevant institutional stakeholders are technology-mediated. These flows should be considered at the same time as ICT-based “customer” services. The prerequisite to provide some of these services (for example, Internet access, Internet banking, Mobile-ID) is the establishment of legal relations between two parties, i.e. an institutional stakeholder (service provider) and a user. In this context, communication flows, mediated by formal documents such as agreements, enable to create these legal relations.

The direct communication might arise in the following cases: provision of basic hardware and software to use e-Gov services (stakeholders are represented by a user and foreign private sector suppliers); training campaigns to raise ICT awareness of e-Gov users (stakeholders are represented by a user and NGOs such as “Look@World Foundation”); and specialist degrees and training programmes in the ICT field in general and e-Gov in particular (stakeholders are represented by a user and educational institutions).



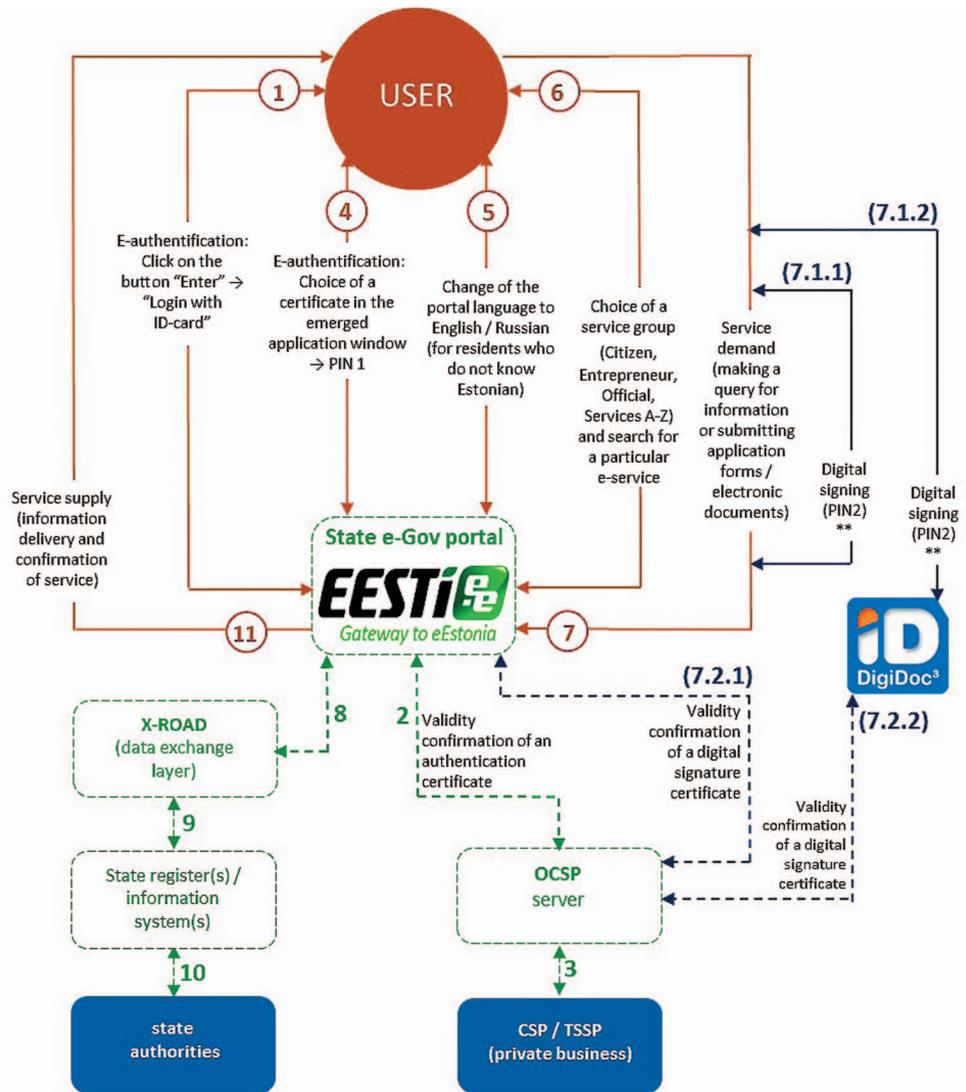
**Figure 2.** Communication flows at the user's level of communication  
 \* For example, e-School, Moodle, Study information System (ÖIS), etc.  
 \*\* I-Voting is provided only for citizens of the Republic of Estonia.

**Legend to Figure 2**

	direct communication flow
	technology-mediated communication flow
	document-mediated communication flow
	name of a communication flow
	ICT mediator
	legally binding formal documents
	international stakeholder
	national stakeholder

Among the above-mentioned compound communication flows, there are basic and optional flows. The basic flows are the most common among all e-Gov users (the Estonian citizens and residents), and are reflected in provision of basic and specialized hardware and software, Internet access service, Internet banking, public e-service delivery, e-identification with e-identity documents, and certificate validity confirmation services. The optional flows, such as E-Participation and I-Voting, pan-European cross-border e-Gov services, training campaigns to raise ICT awareness, have more specific target audience which are either ICT-advanced or ICT-unskilled users.

**Model of technology-mediated communication between a user and institutional stakeholders in the context of obtaining public e-services through the e-Gov web portal.** Among all compound communication flows at the user's level of communication (see Fig. 2), the basic communication flow, the delivery of public e-services to citizens and residents (users), has been chosen and converted to a communication process through its decomposition into a number of successive steps (constituent flows).



**Figure 3.** Communication process of public e-service delivery through the state e-Gov web portal www.eesti.ee (the use of Windows platform and e-identification with an ID-card or another smart card such as Digi-ID, residence permit card)\*

\*Prerequisites of the communication process: PC, Internet connection, ID-software installation, connection of an ID-card to PC via a card-reader.

\*\*Users can sign documents digitally using either the signing section on the State portal (“My Documents”) or the DigiDoc3 program that is installed into PC along with the ID-software package. Therefore, communication steps number 7.1.1 and 7.1.2 are alternatives for a user.

**Legend to Figure 3**

	technology-mediated visible (to a user) communication step (flow)
	technology-mediated invisible (to a user) communication step (flow)
	optional technology-mediated visible (to a user) communication step (flow)
	optional technology-mediated invisible (to a user) communication step (flow)
	name of a communication step (flow)
	ICT mediator
	national stakeholder

Most public e-services in Estonia (99 %) are available through the single point of contact – the state e-Gov web portal *www.eesti.ee* (State portal). In the framework of public e-service delivery through the State portal, all communication flows between a user and national institutional stakeholders (state authorities and a private CSP / TSSP “SK”) are technology-mediated. The examples of ICT mediators are PC, Internet, client ID-software package, e-identity document (ID-card / Digi-ID / residence permit card), card-reader, the State portal, data exchange layer “X-Road”, state registers and information systems, OCSP server of a CSP / TSSP. There are eleven main steps involved in the communication process of public e-service delivery through the State portal. These steps are visible (1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 7.1.1, 7.1.2, 11) and invisible (2, 3, 7.2.1, 7.2.2, 8, 9, 10) steps as well as basic (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11) and optional (7.1.1 / 7.1.2, 7.2.1 / 7.2.2).

It is remarkable that communication flow number 10 is partly invisible to a user. It is due to X-Road layer that has certain security elements essential for the protection of privacy (see Norta, 2014). As a matter of fact, after getting user’s query for a particular e-service, many state registers retrieve user’s personal data from another state registers. A user can make a query to the State portal about any queries of his/her personal data made to state registers. The query shows when the query to a certain state register happened, the number of the file this query relates to, the name of the state authority, the ID and the position of the enquirer. Therefore, such transparency decreases the risk of the arbitrary use of personal data by the state.

**Conclusion**

Overall, this study demonstrates that e-Gov is a socio-technical phenomenon, meaning that it includes both ICT and social entities which are *in constant information-interaction*

*relationship with each other.* The e-Gov system and a social system have reciprocal influence leading to mutual development of both systems: the social system constructs and propels e-Gov, whereas the e-Gov system improves and empowers the social system.

Within the Estonian functional e-Gov system, there are multiple stakeholders (social entities). These are national and international institutional stakeholders as well as individual users (citizens and residents). The study has reconstructed complex mechanisms, embodied in *three prototype communication models of e-Gov as a discourse*, which verify the viability of two- and multi-way communication between the given stakeholders at the user's, national, and international levels. The study gives vivid examples of cross-stakeholder communication flows as well as of communication flows between stakeholders and nonsocial entities:

- The first reconstructed model of communication of national and international institutional stakeholders reveals that Estonia has a high internal and external communication potential and it is being fully incorporated into global communication on e-Gov area whose importance has rapidly increased in recent years.

The second and the third models have reconstructed stakeholder communication at the user's level, which is a pivotal level in the e-Gov system.

- The second model shows that a user, inseparable communication party, can be engaged in the diversity of direct, technology-mediated, and document-mediated communication flows with national and international stakeholders. These compound communication flows (processes) imply that a user obtains the needed services within the e-Gov system, supplied by particular institutional stakeholders. In addition, different types of these communication flows (basic and optional flows) target at different types of users (ordinary, ICT-advanced, and ICT-unskilled users).
- The third model has reconstructed one of the basic communication flows (processes), which is the delivery of multiple public e-services to ordinary users through the State portal. The model illustrates how a set of stable technology-mediated communication flows comprising this process formalize it as much as possible in order to make this process more simple and intuitive to an ordinary user.

The findings derived from this study might help to understand e-Gov communication as a type of a discourse. What is more, the findings help to understand the mechanisms of effective communication within a multi-stakeholder e-Gov system, as well as to extrapolate these mechanisms to the emerging e-Gov systems in other countries. The adaptability of Estonia's mechanisms to other states is an agenda for further research.

## Glossary

<i>Causal Genetic Approach to discourse research (CGA)</i>	Methodological perspective of content studies, which introduces the category of sign subject (communicant as a sign) and, within it, the category of sign-subject's content ( <i>cortege content</i> ); the latest studied via reflection, construction and reconstruction practices. The perspective integrates both types of functional contents: <i>informative</i> (resulted from establishing interrelations of reality and its sign representation) and <i>interactive</i> (resulted from establishing interrelations of communicants and their sign representation). The perspective gave birth to new research methods and techniques: the methods of reconstructing discourse worlds and discourse communities; the method of discourse portraying; the technique of systemic, structural and hierarchy mapping of discourse practices' content in their functioning. The perspective launches a set of research procedure steps for building discourse type theories (interconnected theoretical models) of both functional and prototypic nature (see monographs: Oukhvanova, Markovich, Ukhvanov (2001, 2003, 2005), Oukhvanova, Savich, Efimova (2010), Popova (2012), Savich (2012), Kourchak (2012) on theoretical modelling of political leadership, media lobbying, elite informative media and business negotiation discourse types).
<i>Communication</i>	Is a process of reciprocal influence and (direct or mediated) exchange between two or more entities, accompanied by transmission and reception of information (a "message") between a source and a receiver using verbal and nonverbal symbols and signs that are influenced by multiple contexts (the author's definition based on definitions given by <i>Crystal, 2008</i> and <i>A Primer on Communication Studies v. 1.0</i> ).
<i>4.4 Foreign private sector – Educational institutions</i>	An international company "Skype" (a part of "Microsoft") communicates with Tallinn University of Technology and the University of Tartu in a part of providing scholarships for excellent Master's students of Cyber Security / Computer and Systems Engineering (Tallinn University of Technology) and of Software Engineering / Informatics (the University of Tartu).
<i>Communication flow</i>	Is a flow (movement) of particular information through a medium within a particular communication process (the author's definition).

<i>Discourse</i>	Is a set of syntagmatically ordered utterances, represented in the form of text with packed information about the conditions and participants of communication – social context of the text's functioning (Маркович, 2008).
<i>Digi-ID (or Digital certificate of identity)</i>	An ID-card like smart card, which a citizen of the Republic of Estonia can use for authentication and giving digital signatures in electronic environment ( <i>What is Digi-ID?</i> ).
<i>E-Government (Electronic government)</i>	Is the selection, design, implementation, and use of information and communication technologies in government to provide public services, improve managerial effectiveness, and promote democratic values and participation mechanisms, as well as the development of a legal and regulatory framework that facilitates information intensive initiatives and fosters the knowledge society (Gil-Garcia, 2012).
<i>E-Government stakeholder</i>	Is a social entity (any group or individual) who can affect or be affected by the e-Gov system; without its support, the e-Gov system would cease to exist (based on the broad definition of a "stakeholder" given by Freeman, 1984).
<i>Ensemble View of Information Technology and Organizations approach</i>	Is a theoretical approach to the research about ICT and e-Gov, firstly introduced by <i>Orlikowski and Iacono (2001)</i> , which recognizes the complexity of the relationship between ICT and social entities. This approach argues that ICT have the potential to transform social and organizational structures, while social and organizational structures could simultaneously affect the use of ICT. The approach integrates different theories such as structuration theory, adaptive structuration theory, institutional theory, socio-technical systems theory, and social informatics (the author's definition based on the explanation given by <i>Gil-Garcia, 2012</i> ).
<i>I-Voting (Internet voting)</i>	Technique by which electors vote by using a computer connected to the Internet. I-Voting is used as an additional voting method to improve accessibility of elections ( <i>Anttiroiko, 2008</i> ).

<i>ICT (Information and Communication Technologies)</i>	Consists of the hardware, software, networks, and media for the collection, storage, processing, transmission and presentation of information (voice, data, text, images), as well as related services. ICT can be split into Information Technology and Information and Communication Infrastructure (physical telecommunications systems and networks, such as broadcast, cable, satellite, postal, and the services that utilize them, such as Internet, voice, mail, radio, and television) ( <i>ICT Glossary Guide</i> ).
<i>ID-card</i>	The primary document for identifying citizens of the Republic of Estonia. The card, besides being a physical identification document, has advanced electronic functions that facilitate secure authentication and legally binding digital signature, in connection with nationwide online services ( <i>The Estonian ID-Card and Digital Signature Concept...</i> ).
<i>Mobiil-ID (Mobile-ID)</i>	A service that allows personal electronic identification with a mobile phone. In addition to the functionality of an ordinary SIM, Mobiil-ID SIM also holds a person's mobile identity that enables to: authenticate in e-services; sign documents digitally ( <i>Mobiil-ID</i> ).
<i>OCSP (Online Certificate Status Protocol)</i>	Is a simple client-server system where an OCSP client sends the OCSP responder (server) a query about a certificate and the responder gives a confirmation regarding the certificate, which contains the validity or non-validity of the certificate and the time of giving the confirmation. The reply given by the responder is digitally signed ( <i>Validity confirmation service issuing authentication certificate information</i> ).
<i>Political will</i>	Is the extent of committed support among key decision makers for a particular policy solution to a particular problem. The given definition integrates three categories: distribution of specific preferences; authority, capacity, and legitimacy of the decision makers; commitment to preferences such as a credible strategy for reaching the goal (Post, 2010: 659).
<i>Resident permit card</i>	Mandatory identity document of an alien who is residing permanently in Estonia on the basis of a valid residence permit or right of residence. In addition to regular identification of a person a residence card can also be used for establishing one's person in electronic environment and for giving one's digital signature ( <i>Are foreigners in Estonia who hold permanent residence permit also required to have ID-card</i> ).

## References

- A primer on Communication Studies v. 1.0[Electronic resource]. *In*: 2012 Book Archive (Creative Commons licensed). <http://2012books.lardbucket.org/pdfs/a-primer-on-communication-studies.pdf>.
- Ahto, K. X-road - one of the cornerstones of the state information system. *In*: Odrats, I. (ed.). Information technology in public administration of Estonia: yearbook 2006. Tallinn: Ministry of Economic Affairs and Communications, 2007. 35–43.
- Anttiroiko, A.-V. Electronic government: concepts, methodologies, tools, and applications. Hershey, New York: Information Science Reference, 2008.
- Are foreigners in Estonia who hold permanent residence permit also required to have ID-card. IDSK. <http://www.id.ee/?id=34400>.
- Baradei, L., Shamma, H., Saada, N. Examining the marketing of e-government services in Egypt. *In*: International Journal of Business and Public Management, 2. Issue 2, 2012. 12–22.
- Bouaziz, F. E-Government projects risk management: taking stakeholders in perspective. *In*: Al Ajeeli, A. T., Al-Bastaki, Y. Handbook of research on e-services in the public sector: e-government strategies and advancements. Hershey, New York: Information Science Reference, 2011. 147–163.
- Callon, M. Some elements of a sociology of translation: domestication of the scallops and the fishermen of St Brieuc Bay. *In*: Law, J. (ed.). Power, action and belief. A new sociology of knowledge? London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1986. 196–229.
- Charalabidis, Y. Interoperability in digital public services and administration: bridging e-government and e-business. Hershey, PA: IGI Global, 2010.
- Crystal, D. A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics. USA, UK, Australia: Blackwell Publishing, 2008.
- Dias, G. P., Rafael, J. A. A simple model and a distributed architecture for realizing one-stop e-government. *In*: Electronic commerce research and applications, 6. 2007. 81–90.
- Dignum, F., Koch, F., Hiel, M., Aldewereld, A. The role of agents in adaptive service oriented architectures. *In*: Lecture notes in Artificial Intelligence. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg, 7057, 2012. 371–386.
- Fountain, J. E. Building the virtual state: information technology and institutional change. Washington D.C.: Brookings Institution Press, 2001.
- Freeman, E. Strategic management: a stakeholder approach. Boston: Pitman, 1984.
- Gil-Garcia, J. R. Enacting electronic government success. An integrative study of government-wide websites, organizational capabilities, and institutions. New York: Springer Science & Business Media, 2012.
- Grant, G., Chau, D. Developing a generic framework for e-government. *In*: Journal of global information management, 13. 2005. 1–30.
- Haas, P. M. Introduction: epistemic communities and international policy coordination. *In*: International organization, 46. 1992. 1–35.
- Ho, A. T.-K. Reinventing local governments and the e-government initiative. *In*: Public administration review, 62. 2002. 434–444.

- ICT glossary guide. 100 ICT concepts. The World Bank. <http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/TOPICS/EXTINFORMATIONANDCOMMUNICATIONANDECHNOLOGIES/0,,contentMDK:21035032~menuPK:282850~pagePK:210058~piPK:210062~theSitePK:282823~isCURL:Y,00.html>.
- Kamarck, E., Nye, J. S. Governance.com: democracy in the information age. Washington, D.C.: Brookings Institution Press, 2002.
- Kerikmäe, T., Särav, S. Legal impediments in the EU to new technologies in the example of e-residency. *In*: Baltic journal of law and politics, 8. 2016. 71–90.
- Latour, B. Reassembling the social: an introduction to actor-network-theory. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2005.
- Mason, S. Electronic signatures in law. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2012.
- Mobiil-ID. SK. <https://www.sk.ee/en/services/digital-identity/mobile-id>.
- Norta, A., Rull, A., Täks, E. Towards software-agent enhanced privacy protection. *In*: Kerikmäe, T. (ed.). Regulating eTechnologies in the European Union: normative realities and trends. Cham: Springer, 2014. 73–94.
- Nyman-Metcalf, K. E-Governance in law and by law. The legal framework of e-Governance. *In*: Kerikmäe, T. (ed.). Regulating eTechnologies in the European Union: normative realities and trends. Cham: Springer, 2014. 33–52.
- OECD e-Government Studies. The e-Government imperative. OECDiLibrary. [http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/governance/the-e-government-imperative\\_9789264101197-en](http://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/governance/the-e-government-imperative_9789264101197-en).
- Orlikowski, W.J., Iacono, C. S. Desperately seeking the “IT” in IT research – a call to theorizing the IT artifact. *In*: Information systems research, 12. 2001. 121–134.
- Oukhvanova, I., Markovich, A., Ukhvanov, V. Perspectives and methods of political discourse and text research, 3. Minsk, 2004 (translated from Russian).
- Oukhvanova-Shmygova, I. Discourse as a macro sign: the causal genetic perspective of discourse linguistics. *In*: Kiklewicz, A., Uchwanowa-Szmygowa, I. (eds.). Diskurs: aspektylingwistyczne, semiotyczne i komunikacyjne. Olsztyn: Centrum Badan EuropyWschodniej, 2015. 43–56.
- Oukhvanova, I. The causal genetic perspective in discourse research. *In*: Barczewska, Sh., Oukhvanova, I., Popova, A. (eds.). Discourse linguistics and beyond, 1. Discourse in academic settings. D-ART. Regensburg: Sprachlit, 2016. 78–88.
- Post, L. A., Raile, A. N., Raile, E. D. Defining political will. *In*: Politics and Policy, 38. 2010. 653–676.
- Rotchanakitumnuai, S. Measuring e-government service value with the E-GOVQUAL-RISK model. *In*: Business process management journal, 14. 2008. 724–737.
- Scholl, H. J. Applying stakeholder theory to e-government: benefits and limits. *In*: Proceedings of the 1st IFIP conference on e-commerce, e-business, and e-government (I3E 2001). Zurich, Switzerland, 2001. 735–747.
- Simões, M. J. Sociological reflections on e-government. *In*: ICDS 2012: The Sixth International Conference on Digital Society. 2012. 29–34. <https://www.thinkmind.org/index.php?view=instance&instance=ICDS+2012>

- Sinclair, S., Bramley, G.* Beyond virtual inclusion – communications inclusion and digital divisions. *In: Social policy and society*, 10. 2011. 1–11.
- Stanforth, C.* Using actor-network theory to analyze e-Government implementation in developing countries. *In: Information technologies and international development*, 3. 2006. 35–60.
- Solove, D. J.* Privacy and power: computer databases and metaphors for information privacy. *In: Stanford Law Review*. Vol. 53, 2001. 1413–1434.
- Sweeney, A.* Electronic government-citizen relationships: exploring citizen perspectives. *In: Journal of information technology and politics*, 4. 2007. 101–116.
- Teerlinga, M., Pieterse, W.* How to improve e-government use: an empirical examination of multichannel marketing instruments. *In: Information policy*, 16. 2011. 71–187.
- The Estonian ID-card and digital signature concept: principles and solutions, 2003. ID SK. [http://www.id.ee/public/The\\_Estonian\\_ID\\_Card\\_and\\_Digital\\_Signature\\_Concept.pdf](http://www.id.ee/public/The_Estonian_ID_Card_and_Digital_Signature_Concept.pdf)
- The United Nations e-government survey 2014: E-government for the future we want. UN public administration network. [http://unpan3.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2014-Survey/E-Gov\\_Complete\\_Survey-2014.pdf](http://unpan3.un.org/egovkb/Portals/egovkb/Documents/un/2014-Survey/E-Gov_Complete_Survey-2014.pdf).
- What is digi-ID? ID SK. <http://id.ee/index.php?id=34410>.
- Validity confirmation service issuing authentication certificate information. SK. <https://www.sk.ee/en/services/validity-confirmation-services/auth-ocsp/>.
- Yin, R. K.* Case study research: design and methods, 3d edition. London, New Delhi: SAGE Publications, 2003.
- Курчак, Л. В.* Дискурс деловых переговоров: опыт анализа. Минск, 2012.
- Маркович, А. А.* Дискурс: определения, история возникновения, типология, подходы к изучению дискурса. *In: Методология исследований политического дискурса: актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов*, 5: Дискурс в современном гуманитарном знании. Минск, 2008. 5–17.
- Попова, А. В.* Дискурс-картины мира и кортежного взаимодействия элитарных средств информации. Минск, 2008.
- Попова, Е. Э.* Моделирование качества автоматизированных систем управления документами. *In: Техника и технологии: инновации и качество*. Барановичи: РИО БарГУ, 2013. 184–188.
- Савич, Е. В.* Медийный дискурс лоббирования: опыт анализа. Минск, 2012.
- Ухванова, И. Ф., Савич, Е. В., Ефимова, Н. В.* Методология исследований политического дискурса: актуальные проблемы содержательного анализа общественно-политических текстов, 6: Политическое поле Беларуси глазами дискурс-аналитика. Минск, 2009.
- Ухванова-Шмыгова, И. Ф.* План содержания языкового знака: от анализа к синтезу, от структуры к системе. *In: Философская и социологическая мысль*, 3. 1993. 10–27.

## Issue 2. Global and national foci

Olga Zernetska, Pavel Zernetski

### The Internet: Pandiscourse or discourse?

The global Internet medium is developing “with the speed of thought” (Gates, 1999), granting to the Internet community the newest possibilities of communication. Taking into consideration the fact that the number of Internet users is growing drastically it is possible to affirm that the mankind is plunging more and more into informational depths.

But the growth of the Internet and its global role is determined not only by mechanical increase of its hardware and software, sophisticated telecommunication networks and the number of its users all over the world. One can monitor the new quantitative and qualitative phenomenon of global mental communicative activities of the participants of the Internet discourses who maintain the Internet and use it which we name “global pandiscourse of the Internet”.

It becomes possible because the Internet develops “with the speed of thought” and transfers thoughts with electronic speed. The Internet is filled with contents with the fantastic speeds of mental communicative activities of all the Internet participants and groups into, the phenomenon never seen before, – of actively functioning natural-artificial superbrain – into global mental communicational activities of its participants of creating hypertext of the Internet, which can be defined generally as the notion of “the Internet pandiscourse”.

The discourse, according to our understanding, is the central unit of speech activity which is reflected in its informational trace – oral or written (Зернецкий, 1987: 89). The speech activity is understood as a realization in speech interactions of two main functions of language – cognitive and communicative constituting, in other words, mental speech activity.

The discourse is characterized by the following parameters (Зернецкий, 1992: 18):

1. Discreetness, and, at the same time, absence of the structural limitations. Discourse can contain from two and more speech acts to multitude of speech events.
2. Systemic nature, which is manifested in law-governed use of regular means of speech activity (semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and stigmatic).
3. Functional completeness and communicative definiteness of a concrete discourse.

Such an understanding of the discourse corresponds with the conception of T.A. van Dijk, namely, about the necessity of research of the discourse in three directions: 1) language use; 2) transfer of beliefs (cognition); 3) interaction in social situations (Dijk, 1997: 2). The discourse, the central integrative unit of speech activity is realized in speech as a corresponding text (its informational trace). From the point of view of text production we agree with T. Pekot (Пекот, 2010: 15) that the discourse is surrounded by the system of concepts and propositions as well as the system of communicative forms and structures/modes and in this sense represents interpretative frames.

In this case **semantic** constituent of discourse analyses (interpretative frames), i.e. settled system of knowledge and beliefs about surrounding reality, must be supplemented by **sigmatic** constituent (concrete use of correct information common for the communicants the aim of direct altering their speech/non-speech activities, of indirect speech acts), **paradigmatic** constituent describing the system of intention of the communicants, and the **syntactic** constituent dealing with establishing, maintaining and ceasing of communicative contact, as with the end of acquiring of new information, as well as of using phatic metacommunication.

The core peculiarity of the Internet pandiscourse it is **self-reproduction** as an open system as a result initiating and supporting activities of its elements – from authentic, pertinent only to the Internet (participants of social networks, chat users etc.) to communicatively traditional, modified to a certain extent by the peculiarities of the Internet electronic variants of the press with the secured places for comments, placement of political documents and asking reaction on them, Internet-publication of parliamentary debates with/without elements of editing, Internet-voting (e-voting), collecting voices for different petitions – from environmental to political, asking for donations to help people who are in natural disasters (hurricanes, earthquakes, tsunamis, floods etc.). Internet can also be used to collect small sums of donations (up to \$ 200) as it happened in the 2008 Presidential election campaign in the United States (by supporters of B. Obama). It should be also mentioned that the high activity of the Internet users may be as without indemnity, gratis, as well as paid to this or that extent (trolling, paid commentators of political parties etc.).

High intensity of speech activity of the Internet pandiscourse participants is based on their definite intentions to communicate. These intentions may differ greatly from immediate, direct ones that emerge the types of communication specially constructed in the Internet that greatly stimulate speech activity (social networks of the Internet like Facebook, MySpace, В Контакте, Одноклассники etc.) up to delayed in time references to scientific works loaded in the Web.

The Internet is a condensed expression of a global multicultural society of the information era which produces and translates new or renewed senses with a very high speed. Creators of new senses in the Internet are first of all its developers and then of course its users. All of them act not only as developers but as transmitters and modifiers of senses. With the action of translation of senses different processes are taking place: evolution, modification, widening, narrowing, reduction, lowering or increasing of their statuses (from professional terms to slang), entering others than Internet-discourse spheres: social, political, economic, colloquial etc.

The new phenomena – material and ideal are constantly appearing in the global Internet sphere and demanding the designation of their essence. They are swiftly entering not only into everyday professional usage but quickly find place in political discourse which possesses one of the highest places in the social hierarchy. A good example is a computer term „reloading” which had been used by then States Secretary of the USA Hillary Clinton during her meeting with the Russian Minister of foreign affairs Sergey Lavrov (Moscow, 2009) when she had been talking about a new level of American-Russian relations. This is an evidence of the evidence of the Internet pandiscourse usage which helps to a deeper comprehension of political and social processes (though they are more often than not are used in a metaphorical sense).

Thus new senses are generated by the Internet pandiscourse possess such a philosophical depth that can designate processes which are taking place out of the borders of the Internet. Though the reality of the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century is such a fantastic one because the Internet having become itself the greatest global newsmaker, and the importance of the H. Clinton’s metaphor “reloading” in pandiscourse usage with was second to none on all online news and on You Tube.

The Internet pandiscourse is so multifacet paradigmatically, semantically, sigmatically and syntactically that its most general parameters are the phenomenon that the top of its frame is “sewed” by most frequently and importantly used senses like “the Internet”, “the Web”, “cybernetic”, “soft”, “server” etc. Also, in their own ways, different types of the Internet pandiscourse (communicating in social networks, writing blogs, participating

in charts etc.) are “sewed” by the super intentions of the Internet participants which sometimes grow into the Internet dependencies. One of them is an addiction to computer interactive games. Those addictive to them of all ages are called “gamers”. But especially this rueful narcotic influence is dangerous for children and teenagers. Psychologists get undeniable proofs that computer interactive games can raise innumerable strong emotions, change feelings, social and moral established rules. The consequences are dangerous for youngsters because of the psychophysical age peculiarities when emotions take over rational actions (Зернецкая, 2006).

The Internet pandiscourse can be researched from the point of view of its immanent properties:

1. polycode nature (multiplicity of natural and artificial languages and their interaction);
2. policultural properties (interpretation of different cultures of the world);
3. multistrata characteristics (availability for communication of the participants from different social strata and correlation of their pictures of the world);
4. hypertextuality (presence of the hypertext, the information trace of the Internet pandiscourse), in the Internet structure;
5. polyphonic parameters (variety of types and forms of mental speech activity);
6. active creative character as in grammar as well as in word-formation;
7. domination of the English language.

Further research of such a complex and integrative object as the Internet pandiscourse can provide qualitatively new scientific understanding of this information and communication superhighway of the mankind.

## References

- Dijk T. A. van.* The study of a discourse as a structure and process, 1. Sage, 1997. 1–34.
- Gates, B.* Business and the speed of thought. Using of Digital Nervous System. Warner Books, 1999.
- Зернецкая, О. В.* Интернет-ловушки для молодёжи . *In:* Зернецкая, О. В. Зеркало недели, № 11, 2007. <http://zn.ua/articles/49507>
- Зернецкий, П. В.* Единицы речевой деятельности в диалогическом дискурсе. *In:* Языковое общение. Единицы и регулятивы. Калинин, 1987. 89–95.
- Зернецкий, П. В.* Речевое общение на английском языке (Коммуникативно-функциональный анализ дискурса). Київ, 1992.
- Пекот, Т.* Три варианта понимания слова «дискурс». *In:* La Table Ronde, 1. Дискурс в академическом пространстве. Минск, 2010. 14–15.

Tatyana Skrebtsova

## Personification of language as a typical feature of Slavic mass media discourse

In the late XX century, the Eastern European countries underwent major political transformations triggered by perestroika, fall of Berlin wall, and collapse of communist regimes. Radical change of the sociopolitical situation, including the emergence of newly born independent states, could not but affect the languages of Eastern Europe, most of them being Slavic languages (Russian, Polish, Czech, Bulgarian, Serbian, etc.). Their vocabulary was flooded by numerous loanwords to refer to manifold aspects of the novel economic and social reality. These words were borrowed mainly from English and remain alien to the Slavic languages, which belong to a different language group.

The past decades have also witnessed the growing influence of the English language as lingua franca fuelled by an overwhelming progress in information technology as well as globalization aimed at economic, political and cultural unification. These factors contribute to the dominance of English and aggravate the position of languages using writing systems other than plain Latin characters. This fact has a direct bearing on the Slavic languages, since even diacritics presents certain difficulties for natural language processing. All the more so for the languages whose writing based on Cyrillic symbols. In the age of digital technologies, a recent study reports, quite a number of European languages face a threat of dying out. This concerns, in particular, the Bulgarian language<sup>18</sup>. As for Macedonian, some experts say, it may become extinct as soon as by the middle of the XXI century<sup>19</sup>.

In Eastern Europe, many linguists and lay persons seem deeply concerned about changes that the Slavic languages have undergone over the past decades. A huge body of mass-media texts and electronic resources addressing the issue testify to that.

A typical feature of the mass-media treatment of the topic is that language tends to be conceptualized as a person (personification metaphor). In a broader perspective, one may say that the ORGANISM metaphorical model (for the concept of metaphorical model, see Баранов, 2003) is imposed on the notion of language, or, yet in other words, the biological source domain is mapped onto linguistic target domain<sup>20</sup>. Thus, in the discussion of rapid changes taking place not only in the vocabulary of the Slavic languages but also in their grammar and prosody, language is compared to a *living organism*<sup>21</sup>, which brings about the concepts of *life* and *growth*. *Change is inherent in life*. This idea is common to all publications exploiting the ORGANISM model.

<sup>18</sup> <http://dnes.dir.bg/news/balgarski-ezik-digitalna-smart-12060859>; <http://paper.standartnews.com/bg/article.php?article=425341>

<sup>19</sup> <http://dnes.dir.bg/news.php?id=1290147>

<sup>20</sup> Cf. *Lakoff, Johnson, 1980*.

<sup>21</sup> Hereinafter italics mark cited phrases.

However, a careful linguistic examination of the data reveals certain variation in the way this mapping involves, noteworthy in the light of critical discourse analysis. The same model is applied in different ways, depending on the author's personal attitude to the changes concerned and his ideology in general. The prevailing approach might be called "objective" as it presupposes a detached eye-view, carefully balanced opinions and evaluation-free statements. Its counterpart is the "subjective" standpoint involving pronounced bias and persuasion.

The "objective" view, substantiated by quotations from the press, argues for the following. Language change is a *normal phenomenon*. Language *lives, pulsates, grows in accordance with its intrinsic laws*. It alternately goes through phases of *active development* and *stability*. Every language has its *will and destiny, body and breath. Something is constantly being born within it, other features are dying out* and new elements are brought in, which may or may not *strike root*. Language may *fall ill, having contracted a disease* (foreign borrowings), but it should *heal itself*. Language may *die* but normally succeeds in *coping with the disease* by assimilating some new traits and rejecting others.

On the whole, the above quotations contribute to the vision of language as an independent entity capable of withstanding the impact of the environment. Changes are natural and inevitable, driven by the language's internal development and as well as external factors. The "subjective" approach to the problem of language change looks somewhat inconsistent. Most authors believe that any change is disastrous, particularly if caused by foreign *cultural and linguistic expansion*. This expansion resulting in an *influx of loanwords* (mainly English ones) is conceptualized as an *enemy*. *The language is oppressed, suffers and should be rescued. Philologists raise the alarm, do their best to prevent the corruption and total destruction of language*. At the same time, some authors try to identify *good and bad changes*. The former are said to be driven by natural forces of language evolution while the latter are deliberately imposed on language and eventually lead to its *degradation*. All attempts to provide a theoretical justification for this division bound to fail, an oversimplified formula is adopted which proclaims that any borrowing is bad. Notwithstanding minor variation, this picture is totally different from the one outlined earlier. Here, language is seen as a weak and passive being, subject to aggression from outside, unable to resist it, and, hence, requiring protection by authorities and professional communities of the countries in question. A well-known opposition "us – them" is introduced into discourse bringing about the concepts of conflict and struggle, triggering value judgments and in general making it highly emotional.

Drawing on the fundamental cognitive-linguistics thesis about the essential link between language and cognition, which makes it possible to view linguistic data as a central

source of our knowledge about human thought<sup>22</sup>, one may conclude that the two visions of language (the "objective" and "subjective" ones) are indicative of the way the current linguistic processes are conceived of by the society. Discourse analysis combined with the conceptual metaphor theory thus help reveal social attitudes towards language change. One may note that the co-existence of these basic visions of the same phenomenon is not exclusively bound to language change. In my earlier papers (see Скребцова, 2003, 2007), I have pointed out to a similar ambiguity with respect to globalization and labour migration. This is by no means accidental. Novel social phenomena more often than not induce diverse reactions and give rise to different conceptualizations. Which one of them is selected depends on the author's personal stand and communicative intent. Thus, the "objective", unbiased, approach to language change (as well as globalization, or labour migration) presents it as a natural and inevitable process, whereas the "subjective" view, marked by an overtly negative attitude, inextricably links with the idea of external "enemy", English borrowings that are forced upon the language at hand. Out of a wide range of available conceptualizations, the author intuitively selects the one which fits his values and buttresses arguments. His ideology can be easily reconstructed by the linguistic analysis of discourse.

There is, however, a singular feature which distinguishes our case from those of globalization and labour migration. In discussing language change, all the authors, whatever their attitude may be, rely on the same ORGANISM metaphorical model, variation affecting solely certain aspects of the source domain. This is not the case with globalization and labour migration. What can this difference be attributed to?

As far as the history of linguistics is concerned, the metaphor of language as a living organism can be traced back as far as the early comparative studies at the beginning of the XIX century (by Jacob Grimm, in particular). Later, this metaphor informed the works of August Schleicher, the founder of the so-called linguistic naturalism, being the cornerstone of his conception of language, elaborated under the influence of Charles Darwin's evolutionary theory. Although in the XX century other means of conceptualizing language were proposed (level structure in structural theories, generating device in Chomsky's grammar), the biological metaphor has persisted and once again become quite popular due to the cognitive studies, bio-and ecolinguistics<sup>23</sup>. In Ronald Langacker's words, biology provides

"a better metaphor for linguistic research than the formal sciences" and "in general a language is more accurately likened to a biological organism" (Langacker, 1988: 4).

<sup>22</sup> Cf. Fauconnier, 1999: 96: "...language is [...] for the linguist and cognitive scientist a window into the mind".

<sup>23</sup> Cf. Skrebtsova, 2012.

Naturally, one should not overrate the impact of academic texts on the mass media and everyday discourse. Nevertheless, our data has shown that even the lay persons have an idea of living and dead languages. It may well be that it acts as a trigger mechanism activating the biological metaphor when current language problems are discussed, and next the source domain (living organism) fills up and structures the target domain (language) maintaining the former's cognitive topology<sup>24</sup>. An alternative account is that personification metaphor is just such a common means of conceiving non-living things and abstract entities in general that no further explanation is needed.

## References

- Fauconnier, G.* Methods and generalizations. *In: T. Janssen, G. Redeker (eds.). Cognitive Linguistics: foundations, scope, and methodology.* The Hague: Mouton de Gruyter, 1999. 95–128.
- Lakoff, G.* The Invariance hypothesis: is abstract reason based on image-schemas? *In: Cognitive Linguistics*, 1, 1990. 39–74.
- Lakoff, G., Johnson, M.* *Metaphors we live by.* Chicago, 1980.
- Langacker, R. W.* An overview of cognitive grammar. *In: B. Rudzka-Ostyn (ed.). Topics in Cognitive Linguistics.* Amsterdam; Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 1988. 3–48.
- Баранов, А. Н.* О типах сочетаемости метафорических моделей. *In: Вопросы языкознания*, 2, 2003. 73–94.
- Скребцова, Т. Г.* Наивные картины глобализации: взгляд лингвиста. *In: Respectus Philologicus*, 4, 2003. 73–79.
- Скребцова, Т. Г.* Образ мигранта в современных российских СМИ. *In: Политическая лингвистика*, 23, 2007. 115–118.
- Скребцова, Т. Г.* Метафора языка-организма в современной лингвистике. *In: Varietas delectans.* Saint-Petersburg: Nestor-Istorija, 2012. 447–456.

<sup>24</sup> Cf. *Lakoff, 1990.*

Alla Kozhinova

## Worldview in ancient Slavic discourse: Introversion in ancient discoursesn

*(translated from Russian by Maria Soloviova)*

The allegation that the basis of every discourse is a conceptual image of the world, does not need to be proved. It is usually assumed that in the minds of all people there are a number of such images that are used in specific situations. The character of such models, their number and ways of using them depend on the person, the environment and the conditions in which they exists and a big role is played by a particular historical epoch. It can be assumed that the image of the world, which is created on the basis of discourse, can be removed from reality to a greater or lesser extent. The depth of this remoteness is influenced not only by the actual conditions of human activity, but also by the rules imposed on it, immanent, and often explicated in specialized manuals, as well as the laws of discourse construction and the reflection of reality in discourse.

The question connected with the problem of the presence of reality in the picture of the world which lays the basis for the creation of discourse is very important. I think that discourse analysis, in contrast to text analysis, is connected with the research of the unit of the highest language level in terms of its extralinguistic functioning links with reality and with the possibility of a reverse effect on the reflection of reality (*Analiza, 2009: 356*).

Such an image of the world is not homogeneous, but it is an indefinite set, the units of which are concepts. The concepts interact, combine and are contrasted, thus being combined into a single unit with the boundaries open to the acceptance of new concepts. The main source of concepts is, above all, human activity. On the one hand, this activity is directed at the existence of human beings in the world around them and the arrangement of the world. On the other hand, it is speech activity, one of the most important tasks of which is the improvement of human consciousness. Common to both of these activities is probably human communication, which implies the use of signs.

Thus, the system of concepts that structures human consciousness and determines people's outlook, and, ultimately, the image of the world, is built on the one hand, under the pressure of reality texts, products of human work in the world as people start their lives not with independent creation, but by mastering the existing achievements. Gradually, people get included in the process of interaction with reality, using the system of concepts, which they developed, and it does not only convert (or tries to convert) reality, but also corrects people's consciousness.

On the other hand, concepts are formed by means of verbal discourse. While speaking about the participation of language in the construction of mental structures, it should be noted that language penetrates the consciousness of people only in the form of voice products. If we talk about the other side of the formation of an image of the world in more detail, the information penetrating this way, would be at least of two kinds. Firstly, this is atomic information imparted by elementary lexical and grammatical meanings. Secondly, it is the full meaning of the discourse deduced from the meaning of individual lexemes, a ready-made model of reality, created by another human consciousness and often unknown to the consciousness of the recipient.

“One of the aspects of text influence on language is that certain pieces of iconic texts or even whole texts are directly reflected in new texts produced with a conscious or unconscious idea that they will improve the way of communicating ideas in the produced text and will facilitate its adequate understanding and greater efficiency. This seems related to the fact that a particular usage of a prepared text does not only reproduce the exact wording and is familiar, reminiscent of an existing image. It also establishes a certain relationship with the preceding text produced, that is, turns it into a vertical language context universe in the verbal world, which is created and the language in which we live» (Супрун, 1995).

The image of the world created in this way, has the opposite effect on the structures that have generated it. Setting communication with their own kind, people make their own discourses, where learned meanings are inevitably transformed, and these trope meanings either submit to the regulation of a language code or are seen as deviations from it, dictated ad hoc. The deviations from a linguistic code make changes to the language code itself, which begins a reverse impact on the system of concepts.

Therefore, a comprehensive image of the world in human consciousness develops at the expense of factual as well as ideal reality, concentrating in human consciousness mainly under the influence of discourses. This image of the world is divided into a certain number of areas, where human behavior defines a single, more or less independent, virtual image of the world. We can assume that some of these images will be stored under the predominant influence of reality, while others, on the contrary, will be based on foreign discourse, illusory reality and the ideal system of linguistic semantics.

Discourse produced by people can be divided into two types. The first can be defined as an extralinguistic type as the underlying image of the world is based on the information coming mainly from reality. An example of such absolutisation of world image creation underlying literary discourse is literature based on the principles of positivism and thriving

in Europe and America in the second half of the 20th century. It is difficult to judge how this principle of construction of discourse has the right to exist:

«There are few ideological conceptions in the history of human society, as hostile to the very foundations of art as positivism, with its rejection of imagination, a denial of any ideals, vulgar materialism and flat utilitarianism» (Бернштейн, 1991).

Another example of the inevitability of discursive constructions, based on the extroverted image of the world is modern journalistic discourse, promptly reacting to any changes in the surrounding reality. It is at the analysis of this kind of product that the efforts of T.A. van Dijk and his school aimed at (Dijk, 1997: 2002).

The second type of discourse can be defined as introverted because the reality that surrounds human beings, who created it, has no significant effect on the formation of the image of the world, and all the concepts that form the image are influenced by the experience of others. Of course, in most cases we are dealing with the discourses of a mixed type, in which the interaction of real and imaginary information is supplemented by the contribution of the generating consciousness, bringing in manufactured discourse and its own view of the world. Thus, the mixed nature is characteristic of large models of consciousness, in the construction of which researchers seek to present the worldview not only of an individual, but also of the whole society, a worldview, defining all or at least most of the aspects of life. This universal character is characteristic of, for example, the model of the world in the concept of V.V. Ivanov and V.N. Toporov, their school and followers (see Иванов, Топоров, 1974; Цивьян, 1990). However, this model is created in the analysis of diverse texts, and using it can create a variety of texts, each of which, to a greater or lesser extent, will belong to one of the types described above, and which, accordingly, will find a unified model in many private virtual images of the world.

When embarking on the construction of the image of the world, which is the basis of any discourse, it is necessary to determine:

- 1) what were the laws of its construction;
- 2) whether the discourse considered corresponds to these laws. In every era, as we know, there can be found works, which violate certain laws, but fit perfectly the principles of another historical period.

Considering ancient Slavic discourse, at least in its variety created in Church Slavonic language, it is advisable to start with the works of Cyril of Turov. All researchers of his work, beginning with K. Kalaidovich, who discovered the creation of Turov bishop for new literature, or rather, literary criticism, agree that they are very typical of his era.

A proof of this is that the works of Cyril of Turov were readily copied and distributed (see the enumeration of lists and editions by which I.P. Eremin (Еремин, 1955) accompanied the publication of the literary heritage of Cyril of Turov), as well as research by T.A. Alexeeva (Алексеева, 1976). Secondly, in favor of the popularity of Cyril of Turov, and hence conformity of his works and literary tastes to the era and the literary principles, supported by the fact that he is, on the one hand, attributed the authorship of the works by other authors, but, on the other hand, his own works could be ascribed to another preacher (Истрин, 1922: 248).

The popularity of the works by Bishop of Turov, which led to their widespread use and reproduction, creates additional difficulties for a text researcher. However, to solve the problem of constructing an image of the world, such popularity, and hence the general acceptability, typicality of works by Cyril of Turov provides additional benefits as they are able to be extrapolated as a model on the majority of the literary works of the time and quite reliably represent the structure of consciousness, underlying them. Of course, such a model is just one of many possible ones – it has been written above about the multiplicity of structures by which people tried to subdue reality.

Despite the fact that as a result of the study only one of the possible cognitive models can be obtained (cf Umberto Eco's remark that «the text can be» tasted «on only one of their substantive level» (Eco, 1979: 354)), it is not the consciousness of the individual, but the collective consciousness of that era. The collective nature of medieval art was mentioned not once. It was noted that the author's name in the title of the medieval works indicates «not authorship, but authority, it is not about who expressed their individuality in the text, but who vouched for the quality of the text» (Аверинцев, 1988).

Links to Cyril as the author of the text were frequent, therefore, his authority was high, and many of the writers and readers identified him with his model of the world. Thus, the resulting construct studies can claim to be a universal representation of medieval Slavic-Russian consciousness. In particular, the fact that some lists of Cyril of Turov's works date back to the 18th century suggests that this model of consciousness lasted long enough. Moreover, E. Golubinsky considered it acceptable for contemporary religious consciousness:

«The words of Cyril of Turov [...] represent exactly the same oratorical works as words of our contemporary learned preachers. If we translate them into Russian and say that they belong to such and such a modern preacher, will this not mislead even the most refined connoisseur?» (Голубинский, 1901).

The versatility of the works of Cyril is explained by his imitation of Byzantine models. In the first critical studies written in the 19th century, it was regarded as one of the biggest

shortcomings of his works, which made his works confusing for a congregation. For example, see the following statements:

«The Byzantine influence did not support artistic aspirations, did not contribute to the literary development of the nation» (Сухомлинов, 1858);

«[...] a tendency to rhetorical ornaments in a preacher and a desire to give allegorical interpretations make them [the words and teachings – A.K.] artificial and florid and difficult to understand» (Порфирьев, 1891).

The latest criticism softened assessment by looking at the works of medieval literature differently. In recent studies, the educational level of the people of the time is estimated quite differently:

«The widespread use of words and images in the works of st. Cyril of Turov, associated with his desire for poetic allegory of Scripture, presupposes a fairly high level of theological and literary education not only for him, which underlined his ancient biography, but also for the readers of his works» (Наумов, 1993).

It was also pointed to the special nature of borrowings into the works of ancient scribes:

«It is hardly justified in relation to medieval authors to speak about the use of 'somebody else's text'. It may be correct to discuss the use of 'a traditional text' in a traditional text, for example, by St. Cyril» (Двинятин, 1995).

The abundance of Biblical quotations in prayer by Bishop Cyril did not make the prayer unacceptable to residents of Turov of the 12th century, on the contrary,

«daring to speak with God, the man grabs the safest way – to talk to him in his own words, calling for help already disclosed images, actions, words and trying to adjust them to oneself» (Naumow, 1998).

The presence of patterns and schemes was considered a mandatory feature of medieval literature (Лихачев, 1979). A. Orlov wrote:

«Russian book culture is decomposed into a series of templates ... their component features were diverted in a number of specific compositions from reality, but it was still a culture that preceded the Middle Ages, but in Russia these traits were used as purely bookish» (Орлов, 1931).

Thus, it is recognized that the Bishop of Turov was not a mechanical imitator of Byzantine models. On the contrary, the presence in his discourses of dialogic references to the works of great predecessors is a necessary feature that characterizes the literature of the time.

Ways of forming a model for the Old Slavonic scribe were quite complex. It was created based on the templates and patterns similar to those used by his predecessors, at least since the 4th century. This model defines not only the internal conceptual fullness, but also external compositional rules. It was that model that determined the world to be explicated in the text.

However, the pattern was not given to the scribe in a finished form:

«one is stricken by an almost complete absence of rhetorical manuals» (Лунде, 1995).

The basic model is the creation of the text as a source. At the same time someone else's text determined not only the contents, but also deep linguistic characteristics of the works created, including morphological and syntactic structures (Живов, 1995). Of course, the model of the world, created on the basis of other people's texts, separated from the creator of the model for more than seven centuries, has been little linked with reality. This distance could also be increased by the fact that many texts were perceived in a foreign language and provide substantive and formal structures of a foreign language - there is evidence that Cyril of Turov read and translated from Greek (Tschizewskij, 1948).

It was not only Bishop of Turov's discourse that experienced great influence of other authors' works. All the medieval texts, regardless of their genre, were affected at different levels.

Just like Ciril of Turov, an author of discourse could be inspired by the Scriptures or works by the Byzantine Church fathers. Thus, Vladimir Monomakh wrote in his «Instruction» that «he picked out words here and there, and put them in order. And after this short introduction in «Instruction» we find a vast collection of quotations from Psalms and other books» (Лихачев, 1986: 406). Moreover, in the case where it was necessary to present the greatness of God's economy, the beauty of the world that seemingly everyone can witness with their own eyes, Monomakh refers to «Hexaemeron» John Exarch of Bulgaria (Лихачев, 1986: 137). Such borrowed fragments so organically fit into the fabric of discourse that researchers of new epochs often took them for original creation. For example, a researcher of ancient Russian literature A.V.Solovyov in the «Tale of the Ruin of the Russian Land» considered a description «Northern lake landscape strip» (Соловьев, 1958) as an original piece insert, which is related to «Hexaemeron», which itself was based on theological and polemical essays by Church Fathers of the 2nd-5th centuries. This was the case when timeless reality, eternal and unchanging was described in the text.

In many cases, the creators of medieval discourse had no other choice but to use the existing written source or an oral tradition since the time of the event and the time of discourse creation could be separated by an interval of several centuries. This can be demonstrated by the example of the diverse hagiographic literature:

«There are a number of hagiographies, whose plot is completely determined by ancient myths, such as the well-known lives of George and Feodora Stratilat, basically representing the myth of the dragon fighter. Hagiographies are rough interpretations of ancient novels. For example, the hagiography of Galaktioni and Epistimia is a bad remake of the novel by Achilles Tatius. In this case, even the names of characters in both the hagiography and the novel are the same» (Еремин, Скрипиль, 1941).

The inability to create a life of «hot pursuit» and, therefore, to use the latest information, is observed in the case of a discourses devoted to own Russian saints, because their cult was not created on the spot. Thus, «The Tale of Boris and Gleb,» the most interesting literary monument of the series of works about the murder in 1015 of Vladimir's sons is supposed being written after 1115 (Словарь... Вып.1, 1987: 404). It is likely to have arisen after the transfer of the relics and canonization, that is, one hundred years after the events described in it, hence its anonymous author was also forced to use someone else's discourse – a chronicle story or oral legend.

Even if there are no direct quotations from other people's works in the discourse, their structure could be borrowed. V.V. Kolesov, speaking about the creation of a literary language and literary notes that the normalizing factor in such conditions was a configuration brought from outside and developed its samples in a literary text, and gives examples of structural borrowing in the legend about the death of Oleg from the Gospel parable (Колесов, 1989: 11, 28).

As the discourse of a medieval scribe was predetermined by the preceding literary experience, there followed another characteristic of the Bishop of Turov's works, outrageous for researchers in times of critical realism – namely, a complete lack of connection with reality of Cyril's time. P.N. Polevoy wrote:

«[...] our preachers began to lag behind Russian reality, yielding too much to copying Byzantine samples. How pleasantly we were amazed by extreme simplicity and naturalness of presentation in sermons by Theodosius of the Caves and their close connection to the folk life! We are just as alienated from Cyril's eloquence - pompous, florid, flooded with similes, allegories, symbolism, and allegories...» (Полевой, 1903).

It seems, however, strange that works with such drawbacks were so readily copied and widely distributed, while preachings by Theodosius of the Caves were not popular.

It appears that the answer to this question has been found in modern investigations. Modern scholars acknowledge that the works by Cyril of Turov do not need either reprimand or justification:

“medieval texts, including liturgical ones, cannot be measured either within literary or religious and pedagogical scope of new times” (Scholz, 1987).

The appropriateness and, what is more, necessity of the features in the works by Cyril of Turov, which were earlier identified as his shortcomings, have been proved:

«Cyril of Turov believed that chroniclers and song authors listen to the stories of ordinary people in order to retell them later in “elegant speech” and “to glorify with praise” [...] A notion of adornment as a sign required for art to be perceived as art will be intrinsic to many historically early artistic methods” (Лотман, 1964).

Indeed, even in a personal diary known as “Journey Beyond Three Seas” (which is free from the canons and traditions of ancient Russian church official or secular literature) Athanasius Nikitin is immersed at least in one fragment into a fantastic reality. He tells the story of a bird “gukuk” emitting fire and of a monkey king sending a multiple host against his enemies (Словарь... Вып. 2, 1987). Nevertheless, it is again unknown, how much credible could be other details described in “Journey” since Athanasius Nikitin existed exactly in the context of the above-mentioned “historically early artistic method”. In the discourse created according to the rules of its paradigm reality, it does not play the same role that we see in the modern discourse. Such details are often referred to as “elements of realism”. At the same time, it is essential, that in modern literature these realistic elements are means to reproduce a real life, while in antiquity “plot details” are not more than means to create an “illusion of reality”, as soon as it may narrate a story about a legendary event and a miracle. Otherwise, it is the case, which the author describes as really existing though it might be not (Творогов, 1980).

Researchers recreating the wonderful scenery of wild steppe based on “The Lay of the Host of Igor” do not take into account the fact that it is “a figment of our imagination”, acting under the influence of the need brought up by modern literature to “see” what is described in a literary work (Лихачев, 1986: 227). It is also noted that a “historian” descriptor always has a freedom of conjecture at different levels of the text, and it is important and desirable to be aware that the degree of such freedom must be known to the descriptor himself, and that the degree is different in different epochs and in different cultures (Топоров, 1996).

At the same time, the freedom of conjecture occurs even when citing the Holy Writ passages. For example, in sermons it could be completely unimportant whether a citation actually corresponds to the text of the original source. For example, in Cyril of Turov's works we come across (Еремин, 1958):

“Моисий таково пиша: И сотвори Богъ пятью день всю тварь видимую, елико на земли и елико на небеси”.

In this case, we deal with an inaccurate citation from the Book of Genesis, Ch. 1. It is inaccurate, both in form and in content. By the end of the fifth day appeared aquatics and air. God created «beast of the earth after his kind» on the sixth day. In some cases, the source may be listed incorrectly. For example, in Turov's «The Lay of the Blind Man» the following snippet is given with reference to Jeremiah:

“Се Богъ нашъ на земли явился и съ чловѣкы поживе, и всидѣржащеися понь живуть, и оставльше его умрутъ”.

In fact it is Baruch 3.36.38 and 4, 1. This suggests that the fragments of the divine texts in these discourses serve a more important function than creation of another reality – they appear to be the sign of address to an authority, thus creating the halo of verity around the text.

Thus, ancient Slavic discourse, at least the one created in Slavic orthodox countries, can be defined as a discourse of introverted type. It is based on an image of a special kind - maximally remote from the reality contemporary to the author and formed, primarily, based on foreign texts. A major role in shaping the image of the world, of course, plays the reality of the Scriptures and the works by the Church Fathers, but it would be an oversimplification to reduce this conceptual model to a mechanical reflection of the Bible or any other discourse. The introverted image of the world is not determined by a particular discourse and does not reflect it with photographic accuracy; it is only formed under the influence of someone else's reality, creatively or wrongly processed by the author's own consciousness.

## References

- Dijk, T. A. van. Discourse and racism. *In: The Blackwell Companion to Racial and Ethnic Studies*. Blackwell, Oxford, 2002. 145–159.
- Dijk, T. A. van. The study of discourse. *In: Discourse as structure and process. Discourse studies: a multidisciplinary introduction*, 1. London, New Delhi: Sage Publications, 1997. 1–35.
- Eco, U. A theory of semiotics. Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1979.
- Scholz, F. Studien zu der Gebeten Kirills von Turov. Die angelologischen Vorstellungen in ihrem Verhaltnis zur Tradition und Versuch einer Gattungsbestimmung. *In: Studiaslavica et baltica*. Band 8. Sprache und Literatur Altrusslands. Aufsatzsammlung. Munster: Aschendorff, 1987. 167–220.
- Tschizewskij, D. Die Zeit der Teilfürstentümer. Predigt. *In: Tschizewskij, D. Geschichte der altrussischen Literatur im 11, 12. und 13 Jahrhundert*. Frankfurt am Main: Vittorio Klostermann, 1948. 243–257.
- Analiza dyskursu w socjologii i dla socjologii. Warszawa: Marszałek, 2009.
- Naumow, A. Biblijny budulec modlitw sw. Cyryla biskupa Turowa. *In: Biblia w literaturze i folklorze narodow wschodnioslowianskich*. Krakow, 1998. 73–78.

- Аверинцев, С. С.* Проблема индивидуального стиля в античной и византийской риторической теории. *In: Литература и искусство в системе культуры.* М.: Наука, 1988. 23–29.
- Алексеева, Т. А.* Сборники постоянного и варьирующегося состава со «Словами» Кирилла Туровского. *In: Метод. рекомендации по описанию слав.-рус. рукописей для Сводного каталога рукописей, хранящихся в СССР, 2. Ч. 1.* М.: Ин-т истории СССР, 1976. 236–247.
- Бернштейн, И. А.* Введение: [Литературы Западной Европы второй половины XIX в.]. *In: История всемирной литературы, 7.* М.: Наука, 1991. 232–252.
- Голубинский, Е. Е.* История русской церкви. М.: Универ. типография, 1901. Т. 1: Период первый. Киевский или домонгольский.
- Двинятин, Ф. Н.* Традиционный текст в торжественных словах Кирилла Туровского. *In: Герменевтика древнерусской литературы. Сб. 8.* М.: Наследие, 1995. 81–101.
- Еремин, И. П.* Литературное наследие Кирилла Туровского. *In: ТОДРЛ. Т. 11, 1955.* 342–367.
- Еремин, И. П.* Литературное наследие Кирилла Туровского. *In: ТОДРЛ. Т. 15, 1958.* 331–348.
- Еремин, И. П., Скрипиль, М. О.* Житийная литература [в переводах XI– начала XIII века]. *In: История русской литературы: в 10 т. Т. I. Литература XI – начала XIII века.* М-Л: Изд-во АН СССР, 1941. 87–113.
- Живов, В. М.* Ursus scribendi. Простые претериты у летописца самоучки. *In: Russian linguistics. Т. 19, 1995.* 45–75.
- Иванов, В. В., Топоров, В. Н.* Исследования в области славянских древностей. М.: Наука, 1974.
- Истрин, В. М.* Очерк истории древнерусской литературы. Пг.: Наука и школа, 1922.
- Колесов, В. В.* Древнерусский литературный язык. Л.: Изд. Ленингр. ун-та, 1989.
- Лихачев, Д. С.* Исследования по древнерусской литературе. Л.: Наука, Ленингр. отд-ние, 1986.
- Лихачев, Д. С.* Поэтика древнерусской литературы. М.: Наука, 1979.
- Лотман, Ю. М.* Лекция по структуральной поэтике. Вып. 1: Введение, теория стиха. *In: Учен. зап. Тарт. гос. ун-та, 16, 1964.*
- Лунде, И.* Риторика и проблема жанра. *In: Scandoslavica. Т. 41, 1995.* 131–144.
- Наумов, А. Е.* Св. Кирилл Туровский и Священное писание. *In: Philologia Slavica. К 70-летию Н.И. Толстого.* М.: Наука, 1993. 114–124.
- Орлов, А. С.* К изучению средневековья в русской литературе. *In: Памяти П. Сакулина.* М.: Никитинские субботники, 1931. 186–194.
- Полевой, П. Н.* История русской словесности с древнейших времен до наших дней. СПб.: Изд-во А.Ф. Маркса, 1903. Т. 1.
- Порфирьев, И.* История русской словесности. Ч. 1. Древнейший период. Казань: Тип. Импер. ун-та, 1891.
- Словарь книжников и книжности Древней Руси. Вып. 1. (XI – первая пол. XIV века) Л.: Наука. Ленингр. отд-ние, 1987.

- Словарь книжников и книжности Древней Руси, 2. Ч. 1. (вторая половина XIV в. – XVI в.) Л.: Наука. Ленингр. отд-ние, 1987.
- Соловьев, А. В.* Заметки к слову о гибели Русских земли. *In: ТОДРЛ. 1958. Т. 15.* 79–80.
- Супрун, А. Е.* Текстовые реминисценции как языковое явление. *In: Вопр. языкознания, #6, 1995.* 17–30.
- Сухомятинов, М. И.* О сочинениях Кирилла Туровского. *In: Рукописи графа А. С. Уварова.* СПб.: Тип. Импер. Акад. наук, 1858. Т. 2. С. VII–XXII, 1–149.
- Творогов, О. В.* Литература Киевской Руси X – начало XII века. *In: История русской литературы: в 4 т. Т. 1. Древнерусская литература. Литература XVIII века.* Л.: Наука. Ленингр. отд-ние, 1980. 19–61.
- Топоров, В. Н.* Страничка из истории Новгорода (к ранним русско-итальянским встречам). *In: Русистика. Славистика. Индоевропеистика: сб. к 60-летию А. А. Зализняка.* М.: Индрик, 1996. 11–28.
- Цивьян, Т. В.* Лингвистические основы балканской модели мира. М.: Наука, 1990.

Ladislav Janovec

## Political (and) electoral anti-campaign

Analyses of political discourse are quite popular in Czech humanistic studies. For example, Světa Čmejrková (1999, 2000, 2005, Čmejrková – Hoffmannová, 2003) who also initiated creation of an archive database and a database of political debates in the Institute of Czech Language has been focusing on long-term political debates, but so have her co-workers and other linguists, e.g. L. Hašová (2002), K. Karhanová (2005), A. Krausová (2001), J. Hoffmannová (2007) and others. However, their attention has been mainly drawn to media images of politicians or political cases, to political debates and discussion shows, speeches and the like. Different aspects of political discourse, which do not seem to be central or which are exposed only during certain times, remain out of the spotlight.

### 1. Elections and legislation

Regarding studies of political discourse, it is worthwhile to focus on current and short-term discursive sequences, which constitute an integral part of political culture; they predetermine and shape it. In a democratic society, such sequences are represented by elections. Elections are defined as the main mechanism for representative democracy, with the help of which citizens choose their governing politicians, and participate in the functioning of their country<sup>25</sup>. It is participation in the country's future, and the sense of responsibility towards it, which lead many people of voting age (in the Czech Republic,

<sup>25</sup> <https://cs.wikipedia.org/wiki/Volby>

the minimum age for participating in elections is 18) to greatly appreciate elections. Free elections currently form part of the cultural and social values acknowledged by most Czech Republic citizens, even those, who choose not to vote. This fact is contributed to not only by memories (whether personal or mediated) of elections during the socialist era, but also by general dissatisfaction with politics in the country<sup>26</sup>, and by the impact of other factors, which strengthen electoral morale and sense of civic duty<sup>27</sup>.

Elections and their progress in the Czech Republic are specified by five election laws<sup>28</sup>. From the discursive perspective, they are devoted not only to the act of election itself, they form a broad set of texts focusing on accompanying events – whether announcements of elections, election debates, analyses, programmes of political parties, political journalistic texts in newspapers, or on election results and statistical reports published after elections, interviews with successful and unsuccessful candidates or party leaders, negotiations of coalitions, public reaction and so on.

## 2. The political and pre-election campaign

We focus our attention mainly on political and pre-election campaigns of the parties and candidates, which is spread primarily through the media.

A political pre-election campaign can be understood as an organised effort of politicians and political parties to convince voters to support their candidacy, or their programme, in the upcoming elections.

### 2.1 The tradition of pre-election campaigns

Current political campaigning in the Czech Republic started its tradition in 1990, when, in June, the first post-socialist elections were held<sup>29</sup>. During these, the interest of the public and seats in the former Federal Assembly were sought by an unbelievable, and until then unimaginable number of 16 parties and movements, and by 13 in the election for the Czech National Council. At the same time, political power struggles emerged in the form of TV spots, leaflets, posters and informational brochures. Emblematic symbols

of the parties appeared, whose number grew in the course of the subsequent elections; they stabilised in form, some even changed over time (cherries as a symbol of the Communist Party, blue flying bird for ODS Party, red roses for ČSSD, later schematised into an orange-white version, ace of diamonds for the Friends of Beer Party<sup>30</sup>).

An important part in shaping the consciousness of the parties was played by TV spots, and the first political debates. In his text devoted to the characteristics of television political debates, M. Poprawa<sup>31</sup> points out that in these broadcasts, one can perfectly explore how the subjects' consciousness of social communication shapes, transforms and strengthens, since for the purposes of the discourse analysis, the texts reflect the linguistic units exposed in political discourse of the time period. The spots, in which a party must present what is perhaps the core thesis of their programme, and use the most effective persuasive strategy within a very limited space, are also significant in a similar manner.

Most parties and movements gave a higher profile to showing their main representatives (the effort to have the voters fix their faces) or popular members, who, mostly in a quite sovereign, proud and combative manner recited the basic slogan of their election campaign – *bude nás slyšet; bude nás vidět*<sup>32</sup> etc., by which they tried to present their future orientation, to create political personalities and reinforce a specific direction of the electoral culture.

Several parties, however, chose a different strategy. These were mainly the Friends of Beer Party, the Czechoslovak Social Democratic Party or the movement *Együttélés-Spolužitie*, but also the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia. Unlike most other parties, they also promoted the impersonal visual component of their campaign, which helped a better fixation in the consciousness of people during the stage of political ambivalence and grouping.

The Friends of Beer Party depicted a pub atmosphere, trying to «tempt» men and young people with their spots – beer being poured into glasses, room with wooden tables with pretty women in miniskirts, and beer drinking by the main protagonists of the campaign.

Another type of pub atmosphere was evoked by the spot of the Czechoslovak Social Democratic Party. The spot was not a feature-type, but drawn as a comic story; various camera shots were devoted to individual images – a few men sitting at a table in the pub, drinking beer and playing blackjack. The campaign utilised the link between the basic combinations of cards, which the player must hold in order to achieve the count of twenty-one, and the serial number of the party (twenty-one).

<sup>26</sup> In this context, generally, the label "bad mood" returns periodically, which represents the disillusionment of common citizens with the political situation and with the development in the country

<sup>27</sup> Participation in the elections is voluntary in the Czech Republic. In general, it usually is not regarded as very high; for example, according to data from the Czech Statistical Office, the turn-out rate during the elections for the Assembly of Deputies was 76.41% in 1996 and, in 2013, only 59.48% of all citizens with the right to vote (cf. <http://www.volby.cz>). For this reason, after the latest (and the first direct) presidential elections, the current president M. Zeman suggested the participation in elections ought to be mandatory. The right not to go to the polls would be replaced by "the right to abstain from voting" (eg. by dropping off invalid ballots or empty envelopes).

<sup>28</sup> Act No. 247/1995 Coll., On Elections to the Parliament of the Czech Republic and on Amending and Supplementing Certain Other Laws; Act No. 130/2000 Coll., on Regional Council Elections and on Amending of Certain Other Laws; Act No. 491/2001 Coll., on Elections to Representative Bodies of Municipalities and on Amending of Certain Other Laws; Act No. 62/2003 Coll., On European Parliament Elections and on Amending of Certain Other Laws; Act No. 275/2012 Coll., On Presidential Elections and on Amendments of Certain Other Laws (The Presidential Elections) – see eg. [https://cs.wikipedia.org/wiki/volební\\_zákon](https://cs.wikipedia.org/wiki/volební_zákon).

<sup>29</sup> We do not take into account the very specific presidential election in December 1989.

<sup>30</sup> Friends of Beer Party was mostly a humorous group, which later disappeared, some of its supporters founded the magazine *Sorry*.

<sup>31</sup> Poprawa, Martin *Političeskye teledebaty*. In *La Table Ronde*, No. 1, Minsk: Izdatelskiy centr BGU, 2010, pp. 27-28.

<sup>32</sup> We will be heard; we will be seen – TN

The entire spot was tinged with simple music and singing – *jednadvacet, jednadvacet, jedem dále, jednadvacet, jednadvacet, kdo kuráž má, ten vyhrává*<sup>33</sup>. In this campaign, the colourfulness, comic style and musical aspect of the spot, but also a sort of humour and novelty, can be identified as strongly persuasive (these factors also influenced a lot of voters) and innovative in terms of contemporary discourse. The party also used depictions resembling a children's comic book, or a naive drawing, in the following elections, when Party mascot Socánek (Figure 1) was created for the purposes of the campaign.



Figure 1

The Communist Party tried to convince their audience by an intro jingle, the spot showed a cherry tree and its “life” cycle from autumn to summer, when the cherries, the main symbol of the party, ripen. This was a distinctive and recognisable symbol (not a logo, cherries did not become a Communist Party logo until later), which at that time, political parties did not usually have yet, except for the Friends of Beer Party (the ace of diamonds – in the spirit of the pub atmosphere) and the movement Občanské fórum (Civic Forum) – the coloured abbreviation OF, in which the “O” was made a simple child’s drawing of a smiling face.

The movement *Együttélés-Spolužitie* tried to evoke values that society understands to be essential – family, especially children, peace, happiness, nature. The clip showed a mother playing with her baby in a meadow, picking petals off white daisies and with each petal they both uttered the word «cohabitation» in one of the languages of the majority society, but also of ethnic minorities in the then Czechoslovakia; gradually the words appeared in graphics. The seduction thus took place in a quiet (peaceful) atmosphere, showing a happy family and an altered version of the children's game *He loves me, he loves me not* (which, at least in our culture of that time, probably everyone knew from their childhood years).

<sup>33</sup> Twenty-one, twenty-one, let's go, twenty-one, twenty-one, he wins who has the courage – TN

## 2.2 Changing of campaigns

During subsequent years, the focus of electoral campaigns broadened – with penetration of billboards and mega boards into the Czech Republic, ads also emerged, as well as various political meetings, gatherings and street events, often complemented by a charitable, cultural or sports programme. Recently, so-called new media have also been included in election campaigns; during the latest election, these were particularly the social networks, such as Facebook, Twitter or Instagram, which are definitely the most popular ones in the Czech Republic. Also, blogs and vlogs have considerable weight in electoral political discourse.

It is difficult to generalise what is included in electoral campaigns. Basically, it pertains to all activities intended to influence voters in an upcoming election, while the agitating texts may start to appear long before the election itself.

Likewise, at the turn of 2005 and 2006, an election billboard appeared with the slogan *Do ODS svěží vánek přines Míra Topolánek*<sup>34</sup>, accompanied by wishes for a successful new year. The fact that the ODS election campaign started was quite obvious: M. Topolánek became the new leader of the party, which at the time was undergoing one of its many crises. He was meant to represent the “younger” generation of politicians, to suggest a new direction and modernisation of the party. ODS, a political party that was created after the dissolution of the original movement Civic Forum<sup>35</sup> began to struggle with the outdated conservatism of its founders, and the long-term influence of V. Klaus. The success of this step was ambiguous – M. Topolánek won the election, but the government of ODS was not successful, and failed to stop the growing unpopularity of the party and his personality. In addition, the leader himself harmed the party by his media image, based on his excessive folksy, almost yokelish style, and his naivety, almost dullness. He also discouraged some voters with his disordered personal life. Given such a media image, he soon became a source of jokes and caricatures, which was additionally underlined by a published photo, taken by a paparazzo in 2008, showing him nude by the pool at the villa of former Italian Prime Minister Berlusconi<sup>36</sup>.

<sup>34</sup> Lively breeze to ODS, Topolánek's brought, he has! – TN

<sup>35</sup> The Civic Forum (Občanské fórum – OF) was created in November 1989 as an opposing movement against the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia and, at the same time, as a negotiating platform with the contemporary leadership of the country. The movement entered into the politics as an unambiguously favoured candidate in the first free elections. During the following years, however, a plurality of opinions appeared, as well as a wide platform of different directions and ambitions of several of its leaders, and the party divided into the Civic Movement (Občanské hnutí – OH), the Civic Democratic Party (Občanská demokratická strana – ODS) and the Civic Democratic Alliance (Občanská demokratická aliance – ODA).

<sup>36</sup> This affair did harm not only to the Czech Prime Minister, but also to his Italian counterpart, cf. the text <http://www.blesk.cz/clanek/zpravypolitika/116873/berlusconi-nahy-topolaneek-prohral-mi-volby.html>, in which Berlusconi labels Topolánek as one of the reasons for having lost a number of votes as well as the election.

### 2.3 The process of Czech election campaigns

The process and form of campaigns for Parliament of the Czech Republic election are stipulated by Act No. 247/1995, where, in paragraph 16, rules for organising the campaign, and starting and final dates of running the campaign are stated, as well as sanctions for not obliging:

- (1) 16 days before election day, the mayor may allocate a space for election posters used in the election campaigns. The possibility to use such space must be provided in accordance with the principle of equality of parties and coalitions running for election, or of the candidates running for the Senate.
- (2) The electoral campaign must be organised with honesty and integrity; it is prohibited, in particular, to publish any false information regarding candidates, political parties or coalitions in whose lists the candidates are included.
- (3) No results of pre-election and election polls may be published in any manner within the period beginning with the third day before the date of elections to the Parliament of the Czech Republic, and ending with the close of the voting.
- (4) Political parties, political movements and coalitions running for elections to the Assembly of Deputies, whose lists of candidates have been registered, shall be allocated 14 hours of free broadcasting time in Czech Radio, and 14 hours of free broadcasting time in Czech Television, which shall be divided equally among the political parties, political movements and coalitions running for election. Broadcasting times shall be determined by draw. The responsibility for the content of such programs rests with the political parties, political movements and coalitions.
- (5) A natural person who publishes results of pre-election and election opinion polls within the period beginning with the third day before the date of elections to the Parliament of the Czech Republic and ending with the close of voting shall be guilty of transgression. The competent authority to deal with such transgression is the district office having jurisdiction over the place of residence of the natural person who has published such pre-election and election polls. Such transgression is punishable by a fine up to the amount of CZK 30,000. Transgression proceedings are governed by a special law.
- (6) Political parties, coalitions and candidates may not perform during the days of elections any canvassing activities within the facility where the polling station is located, or in its immediate vicinity<sup>37</sup>.

As we can see, most of the rules are fairly clear; their transgressions can be legally prosecuted. However, section 2, appealing for honesty, integrity and truthfulness of the campaign is problematic. Yet this is a crucial legal problem, because many laws, decrees and regulations refer to unwritten rules of ethics, moral code, good manners and the like, which are both very vague and problematic in terms of legal enforceability and punishability.

<sup>37</sup> The 6 sections stated above represent a part of rules stipulated by the law, for the remaining parts and further information on this, see e.g. <http://www.zakonyprolidi.cz/cs/1995-247#cast1>.

The fight with political opponents, which is the usual concept of a campaign, should be conducted honestly; opponents should not be verbally attacked by their enemies, falsely accused, insulted or ridiculed. Needless to say, during a campaign, human rights given by the Charter of Fundamental Rights and Freedoms should not be breached.

### 3. The dawn of political anti-campaign

The first post-revolution political campaigns were conducted in a fairly decent manner, which was given both by the naive approach to political power and by the belief in the possibility to change the system into a fair society based on ethical principles. Over the years, however, campaigns and politics have changed significantly; they have become more aggressive and insidious. In addition to the presentation of political parties, candidates and their programs, there has emerged also the political anti-campaign, especially on billboards and posters. Anti-campaigns are based on the violation of moral principles, often funded by indistinct or untraceable sponsors, and mainly target weaknesses and stereotypes associated with selected political parties and candidates. Probably the first attempt to conduct an anti-campaign in the Czech Republic was represented by billboards, which appeared in 1999, when a former emigrant and businessman in tourism, Vaclav Fischer, ran in the Senate election. Billboards with the slogan *Homosexuál v Senátu? Proč ne. Václav Fischer do Senátu. Čtyřprocentní menšina*<sup>38</sup> probably aimed at discrediting the candidate by attacking his sexual orientation<sup>39</sup>. Although nobody succeeded in identifying the intention or the contracting authority of the text, often downplayed or inverted to its positive aspect, it was assumed that the initiators came from the team supporting Jiřina Jirásková, a popular actress, dissident and Václav Klaus's devoted supporter, running against Fischer. The billboard, however, did not achieve its goal; its creators underestimated the fairly strong tolerance of Czechs towards sexual otherness, V. Fischer became the first independent senator in Czech politics and possibly the first politician after 1989 who was supposed to be discredited because of his sexual orientation.

Although the billboard was unequivocally condemned as unethical, it seems to have launched the era of anti-campaigning.

### 4. Campaign and anti-campaign in the elections of 2006

The elections in 2006 brought a stark contrast; the official campaigns were very strong, but anti-campaigns consisting of billboards were also very abundant. This election cycle has been linked to several scandals<sup>40</sup>.

<sup>38</sup> A homosexual in the Senate? Why not. Václav Fischer to the Senate. The four percent minority – TN.

<sup>39</sup> The candidate publicly presents himself as a bisexual and he admits having multiple sexual experiences with both men and women.

<sup>40</sup> We have focused on a partial analysis of this election earlier – see Janovec, 2009.

First, the seduction strategies of some parties were criticised, as well as politicians' attempts to look as good as possible for billboards, since their faces and figures were edited and retouched. The process of modifying politicians' appearance had been criticised during several previous elections, especially the photographs of Czech Social Democracy leaders, who were nicknamed «The Holy Trinity». The faces of Petra Buzková, Stranislav Gross and Miloš Zeman were noticeably altered. The public also saw billboards and photographs of Václav Klaus, retouched in a similar manner. The 2006 election campaign billboards showed significant adjustments to the faces of Vítězslav Jandák and Jiří Paroubek, whose tan and absence of wrinkles left a very untrustworthy impression, in addition, Jiří Paroubek had his distinctive facial wart removed, so he was quite unrecognisable – even some questions arose, far from being ironic, who the stranger was, who ČSSD put on their billboards.

Only show business celebrities usually wear casual clothes and present themselves informally on election posters (they function as support for the party – in these cases we speak of seduction by appearance, and also of seduction and manipulation by popularity). Similarly, the female singer Lucie Bílá appeared on ODS election posters with a broad, closed-lip smile and flowing hair. Football players Milan Baroš and Tomáš Ujfaluši wore the necessary soccer jerseys, and had a painted Czech flag on their cheeks (a model mimicking the fans at football matches and public football events). The latest personality who expressed his support for ODS on a billboard was singer Waldemar Matuška, who wore a down-to-earth grey suit. These four celebrities represented idols of whole generations, hence persuasion through their popularity was evident, and the campaign stood a chance of appealing to several generations of voters.

KSČM focused on persuasion evoked by particular situations. Their campaign was based on the contrast of the very same people on both black and white posters, where they were looking rather deprived because of social problems, such as university tuition fees, doctors' charges, housing problems (The picture is accompanied by a question on the issue and the answer *Máme jiné řešení*<sup>41</sup>.) and on coloured posters, where they appeared happy, smiling and their problems gone. The opposition grey presence vs. all-colour future belongs to highly schematic persuasive elements – without the visual component, we could regard the text itself as rather manipulative, and based on Mephistophelean rhetorical cultural experience.

The ODS campaign tried to provoke recognition of family values by using billboards, on which Jiří Topolánek was depicted with a baby in his arms. The poster, however, evoked rather mockery, since at that time the affair of Mr. Topolánek was still very current; he had left his family for his mistress<sup>42</sup>, Lucie Talmanová, also a politician, and they married in 2010.

<sup>41</sup> We have a different solution – TN.

<sup>42</sup> The overuse of the lexeme "mistress" in the contemporary press has inspired an attempt of its partial cognitive-linguistic analysis (cf. Janovec, 2010).

Besides the official billboards, anti-campaign billboards also appeared. Anti-campaigns used both verbal and nonverbal instruments. The nonverbal means were very significant for the anti-campaign against ODS. In the parliamentary election campaign, this political party chose a symbol of a blue tourist sign<sup>43</sup> pointing to the right and the slogan *Po modré spoletně*<sup>44</sup>.

Soon, beside these billboards, a fairly aggressive anti-campaign started, also using the blue tourist sign with a picture of a bird (ODS logo, but in a different colour) on some billboards, however, pointing down and accompanied by slogans offensive to ODS policy. An example of an anti-campaign based on questioning ODS policy and its campaign was represented by the seduction on ČSSD billboard, as seen in Jindřichův Hradec before the 2008 Senate elections, accompanied by the slogan *Tudy cesta nevede*<sup>45</sup> (see Figure 2 on page 337).



Figure 2

## 5. Constitutive means of anti-campaign

### 5.1 Text producer

One of the basic features often consists of an unclear contracting authority and publisher of the anti-campaign. During legal surveys, it is often found that such an entity is a private, not always even an existing person, who orders creation of the billboards and rents the billboard premises. The opacity of the producer and contracting authority makes them difficult to identify, and to potentially hold legally responsible for the contents of the texts. With the expansion of social networks' popularity (Facebook, Twitter, Instagram etc.), possibilities for anti-campaigns have significantly expanded. Sharing of text, facilitated by functions provided by the network, or evaluation of a post by the «like» button

<sup>43</sup> The choice of the sign was probably related to the fact that tourism is a relatively popular leisure activity in the Czech Republic; moreover, it evokes the value of nature, active recreation, family or friends (people usually do not go hiking alone).

<sup>44</sup> Let us follow the blue together – TN.

<sup>45</sup> This is not the way – TN.

helps an ordinary user to completely hide the author of the post. As evidenced even in the expert literature, sharing or «liking» of posts by users does not necessarily mean their identification with the content of the text and its real popularity; other factors can also play a part, such as feelings of pressure from others – a cooperative approach is expected from a user regarding the shared content, as well as its further dissemination among other users<sup>46</sup>. Users may fear social discrediting and possible discrimination if they disagree with the shared content. In the chain of sharing, however, the producer, the one who created the text and initially offered it for sharing, is then lost.

A certain pressure is also created by «protest» groups or special interest pages in social networks, which express resistance to a certain political party or personality, or ridicule them. In the Czech environment, these are, e.g. the group *Miloš Zeman není mým prezidentem*<sup>47</sup>, which was formed immediately after the presidential election as a protest against its result, or the “entertaining” page *Ovary Miloše Zemana*<sup>48</sup>.

Their impact, of course, is not immediate regarding the latest election campaigns, but they influence and reach campaigns to come, as well as subsequent development of political attitudes of voters. The expansion of such resources depends on the profile level of an anti-campaign, and media exposure of a particular politician. Many of the means thus become infinitely and repeatedly circulated Internet memes, the original context and authorship of which expire in the confusing virtual network, and they become new instruments of folk art<sup>49</sup>.

## 5.2 Composition of texts

In order for an anti-campaign to be effective, it uses the principle of analogy and sameness with texts of the official campaign. Verbal and nonverbal components are designed to achieve the effect that addressees do not distinguish between the campaign and the anti-campaign at first glance, unless they conduct a deeper interpretation.

### 5.2.1 Intertextuality

The basic strategy of shaping the text of an election anti-campaign is undoubtedly represented by persuasion based on intertextuality, which aligns its text with the official texts, and with other texts of the anti-campaign. The text is supposed to negate the contents of the official campaign, and it must also convince recipients to reassess their own opinions, and change their positive attitudes towards a party or a politician. Internet references manifest themselves in diverse assessments of reflected pretext, then a post-text enters the game, as

<sup>46</sup> Vanderbilt, 2016.

<sup>47</sup> Miloš Zeman is not my president – TN.

<sup>48</sup> A pun – paraphrasing the famous Talks from Lány (a tradition started during presidents Masaryk's era), later scandalised by a radio session called Miloš Zeman's Talks – which can be roughly translated as Miloš Zeman's Pork (instead of “talk”). – TN

<sup>49</sup> In her thesis written under the supervision of R. Holanová, Fridrichová (2015) extensively addresses the folk art of memes related to political discourse with regard to the affair of politician D. Rath.

a new text unit requiring assessment and reassessment. Post-texts are always axiological. Their strong expressiveness (see below) and evaluating nature make them highly conflict-forming discursive units, which provide the campaign with a new interpretive dimension.

The already well-established inscription on cigarette packs *Ministerstvo zdravotnictví varuje: kouření způsobuje rakovinu*<sup>50</sup> serves as a pretext for an anti-billboard (Figure 3) directed against the Czech Social Democratic Party, after the bribery scandal of David Rath, which started off with police finding money hidden in a wine box carried by Rath on his way home from visiting a colleague. The post-text uses the aforementioned warning note, as well as the occurred situation, and the polysemic character of the word “immunity”: *Ministry of Health warns: boozing on box wine can seriously damage immunity*.



Figure 3

Biblical allusion is used in comparing Rath to Christ, who turned water into wine, while Rath went even further and turned wine into money.

### 5.2.2 Humour

Many anti-campaign texts use humour as their constitutive part. Taking into account the fact that humour consists in the incongruence of two components of an utterance, a wide range of options arises about how to use humour in construction of a text. Authors / contracting authorities often use the simplest and most «folkish» humour, which is comprehensible, as well as easy to detect and interpret for all its potential recipients. The election anti-campaign thus enters into a close relationship with the political anecdote, or parody of political discourse. An example is memes spreading via the Internet, which react to current cases, speeches of politicians, political activities and so on<sup>51</sup>.

<sup>50</sup> Ministry of Health warns: smoking may cause cancer – TN.

<sup>51</sup> Similarly, the bribery scandal was widely exposed, which related to the Czech politician David Rath, who was arrested after visiting his colleague, from whom he carried a considerable sum of money hidden in a wine box. Some more money was found later at his home under the floor: Rath still denies having known about the money in the box.

During the 2012 presidential election, many memes contained responses to the nomination of Jana Bobošíková, a former journalist and a television host, who possesses the media image of a woman seeking influential position and power<sup>52</sup>. After the elections, in which J. Bobošíková was roundly defeated, another meme spread through the country, reflecting the current papal succession in Rome<sup>53</sup>. The meme (Figure 4) is presented in a photograph showing J. Bobošíková in parliament, announcing her candidacy for Pope. The absurdity of this meme underlined Bobošíková's behaviour, respectively her media image and her perception by a considerable part of Czech society.



Figure 4

In the same manner, former Czech president Václav Klaus was caricatured at the end of his term, which also occurred during the search for a new Pope, as well as former Prime Minister Petr Nečas, when his government fell<sup>54</sup>.

### 5.2.3 Paronyms

Regarding verbal instruments, primarily paronyms were used, i.e. linguistic (lexical) units that are similar in form. For example, the anti-campaign against the Social Democrats used the similarity between the words *sliby* – *slipy* (vows – underpants), and the ridiculing image beyond good taste and decency. By swapping paronyms, it was possible to unveil the parody of the original party election slogan: *We can fulfil our election promises*.



Figure 5

<sup>52</sup> She acquired such an image during the so-called television crisis at the turn of the years 2000–2001, when she was appointed General Director of Czech Television. But her visions, attempts at fundamental changes, as well as her behaviour brought Czech TV into a crisis, which escalated into a strike supported by the masses, even those not working for the company.

<sup>53</sup> Former Pope Benedict resigned and a new candidate for the function was being considered.

<sup>54</sup> See [http://www.denik.cz/z\\_domova/na-misto-papeze-klaus-cesi-se-opet-bavi-fotomontazemi-20130212.html](http://www.denik.cz/z_domova/na-misto-papeze-klaus-cesi-se-opet-bavi-fotomontazemi-20130212.html).

Response to the anti-campaign was quite negative; even a stringent ethical anchoring of the campaigning process in law was considered, but in the end this did not happen. Political parties began to use anti-campaigns more intensively and elaborately prior to the next elections.

Similarly, Fridrichová (2015) views the political anti-campaign, and highlights the formal similarity of the words *pravice* – *pramice*, *pravice* – *slepice* (right – punts, right – chickens) – see Figure 6<sup>55</sup>.

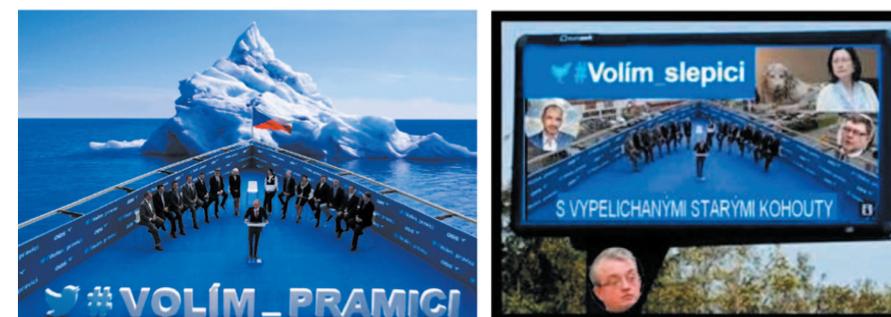


Figure 6

## 6. Means of expression of an anti-campaign

Billboards are usually created so that they graphically resemble billboards of the official parties or personalities to be attacked by the anti-campaign. The potential success of the anti-campaign lies in an easy interchange of the official with the unofficial product, but also in the identification of the attacked entity. For this purpose, modified photographs are often used of the parties' leaders, as well as the act of putting a politician into a de-honesting context – see also the billboard above (Figure 5).

Paragraphic instruments, such as fonts or pictograms are arranged so that the real contracting authority remains partly side-lined, but not so completely as to be drowned in the overall billboard composition, for e.g., on the billboard in Fig. 2 above, the anti-slogan is written in the largest font, it fully corresponds to slogans of ODS campaign regarding its colours, and the reference to the fact that it is a part of an anti-campaign, which aims at promoting the Social Democracy, is interpretable only from the logo (orange roses).

## Conclusion

The election anti-campaign clearly holds a very strong position in Czech political discourse. Its legal regulation is difficult, because it is difficult to identify its boundaries with the official campaign, but also with political satire.

<sup>55</sup> I vote for the rowing boat (rowing boat – *pramice*, right wing – *pravice*). I vote for the hen accompanied by old moulting roosters (hen – *slepice*, right wing – *pravice*) – TN.

As manifested in several recent election spots, their ingratiation, poor strategy, or their pursuit of folksiness may become a cause of the fact that even an official campaign spot may appear as an inappropriate parody, or ridicule of a chosen subject. This happened during the last senatorial election to the Czech Social Democratic Party – overfamiliar behaviour, constant referring to Moravian roots, as well as to sausages and wine, rather harmed the candidates, and caused them to be mocked across the country, including in the districts for which they ran. The ethical aspect of an anti-campaign is highly problematic – most producers consider themselves to be bearers of truth, criticism and order, or to be the ones who open people's eyes, fight for genuine democracy and call for ethics in politics, without admitting that such form of election and political struggle is, indeed, unethical. It is for this reason that the aggressiveness of anti-campaigns is escalating, as well as a considerable degree of vulgarity in them, although the use of vulgarisms as lexical units is not as frequent. Regarding this aspect, the expansion of presentation possibilities has also its share – while a few years ago, the main platform consisted of billboards, television and radio broadcasts, at present, it is mainly social networks, reaching thousands of potential voters more quickly and efficiently than traditional media. The speed and repeated appearance of texts in social networks, due to mutual sharing between users and within a thematic group or page helps blur boundaries between election or political anti-campaign, and political satire. There arises an increasingly interwoven discursive text network, interpretation of which is more complex and pluralistic. However, what direction further development of this segment of the political discourse will take is impossible to predict. It is certain that disappearance of anti-campaigns was expected due to legal regulation; however, they have not vanished, only modified their form.

## References

- Karhanová, K.* Rhetorical question in polemical media dialogue (based on material drawn from Czech TV political debates). *In: Betten, A., Dannerer, M. (eds.). Dialoganalyse, IX: Dialogue in Literature and the Media, Part 2: Media.* Tübingen: Max Niemeyer Verlag, 2005. 203–213.
- Čmejrková, S.* Analysis of a TV polemical discourse. *In: Linguistica Pragensia, 10, 2000.* 1–15.
- Čmejrková, S.* Argumentation and its acceptance in political debates. *In: Studies in Communication Sciences / Studi di scienze della comunicazione: Special Issue "Argumentation in Dialogic Interaction", 2005.* 265–277.
- Čmejrková, S.* Televizní interview a jiné duely: Mediální dialog jako žánr veřejného projevu. *In: Slovo a slovesnost, 60, 1999.* 247–268.
- Čmejrková, S., Hoffmannová, J. (eds.).* Jazyk, média, politika. Praha: Academia, 2003.
- Fridrichová, J.* Lidová tvořivost Čechů v souvislosti s kausou Rath. Diploma theses. Consluting: Holanová, R. Faculty of Education, Charles University, Prague, 2015.
- Hašová, L.* Kufřík a balíček v televizních diskusních pořadech. *In: Varia, 9.* Bratislava: Slovenská jazykovedná spoločnosť pri SAV, 2002. 64–79.

- Hoffmannová, J.* Politický komentář z hlediska funkční stylistiky a kritické analýzy diskurzu. *In: O. Orgoňová (ed.). Jazyk a komunikácia v súvislostiach II.* Bratislava: Univerzita Komenského, 2007. 77–86.
- Janovec, L.* Sedukce a politika. *In: Ološtiak, M., Ivanová, M., Gianitsová-Ološtiaková, L. (eds.). Varia XVIII.* Univerzitná knižnica Prešovskej univerzity v Prešove. Prešov, 2009. 308–316. <http://www.pulib.sk/elpub2/FF/Olostiak1/index.html>.
- Janovec, L.* Seznamte se s mojí milenkou. *In: V. Kováčová (ed.). Varia XVII,* Katolícka univerzita v Ružomberku – Filozofická fakulta - Slovenská jazykovedná spoločnosť pri SAV v Bratislave, Ružomberok. 2010.
- Krausová, A.* Negociace čili vyjednávaní. *In: Jazykovedné aktuality, 38 (4), 2001.* 45–51.
- Poprawa, M.* Politicheskye teledebaty. *In: La Table Ronde, 1.* Minsk: BGU, 2001. 27–28.
- Vanderbilt, T.* Mohlo by se vám také líbit – Vkus v době neomezeného výběru. Praha: Nakladatelství Omega. 2016.

## Issue 3. Personal and community -bias discourses

Lidia Mazur-Mezhva

### Bulat Okudzhava in the mirror of Polish translation discourse

(Translated from Russian by Irina Tolstonogova)

In the second half of the twentieth century, Polish culture experienced the undeniable influence of the famous Russian poet and bard Bulat Okudzhava, and Polish translations of his poetry, performed by different translators, contributed much to this fact. Analysis of these translations reveal some features of Okudzhava's creative heritage that are vividly highlighted in Polish translation discourse; specifically, equivalence of his spirit to the spirit of the Christian faith, which is very close to the Polish Catholic consciousness. We analyze Polish translations of Okudzhava's songs and poems using theories of modern cognitive science about the conditioning of verbal behavior by a speaker's knowledge – their individual cognitive space, the most essential component of which is national cognitive space, structured in terms of cultural key concepts, precedent texts, and conceptual metaphors. The methodological basis of the study is the position that the modifications of the original text in translation are not caused by the taste preferences of an individual translator but by national laws of cognitive space organization, typical for the representatives of a particular host culture. The hypothesis is that the works of different translators related to the same host culture must have similarities.

For the analysis, we have chosen works of some of the most famous Polish translators: *A. Mandalian*, *Z. Fedetsky*, *V. Voroshilsky*, *V. Dombrovsky* and *E. Cech*, who translated poems of different Russian poets (*A. Galich*, *O. Mandelstam*, *V. Vysotsky*, *I. Bunin*, *A. Blok*, *N. Gumilev* and others).

Our analysis shows that the translators, being within their culture, interpret the original – both consciously and subconsciously – in accordance with the schemes of interpreting reality and traditions of speech practices of their culture. Thus in particular these translations have a lot in common:

- *intensification of the situation of the original by some features;*
- *clarification of the details of the reference situation of the translated text, whereby it becomes more specific than in the original text;*
- *elimination of some places that are incompatible with the settings of the Catholic religious consciousness;*
- *filling the translation with elements of religious discourse, and others.*

Sharing the basic principles of modern theory of literary translation, in particular:

- 1) rejection of a «normal» axiological approach to translation;
- 2) understanding translation as interpretation;
- 3) rejection of traditional comparative analyses of individual elements in the original and in the translation, not in favor of matching the texts but their models;
- 4) taking into account the creative personality of an interpreter as a factor in modification of the original.

Considering the translation work as “fit” in the communicative process (part of which is the process of text generating), we put forward our hypothesis. Its essence lies in the fact that, *firstly*, translation is an interpretation of the original text (no matter how different the translators are from the host culture), that's why the translation will necessarily differ from the original text due to different national cognitive spaces that dictate their ways of processing information about the world. *Secondly*, different translators of the same host culture, no matter how different their personal and artistic aims are, will modify the original in similar ways. This commonality is determined by a common part of their consciousness – national cognitive space. On the basis of this hypothesis we can scientifically talk about Polish translation discourse of Okudzhava's works.

In our studies, we focused on the comparison of semantic models of author and translated texts, revealing the specifics of information contained about the object of the narrative. In our opinion, such an approach is connected the urgent problems of cognitive science that make it possible to describe the contents of consciousness in fairly strict terms by reference to such units as frames, conceptual metaphors, and concepts. We focused on such concepts of Russian culture that are basic in Okudzhava's works – *faith*, *hope*, *fate* and *love*, and the fact that it is

«the evaluative component of the concept as a mental formation explains the possibility of different points of view on the original denotative situation that is presented by the subject in terms of this concept, and the target activity aspect of the concept implies the possibility of different scenarios of its understanding by the representatives of different consciousnesses» (Мазур-Межва, 2008: 52).

Comparing translations of Okudzhava's poems with the original, we analyzed general information about reality through the prism of axiological targets of both the writer and the translator, and monitored the operations that are subjected to the translation. According to J. Dubois and his co-authors, any transformation of the text can be changed by the reduction or addition of some units (Дюбуа, 1986: 86). We consider that the reduction or addition of formal structures (words, sentences) is simultaneously an modification of the meaning of primary text (the original). Replacement can be considered as similar operation when some formal elements are replaced by others. The choice of the form for replacement may be dictated by the specifics of a translator's cognitive space, of cognitive structures stored in their mind; even if these changes are caused by the rhythm, size, or rhyme, they always transform the content of the original.

Observing the original texts and their translations it should be noted that modifications of the original meaning of Okudzhava's texts in V. Voroshilsky's translation of are associated with conscious or subconscious adaptation of the original text to the host culture. The translator is characterized by an appeal to the operations of addition and replacement; as a result, the translation differs in the intensification of signs of denotative situations described in the original text. It is deprived of a certain degree of generalization of the situations described and, as a result, of some philosophy: the operation of adding leads to the specification of described situations and acquires religious connotations as a result of replacement operation.

V. Dombrovsky's translation discourse is also characterized by the predominance of addition and replacement operations that result in clarifying the meaning of Okudzhava's poems, an adaptation to the cultural horizons of the Polish audience. The intensification of situations in the original text is also observed in these translations. At the same time, V. Dombrovsky's discourse is characterized by the connection and combination of text modifying operations, addition with simultaneous replacement, addition with reduction, and reference to other means transmitting the general idea of the text, all of which indicate the artistic courage of the translator.

A. Mandalian's translations of Okudzhava also fit into this tradition of Polish translation art. At the same time, performing operations with the original texts, the translator intensifies a sign of denotative situation of the original, including the elements of religious discourse. The usage of tropes reference traditions of Polish folklore focused on neo-Latin literature is also significant (Мазур-Межва, 2008:102).

Z. Fedetsky's translation discourse is characterized by title changes in order to create appropriate expectations (the removal of the names of Russian realities from the titles); text dialogization manifested in the usage of references to the addressee when Okudzhava

uses impersonal sentences or sentences with an unclear subject (*she*); inclusion of interrogative and imperative sentences in the translation (the latter has exclamatory intonation), which is apparently connected with the influence of certain rhetorical practices; usage of interrogative sentences instead of factual statements in connection with the influence of traditions of homiletics where the atmosphere of joint dwellings is created (Мазур-Межва, 2008: 111).

Translation operation in E. Cech's works are also mainly reduced to replacements and additions (reductions take place to a lesser extent) and associated

«with the desire to make the translation clearer where the interpretation in the original may be difficult because of metaphors and complicity of the author's text» (Мазур-Межва, 2008: 130).

At the same time both E. Cech's works and the translation practices of Z. Fedetsky, V. Dombrovsky, B. Voroshilsky and A. Mandalian are characterized by a number of common features. These are connected with the aims of national consciousness that are formed under the influence of didactic speech practices specific to the genre of religious discourse. They also reflect the characteristics of national character expressing itself in certain speech practices. This allows us to talk about the existence of Polish translation discourse.

Undoubtedly, the national cognitive space of one culture expands with the inclusion of some knowledge from other cognitive spaces. Perception of other mental schemes, aims, emotional experiences, though modified under the influence of translation, can serve to expand the horizons of nationally determined thinking.

Polish translation discourse seems to open up new depths of Bulat Okudzhava's creative heritage. He was close to the Poles, was a friend of many Polish dissidents, perfectly understood the pain of the Polish people having strived for liberation for centuries. Thanks to Polish translations, we reveal another aspect of his work – despite his declared atheism, Okudzhava was a poet of Christian values, this fact allowed Polish translators to consider him to belong to the Polish audience.

## References

- Дюбуа, Ж. Общая риторика. М., 1986.  
 Мазур-Межва, Л. Булат Окуджав в польских переводах. Когнитивные стратегии перевода. Kielce: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Humanistyczno-Pryrodniczego Jana Kochanowskiego, 2008.

Anna Matyszczyk

## Musical discourse as a cultural manifesto: Verbal representations of the Hip Hop community's identity

### Introduction and research motivation

Language being one of the means of self-expression – not only what one says but also how he or she says it plays a significant role for the members of the speaker's community.

“In Hip Hop, the *Word* is both the bible and the law; a source of worship and competition” (Morgan, 2001:204).

Rappers take part in popular freestyle battles to prove their mastery of the word, to show how skillful they are in putting the words together and spontaneously creating meaningful (and most of the time rhymed) utterances on a given topic and they are being assessed for it. Originating from traditional African cultures of the slave descendants of present day African Americans, the cultivation of *the Word* in hip hop centered African American communities proves the language to be not only the mere means of communication but a whole “series of choices that represent beliefs and have consequences” (Morgan, 2001:190). In order to function in such a community one has to learn how to speak in specific contexts. Hence, one of the most important things for a rapper is to “keep it real”, which equals getting the approval of the audience by appearing credible and genuine to them. Surprisingly, in this process, such experiences like difficult family situation, unhappy childhood, difficulties with finding a decent job or being underpaid, having a criminal record, dealing with an addiction and many other hardships of life are perceived positively. They increase the perception of a rapper as an everyman, who has the same problems as his fans, therefore making him more authentic.

Rap music, having originated from Jazz and Blues, is a predominantly black musical genre. Though, due to the extensive growth of the Hip Hop Culture in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century, the language used by the performers of rap music started to be perceived by young white people and rap enthusiasts as an attractive variety and came into fashion along with other elements of the culture, like specific style of clothing, graffiti writing or breakdancing. Still, there are white people who attempt to speak this variety of language, namely African American Vernacular English (AAVE) which is the “nonstandard English spoken by black people in the inner city” (Labov, 1972: 3). Out of the desire to become a fully approved part of the Hip Hop Community or in case of teenagers – to be perceived as cool by their peers – they start to apply features of AAVE in their speech (Cutler, 1999: 314-315). There is no information on to what extent this is a conscious process, but its results are clearly visible. Therefore, the purpose of my study was to explore the relation-

ship between one's cultural identity and the usage of the salient grammatical features of this dialect. Consequently, the study aimed at checking how the need to belong or to be accepted by a certain community (here particularly by the Hip Hop Community) can result in modifying the language.

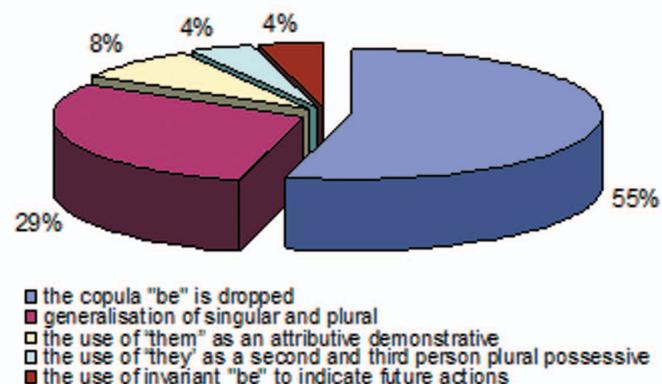
### The Study

**Corpus and methodology.** The basic assumption of the study was that white American rappers who identify themselves with the Hip Hop Culture would use AAVE constructions as often as African American rappers, which would support the thesis that AAVE is no longer an ethnic variety, but rather a cultural one and suggest that white rappers adjust the language they use to be accepted within the black dominated hermetic society. The study was conducted on eight rap songs (one song per artist), four of which were written by African American rappers, and four by non-African American rappers. The choice of the songs and artists was not random. Firstly, four white rappers were chosen with the help of the internet rankings. Then, the African American rappers were selected according to the places of residence of the white rappers, thus creating “pairs” (African American plus non-African American) from four places – Atlanta, New York City, Long Island and California. Having established the pairs, the amount of the records sold was also taken into account – it was desired to be as close as possible (within a pair). For this purpose, the digital sales certifications given by the Recording Industry Association of America were checked on the RIAA website. Then the songs were chosen by casting of lots (for the artists and songs see Appendix 2), but within the albums recorded in more or less the same year (within a pair). Thanks to this, the factors of region, the age of the recording and the popularity of an artist (understood as the sales of the albums) were controlled. On the basis of several books devoted to AAVE, I compiled a list of salient grammatical features, which can be found in the Appendix 1. All the occurrences of the features were counted manually.

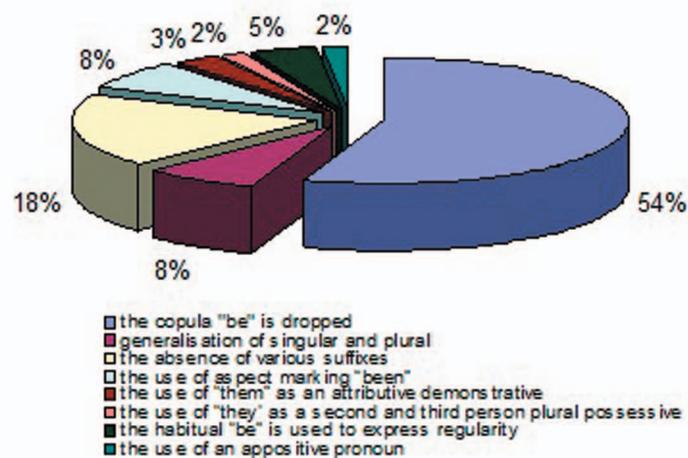
**The Results.** The total amount of AAVE grammatical features used in all eight rap songs was 89, out of which only 24 features were those employed by non-African American rappers, which is approximately 27% of the whole.

The results of the study proved that white rappers indeed employ AAVE grammatical features, but not as often as black rappers do – in the lyrics coming from four different cities, there was no such a case when the amount of the features used by a white rapper would outnumber the amount of features found in black lyrics. The interesting fact is that the results varied a lot depending on the city, for example, in Long Island, the results were pretty close – 14 features used by a white rapper to 19 used by a black one. On the other hand, in California they were surprisingly remote – 3 features used by a white

rapper versus 24 features in black lyrics. Moreover, the results change when counted with features excluded at the beginning – the use of *y'all*, *ain't* and *multiple negation*. For example, the number of features in Bubba Sparxxx's lyrics rises from 3 to 11. This leads to the conclusion that white rap artists choose these AAVE features that can be easily imitated by them. What is more, it occurred that features used by African Americans in general are much more varied than the features used by non-African Americans from all four cities. White rappers seem to keep using the two most popular features (dropping of the copula "be" together with the generalisation of singular and plural) all the time and do not employ those that seem more sophisticated, which supports the idea that their use of AAVE features is artificial.



**Diagram 1. AAVE grammatical features used by non-African American rap artists**



**Diagram 2. AAVE grammatical features used by African American rap artists**

## Rap as people's commentary on today's world

As I have already mentioned, Rap music touches upon various socioeconomic and political issues. It is believed that

"Hip Hop arose as a youth response to the political ideology of the Reagan-Bush era and its promotion of the social and civic abandonment of urban schools and communities" (Morgan, 2001: 187).

At the beginning it was a niche, highly stigmatized by the white part of the population, though for African-Americans it had a deeper, almost profound message, carried by the words of a preacher-like figure of a rapper. As Smitherman underlines:

"Rap music is rooted in the Black oral tradition of tonal semantics, narrativizing, signification/signifyin, the dozens/playin the dozens, Africanized syntax, and other communicative practices. [...] The rapper is a postmodern African griot, the verbally gifted storyteller and cultural historian in traditional African society. As African America's "griot," the rapper must be lyrically/linguistically fluent; he or she is expected to testify, to speak the truth [...]. Further, in the early formation of rap music, the rapper was expected to speak with a quickness" (Smitherman, 1997: 4).

As Morgan puts it,

"in many respects, Hip Hop has done more to crystallize a young, urban African American identity than any other historic and political change since the late 1970s" (Morgan, 2001: 189).

Interestingly, the recent popularization of Rap music helped it reach wider audiences, but also caused its inevitable commercialization, that transformed a former ritual into plain money making. Nevertheless, the positive side of the emergence of the whole rap industry is that young blacks from the inner city suddenly have more life prospects and chances to get a proper education.

As rap artists form crews or gangs, their members are so strongly bonded that they often treat each other as a family and loyalty is the highest value. Even those members that achieved worldwide success often underline their roots and their belonging to a specific crew or recording label (Forman & Neal, 2004: 18, 238; Rose, 1994: 34, 43). Similarly, fans and enthusiasts are generally treated seriously and rap lyrics are aimed at being meaningful, oftentimes of a moralistic nature.

## Hip Hop scene in Poland

Although Polish Rap Scene is much younger than the American one, it is similar in the places of which it is mainly born – urban ghettos, poor downtown jungle, where kids

are raised on the streets and where music is very often their only alternative reality and chance for a better life. Both Polish and American rap touch upon similar problems – violence, poverty, injustice, politics and others.

Now a part of popular culture, Polish rap music also got commercialized in the mid-nineties. But on the other hand, as Bernasiewicz (2009) argues, rap in Poland is not only the voice of a working class but very often an expression of frustration of underrated, unemployed, unhappy, but at the same time, well-educated young people. He mentions Polish rap to be condemned for being highly pessimistic, but on the other hand it is acknowledged to be moralistic as it encourages people to act morally and promotes sets of universal values, like family, homeland, loyalty to friends, love, etc. Undoubtedly, in certain urban areas, rap music serves as an educator, which helps the young define themselves, instructs them to follow their dreams and actively seek their way and gives them hope for the better future.

If interested in more details about the study, feel free to contact me at:

anna.matyszczyk@gmail.com

## Appendix 1

African American Vernacular English salient grammatical features (both morphological and syntactic):

- a) the copula “be” is often dropped for Present Tense – e.g. AAVE *She very nice* for SE *She’s very nice*, *They acting silly* for *They’re acting silly* (Holmes, 2008: 186–189; Wolfram, 2004: 117)
- b) the use of habitual “be” expressing regularity – e.g. AAVE *She be singin’* for SE *She often sings* (Davies, 2005: 68)
- c) the use of invariant “be” to indicate future actions – e.g. AAVE *He be here soon* for SE *He will be here soon* (Smitherman, 1977: 20)
- d) “the absence of various suffixes (possessive, third person singular, plural –s)” (Wolfram & Shilling-Estes, 2006: 218) – e.g. AAVE *John house* for SE *John’s house*; AAVE *He walk* for SE *He walks*; AAVE *Two boy* for SE *Two boys* (Rickford, 1999: 7)
- e) The use of completive “done” to indicate Past Tense– e.g. AAVE *They done go* for SE *They went* (Wolfram, 2004: 119) or to emphasize that the action is completed – e.g. AAVE *He done did it* for SE *He’s done it* (Rickford, 1999: 6)
- f) The use of aspect marking “been” indicates that the action started long time ago and it still lasts – e.g. AAVE *She been running* for SE *She has been running (for a long time)* (Green, 2002: 54–55)
- g) “is” and “are” are generalised – e.g. AAVE *They is crazy* for SE *They are crazy* (Rickford, 1999: 7)
- h) The use of quasi-modals: *liketa*, *poseta* – e.g. AAVE *I liketa drowned* for SE *I nearly drowned*, *You don’t poseta do it that way* for *You’re not supposed to do it that way* (Rickford, 1999: 7)

- i) The use of appositive pronouns – e.g. AAVE *The teacher, she yell at the kids* for SE *The teacher yells at the kids* (Rickford, 1999: 7)
- j) The use of *y’all* and *they* as second and third person plural possessive and *them* as an attributive demonstrative – e.g. AAVE *It’s y’all ball* for SE *It’s your ball*, *It’s they book* for *It’s their book*, *She likes them apples* for *She likes apples* (Wolfram, 2004: 125–126)
- k) The use of *ain’t* as a general negator for SE *am not*, *isn’t*, *aren’t*, *hasn’t*, *haven’t*, *didn’t* – e.g. AAVE *She ain’t here* for SE *She isn’t here*, *He ain’t do it* for *He didn’t do it* (Rickford, 1999: 7; Davies, 2005: 68)
- l) The use of multiple negation – e.g. AAVE *Nobody ain’t gonna spend no time going to no doctor* for SE *Nobody is going to spend any time going to a doctor* (Mufwene et al., 1998: 18)
- m) Lack of inversion in questions – e.g. AAVE *Why they ain’t growin’?* For SE *Why aren’t they growing?* (Green, 2002:84–49)
- n) The use of *they got* for *there is/there are* – e.g. AAVE *They got some books over there* for SE *There are some books over there* (Green, 2002: 80, 191)
- o) The use of quotative *say* – e.g. AAVE *She tell him (\*and) say, go get your mail* for SE *She told him, “go and get your mail” / She told him to go and get his mail* (Mufwene et al., 1998: 16)
- p) The use of *steady*, a predicate adverb used before progressive to indicate that the action is intense, persistent and consistent – e.g. *He be steady rappin’* (Baugh, 1999: 101–103)

## Appendix 2

Lyrics of the songs used in our case study:

“Intergalactic” by Beastie Boys

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/beastieboys/intergalactic.html>

“So Ghetto” by Jay-Z

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/jayz/soghetto.html>

“Jimmy Mathis” by Bubba Sparxxx

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/bubbaspaxxx/jimmymathis.html>

“Dead Homies” by Goodie Mob

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/goodiemob/deadhomies.html>

“Every Record Label Sucks Dick” by R.A. the Rugged Man

- [http://lyrics.wikia.com/R.A.\\_The\\_Rugged\\_Man:Every\\_Record\\_Label\\_Sucks\\_DICK](http://lyrics.wikia.com/R.A._The_Rugged_Man:Every_Record_Label_Sucks_DICK)

“Give Em What They Askin For” by Busta Rhymes

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/bustarhymes/giveemwhattheyaskinfor.html>

“The Hardest Love Song In The World” by Yelawolf

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/yelawolf/thehardestlovesongintheworld.html>

“California Dream” by The Game

- <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/game/californiadream.html>

## References

- Baugh, J. *Out of the mouths of slaves: African American language and educational malpractice*. Austin: University of Texas Press, 1999.
- Cutler, C. Yorkville crossing: White teens, hip-hop and African American English. *In: Journal of sociolinguistics*, 3, 1999. 428–442.
- Davies, D. *Varieties of Modern English: an introduction*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited, 2005.
- Forman, M., Neal, M. A. *That's the joint!: the Hip Hop studies reader*. New York: Routledge, 2004.
- Green, L. J. *African American English: a linguistic introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2002.
- Holmes, J. *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd., 2008.
- Labov, W. *Language in the inner city*. Philadelphia: The University of Pennsylvania Press, 1972.
- Lanehart, S. L. (ed.). *Sociocultural and historical contexts of African American English*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 2001.
- Morgan, M. "Nuthin' but a G thang": grammar and language ideology in Hip Hop identity. *In: Lanehart, S. L. (ed.). Sociocultural and historical contexts of African American English*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 2001. 187–210.
- Mufwene, S. S., Rickford, J. R., Bailey, G., Baugh, J. *African-American English: structure, history and use*. London: Routledge, 1998.
- Rickford, J. *African American Vernacular English: features, evolution, educational implications*. Malden: Blackwell, 1999.
- Rose, T. *Black noise: rap music and black culture in contemporary America*. Middletown: Wesleyan University Press, 1994.
- Smitherman, G. "The chain remain the same": communicative practices in the Hip Hop nation. *In: Journal of Black Studies*. Vol. 28, #1. Sage Publications, 1997. 3–25.
- Smitherman, G. *Talkin' and testifyin': the language of Black America*. Boston: Wayne State University Press, 1997.
- Wolfram, W., Shilling-Estes, N. *American English: dialects and variation*. Malden: Blackwell, 2006.
- Wolfram, W. The grammar of urban African American Vernacular English. *In: Kortmann, B., Schneider, E. (eds.). Handbook of Varieties of English*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, 2004.
- Bernasiewicz, M. *Młódzież i popkultura. Dyskursy światopoglądowe, recepcja i opór*. Katowice: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Śląskiego, 2009.

## Concluding notes to Round Table 4

The applied value of discourse linguistics reflects itself in the resulting possibility to optimize the social practices performed by discourses. Through case studies researchers learn how social interaction operates and then suggest new improved models of social behaviors, manifested in discourse, that are called to correct the shortcomings.

Round Table 4 discussed several cases that represent social and professional practices studied by different scholars, using original methods, aimed at various goals and with varied degree of deepening into discourse. We have expected to see the specifics of Eastern European scientific writing with its sub-genres which reflect Slavic mentality and tendency to imply most of the information that the English-language scientific tradition requires to vividly demonstrate. Thus, we saw a diversity of approaches to presenting the results of a case study research. Some of the papers displayed a more or less gradual descriptive style of presenting case studies, focusing on the overall coverage of research constituents (articles by Hanna Shmagun and Anna Matyszczyk) or its procedure and the very reasoning process (Alena Savich and Irina Oukhvanova's paper). Others chose an elliptical approach, exposing the main conclusions of their research accompanied with some illustrations from actual texts (works by Olga Zernetskaya, Pavel Zernetski, Tatyana Skrebtsova, Alla Kozhinova, and Lidia Mazur-Mezhva). In spite of no discussion exhibited in the latter type of writing, the profundity of provided conclusions leaves no doubts in the accuracy of research that has been conducted by the authors.

It is remarkable that all the reports of this Round Table allow certain inferences about the system of social relations that underlies discourses. In the course of our round table discussion, discourse agency revealed itself as a content-focused discourse category. Regardless of purposes of study provided by our participants, types of discourse under scrutiny, or research units chosen as their specific foci (semantic, cognitive or linguistic at large), all agents of discourse (discourse propositions or communicative acts) are explicitly and implicitly weaved into its fabric at all structural levels both deep and surface. In *hybrid discourses* (the cases of representations of the Estonian e-Government system and the documentary discourse of an official Belarusian state body) there proved to be different types of functional agents, implicitly or explicitly stated. Their cooperation is always mediated whether by technology, another agent (as in e-Government) or another discipline represented by its terminology (as in the passport of specialty case). It is also noticeable that in hybrid discourses propositional agents and functional agents are the same, meaning that addresser and addressee of discourse become the characters of the very story that discourses tell.

Thus, the case studies from Issue 1 put an objective for discourse linguistics studies to reconstruct not only the propositional and pragmatic actors of hybrid discourses, but also to reveal their interconnections, both discursive and outer to discourse ones. It is of importance to show the discursive mechanism of how relationships between functional agents are built throughout the discourse, to restore the process of addresser-addressee relations building. In this regard, agency (as a discourse research category in hybrid discourse studies) appears to be rather dynamic than static, and appeals to latent content rather than explicit one. I think that in this connection we could offer another term to emphasize the qualities of the category mentioned here, the one of *addressation*.

On reading the case studies that focus on global and national discourses, we cannot but agree that social agents (carriers and users of discourses) predetermine the features and contents of discursive practices. So, overwhelming accessibility of the Internet and its unsegmented audience precondition the discourse's ability of self-reproduction, as well as its super polyintentional nature. Research on the pandiscourse of Internet in terms of agency or addressation would provide the route-map to find the origins of interpersonal through global conflicts and, at the same time, to find the common ground for settling these conflicts. At the level of national discourses we witness the same inscribing of outer to discourse social situation into its content. The case of Slavic mass media discourse analysis exemplifies how personified language, a typical agent of Slavic publicistic discourse, is portrayed through the hostile relations with other languages and pertaining to them actors – governments, professional groups and individual language users of other countries. Which is more, on the example of the works by Cyril of Turov, the reciprocal impact of agency, discourse form and content is proved to be not an exclusively contemporary trend, but a pivotal constant of even ancient Slavic discourses.

Yet a more detailed analysis of an *individual-represented discourse* (translator's discourse) and *social group discourse* (Hip Hop community discourse) gives an insight into the mechanism of discourse agency/addressation. Thus, we learn that the necessity to obey the laws of Hip Hop discourse and correspond to the role of an African griot, preacher and educator compels the adepts of this community to accept African American style of speaking in their everyday life, as well as make social-economic and political problems to be content of their texts. As a response to such messages, the social identity of both the addressers and addressees is being constructed. I can add that the case of Polish translation discourse analysis explains the key element of discourse agency. In fact it turns out that the focus of translation is the values that are shared by the author of the original text, translator and the target audience of translation; all the peculiarities of the original message, which are foreign to the target language culture, are adapted and transformed while being translated.

My vision is that, overall, the works presented in this Round Table add a lot to a really important and actual perspective in discourse linguistic research. It seems evident to accept that it is the focus on discourse agency/addressation, taken as an object of a discourse study, which makes discourse linguistics a solid science.

## Editorial Post-Comments

Yana Kuzminam, Irina Oukhvanova, Alena Savich, Ekaterina Vasilenko

This Volume attempts to collect the thoughts and ideas developed by forty representatives of a discourse research community. Such a wide variety of discourse studies is believed to provide a representative sampling and enable us to make some observations regarding the research potential of Eastern European scholars as actors in the discourse field. We realize, however, that this collection is just one particular representation of research activities in Eastern Europe. In this respect we remain humble in our ambition to reflect the state of the Discourse Studies and, thus, are open to criticism. One of the reasons to have doubts is the fact that the English language is native to none of our authors. Being trapped in the necessity to use English as a *lingua franca* for publication we simultaneously had to address translators, consultants and editors who inevitably turned into our coauthors without, at times, being co-researchers.

And yet, the following accomplishments of this Volume have to be mentioned:

1. We have highlighted the directions that can promote discourse analysis and serve as a source of inspiration for contemporary arts and humanities at large and for linguistics with its different branches in particular.
2. The main revelation for linguists has been the fact that even being nowadays an umbrella term for grammar, semantics, syntax and stylistics, linguistics can no longer remain a "thing-in-itself". Working with speech data linguists inevitably move to analyzing not only the cognition of language but also reality. This is a point where both new categories and new terms are needed, or those that already exist start acquiring new meanings. This is the point when linguistics begins to reconsider its objectives, aims, methods and its very essence, entering the boundless field of discourse studies.
3. We have demonstrated the advanced reflexive capacities of linguistic studies of a new type, since the studies intended not only to enrich the apparatus of linguistics used to describe the state and functioning of the language system, but also possessing the applied focus: tools developed with linguistics and its adjacent humanitarian sciences for the purpose of learning about people and their interactions. Every paper presented by participants of the Round Tables has its specific social object manifested in a unique

discursive form. It is the diversity of these objects, not reduced to a certain number or definite content that underscores the high applicability of discourse analysis for learning about humans as social-beings, their communities and societies with regard to both their immanent nature and *ad hoc*, situational and time-biased characteristics.

4. The qualitative studies, presented in the collection have proven themselves to be as reliable and revealing as quantitative methods in the field of society-oriented discourse linguistics for the reason that social reality never repeats itself literally, but is constantly changing in minor and major ways. Our authors show, however, that studies of such a naturally unstable object may have more or less stable orientations.
5. The participants have demonstrated that discourse studies seeking to reconstruct prototypical content, together with its typical linguistic manifestations, and shared by a number of the situations of human interaction with a certain communicative goal, are as significant as research into the discursive mechanism of persuasion in a single communication practice. The former discloses the experience of human interaction which is oft-repeated due to the commonness of human nature and subsequent laws of human communication. The latter focus on unique experiences, which can be potentially repeated when needed or desired by communicants. The outcomes of both lay foundation for social diagnostics and prognoses that are scientifically sound, can be verified and supplemented by conducting complementing research with the involvement of other sciences and has to be tested by time and history.
6. By approaching the world of Eastern European reality, and science in particular, we have examined ourselves and, as a result, have reflected over our own nature, history and essence.

To conclude, the topics of the present volume correspond to the dichotomy of discourse as a theory and discourse as a method, uncovering language use beyond the sentence level as a socio-cultural phenomenon forming complex research design, yet enabling researchers to address sophisticated research questions. It turns out that, at the moment, we are most focused on the understanding man's reality, not on the critical potential of discourse analysis. Yet this Volume, with its remarkable imbalance towards understanding communication, its processes and products, is still it is inexorably revealing. We are aware of this and can attribute this outcome to the necessity of the present. As mankind has found itself embroiled in political, economic, cultural and social transformations, people are challenged to perform activities that are consciously grounded and evaluated, properly nominated and represented in texts. It means that the development of language, accumulation of texts, as well as cognitive and axiological structures and the optimization of communication formats in accordance with the current situation will require time and efforts. We are attempting to master these issues. The given book is our authors' common attempt, open to future and your critical attention.

## Contributors to Volume 2

- Badiyan-Siekierzycka, Natalia**, Doctoral student, Department of English Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Gdańsk, Poland.
- Barczewska, Shala**, Dr., research assistant, Institute of Foreign Philology, Jan Kochanowski University, Kielce, Poland.
- Bekreeva, Yuliya**, PhD, assistant professor, Minsk State Linguistic University
- Bogushevich, Dmitry**, Dr. hab., professor, English Language Faculty, Minsk State Linguistic University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Chuchkevich, Irina**, PhD, lecturer, Faculty of Translation and Interpreting, Minsk State Linguistic University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Czachur, Waldemar**, Dr. hab., professor, Department of German Studies, University of Warsaw, Poland.
- Dinkevich, Alevtina**, lecturer, Faculty of Foreign Languages, Mogilev State University named after A. Kuleshov, Mogilev, Belarus.
- Dmitrieva, Irina**, PhD, associate professor, head of the Department of History and English Grammar, Minsk State Linguistic University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Fomin, Ivan**, PhD, research fellow at the Centre for Advanced Methods of Social Sciences and Humanities, INION RAN, Moscow, Russia.
- Gaida, Stanislaw**, Dr. hab., professor, University of Opole, Opole, Poland.
- Galagaeva, Antonina**, senior lecturer, English Language Faculty, Minsk State Linguistic University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Grzmil-Tylutki, Halina** Dr. hab., professor, the Jagiellonian University, Krakow, Poland.
- Goritskaya, Olga**, PhD, postdoctoral researcher, Department of General Linguistics, Minsk State Linguistics University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Gurenchik, Ekaterina**, PhD student, Institute of Journalism, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.
- Ivanova-Mitsevich, Irina**, PhD, senior researcher, Belarus-Poland.
- Janovec, Ladislav**, Dr., assistant professor, Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic.
- Karapetyana, Indra**, Dr. hab., professor, head of the Department of English Studies, director of Modern Language and Business Studies, BSP, director of the Center for Applied Linguistics of the Faculty of Humanities, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia.
- Karpinski, Maciej**, Dr. hab., professor, Institute of Linguistics, Adam Mickiewicz University in Poznań, Poland.
- Klushina, Natalia**, Dr. hab., professor, Department of the Stylistics of the Russian Language, Moscow State M. Lomonosov University, Moscow, Russia.

**Kozhinova, Alla**, Dr. hab., professor, Department of Theoretical and Slavic Linguistics, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Kuzmina, Yana**, Dr., assistant professor, researcher of the Centre for Applied Linguistics, Department of English Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia.

**Markovich, Anna**, senior lecturer, Department of English Language and Speech Communication, Institute of Journalism, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Martyssiuk, Natela**, PhD, assistant professor, Department of the English Language, Belarusian State Technical University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Matyszczyk, Anna**, MA, Institute of English Studies, University of Lodz, Lodz, Poland.

**Mazur-Mezhva, Lidia**, Dr., associate professor, Institute of Foreign Philology, Jan Kohanowski University, Kielce, Poland.

**Norman, Boris**, Dr. hab., professor, Department of Theoretical and Slavic Linguistics, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Ostapenko, Darya**, PhD, lecturer at the Department of Translatology and Intercultural Communication, Faculty of Romance and Germanic Philology, Voronezh State University, Voronezh, Russia.

**Oukhvanova (Oukhvanova-Shmygova), Irina**, Dr. hab., professor, Institute of Foreign Philology, Jan Kohanowski University, Kielce, Poland; Institute of Journalism, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Piotrowska-Oberda, Ewa**, Dr., associate professor, Institute of Foreign Philology, Jan Kohanowski University, Kielce, Poland.

**Putikov, Ilja**, business literature analyst, startup-course creator at international startup “Growth hacks”.

**Rozina, Gunta**, Dr., hab., professor, head researcher of the Centre for Applied Linguistics, Department of English Studies, Faculty of Humanities, University of Latvia, Riga, Latvia.

**Savich, Alena**, senior lecturer, Department of English Language and Speech Communication, Institute of Journalism, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Shevtsova, Alesya**, PhD, assistant professor, Department of English Language and Culture, Mogilev State A. Kuleshov University, Mogilev, Belarus.

**Shmagun, Hanna**, PhD student, Faculty of History, Belarusian State University, Minsk, Belarus; PhD visiting student, Tallinn University of Technology, Tallinn, Estonia.

**Skrebtsova, Tatyana**, Dr., assistant professor, Department of Philology and Arts, St. Petersburg State University, St-Petersburg, Russia.

**Soloviova, Maria**, PhD, assistant professor, Department of History and Grammar of English, Minsk State Linguistic University, Minsk, Belarus.

**Vasilenko, Ekaterina**, PhD, assistant professor, Department of Theoretical and Applied Linguistics, Mogilev State A. Kuleshov University, Mogilev, Belarus.

**Zelenkov, Vasily**, researcher, lecturer, Department of Philology, Belarusian State Pedagogical University named after Maxim Tank, Minsk, Belarus.

**Zernetska, Olga**, Dr. hab., professor, head of the Department of Global and Civilization Processes, Institute of the World History of the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine, Kiev, Ukraine.

**Zernetsky, Pavel**, Dr (hab.), professor, Department of English, National University of “Kyiv-Mohylanskaja Academy”, Kiev, Ukraine.



## The Postgraduate Winter/Spring/Summer School Announcement

The Postgraduate School *Language for Communication: Research Perspective* is a three-to-five-day event for individuals or groups organised by the University of Latvia, Riga (Latvia) in cooperation with the Field Committee on Linguistics of Discourse of the International Committee of Slavists (Belarusian & Polish branch of the Field Committee), and international academic project D-ART (Germany).

**Venue:** University of Latvia, Riga

**Dates:** January/ May/June

**Target audience:** Doctoral students and researchers in Humanities

**Working language:** English

**Scope of the school:** The goal of the School is to offer training in conducting research projects in linguistics and humanities at large. The school offers a comprehensive theoretical overview of major text and discourse research methods as well as their practical application depending on the nature of the research questions and fostering interdisciplinarity.

**Mode:** lectures, seminars, a poster session and tutorials. This year (2018) the sessions focus on the development of researcher's writing skills and will comprise:

- Discourse analysis: descriptive, multi-modal, causal-genetic content modeling, content theories of discourse in their application to different discourse types
- Pragmatics: data collection in pragmatic research, pragmatic transfer in interaction

- Genre analysis: move and step analysis of research genres, genre networks, genre conventionalism, intertextuality and interdiscursivity
- Building researcher's scientific capacity: enhancement of the skills of research writing and posing research questions. 76th University of Latvia Conference:

The students are invited to attend University of Latvia conference within the scope of the school and participate in a discussion concerning the most recent scientific activities in Latvia and Eastern Europe.

**Poster presentations:**

The school will also feature a **poster presentation** session during which the participants should present their ongoing research. Upon successful completion of the course and meeting all the requirements (attendance, completion of seminar tasks and a poster presentation) 6 **ECTS** will be granted.

**To apply please submit electronically:** (a) for individuals: a brief CV (1 page) and a short summary (1 page) of your current research to [jana.kuzmina@lu.lv](mailto:jana.kuzmina@lu.lv); (b) for group application (of 10 participants or more): group application with the field and goal description; individual applications from each group member to [jana.kuzmina@lu.lv](mailto:jana.kuzmina@lu.lv) four-five months before actual schooling. The fee is 150 EUR (school materials and coffee breaks) which may be reduced for groups of 10 applicants. The applicants are responsible for their travel and accommodation arrangements.

On behalf of the organising committee,

Dr. philol. Yana Kuzmina

assist. professor, University of Latvia, Faculty of Humanities, Department of English Studies researcher, Centre for Applied Linguistics

