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SECTION I. THEORY OF LANGUAGE

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Гецов А.

Об одном типе (не)обособленной аппозиции

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Статья поступила 08 сентября 2021г.; принята 13 декабря 2021г.; опубликована 30 декабря 2021г.

Аннотация. Предметом настоящей статьи являются возможные трансформации порядка слов в одной из базовых аппозитивных конструкций, образованной по модели имен существительное нарицательное + имен существительное собственное. Они описываются, хотя фрагментарно, в большинстве синтетических трудов по болгарской лингвистике, но интерпретируются амбивалентно, притом не только в болгарской лингвистической литературе. Внимание фокусируется в первую очередь на перестановке порядка слов в конструкциях, в которых посредством существительного нарицательного обозначается должность, профессия, специальность, национальная, политическая или религиозная принадлежность, возрастная характеристика, родственное или другие межличностные отношения, например: главният секретар Георгиев, чистачката Ваня, филологът Петров, архентинецът Лео Меси, републиканецът Ейбръхам Линкълн, евангелистът Йоан, дядо Щукар, братовчедът Георги, съседите Мишеви, колегата Жоро и др. При анализе учитывается как роль категории детерминации, так и возможность (и необходимость) обособить или не обособить постпозитивное существительное нарицательное. Кроме того, приоритетным применением логического подхода делается попытка установить направление грамматической и логико-семантической зависимости в разновидностях указанной конструкции. Своебразная инверсия в рамках анализируемой конструкции реализуется посредством двух вариантов: 1) существительное нарицательное обособляется; 2) существительное нарицательное не обособляется. Каждый из этих вариантов имеет две разновидности – в первой существительное нарицательное употребляется с нулевым артиклем; во второй существительное нарицательное употребляется с определенным артиклем. Это означает, что существует шесть теоретически возможных разновидностей рассматриваемой конструкции. Их анализ вызывает множество вопросов, чьи ответы оптимизировали бы как объективную и корректную интерпретацию синтактико-семантического отношения между компонентами аппозитивной конструкции, так и корректное и однозначное определение их синтаксического статуса.
Аппозиция; Аппозитивная конструкция; Обособленные члены; Обособленная аппозиция; Необособленная аппозиция

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**Anton Getsov**  | **On a type of (non-)detached appositive**

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**Abstract.** This paper examines the possible word-order transformations of one of the prototypical appositional constructions, following the pattern *common noun + proper noun*. These constructions have been described, although fragmentarily, in most synthetic works on Bulgarian syntax, but they have been interpreted ambivalently, also in studies beyond the Bulgarian linguistic literature. The paper focuses primarily on word-order variations in constructions in which the noun designates a position, profession, academic field, nationality, political or religious affiliation, age, kinship or other interpersonal relation; for instance, главният секретар Георгиев, чистачката Ваня, филологът Петров, архентинецът Лео Меси, републиканецът Ейбръхам Линкълн, евангелистът Йоан, дядо Щукар, братовчедът Георги, съседите Мишеви, колегата Жоро, etc. The analysis takes into consideration the role of the category *determination*, as well as the possibility (and the need) of the noun in post-position to be marked or not to be marked by comma-intonation (as a detached or non-detached appositive). Furthermore, the logical approach has been emphasized in this study aiming to determine the direction of the grammatical and logical-semantic dependence in the variants of the analyzed construction. The specific inversion within the analysed construction is realized by means of two variants: 1) the noun is marked by comma-intonation; 2) the noun is not marked by comma-intonation. Each of these variants has two sub-types – in the first sub-type, the noun is used with a zero article; in the second sub-type, the noun has a definite article. This means that there are six theoretically possible variants of the analysed construction. Their analysis raises many questions and their answers would contribute to the objective and accurate interpretation of the syntactic-semantic relation between the components of the appositional construction, as well as the correct and unambiguous determination of their syntactic status.

**Keywords:** Appositive; Appositional construction; Detached parts; Detached appositive; Non-detached appositive

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**Ключевые слова:** Аппозиция; Аппозитивная конструкция; Обособленные члены; Обособленная аппозиция; Необособленная аппозиция

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Введение

Словосочетания в современном болгарском языке, содержащие необособленное приложение (необособленную апопозицию) можно сгруппировать в три структурных типа: 1) имя существительное нарицательное + имя существительное нарицательное, напр.: политологът остре, художник карикатурист, предци емигранти, биячите провокатори, дрон камикадзе; 2) имя существительное нарицательное + имя существительное собственное, напр.: прозвището Чудомир, романът «Голите и мъртвите», връх Ботев, генерал Займов, доцент Петров, колегата Галов, вуйчо Ваньо; 3) имя существительное собственное + имя существительное собственное, напр.: Румен Димитров – Попа, Никола Савов Хаджисиев – Пиколо, Природо-математическа гимназия «Васил Друмев», Национална спортна академия «Васил Левски».

В некоторых из конструкций, образованных по второй модели, в которых посредством существительного нарицательного чаще всего обозначается должность, профессия, специальность, национальная, политическая или религиозная принадлежность, возрастная характеристика, родственное или другие межличностные отношения, напр.: инспектор Стрезов, касиерка Благоева, заварчикът Пешо, художникът Стоян Венев, българката Станка Златева, демократът Желю Желев, католичката Мери, студентът Васил, мома Гергана, съседите Петрови, колегата Стоев, возможно изменение порядка слов. В результате такой синтаксической перестановки два имена существительных меняются местами – существительное нарицательное располагается после существительного собственного: Стрезов(), инспектор; Благоева(), касиерка; Пеюо(), заварчика; Стоян Венев(), художница; Стана Златева(), българка; Желю Желев(), демократът; Мери(), католичка; Васил(), студентът; Гергана(), мама; Петрови(), съседите; Стоев(), колегата (Запятые, заключенные в скобки, означают, что применение знаков препинания зависит от авторовой интенции, с учетом специфики литературной нормы.)

Свободолаинва инверсия в рамках конструкции практически реализуется двумя способами: существительное нарицательное обособляется, напр: Стоян Венев, художница; существительное нарицательное не обособляется, напр: Стоян Венев художника. Каждый из вариантов имеет две разновидности: в первой существительное нарицательное употребляется с нулевым артиклем; во второй существительное нарицательное употребляется с определенным артиклем. Следовательно, теоретически возможных вариантов указанной конструкции – три; каждый из них реализуется посредством двух своих разновидностей:

(1) Имя существительное нарицательное + имя существительное собственное.

(1а) Имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем + имя существительное собственное, напр.: инспектор Стрезов; касиерка Благоева; заварчик Пеюо.

(1б) Имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем + имя существительное собственное, напр.: инспекторът Стрезов; касиерката Благоева; заварчика Пешо.

(2) Имя существительное собственное + имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем.

(2а) Имя существительное собственное + необособленное имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем, напр.: Стрезов инспектор; Благоева касиерка; Пеюо заварчик.

(2б) Имя существительное собственное + обособленное имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем, напр.: Стрезов, инспектор; Благоева, касиерка; Пеюо, заварчик.
(3) Имя существительное собственное + имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем.

(3а) Имя существительное собственное + необособленное имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем, напр.: Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешио заварчикът.

(3б) Имя существительное собственное + обособленное имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем, напр.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерката; Пешио, заварчикът.

Условия и обстоятельства, при которых осуществляются эти трансформации, как и их последствия – в связи с синтаксическим статусом обоих имен существительных – все еще не привлекли внимания болгарских языковедов. Отсутствие специального исследования, предметом которого являлась бы перестановка порядка слов в рамках аппаративной конструкции, особенно в связи с категорией детерминации, весьма осязательно при неизбежной и важной дифференциации конструкций с необособленной аппозицией и конструкций с обособленной аппозицией.

Несмотря на то, что в рамках разных концепций, мнений и исследований эта проблема рассматривается фрагментарно, поверхностно, частично, способы, по которым синтаксическая перестановка в аппаративной конструкции интерпретируется языками болгарских языковедов. Отсутствие специального исследования, предметом которого являлась бы перестановка порядка слов в рамках аппаративной конструкции, особенно в связи с категорией детерминации, весьма осязательно при неизбежной и важной дифференциации конструкций с необособленной аппозицией и конструкций с обособленной аппозицией.

Первый вопрос касается разграничения синтаксических категорий приложения (аппозиции) и обособления. В сущности корень дальнейших трудностей, сомнений и противоречий можно искать в истории пониманий этих явлений в болгарских грамматиках, для которых по традиции, установленной еще с появления Синтаксиса болгарского языка (1888) Атанаса Илиева, характерно смешивение этих двух синтаксических категорий. Эмблематичный пример, иллюстрирующий воспринятое в конце XIX века статус-кво, – это толкование двух указанных категорий Александром Теодоровым-Баланом. Выдающийся языковед утверждает, что в словосочетаниях служитель Рада и Рада служитель, как и в рабата Силян и Силян рабата, которые, по его мнению, тождественны, имена существительные нарицательные функционируют как определения, а существительные собственные – как определяемые. В словосочетаниях Рада, служитель, и Силян, рабата по словам А. Теодорова-Балана имена нарицательные функционируют как приложения (Теодоров-Балан, 1940: 432). В связи с предметом настоящего исследования два пункта в указанной трактовке обращают на себя внимание. Первый состоит в том, что автор пишет о тождественности двух вариантов порядка слов. Об этом пойдет речь далее в настоящем изложении. Второй заключается в том, что он отмечает, хотя имплицитно, явную корреляцию между синтаксическими функциями и категорией обособления. По его мнению, необособленные существительные нарицательные в примерах Рада служитель и Силян рабата являются определениями; однако если их обособить, они становятся приложениями. Несмотря на то, что эта...
трактовка неприемлема с современной точки зрения, нельзя не признать, что в ней глубокая внутренняя логика.

Примеры, подобные проанализированным А. Теодоровым-Баланом, обнаруживаются также в грамматиках А. Илиева (Илиев, 1888: 7); Манола Иванова (Иванов, 1905: 34); Петра Калканджиева (Калканджиев, 1938: 365–367); Николы Костова (Костов, 1939: 207); Димитра Попова (Попов, 1942: 184); Любомира Андрейчина (Андрейчин, 1942: 478); Л. Андрейчина, Минко Иванова и Константина Попова (Андрейчин и др., 1957: 256). В них (за исключением последних двух учебников) постпозитивные существительные наречия пунктуационно выделены, т. е. обособлены, и определяются как приложения, а препозитивным существительным наречий в конструкциях с необособленным приложением типа: мами Драгана (А. Илиев); река Тимок (Н. Костов); цар Симеон (А. Теодоров-Балан); отец Паисий (Д. Попов), приписывается синтаксическая функция определения.

П. Калканджиев предлагает такую и довольно интересную трактовку. Он считает, что имеются имена существительные в иминительном падеже, которые сокращаю целые обстоятельственные предложения, т. е. обособлены, и определяются как приложения, а препозитивным существительным наречий в конструкциях с необособленным приложением типа: мами Драгана (А. Илиев); река Тимок (Н. Костов); цар Симеон (А. Теодоров-Балан); отец Паисий (Д. Попов), приписывается синтаксическая функция определения.

Вопрос о разграничении двух синтаксических категорий – обособления и приложения, который по понятным причинам и вероятно неизбежно оказался «камнем преткновения» для болгарских языковедов в продолжение почти полувека, окончательно решен еще в 40-ых годах XX века с появлением Основной болгарской грамматики Л. Андрейчина.

Необособленное приложение vs. обособленное приложение

Второй вопрос связан с отчетливой и ясной дифференциацией необособленных втоерстепенных членов предложения от их обособленных коррелятов, между которыми существует грамматическая синонимия, и, в частности, – с
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Здесь обязательно нужно учесть тот факт, что переход имени существительного наречательного от препозиции к постпозиции по отношению к существительному собственному благоприятствует его обособлению, поскольку слабая синтаксическая связь между двумя именами существительными в исходной конструкции (из-за отсутствия четких и бесспорных эксплицирующих ее грамматических показателей) становится еще более лабильной и скомпрометированной.

Кроме того, в своей монографии Обособленные члены предложения с синтаксической и стилистической точки зрения Е. Георгиева креативным образом отстаивает идею о том, что обособленные члены – это не только «второстепенные члены плюс что-то», но они также «функциональные корреляты редуцированных подчиненных предложений минус что-то» (Георгиева, 1983: 26). Автор
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углубленно рассматривает грамматические и смысловые особенности обособленных членов и выявляет причины их использования в речи. Она приходит к выводу, что синтаксическая категория обособленных членов обладает следующими признаками облигаторного характера: интонационно-смысловой самостоятельностью; структурной необязательностью по отношению к содержащему их предложению; функциональным предназначением в качестве дополнительно поясняющих членов с отчетливо выделяющимися стилистическим отражением (Георгиева, 1983: 39–40). По мнению автора, выражение полупредикативных отношений с помощью обособленных членов отличается изменчивым и непоследовательным характером, поэтому указанную возможность необходимо учитывать, но она не может быть частью дефиниции о категории обособленных членов (Георгиева, 1983: 40).

Очевидно, что между первым утверждением Е. Георгиевой («в этом примере ничего не меняется, если перейти к препозитивному необособленному приложению»), с одной стороны, и остальными ее утверждениями, которыми корректно и недвусмысленно доказываются различия между необособленными и обособленными членами, с другой стороны, наблюдается логическое противоречие. Трансформация порядка слов – это лишь результативное формальное выражение намного более существенных изменений в грамматическом и логико-семантическом статусах как аппозитивной конструкции в целом, так и ее компонентов в отдельности. Попытка объяснить и сгладить это противоречие требует гораздо более усилий, чем его констатация.

К уже приведенным мнениям А. Пешковского в отношении специфики обособленных членов, Л. Чесноковой о первичных и вторичных синтаксических функциях, как и к некоторым из утверждений Е. Георгиевой, уместно добавить и концепцию Игоря Распопова. Русский лингвист противопоставляет сочинительное и подчинительное синтаксические отношения, устанавливая и легитимируя четыре разновидности подчинительной связи – субординацию, координацию, тяготение и аппликацию. Он анализирует различия между необособленным и обособленным приложением и приходит к выводу, что для необособленного приложения, напр.: река Волга, характерна субординация, которая понимается как «прямая и односторонняя связь между главным и зависимым компонентами» (Распопов, 1966: 8), а для обособленного приложения характерна аппликация (по словам автора более точным термином являлось бы слово приложение, но из-за его неопределенности он избегает его употребления). В авторовой концепции в качестве аппликации определяется полупредикативное отношение, которое всегда наблюдается между обособленным членом и словом (или частью) основного предложения, в котором он участвует.

Однако более важным является то, как И. Распопов интерпретирует различия между субординацией, при которой оба компонента образуют единое сложное наименование, и аппликацией, при которой оба компонента функционируют как наименования-дублеты. «В предложении Наш лучший ученик Петя Иванов выступил на школьном вечере с докладом наблюдается субординация: приложение Петя Иванов присоединяется к определяемому ученик посредством последовательного расширения конструктивно-синтаксического ряда (Наш лучший ученик + Петя Иванов). В предложении Петя Иванов, наш лучший ученик, выступил на школьном вечере с докладом наблюдается субординация: приложение Петя Иванов присоединяется к определяемому ученик посредством последовательного расширения конструктивно-синтаксического ряда (Наш лучший ученик = Петя Иванов)» (Распопов, 1966: 7). Хотя аппликация заметно приближается к
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сочинительному отношению, она, по мнению И. Распопова, все же является: «особой разновидностью подчинения, для которой характерно то, что подчиненный компонент не ставится рядом с подчиняющим, а как бы накладывается на него и по этой причине уподобляется ему в его синтаксическом отношении по отношению к другим компонентам предложения» (Распопов, 1966: 8).

Очевидно, что в типе аппозитивной конструкции, являющемся предметом настоящего анализа, между препозитивным необособленным существительным нарицательным или постпозитивным обособленным существительным нарицательным, с одной стороны, и именем существительным собственным, с другой стороны, устанавливается различный тип синтаксического отношения, следовательно, имена существительные нарицательные в пре- и постпозиции выполняют различные синтаксические функции. Формальная трансформация порядка слов в рамках аппозитивной конструкции является результатом множества изменений не только синтаксического, но также семантического, коммуникативного и стилистического характера.

Препозитивное имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем vs. препозитивное имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем

Третий вопрос затрагивает интерпретацию синтаксических функций препозитивного имени существительного нарицательного с нулевым артиклем и препозитивного имени существительного нарицательного с определенным артиклем, т. е. это разновидности (1а), напр.: инспектор Стрезов; касиерка Благоева; заварчик Пешио, и (1б), напр.: инспекторът Стрезов; касиерката Благоева; заварчикът Пешио. Здесь сразу производит впечатление факт, что второй и третий примеры первой разновидности (1а) являются неграмматическими конструкциями.

В болгарском синтаксисе по традиции, заложенной Л. Андрейчинным, считается, что: 1) если имя существительное нарицательное употребляется с нулевым артиклем, оно выполняет синтаксическую функцию приложения, а существительное собственное – определяемого (если поменять местами имена существительные и одновременно с этим обоснобить имя нарицательное, имя собственное дефинируется как определяемое, а имя нарицательное – как обособленный член, выполняющий функцию приложения); 2) если существительное нарицательное употребляется с определенным артиклем, синтаксические функции имен существительных меняются, т. е. имя нарицательное функционирует как определяемое, а имя собственное – как приложение (Андрейчич, 1942: 465). Однако автор не дает ответ на вопрос, как определить синтаксические функции компонентов в аппозитивной конструкции, если существительное нарицательное употребляется только с нулевым артиклем или только с определенным артиклем.

В настоящем изложении тезис Л. Андрейчина принимается с некоторыми замечаниями. Одна из причин этого – специфика референтной отнесенности компонентов в аппозитивной конструкции. Так, например, по мнению Ольги Москалской, определенный и неопределенный артикль в качестве референтных сигналов не действуют изолированно. По этой причине их нельзя толковать однозначно, без учета лексического значения существительного, его синтаксической позиции в предложении, а также смысла всего предложения (Москалская, 1981: 105). Ирина Пулеха считает, что это касается и остальных актуализаторов. «В английском языке – пишет И. Пулеха – и определенный, и неопределенный артикль могут указывать как референтную, так и нереферентную отнесенность имени
существительного к экстралингвистическому объекту. Референтная или нереферентная интерпретация именной группы зависит от двух факторов. Первый состоит в том, какой смысл вкладывает в нее говорящий» (Пулеха, 1999: 49). То, что референция не является свойством самих языковых единиц — это аксиоматический тезис; она осуществляется говорящим как отдельный компонент в речевом акте). Второй заключается в том, что толкование именной группы «в большой степени зависит от фактора адресата. То, что известно адресанту, возможно неизвестно адресату и наоборот» (Пулеха, 1999: 49–50). И. Пулеха еще утверждает, что «с одной стороны, определенная дескрипция может выполнять идентифицирующую функцию и иметь конкретно-референтный денотативный статус. С другой стороны, именная группа с определенным артиклем может иметь и родовой, и экзистенциальный статус. (...) Любая определенная дескрипция может употребляться как референтно, так и нереферентно...» (Пулеха, 1999: 55). Кроме того, Л. Андрейчин не учитывает лексические и морфологические факторы, которые могут блокировать использование нулевого артикля или определенного артикля в аппозитивной конструкции, образованной по модели существительное наречательное + существительное собственное. Речь идет о некоторых именах существительных наречательных, обозначающих должность, профессию, специальность, национальную, политическую или религиозную принадлежность, возрастную характеристику, родственное или другое межличностное отношение, напр.: касиерка Благоева; заварчик Пешо; католик Питър; грък Циципас; баба Тонка; бай Георги. В частности о названиях родственных связей, употребляющихся с нулевым артиклем, которые означают единичный и определенный объект, авторитетным считается мнение Руселины Ницоловой, согласно которому: «Некоторые существительные наречательные в ед. ч., являющиеся названиями родственных связей, употребленные самостоятельно (мама, патко, дядо и др.) или в сочетании с краткой формой притяжательных местоимений (майка ми, брат ми и т. п.), употребляются с нулевым артиклем, несмотря на то, что они означают единичный и определенный объект» (Ницолова, 2006: 105). С другой стороны, большая часть анализируемых в настоящем исследовании имен существительных наречательных, обозначающих должность, профессию, специальность и т. п., и функционирующих в виде одного из компонентов аппозитивной конструкции, могут употребляться только с определенным артиклем, т. е. в соответствии с идеями Л. Андрейчина, в аппозитивной конструкции они всегда будут выполнять функцию определяемых.

Что касается роли категории детерминации, по мнению Л. Андрейчина, грамматический детерминатор, т. е. определенный артикль, имеет более существенное значение при референции, чем семантический детерминатор, т. е. чем имя существительное собственное. Иная позиция у Ивана Недева, кто, подобно Алексею Востокову, считает, что в словосочетаниях этого типа «носителем семантического центра является имя существительное собственное, поэтому роль приложения выполняет имя существительное наречательное, независимо от его позиции по отношению к имени существительному собственному, обозначающему лицо, и независимо от того, с артиклем ли оно употребляется, или без артикля» (Недев, Събев, 1989: 66).

Синтаксический подход, применяемый изолированно Л. Андрейчинным, вряд ли может быть достаточно приемлемым решением поставленного вопроса. Причина в том, что как он, так и остальные языковеды-болгаристы, которые безоговорочно принимают его тезис и последовательно утверждают его, не разграничивают индивидуальную и общую...
(genrephric) definiteness in word combinations, containing an adjectival addition (apposition). Besides that, in the Bulgarian syntactic literature all else is not enough to pay attention to two cases of use of the nominal constituent with a null article in an appositional construction. The first case of use of the nominal (straight, concrete), in which the denotate is not a unique object; this use is reference. The second case of use of the nominal (covariant, non-concrete, qualifying), in which the denotate is not a unique object, and these are the class features of the class; in this case the use of the name — non-reference (Moskal'ska, 1981: 105–106).

Only a few of the Bulgarian linguists, although sporadically, contest the unpopular position, that in the constructions under consideration, in the case of a non-determiner component, i.e. as defined, always, non-constantly from the presence or absence of the definite article, functions and has a reference nominal constituent (see, e.g., Gecev, 2020). Indeed, this position is divided in the current presentation: from a logical-semantic point of view (in the absence of any expression of grammatical relations between the components of an appositional construction) it has a reference nominal constituent as in (1a), and in (1b) functions as defined. As пишет и Moni Almleh, «Простая логика показывает, что видовое понятие – это то, которое может уточнить родовое, а не обратно» (Almleh, 1993: 89).

Obsozublennoe pripolzhenie s nulevnym artiklem vs. obsozublennoe pripolzhenie s otsredennym artiklem

The fourth question concerns the differences, related to the use of an adjectival addition with a null article and an adjectival addition with a definite article, i.e., this is the specificity (26), e.g.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерка; Пешо, заварчикът, and (36), e.g.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерка; Пешо, заварчикът. Categorically we can say that this question has already had a definite answer. For a long time this was in this С. Stoynova and К. Poppova, and also Е. Georghiya, which have elaborately and argumentatively analyzed both types of use. For the designation of adjectival components, within which the nominal constituent is used with a null article, E. Georghiya uses the term «up-to-date additions», and for the designation of adjectival components, in which the nominal constituent is used with a definite article, this uses the term «qualifying additions» (GСКЕ 1983: 234).

По мнению С. Stoynova, обосонбленное приложение без артикля представляет новое название, дающее лицу или предмету, как нечто неизвестное, незнакомое (до момента сообщения) для читателя или слушателя. Новое название предикативно приписывается определяемому, therefore the addition of this type can be replaced by a predication with the help of another, therefore the addition of this type of name can be replaced by an attributive clause, ср. Събитията в Оман – арабско княжество на Арабския полуостров – са в центъра на вниманието на обществеността от всички страни.

Обособленное приложение с артиклем представляет новое название, which is given to the object, understood by the definable, as something known, familiar to the reader or hearer. Thus, the addition of this type is serving the purpose of reminding about something known, with the purpose of clarifying a defined idea. Since the addition is in an attributive connection with the definable, it cannot be replaced...
придаточным определительным предложением. Например, в предложении Тази сутрин беше тук и Дянков, който е лесничий будет не одна (как в оригинале), а две предикции (Стоянов, 1958: 254–256).


Необособленное постпозитивное имя существительное нарицательное с нулевым артиклем vs. необособленное постпозитивное имя существительное нарицательное с определенным артиклем

Пятый вопрос касается определения синтаксических функций необособленных постпозитивных имён существительных нарицательных. Эти имена имеют две разновидности – с нулевым артиклем (2а), напр.: Стрезов инспектор; Благоева касир; Пешио заварчик, и с определенным артиклем (3а), напр.: Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешио заварчикът. В сущности этот вопрос актуален только для конструкций типа (3а), так как употребление конструкций типа (2а) в болгарском синтаксисе несостоятельно.

Согласно статус-кво, установленному в болгарском синтаксисе Л. Андрейчым, при употреблении имен существительных, означающих титулы (цар, лорд, поручик, но также доктор, инспектор, адвокат) перед именами собственными, в зависимости от того, с артиклем ли употребляется существительное нарицательное, или без, оно может функционировать как определяемое или как приложение, т. е. в инспектор Стрезов определяемым будет имя собственное Стрезов, но в инспекторът Стрезов определяемым будет имя нарицательное инспекторът. Тогда возникает вопрос какова будет функция постпозитивного существительного нарицательного с определенным артиклем, если оно не обособлено, напр.: Стрезов инспекторът, и чем будет обоснован такой тезис?


Другой вариант – это принять, что сложный симбиоз между грамматическим
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средством (трансформацией порядка слов) и семантико-прагматическим явлением (детерминацией) приводит к осуществлению вторичной метатезы приложения: инспектор (приложение) Стрезов (определяемое) → инспекторът (определяемое) Стрезов (приложение) → Стрезов (определяемое) инспекторът (приложение).

Решение пятого вопроса, предлагаемое здесь, обосновано с логической и грамматической точек зрения: как в базовом типе аппозитивной конструкции типа: инспекторът Стрезов; касиерката Благоева; заварчикът Пешо, так и в конструкциях, возникших в результате трансформации порядка слов, типа: Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешо заварчикът. Инспекторът (приложение) Стрезов (определяемое) → Стрезов (определяемое) инспекторът (приложение).

Необособленное постпозитивное имя существительное наречательное с определенным артиклем vs. обособленное постпозитивное имя существительное наречательное с определенным артиклем

Шестой, последний вопрос затрагивает интерпретацию синтаксического статуса необособленного и обособленного постпозитивного имени существительного наречательного с определенным артиклем, т. е. разновидности (3а), Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешо заварчикът, и (3б), напр.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерката; Пешо, заварчикът.

Тезис об обособленном характере существительных наречательных в конструкциях типа: Пеньо – горският; Петко Петъкт – класаря; Латиф, старят файтонджия; дядо Марин, бирникът (Чудомир), представлен в болгарских грамматиках с конца XIX до середины XX века. Он принимается и дополнительно развивается С. Стояновым, кто иллюстрирует свои утверждения примерами: Тази сутрин тук беше и Дянков, лесничеят (Й. Йовков); Янко, разносвачът на пощата, беше се отбил до хумниците, за да остави едно писмо на дядо Москва (Й. Йовков) (Стоянов, 1958: 254–255), и К. Поповым, кто аргументирует свое мнение примерами: Другарят ми, ученикът, отседна от добичето (И. Вазов); Отец Лука, епитропът, има серезно и възбледо лице (И. Вазов); Дядо Обрешко, пчеларинът, от сутрин до вечер сновеше (А. Каралийчев); На средата на масата с важност седеше Гавраил, кметът (Е. Пелин); Говореше Петър, овчарят, възгордян, но развълнуван (Й. Йовков) (Попов, 1978: 214).

Однако следует иметь в виду, что в своем учебнике Современный болгарский язык. Синтаксис (1962), опубликованном за 16 лет до указанной выше статьи, К. Попов – в зависимости от специфики различных разделов в своем учебнике – использует различный иллюстративный материал. В разделе Обособленные приложения он приводит примеры, подобные уже процитированным: Хаджи Павли, сватът, залисан от смях, ядеше с вилката на Михалаки Алафрангата (И. Вазов); Леля Станка имаше някаква далечна родина, гражданка, която живеше в София (Е. Пелин) (Попов, 1962:...

Близко к пониманию С. Брезинского мнение Русина Рушина, кто однако не разделяет такой крайний взгляд в отношении возможности обособления в анализируемых конструкциях: «Нераспространенные приложения изначально необособленные, но некоторые из них – чтобы сильнее подчеркнуть их смысл – можно обособить, напр.: Михаил Иванов, председателят, влезе в канцелярия. Обособление нераспространенных приложений характерно прежде всего для художественной речи: Баба Пена, знахарката, размахва хурката си, тича и кълне (А. Каралийчев); Ей и Балканът, хайдунът, старият, снема пред слънцето снежната гугла (Н. Марангозов). Распространенные приложения всегда обособляются. (…) В народной речи приложения после личных местоимений не обособляются, напр.: С какво сме по-лоши ние българите от вас? (Д. Талев)» (Русинов, 2000: 134).

Конечно, причины обособления не только смысловые, как утверждает Р. Русинов. В сущности, наблюдается комплекс причин, которые – с учетом формы речи и типа коммуникации – характеризуются разным вкладом и взаимодействуют друг с другом на разных уровнях и с разной интенсивностью. Здесь поддерживается тезис о том, что обособление в литературной речи не должно...
быть ни спонтанным, ни фривольным выбором участников коммуникации; оно справедливо определяется как один из существенных показателей разграничения литературной от разговорной речи (Георгев, 1983: 23). Если в устном неформальном общении имеют место такие явления, как эмоциональность, импульсивность, экспрессивность, субъективизм, то в институциональных дискурсах (особенно в письменной форме речи) обособление или необособление постпозитивного имени существительного нарицательного, помимо желаемого соответствия авторовой интенции, должно соответствовать литературной норме.


В примерах, которыми А. Пешковский иллюстрирует свой тезис, обособляется имя существительное собственное, труднее и реже обособляющееся по сравнению с существительным нарицательным, которое при перестановке порядка слов занимает позицию после собственного. Это видно из примеров, приведенных Николаем Корниловым в его критическом обзоре, цель которого – раскрыть суть упомянутой идеи А. Пешковского: «Ослабевший французский офицер был Рамбаль; повязанный платком был его денщик Морель (Л. Толстой). – Морель, денщик, принёс кастрюлю с тёплой водой… (Он же); У Юшки уже была другая старуха нянька, но Юшка признавал Ольгу выше, любимей старухи и всегда тянулся к ней… (А. Платонов)» (Корнилов, 2012: 59). Дитмар Розенталь и Маргарита Теленкова, авторы исключительно популярного Словарь-справочник лингвистических терминов, даже представляют обособление постпозитивного существительного нарицательного как нормативное предписание,

Несмотря на то, что здесь принимается тезис А. Пешковского об обособлении постпозитивного имени существительного нарицательного с определенным артиклем, которое имеет нормативный характер, в речевой практике встречается и другое возможное употребление имени нарицательного – а именно, в качестве необособленного члена. В этом отношении показательно употребление анализируемой конструкции Чудомиром. В его рассказах при именовании персонажей употребляются то необособленные, то обособленные постпозитивные существительные нарицательные, напр.: Станьо бакалинът; Недя касапина; Стойно налбантинът; Чоланка вдовицата, но также: Динко – фелдщерът; Пеньо, старшията; Йовкин, комшиите; Нинака вдовицата (Чудомир, 1981), причем очень трудно установить, какой вид употребления преобладает.

В этом случае однако следует иметь в виду, что различия между необособленными и обособленными именами существительными нарицательными в таком типе аппозитивной конструкции категорически установлены и эвентуальный выбор должен быть обдуманным и хорошо мотивированным.


Когда подвергаются анализу подобные различия, следует обратить внимание также на некоторые именные фразы, близкие к рассматриваемым, которые все же довольно сильно отличаются как с синтаксической, так и с семантической, и с коммуникативной точек зрения. Речь идет о конструкциях типа: мой инспекторът; мой Стрезов; инспекторът мой; Стрезов мой и других подобных, в которых наблюдается т. наз. местоименная реприза.

В своем учебнике, в разделе Обособленные приложения, К. Попов подчеркивает очень важное наблюдение: обособленные приложения после личных местоимений характеризируются преимущественно литературным употреблением, напр.: Тя – бедната дама – започна да плаче (Н. Вапцаров); Да, роб е той, народа, и спи дълбо, гробно (П. Яворов), в народном языке однако обособление в таких случаях избегается, напр.: Тя моята помощ се е видяла (Чудомир, 1981), причем очень трудно установить, какой вид употребления преобладает.

Поскольку разница между необособленными и обособленными именами существительными нарицательными в таком типе аппозитивной конструкции категорически установлена, эвентуальный выбор должен быть обдуманным и хорошо мотивированным. Ср. уже упомянутое выше утверждение Е. Георгиевой: «В отличие от обычных приложений, которые называют известную особенность как присущую, как данность, при обособленных приложениях соотношение иное: оно выступает, чтобы назвать, пояснить иным образом, дать дополнительные сведения, уточнить признаковые особенности» (ГСБКЕ, 1983: 233). Т.е. говорить о субъективном моменте в этом случае было бы слишком преуспевающим.

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Гецов А. Об одном типе (не)обособленной аппозиции
Getsov A. On a type of (non-)detached appositive

Вторая причина состоит в том, что, по всей вероятности, местоименная реприза, типичная для устной формы речи и неформального общения, влияет сильно, устойчиво и непосредственно на обособление нерегулярного характера в конструкциях типа Васил, майстора; Прокоп, хазаньт; Йовче, секретар-бирникът; Любо, охраната, и т. п.


В примерах Вапцаров, поетът, и Вапцаров, огнярът, обособление, соответственно необособление существительного нарицательного с определенным артиклем означает, что радикально меняются как вид семантико-синтаксического отношения между компонентами аспозитивной конструкции, так и их синтаксические функции. Если обособить второй компонент, наблюдается полупредикативное словосочетание, образованное из определяемого и обособленного члена с функцией приложения. В этом случае обособленное приложение выполняет первичную для имени существительного синтаксическую


Непоследовательное и амбивалентное толкование конструкций типа тя, пролетта; той, борецът и др. является следствием компилированных синкретических синтактико-семантических отношений в предложении, которые усложняют, а иногда блокируют поиск и нахождение достаточно адекватного и хорошо работающего подхода к их анализу и концептуализации.
функцию. Если не обособить второй компонент, он — и по причине наличия определенного артикля — будет функционировать как определяемое, а существительное собственное — как инвертированное необособленное приложение. В этом случае необособленное приложение выполняет вторичную для имени существительного функцию.

**Результаты и выводы**

Выводы, проистекающие из представленных выше наблюдений и анализов, сводятся к следующему:

В разновидностях (1а), напр.: инспектор Стрезов; касиерка Благоева; заварчик Пешо, и (1б), напр.: инспекторът Стрезов; касиерката Благоева; заварчикът Пешо проанализированной аппозитивной конструкции имя существительное нарицательное функционирует как определяемое, а существительное собственное — как приложение, поскольку — в соответствии с логическим критерием — между двумя компонентами наблюдается родо-видовое отношение. Конечно, при анализе (1б) следует учитывать существование, с одной стороны, существительных нарицательных, обозначающих некоторые наименования родственных связей и употребляющихся только с нулевым артиклем, а, с другой стороны, существование существительных нарицательных, обозначающих профессию, должность, занятие, специальность и пр., которые всегда употребляются с определенным артиклем. В этих случаях при «распределении» синтаксических функций между компонентами аппозитивной конструкции семантический критерий, учитывающий специфику их лексической семантики, выступает в поддержку логического критерия.

В разновидностях (2б), напр.: Стрезов, инспектор; Благоева, касиерка; Пешо, заварчик, и (3б), напр.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерката; Пешо, заварчикът, имя существительное нарицательное воспринимается как обособленный член с функцией приложения, причем, естественно, учитываясь логико-семантические и коммуникативные различия, связанные с употреблением формы с артиклем или без артикля, а имя существительное собственное функционирует как определяемое.

В разновидности (3а), напр.: Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешо заварчикът, имя существительное нарицательное функционирует как определяемое, подобно (1а), напр.: инспектор Стрезов; касиерка Благоева; заварчик Пешо; и (1б), напр.: инспекторът Стрезов; касиерката Благоева; заварчикът Пешо, независимо от постпозиции, являющейся результатом преднамеренного нарушения грамматического порядка слов, а имя существительное собственное функционирует как приложение.

Различия между разновидностями (3а), напр.: Стрезов инспекторът; Благоева касиерката; Пешо заварчикът, и (3б), напр.: Стрезов, инспекторът; Благоева, касиерката; Пешо, заварчикът, категорически установлены и общеприняты. Выбор одной из них должен быть заранее обдуман и мотивирован с коммуникативной, синтаксической, семантической и стилистической точек зрения.

Разновидность (2а), напр.: Стрезов инспектор; Благоева касиерка; Пешо заварчик, некорректна, как и некоторые случаи в (1б), и ее употребление может рассматриваться исключительно и только как результат недостаточно хорошо усвоенной грамматической компетенции.

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Synonymy in the terminology of computational linguistics

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Abstract. The article presents a study of synonymous relations in the computational linguistics terminology, the relevance of which is due to the need to streamline the corresponding terminology system. The study is focused on identifying the reasons for the presence of synonymous terms in the computational linguistics vocabulary, grouping them in accordance with classification features, analyzing their etymology, morphological nature, forms of variance and interchangeability. The systematization of the terms in question is based on the descriptive method of research. Etymological, definitive and quantitative analysis methods were also applied. As a result of the study, it was found that the main reasons for the presence of synonymous relations in the computational linguistics terminology are associated with a variety of term structure forming methods, the need to select Russian-language correspondences to terms of foreign language origin and the intensive emergence of new concepts due to the rapid development of the professional sphere of automatic processing of natural language. The authors propose a classification of computational linguistics terms—synonyms according to the type of synonymous relation, structure, morphological nature, the components number of the synonymous series, etymological characteristics. Interchangeable word combinations, their truncated verbal forms, abbreviations and syntactic variants of terms in computational linguistics are revealed.

Keywords: Terminology; Computational linguistics; Automatic natural language processing; Synonyms; Classification; Variance; Interchangeability


INTRODUCTION

Computational linguistics is a relatively new professional interdisciplinary field, theoretical and applied developments of which are formed at the junction of linguistics, mathematics, computational methods and data processing technologies based on artificial intelligence (Bolshakova et al., 2017; Dowell,
The study of the classification of synonymous terms and reasons for their appearance is focused on solving the most important tasks in the practical sphere related to the unification of term systems, their ordering (Taranova, Bubyreva, Taranov, 2016). In this regard, the study of synonyrmic relations in the terminology of computational linguistics seems to be an urgent task.

**MAIN PART**

**The purpose** of the article is to identify the reasons for the synonymous relations existence in the computational linguistics terminology, to group synonymous terms according to various classification criteria, to investigate them from the point of view of etymology and morphological nature, to analyze the forms of variation and interchangeability of terms in the professional sphere under consideration.

**Materials and Methods**

The sources of the factual material included texts on the computational linguistics subject, published in reference books, scientific periodicals and collections, in translation and explanatory dictionaries, in particular in the Russian-English Thesaurus on Computational Linguistics (RETCL). The systematization of the considered terms is carried out on the basis of the descriptive research method use. The origin of some terms is revealed using the etymological analysis method. A definitive analysis of the factual material served to trace the special names semantic features. The quantitative analysis method was used as an auxiliary one.

**Results and Discussion**

The reasons for the appearance and use of synonyms in professional vocabulary have been investigated in many works (Taranova, Bubyreva, Taranov, 2016; Babalova, Shirobokov, 2018; Dasovkhadzhieva, 2020; Pllana et al., 2020; Vakulik, Sichkar, 2020) In the terminology of computational linguistics, synonymy, in our opinion, is due to the following factors:

1) a variety of ways to form the terms structure;

Nixon, Graesser, 2019; Ive, Viani, Kam, 2020; Prokhorova et al., 2021). The field of computational linguistics is focused on solving various applied problems related to automatic natural language processing (Kormalev et al., 2004; Dowell, Nixon, Graesser, 2019; Mejia, 2019; Polschchykov, Igityan, 2019; Polschchykov, Lazarev, Konstantinov, 2020; Polschchykov et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020; Savin, Drews, Maestre-Andrés, 2020; Aguzumtsyan et al., 2021; Arts, How, Gomez, 2021; Dehouche, 2021; Moura, Lopes Cardoso, Sousa-Silva, 2021; Velikanova et al., 2021).

In the computational linguistics terminology, as well as in other various industry terminologies, synonymy is widespread, which causes "certain difficulties in the field of professional communication" (Taranova, Bubyreva, Taranov, 2016). The computational linguistics terms synonyms are used in oral and professional speech, in textbooks, scientific articles, dissertations, and other research literature. Special attention is paid to the consideration of synonymy in various linguistic resources. In the lexical ontology of WordNet, the words of each part of speech are grouped into **synsets** (synonymic series), which are the dictionary basic units. The presence of synonymy causes "difficulties in identifying different occurrences of terms in the text" (Bolshakova et al., 2017). This is due to the fact that "... terms are often modified when used – truncated, abbreviated, replaced with synonyms, combined, etc.: коммуникативная многозначность запроса (communicative ambiguity of the query) – коммуникативная многозначность (communicative ambiguity), синтаксическое представление (syntactic representation) – СинП (SynP), вложенный файл (attached file) – вложение (attachment). Such textual variants represent different forms of expression of the same concept and, if possible, should be recognized" (Blei, Lafferty, 2007; Blei, 2012; Bolshakova et al., 2017).
2) the expediency of selecting Russian-language correspondences to foreign origin terms;
3) the presence of various features of the nomination object that can become the basis for the name;
4) the emergence of new concepts or properties of objects in the process of sciences and technologies constant development, which makes us look for the appropriate exact nominations and the most successful names;
5) available common language synonyms from which terms can be selected;
6) the parallel use of the term and its definition possibility (definitive synonymy);
7) the desire to avoid the same word or phrase repetitions;
8) naming the same concept by different research schools, scientists;
9) the need for language economy, contributing to the use of one-word compound names and abbreviations.

According to the type of synonymic relation, absolute, relative and complex synonyms are distinguished (Fig.). The first type consists of semantically identical terms, which are called doublets: segmentation (tokenization) – "splitting text into segments with narrower informational content" (Hobson, Hannes, Cole, 2020); "the process of splitting text into linguistically significant units, i.e. words (word forms), punctuation marks, numbers and alphanumeric expressions" (Mitkov, 2003); stemmatization (normalization, lemmatization) – "bringing each word in a document to its normal form" (Bolshakova et al., 2017); "grouping of various forms of a word into clusters" (Hobson, Hannes, Cole, 2020); "the process of grouping various inflectional forms of one word in such a way that when analyzed they are processed as one word" (RETCL), sirconstant (adjunct) – "a unit that fills an active syntactic valence that does not correspond to any semantic valence" (Testelets, 2001); word (token) is "the main structural and semantic language unit that serves to name objects and their properties, phenomena, relations of reality, having a set of semantic, phonetic and grammatical features" (RETCL); "a language unit that serves to name a separate concept" (Kuznetsov, 2000); "a substring in the text located between punctuation marks" (Bolshakova et al., 2017); linguistic (language) corpus – "a certain philologically competent array of linguistic data, a set of texts selected in accordance with a certain research task and specially prepared, marked, structured, presented in a unified form" (RETCL); "a representative array of texts collected according to a certain principle (by genre, authorship, etc.) and having linguistic markup (morphological, accentual, syntactic, discursive)" (Bolshakova et al., 2017); "an approximate set of statements selected for analysis and presented in the form of a written text, tape recording, etc." (Akhmanova, 2004); template (sample) – "description of a linguistic construct that is used to reflect the desired fact or object in the text and describes various attributes of the text: morphological features of words, their syntactic meaning and relationship, belonging to a separate fragment of a sentence; word order, distance between words, the presence of keywords characterizing the situation" (Kormalev et al., 2004); "a formal description (sample) of a language construct that needs to be found in the text in order to extract the necessary information" (Bolshakova et al., 2017).
Fig. Classification of computational linguistics terms-synonymy

Semantically similar terms belong to relative synonyms, examples of which are: computational linguistics – ("a direction in applied linguistics focused on the computer tools use – programs, computer technologies for organizing and processing data – for modeling the language functioning in various conditions, situations, problem areas, etc., as well as the entire scope of computer models application of language in linguistics and related disciplines" (RETCL) and automatic natural language processing (has a narrower meaning: "the research direction dealing with ... computer processes modeling of the texts in natural language analysis and generation, sounding speech recognition and synthesis, as well as solving applied problems related to the text and sounding speech transformation, for example, the resolution of the words ambiguity in the text, machine translation, automatic abstracting, speaker identification by voice (speaker identification) and many others" (RETCL); ambiguity resolution ("competing variants removal from the linguistic object representation (text) while maintaining a consistent interpretation")
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(RETCL) and homonymy removal (has a refined definition: "the stage of text analysis at which a single variant of morphological analysis for each token is selected" (Bolshakova et al., 2017).

Complex synonyms combine the terms of the first two types, for example, the phrases opinion extraction and tonality analysis, meaning "identifying emotionally colored vocabulary and emotional evaluation of the author in relation to the objects in question in the text" (RETCL), are absolute synonyms, and the term automatic text processing ("text conversion in artificial or natural language using a computer" (RETCL) is a relative synonym of the first two.

Synonymous terms differ in structure. Parallel use of the following terms has been found in the computational linguistics terminology:

1) one-word terms: фонация (phonation) – голосообразование (vocalization); теггирование (tagging) – разметка (markup); репрезентативность (representativeness) – сбалансированность (balance);

2) one-word term and phrase combination: ресинтез (resynthesis) – вокодерный синтез (vocoder synthesis); тема (theme) – логический субъект (logical subject); тон (tone) – мелодика речи (speech melody), формант (formant) – полюс спектра (pole of the spectrum); цель (goal) – конечная точка (endpoint); чтение (reading) – репродукционная речь (reproduced speech); тезаурус (thesaurus) – семантический словарь (semantic dictionary); оцифровка (digitization) – цифровое кодирование (digital coding); коллокация (collocation) – устойчивое словосочетание (stable phrase); кластеризация (clustering) – кластерный анализ (cluster analysis);

3) terminological combinations: извлечение информации (information extraction) – выделение концептов (concepts identification), группа числительного (a numerals group) – количественная конструкция (quantitative construction); референциальный анализ (referential analysis) – разрешение анафоры (anaphora resolution); система управления терминологией (terminology management system) – терминологический менеджер (terminology manager).

In the computational linguistics context, in addition to synonyms, various forms of same terminological phrases expression are used interchangeably:

- terminological phrases and their truncated verbal forms: автоматическое реферирование (automatic referencing) – автореферирование (autoreference);
- terminological phrase and the corresponding abbreviation: компьютерная лингвистика (computational linguistics) – КЛ (CL), машинный перевод (machine translation) – МП (МР), лингвистический процессор (linguistic processor) – ЛП (LP), автоматическое распознавание речи (automatic speech recognition) – АРР (ASR), информационно-поисковая система (information retrieval system) – ИРС (ИПС), искусственная нейронная сеть (artificial neural network) – ИНС (INN); терминологический банк данных (terminological data bank) – ТБД (ТДВ).

By morphological nature, synonyms - nouns are the most common in the studied vocabulary (75.2%), for example, артикуляция (articulation) – произнесение (pronunciation); оцифровка (digitization) – цифровое кодирование (digital coding); кластеризация (clustering) – кластерный анализ (cluster analysis); извлечение информации (information extraction) – выделение концептов (concepts identification), группа числительного (a numerals group) – количественная конструкция (quantitative construction); референциальный анализ (referential analysis) – разрешение анафоры (anaphora resolution); система управления терминологией (terminology management system) – терминологический менеджер (terminology manager).

A different number of components may belong to a synonymous series in the vocabulary computational linguistics:

1) two components: именной (nominal) – субстантивный (substantive); просодическая (prosodic) – суперсегментная (suprasegmental);
2) three components: ontological (ontological) – encyclopedic (encyclopedic) – extra-linguistic, tonal (tonal) – intonation (intonation) – melodic (melodic);

3) four components: frame (frame) – structure (structure) – diagram (diagram) – format (format);

4) five components: storage (storage) – memory (memory) – archive (archive) – bank (bank) – database (database).

It is advisable to distinguish the computational linguistics terms synonyms from the point of view of etymology. The parallel use of foreign language origin terms is revealed: actant (actant) – argument (argument), syntactic analysis (syntactic analysis) – parsing (parsing).

Quite often you can observe a synonymous pair, which is made up of a foreign origin term and an autochthonous term: vocabula (vocabula) – заголовок (title), passive (passive) – внешнея (external). In addition, in the studied professional vocabulary, Russian-language terms are used in parallel: словарный вход (dictionary entry) – заглавное слово (capital word), прямой (direct) – пословный (word-by-word).

CONCLUSIONS

The presented research allowed us to identify reasons for the presence of synonymous relations in the computational linguistics terminology, which, first of all, are related to the variety of term forming structure ways, the intensive emergence of new concepts due to the automatic natural language processing professional sphere rapid development. In addition, terminological synonymy is due to the formation of special names from existing language synonyms, the desire to avoid repetition and save language resources, as well as the parallel various scientific schools terminological databases functioning.

Computer linguistics synonyms are classified by the synonymic relation type (absolute, relative and complex), by structure (one-word terms, one-word terms and phrases, terminological combinations), by morphological nature (nouns, adjectives, verbal synonyms), by the synonymic series components number (two-, three-, four-, five-component), by etymological feature (foreign origin synonyms, a term of foreign origin and synonymous autochthonous term, Russian-language synonymous terms).

In the computational linguistics terminology, interchangeable phrases, their truncated word forms and abbreviations, as well as syntactic variants in the form of phrases with various grammatical connection types are revealed.

So, despite the synonymy undesirability in professional speech, there are synonymous words and phrases in the computational linguistics terminology. In our opinion, synonymy of terms should not be interpreted only as a negative phenomenon. Sometimes it is appropriate, as it helps to clarify the wording of the thought, avoiding unnecessary repetitions. The presence of synonymy and variation is an integral feature of the terminology under study and its development consequence.
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The pragmatics of news actor labelling in media discourse: A case study

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Abstract. Media discourse is a pervasive phenomenon that entails diverse social interactions mediated through linguistic and paralinguistic means in spoken and written medium. This paper aims to focus on media discourse, in particular on online news sites, and to explore the linguistic means of news actor labelling in news stories. The pragmatic value of some referring expressions used to name news actors in news media is further examined. The first part of the article provides a review of research on the “act of naming” in news discourse and the various linguistic resources utilized by writers for referring to news actors. The second part of the paper presents a case study that looks closely at the representations of news actors in news articles from online news sites of four British newspapers – The Guardian, The Independent, The Mirror, and The Sun. The results of the case study revealed various patterns of news actor labelling that are consistent with Jucker’s (1996) classification. The study concludes that the journalist’s preference for one referring expression over another in the news story has a powerful role in construing newsworthiness, in amplifying audience engagement, in influencing their perceptions of the news content, and in channeling their meaning construction process.

Keywords: Media discourse; Newspaper language; Referring expressions; Appositional construction


Introduction

Media discourse is a pervasive phenomenon that takes the form of multifarious social interactions mediated through linguistic and paralinguistic means in spoken and written medium. In order to understand its characteristics one should bear in mind that it is by no means a form of spontaneous, “private” interaction, rather it is a “public, manufactured and on-record” communication platform oriented towards the “mass” reader, listener or viewing audience (cf. O’Keeffe, 2012). In recent years, technological advances, digital media and social networking lend themselves to a high degree of audience engagement and participation. This has changed the traditional paradigm of “participation frameworks” of both written and spoken media discourse (O’Keeffe, 2012). In other words, media discourse has become multimodal, and although a great deal of the way communication is navigated remains in the control of the media, discourse is co-constructed by the producers and the consumers of messages in versatile communicative environments. The demarcation between spoken and written media communication has been blurred. For example, television and radio channels have...
their websites or pages on social networks. Newspapers, in turn, also make use of the Internet space. The “online dailies”, for instance, provide “readers” with easy access to back issues, online forums and live chats, video material, and opportunities to post their comments on articles and news topics. In addition, readers of online newspapers can personalize their user experiences by customizing the time and the type of news alerts they receive and the content of the news stream they see to match their individual interests. This opens up a much stronger “feedback channel” to the audience, with new, more fluid patterns of interaction. What is more, communication in digital media discourse unfolds in unlimited temporal and special domains, “far and wide”, and with much more instantaneous and spontaneous interactions.

In addition, news media do not only inform the public about current events, but they also have an agenda-setting impact on their audiences (Lippmann, 1922). It has long been established that the media have a powerful effect on public opinion by channeling audience attention on particular issues, events, public figures and “manufacturing” their importance or salience (see also Ivanova, 2020a; 2020b). Therefore, they do not mirror but actually frame reality, influence and shape public opinion. There is then an intrinsic bias in the selection, organization and structuring of the messages in media discourse. News, for instance, does not “naturally emerge from reality”, but is a product of the media industry and consists of embedded values of a society in a particular historical context (Fowler, 1991: 222).

Also, from a more critical standpoint, the media employs various strategies for obfuscating reality which serve as a solid ground for audience persuasion and even reaching to the extreme form of “discursive power abuse” – manipulation (Van Dijk, 2006: 359). More specifically, the authors of news media texts have specific purposes and intentions, and their texts perform functions that do not only focus on reader comprehension and information reception. With news reports, for instance, these could be persuading and entertaining, although their explicit aim is to convey information. As Fowler (1991: 4) observes in his study on the newspaper language: “news is a representation of the world in language; … it is not a value free reflection of facts… [E]ach particular form of linguistic expression in a text – wording, syntactic option, etc. – has its reason. There are always different ways of saying the same thing and they are not random, accidental alternatives”.

The interdisciplinary study of language as a social practice from the perspective of power and ideology is associated with Critical Linguistics (e.g., Fowler, 1991) and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) (van Dijk 1988a, 1988b; Fowler, 1991; Fairclough, 1995a, 1995b, among others). The purpose of the present paper is to focus on news media discourse, in particular on online news sites, and to examine the linguistic means of news actor labelling in news reports and their pragmatic value. In Cotter’s (2010: 16) study on “news talk” and “the language of journalism”, language is conceptualized as the linguistic units within the structure of news language (e.g., syntax, lexicon, phonology, sociolinguistics, and pragmatics); while discourse is understood as “longer stretches of text and talk” relating to “coherence, narrative, participant structure, stance, and communicative function”. The present investigation adopts Cotter’s (2010) research perspective in the study of the language of the news, integrating ideas from critical news analysis. Furthermore, the communicative context of news discourse that should also be accounted for in the study can be referred to as the relation between the news discourse, the producer(s), and the audience(s) of the news discourse, where the producer(s) and the audience(s) enter into various forms of interactions and these interactions are shaped by the assumptions they may hold about each other (cf. Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 20). The examination will concentrate on the hard news story which
reports on recent events or incidents that are considered newsworthy (cf. Bednarek and Caple, 2012).

**Methods of research**

The “act of naming” is generally seen as both a linguistic and social practice and as one of the main functions of news discourse through which the media engages with the audience and influences their perceptions not only of the news reported but also on reality (Calabrese, 2012). In the framework of *French Critical Discourse Analysis*, Calabrese (2012) observes that assigning a name is an act of representation and categorization of an object, person, or a phenomenon but this act is also indicative of our perception of the named entity. At same time, the act of naming reveals the position of the “namer” in relation to the named object or entity (Siblot, 1997). Not only people are identified and described by the act of naming in news discourse. Events are also framed and represented in news media—e.g., “Europe’s 9/11,” “a financial tsunami”, “post-Kyoto,” “from Hiroshima to the Twin Towers” (Calabrese, 2012). The labels, therefore, used to name events trigger and preserve the memories of the event through condensation of related information, images and representations (Calabrese, 2012). The media event, hence, also seems to be a “non-referential entity” in that it does not actually exist in reality but is a social construction. Once it is sifted and named by the news media, it becomes available in the social space and comes to the fore of public attention (Calabrese, 2012).

Similarly, news media craft their stories around news actors or individuals, and they constantly name them. As Jucker (1996: 373) notes: “News is about people. Most, if not all, news stories on radio, television or in newspapers focus on people, on what they say, what they do, or what has happened to them. People can be important as news sources or they can be important as news actors”.

As with events, news actors are not intrinsically newsworthy, however high-ranking, public figures tend to be selected and represented as news actors based on what they say, and “ordinary” people become represented mainly through their actions or when they are involved in accidents, crime, or natural catastrophe (Jucker, 1996). Bell (1991: 194) classifies news actors as follows: political figure; official; celebrity (e.g., film or music star); sportsperson; professional or other public figure (e.g., lawyer); criminal or accused; human interest figure; participant (e.g., victim or witness). Generally, news actors fall into two broad categories: “the knowns” and “the unknowns”; however, in the news they should equally be recognized and identified by the audience and the journalist has to name, identify, and describe them in a way that ensures their prominence in the news story (Jucker, 1996).

In order to refer to news actors, the writers of media texts utilize various linguistic resources, e.g., first names, surnames, titles, pronouns, and descriptive labels. All these means can also be used in different combinations. The naming expressions, on the other hand, have specific pragmatic functions and the choice of a specific name reference for labelling the news actors can construct particular aspects of newsworthiness, trigger reader response in the construction of (implied) meanings, channel and structure the writer – addressee communication (Ivanova, 2020b), and even manipulate the reader (Getsov, 2009).

Jucker (1996: 377) identifies three syntactic options for referring to news actors: (1) the use of his/her name (*John Major* or *Mr. Major*); (2) through a personal pronoun (*he* or *she*); or (3) through a descriptive label (*the prime minister*). An appositional construction combining a proper noun (name) and a descriptive label (*the prime minister*). The three categories of different news actor labels are further summarized as follows: “name – nickname (*Johnny*), given name (*John*), surname (*Major*), full name (*John Major*), title + surname (*Mr Major*), title + full name (*Mr John Major*); descriptive label (*the*...
prime minister); *pronoun* (he, she); 
*apposition* (a) the prime minister, John Major; b) Prime Minister John Major c) John Major, the prime minister c) John Major, prime minister)” (Jucker, 1996: 378).

Appositional constructions have been found to be extremely common in the context of news actor labelling in the news and news reporting in general, presumably because through their use writers can convey maximum information in a concise and economical way (see also Jansen, 2008). A distinctive feature of the *appositional construction* is its binary grammatical structure, consisting of two coreferential nominal elements. The two elements are considered to be in apposition and one of them is commonly called the *independent unit* (the head, the anchor), while the other component is referred to as the *dependent unit* (the appositive) (see also Getsov and Velikova, 2020). As Heringa (2012: 25) correctly points out, “there is no clear consensus in the literature on which constructions exactly belong to the class of appositions, let alone which subclasses of appositional constructions there are”. Most linguists, however, distinguish between “loose appositions” (John Major; the prime minister) and “close appositions” (Prime Minister John Major). As illustrated by the examples, the two components in the first type of appositional constructions “are set off by so-called comma intonation” (Heringa, 2012: 2), whereas the units in the latter are not. It is important to note that since there are no formal grammatical means of linking the two components of the appositional constructions referred to as close appositions, the main criterion for determining the distribution of the syntactic functions between these elements should be the logical one. However, in the case of analytical languages, such as English, word order should not be neglected as the main means of expressing the grammatical links between the units of the appositional construction (Getsov, 2019; Getsov, 2020). Furthermore, in the appositional constructions of the type *Colonel Miller, Father Sergius*, the role of the “(re-)naming” element is to supplement, to specify further, to make informational adjustments to the meaning already expressed by the other element/entity that has been named; to situate it in a different perspective; to characterize it; to classify it; to categorize it, etc. (Getsov, 2020). Also, it is the proper noun in this class of appositional constructions that narrows the scope of the concept, previously expressed by the common noun with a zero article (e.g., of the many people who are opera singers by profession, there is only one person – *opera singer Johnson*) (cf., Getsov, 2020). As Getsov (2020) further comments, in this type of construction, the proper noun functions as modifier that limits the reference of the common noun to exactly one: e.g., *Dr. Mathews*.

From a Functional Discourse Grammar perspective, Hannay and Keizer (2005: 176–177) explain that when introducing a proper name or a description which is familiar to the audience, the appositive has the function of labelling. In other words, the proper noun assigns a new label to the referent of the other unit and if the appositive “takes the form of a proper name, the proper name will be assumed to be new to” the hearer/reader. Therefore, it will become familiar and available for identification by the audience later in the discourse. Identification and labelling then can be distinguished in that labelling provides information that is new to the hearer/reader, while when performing the function of identification, the appositive is associated with the hearer’s/reader’s prior knowledge.

Titles and pseudo-titles are elements of one type of appositional construction (sometimes called *close apposition*), which consists of a proper noun as one unit of the construction and a noun phrase with a common noun in the second component (cf., Meyer, 2014). Titles are further classified into seven sub-categories (Bell, 1988: 329):

“Professional (Doctor, Professor); Political (President, Chancellor, Senator); Religious (Bishop, Cardinal, Mother); Honors
(Dame, Earl, Countess); Military (General, Corporal); Police (Commissioner, Constable, Detective-Sergeant); Foreign (Monsieur, Senorita)”. They cannot be added to M-terms, but can substitute them (Bell, 1988). In the context of news media, titles are markers of newsworthiness, they convey some form of respect and esteem, and they are always capitalized. Pseudo-titles, on the contrary, are not capitalized. Bell (1988: 330), for example, comments that pseudo-titles perform a specific pragmatic function by implicating that the person they label belongs to an exclusive class of human beings. However, Meyer (2002) argues that in a construction such as opera singer Johnson, “opera singer” functions as a description of the person and her/his occupation, rather than as a marker of honour or respect. Also, in contrast to Meyer (2014), who does not consider pseudo-titles elements of an appositional construction, Bell (1988: 326) refers to them as „appositional naming expressions” with deleted determiner: (the) race relations conciliator Hiwi Tauroa; (a) local resident Beth Anderson; (his) Chips’ series co-star Erik Estrada.

It is also worth noting that pseudo-titles have been found to predominate in the American newspapers, whereas in British newspapers they are more commonly used in tabloids. What is more, in his analysis of news actor labelling in British newspapers, Jucker (1996) discusses the “stratifying” functions of all noun phrases used to describe individuals in the news reports. For instance, one specific type of appositional construction, such as Labour Leader Neu Kinnock functions as marker of the stylistic differences between the three types of newspapers: the up-market (e.g., The Times, The Independent, and The Guardian), mid-market (e.g., The Daily Mail and The Daily Express), and down-marked (The Daily Mirror and The Sun) newspapers. Thus, a predominant feature of tabloids, and to a lesser extent of the mid-market papers, is the appositional construction of the type ‘common noun + proper noun’ with a zero article (for instance, leftwing firebrand Derek Hatton). The quality papers (but not typically The Guardian) deploy the descriptive element of the same type of construction, but in post-position (for example, Mr Neu Kinnock [the] Labour Leader), while the use of preposed descriptive elements are used with lower frequency. In addition, a distinguishing feature of the style of the quality papers is that they avoid using a zero article (and this has also been established as characteristic of The Guardian). Jucker (1998) also identified differences in the use of titles and pseudo-titles between the British up-market newspapers, and mid- and down-market newspapers. Titles, if used at all, were used in the up-market press when identifying news actors. While pseudo-titles, such as snooker star Dennis Taylor, were more common in mid-market and down-market newspapers.

The naming of news actors within the structural components of the news story has also been described as following a specific pattern that differs from what has been observed as typical for personal narratives. Time and space constraints determine the choice of the writers of news stories to present the orientation (introducing the characters and the setting, according to Labov’s framework) “in passing, while they are telling the action”; i.e., while they are telling the actual story about who, what, when, and where (Bell, 1995: 310). Structurally, Jucker (1996) found out, that unlike “normal” story progression (where the main character is introduced in detail with the first mention, and later references are less explicit), news stories most explicitly mention news actors in the lead. Also, this is where the newsworthiness of the main actor is established. Interestingly, the first mention which appears in the headline is usually less explicit. Overall, the main actor is always identified at the beginning of a news report, in the overline, headline, strapline, and lead. In the headline, typically surnames are used, while full names are mentioned in the overlines and straplines. In the lead paragraph,
one would expect an anaphoric reference to the first mention of the news actor in the headline, however, according to Jucker (1996), a more explicit identification is provided there through a full name or with a descriptive label and a proper name.

Jucker’s (1996) findings also indicate that, statistically, 80% of the appositional constructions in titles are names, while the combination ‘a descriptive label + proper name’ has a lower frequency. In the lead paragraph, the opposite tendency is observed: the construction consisting of a descriptive label and a proper name is more common. In the body of the article, there is a small percentage (10%) of the ‘descriptive label - proper name’ combination in comparison to all labelling expressions.

Case study: the pragmatics of news actor labelling in news reports on Rust film set shooting

Results and discussion
This section reports on a case-study that aims to examine the representations of news actors in news articles on Alec Baldwin prop-gun shooting on a film set, which killed the cinematographer Halyna Hutchins and injured the film director Joel Souza. The reports covering the incident were extracted from online news sites of four British newspapers – two up-market (The Guardian and The Independent) and two down-market (The Sun and The Mirror) newspapers. All news items were published on the same day, 22 October 2021 – the day of the incident. The story received a great deal of attention from all news media included in this study. All newspapers gave it a substantial degree of prominence by publishing the news story on their front pages. The overall aim of the case study is to look at the representations of the news actors in the examined news reports – Alec Baldwin, the main news actor, who fired a prop gun while rehearsing; Halyna Hutchins who was killed in the incident, and Joel Souza who was injured.

The main research questions addressed in the study are as follows:

1. How is news actor labelling realized in online news reports?
2. What are the pragmatic functions of the grammatical constructions used to name and describe people in the news?
3. Is there a difference in the choice of expressions referring to news actors in the structural components of the news reportage; i.e., in the headline, the lead, and the body/lead development?

Firstly, the headlines of all news stories were analyzed comparatively. One more headline from The Times was also included in the analysis.

- Alec Baldwin fired prop gun that killed woman on film set of Rust (The Guardian, Fri 22 Oct 2021)
- Sheriff: Baldwin fired prop gun on movie set, killing woman (The Independent, Fri 22 Oct 2021)
- Alec Baldwin accidentally killed cinematographer Halyna Hutchins on a film set (The Times/The Sunday Times, Fri 22 Oct 2021)
- Alec Baldwin accidentally shoots woman dead as prop gun misfires on film set (The Mirror, 22 Oct 2021)
- MOVIE SET TRAGEDY Alec Baldwin accidentally shoots & kills cinematographer & leaves director in ‘critical condition’ on set of movie Rust (The Sun, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

Except for The Sun and The Independent, all headlines have the first mention of the main news actor by his full name (Alec Baldwin) in initial position. The initial position of the reference to the news actor is indicative of the fact that not only the accident itself is considered newsworthy, but it is the famous actor Alec Baldwin who is the center of the news coverage of the event. This construes newsworthiness in terms of prominence/eliteness since the story about a celebrity who belongs to the “knowns” or high-status individuals (e.g., celebrities, politicians) is more newsworthy and likely to attract readers’ interest than a story about the victims who are less known and can be
referred to as „ordinary people” (Bednarek and Caple, 2017). In fact, the initial mention of the main actor by his full name is not consistent with Jucker’s (1996) finding that usually the first reference to the news actor in the headline is less explicit and tends to take the form of a surname only. This might be explained with the fact that Alec Baldwin is the eldest and the best-known of the four Baldwin actor brothers. It is also worth noting that the actor’s birth name is Alexander Rae Baldwin III but he is famous as Alec Baldwin. Therefore, the use of his first name (i.e., the full name reference) in the headline has a disambiguating and informative function, clearly identifying the celebrity who is the thematic focus of the story. This draws on prior cultural discourse and public background knowledge, which also can have an impact on generating readership.

What is more, through the identification of the main news actor by his name, all headlines represent the event personally, as opposed to an impersonal way of reporting (cf. North’s rail ‘betrayal’: HS2 set to run on existing track in shoestring plan for Yorkshire leg of route /The Independent, 24 Oct 2021/). In this respect, personalization, according to Bednarek and Caple (2017), is another news value, and personalized news stories are found to attract audience attention more than generalized descriptions.

Looking at the headlines in The Mirror and The Sun, one can recognize the typical of the down-marked newspapers evaluative slant through the use of the word “accidentally” presupposing the shifting of the blame for the accident from the main news actor to the tragic circumstances. In other words, the “negative event referred to is not the news actors’ fault, since they arrive in this situation ‘by accident’ rather than by volition” (Bednarek, 2006: 175-176).

The different linguistic resources for naming the main news actor and the victims in the accident are also noticeable. Namely, Alec Baldwin is identified by his name, while Halyna Hutchins and Joel Souza, who are less known than the actor, are designated through an appositional construction (pseudo-title + full name) (cinematographer Halyna Hutchins) or through common nouns which function as descriptive labels (a woman, a director). More specifically, the descriptive identification for the representation of a referent, which describes a property or an occupation, is associated with the following semantic rule: “individuate when the person is already presumed to be famous; otherwise categorise by membership of the most salient or significant group” (Montgomery, 2007: 79).

The relations between the headlines and the sub-headings clearly indicate that headlines are not mere “self-contained instances of discourse at work” (Montgomery, 2007: 82). There are paratexual links between the two structural units of the news stories as the sub-heading further extends the framing of the event and the introduction of the news actors in a more explicit and informative way. It can be concluded that this fact is consistent with Jucker’s (2006) findings on the use of naming expressions in the structure of the news article. One can also observe the thematic shift in the sub-headings which provide more details on the other news actors, with much prominence given to Halyna Hutchins who was killed in the accident. Again, in the naming of Alec Baldwin by his full name, the news value of prominence/eliteness is foregrounded here. On the other hand, both Halyna Hutchins and Joel Souza are not named through the use of their names only, but they are introduced through the appositional constructions of the ‘pseudo-title + full name’ type (Cinematographer Halyna Hutchins; Director of Photography Halyna Hutchins; director Joel Souza; movie director Joel Souza) and descriptive labels of functional categorization (the cinematographer; a cinematographer; director; a director) referring to their professional roles in the film industry. Thus, “WHAT they did or what happened to them is more newsworthy than WHO they are” (Cotter, 2010: 165):

- Cinematographer Halyna Hutchins airlifted to hospital, where she died, while di-
rector Joel Souza also injured (The Guardian, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

- Authorities say actor Alec Baldwin fired a prop gun on a movie set and killed the cinematographer (The Independent, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

- A cinematographer was killed and a director wounded when the actor Alec Baldwin fired a prop gun on a movie set in New Mexico, authorities have said. (The Times/The Sunday Times, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

- Director of Photography Halyna Hutchins died after Alec Baldwin fired the ‘prop’ gun on the set of Rust, Santa Fe authorities have said (The Mirror, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

- ALEC Baldwin accidentally shot and killed a cinematographer while leaving its director in critical condition on set of his new movie, Rust, cops exclusively revealed to The Sun (The Sun, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

Table. News actor labelling expressions in the news articles in the four British newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Alec Baldwin</th>
<th>Halyna Hutchins</th>
<th>Joel Souza</th>
<th>Source</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alec Baldwin;</td>
<td>Hutchins (x4);</td>
<td>Souza (x2);</td>
<td>The Guardian, Fri 22 Oct 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baldwin (x9);</td>
<td>she (x4);</td>
<td>Mr Souza</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he (x4)</td>
<td>a 2015 graduate of the American Film Institute in Los Angeles; Ms Hutchins</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actor Alec Baldwin;</td>
<td>the cinematographer; Halyna Hutchins; cinematographer on the movie “Rust”; Hutchins (x3); Hutchins; a 2015 graduate of the American Film Institute; the woman fatally shot; a cinematographer; she; an incredible talent; a great person; a person being shot on set</td>
<td>The director of the Western being filmed; director Joel Souza; Souza (x2); he</td>
<td>The Independent, Fri 22 Oct 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baldwin (x3)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alec Baldwin; lead actor Alec; Baldwin; the star</td>
<td>a woman; Director of Photography Halyna Hutchins; The Ukrainian-born, Los Angeles-based director of photography; she (2); mother of a young son; Ms Hutchins</td>
<td>a man; the man injured; the director of the film; Joel Souza; he; Mr Souza</td>
<td>The Mirror, Fri 22 Oct 2021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alec (x4); Alec Baldwin; Baldwin (x3); the actor</td>
<td>Director of photography Halyna Hutchins; Halyna Hutchins; Halyna</td>
<td>Rust director and writer Joel Souza; Souza; director Joel</td>
<td>The Sun, Fri 22 Oct 2021</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the referring expressions in Table. indicate, the differences in the way the same news actors are represented in the news stories across different newspapers are mainly...
relative to the respective market orientation of the newspapers.

The representational choices of the news actors in all newspapers are nomination and categorization (van Leeuwen, 1996: 52–59). Nomination focuses on the personal identity of the individuals and the use of proper nouns with or without the use of honorifics (e.g., Joel Souza, Ms Souza). It can be formal (Baldwin, Hutchins, Souza), semi-formal (Alec Baldwin), and informal (Alec, Halyna). It is not surprising that the informal means of news actor nomination have been employed by the down-market newspapers, The Sun and The Mirror. Categorization refers to the collective identities of news actors and their social roles (e.g., mother of a young son, the cinematographer, director of the film). Except for The Guardian, all newspapers employ categorizing expressions to name Halyna Hutchins and Joel Souza.

As can also be seen from the table above, in all newspapers, irrespective of their market orientation, there are only proper name references to Alec Baldwin. There are only two instances of descriptive labels of categorization (the actor, the star) and two instances of appositional constructions of the type ‘pseudo-title + full name’ and ‘pseudo-title + first name’ (Actor Alec Baldwin, lead actor Alec). The use of pseudo-titles and descriptive labels is much more frequent in the down-market newspapers than in the up-market ones, with the exception of The Independent, where the main actor is named by an appositional construction containing a pseudo-title (Actor Alec Baldwin). Thus, the references to Alec Baldwin by his name only, also have the effect of foregrounding his private identity rather than his public status and occupation as an actor. In this line of thought, the analysis of the news report under the headline Alec Baldwin pulls out of Emmys sketch after Fox cuts phone-hacking joke (The Guardian, Mon 19 Sep 2011) reveals that, in the news story, Alec Baldwin is identified by the descriptive label actor 4 times out of 8 references of which 4 identify him by name (Baldwin). This functional categorization (cf. van Leeuwen, 1996) closely associates Alec Baldwin with his occupational role, and evokes readers’ perceptions of him as much with his social collective identity as an actor (and a public figure) as with the individual Alec Baldwin.

An episode covered by The Guardian, The Independent, and The Mirror is an emotionally charged representation of the main actor in tears outside the sheriff’s office. The two up-market newspapers use the surname Baldwin to refer to the actor, while The Mirror refers to him with the descriptive label the star, thus creating a more dramatic effect:

• The Santa Fe New Mexican newspaper reported Baldwin was seen on Thursday outside the sheriff’s office in tears. (The Guardian, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

• The Santa Fe New Mexican reported the 63-year-old Baldwin was seen Thursday outside the sheriff’s office in tears, but attempts to get comment from him were unsuccessful. (The Independent, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

• The star was seen in tears outside the local sheriff’s office on Thursday. (The Mirror, Fri 22 Oct 2021)

Generally, using a surname as a naming expression in the news creates the impression of a more detached and objective stance. In this specific instance, however, it seems that the journalists also construe newsworthiness through personalization (by showing the individuals’ emotional responses) (Bednarek and Caple, 2017) to invoke audience engagement, curiosity, and compassion.

Interestingly, of the other two news actors, it is Halyna Hutchins, who – within all news articles – has been promoted as the central news actor with the storyline development. As mentioned above, in the headlines, Alec Baldwin has the “first position agent role” (cf. van Dijk, 1988b) and Halyna Hutchins is assigned a less prominent role. However, in the body of the articles, the naming expressions used to label her do not outnumber those employed for the naming of Alec Baldwin, but they exhibit a wider range of structures representing Halyna Hutchins in...
both official and private ways. Some of the expressions referring to Halyna Hutchins include: an appositional construction of the ‘pseudo-title + full name’ type (Director of photography Halyna Hutchins), full name (Halyna Hutchins), given name (Halyna), surname (Hutchins), pronouns (she), an appositional construction of the type ‘title + surname’ (Ms Hutchins), appositional constructions of the type ‘proper NP + NP’ (Halyna Hutchins, cinematographer on the movie “Rust”); Hutchins, a 2015 graduate of the American Film Institute), descriptive labels (a woman, the mother of a young son). Practically, all options for referring to news actors, described by Jucker (1996) have been employed across the different newspapers. Also, the majority of the descriptive labels with which Halyna Hutchins is identified in the press categorize her functionally; namely, in her professional role of a cinematographer. In comparison to the expressions referring to Alec Baldwin, Hutchins’s functional nominations make her visible to the audience not that much as a private actor but as an official actor, with the collective identity she represents – of all those working in the film industry, affected directly or indirectly by the incident. This also construes news value in terms of impact or “the effects or consequences of an event”, “especially, if they involve serious repercussions or have a more global impact, rather than only minor consequences” (Bednarek and Caple, 2012: 43). In addition, Halyna Hutchins is referred to via identification and classification; i.e., ”in terms of the major categories by means of which a given society or institution differentiates between classes of people” (cf. van Leeuwen, 1996: 58); i.e., through a set of evaluative NP that denote and project appraisal: e.g., an incredible talent, a great person. It is also important to note that the descriptive label mother of a young son (for kinship relations), with which Halyna Hutchin is identified in the The Mirror, represents her as a private actor to whom the readers are more likely to relate, thus triggering their emotional response and engagement. At the same time, in The Guardian and The Mirror, she is named Ms Hutchins in a direct speech quote. This appositional construction realized as “title + surname” conveys honorification, and aims to indicate respect.

The referring expressions to the other news actor, Joel Souza, are also more varied in format than those used to name Alec Baldwin across all newspapers. Although they are much fewer and less varied than the constructions employed to refer to both Halyna Hutchins and Alec Baldwin. These naming expressions include: an appositional construction of the ‘pseudo-title + full name’ type (director Joel Souza), full name (Joel Souza), surname (Souza) pronouns (he), an appositional construction of the type ‘title + surname’ (Mr Souza), descriptive labels

Haly na Hutchins mourned amid anger at Hollywood ‘cutting corners’ on sets
Somber vigil charged with subdued rage over conditions that many lower-paid crew believe were linked to cinematographer’s death (The Guardian, Mon 25 Oct 2021)
director of the Western being filmed, the man injured, a man, the director of the film). In The Sun, the appositional construction of the ‘pseudo-title + first name’ type (director Joel) is in keeping with the informal style of the down-market newspapers and the extensive use of pseudo-titles and first names in this category of the press. The main functions of all referring expressions to Joel Souza are similar to those used for the naming of Halyna Hutchins, though with a lower degree of focus and emphasis.

In terms of format of the referring expressions across the different sections of the news story, the findings in this study are partly consistent with Jucker’s (1996) data that in the lead, the identification of the main news actor is the most explicit. For instance, Alec Baldwin is referred to by his full name in most headlines. In the lead in The Independent, he is nominated by an appositive construction of the ‘pseudo-title + full name’ type (Actor Alec Baldwin). However, in the lead in all other newspapers he is referred to either by his full name only (as in the headline) or even by his first name (The Sun). This might be explained by the fact that as a celebrity, he is considered familiar to the audience of all newspapers, irrespective of their market orientation.

On the contrary, the references to Halyna Hutchins are in the form of short expressions in the headline (if at all included) and the sub-headings, and they are significantly expanded and diversified in the lead and throughout body of the articles. Clearly, their function in the story development is not that much to identify but to describe her, and to bring her closer to the attention of the audience. A similar pattern of labelling is observed in the case of Joel Souza, though with less focus and prominence.

**CONCLUSION**

To conclude, the aim of this study was to explore some pragmatic functions of news actor labelling in media discourse. For this reason, a case study was conducted, which focused on the use of referring expressions employed in news stories published in the digital versions of four British newspapers, representing the two market orientations: the up-market and the down-market papers. In regard to our first research question, the findings are consistent with Jucker’s (1996) classification of the different options of linguistic means for labelling news actors in media discourse. The second and the third research questions address the pragmatic functions of the grammatical constructions used to name and describe people in the news (Q2) and the distribution of naming formats across the different structural units of the news article (Q3). In this respect, it was found that naming/identifying expressions were employed as a means of foregrounding and giving a voice to a “new” news actor in the story and thus construing newsworthiness. For instance, Halyna Hutchins was not mentioned in the headlines, where the thematic focus was on Alec Baldwin. She was explicitly introduced in the sub-heading, whereas in the lead and throughout the news story, Halyna Hutchins was given exclusive prominence through the use of multiple and varied labelling expressions. Finally, it can be concluded that the choices of the syntactic variants of news actor labelling in the news story do not only identify individuals that are or eventually become “protagonists” in the news, but they also describe them and allow “a dominant perspective to be created, inscribing a position for the reader/audience within the text of the news” (Conboy 2007: 111).

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ДОКЛАД II. СОПОСТАВИТЕЛЬНОЕ ЯЗЫКОЗНАНИЕ
SECTION II. COMPARATIVE LINGUISTICS

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Abstract. The purpose of this article is to identify the allomorphic and isomorphic features of auxiliary verbs in various analytical constructions. The scientific novelty of the research lies in the fact that common and different semantic meanings and structural components of analytical constructions in different languages are distinguished with the parallel creation of a common field of variability. As a result, it was proved that in French, English, Russian and Tatar languages the number of auxiliary verbs ranges from 1 to 4 and there is only one single verb completely deprived of its own meaning. The semantic field of verbal analytical constructions includes nuclear temporal, aspectual and modal meanings along with private peripheral ones. The presence of 4 auxiliary verbs determines their activity in different time planes. In French, English and Tatar languages the aspectual meaning of iteration and temporal meaning of past is grammaticalized together by one partially desemantized auxiliary verb. Aspectual meanings of the phase as well as modal meanings are realized by corresponding verbs. In English the presence of 4 auxiliary verbs allows them to function in modal area too. Using the example of the verb of movement to go we proved the dependence of quantitative indicators of functioning in direct meaning and functioning as part of grammatical structures with partial loss of meaning. Based on these indicators, we determined the level of desemantization of the auxiliary verb to go. We established that the realization of direct meaning and the realization of partial meaning loss in analytical structure vary in a wide range according to the data of four languages, for example, in French – 1:4, in English – 100:1, in Tatar – 1:1. In Russian only the realization of a figurative sense by the verb to go is found.

Keywords: Analytical constructions; Auxiliary verbs of movement; Temporality; Aspectuality; Modality

Аннотация. Цель данной статьи – выявить алломорфные и изоморфные черты вспомогательных глаголов движения в составе различных аналитических конструкций. Научная новизна исследования заключается в том, что выделяются общие и различные семантические значения и структурные компоненты аналитических конструкций в разных языках с параллельным созданием общего поля вариативности. В результате доказано, что во французском, английском, русском и татарском языках количество вспомогательных глаголов колеблется от 1 до 4, причем только одиночный глагол является полностью десемантизированным. Семантическое поле глагольных аналитических конструкций включает ядерные темпоральные, аспектуальные и модальные значения наряду с частными периферийными. Наличие 4 вспомогательных глаголов определяет их активность в разных временных планах. Во французском, английском и татарском языках грамматикализируется аспектуальное значение итеративности в сочетании с темпоральным значением прошедшего времени соответствующим частично десемантлизированным глаголом. Аспектуальные значения фазовости и модальные значения реализуются соответствующими глаголами. В английском языке наличие 4 вспомогательных глаголов позволяет им функционировать и в модальной сфере. На примере глагола ходить устанавливается соотношение количественных показателей функционирования в прямом значении и в составе грамматических конструкций с частичной его потерей и определяется уровень десемантизации вспомогательного глагола. Соотношение употребления в прямом значении и десемантизированного функционирования варьируется в широком диапазоне, например, во французском языке 1:4, в английском 100:1, в татарском 1:1. В русском языке отмечается только функционирование глагола ходить в переносном значении.

Ключевые слова: Аналитические конструкции; Вспомогательные глаголы движения; Темпоральность; Аспектуальность; Модальность

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data. The verbal analytical structures study is one of the main aspects of language functioning analysis.

Auxiliary verbs are difficult to analyze in terms of their meanings. On the one hand, one cannot deny the presence of their own semantics like any other lexical unit. On the other hand, it is necessary to recognize the possibility of realizing grammatical meanings associated with the categories of modality, aspectuality, temporality and others.

Traditionally analytical constructions are distinguished and considered separately if the main component is a verb with different degrees of desemantization or with its own proper semantic. Verb analytical structures include tense forms, impersonal forms such as participle, gerund and infinitive forms allowing to express various meanings.

To achieve the goal the following tasks were set and solved:
1) to determine the range of auxiliary verbs involved in the formation of analytical structures;
2) to investigate the semantic aspects of analytical structures;
3) to identify allomorphic and isomorphic features of auxiliary verbs of movement in structurally different languages.

Practical significance of the work: The materials of the study can be used in special courses on language theory, comparative typology of languages, in the development of courses on theoretical, practical, comparative linguistics. The data obtained can be used in educational and methodological activities such as creating textbooks. The results are relevant for linguistic studies of language functioning. Identifying auxiliary verbs of movement and conducting a parallel analysis of their functioning makes it possible to compare their features in different-structured languages in order to prevent the phenomena of linguistic interference.

Theoretical provisions of the research

The theoretical basis of the research was the works in the field of comparative studies of verbal analytical structures by T.A. Maisak (Maisak, 2005:123), G.F. Lutfullina (Lutfullina, 2016), Ö. Dahl (Dahl, 2000:187).


L. Gosselin analyses the elements of verbal forms and wants to determine the potential of auxiliary verbs used to express iterativity in his article «La construction du sens fréquentatif sans marqueur explicite / The construction with frequentative meaning without an explicit marker» (Gosselin, 2012 :2). G. Kleiber writes that «des deux composantsverbals constituent les facettes d’un même phénomène ; ils sont mis au même niveau, sans rapport de dependence / the two verbal components constitute facets of the same phenomenon; they are put at the same level, without dependence relationship» (Kleiber, 2003:14). J. Moeschler is sure that «la nature procédurale des informations temporelles est encodées dans les catégories grammaticales par des verbes auxiliaires / the procedural nature of the temporal information is encoded in grammatical categories by auxiliary verbs » (Moeschler, 2000:57).

Laurel and Donna Brinton say that «in order to study the structure of the verb phrase, it is necessary to introduce the intermediate category of Vgp = verb group consisting of the lexical verb with or without a particle». They separately consider «the specifiers of the verb, including both tense and the auxiliary verbs» (L.Brinton, D. Brinton, 2010:205).

R. Declerck writes about «alternative definitions of ‘verb phrase’». In his book «The Grammar of the English Verb Phrase» R. Declerck has defined the «VP as that part of the predicate constituent that does not contain optional adverbials. However, it may be useful to know that some linguistic works use the term in a different sense. Some use it in the sense of ‘predicate (constituent)’, i. e. to refer to the sum of all those constituents of the clause that do not belong to the subject NP. Others use the term in a much narrower sense, to denote no more than the main verb and any auxiliaries accompanying it. In his book a string like may have been reading or will read will be referred to as a ‘verb form’. A verb form consists either of a verb (in the form of a participle or infinitive) plus one or more auxiliaries (e. g. will see, would have seen) or of a (usually inflected) verb only» (Declerck, 2006:15). D. Crystal presents some salient features of English grammar, such as suffixation for noun number and case and verb tense system. He analyses auxiliary verbs (Crystal, 2003:34).

Constructions with the auxiliary verbs of the Russian language is studied by N.M. Stoynova (Stoynova, 2016), N.R. Dobrushina (Dobrushina, 2016). N.M. Stoynova writes about analytical construction of the future tense which represents «a combination of the verb to be in the form of the future tense with the infinitive of a semantic verb» (Stoynova, 2016). Studying Russian particles пусть, пускай (no equivalents in English) she demonstrates that most often they have the imperative meaning and express an indirect motivation (Stoynova, 2016). N.R. Dobrush proves that Russian particle было derived from the verb to be (in English we consider as an equivalent used) marks habituality in the past (Dobrushina, 2016).

A detailed analysis of complex verbs meanings of Tatar is presented in the works of A. A. Aminova (Aminova, 1993:61), F. A. Ganiev (Ganiev, 2000:74). A.A. Amineva writes that «verbs of movement lose their basic semantics of movement and begin to denote various additional semantics: beginning or end, duration of action, etc. Such variants of analytical forms aspects are characteristic only for the Tatar language» (Aminova, 1993:61). F.A. Ganiev proves that in the Tatar language there are many analytical forms with verbs of movement which form the grammatical category of the aspect (Ganiev, 2000:74).

**Research methodology**

The research material was:
- for the French language – The French corpus Lexicum (Lexicum),
- for the English language – The British National Corpus (BNC),
- for the Russian language – The National Corpus of Russian Language (RNC),
- for the Tatar language – The Written Corpus of The Tatar Language (TNC).

To solve the above-mentioned problems, we use the following research methods: comparative, structural, descriptive. The use of corpus linguistics methods made it possible to carry out a quantitative analysis with subsequent interpretation of results.

**Results and discussion**

In French the verbs of movement aller / go and venir / come are used to express temporal meanings in the following French tenses: Futur immédiat / Immediate Future
and Futur immédiat dans le passé / Immediate Future in the Past. They are partially deprived of their own meaning but, at the same time, they can function in their direct meanings. There are other auxiliary verbs such as avoir / to have and être / to be. The latter is used only with specific verbs and requires agreement in number and gender with the subject. These auxiliary verbs are used to form complex tenses with the participation of Participe Passé / Past Participle. These verbs are not completely desemantized, as they represent their own meanings in appropriate contexts. To express aspectual meanings, we use the basic phase verbs commencer / begin, finir / end, continuer / continue, as well as the verbs of continuity and iterativity durer, continuer / continue, repeat repeater / repeat. To represent modal meanings corresponding verbs are used such as devoir / must, pouvoir /can and others. In modern French the verb aller / go is a part of the only verb-gerund construction aller (en) p.pr. In this construction aller + Ger the first element represents the meaning of unlimited duration which in combination with the second element actualizes the meaning of a gradual increase of action intensity. J. Gougenheim writes that this analytical construction is involved to designate frequent repetition:… elle allait toujours critiquant /... she was continuing to criticize (Gougenheim 1971: 32,36).

In English auxiliary verbs to be / to have are used to express temporal meanings. They function is an indicator of a tense group with a certain basic meaning: Simple – action constancy, Continuous – action implementation at a certain moment in time, Perfect – action accomplishment by a certain moment. The combination of these auxiliary verbs helps to express an accomplishment of durative action by Present Perfect Continuous and Past Perfect Continuous. They are used to form complex tenses together with Participle. These verbs are not completely desemantized, as they represent their own meanings in appropriate contexts. These auxiliary verbs are used to unify meaning of tenses in particular groups. They are used to differentiate tense groups and to combine tenses in groups (Goncharenko 2009: 23). The particular feature of English is the existence of fully desemantized auxiliary verbs will, shall which are used to form Future Tenses depending on the person. To express the planned future action a construction with the verb to go / go “to be going to + Verb” is used. Auxiliary verbs will, shall in Past Tenses are involved to form tenses such as the Future in the Past. Their inherent meaning of succession is extrapolated to the Past plan. Aspectual meanings are expressed by prototypical phase verbs such as to start, to begin, to finish, to end and by continuity and repetition verbs such as to continue, to go on, to repeat. The peculiarity of the English language is functioning of the verb to use in the Past Tense to represent repeated actions in the Past. In the construction used to + Infinitive, two meanings are activated: temporal localization + aspectual concretization. Modal meanings are represented: 1) by corresponding verbs must, can, should etc.; 2) by desemantized verbs in the constructions to have to, to be able to, to be to; 3) by Past Tense forms of the auxiliary verbs should, would. It is interesting to note the functioning of the verb to help in the construction can't help doing smth. It is necessary to remember constructions with the verbs to make, to let which are considered as Complex Object. Laurel Brinton and Donna Brinton investigate phrasal constructions with verbs in the chapter “Phrasal structure and verb complementation” in the paragraph “Verb phrase / Verb constructions” (Brinton Laurel J. Brinton, Donna J., 2010).

In Russian in order to express temporal meanings, the verb гово / will be in the Future Tense is used to represent the meaning of Future (Stoynova, 2016). This verb is partially desemantized, as it also functions in its direct meaning. To express aspectual meanings nuclear phase verbs начать / start, продолжить / continue, закончить / to finish are involved as well as the verbs of duration and repetition: длиться / last,
продолжаться / continue, повторяться / repeat. It is interesting to note the functioning of the verb быть / be in the form бывало / happened to express repetitive actions in the Past. In Russian N.R. Dobrushina distinguishes constructions with particles было, бывало, пусть, пускай (Dobrushina, 2016). To represent modal meanings verbs of the corresponding semantics are used.

**In Tatar** to express temporal meanings, the auxiliary verbs иде / was and мөргән / stood in Past Tense forms are used to represent the meanings of the Durative or Continuous Past Tense and of the Repetitive Past Tense. They are partially desemantized as they implement their own meanings. The peculiarity of Tatar is the fact that the Repetitive Past Tense укый мөргән иде / used to study represents repeated actions in the Past. It is possible to note that two meanings are activated: temporary localization + aspectual concretization. To express aspectual meanings, the nuclear phase verbs башлау / start, төмәләу / complete, the verb of continuity джәл итү / continue and repetition кабатлау / repeat are used. However, it should be noted the richness of the Tatar language: 1) various verbs of motion represent different aspectual meanings of instantaneousness, singularity and effectiveness of actions: чыгып китте / came out, килеп төштә / appeared, укып чыкты / have read; 2) verbs of state and movement express long-term actions: эшләү / works, укып йөрө / studies. To represent modal meanings, verbs of the corresponding semantics are involved. In the Tatar language there are many verbal-gerund constructions where verb-modifiers have different degrees of grammaticalization.

Therefor we get the followings results of the analysis (see table 1). In French there are 4 auxiliary verbs expressing temporal meanings (Future and Past), but they are not completely desemantized. In English there are 4 auxiliary verbs expressing temporal (Future, Present, Past) and modal meanings, two of which are completely desemantized. Iterative actions in the Past are represented by 1 special verb. In Russian there is 1 auxiliary verb expressing the temporal meaning (Future) and the aspectual meaning of iteration, but it is not desemantized. In the Tatar language there are 2 auxiliary verbs expressing the temporal meaning (Past) and the aspectual meaning of iteration, but they retain their semantics. In the Tatar language numerous verbs of movement are involved to express different aspectual meanings. The results of analyses are represented in the following Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Auxiliary verbs</th>
<th>Temporal meanings</th>
<th>Aspectual meanings</th>
<th>Modal meaning</th>
<th>Level of desemantisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Future and Past</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>Not desemantized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Future, Present, Past</td>
<td>not</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>2 verbs completely desemantized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Future</td>
<td>iteration</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>not completely desemantized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tatar</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Past</td>
<td>different meanings by various verbs</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>not desemantized</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Diagram 1 it is shown which temporal meaning are rendered by auxiliary verbs in French, English, Russian and Tatar languages.
Diagram 1. Expression of temporal meanings by auxiliary verbs

**THE AUXILIARY VERB TO GO.** Let us consider the different meanings realized by the verb of movement "to go". This verb is used to form analytical constructions and to express different meanings in French, English, Russian and Tatar languages.

**French verb aller / go**

(1) *En allant manger chez un ami, tout à coup, celui-ci me dit ... / On the way (= literally going) to have dinner, my friend suddenly says to me (hereinafter, the author's translation. (Éd. Leméac) [Lexiqum].

(2) USA Network a fait un excellent travail *en allant nous chercher / The US Network has done an excellent job by continuing to track us down ... (Éd. Leméac) [Lexiqum].

(3) Il écoute la musique *en allant du logement à l'école / He listens to music on his way from home to school (Éd. Leméac) [Lexiqum].

(4) Il allait sortir lorsque sa mère est venue / He was about to leave when his mother came (Éd. Leméac) [Lexiqum].

In French the verb of movement *aller / go* is used to express temporal meanings, it forms and represents the meaning of the Immediate Future Tense (4). In modern French the verb *aller* is a part of the only one gerund-verb construction *aller (en) p.pr.*, which expresses the gradual increase in action intensity and which is complemented by aspectual shade of multiplicity. In The French Language corpus (significantly quantitatively inferior to other used corpuses), we identified all 4 types of functioning: a simple gerund (1), as a part of a gerund in analytical structure (2), direct meaning (3), as a part of the Immediate Future Tense (4). In total, 50 tokens of this verb used as a gerund and in imperfect tenses were identified in The French Language Corpus. All constructions were analyzed by total sampling method. Only in 25% of tokens this verb *aller* functions as a gerund and as a part of analytical construction. It is possible to say that the ratio between functioning in direct meaning and functioning as a part of analytical construction is 1 to 4.

**English verb to go.**

(5) That type of mistake is going to happen to many goalkeepers this season, 'said Beasant.' (The daily mirror) [BNC].

(6) If Graham Taylor is going to play the long ball, Deanesy is ideal (The daily mirror) [BNC].

(7) Because she is going to the first aid room (M. Bowring. Vets in opposition) [BNC].
(8) Erm so how much time are you spending just is going to school? (V. Godfrey. Inner and outer) [BNC].

In English there is a construction with this verb to be going to + Verb used to express the planned future actions (5), (6). In The British National Corpus, the frequency of functioning of the structure to be going to is 32557 tokens. In order to calculate the direct meaning usage, we set the search parameter going to the, where the article implies the presence of the following noun, and we got 1193 tokens. It is possible to compare the frequency of verb constructions is going to – 2637 tokens in The BNC corpus, and the frequency of verb use in its direct meaning going to the – 25 tokens (7), (8). We also compared the frequency of functioning in the form of the plural are going to – 2303 tokens, and the frequency of verb use in the direct meaning are going to the – 40 tokens. As it can be seen from the frequency indicators, desemantized functioning prevails for singular and plural forms. The ratio is 100: 1.

**Russian verb ходить / go.**

(9) И это «тыкванье» означало, что настроение отличное, пищеварение в порядке, дела идут хорошо и виды на будущее ещё лучше / And this "hitching" meant that the mood was excellent, digestion was in order, things were going well and the prospects for the future were even better (Ю.К. Трифонов. Предварительные итоги) [RNC].

(10) Как у вас дела, как празднуете в Берлине? — Дела идут хорошо, товариш Сталин / How are you doing, how are you celebrating in Berlin? - Things are going well, Comrade Stalin (С.М. Борзунов. Бросок: Берлин – Прага) [RNC].

(11) Как-никак мы миновали утром сегодня Тихвин и говорим теперь о Вятке. В общем, мы идем хорошо / After all, we passed Tikhvin this morning and we are now talking about Vyatka. In general, we are going well (П.К. Козлов. Географический дневник) [RNC].

(12) По наукам я иду хорошо. Как и всегда, меня несколько подкузьмила математика, а именно — я получил 7 баллов, но зато по остальными предметам баллы, к моему удивлению, очень и очень порядочные: по немецкому у меня 9 баллов, по химии 10 баллов, по тактике и по русскому языку 12 баллов / I am doing well in the sciences. As always, mathematics gave me a little kick, namely - I got 7 points, but on the other subjects the points, to my surprise, are very, very decent: in German I have 9 points, in chemistry – 10 points, in tactics and in Russian - 12 points (С. Я. Надсон. Дневники) [RNC].

In Russian this verb is combined with process nouns denoting actions, in which it expresses continuity. In the above given examples (10)-(12), we use 2 sentences as it is necessary to understand the realized meaning – direct or figurative. One sentence helps to understand the meaning of the verb to go in another sentence. In examples (9), (10), there are expressions дела идут хорошо / things are going well. The form of the Present Tense singular идут / go has 24,596 tokens. In The National Corpus of the Russian Language, the sentence "Дела идут хорошо / Things are going well" appears 46 times. No tokens were found for sentences like Воиска идут хорошо / Troops go well and Дети идут хорошо / Children go well. We decided to reveal the frequency of personalized sentences with personal pronouns and the frequency of functioning in the direct meaning using the example Мы идем хорошо / We go well (11) and Я иду хорошо / I go well (12). As a result, we found only one proposal for each type. The last example with the personal pronoun Я/ I also implies functioning in a figurative sense (12). It can be assumed that a phrase with a subject represented by a noun or by a third person pronoun always implies functioning in a figurative meaning (9), (10). Then it can be argued that the presence of an adverb хорошо / well is an indicator of understanding this verb in a figurative sense. The ratio is X to O where X is mathematical notation and means indefinite quantity of uses in a figurative sense. It means there is no example of direct meaning in relation to any number of
examples of figurative meaning that we could not find in the result of our search in The National Corpus of the Russian Language. With other phrases such as хорошо + идут, хорошо + идут / go well, no result is always obtained, although there are some examples in the National Corpus of the Russian Language. However, we can say that there isn’t any analytical structure with the verb ходить / go in the Russian language. We can only stress functioning of this verb in a figurative sense.

**Tatar verb йөри / go.**

(1) Мастер ниңә айлар инде Садыйк абый ҳажында ызгырдап йөри: "Узе бишенче разрядды, э гади дәтәләрне_ә эшил алмый, адәм имәгәе!" - ди / The Master has been whispering about uncle Sadic for several months: "he himself is the fifth grade mechanic, but he cannot make simple details, Adam!" (А. Алиш. Кадыйр Бикмурзинның жинаяте) [TNC].

(2) Тересе механизаторлар курсында укып йөри икән / It turns out that he is studying at the courses of machine operators (В. Имамов. Тәзәлы яра, ПКТЯ).

(3) Хәйбулла ыйыңдан, аның төнчөге Илдуска бары_тик алты_ына яшы иде, э хәзер инде ул мәктәпкә йөри / When Khaibulla left, his ward Ildus was only six years old, and now he goes to school (Г. Эпсөләмов. Хәйбулла солдат) [TNC].

(4) Алия айга бер тапкыр хастаанәгә йөри / Aliya goes to the hospital once a month (Казан углары) [TNC].

(5) Озак ына ырләп йөри иде шу " / He was ill for a long time (Безнән ғәжәт,) [TNC].

Table 2. Quantitative analyses of auxiliary verb to go functioning in different languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Figurative meaning</th>
<th>Temporal meanings</th>
<th>Aspectual meaning</th>
<th>Total quantity of corpus examples</th>
<th>Quantity of examples with direct meaning</th>
<th>Indirect meaning in analytical structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>French Aller</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Immediate Future</td>
<td>increase in action intensity</td>
<td>23000</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English To</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>planned Future</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>32557</td>
<td>2637</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the Tatar language the meaning realized in analytical structures depends on the nature of the main verb. Procession meaning is realized with non-limit verbs in a concrete-singular situation укып йөри / is studying singular and in a generalized fact укып йөри / studies (13). A number of scientists (Aminova, 1993), (Ganiev, 2000) state that this verb expresses the meaning of “relatively long, continuous action”. The Written Corpus of the Tatar Language contains 139,099 tokens of this verb. We note various meanings of constructions formed by this verb in the Tatar language. We decided to take the pragmatic situation as the basis for the analysis, which implies a large share of relativity. As part of the analytical construction укып йөри / (he) studies, continues to study, this verb has 813 tokens in The Written Corpus of The Tatar Language (14). As part of the analytical construction мектәпкә йөри / (he) goes to school this verb has 574 tokens (15). To designate the pragmatic situation of studying at school, we can say with a certain degree of confidence that both the analytical structure and the implementation of direct meaning are represented in the Tatar language. A similar picture is observed when we analyze the situation of the disease: the construction ырләп йөри / (he) continues to be ill, is ill has 10 tokens, and the construction а хастаанәгә йөри / (he) goes to the hospital has 11 tokens. The ratio is 1: 1.

The summary of the quantitative analyses of the auxiliary verb to go functioning in French, English, Russian and Tatar languages is presented in Table 2.
Diagram 2. Distribution of auxiliary verb *to go* functioning in direct meaning and partially desemantized.

In French the dominance of indirect meaning functioning is determined by the existence of the Immediate Future Tense.

In the English language the dominance of direct meaning functioning is determined by the common use of this verb as a part of different stable expressions designating movement. This verb can express different types of movement irrelevant to the way of realization that’s why it is so wide used in direct meaning.

In the Tatar language the relative uniformity of direct and indirect meaning functioning (with slight dominance of direct meaning) is determined by the fact that there are many other verbs engaged in forming an analytical construction and used in in their indirect meaning. This verb is only one of...
them that’s why it functions equally in direct and indirect meaning.

**Conclusion**

Thus, the following conclusions can be drawn. In the investigated languages, the number of auxiliary verbs ranges from 1 to 4, and only a single verb is completely desemantized. The presence of 4 auxiliary verbs indicates their activity in different time planes. In French, English and Tatar languages the aspectual meaning of iteration is grammaticalized in combination with the temporal meaning of the Past Tense by the corresponding partially desemantized verb. In the expression of the aspectual meanings of phase, the corresponding verbs are always involved. Modal meanings are expressed by the semantics of corresponding verbs. In English the presence of 4 auxiliary verbs allows them to function in modal area too.

Using the example of the verb *to go*, we can see the dependence of quantitative indicators and the level of desemantization. We introduced such parameter as the ratio of desemantized functioning and of functioning in direct meaning: in French – 1: 4, in English – 100: 1, in Tatar – 1: 1. In the Russian language only functioning in a figurative meaning is noted, so the ratio is X to O where X is a mathematical notation and means indefinite quantity of uses in a figurative sense. These quantitative indicators show that desemantization is represented in most investigated languages, although its correlation with the use in the direct meaning may be different.

The prospect for further research is to analyze meanings and degree of desemantization of other auxiliary verbs of different-structured languages.

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Genre as an ontologically unstable literary and artistic form

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Abstract. The article is devoted to the problem of the genre. The article examines the text of a modern French novel, which has undergone radical changes in recent decades. The French novella is so new that researchers define it in terms of hybridization, crossing, transition, transgression, hybrid text, quasi-novella. Therefore, the question seems to be justified: does a new genre generate or does a genre change, while retaining its main typological characteristics? The results of the analysis confirm the opinion of M.M. Bakhtin that the dialogization of secondary genres is currently changing. The French short story is rebuilt and updated: the text as a whole takes on a different form, its balanced, extremely clear and logically verified structure split into indirectly related parts, which are photographs, diagrams, drawings and various fonts that form more or less related thematically blocks. The perfect grammatical forms inherent in the classical novelistic form have given way to present ones, the monologue component is replaced by the dialogical one, which entails a change in the category of the reader. The text introduces him as an active agent into the event and invites him to join the game. The compositional structure gives the text an interactive, playful character, responding to the time request for communication in a playful format, which enhances the “partner” character of the category of the reader, who acquired the properties of a co-author / co-narrator and qualitatively changed the narration, turning it into communication, which raises the problem of defining a new kind of narrative technology. The genre under study today retains its typological characteristics, such as brevity and a story about one event, which makes it possible to consider it as a novel, but it loses such an essential property for its typification as coup de théâtre, an unexpected denouement, which is considered by all theorists of the genre as its cornerstone. To solve these problems, it is necessary to wait for studies that would show the possibility of considering these changes as a free creative re-design of the novelistic genre or as recognition of the birth of a new artistic and literary genre.

Keywords: Text; Novella; Speech genre; Transformation; Structure; Composition; Statement; Category
Корниенко А. А. Жанр как онтологически нестабильная литературно-художественная форма

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Аннотация. Статья посвящена проблеме жанра. Исследуется текст современной французской новеллы, которая подверглась в последние десятилетия радикальным изменениям. Французская новелла носит настолько новый характер, что исследователи определяют ее терминами гибридизация, скрещивание, переход, трансгрессия, гибридный текст, квази-новелла. Обоснованным поэтому представляется вопрос: порождает ли новый жанр или жанр видоизменяется, сохраняя при этом свои основные типологические характеристики? Результаты анализа подтверждают мнение М.М. Бахтина о том, что в настоящее время изменяется диалогизация вторичных жанров. Французская новелла перестраивается и обновляется: текст как целое приобретает иную форму, ее уравновешенная, предельно ясная и логически выверенная структура раскололась на опосредованно связанные части, представляющие собой fotografии, схемы, рисунки и разнообразные шрифты, образующие более и менее связанные тематически блоки. Перфектные грамматические формы, свойственные классической новеллистической форме, уступили место презенсным, монологическая составляющая заменяется на диалогическую, что влечет изменение категории читателя. Текст вводит его как активного агента в событие и предлагает ему вступить в игру. Композиционная структура придает тексту интерактивный, игровой характер, отвечая запросу времени на общение в игровом формате, что усиливает «партнерский» характер категории читателя, который приобрел свойства соавтора/сорассказчика и качественно изменил нарратив, превратив ее в коммуникацию, что поднимает проблему дефиниции нового вида повествовательной техники. Изучаемый жанр сегодня сохраняет такие свои типологические характеристики, как краткость и рассказ об одном событии, что позволяет рассматривать его как новеллу, но теряет такое существенное для своей типизации свойство, как coup de théâtre, неожиданную развязку, которая всеми теоретиками жанра рассматривается как его краеугольный камень. Для решения данных проблем надо ждать исследований, которые бы показали возможность рассмотрения названных изменений как свободно-творческое переоформление новеллистического жанра или как признание рождения нового художественно-литературного жанра.
Introduction

Researchers of the French narrative note changes in such secondary (according to Bakhtin) genres as the novel and the novella, which take place as early as in the first half of the twentieth century and continue to occur in the present century. It has been noted more than once that the modern text does not stop looking for its new forms of expression, that a distinctive feature of world literature, in general, and French, in particular, can be defined as a continuous change in the compositional form of the text and the manner of presentation of its content. It seems that the authors are cramped (or bored) within the framework of one long-existing genre, and they strive not so much to go beyond it, as to blend it with others to a greater or lesser extent, to change it in one way or another, to bring something that is typical of another genre, another type of text. This characteristic of the modern French text is realized as soon as the reader opens the book. Therefore, the question seems to be justified: does a new style of literary writing generate new genres, or does the genre change while maintaining its main typological characteristics? And if it changes, what is preserved in it that makes it possible to consider a new text as belonging to an already existing literary genre or a new genre is being born? Whether the rights of M. M. Bakhtin, arguing that "the genre was given to man as a language, without it, would not be able to communicate"?

This article attempts to answer these questions on the basis of analysis and interpretation of texts of French literature of the second half of the twentieth and early twenty-first centuries, mostly of short texts of the genre (novel, short story), because at the present time, this genre has been a great development in French literature. Novels are published in great numbers by a large number of writers-novelists, among them a lot of novelists-women: A Somon, C. Baros, M. Duras, M. Burducks, M. Yoursenar others, which in itself seems an event of special significance and causes research interest. In the women's novelistic text, according to K. Potvin, the problems of genre and gender most visibly intersect. The women's novelistic text combines "socio-political and cultural construction in the postmodern sense, and the feminist utopia itself has become a "genre" that serves to destabilize genres" (Potvin, 2001:76).

Modern French novelistic prose has such a new character that researchers introduce the terms hybridization, crossing, intermediate link, transition, transgression, hybrid text, which is characterized primarily by a different compositional structure, namely, a "split" form (structure éclatée). At the same time, hybrid texts, according to J.M. Paterson (2001: 91), are more endowed with meaning than others and are already embedded, despite their novelty, in our cognitive and epistemological systems. Proceeding from the above, it seems interesting to analyze the modern French novelistic text in the aspect of its genre features, having previously said a few words about the genre as such.

About the novella genre

As is known, the first who turned to the genre was Aristotle, who proposed in his "Poetics" (Aristotle, 1998: 1064-1067) the division according to the root principle – into diegesis and mimesis. The great scientist highlighted the main thing, pointing out the significance of the presence/absence of a speaking voice in the characterization of any text, the need to determine the type of text depending on whether there is one voice telling a story in it, or many talking voices
that are not telling a story, but expressing their opinions, exchanging impressions and/or discussing.

The diegesis type underlies the narrative, narrative text, the mimesis type is dramatic, imitating natural communication, which today can be defined as a discursive genre or speech in the literal sense of the word.

Identifying the distinctive features of epic, tragedy, comedy, dithyrambic poetry and other genres, Aristotle pointed out that the basis of the differences between them is "the way each phenomenon is reproduced." He drew attention to the fact that it is possible to tell about the same thing in different ways and that the form of utterance depends on how the story is conducted: "After all, you can reproduce [...] by telling about events, while becoming something extraneous (to the story) [...], or on your own behalf, without replacing yourself with others; or depicting everyone acting ..." (Aristotle, 1998:1069).

The scientist also emphasized the importance in determining the genre of such a category as a personal pronoun in the function of the narrator, its form, as well as the fact of its presence or absence, as in a dramatic text.

Since those distant times, the genre has not ceased to interest scientists, although in different periods of the development of philological science, this interest has been increasing, then temporarily lost its relevance. Nowadays, there are two reasons why the genre is increasingly moving into the spotlight: firstly, as noted above, the endless attempts of writers to change/reshape/update the genre as such, to introduce elements into each individual genre structure that it has never possessed before.

So, according to F. Goyet, since the thirties of the 20th century the French novella has been experiencing, a transformation of such force that it turns into a quasi-novella genre. The researcher suggests defining it as a "modernist novel" because it is strongly influenced by modernism: "C'est le moment où le genre, subit une transformation radicale, transformation tellement profonde que l'on sait à peine si l'on peut continuer à employer le même mot pour désigner les textes de la nouvelle qui apparaît à ce moment [...] un genre quasi-nouveau, la nouvelle "moderne", puisqu'on verra qu'elle est liée en profondeur aux conquêtes du modernisme" (Goyet, 2001: 87).

Reflecting on the reasons for the transformation, M. Macé characterizes the diverse attempts of writers to change the genre with the argot word encanailler, which means "to bully". She assures that all these modifications ("tormenting" by Masa) of the genre are in vain, that no matter how numerous they are, the genre will not go anywhere and will definitely return": «On aura beau encanailler la littérature et les arts contemporains, … le genre reviendra sans doute toujours…» (Macé, 2001: 5).

Thus, numerous modifications of the genre generate, firstly, a natural research interest, make scientists realize and identify these changes and understand the degree of their influence on the novelistic genre and its consequences.

Secondly, according to the general opinion, "a kind of impetus to the study of genre studies was the republication of M.M. Bakhtin's scientific works" (Bakhtin, 1996: 3), in which the scientist emphasizes the importance of compositional construction as one of the most important factors in the formation of the speech genre along with thematic content and style. In the "Problem of Speech Genres" M.M. Bakhtin writes that it is this trinity – composition, content and style – that, being "inextricably linked in the whole of utterance", determines the specifics of the speech genre in each separate sphere of communication (Bakhtin, 1996: 159-206).

At the same time, the paper points to the extreme heterogeneity of verbal and written genres, which allows, in the author's opinion, to assume the impossibility, due to their abstractness, of distinguishing their common features.

M.M. Bakhtin also sees in this very diversity the reason that "the general problem of speech genres has never really been posed," although literary, rhetorical, everyday speech
genres have been studied since antiquity, but without taking into account the general linguistic problem of utterance and its types.

A similar state of affairs is characteristic, according to the scientist, for most research works: for the works of F. de Saussure and his students, for structuralists and American behaviorists, who also failed to determine its general linguistic nature.

In our opinion, the relevance of research interest in the genre lies in this "indecision" from the perspective of taking into account the general linguistic problem of utterance.

In the proposed work, an attempt is made to identify the boundaries (according to M.M. Bakhtin) of the genre of the French novella, separating it from other artistic and literary genres and allowing to define the modified text as a novella, as well as to identify the modifications to which the French novella has been subjected in recent decades.

In this regard, it is necessary to say a few words about the classic French novel.

**Canonical (classical) French novella**

It is known that, from the point of view of visual image and compositional structure, the canonical short story text, like the text of a novel and any narrative, represents a solid white space filled with black lexical units and syntactic structures, which can be interrupted by a gap, usually small, indicating a pause in the story or a transition to a new topic. Visually, the text has the appearance of an ordinary, traditional artistic publication, whether it is a novel, a story, a fairy tale or a novella.

The traditional novelistic theme is also known. For example, O. Balzac's short stories, being an integral part of his Human Comedy, aimed to tell about the life of an entire country in its smallest manifestations. The theme of Guy de Maupassant's novels was the drama of the existence of simple little people. Flaubert, Zola, Sand, Stendhal were attracted by man and society, the difficulties of existence, high passions, petty meanness's and various kinds of psychological dramas.

One of the characteristic stylistic features of the classic novel is its monologue. The narrator, regardless of his form ("I" or "he"), narrates without taking into account the presence/absence of the reader, who plays rather a passive role of a listener listening to the narrating voice. The narrator, although speaking for him, does not address him, there is, for example, no direct appeal to the reader, as is typical for a novel by, say, O. Balzac, who likes to "talk" with his reader and address him with a speech.

There are also no other markers of dialogicity, which is most clearly indicated by the perfect verb-pronominal forms used – Passé simple, the third-person pronoun in the function of the narrator and the adverbs "there" and "then", producing a classical narrative, which, although it can be considered as a form of the author's utterance, but which assumes the reader only as a listener, emotional, sympathetic, but not taking part in the process.

This trinity of grammatical forms reflects the linguistic essence of the French novella, its peculiarity and the meaning of existence – the novella is told so that an unexpected final act, an amazing denouement takes place, all these grammatical means "work" for this. With their help, a novelistic narrative is produced, which has a pronounced monological character, as a result of which the reader does not act as a partner-interlocutor of the author, although the narrator seeks to surprise or amaze him.

E.M. Evnina, noting the absence of interference in the French novella "with his author's word," writes that no one imposes his attitude to the depicted on the reader, while referring to Flaubert's position: "the author should be like God in his creation, omnipotent, but invisible" (Evnina, 1976:11). As evidenced by the opinion of a venerable French writer, at that time there was no attitude to communication itself, and short story writers had no purpose to engage in conversation with their readers.

**Updating the speech genre of the novel**

The analysis of the texts of the novellas of the modern era shows that these grammatical forms have changed, followed
by a significant modification of their main categories, defining the specifics of this speech genre.

As it was noted, the French novel has been undergoing numerous radical changes, which are expressed in the "game" of the authors on its volume, visual image, page space and even on the subject. Under the influence of these modifications, the novel acquires a new property – dialogicity, which consists in a special manner of conducting a dialogue with the reader, which is based primarily on a specific composition and a peculiar novelistic structure.

The results of the analysis of French modern short stories confirm M.M. Bakhtin's opinion that the dialogization of secondary genres is currently changing. The French novel is being rebuilt and updated: the text as a whole takes on a different form, perfect grammatical forms have given way to presentable ones, the monological component is replaced by a dialogic one, which entails a change in the category of the reader.

**New structure of the novel**

The compositional form of the modern novel is extremely diverse, which radically distinguishes it from the classic novel. The structure of the latter is a relatively short story about an unusual and surprising event, the tension of which is resolved in an unexpected denouement, the so-called coup de théâtre – an unexpected final act.

Its balanced, extremely clear and logically verified structure has split today into indirectly related parts, which are photographs, diagrams, drawings and various fonts, forming more or less thematically related blocks.

Thus, D. Renaud in *Enquête sur un bateau-mouche* organizes the text as follows:

As can be seen from the fragment of the text, the author introduces several elements that are not characteristic of canonical narration. They include: a drawing in the upper left corner, bold italics, standard italics and the opposition of black and white colors.

It must be recognized that it is not entirely correct to define the style of the presentation of this text as a narrative, since it is not a "story about ...", but a dialogue between the characters, which is interrupted by the appeal of the narrator (author?) to the "real" reader to ask him if he believes what is being told and refer him to page 22 if so, and to page 21 if not. As a result, instead of narrative, there are two dialogues in the text, one of which
is a conversation between the characters, the second is a dialogue with the reader, built by the author based on visual means and direct questions addressed to the reader by the author. The form and questions require the reader to "intervene" in the text in the form of an "answer" to the author's questions. Naturally, these answers will most likely not be expressed, they will sound in the reader's head, but this does not prevent them from being a lively reaction of the reader to the author's question. The text thus becomes polyphonic, it "sounds" three voices (two voices of the characters and one of the author), which is joined by the voice of the reader, which is implied, because the author invites him to communicate, exchange opinions and even to argue his opinion – asks him to explain his trust / distrust of what is being said. The text, having lost most of its monologue, acquires a pronounced dialogic range.

If M.M. Bakhtin believed that the dialogization of secondary genres occurs under the influence of various types of conversational and dialogical genres, then in the modern era, the dialogical character of a novelistic text is influenced primarily by the text structure: its fragmentary composition, visual element, and other stylistics of the presentation of the topic. The generation of the "feeling of the listener as a partner-interlocutor", about which the scientist wrote, is determined precisely by these formal elements.

The analysis of the novel by D. Reno indicates that it is addressed to the reader, and not only introduces him as an active agent in the text, but also invites him to join the game. The compositional structure, in addition to the above, gives the text an interactive, playful character, responding to the request of time for communication in a game format, which also strengthens the "partner" character of the reader category.

The compositional structure revealed by D. Reno is based on components typical for a modern novel – structural blocks of different shapes and different kinds, which are constructed and used by different writers in different ways.

Thus, a feature of the structure of A. Somon's novella Je me souviens is the opposition of the font form and a large number of spaces separating specifically localized blocks:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RENSEIGNEMENTS D’ORDRE PRATIQUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Les grandes lignes, cherchant à et répondre à une forte demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vols quotidiens. Les vols chart bureau de l’office du tourisme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Je sais, maman, il a un accent spécial. On s’habitue.

Je sais, il a ses mots à lui, il dit “remplir en régulier” pour “le plein en ordinaire”. Ayant vidé son paquet d’Export A il entre dans une tabagie. Il passe chez le dépanneur si un copain arrive à l’improvisée.

Je sais, maman.

Gaps here are replaced by the mother's remarks in a conversation with her daughter, the latter's speech therefore turns into a monologue in which she tries to justify her
lover and elevate him in the eyes of her mother.

The compositional structure is "torn" into three parts: (a) the daughter's speech, (b) markers-spaces instead of mother's words, and (c) fragments from various publications related to the topic of travel.

As can be seen from the image, the visual image of the text of A. Somon differs from the image of the text of D. Reno, but this difference is not of a fundamental nature. Practically the same means of production are used in both, and they produce the same effect: the text has a discursive property, its dialogic range is determined by its structural organization. Here the reader is also involved in the text, is also a partner of the author (narrator), although in this case his participation is of a slightly different nature.

The reader's involvement, his active interest, his response to the text as an author's statement are determined by his intellectual work, which the author obliges him to do. The reader needs to perform the following actions: "fill in" the gaps in order to understand the daughter's speech, and to think out the meaning and determine the role of the fragments of publications printed in bold italics in understanding the plot. Only in this case, when implementing these actions, the story of a young woman whose life does not work out, apparently, through the fault of her mother, will form in his head. There is no story as such about her life in the text, the narrator does not narrate the story and drama of her life, and the narrator himself as the creator of the narrative about the characters is also absent.

Both in the first text and in the second, the narrator does not fulfill his main function – to narrate, to tell an interesting story that would end with an unexpected denouement. A narrative story develops in the mind of the reader, who, relying on the statements of the characters, the analysis of the compositional form and the visual image of the text, produces a story for himself independently, turning the speech of the characters (dialogue in the first case and monologue in the second) into a narrative, into a story. The new structure and visual image create new conditions for the production of the text, in which the reader acts as the creator of the story, building it as he reads in his head.

The reader of a modern French novel, thus, has turned into a "partner-interlocutor" (according to M.M. Bakhtin), moreover, he acquired the properties of a co-author / co-narrator, which the scientist did not foresee, since the literature of that era did not yet have the appropriate qualities and properties.

**Conclusion**

The statement of the above-mentioned and so significant changes in the novelistic text leads to the question, does the "new" text remain novelistic? Is it turning into a quasi-novel or a new genre?

It seems to us that the answer is still "yes", remains a novel, although modified, because: a) the authors of these works themselves, when they are published, most often characterize them as short stories and publish collections of short stories; b) these texts retain one of their most important classifying properties – brevity. Sometimes a modern novel becomes even shorter than a classical one, for example, A. Wurmser has published a collection in which some short stories occupy only half a page, although most of the texts still approach the classical one in volume.; c) the text in one form or another "tells" about one event, which distinguishes it from, for example, a novel and is its genre property, its generating feature.

The preservation of these fundamentally important structuring features allows the novel genre to fit into the process of hybridization of literature, although it loses no less important properties at the same time. Namely: a) the subject matter has changed: the original and amazing has been replaced, most often, by the ordinary and conventional; b) the composition of the text: the novella has a fragmentary, block structure; c) instead of perfect temporal, pronominal and adverbial forms, the forms of the present are used, d) the narrative is replaced by an utterance.
(dialogue, monologue), therefore, the discursive component has significantly increased, and the novel itself has acquired the properties of a unit of speech communication, which raises the problem of identifying and defining this type of utterance: a special kind of narrative? a discursive narrative? narrative discourse?; and, finally, e) the category of the reader has been modified: he has changed his passive position to an active one and today has the properties of a partner/interlocutor and/or co-author.

The new categorical properties of the reader allow us to talk about an active role of the other in the process of text formation in the French novel.

Using the logic of G. Genette’s (Genette, 1974: 68) statement on rhetoric, we can say that the genre, despite all the modifications and changes that it has been undergoing lately, is a structuring concept and successfully fits into the process of hybrization of modern literature. At the same time, it must be recognized that the genre loses some of its important properties and qualities in this cauldron of innovations.

Despite the conclusions drawn, the problem of the modern French novel as a genre remains unresolved. It is not yet possible to recognize as not essential for the typification of the genre (1) the absence in the text of coup de théâtre, an unexpected denouement, which is considered by all theorists of the novelistic genre as its cornerstone, and (2) the replacement of narrative with a discursive form, i.e. the absence in the text of the narrator, a category that, like coup de théâtre, has always been considered the main property and the main feature of narrative in general.

To solve these problems, we must wait for studies that would show the possibility of defining these changes as a free-creative reformation of the novelistic genre or as recognition of the birth of a new artistic and literary genre.

References


Genre as an ontologically unstable literary and artistic form.


Conflicts of Interest: the author has no conflict of interest to declare.

Kornienko A. A. Genre as an ontologically unstable literary and artistic form.

Корниенко А. А. Жанр как онтологически нестабильная литературно-художественная форма

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Abstract. The article is focused on finding ways for the VBA application in translation. Most of the macro code solutions available online date back to the early 2000s. Given the fact, the researchers decided to look into the usefulness of the instrument in today's environment, which has changed significantly over the two decades. No matter how elaborate modern translating tools are, MS Word is still there, and time and again translators turn to it to convey various ideas to another language. Most specialists make do with what the designer built into the word processor, but there is a Developer tab they fail to notice. This is an opening, deliberately left by the developers to let users tap into the program and adjust it as needed. The authors go consistently from the analysis of existing codes, to writing their own based on the needs of today’s translators and eventually to suggesting approaches for harnessing the tool to the translators’ benefit. The ultimate proof of the value of translation-tailored VBA macros comes in the form of an experiment, built around the problem of converting measuring units in technical texts, a major translation challenge, particularly in the English-Russian pair of languages. The application of the code resulted in faster and more accurate calculations during the conversions, let alone better quality of the translated text. Not least important is that the translators now could focus on conveying the sense and idea, instead of switching between the MS Word window and numerous online/offline dictionaries, converters, corpora, etc., interrupting the string of their thoughts every time they came across numbers. This alone justifies taking the translator out of the loop when it comes to
standard processes. Other noteworthy results include: 1) list of tasks where macro solutions will relieve translators of extra workload, causing premature fatigue and degrading performance; 2) on-the-job path for consistent and gradual mastering of the tool, encompassing copying, modification, and combination of existing macros; 3) prove of the precedence of the code logic over its form and role of strategies in the use of macros.

**Keywords:** Visual basic for application; Translation automation; Macro; Code; Measurement unit conversion

анализа существующих кодов к изучению способов написания собственных с учетом потребностей современных переводчиков, предлагают стратегии освоения ресурса. Для практической проверки основных выводов авторы проводят эксперимент, для которого была выбрана наиболее сложная проблема в паре английский-русский согласно опросу профессиональных переводчиков, а именно — конвертация единиц измерения в переводе технических текстов. Применение подготовленного кода привело к более быстрым и точным расчетам при конвертации, высокому качеству текста на ПЯ в результате того, что переводчики более не были обременены необходимостью переключаться между окном редактора и онлайн/офлайн словарями, конвертерами, корпусами, прерывая ход своих мыслей всякий раз, когда они сталкивались с цифрами. На основании полученных результатов авторы приходят к главному выводу о целесообразности использования специализированных макросов для выполнения стандартных операций, не требующих когнитивной работы переводчика-человека. Среди других значимых результатов следует отметить: 1) список переводческих задач, для которых подходят решения на основе макросов; 2) стратегию последовательного освоения инструмента без отрыва от работы на основе копирования, адаптации существующих макросов и составления новых кодов; 3) определение приоритета логики кода над его формой, а также роли стратегии применения макросов в глобальном контексте решения переводческих задач.

**Ключевые слова:** Объектно-ориентированный язык программирования; Автоматизация процесса перевода; Макрос; Код; Конвертация единиц измерения

**Информация для цитирования:** Груздев Д.Ю., Дёмочкина В.В., Макаренко А.С. Объектно-ориентированный язык программирования в практике письменного перевода // Научный результат. Вопросы теоретической и прикладной лингвистики. 2021. Т.7, №4. С. 66-81. DOI: 10.18413/2313-8912-2021-7-4-0-6

**Introduction**

In the modern world, the pace of life has become much higher in terms of operations and the volume of information processed. The trend has not spared translators, either. (Ubin, 2001: 64). Moreover, it is not uncommon for a translator to switch from one subject to another, with customers placing even higher demands on deadlines and quality. That is where electronic tools and software fit in (Shevchuk, 2013: 70). As a result of the rapid development of information technologies over the past two decades the professional image of the modern translator has sustained profound changes. This inevitably leads to a search for new reserves and resources to optimize and adapt the translation to new requirements.

Today, translators already have at their disposal a large number of software products from dictionaries to specialized software such as Translation Memory (TM) systems (Shevchuk, 2013: 70). However, with the emergence of the latter, the usual translation tools have by no means become a thing of the past. MS Word is still widely used. The potential for automating word processing, as well as adapting this software to translators' needs, is enormous because of the VBA programming language that the developers integrated into MS Office (Granell, 2015: 72). Meanwhile, many specialists, translators included, are not even aware of its existence (Blayney, Sun, 2019: 12). The purpose of this paper is to explore the potential of VBA in MS Word and to find ways to use it in translation.
Archives

The essence of translation automation is to minimize the human role and, with a single tap on a key or click of the mouse trigger an automatic chain of operations, such as searching or editing. This can be achieved, among other things, with the macros specifically created for frequently recurring tasks.

There are off-the-shelf solutions for translators on the Internet, compiled by translators. Most of them have become subjects of extensive discussions on professional forums such as Gorod Perevodchikov (Russian for City of Translators) and Proz (Gorod Perevodchikov, Proz). A further search will lead to the websites of the "programmers", containing scores of macros and templates. Each product was compiled by translators to meet their own needs. The developers do not claim them to be comprehensive solutions to global translation problems and the interface often falls short of user-friendly standards. However, there are complex products, full-fledged software complete with an installation file. For example, the website of translator T. Harvey Ciampi offers macros for some repetitive secondary tasks (Ciampi), combined into the Translator add-on for MS Word. This endows translators with assets to perform some text-editing operations in automatic mode, for example, replace commas with dots in decimals in English documents, or replace the space between a number and a unit of measurement with a non-breaking space.

Translation macros partially duplicate each other in functionality, which is not at all evidence of plagiarism, because in solving the same problem the developers have framed their ideas in different program codes. Meanwhile, this fact confirms the existence of a translation issue and the need to find a solution through automation.

To understand the scope of translation tasks that can be shouldered by macros, a list of their major functions has been prepared (Gorod Perevodchikov, EnglisHelp, Pfeiffer, 2005):

- Searching the text for all fractional numbers separated by commas, and replacing them with dots (in the English format),
- Replacing the spaces between numbers and units with non-breaking spaces,
- Formatting the titles in the English style (the first letters of the words are in CAPs),
- Searching for untranslated text,
- Inserting text in MS Word with all formatting canceled,
- Calculating for a given text the number of so-called "translation" pages (the total number of characters, spaces included, divided by 1,800),
- Counting the number of paragraphs, images, tables, footnotes, etc.,
- Removing unnecessary spaces, including after and before opening parentheses and before punctuation marks,
- Removing extra tabs at the beginning of a paragraph,
- Extracting terms that are not in the Word spell-checker,
- Searching for a selected word or phrase in the MS Word document in Google, Yandex, BNC, Collins, Oxford, and other online resources,
- Searching for dictionaries in Google that contain certain words or phrases (in English, Italian, French, and German),
- Automation of searching for words and phrases in dictionaries, bypassing the copy-paste procedure,
- Searching for dictionaries and parallel texts online.
All operations belong to the (1) analysis, (2) editing, and (3) optimization phases (see Figure 1). The analysis part is directly related to statistics the translator needs to estimate the cost or generate an invoice for the translation done. In MS Word’s basic functions this is accomplished in the form of counting typed characters with and without spaces, as well as words. A macro will process the text and divide the resulting digit by 1,800 to get the number of standard pages (Pfeiffer).

Editing macros are suitable for application both before and after translation, relieving the translator from mechanical, time-consuming operations with the text, including checking the text for repeated spaces, bringing decimal numbers to a common format as per the target language requirements (Katz, 2011: 45).

It is not fortuitous that macros for automating the search for linguistic data in reference software have been included as well. A good translator, no matter what "caliber", always keeps a large number of dictionaries and reference materials handy. The capacity of modern resources, packed into specialized programs featuring a simple and user-friendly interface, has gone a long way in making the process of finding the required linguistic information simpler and faster. However, today’s arsenal counts more than few programs, resulting in several windows which a translator has to juggle with, whenever he needs to check a word, its compatibility or find a synonym, pressing the copy-paste combination time and again. While requiring little cognitive resources, this chain of standard procedures takes its toll on the translator who often spends hours at the computer.

Most Russian translators will immediately remember the offline version of Multitran, where the developers partially simplified this task by making the program automatically paste the copied text into the query field. Of course, this feature dramatically simplified the navigation among open windows, although the Alt+Tab key combination was still needed to jump to the desired program.

Over time cloud and online technologies matured, providing around-the-clock access to up-to-date information. Inevitably it appealed to everyone, translators
included. As a result, preference was given to cloud solutions, relegating the classic, offline resources to a supporting role. While gaining in the data access field, translators obviously lost in making their digital workspace leaner and better organized. Now they need not only to switch to a web browser (which has become a single interface for all the web resources) but also select the required tab. This resulted in a growing number of keyboard and mouse manipulations, increasing the search time. The solution came in some dated macros written by Alexander Volkov (GiGatran.ru). They allow to assign key combinations to copy selected words to the search windows of Google or Yandex, online dictionaries Oxford, Collins, and the British National Corpus (BNC). The codes provided a way to bypass the chain of tedious manual manipulations with the mouse and key board to get to the right window or tab and copy the query into the search line manually. Even for those who have not yet mastered VBA, understanding and cloning the code for expanding the search to other WEB-based resources is not at all a challenge.

Below is the code for automating the query-making process in Google (see Table 1). The code starts with a general part, i.e. a universal part, thus not subject to changes. Only the commands in the second line of the table need to be modified, namely the function name and web address.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Option Explicit Private Declare PtrSafe Function _ ShellExecute Lib &quot;Shell32.dll&quot; _ Alias &quot;ShellExecuteA&quot; (_ ByVal hWnd As Long, _ ByVal lpOperation As String, _ ByVal lpFile As String, _ ByVal lpParameters As String, _ ByVal lpDirectory As String, _ ByVal nShowCmd As Long) As Long Private Declare PtrSafe Function _ FindWindow Lib &quot;User32.dll&quot; _ Alias &quot;FindWindowA&quot; (_ ByVal lpclassname As Any, _ ByVal lpCaption As Any) As Long Private Declare PtrSafe Function _ goFind &quot;<a href="http://www.google.ru/search?q=">http://www.google.ru/search?q=</a>&quot;, 1</td>
<td>For universal part of the code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Public Sub goGoogle() goFind &quot;<a href="http://www.google.ru/search?q=">http://www.google.ru/search?q=</a>&quot;&quot;, 1</td>
<td>For request code</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another optimization idea was picked at K. Yeltsov's workshops (RosNOU), focused on tailoring and writing macros for problems arising during translation. The portfolio of the practicing interpreter and translator offers multiple solutions, from the simplest unit converters to a DIY TM system (Yeltsov). At one of his lectures, K. Yeltsov voiced the idea of controlling all the programs on the PC through MS Word using VBA commands. Below is a code, located on the Internet, to run a third-party application:

'Dim RetVal
RetVal = Shell("CALC.EXE", 1) ' Run Calculator.
A very simple code, it can be easily modified to run any program on the PC. By replacing CALC. EXE with the path to any dictionary, Multitran, Oxford, Collins, etc. the macro can be adjusted to run it from MS Word.

```
'Dim RetVal
RetVal = Shell(“C:\Program Files (x86)\mt\network\Multitran.EXE”, 1) ' Run Multitran.
```

The next logical step will be to combine several application triggering macros in to a code for simultaneous launching:

```
Sub Launch()
    mt
    mx
    ox
    bnc
End Sub
```

This code, which can be reduced to a simple list of macro names for launching individual applications, can significantly speed up the preparation of the translator's workspace. Each professional has a different set of tools, which can vary from task to task. Most importantly, it is not one dictionary, but five or more. For different types of work, professionals tend to use a different set of tools, which can easily be combined into one macro, for example, according to the type or subject of translation. Thus, the next time the translator will not have to look through the list of his tools, clicking twice on the icons of the required applications. To get started, the only thing needed to be done is to open the text editor window and launch the required set of tools by clicking the icon on the ribbon or Quick Access Toolbar (see Figure 2).

Figure 2: Macro icons for launching dictionaries and special translator software on (1) the Quick Access Toolbar and (2) the MS Word text editor ribbon.

Most of the solutions date back to the mid-2000s when the translator's toolkit got saturated with specialized software installed on the first truly personal machines. A search on professional forums will invariably lead to codes compiled during that period. Though all efforts to run these macros on modern PCs are doomed to failure as modern 64-bit systems do not accept them, the same forums offer a solution that boils down to adding `PtrSafe` (Table 1) to the code line `Private Declare _`. This said, some functions of private VBA codes for automation of text editor functions are already implemented in the basic MS Office features, for example, translation of words from the MS Word window in the online application. The idea remains the same, but the functionality does not fully meet the needs of a modern translator. True, it has become more convenient to have search results displayed in a right-hand field in the editor window. It does save the user an effort to go to the browser, although not so much as to abandon the old macros at all. The point is that the information is searched through the databases of the Microsoft Corporation. This is not
enough for a professional translator who understands that quality depends on, among other things, the plurality of reference resources at his disposal.

**Case study**

As much as all of the solutions discussed above make the burden of the modern translators easier, they are quasi-translation in nature. They increase the efficiency of analysis, text editing, and searching for linguistic information in third-party sources (Folaron, 2010: 424).

It is still required to establish the role of macros in overcoming translation difficulties. There is no better starting point than asking practicing translators. Of all the mentioned difficulties the need to convert units of measurement in the translation of military and technical texts proved to be the most suitable for the task for several reasons. First, the issue has already been partially solved in some old macros, so the work will boil down to modifying and refining the code. Second, this was the task prompted by K. Yeltsov to evaluate the VBA proficiency of those who wanted to participate in his VBA workshops. The would-be attendees had to automate the conversion of all measurements from the Metric system into Imperial (Yeltsov).

Questionnaires done by military translators, particularly working in the Russian-English pair of languages, suggest that they often have to convert units of speed, temperature, volume, mass (weight), distance, area, force, power, density, etc. from the Anglo-American system to Metric and back when translating technical texts.

Most conversions that military translators have to deal with are limited to multiplication or division by a factor. Meanwhile, there are instances of inconsistent approaches to the measurement of certain indicators, which makes the task more of a challenge. For example, fuel consumption in Russia is commonly expressed in terms of the number of liters needed to cover 100km (l/100km), while the British will normally consider the number of miles a vehicle will travel on one gallon of fuel (MPG).

The Internet is replete with various online converters, such as those based on the Yandex and Google search engines (see Figure 3), let alone scores of formulas websites have to offer. The built-in Windows calculator also features a converter function (see Figure 4). However, being yet another application, it will make the not-so-short string of windows the translator has to juggle with even longer. This will mean an additional distraction from the translation, eventually adding to the fatigue of the specialist.
Moreover, many units that military and technical texts abound with are not covered in standard software. These include ton-force (tf) or kilogram-force (kgf), in which the thrust of an aircraft engine is measured.

Based on these considerations of unit conversion challenges, a macro was prepared (see Table 2). If there is a unit to be converted, the macro will be activated with a combination of keys. In this way, the translator will carry on with the translation while not distracted by extra manipulations to select appropriate units of measurement in the Calculator or online converter.

Table 2. Unit conversion code

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><strong>Sub</strong> main()</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;lbf-ft&quot;, &quot;H-m&quot;, 1.35582</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;mph&quot;, &quot;km/h&quot;, 1.60934</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;gallons&quot;, &quot;l&quot;, 3.78541</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;MPG&quot;, &quot;l/100km&quot;, 235.215</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;in3&quot;, &quot;cm3&quot;, 16.3871</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;pound&quot;, &quot;kg&quot;, 0.453592</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;inches&quot;, &quot;cm&quot;, 2.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TranslSi &quot;feet&quot;, &quot;m&quot;, 3.2808</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>End Sub</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><strong>Sub</strong> TranslSi(FindWord As String, ReplaceWord As String, sDelit As Double)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Unit Converter function in the Calculator App. Length measures.
### Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 3. | Dim MyRange As Range  
Dim cnt As Long  
Dim iExit As Boolean  
Dim FindNumber As Double  
Dim ReplaceNumber As Double  
Dim slovo As String  
Dim sText As String  
Dim sNumber As String | 3. Introduction to the conversion of pound-forces to newton-meters |  |

| 4. | With Selection.Find  
.Text = FindWord  
.MatchWholeWord = True  
.Replacement.Text = ReplaceWord  
.Wrap = wdFindContinue  
If sDelit = 0 Then  
.Execute Replace:=wdReplaceAll  
Else  
.Execute Replace:=wdReplaceOne  
Do While .Found  
cnt = 0  
iExit = False  
Parent.Collapse  
Direction:=wdCollapseStart  
Parent.MoveLeft  
Do While iExit = False  
  Parent.MoveLeft  
  If .Parent.Text Like "[0-9\s\d]*" Then  
    cnt = cnt + 1  
  Else  
    Parent.MoveRight  
    Parent.MoveRight  
    cnt = cnt - 1  
| 4. Search and conversion | The utility part of the code |  |
There are two obvious strategies for applying the unit conversion macro, which dictates the executive part of the code, i.e. (1) running the code in manual mode upon coming across values in the text or (2) applying the macro to the whole document (a) before or (b) after the translation.

Option 2a is of particular interest. In this case, the translator will be able to notice different approaches to the measurement of individual characteristics of equipment and come up with a more interesting translation solution to make the target text sound more English or Russian, depending on the translation direction. Again, it calls for the example of the fuel consumption measurement in Russia and the UK.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>№</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Note</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>iExit = True</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>End If</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Parent.MoveRight</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>unit:=wdCharacter, Count:=cnt, Extend:=wdExtend</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If Trim(. Parent.Text) &lt;&gt; &quot;&quot; And Asc(. Parent.Text) &lt;&gt; 160 Then</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>FindNumber = CDbl(Replace(. Parent.Text, &quot;,&quot;, &quot;,&quot;))</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ReplaceNumber = FindNumber</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>* sDelit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Text = Format(ReplaceNumber, &quot;##0.00&quot;)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Wrap = wdFindContinue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Execute</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Replace:=wdReplaceOne</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Else</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Wrap = wdFindContinue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Execute</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>End If</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Wrap = wdFindStop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selection.Find.Execute</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Loop</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>End If</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>End With</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Original

Расход топлива танка T-72 следующий:
- при движении на грунте – 260 л/100км;
- на дороге с твердым покрытием – 240 л/100км.

Translation

Fuel consumption of the T-72 tank is as follows:
- when driving on the ground - 260 l/100 km;
- on paved roads - 240 l/100km.
Those treading first steps in the trade tend to appeal to the lack of need to convert units from the international SI system, which is a fair remark. In the USA, for example, official technical and operational documents abandoned the Royal system in favor of the metric system of measurements (Clancy, 2001: 112). Nevertheless, Tom Clancy, the author of a documentary series of books focused on almost all services and arms of the U.S. Armed Forces, notes the "old guard" still sticking to the traditional for the U.S. approach.

Under the circumstances, the translator must always consider the pragmatic aspect. A specialist accustomed to measuring fuel in terms of miles per gallon will interpret the meaning in that particular way whenever coming across the "fuel consumption" characteristic, despite the presence of l/100km after the numeral. This scenario of text perception is common when a quick decision is required, for example, by a logistician calculating the amount of fuel for friendly troops’ equipment arriving for a joint exercise.

The stylistic aspect is also worth considering. Numerous figures with units of measurement "tear up" the text, forcing the reader to make an extra effort to digest and analyze the information. In Russian, it is the norm in scientific and technical texts, whereas in English it is acceptable only in tables and charts. In the text, units are preferably unfolded and integrated, for which understanding some measurement approaches is of the essence. The application of the converter before translation provides the result as follows:

Расход топлива танка Т-72 следующий:

- при движении на грунте – 0.9 mpg;
- на дороге с твердым покрытием – 0.98 mpg.

Based on the analysis of the measurement units and the above rationale, the following translation is suggested:

The T-72 will travel 0.9 m and 1 m on one gallon in cross-country and on paved roads respectively.

If the macro were used after the translation, the structure of the Russian sentence would interfere, with any chance to improve the stylistic aspect of the target text slipping away (Komissarov, 2011: 153). Moreover, in this scenario the numbers and units would have to be left untouched for the macro to pick them from the text:

The fuel consumption of the T-72 is as follows:
- in cross-country – 260 л/100км;
- on paved roads – 240 л/100км.

Should it be decided to work on the stylistic aspect in the process of translation without applying the macro beforehand, it will run contrary to the pragmatic adaptation logic, because the code will not be able to recognize the measurement unit afterwards:

The T-72 will burn 260l and 240l every 100km traveled in cross-country and on paved roads respectively.

To evaluate the effectiveness of macros in general and this code in particular in the work of translators, an experiment was conducted. Undergraduates of the Foreign Language Department of the Military University were asked to take part in it. All informants are characterized by the leading instructors positively, have good and excellent grades in the specialization subjects. The experiment was broken down into two phases. In Phase 1 the group was offered to translate a technical text, 1,100 characters long, replete with characteristics of military equipment on one of the passed topics. The task was to complete the translation as fast as possible without compromising the quality. All units had to be converted to the English system of measurements, for which the informants decided to use the standard calculator. There were no restrictions on the use of dictionaries, reference books, and DIY corpora, in particular. Being a large selection of texts in a specific area, sorted out and put together for linguistic researches, the latter proved to be
instrumental in overcoming multiple translation problems, though some found their way to the target texts (Shevchuk, 2009: 52).

The analysis of the translations revealed the following shortcomings:

- Inconsistency in the choice of units of measurement (feet and miles were found in the target texts without a good reason for the differentiation).

- Errors in the abbreviations of measurement units.

- Incorrect formatting of numerical data (no commas separating digits higher than 1,000 or, on the contrary, use of commas instead of dots in decimals in the English texts).

- Errors due to inaccurate converter settings.

One informant typed 11,482.94 instead of 11,482,940 when converting 3,500 kilometers into feet because the original unit of measurement were incorrectly set in the calculator. It follows from the explanation that the error is blamed on the proximity of meters and kilometers in the drop-down menu. Due to the lack of the necessary experience in converting units the inconsistency in the resulting value and unit never flagged the attention of the translator.

Follow-on conversations confirmed the original assumptions of the experiment. The interpreters noted that the need to switch between windows distracted them from the translation process, and the calculator in particular called for numerous additional adjustments. Moreover, built-in programs and some online converters did not provide for certain categories of complex units, as a result of which the informants either chose not to convert at all or proceeded “blindfolded”. Some adopted the approach to deal with kgf, resorting to the algorithm for converting the weight and ignoring the "force" part.
The only difference in Phase 2 was that all numbers and units were converted by the macro. The translators ran it before they took up working on the text, taking the advantage of the results to choose better structures, while adding final touches during the translation. This proved to be instrumental in improving the quality of the target text and reducing time (see Chart 1).

VBA Workshop

To further pique interest among translators in the VBA capabilities of MS Word, it would be in order not only to demonstrate the simplicity of writing codes, but also to highlight several options of pursuing individual projects.

It has been repeatedly noted in some papers that logic always supersedes the elegance of DIY solutions (Gruzdev, Makarenko, 2019: 151). When the sequence of functions put together is observed, the cumbersomeness of the code, which may affect only the time of its execution, is of no particular significance.

MS Office developers retain this feature in their product only because they are cognizant of the fact that it is impossible to provide for all the needs of prospective users. Who better than an expert to understand how to render a string of standard commands into a leaner, more straightforward code, personalizing the word processor.

What would be the best approach to mastering VBA then? Given the simplicity of the tool, it will not be an exaggeration to say that the systematic and thorough approach based on reference books and manuals is an overreaction, threatening to kill the initiative (Mirzaxmedova, 2020: 9). The issue calls for a different approach. The nature of the VBA programming language and the developers’ foresight in integrating hints and cues endows any Basic-savvy user with the ability to write the simplest codes (Zeng, Hrubes, 2017: 9).

Thus, it is prudent to adopt an on-the-job training approach. Under the circumstances, the role of reference books and manuals will only be limited to the elaboration of particular functions in the process of programming. The rationale for choosing this particular format of mastering VBA is the availability of a few off-the-shelf solutions on the Internet. At this stage it is reasonable to indulge in reverse engineering, adapting codes to one’s needs by, for example, changing variables. Further steps will be to refine and optimize the code based on alternative commands in reference sources (Stoter, Small, Rubin 2020).

No less promising within the chosen strategy of mastering VBA is the Record Macro function (see Figure 6), which captures the sequence of standard functions of the word processor and combines it into a single hot-key solution (Amvrossiev, 2018: 23). The potential of this resource is mainly applicable...
when creating formatting macros, for example, to bring texts to conformity with the customer’s requirements.

The concept remains the same: (1) code analysis in the VBA editor to increase awareness and programming literacy, followed by (2) code editing through the integration of non-standard functions.

Numerous solutions for automating processes in MS Word on forums will come in handy in mastering VBA and honing skills in programming new functions to meet professional needs on a personal computer. Understanding the VBA capacity will foster the search for new ways to harness its potential in translation, which will inevitably lead to writing more complex codes for automating some aspects of translation.

Conclusions
The analysis of some features of translation-oriented VBA programming resulted in several conclusions. First, the Internet is replete with off-the-shelf macro solutions. Although focused on overcoming common difficulties spanning beyond the job of translation, these can be harnessed for ad-hoc translation solutions. Better utilization of VBA functions is contingent on the understanding of the programming language capabilities and translation expertise. Secondly, VBA is easy to master within the scope of MS Office. The best approach is on-the-job learning through (1) reverse engineering of ready-made codes, most of which are open-source, (2) their adaptation to the task at hand, followed by (3) the compiling of a macro from several ready codes; (4) automatic recording of macros using the built-in Record Macro function, its analysis, and improvement. Third, when working on a macro it is essential to zero in on the strategy for its future application. Automatically applying a code to a document before or after translation, or calling it on demand by clicking hotkeys while working on a text may directly affect the speed of translation and quality of the target text.

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Konflikty interesov: у авторов нет конфликта интересов для декларации.

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Development dynamics and cognitive-semantic parameters of English ditransitive construction: verification from the perspective of corpus linguistics

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Abstract. The relevance of the paper is substantiated by the representation of the analysis of utterances generated on the template of ditransitive construction via the methods of cognitive and corpus linguistics. The set of issues raised by the authors consists in the necessity of looking out for valid reasons and sufficient evidence which confirm that analytical tools of linguistic corpus possess all the necessary resources and effective toolkit to single out the true phenomena of language. The major objective of the research is to explore the potential of corpus linguistics technologies as exemplified by the representative sample of empirical data via quantitative, statistical and collexeme analysis of utterances with ditransitive construction which correlate with its propositions and the scenarios derived from them. The above mentioned methods of corpus-based analysis shed light on the primary scenarios, which motivate ditransitive construction semantic representations; the dynamics of its semantic extension from diachronic perspective; the way ditransitive construction develops in the synchronic aspect; quantitative index of verbs accepted by the construction; semantic parameters of lexical units which objectivize agent, recipient and patient arguments of construction. Relying on the results obtained due to the processing of vast linguistic data from diachronic and synchronic perspective the authors unleash the potential of corpus linguistics technologies and substantiate advantages of their use as a means for verification and extension of information about language facts which emerge within the paradigm of cognitive linguistics theoretical and methodological background.

Keywords: Cognitive-semantic analysis; Corpus-based analysis; Ditransitive construction; Trend extension dynamics; Collexeme analysis
INTRODUCTION

Corpus linguistics developed into a separate discipline within the framework of Language Studies during the last decades of the previous century. Its major objective is to collect and analyze texts in order to create a corpus of some natural language with the appropriate set of analytical tools for the implementation of quantitative and qualitative analysis of the linguistic data which it contains.

Let us turn to the characteristics of corpus linguistics in order to substantiate the validity and relevance of this methodology in relation to the empirical material used in the current research. The linguistic corpus can be defined as “a collection of texts assembled in accordance with clearly formulated principles and possibly annotated at some level of linguistic analysis” (Sharov, 2003: 11). J. Sinclair describes corpus as “a collection of excerpts from texts in electronic form, selected according to some external criteria for better representation of language and its variations. Corpus functions as a data source for linguistic research” (Sinclair, 1991). T. McEnery and A. Wilson define corpus as a most exhaustive nonrandom collection of linguistic utterances compiled in a way which allows to highlight the peculiarities of a certain language, variety of its literary styles, types of texts, etc. (McEnery, Wilson, 2001 : 75). According to D. Bayber, representativeness of sample means the degree to which the sample reflects the variability of the plurality, i.e. a sample is considered representative if the data obtained from the analysis of its contents can be extrapolated to the general sample (Biber, 1993: 243). This makes the samples no larger and no less than a "reduced version of a large plurality" (McEnery, Wilson, 2001: 19)

because it has the same properties and proportions like that of a larger plurality.

Thus, corpora are finite samples, limited both in size and in the purpose of creation. Strictly speaking, no corpus can adequately represent the language phenomena. This happens to be the reason for the criticism addressed to corpus linguistics by some researchers. However, the method of linguistic introspection is far from being sufficient either especially when it comes to verification of research hypotheses. As it is stated by Greenbaum, a linguist using only his intuition is also unable to create an exhaustive selection of examples relevant to this case (Greenbaum, S., Eckman F.R., 1977: 128). Moreover, one should not forget that “a linguistic theory that can explain examples of a person's knowledge of a language is preferable to one that is not able to do this” (Wasow, 2002: 130).

Consequently, the main advantage of corpus linguistics is that it freed linguists from attachment to their own, imperfect and incomplete linguistic intuition as the only source of linguistic information. Within a relatively short period of time, a large number of authentic, systematically organized examples of language use have become available (Ozon, 2009). The undoubted advantage of corpus linguistics is that its technologies provide researchers with an opportunity to analyze linguistic material both diachronically and synchronically comparing and contrasting the obtained results. For example, T. Fanego (Fanego, 1996; Fanego, 1997) and T. Egan (Egan, 2003), using the methods of corpus linguistics, carried out a quantitative analysis of the distribution of gerund and infinitive forms in diachronic and synchronic aspects. Two constructions [remember + to + have + V-ed] and [remember + V-ing] were chosen for the
analysis; the material was selected from several corpora of the English language, including The Collins Cobuild Corpus (CCB). It was found out that during the period under review (1770 till the present time) gerund totally replaced infinitive (Fanego, 1996). Interestingly, the period from 1780 to 1850 was marked with the prevailing use of retrospective verbs followed by the infinitive form of perception verbs, but by the beginning of the 20th century they were completely displaced with collocations containing gerund (Dzhandubaeva, 2015).

At the current stage, corpus linguistics has made it possible to verify the results of linguistic research and draw conclusions relying on a vast array of empirical data under analysis (Rykov, 2012). The applied value of linguistic corpora is also determined by the variety of sophisticated tools which give us the opportunity not only to save time gathering the required data but to process it from different standpoints and visualize the obtained observations.

Thus, technologies included into the toolkit of an average corpus allow researchers (1) to measure the representativeness of linguistic units under analysis; (2) carry out graphemic analysis of the material, its normalization and lemmatization (compilation of lists of units in which the grammatical forms of a word are shown as one word); (3) view all contextual actualizations of a linguistic unit on the extensive array of the corpus using various options for sorting words to the right or to the left of the given speech unit (concordance); (4) carry out other quantitative studies of the material determining the number of word forms (types) and word usages (tokens); calculate an average sentence length, the number of sentences and their possible distributions; estimate the exclusivity index (percentage of words that were used only once) and the index of constancy (percentage of the most frequent words); (5) compare linguistic units on account of a certain key or distinction feature; (6) systematize the data under analysis in accordance with its genre classification; (7) select and analyze linguistic units via a semantic (this type of markup assigns to language units one or more features expressed through semantic primitives such as “thing”, “event”, “space”, etc.) and / or syntactic markup (this markup involves distinguishing sentence constituents and derivational dependencies in order to resolve the problem of grammatical homonymy).

It is also the quantitative corpus analysis that allows a linguist to generalize information into a large plurality, "to determine which phenomena are most likely a true reflection of the language or its variant, and which are just coincidences" (McEnery, Wilson, 2001: 76). Various statistical analysis techniques are used to conduct rigorous research into complex and challenging data. According to K. Johnson, quantitative analysis is carried out for the following purposes (Johnson, 2008 : 3) : (1) information processing: summarize trends, identify similar aspects of a set of observations such as average number, average deviation, interdependence among variables; (2) conclusion: generalizing a representative set of observations to a larger set of possible observations using hypothesis testing criteria such as Student's t-test or Analysis of variance (ANOVA); (3) link discovery: find descriptive or causal examples in the data that can be described in multiple regression models or factor analysis; (4) study into the processes that may have probabilistic basis: theoretical modeling, for example, in information theory or for practical purposes, for example, probabilistic parsing of sentences.

**Materials and Methodology**

The major objective of the paper is to uncover the potential of corpus linguistics technologies and to confirm the justification of their use in the cognitive-semantic analysis of language facts using the examples of speech units with the ditransitive construction.

Academic papers created within the paradigm of cognitive linguistics (Talmy, 2007; Kubriakova, 2012; Manerko, 2017), theory of construction grammar (Fillmore, Kay, 1999; Goldberg, 2010; Jackendoff, 2015;

As a result of the cognitive-semantic analysis of speech units with the ditransitive construction, presented in the work by D. Makoeva (Makoeva, 2018), it was found that at the conceptual level, the basic proposition for all nonprepositional ditransitive constructions can be expressed as [X INTERACTS WITH Y VIA Z]. This scheme conceptualizes interaction between two animate entities via some physical (usually inanimate) object in the result of which (in most cases) this object is transferred and/or moved to the recipient. The corpus of statements with the ditransitive construction falls into several subgroups which are associated with above given proposition but have a more specific character.

The event of material object transfer or the event of control transfer (OBJECT / CONTROL TRANSFER) along with metaphorical instantiations of the physical object transfer (e.g. the construction-based units of speech describing the transfer of information) are verbalized via utterances with the proposition [X CAUSES Y TO RECEIVE Z]: (1) They give you furniture, too (COCA); (OBJECT TRANSFER); (2) She gives them assembly halls, sleeping quarters... (TM) (CONTROL TRANSFER); (3) Well, they promised us coverage in Panama (COCA) (FUTURE TRANSFER); (4) Goebel goes on to describe a luncheon at which he read her his letter (COCA) (COMMUNICATION).

The transfer of an action (ACTION TRANSFER) is expressed in speech through the utterances which belong to the semantic class of CAUSATION and can have the proposition [X CAUSES Y BECOME Z]: (5) This ... gives Gorbachev the option to "move quickly toward a market economy" [TM]; (6) Robertson gives him increasing license to preach as well as plan (TM) or the proposition [X CAUSES Y FACE / DEAL WITH Z]; (7) He also gives James (winningly played by Paul Terry) a mission (TM). The transfer of action is also objectivized in speech units from the semantic class BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY with the preposition [X PERFORMS ACTIVITY (Z) FOR BENEFIT OF Y]; (8) She cooked them lasagna (COCA); (9) We offer you childbirth without pain, stretch marks, and morning sickness (COCA) and the semantic class SCHEMATIC INTERACTION with the proposition [X DIRECTS ACTION (Z) AT Y]: (10) Clinton gives him a bear hug (COCA); (11) Safiy shot her an anxious look (COCA).

As it has been mentioned above, corpus linguistics happens to be the set of effective tools to verify the results of introspective linguistic analysis. That is why in the current research we rely on the complex approach to the analysis of utterances based on a nonprepositional ditransitive construction. Such approach is based on theories and methods of cognitive semantics and construction grammar enhanced by the technologies of corpus linguistics. The empirical data for the research (31,066 examples) was obtained from the diachronic corpus (Early English Books Online) and corpora of modern English (The Corpus of Contemporary American English, The Time Magazine Corpus, The British National Corpus). In this paper, we argue that the "symbiosis" of the corpus-based and cognitive-semantic analysis will make it possible to find out which conceptual scenarios underlying and determining the semantics of ditransitive construction instantiations are the primary ones, what linguistic means are used for their objectivation and how the dynamics of their representation in the language have been changing.

Results and Discussion
The cognitive semantics and construction grammar toolkit has proved itself...
to work as an effective method of conceptualization and categorization of lexical and grammatical units from any natural language. Ditransitive construction is not an exception. At the same time, the cognitive linguistics paradigm does not allow to explicate the aspects of its meaning incrementation extended through different time periods. That is why diachronic corpus-based analysis of 8172 utterances from The Early English Books Online Corpus (EEBO) is employed in the current study to ascertain when cognitive scenarios of ditransitive construction went into interpersonal verbal communication of native speakers. The EEBO corpus covers the Early Modern English period (1470 - 1690) and contains 755 million words.

The empirical data selected from the corpus were ditransitive construction based utterances with the syntactic template [Subj (Subject Pronouns) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronouns) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)]. The position of the verb in the utterances which went under our scrutiny was filled by object-spatial verbs, the semantics of which implies the movement of the transferred object in space (gave, brought, handed, passed); verbs signifying the event of control transfer (left); verbs describing some activity performed by the giver for the recipient (made, poured, won); speech (communicative) verbs objectivizing information delivery or the prospect of providing somebody with something (offered, promised, told). The outcome of the corpus-based quantitative analysis is shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Quantitative analysis of semantic representations of ditransitive construction in the Early English period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Class</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNICATION</td>
<td>3150</td>
<td>38.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY</td>
<td>2707</td>
<td>33.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONTROL TRANSFER (MATERIAL OBJECT)</td>
<td>1627</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAUSATION</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>4.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FUTURE TRANSFER</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>3.60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SCHEMATIC INTERACTION</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>0.4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among speech units with nonprepositional ditransitive construction registered in The Early English Books Online Corpus covering the literary heritage of Great Britain within the period from 1470 (Middle English) to 1690 (New English), the most recurrent units were the utterances of the semantic class COMMUNICATION – 3150 cases of use (38.6%): I give thee thankes o father (EEBO).

The total number of examples of speech units with the ditransitive construction of BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY semantic class is 2707 (33.1%): it brings him money and honour (EEBO).

Speech units of the semantic class MATERIAL OBJECT / CONTROL TRANSFER are rated as the third concerning their representativeness – 1627 instantiations (20%): …did he bring them water (EEBO).
They are followed by the speech units belonging to the semantic class CAUSATION – 353 (4,3 %): ... they give them head and suffer (EEBO).

Utterances based on FUTURE TRANSFER scenario estimate 300 (3,6%)

instantiations: God promised them peace (EEBO); ... he offered people slavery (EEBO).

The least frequent scenario is SCHEMATIC INTERACTION – 35 (0.4 %): ... we bring you arms offensive and defensive (EEBO):

![Semantic representations of ditransitive construction in the Early English period](image)

Fig. 1. Semantic representations of ditransitive construction in the Early English period

In addition to the quantitative analysis, a statistical research of the obtained corpus data was carried out. The results of it are presented below in the graph “Summary statistics of ditransitive construction extension trend”. To visualize ditransitive construction semantic meaning development dynamics within the revealed scenarios during the noted period, the analytical function of trend extension is used. R² stands for the level of statistical reliability (plausibility) of the visualized data. The lines of the graph represent how the number of construction-based utterances varied within the appointed time periods and what changes in their distribution might be expected. Each line corresponds to one of the scenarios listed in the legend on the right.

The function allows us to trace the frequency of specific construction instantiations and predict which scenarios of ditransitive construction are more likely to be widely used in the future or, on the contrary, which scenarios might drop out of the language:
The outcomes of the corpus-based and statistical analysis of the representativeness and meaning incrementation of ditransitive construction in the Early English period show that the nonpreposition ditransitives with the semantics of material object transfer reached their tipping point \( R^2 = 0.908 \approx 91\% \) only in the middle of the 17th century. During the decades prior to this period construction with preposition to seemed to be the only means of objectivizing this typical situation in the English language. Whereas the transfer of information has been described by the ditransitive no-prepositional construction since 1470, and the recurrence of these speech units tended to increase \( R^2 = 0.9141 \approx 91\% \).

The construction-based utterances with the meaning of transfer in the future were occasionally used in the language until the beginning of the 17th century \( R^2 = 0.7727 \approx 77\% \). The scenario of providing somebody with an opportunity went into the language at the beginning of the 16th century, and at the end of the 17th the number of such speech units became the largest in comparison with the number of other construction instantiations within the scenario of BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY \( R^2 = 0.8933 \approx 90\% \).

Utterances of the CAUSATION semantic class (this applies to both scenarios – change of state and problem solution) were far from being frequently used by native English speakers. The growth of their representativeness is observed only at the end of the 17th century (Change of State scenario - \( R^2 = 0.9275 \approx 93\% \); Problem Solution scenario - \( R^2 = 0, 8082 \approx 81\% \)).

BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY construction instantiations within the Material Object Creation / Obtaining scenario were used only occasionally in the period under review \( R^2 = 0.1718 \approx 17\% \), as long as speech units objectivizing the service delivery scenario (Favor) were not identified at all. Taking into account the results of empirical data corpus-based analysis, we can conclude that utterances with the semantics of rendering a service to someone appeared in English after the 17th century.

The same conclusion can be made in regard to speech units from the SCHEMATIC
INTERACTION semantic class – they were barely represented in the language during the considered period of time (Physical Contact scenario - $R^2 = 0.341 \approx 34\%$; Non-verbal Communication scenario - $R^2 = 0.3321 \approx 33\%$).

For the collexeme analysis of ditransitive construction verbalization in the Early Modern English period we selected the utterances with the syntactic structure [Subj (Subject Pronoun) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)], [Subj (Noun Phrase) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)], [Subj (Noun Phrase) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)]. The study revealed that between 1470 and 1690 the verbs give, bring, tell, and offer had the highest consistency index. Nominations of humans were also among the nouns most frequently "attracted" to the subject position and associated with agent argument. As a rule, these were the nouns signifying people who had power or had the gift of creativity: man, author, savior, father, prophet, poet, king. It can also be the designations of higher powers or abstractions associated with them: God, occasion, Christ, opportunity, Scripture, angel, lord, spirit, time. The recipient's position was also most often filled with lexical items denoting a person: men, God, Christ, people. Thematic argument, as a rule, was objectivized by lexical units with the nouns which have abstract semantics and signify such phenomena as liberty, truth, power, reverence. The nouns designating physical objects (especially food (bread, meat), drinks (water, beer, wine), various types of assets (money, land, cattle)) could also fill in the slot of the thematic argument. Among the thematic argument verbalizers there have been marked the lexical units specifying information (promises, thanks, words, tales, tidings).

The synchronic corpus-based analysis of ditransitive construction was carried out on the empirical base of 11316 speech units, generated on the syntactic templates: [Subj (Subject Pronoun) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)], [Subj (Noun Phrase) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)]. The empirical data was obtained from The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), The TIME Magazine Corpus (TIME) and The British National Corpus (BNC). The most common variants form this sample in sentences with verbs in the Past Simple Tense form (gave, brought, handed, offered, passed, made, poured, won, left, told, promised).

So, the most frequently used ditransitive construction speech units are currently the utterances from the OBJECT TRANSFER category – they are equal to 31% of overall quantity of selected utterances. Communicative interaction (information transfer) is objectivized by 26% of speech units. The least frequent units which belong to the category under analysis are the utterances objectivizing the FUTURE TRANSFER scenarios – they make only 2% out of the total quantity of the examples. BENEFICIAL ACTIVITY event verbalizers happen to be the most frequent when they objectivize the scenario of creating conditions (24% of the total number of examples), then comes the creation of a material object for the recipient (3.5%), favour scenarios are exceedingly few in number – only 0.5%. In the CAUSATION semantic class, the most common is the subgroup of expressions describing the change in the physical and emotional state of the recipient (11%), the scenario of the recipient's motivation to overcome difficulties is 2% from the total amount of the empirical data. The SCHEMATIC INTERACTION semantic class is the least representative and makes up only 1% of the corpus obtained data.

For the collexeme analysis of ditransitive construction verbalization from the synchronic perspective we took the utterances with the syntactic structure [Subj (Subject Pronoun) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)], [Subj (Noun Phrase) + V (Past Tense) + Obj (Object Pronoun) + Obj2 (Noun Phrase)].
The carried out research shows that the verbs give, tell, bring and offer have the highest constancy index in the construction. The agent argument of the ditransitive construction based utterances from almost all semantic classes is objectivized via lexical units with conceptual parameter [human being] (people, man), most of them with the salient component of social status – professional (critic, waiter, waitress, teacher) and marital/family (mother, father, parent, wife). Among the objectivizers of construction agent argument there have also been found the nouns which are metonymic representations of people (community, company, organization, senate, government, etc.). In Modern English, there are examples of a ditransitive construction with abstract words filling the slot of agent argument (life, death, charm, chance, incident, law, source, etc.). The recipient argument role in most cases is objectivized by the human being nominations (student(s), people, children, visitors, kids, readers, patients, customers, viewers, etc.). The thematic argument, which correlates with the transferred object, can be verbalized by quite a wide range of abstract nouns standing for emotional aspects of human life (hope, joy, peace, comfort, protection, etc.), personal qualities (strength, hospitality, confidence, encouragement, etc.) and ontological abstractions (time, fame, disgrace, insights, etc.) and those which designate physical objects of some value (money, land, food, fruit, water, coffee, tea, etc.).

It should also be noted that some verbs go only with nouns which designate physical objects, while others collocate mainly with abstract lexical units. So, for example, artifacts (glasses, pen, photographs, handkerchief, money, things, paper, books, tissues, etc.) are the objects of transfer in the ditransitive construction with the verbs pass and hand: She passed him sugar and cream (COCA); He laughed, as if amazed. As they turned on 76th Street, she handed him money, told him to demand a receipt, and kissed his cheek which was salty (COCA). Whereas for the verb win, the most recurrent collocations are with abstract nouns related to attractive aspects of social interaction (approval, friendship, play, popularity, respect, praise, fans, friends, invitation, election, etc.).

Conclusions
The results of the research presented in the paper can be generalized as a number of conclusions. Firstly, the technologies of corpus linguistics, combined with the data obtained as a result of the cognitive-semantic analysis of speech units with English ditransitive construction, made it possible to verify the dynamics of its development and meaning incrementation from the 1470s up to the present moment.

Secondly, the employment of corpus linguistics toolkit provided conditions for tracking the stages when construction semantics extended and new meanings emerged.

Thirdly, corpus-based research laid the groundwork for empirically substantiated categorization of ditransitive construction semantic representations with regard to their conceptual structure.

Finally, the results of the collexeme analysis can be used in building the system of rules and restrictions which facilitate the selection of most regular and adequate verbalizers of a ditransitive construction within the framework of its syntactic and argument structure.

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