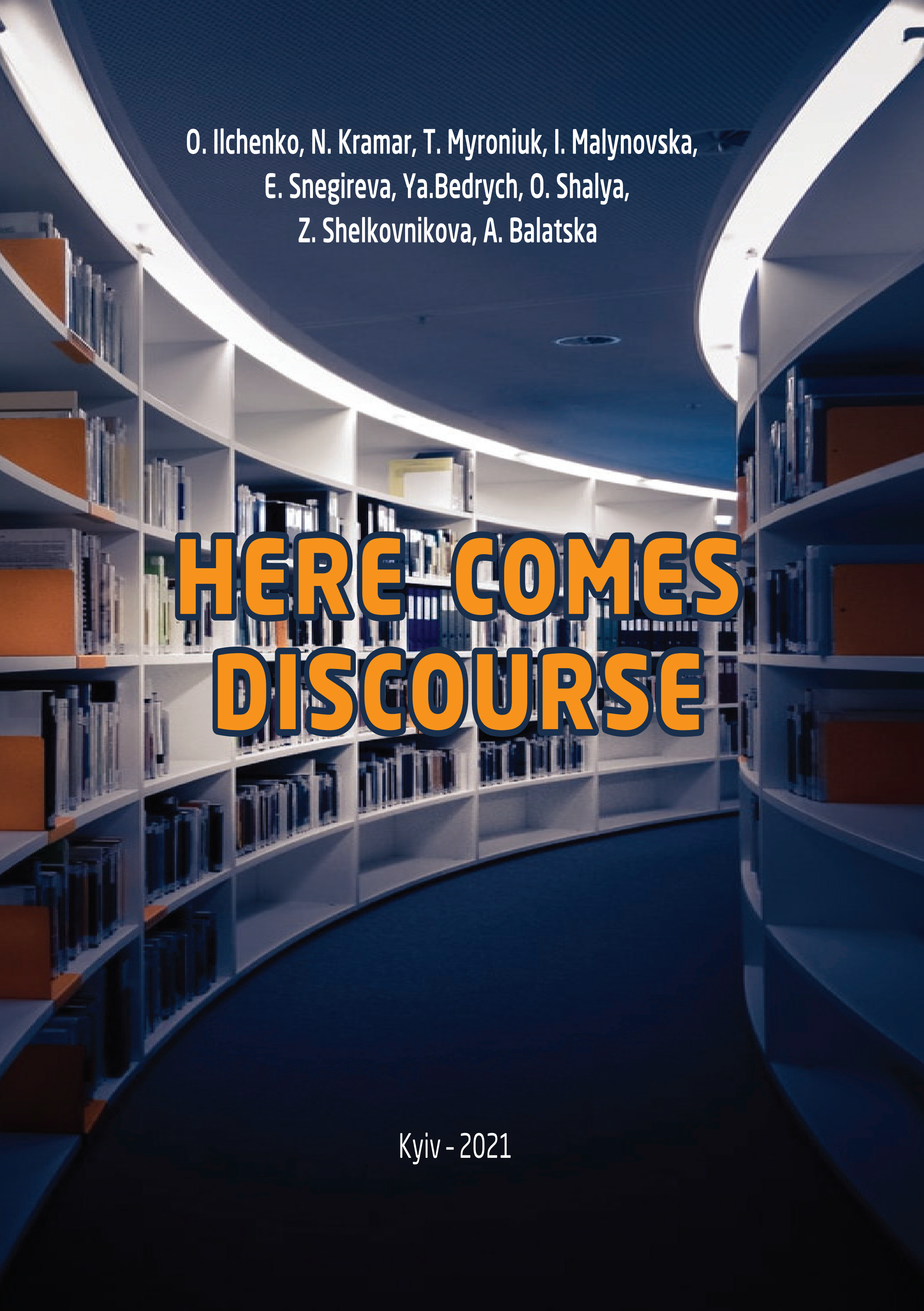

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HERE COMES DISCOURSE

Kyiv - 2021

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES OF UKRAINE
Research and Educational Center for Foreign Languages

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Збірку лінгвістичних есеїв присвячено проблемі оптимізації англомовної професійної та наукової комунікації у світлі еволюції та взаємодії дискурсів. Її створено у парадигмі антропологічної спрямованості сучасних гуманітарних знань. Книга пропонує свіжий погляд на традиційні та нові питання у царині мовознавчих студій, зокрема у галузях дискурсології, комунікативістики, когнітивістики та наратології.

Для лінгвістів, студентів та аспірантів філологічних факультетів, науковців усіх спеціальностей, поціновувачів мистецтва слова.

The volume focuses on the emerging ways of effective and efficient science and professional communication in English. The book explores how language shapes communication from anthropological perspective. It contains essays featuring new insights into interacting in English. Specifically, it deals with new and emerging discourses, the evolution and crossroads of various discourses, pertinent aspects of communication, cognition and narrative studies.

It should be of interest to philologists, graduate and PhD students majoring in linguistics, researchers in all branches of science, all those who praise the art of the word.

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CONTENTS

PREFACE

Prefaces are like music samples: if the notes ring true, the reader will be with you for more than a few minutes. Why another book on discourse? Well, perhaps because it's so diverse. And so contextually dependent. And has so many faces: literally and figuratively.

When you think of science, what comes to mind? Maybe its boundless nature. Like science, languages are boundless, too. And English is no exception. Shaped by thousands of years of evolution, English is a fascinating phenomenon. A true lingua franca of modern science, it helps us understand how and why scientists from all over the world communicate, cooperate and overcome challenges. No matter what your field of science is, if your work involves research, this book will help you to meet those challenges. It offers a better insight into how ideas are enveloped with words.

The volume particularly focuses on the emerging ways of science and professional communication, and the crossroads of discourses, though it does not overlook a number of traditional subjects and disputed issues. It contains essays featuring various scientific discourse contexts, the interplay of discourses, and other pertinent issues. In the course of this book, you will find new ways of looking at seemingly obvious things, answering unexpected questions, and much more. It's the promise of this book. Because science is not just about finding out the truth, it is also about the ways of conveying the findings, and connecting with like-minded people. Anytime, anywhere.

In a sense, David Crystal is right to insist in his book, "The Gift of the Gab", that "everyone has got something to say — not just because we all have opinions about things but because life experiences differ." We'd love to share our experiences with you. We also hope that you'll stay with us till the very end.

The authors

Olga Shalya

DISCOURSE, HYBRIDITY AND CULTURE: BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN DISCOURSE INTERACTION AND CULTURAL FACTORS

In this paper, we seek to revisit the notion of interdiscursivity by showing that various discourses do interact, as well as to trace some culture-specific concepts in the Anglo-American discourse. To this end, we select and analyze James Thurber's fables and Robert Benchley's essays as one of the best exemplars of the early 20th century intellectual humor pieces. We conclude that the cultural concepts are embedded in the narrative discourse intermingling with other discourses, while humor seems to unite readers with different cultural backgrounds.

Keywords: discourse, interdiscursivity, hybridity, culture, globalization, humor, James Thurber, Robert Benchley

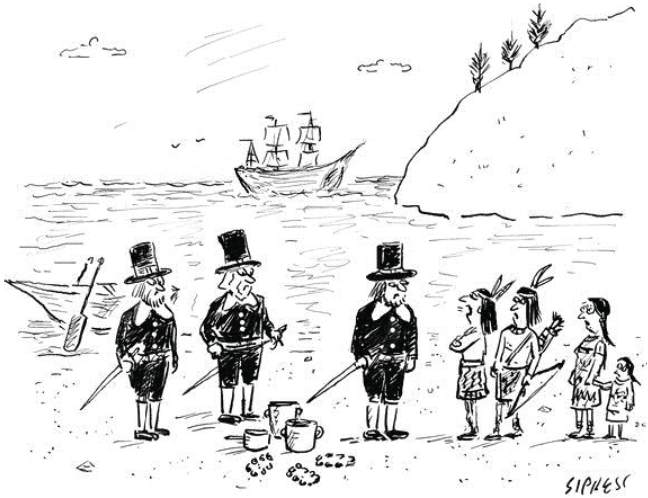
Discourse structure varies among cultures, so by and large culture does impact the way discourses are constructed and construed in various cultural settings (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997; Bhatia, 2004; Fairclough, 2003). As discussed in many language studies, the relation between discourse and culture is complex and multifaceted. Goddard and Wierzbicka showed this correlation in their comprehensive study of discourse and culture (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997). Obviously, the cultural setting triggers many variations in discourses. In fact, there are some universal principles, but the speakers of different languages with different cultural backgrounds undoubtedly adopt different mindsets and embed unique culture-bound meanings and implications in the process of discourse production and comprehension (Scollon, 2012; Wodak, 2001; Wu, 2011).

The idea of human communication mediated by universal maxims of conversation once put forward by Grice seems rather disputable (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997). Hence it was challenged by a number of scholars, though there are many proponents of this idea. For example, Anna Wierzbicka and colleagues developed the natural semantic metalanguage consisting of a small set of simple meanings which can be expressed by words in all languages, like this, say, think, people, know, good etc. which can come in handy in cross-linguistic and comparative studies (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997).

It is notoriously known, though, that globalization creates some universal cultural icons and codes, nonetheless idiosyncrasy and cultural identity of the speakers of various languages shine through in discourses (Wodak, 2001; Wu, 2011). The fact that globalization is omniscient still holds true; many renowned online magazines like the New Yorker have special columns devoted to the globalization effects.

In opposition to globalization, the de-globalization trend emerged and is now being extensively studied. De-globalization may involve “reseeding of militant and branded nationalism worldwide”; language and discourse more likely follow the suit (Coll, 2009).

The fact is, we are totally opposed to globalization (The New Yorker, November 2016).



What do culture, discourse and hybridity have in common? In this paper, we are trying to make a point that cultural aspects are embodied in discourse textures, notwithstanding the fact that globalization has paved its way in language and discourse, most likely giving rise, among other factors, to hybridity of various discourses. Hybridity has entered many academic arenas, “becoming the emblematic notion of our era, capturing the spirit of our times with its celebration of cultural difference and fusion and resonating with the globalization mantra and inevitable transformation of all cultures.” (Kraidy, 2002).

When we deal with a conglomerate tagged Anglo-American discourse shaped by native and non-native speakers of English, first and foremost, we are about to clarify whether any cultural traces and traits remained and can be identified when the English speakers with different cultural backgrounds contribute to creating the Anglo-American discourse to the extent when various discourse genres interact. The point seems too broad and multidimensional which actually can be the subject-matter of the stand-alone profound research; however, in this paper, we are making an endeavor to shed some light and lift the veil on this issue with perspectives for future research.

This paper revisits the topic proposed in Olga Ilchenko’s seminal paper on James Thurber’s parody as a source of discourse intermingling. The multifaceted nature of interdiscursivity referred to and studied by different scholars through different perspectives as hypertextuality, bricolage, anchorage, textual and speech interference is uncovered. This study makes the thorough and profound linguistic analysis of James Thurber's "Ladies and Gentlemen's Guide to English Usage" (Ilchenko, 2015).

Our objective here is to capture some culture specific attitudes, assumptions and norms, describe them in culture-independent terms and pinpoint some cases of discourse hybridity.

To illustrate how culture, discourse and hybridity are interwoven, we analyze fables and essays written by renowned American humorists, newspaper columnists of the early 20th century James Thurber and Robert Benchley. Humor seems to serve a universal medium in fables, short stories and essays which certainly has some culture specificity bringing under one umbrella readers with different cultural backgrounds and inviting them to create some common discourse space or interdiscourse (Georginova, 2014; Zheltukhina, 2009). We'll see how authors mix discourses to appeal to the reader and get their message across.

James Thurber, a celebrated columnist, humorist, "once a byword for humour" (Gottlieb, 2003), is also the author of a series of short fables for the New Yorker collected in "Fables for Our Time and Famous Poems Illustrated".

Fables as short and sharp retellings of various themes could be today classified as flash fiction (Ilchenko, 2015; Gottlieb, 2003). In James Thurber's fables, political discourse often comes into play with other discourses bristling with retrospective topics discussed in a satirical manner. Thurber uses such fable genre as animal moral fables, which is actually the most popular genre among fabulists.

In one of his fables "The birds and the foxes", Thurber allusively and allegorically narrates of the bird sanctuary with hundreds of Baltimore orioles and cunning coward foxes which once turned their attention to this sanctuary, attacked it and killed all orioles:

The next day the leader of the foxes, a fox from whom God was receiving daily guidance, got upon the rostrum and addressed the other foxes. His message was simple and sublime. "You see before you," he said, "another Lincoln. We have liberated all those birds!".

The pun is used in the moral of the fable alluding to Lincoln's famous Gettysburg Address (1863), "government of the people, by the people, for the people shall not perish from the earth". The context and tone are intentionally changed to create the effect of unreality and perplexity to ever achieve such idealistic government machinery by ordinary people and for their sake. There is also the antithesis – on the one hand, those in power with the overt misrepresentation of their intentions and actions, the "God given powers" and the "God insight" to make landmark decisions are turned to ridicule, but, on the other hand, the reference to personality of Abraham Lincoln as one of the most honored American presidents who paved the way to abolition of slavery, shows the tribute is paid in the American society to certain political achievements.

In the fable "The lover and his lass", Thurber reconsiders the old saying "beauty lies in the lovers' eyes", reminds in a moralistic and deductive manner that love affairs should not be discussed with others and terms of endearment should be vowed solely between lovers. Thurber obviously alludes in this fable to William Shakespeare's famous song "It was a lover and his lass" discussing the love theme through the prism of modernity.

The key language device employed here is the antithesis since discussion of terms of endearment: *... they continued to bump each other around in the water, happily pushing and pulling, backing and filling, and snorting and snaffling...* is opposed to their mockery and explicit criticism by using exaggerated metaphors with some negative connotation: *capsized bathtub, coastwise fruit steamer*. The reader is taught a lesson how love affairs should be handled: *Laugh and you laugh together, <u>love and you love alone</u>.*

- *An arrogant gray parrot and his arrogant mate listened, one African afternoon, in disdain and derision, to the lovemaking of a lover and his lass, who happened to be hippopotamuses. "He calls her <u>snooky-ookums</u>," said Mrs. Gray. "Can you believe that?"*

  "No," said Gray. "I don't see how any male in his right mind could entertain affection for a female that has no more charm than a <u>capsized bathtub</u>."

  "Capsized bathtub, indeed!" exclaimed Mrs. Gray. "Both of them have the appeal of a <u>coastwise fruit steamer with a cargo of water-logged basketballs</u>."

  But it was spring, and the lover and his lass were young, and they were oblivious of the scornful comments of their sharp-tongued neighbors, and <u>they continued to bump each other around in the water, happily pushing and pulling, backing and filling, and snorting and snaffling</u>. The tender things they said to each other <u>during the monolithic give-and-take of their courtship sounded as lyric to them as flowers in bud or green things opening</u>.

Thurber was rather prescient with modern gadget frenzy in mind when he metaphorically described how the grizzly bear was overwhelmed with all widgets that congested his house and turned his life upside down. Using such adjectives as *brand-new, new-fangled* describing various degrees of gadgets' novelty spoiling the bear's life, the author shows how annoying new technologies can be. Though, the negative side of innovative technologies is somehow softened by the reference to the musical theme, notably to the popular Christmas song "Silent night":

- *He found, to his mild annoyance, that the doorbell had been replaced by an ornamental knocker. When he lifted the knocker, he was startled to hear it play two bars of "Silent Night."*
- *... he sank into an easy chair and began bouncing up and down and up and down, for it was a brand-new contraption called "Sitpretty" which made you bounce up and down and up and down when you sat on it.*
- *Now thoroughly exasperated, the bear jumped up from the chair and began searching for a cigarette. He found a cigarette box, a new-fangled cigarette box he had never seen before...*

Technologies can be inherently evil making people go mad which is demonstrated by the adjectives producing the emphatic and emotional effect and the idiomatic expressions *to see red, to think black*:

Enraged, infuriated, beside himself, seeing red and thinking black, the grizzly bear began taking the living room apart.

The author resorts to some philosophical reflections: *to forgive, and live, and let live* which culminate a chain of contingencies typical of the holiday season by leaving some room for the reader's further speculations on this topic:

- *A grizzly bear who had been on a bender for several weeks following a Christmas party in his home at which his brother-in-law had set the Christmas tree on fire, his children had driven the family car through the front door and out the back, and all the attractive female bears had gone into hibernation before sunset returned home prepared to forgive, and live and let live.*

A rhetoric repetition of the same root words, polyptoton, is also used to intensify and emphasize the absurdity of some modern technologies and the grizzly's violent anger:

- *This was because the walls of his house had been soundproofed by a sound-proofer who had soundproofed them so well nobody could hear anybody say anything six feet away.*

We can trace some cultural scripts (Goddard & Wierzbicka, 1997) in Thurber's fables characterizing the attitude of the Anglo-American society to some social phenomena:

- overtly discussing family problems and relationship between spouses;
- mocking those in power, i.e. political satire;
- laughing at excessive public display in affection.

Thurber skillfully combines moral discourse, characteristic to the fable genre per se, with political, historic and religious discourses and discourse of love. He narrates simple stories of everyday life seasoned with the special flavor so that it is absolutely unexpected what their culmination can be.

Since the Anglo-American discourse is richly verbal there is no restrain and reserve in expressing various, both good and bad emotions, opinions and desires, as well as in self-exposure, all social issues are overtly discussed and revealed. But on the one hand, there are genre norms per se, and cultural aspects do impact and in some cases predefine the choice of some language means.

Robert Benchley was a prolific columnist, essayist and humorist with a sophisticated sense of humor whose papers simply make you giggle. Every line of his columns is saturated with "pure" humor. He is the one who can skillfully narrate everyday tales sharing his personal experiences and reflections with the reader and making allusions to history, music, politics. With his emblematic intellectual humor, the so called "genteel" humor style, Benchley guided the reader through the epoch of…

- the US-Soviet competition deriding the absurdity of central planning revealing to the reader political and historic background, referring to some symbolic international charitable movements such as *the Salvation Army*, cultural icons of the Soviet era: *Lenin's tomb*:
  - *IF I HEAR ANY MORE about this five-year-plan business I am going to start one myself. <u>Russia has been working on hers for a couple of years now</u>, and <u>England is thinking of starting one, and what Russia and England can do, I can do</u>. All that is necessary is for me to find out just what a five-year-plan is.*
  - *As I understand it, you take five years to start all over again. You throw out all your old systems, clean out the rubbers in the hall closet, give to the <u>Salvation Army</u> all those old bundles of the National Geographic you have been saving, and tell your creditors to wait for five years and that they will be surprised to see how well you pay.*
  - *Now, I may have this five-year plan all wrong. I haven't read much about Russia's, except to look at pictures showing <u>Lenin's tomb</u>. But I do know that the principle of the thing is that five years are supposed to elapse before anyone can really judge of its success.*
- the US Post Office as the bureaucratic machine and "most popular line-standing field in the country", which has now, luckily, fell into oblivion. He emphasizes the incongruity of the American lifestyle "building the reputation for speed and dash" which has actually become the American culture specific concept with the red tape propagated by the US postal services in the early 20th century. The American lifestyle is contrasted with the Spanish relaxed way of living which characterizes two different national characters and psychologies:
  - *For a nation which has an almost evil reputation for bustle, bustle, bustle, and rush, rush, rush, we spend an enormous amount of time standing around in line in front of windows, just waiting. It would*

be all right if we were Spanish peasants and could strum guitars and hum, or even stab each other, while we were standing in line, or East Indians who could just sit cross-legged and simply stare into space for hours. Nobody expects anything more of Spanish peasants or East Indians, because they have been smart enough to build themselves a reputation for picturesque lethargy.

The special communication ritual of the sender and the postal services officer is lyricized. The sender intentionally shows servile complaisance and deference that actually creates the humorous effect, even the musical reference is used here as the sender's trick to please the officer and conquer the officer's heart:

- *The following ritual will then be adhered to, a deviation by a single word subjecting the sender to a year in Leavenworth or both:*
Clerk's Question: Do you want to mail a package?
Sender's Answer: No, sir.
Q. What do you want to do ?
A. I don't much care, so long as I can be with you.
Q. Do you like <u>tick-tack-toe</u>?
A. I'm crazy mad for it.
Q. Very well. We won't play that.
A. Aren't you being just a little bit petty?
Q. Are you criticizing me?
A. Sorry. [5].

- the Bourbon dynasty, notably the exorbitant lifestyle of Louis XIV, when comparing modern luxury bathroom design, which has gained great popularity these days, modestly called in plumbers' catalogues "private heaven" with the luxury of the Palace of Versailles. In this refined and elegant manner, Benchley laughs at modern kitsch and bad taste by using very apt historical metaphors by comparing modern grand opulent bathroom halls with the largest Roman imperial baths of Diolectian built from 298 to 306 AD:
  - *A firm of what purport to be <u>plumbers</u> (but whom I suspect of being royalist propagandists trying to get the <u>Bourbon kings</u> back into power again) has just issued a catalogue showing how to make your bathroom look like <u>the Great Hall at Versailles</u> -- or I guess the best way to go about <u>it would be to make the Great Hall at Versailles look like a bathroom</u>.*
  - *If I ever do succumb to the <u>Louis XIV instinct</u> in me (and make enough money) and do have one of the <u>«Diocletian baths»</u> installed in that great big new house I shall build, there will be a secret door, hidden behind a rare tapestry, to which I alone will have the key.*

By and large, the narrative discourse in Thurber's fables and Benchley's essays depicting some culture specific concepts is intermingled with musical, political, philosophical, religious and historic discourses. Obviously, the boundaries of interdiscursivity are now expanding and will be reconceptualized by including not only micro- and macro intertextual levels, but also cultural and social contexts on a larger scale.

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Nataliia Kramar

TOWARDS AN INTEGRATIVE APPROACH TO IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION IN ACADEMIC DISCOURSE

The present paper sets out to demarcate the concepts of stance and voice in the context of identity construction in academic discourse. Drawing upon the currently predominant social-constructivist view of identity as a constantly changing substance being formed in the process of writing, the article highlights the strengths and deficiencies of the most influential theories of self-representation in scientific writing. It also makes an attempt to synthesize Hyland's "stance and engagement" framework with Ivanič's & Camps' tripartite model of voice as positioning in search of the most comprehensive and efficient approach to identity in academic discourse. It is being argued that hedging and boosting should be construed within interpersonal positioning (instead on ideational one) since they represent the author's authoritativeness vs. tentativeness with regard to their intended audience rather than the author's attitude to their propositions as such.

***Keywords**:* identity, self-representation, stance, voice, positioning

Over the last two decades, the statement that academic discourse is subjective and imbued with authorial presence in just the same way as any other type of discourse has gained universal acknowledgment. Scientific writing is inherently persuasive and focused on negotiation of scientific truth by all means available (i.e. emotional as much as logical) rather than its construction purely with rational argumentation. As Hyland put it in his trend-setting 2005 paper, "Writers seek to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work by claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material and acknowledging alternative views, so that controlling the level of personality in a text becomes central to building a convincing argument" (Hyland, 2005, p. 173). Viewed from this perspective, the issue of authorial identity assumes critical importance in scientific communication, so it is not surprising it has recently come to the forefront of academic discourse studies. However, while a wealth of research exists on individual elements of self-representation in scientific writing (particularly, hedging and boosting, self-reference, attitude markers), there is no agreement on comprehensive and feasible approach that would encompass all (or at least, most of) the numerous facets of identity construction[1] in academic discourse.

[1] In the body of literature, the terms "identity construction" and "self-representation" (as well as "authorial presence") are often found to convey identical ideational content. We prefer the term "identity construction" in alignment with the social-constructivist theories, which regard identity as a malleable phenomenon subject to constant change (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Matsuda, 2015). However, since "self-representation" is currently predominant in academic discourse studies, we will use the terms interchangeably throughout the present paper.

Identity in scientific communication has been most extensively studied through the lens of stance and related concepts, such as "appraisal" and "evaluation", with the focus on the writer's attitude to their propositions, to the readers and to themselves (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Biber, 2006; Gray & Biber, 2012; Hood, 2010, 2012; Hunston, 2001; Hyland, 2005, 2016; Martin, 2005; Silver, 2003). Significantly smaller body of research has employed the metaphorical concept of voice to provide a broader insight into how the writer's individual qualities carry over to their writing style (Hirvela, 2001, Ivanič, 1998, 2001, 2010; Matsuda, 2015; Tardy, 2012). The greatest attention so far has been paid to hedging and authorial pronouns as the most conspicuous manifestations of identity in academic discourse. In particular, they are often studied from the cross-cultural perspective (e.g., Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2012; Fløttum, 2001, 2012; Ilchenko, 2002; Sheldon, 2009; Vassileva, 2001; Yakhontova, 2006; Yang, 2013), which, however, places more weight on the social aspect of identity rather than the personal one. There have been very few efforts to devise a comprehensive and multi-layered framework for the analysis of self-representation in academic discourse: the most authoritative of them belong to K. Hyland (2005; 2016) and R. Ivani**č (2001), who both use the terms "stance" and "voice", while holding quite different views on their specific linguistic realizations.**

While most researchers in the domain of academic writing tend to agree that stance denotes attitudinal dimension of interaction, whereas voice is a broader phenomenon encompassing more of the author's individuality, the agreement seems to end there. The scopes of these concepts, as well as the nature of their interrelations, remain unclear, primarily due to the wide disparity of various frameworks devised so far. The situation gets even more complicated due to the multifaceted nature of human identity *per se,* and vastly differing views on its components and layers. There is a strong need to establish which elements constitute the scientists' identity-in-writing and, perhaps more importantly, which of them are truly worth investigating in light of the overarching purpose of facilitating academic communication and improving the teaching of scholarly writing.

The existing literature being so discordant and copious, the aim of the present paper is to provide an overview and analysis of currently the most influential frameworks for researching identity construction in academic discourse, while showing a way for their synthesis. We hope to prove that Hyland's (2005; 2016) concepts of hedging and boosting, as well as his engagement model, could be integrated into Ivanič's & Camps' (2001) tripartite model of voice as positioning, thus providing a comprehensive approach to self-presentation in academic writing.

The analysis of identity construction in academic writing requires answering the question "what is identity?" in the first place. Admittedly, identity is a broad concept that eludes clear definition despite the numerous and ongoing efforts of linguists, philosophers and psychologists alike to tackle it. This word is typically modified by adjectives such as "national", "religious", "political" etc. However, it would be an extremely reductionist approach to view it just as the sum of a person's social affiliations and relations as reflected in a text. In contrast, modern research tends to construe identity not as some fixed and essentialized thing-in-itself, but rather a work-in-progress that depends on the interplay of social, cultural and, not least, linguistic factors. As stated by Matsuda in his recent review, "Identity in written discourse is a complex phenomenon that involves both empirical reality that can be described and measured (e.g., demographics and textual features) and phenomenological reality that exists in people's perceptions (e.g., social constructs)" (Matsuda, 2015, p. 141). The latter is not projected, but rather constructed, in a written text by means of interaction of various linguistics features as well as the interaction between author and reader (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005; Ivanič, 1998; Matsuda, 2015). Though people usually have a unified sense of self, their identity is multifaceted and subject to constant change: "It includes the "self" that a person brings to the act of writing, the "self" she constructs through the act of writing, and the way in which the writer is perceived by the reader(s) of the writing" (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010, p. 232). It is recognized that identity has both individual and social dimensions to it, and they are inevitably intertwined.

Identity in academic writing has been studied through the conceptual prisms of stance, voice and (to a lesser degree) style. Stance is most commonly associated with the linguistic expression of the author's position and assessment in relation to the status of proposed knowledge, the reader and/or the author themselves. Apart from "stance," there is a wide range of other terms that have been suggested by various researchers with roughly the same ideational content in mind. The most significant of them are: "evaluation", "appraisal", "posture", "attitude" and "metadiscourse" (Hyland & Sancho Guida, 2012). Positionality is an immanent feature of all human communication, though some forms or genres of communication can manifest it more broadly than others. Academic discourse often seems preoccupied with the demonstration of neutrality and objectivity, but, on the other hand, "neutrality is itself a stance" (Jaffe, 2009, p. 1). While stance-taking is the primary mechanism of self-presentation in written discourse, it is firmly grounded in context and is socially determined to a certain extent.

Stance-related meanings can be expressed in writing with a number of linguistic and paralinguistic features. Linguistic features are represented by a wide range of linguistic devices, such as stance adverbials, modals and semi-modals, complement clauses controlled by nouns or adjectives, prepositional phrase constructions and word choice in general (Gray & Biber, 2012). The most authoritative theoretical frameworks of stance (at least, as far as academic discourse is concerned) draw the distinction between evidentiality (epistemic stance) and affect (affective or attitudinal stance) (Hyland, 2005, 2016; Biber

& Finegan, 1989; Gray & Biber, 2012). Evidentiality is related to the author's evaluation of the credibility and reliability of their own propositions (e.g. certainty vs. uncertainty), whereas affect covers more personal and emotional attitudes towards the stated information (e.g. hope, joy, surprise). On the other hand, some recent approaches conceptualize stance in a different way, placing an emphasis on its interactional, or intersubjective, nature and drawing attention to the author's attitude to their interlocutors (Keisanen, 2007; Scherer, 2005; Kiesling, 2009; Precht, 2003). In particular, Scott F. Kiesling (2009) distinguishes between epistemic stance (the author's attitude to their propositions) and interpersonal stance (the author's attitude to their interlocutors). It should be noted, however, that Hyland's (2005; 2016) theoretical framework also accounts for interactionality, though placing it not within the scope of stance, but engagement, which is regarded as another element of the author's positioning in writing.

No matter how broadly stance may be conceptualized, it is obvious that self-representation cannot be reduced to positionality. The broader concept of voice, though quite vague and contested due to its "literary and aesthetic overtones" (Tardy, 2012, p. 34), has been productive in highlighting the unique personal stamp the author brings to writing and in trying to catch its elusive essence. Voice is often placed within a Bakhtinian perspective, with the focus on social, historical and cultural meanings as appropriated by authors in their discourse construction (Ivanič & Camps, 2001; Sperling & Appleman, 2011). Just like stance, voice is an inherent and inevitable feature of all kinds of writing, however faceless it may seem at first glance. Voice has both individual and social dimensions, which were strictly dichotomized in early research; however, the currently predominant social-constructivist view of voice regards them as mutually constitutive and interdependent (Matsuda, 2015). A person constructs their individuality in discourse by choosing specific lexical, grammatical and syntactical means, but this choice is limited with the socially available repertoire and is suited to the particular social context and conditions. Naturally, the individual voice of an author would differ depending on the audience they address, on the level of formality appropriate in this situation, on the author's status and many other factors. Ivanič's (1998) authoritative theoretical framework of writing identity classifies the social aspect of voice into "discoursal self" and "possibilities for selfhood", and the individual aspect into "autobiographical self" and "self as author", thus emphasizing the multi-layered nature of authorial identity.

Voice is closely related to stance, but it also incorporates other elements that convey the writer's individuality. The identification of these elements is, however, contentious. By far the most influential approach to self-representation in academic discourse – that of Ken Hyland – views voice as comprised of stance and engagement (Hyland, 2005, 2008, 2016)[2]. In this perspective, stance

[2] Hyland put forward this framework in his 2005 paper, but it's only in his 2008 paper that he explicitly associated it with voice.

is represented with hedges and boosters (aligned with evidentiality), attitude markers (aligned with affect), and self-mentions (aligned with presence), while engagement is marked with reader pronouns, personal asides, directives, questions, and references to sharedness. Hyland's framework has gained enormous popularity in academic writing research over the last decade, in part due to its clear structure and relative simplicity enabling corpus-based approach with comparative design. While this approach is tenable and well-thought-out, it still has a few weak points that we would like to address here:

1. As convincingly demonstrated by Tang & Jones (1999), Starfield & Ravelli (2006), and Sheldon (2009), self-mentions are far from being homogeneous and can perform an array of different functions. Thus, Tang & Jones (1999) identify six roles of first-person pronouns in academic discourse ranging from "I as representative" to "I as originator", while Starfield & Ravelli (2006) and Sheldon (2009) include the category "Reflexive I" as the most powerful authorial role. Hyland's framework fails to account for the multiple functions of self-mentions. Moreover, self-mentions in this scheme are categorized under stance only, though they can also be incorporated into engagement markers (especially questions, personal asides, and references to sharedness).
2. In a much similar way, Hyland identifies the category "reader pronouns" without accounting for difference in their functions. Moreover, this category should not be regarded separately from other engagement markers as there is a natural overlap between them.
3. As argued by P. Matsuda, the definition of voice should necessarily incorporate non-discursive elements as much as discursive ones, since visual elements and document design convey much valuable information about the author's individuality (Tardy, 2012). Hyland's framework is focused solely on discursive elements, thus leaving important semiotic features aside.
4. The framework is restricted to positionality as it only covers the author's attitude (to their propositions, to the topics they are talking about and to the readers), without embracing the ways in which the author categorizes and conceptualizes the world. Also, it says nothing about the author's beliefs with regard to knowledge construction and scientific truth, though these features are of critical importance in scientific communication.

We suggest that, in large part, these deficiencies can be redressed by drawing upon the theory of voice as positioning, elaborated by Ivanič & Camps (2001). The researchers conceptualize voice as represented with ideational, interpersonal and textual positioning, in alignment with three macrofunctions of language postulated by systemic-functional linguistics. Ideational positioning refers to the ways whereby the author represents the world and constructs or reproduces knowledge. It encompasses, first, various interests, objects, and methodologies (as represented with lexical choice); second, different stances taken by the author (as represented with evaluative and classificatory lexis, syntax, and generic reference); third, views of knowledge-making, or epistemic beliefs (as represented with verb types, generic vs. specific reference etc). Interpersonal positioning concerns the extent of the author's authoritativeness in building relationships with their readers. On the one part, it encompasses the author's certainty as expressed by modality, self-mentions, and evaluation; on the other part, it also includes the writer's power relationships with readers marked by self-mentions and mood. Finally, textual positioning is related to the author's preferred ways of text construction, exemplified by semiotic mode, linking devices, complexity of words chosen etc. It is noteworthy that, within Ivanič & Camps' framework (2001), first person pronouns are not a separate category but merely a linguistic representation of different elements spanning both ideational and interpersonal positioning. Obviously, this approach is much more comprehensive than the one proposed by Hyland as it accounts for the author's choice of topic and object, as well as epistemic beliefs, which are a critical component of the writer's identity as a researcher. Moreover, it pays particular attention to syntax and textual positioning, which are disregarded by Hyland altogether. However, in terms of interpersonal positioning (engagement), Hyland offers more detailed and lucid structure than Ivanič & Camps.

Based on the comparison above, we would like to suggest a framework that seeks to blend the two approaches together (see Table 1). In this synthetic structure, Hyland's *stance* would be aligned with Ivanič & Camps' *ideational positioning*, and *engagement* would be aligned with *interpersonal positioning*. However, we believe that hedges and boosters should be construed within interpersonal positioning as they are more reflective of the author's authoritativeness in regards to readers than their own stance. E.g., when a researcher writes "it seems likely" or "perhaps" (which are considered typical examples of hedges), it does not necessarily mean that he/she has doubts as to his/her claims: rather, it means that he/she wants to come across as a considerate and careful scientist in the eyes of his/her intended audience. Likewise, boosters such as "in fact", "really", "indeed" convey not as much the author's attitude to the proposition as his/her desire to emphasize it for this particular audience, in contrast to attitude verbs ("suppose", "think", "doubt" etc.), which do mark the author's stance to the information he/she shares. In this respect, hedges and boosters exemplify what Kiesling calls the *interpersonal stance* (2009). It should be noted, however, that in his early paper Hyland, too, acknowledges the critical role of these instruments in establishing relationships with readers, stating that they "allow writers to strategically engage with colleagues, affecting interpersonal solidarity and membership of a disciplinary in-group." (Hyland, 1998, p. 5). Therefore, we consider it would be logical to move hedges and boosters to interpersonal positioning as the markers of authorial certainty and authoritativeness.

Ideational Positioning (and its Linguistic Realizations)	Interpersonal Positioning		Textual Positioning
	Self-positioning in relation to readers	Establishing relationships with readers	
1. Attitude markers (attitude verbs, evaluative lexis, classificatory lexis, syntax, generic vs. specific references) 2. Selection of topic, object and methodology (lexical choice) 3. Epistemic beliefs (verb types, passive vs. active voice, generic vs. specific references)	1. Degree of certainty (hedges and boosters) 2. Personal asides	1. Directives 2. Questions 3. References to sharedness	1. Semiotic mode 2. Visual elements (tables, graphs, fonts) 3. Sentence length 4. Linking devices

Table 1. Integrative Framework of Identity Construction in Academic Discourse

The primary category included into ideational positioning is *attitude markers*, to use Hyland's term: Ivanič & Camps label it more broadly as *stances*. As observed by Ivanič & Camps, it is linguistically marked by evaluative lexis, classificatory lexis, generic vs. specific references, and syntax; another linguistic realization that is only noted by Hyland is attitude verbs (such as *prefer*, *believe*). Other categories include choice of topic, object and methodology, as well as epistemic beliefs (see Table 1 for linguistic realizations).

Interpersonal positioning can be classified into self-positioning in relation to readers and establishing relationships with readers. Here, we consider Hyland's subcategories to be particularly instrumental, though we conceptualize them slightly differently. Self-positioning in relation to readers is expressed through the extent of certainty (hedges and boosters) and personal asides; establishing relationships with readers comes in the form of questions, directives, and references to sharedness. While these subcategories are basically aligned with mood, evaluation, modality, and self-mention proposed by Ivanič & Camps, they are much more detailed and comprehensively structured, thus being more suitable for empirical research in this field. The category of textual positioning is borrowed from Ivanič & Camps without any modifications: it can be expressed through semiotic mode, sentence length, linking devices, visual elements etc.

While this framework seems rather complex, so is authorial identity; hence, there is no room for simplification as long as one is interested in all-sided analysis of how the author's self is represented and constructed in academic discourse. It should be admitted that the complexity of this model makes corpus-based approach to authorial voice rather problematic: however, it is quite feasible with relatively small scope of texts or with a single author that has to be researched in depth. This approach emphasizes that academic writing has the author's identity shining through all of its layers and elements, even if the author strives to communicate their research results in the most faceless and objective manner.

In summary, self-representation in academic discourse has been approached from numerous and disparate perspectives, with stance and voice being the predominant conceptual frameworks. In large part, this disparity can be attributed to the complexity and nebulosity of the term "identity" itself. In the bulk of modern research, self-representation (or identity construction, following the social-constructivist perspective) is essentially equated to voice. While Hyland's (2005; 2008; 2016) theoretical model of voice as stance and engagement has gained the greatest acknowledgment among researchers, it has a number of deficiencies and, in terms of comprehensiveness, is inferior to Ivanič & Camps (2001) model of voice as ideational, interpersonal and textual positioning. Still, in our viewpoint, Hyland's binary of hedging and boosting can be instrumental in capturing the extent of the author's authoritativeness, so we suggest incorporating it into Ivanič & Camps (2001) model within interpersonal positioning in lieu of the broad realizations of modality and evaluation.

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Iryna Malynovska

SEMIOTIC METAMORPHOSIS OF PHILOSOPHER IN MODERN PHILOSOPHICAL DISCOURSE

The article addresses the semiotic profile of PHILOSOPHER in the semiosphere of the English-speaking philosophical discourse. This phenomenon has been considered in frames of semiotic and cognitive paradigms. At the backdrop of typical communicative situations pertaining to philosophy, outlined have been semantic, sign, and symbolic characteristics of PHILOSOPHER in the academic and lay philosophical discourses which brought to better understanding of the place of PHILOSOPER in the semiotic code of the Anglo-American culture. The results obtained by the analysis of discourse help to reconsider a number of traditional views on philosopher as a professional and public figure in the present-day societies belonging to Anglosphere.

***Key words**:* semiosis, semiosphere, sign, concept, prototype, stereotype, semiotic code, philosophical discourse

"*The task of the moral philosopher-thinker is to support and strengthen the voice of human conscience… May be a «voice crying in the wilderness», but only if that voice remains lively and uncompromising, it is possible to transform the desert into fertile land.*"
(Erich Fromm, Man for Himself. An Inquiry into the Psychology of Ethics)

The word-known quotation from E. Fromm's, an outstanding philosopher and psychologist, has driven my interest into the subject of this essay. The idea is to make an attempt to see, how the English language of philosophy manifests the concerns of the English-speaking community about moral values, and whether, in their eyes, philosopher is still a bearer of these values today.

Introduction

Philosophical discourse is the oldest intellectual discourse in the history of mankind (Ward & Waller, 2000). However, it remains one of the least studied linguistic phenomena, while its counterpart – political discourse – has been given broad and all-round elucidation.

For more than half a century both fundamental and particular case studies of political discourse have been multiplying year over year. The language of power attracted attention of many outstanding philosophers and important linguists, to mention but J.-P.Sartre, A. Camus, H. Marcuse, W.H.Riker, N.Fairclough, T.A.van Dijk, P.Seriot, R.Wodak, A. Wierzbicka, R.M.Blakar, J. Lakoff, D.W.Johnson, G.M.Kosicki. These multridisciplinary efforts are justified by the fateful role policy plays in our society and its impact on everyday life of an individual; its language can be metaphorically referred to as "a word in action" and is very aggressively manifested in the semiosphere of any culture.

Social value of the philosophical discourse – "the language of mind" – is no less important than that of the language of power. It is philosophy that develops ideologies to underlie politics and ideas to indirectly shape public consciousness, national cultures, historical and even geographical maps of the world. This value is highly recognized by a philosophical community within which there has been an on-going debate on the language of philosophy as a tool of thinking and a source of knowledge, first and foremost in terms of Analytical (or Linguistic) philosophy, and its criticism. However, as against political discourse, philosophical one has remained unobtrusive, if not invisible, for linguists, with its linguistic and philological bibliography hardly numbering dozen publications (*inter alia*, Azarova, 2010; Varnavskaya, 2005). More comprehensive consideration of the language of philosophy is still waiting for its authors. All the above mentioned proves that research into the discourse of philosophy is relevant and timely both for linguistics and flexible sciences in general.

In-depth analysis of the English-speaking philosophical discourse is a broad and long-term project. This assay addresses only a fragment of the semiosphere of philosophy, PHILOSOPHER, both as a concept and sign as well as its semiosis in the code of the Anglo-American culture.

Theoretical background and methodology

A brief overview of semiotic ideas, approaches of semiotics and its methods is necessary to understand the advantages and limits of its applicability to such complex and multimodal phenomenon as the Anglophone philosophical discourse with its specific agency. Alongside long-standing traditions developed by F. de Saussure and L. Hjemslev, the term "semiotics" still lacks a uniform and generally recognized definition. Its understanding is inferred rather from a broad discussion on semiotics as both an object of knowledge and an instrument enabling scholars to make knowledge about this object. Interpretation of semiotics as an object is based on its definition as a system of signs or a system of significations. Since this study is a descriptive project which is not intended at metatheorizing, I will be based on a tentative definition developed within the Tartu Semiotic School which reads that a given semiotics is "a signifying set that we suspect, at least hypothetically, possesses an organization, i.e., an autonomous internal articulation" (Greimas, 1982). In this assay such signifying set – either natural or constructed semiotic systems – are substituted for by the opposition "scientific semiotic systems/non-scientific semiotic system", or in our case, "professional/

lay philosophical discourses". It is not an easy task to draw a direct line between the two latter notions. Firstly, there is still no agreement between philosophers on the nature of their language, whether it is natural/common language or artificially constructed one, and this discussion is still on-going within "the philosophy of common language" (Kassen & Sigov, 2009, p. 55). Secondly, an essay format essentially minimizes possibilities for full coverage of intertextual and cross-textual intersections (as is summarized by N. Piegay-Gros (2008, pp. 48-51), making up any philosophical discourse and entails considering of any discourse on philosophy conventionally as an object-semiotics:

Under scientific semiotic systems - in the broad sense of «scientific» - we understand an object-semiotics treated within the framework of a semiotic theory, explicit or implicit (the construction of a documentary language, for example, is built on a theory, even if the latter is only barely scientific)." (Greimas, 1982)

In this research I endeavor to follow up the process of signification within philosophical discourse part of national culture, so any element of this semiosis as well as its driving forces will be interpreted in terms of the sociocultural conditions of its production (Fairclough, 1995, pp. 187-188; Karasik, 2013, pp. 7-8; Selivanova, 2012, p. 332). Now, we have come to the necessity of elucidating one more methodologically important position: what is understood under the terms *discourse* and *text* in this research. Out of the "sea" of definitions articulated in literature, I will pitch upon those which account for the continuity of semiotics and discourse.

D. Crystal (2010) provides the following definition of discourse, "a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence…a discourse is a behavioral unit which has a pre-theoretical status in linguistics…" (p. 106). This definition doesn't suffice for this project as it emphasizes rather formal, parametric characteristics of the phenomenon in question and fails to address its Attribute (in Hegelian sense).

The attribute-focuses approach was developed by the advocates of the understanding of discourse as a social act, with written discourse being a rightful representation of such act. Under this theory, discourse evolves in communication, and hence, it performs a communicative function. In his numerous studies of discourse, Teun A. van Dijk formulated a number of complementary and clarifying definitions of this concept which could be summarized in this way: discourse is a communicative event between addressor and addressee in the process of a communicative action in a number of contexts (of time, place, culture, profession, social strata etc.). Such act could be effected in an oral or written format, and may have verbal and nonverbal constituents. For more detailed overview of literature on this matter I refer to E.M.Dowling and W.G.Scarlett (2006). In these lines, under communicative act we understand here an act of interaction between two actors or social systems in which sign systems are used as a major tool of communication.

Thus, the complex of analytical procedures of discourse, based on this theoretical platform should be concerned with

> …the use of language in a running discourse continued over a number of sentences and involving the interaction of speaker (or writer) and auditor (or reader) in a specific situational context, and within a framework of social and cultural conventions. (Abrams & Harpham, 2005, p. 81)

In praxi, philosophical discourse is represented by long sequences of sentences, i.e. texts, so the analysis of such discourse is text-targeted if we understand the action of signs – the signifying action or discourse as a test-production activity, which is accompanied by the interdependent and simultaneous signification, semantization, and cognizance. As V. Milovidov states, “Semantization is the fixation of meanings (signified) in signifying, while comprehension is the construction of a new signified in the process of syntagmatic interaction of conventional meanings in the linear unfolding of a text.” (Milovidov, 2015, p. 35)

So, in the core of a discourse system there is text understood as a product of communicative activity; actually, a thesaurus of texts of different nature, both natural and artificial, making up a broad context area and a background for this discourse. They are a part of its cognitive bases. Here we refer to a long-standing semiotic tradition in philosophy and linguistics, to name but M. Bakhtin, M.Foucault, M.Lotman, J.Derridda and B.Gasparov.

In this study, philosophical discourse is understood as both an institutional discourse which is developed in a sphere of professional communication, and laymen discourse on philosophy which may be produced by anyone talking on ultimate issues, such as Truth, Equality, the Good, Virtue, Life, Death etc. Personalized philosophical discourse is close to literary narration, though its academic version is rather standardized today and characterized by a limited use of expressive means. However, it is generally recognized that its basic terminology is still rooted in common language, which fact itself has become a subject of philosophical debate in philosophical lexicography and linguistic philosophy (Kassen & Sigov, 2009-2016). So, philosophical discourse is made of both sublanguages (of different philosophical doctrines) and common language, including slang, which entails application of at least germinate operations of discourse analysis.

The semiosphere of philosophical discourse is a verbalized system of knowledge and ideas oriented at serving philosophical communication. Semantically, this field reflects the reality of the world of philosophy which can be interpreted either by a certain tradition of thought or a lingua-cultural society in general, though by itself, philosophy strives to universality.

The results of such interpretation are the categorization of this sphere understood as rubricating of the analyzed phenomenon. It should be emphasized, that such categorization differs depending who are its agents. Professional philosophers categorize it on ontological and functional basis while the language community, as E. Sheygal (2004) considers, perform it according to their experience and segment their exterior and interior world according to their performance and lives (p.97).

Here I have to address the basic foundations of categorization of knowledge about the world in signs of philosophical discourse, as well as typology of these signs.

Building up a philosophical semiosphere is based on such parameters: opposition in the sphere of expression, expression by connotative markers, referential opposition and functional opposition. The first opposition embraces verbal and nonverbal signs such as terms, phrases, aphorisms and texts. PHILOSOPHER as a sign belongs to the latter, functional opposition. It includes signification of his/her deeds, behavior, way of life and symbolic artifacts together with graphic symbols, symbolic images (like a *torch* for the idea of seeking TRUTH, or *slippers* – for a philosopher, who prefers comfortable life, or a *sofa* – for the idea of philosophizing without knowing the real life).

As the concept PHILOSOPER is mostly manifested by lexical means, the methodological accent of this research is put on word as a unit of discourse, which is justified by N.Chomsky (2002), who argued that

> To understand a sentence we must know more than the analysis of this sentence on each linguistic level. We must also know the reference and meaning of the morphemes or words of which it is composed; naturally, grammar cannot be expected to be of much help here. (p.103-104)

Proceeding from these assumptions, I will apply the principles and elements of semiotic and discourse and cognitive analysis to the units of the language of philosophy and semiosphere of its discourse, all being considered as complementary methods. The general move of the analyses is from introspection, observation and collecting of data to textual analyses and cognitive mapping of PHILOSOPHER with further examining it in discourse set in the sociocultural context of the present-day Anglophone community.

Philosophical discourse is constituted by diverse languages (codes): scholarly metalanguage, common language, poetics, ethical code of philosophy, default language. In most of them, the figure of philosopher makes a special importance and is vested in a sign draping, frequently becoming a symbol of some social value. This value undergoes changes in the performance of signifying action, which developments I am going to follow in the next part of the essay.

Results and Discussion

In order to understand in what way PHILOSOPHER is seen and categorized by the professional and lay English language community, I analyzed its lexicalization in dictionaries and texts belonging to different genres: philosophical encyclopedias, academic journals, professional websites and weblogs, newspaper and magazine articles, chats, universities' pages, written biographies of philosophers, philosophical jokes and jokes about philosophers etc. (see the list of illustrative references). The data of two Corpora (COCA and BNP) were employed to justify some introspective generalizations about the state-of-the-art cultural relevance of this concept.

The analysis of definitions in dictionaries and encyclopedias allows presenting a structure of the frame PHILOSOPHER with a set of slots to objectivize a number of typical attributes:

HUMAN

1. - of a certain gender (occasional)
2. - of a certain age (occasional)
3. - of a certain origin
4. - of a certain educational/theoretical background
5. - *doing philosophy*
6. - *busy with thinking*
7. - *able of analyzing facts of life*
8. - *producing ideas and theories*
9. - belonging to a certain philosophical tradition
10. - belonging to a certain philosophical institution
11. - performing some academic functions
12. - having certain qualities:
    - 12.1 – professional:
        - creative
        - analytical
        - able of abstract thinking
        - able of teaching
    - 12.2. – moral:
        - generosity
        - loyalty
        - humanism
        - virtue
        - dignity
        - unity of words and deeds
        - beliefs
        - sincerity
        - integrity
        - dedication
        - modesty
        - selflessness
    - 12.3. – psychological:
        - top intellect
        - independence

- courage (to follow his/her way)
- independent
- free

In this frame, slots 5-8 are central, for they designate the constitutive attributes of the phenomenon in question. They are verbalized with emotionally and expressively neutral lexical units. *Philosopher* (slot 5), according to the definitions given by general-English dictionaries (it should be noted, that professional philosophical dictionaries and glossaries (Blackbum, 2016; Chrucky, 2017; Kemerling, 1997; Mautner, 2005) do not have special entries for *philosopher,* it being in *obsentia*, in Julia Kristeva's terms; the meaning of the word being implied in the understanding of philosophy and reduced to its agent): *does philosophy, is busy with research, writes on philosophical issues, gives lectures in philosophy, takes part in philosophical debates; (slot 6) thinks over, reflects on, theorizes on, deals with abstract matters, studies a problem; (slot 7) considers ideas, evaluate pros and contras, investigates the matter of, figures out positive and negative sides, scrutinizes ideas, studies the ultimate things, looks into the nature of things; (slot 8) formulates the principles of…, offers an idea of…, generates ideas, founds the school of…, puts forward the hypothesis etc.* (philosopher.(2017) Merriam-Webster.com.; philosopher. (n.d.) Oxford English dictionary; philosopher. (n.d.). Collins English Dictionary).

Other slots in this frame are also constituted mostly by emotionally and expressively neutral nominations which are on the periphery of this concept when it operates in the professional philosophical discourse and are no less in use to characterize philosopher, if not come to fore, if these words function in lay philosophical or common discourse. According to bloggers (Ezra, 2012, Dec.1; Hillard, 2013, Aug.26; Zagata, 2014), philosopher (whether professional or lay) is a man "*over a combat field*", a kind of a *freak*, *ascetic* or *hermit* living a very special life. He is or is believed to be totally *disinterested in material Goods* and *prefers solitude to socializing*. All these characteristics constitute the image of a unique style of behavior. The stance of *guru* or a *nihilist* is no less important than a position of a philosopher as an author, and also contributes to a specific philosophical life style as it is viewed by the English speakers.

The semiotic character of PHILOSOPHER is also embodied in the following: a philosopher can be represented as a metonymic sign which substitutes a group. In this case, he/she personalizes a philosophical doctrine, school or a way of life and mode of behavior. For example, *Foucaults' triangle* means a semiotic theory of signs, *Hegel's dialectics* – the method of knowledge based on the principle of universal development. The name of *Diogenos* calls to mind identification with a hermit way of life, while the phrase *Freudian Slippers*, on the contrary, symbolizes love to comfort. Social stereotype of philosopher is reflected in the meanings of a set of either high-flown or comic expressive units to name him/her. These oppositions demonstrate a grading scale verbalization of this phenomenon (from *Saint Wise Man, sage, Solomon, Plato of our time, prophet, guru, Teacher – to eccentric, weirdo, crank, nut, freak, oddfish, oddball*). We can see two prototypes: first is an ideal philosopher – it represents the category of thought as an abstract ideal model which practically cannot be drawn from real experience and is usually based on some personality (e.g., Plato). Rather we infer this model from the opposition – ABOVE THE NORM/BELOW THE NORM (the latter is represented mostly by expressions of mockery or sarcasm). Another prototype is a model which is a congregation, a collection of knowledge of individual images which either coincide with a model or are in opposition to it (*ideal analyst – typical idler*).

George Lakoff (1987) developed the idea of a prototype as a representation of politician. According to him, there are four such prototypes: typical representatives, social stereotypes, ideals and models. The concept PHILISOPHER also runs into all these prototypes, each being verbalized in a different way. Thus, the prototype of a typical example and model are verbalized through philosophical anthroponyms. Social stereotypes and that of an ideal man are verbalized through expressive descriptions (either exalted or comic nominations) of philosophers: *excellent thinker/sofa philosopher, best of men/ least of wretches; Teacher of mankind/escapist; great humanist/egocentric, great philosopher and offensive bum.*

Special note should be taken, that negative judgments are usually addressed to individual philosophers, who generated public criticism due to some facts in their biographies, and not philosopher as professional per se. However, there is one allegedly critical definition of philosopher in the Urban Dictionary (1999-2017) written in humorous genre:

> The most dangerous sort of person. By means of intuition, thought, symbols, and words, a philosopher may build or destroy civilizations, all behind the scenes, unknown by those who end up using her ideas as everyday beliefs. The power of the philosopher, for good or ill, often lasts well beyond the grave, over centuries and millennia.

Though the authors of Urban Dictionary labeled philosopher "the most dangerous sort of person", the whole context is infused with lexicalized and textual markers of more complex implications: *power, powerful; may build or destroy civilizations; people live by their ideas etc.* Obviously the authors employ a combined stylistic device: the figure of contrast (*build - destroy, ideas – everyday beliefs, good -ill*), and semantic substitution of a pronoun *her* for *him* that is hardly made for the sake of gender correctness, rather to promote an ironical effect: nobody would argue the absolute domination of he-philosophers both in history and nowadays. The sort of power assigned here to philosopher – the power of ideas – has always been highly appreciated by society and is affiliated with the prototype of guru.

In philosophical literature we can also come across unique views on this profession formulated by individual authors in their own terms. For example, Benjamin S. Nelson, a Canadian philosopher (2012, Aug.,18), argues that:

> …there are four major kinds (of philosophers – I.M.): the 'introspective/autonomous' type, the 'programmatic' type, the 'critical/skeptic' type, and the 'syncretistic' type. These distinct philosophical profiles can be mutually antagonistic, and our inquiries would be more productive if the profession displayed a measure of tolerance for diversity in intellectual character.

As against our earlier illustrations collected from a multitude of texts (biographies of philosophers, comments to their maxims etc.), the latter and the like meta-occasionalisms, whatever promising for the semantic development of the word *philosopher* in future they may seem (in case they are recognized by the academic community and become a fact of fixation or debate), are not accounted in this study. I opted for the nominations which can be fixed in repeated communicative events depending on the established image philosophers have in each. Further, I will consider these events, and the participants of philosophical communication interacting under communicative situations of different types which roughly and in the most general way could be classified in the following table:

Communicative situation with its linguistic tools	**Addressor**	**Function/Image/ Symbol**	**Addressee**
(a) philosophizing on a problem of personal interest (metalanguage; common language) (metalanguage; common language)	philosopher	thinker/thinker/- thinker/thinker; layman/ search for Truth; empty business	philosopher himself (alter ego) the Other (another philosopher/ other philosophers
(b) philosophizing on a debatable problem/ participating in a professional debate (metalanguage) (metalanguage)	philosopher	Thinker/professional/ search for Truth; honor; empty business thinker/professional; layman/ search for Truth; empty business	the Other 1 (another philosopher/ other philosophers) the Other 2 (professional philosophical community)

(language for special purposes, language of science)		thinker/professional; methodologist; layman/ indispensability; uselessness	the Other 3 (professionals in arts or sciences)
(c) philosophizing on a topical social problem/ participating in a public debate (political philosophy language, common language) (common language, language of politics) (political philosophy language, language of politics)	philosopher	thinker/thinker; layman/ search for Truth; empty business; pragmatism; compromise thinker/professional/ professionalism; ideology; layman/teacher; leader; panacea; guru; prophet; weirdo; freak thinker/ideologist/ professionalism; usefulness	the Other 1 (professional philosophical community) the Other 2 (professionals in arts or sciences) the Other 3 (society) the Other 4 (power)
(d) philosophizing on a topical social problem in answer to the appeal from the power to substantiate or support its political course (political philosophy language) (common language, language of politics)	philosopher	thinker; political scientist/ ideologist; image-maker/ professionalism, ideology thinker; public figure/ guru, prophet/ideology; compromise; flunky	The Other 1 (power) The Other 2 (society)
(e) philosophizing on an acute problem of crucial importance for humankind (common language, language of philosophy)	philosopher	Thinker; public figure/ guru; prophet, weirdo/wisdom, truth; panacea; oddity; head in the clouds; comicality	The Other 5 (humanity)

Table 1.Types of communicative situations in philosophy and their participants

It can be inferred from the above data, that the frame PHILOSOPHER overlaps a number of relations between the sign in question and the phenomenon it signifies. Its lexicalization follows the multimode vision of philosopher by the Anglophone community, and falls into three major subcategories:

- Institutional designation (s/he who is a professional in philosophy – author, university professor, consultant)
- Existential designation (s/he who is devoted to wisdom, thinks about the truth, free to think her/his own way)
- Evaluative designation (guru, eccentric man)

Dictionaries of the English language have fixed mainly the first and second systematic categorical meanings of the word *philosopher*, though The Merriam -Webster Dictionary offers more:

1a : a person who seeks wisdom or enlightenment: SCHOLAR, THINKER

b: a student of philosophy

2a: a person whose philosophical perspective makes meeting trouble with equanimity easier

b: an expounder of a theory in a particular area of experience

c: one who philosophizes (philosopher.2017)

It is worth noting that professional dictionaries of philosophy do not have separate entries for *philosophe*r, its meaning being implicitly present in the entry "philosophy" as an agent of philosophizing. Judging by most of those definitions of what philosophy is, the implicit meanings that can be derived for *philosopher* are either institutional or existential in their character.

In networking and professional journals, PHILOSOPHER is exposed predominantly in an emotionally evaluative way. The exchange of views on the state of affairs in the philosophical profession is permeated with a feeling of dissatisfaction, frustration, and disillusion. Despite his/her mostly positive (in some cases – indispensable), in social terms, image, philosopher is a dying profession. It was sadly postulated at the end of a broad cognominal international Internet discussion in 2010 and is still echoed by blogger-philosophers and young people aspiring to take up major in philosophy.

Let's refer to Quora, a USA Website with 190 million monthly visitors in 2017, where people are engaged in dialogue on issues they are interested in. The format of discussion is giving answers to the questions initiated by other users. I picked up a number of dialogues groupthinking on PHILOSOPHER. The umbrella topic was initiated by such questions:

Is philosophy still a viable profession?

Can you still make career in philosophy?

Is there a philosophy of philosophy?

How good is to choose philosophy as profession?

Is the profession of philosophy dying? Why?
Is philosophy bad?
What is your philosophy of life today and why? (Is philosophy still a viable profession?, 2017, Ju.17)

(1) Tony Powes' *(philosophy major*) post in reply to "Is philosophy still a viable profession?" received 334 comments:

Socrates offered knowledge **for free**. In his day, there was a group of philosophers that would travel from town to town trying to **spread their idea of knowledge**… This group of people was known as the Sophists. Socrates believed **knowledge should be free**. After him, though, **knowledge** once again **became expensive**, the most obvious example being Philip II of Macedon hiring Aristotle to teach Alexander the Great. And that's really how philosophy works. "Philosophizing" isn't **a profession** anyone **will pay for**. There are really two major options if you don't want to leave the world of philosophy.

Option 1 - teach. This is a kind a risky one, because before you have tenure (assuming it's at a university level), you're pretty much at the mercy of the head of your department. If you butt heads to much, your job can be at risk. That being said, if you're in a **healthy environment that encourages free thought**, that's pretty much the ideal place.

Option 2 - write. This is where most philosophers make a name for themselves (see: every major philosopher except Socrates). By **making a name for yourself** writing, you can gain some fame to try to make speaking appointments and **spread your philosophy** farther and wider, similar to how Enlightenment philosophers **made their money**.

For the most part, though, **in the corporate world, a philosophy major is often seen as a business major**, but with a much harder curriculum.

Further, there are some abbreviated quotations from replies given in the succession they appear on the site.

(2) Chris B.Behrens, *studied at the University of Texas at Arlington:*
A good answer from Tony Powers below. I would offer a slightly different tack than what you probably expect.

Like Tony Powers said below, the philosophers were primarily teachers and writers, but that leads to the question of why people thought that their education tutelage and writing was **worth paying for**. In general, their work **allowed people to solve problems** - how to be more effective, and happier in life (or more properly balanced, if you're talking about the Stoics).

So, on the large scale here, you're talking about Deepak Chopra, Eckhart Tolle etc. In a more focused aspect, you're talking about David Allen (one of my favorites), or Tony Robbins (**again, no value judgments here**). On a local scale, you're talking about **professional coaches**, or perhaps **some forms of therapy**.

Personal soapbox - I think we have a lot of **junk-food philosophy that comes from wishful thinking and selling cornflakes**. I think, furthermore, that people try to **use philosophy to solve the problems** of theology, that is, confusing the question of "How can I become happier and more effective" with "How can I become a better person"?

(3) John Purcell, *author of "Mind, Matter and the Universe"*:
Obviously **it is possible** to study philosophy and eventually become a philosophy professor.

I would say that there are quite a lot of **philosophy millionaires (and a number of billionaires)** in the United States right now, but they generally refer and market themselves as "self-help". Whether or not their philosophies are *good philosophy* is a matter of opinion, but there it is…

Then there are people like Stefan Molyneux, who make a living out of being "**freelance philosophers**" (I'm not sure Molyneux is really best described as a philosopher, but he says he is and who's to say he isn't).

(4) Olezandr von Denman, *bachelor's degree in Philosophy, UC Santa Cruz,2007*:
Philosopher was never a profession - perhaps an Oracle in ancient Greece **could get paid**. Professors of Philosophy have been getting paid since universities have existed.

(5)Jason Trihn, *no personal information:*
My philosophy teacher said to everyone in class, if you're pursuing a degree in philosophy **the only profession available** (at least the majority) **is to become a professor and teach others philosophy**. It is a viable **profession** but a **limited and competitive one**.

(6) Batanavi Matuku, *it works:*
Philosophy has never been a profession; **it's a remedy that one partakes for their own reasons** and those around them. It's just like anything you've heard about.

We see, that the dialogue is kept in a neutral mode and within a humanistic set, with minds of participants open to perception of the information received and mostly “no value judgments”, as (2) Chris B.Behrens remarked. At the level of microstructures of the texts produce in this discourse, it is a non-controversial dialogue, where the participants exchange views and concerns, give arguments, articulate positions, and go into detail in a cooperative manner referring to each other remarks (*A good answer from Tony Powers below, Like Tony Powers said below, you’re talking about*). They do not apply any prevarication tactic, speak to the point and analyze pros and contras of the subject under consideration from various perspectives.

Even the names of Deepak Chopra, Eckhart Tolle, and David Allen (successful productive and management consultants and coachers), and Stefan Molyneux (a famous podcaster and YouTuber, who deliberates on topical political and philosophical matters), “*philosophy millionaires (and a number of billionaires*)” (2-3) involved in some problematic activities are mentioned just as facts of life in order to point to new opportunities of employment for graduates with philosophical background. This positive facet of philosophy profession (opportunity of making money out of philosophizing) is, however, balanced with expressions of disdainful implicature, showing personal attitude of some speakers introduced with “*I think*” and “*I would say*”-phrases (*personal soapbox, junk-food philosophy, wishful thinking and selling cornflakes, whether or not their philosophies are good philosophy is a matter of opinion etc.)(Ibid)*

In terms of macrostructure, the discussion has two topics. The first one is informative that is concerned with giving information on the state-of–the-art professional opportunities for philosophers. The second topic is unfolded, mostly indirectly, though words and expression implicating values. Actually, the discussion is running around a traditional ethical dilemma: a moral option between mission and money: *offered knowledge for free; knowledge should be free; Why people thought that their education tutelage and writing was worth paying for? could get paid; it’s a remedy that one partakes for their own reasons etc.(1-6)*

None of the participants impose their opinion as directives; on contrary, they are involved in a reflective analysis, their arguments being formulated, entail new questions to themselves and the others. This indicates the rhetoric tactic of hesitation and readiness to discuss the matter further.

Such objective discussion, well-grounded and illustrated with either personal or historical experience and free from manipulation, allows inferring some conclusions on the concept PHILOSOPHER developed by the professional community: a student of philosophy who, as professional can be successful in society, but often sacrifices economic well-being for ethical principles and individual independence. Such is the choice "*the corporate world*" (1) offers to philosopher.

Corpora data bring more clarity about the place of philosopher in modern society and provide some objective proofs that the analogues tendencies of an image downshift still permeate public opinion.

Let's consider three illustrations from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davies, 2008–2012). In Table 2 we see that the word *philosopher* is in use in all available contexts, though figures of frequency are not very impressive: 3051 tokens per one ml. words from 1990 to 2012:

Context	All	Spo-ken	Fic-tion	Maga-zine	News paper	Acade-mic	1990 - 1994	1995 - 1999	2000 - 2004	2005 - 2009	2010 - 2012
Philoso-pher	3051	215	427	629	316	1464	738	820	713	569	211

Table 2.

The next table shows a generally negative tendency in the usage of the word *philosopher* in 1990-2004 followed by a dramatic decline since 2005 up to now: from 6.93 to 4.06 per one ml. words. This is how the English language discourse responded to the loss by philosophers their formerly high social status.

Section	All	Spo-ken	Fic-tion	Maga-zine	News paper	Acade-mic	1990 - 1994	1995 - 1999	2000 - 2004	2005 - 2009	2010 - 2012
Freq	3051	215	427	629	316	1464	738	820	713	569	211
Per mill	6.57	2.25	4.72	6.58	3.45	16.08	7.10	7.93	6.93	5.58	4.06

Table 3.

Table 3 and picture 1 allow checking the use of lexeme *philosopher* in academic discourse. It has been also negative in absolute figures since 1995-1999, with a small rise in 2015-2017. An explanation can be a dramatic rise of applied disciplines at the turn of 20th-21st centuries and, consequently, the loss of public attention to abstract speculations of some would-be value, though academic communities do not stop paying efforts to smooth those tendencies by promoting the idea of the importance of philosophical education for anyone wishing to make a successful carrier in any field:

SECTION (CLICK FOR SUB-SECTIONS) (SEE ALL SECTIONS AT ONCE	FREQ	SIZE (M)	PER MIL	CLICK FOR CONTEXT (SEE ALL)
SPOKEN	0	116.7	0.00	
FICTION	0	111.8	0.00	
MAGAZINE	0	117.4	0.00	
NEWSPAPER	0	113.0	0.00	
ACADEMIC	1,724	111.4	15.47	
1990-1994	330	104.0	3.17	
1995-1999	461	103.4	4.46	
2000-2004	359	102.9	3.49	
2005-2009	231	102.0	2.26	
2010-2014	162	102.9	1.57	
2015-2017	181	62.3	2.90	
TOTAL	**1,724**			SEE ALL TOKENS

Picture 3.

Some conclusion on little interest the present-day society take in the figure of philosopher can be drawn from concordance lines (Davies, 2008–2012, Dec.,18). From the fragments of 775 n-grams collection based on popular newspapers and magazines (Table 2), and an academic peer-reviewed magazine "Philosophy Today" (Table 3) given below we can learn that both in professional philosophy and popular press the most frequent right and left contexts for the target lexeme *philosopher* are: proper names (family name, name of a school of thought or doctrine, indicating nationality); existential verbs (*is, was*); verbs to express reflection (*thought, believed, argue etc.*); indicators of historical time (*from ...proper name/noun phrases, adjectives of time, adverbial modifiers of time, numerals*); evaluative adjectives (*famous, renowned);* phrases of reference and quotation (*says, said, as…said, in the words of, according to*).

1	2017	MAG	Phys.Org	A	B	C	barriers can effectively dampen all of these various... # Even in ancient Greece, philosopher Aristotle tried to sum up all the ways that water can behave. Now,
2	2017	MAG	Hollywood Reporter	A	B	C	ardent supporter and strategist and is often seen as the royal family's planner and philosopher. # Eme Ikwuakor (Concussion) as GorgonGorgon is the cousin of Black Bolt
3	2017	MAG	RollingStone.com	A	B	C	of the Saints, a racist French novel from the Seventies and the anti-semitic French philosopher Charles Maurras, who was sentenced to life in prison for cooperating with Nazis during
4	2017	MAG	The Atlantic	A	B	C	have any evidence for the allegation that Obama surveilled him? # As the noted philosopher Idina Menzel has elucidated, it's sometimes best to simply let things go.
5	2017	MAG	TechCrunch	A	B	C	an enabler to new forms of social and political engagement. # Psychedelic orator and philosopher Terence McKenna said it well: « Most people think it's far out if
6	2017	MAG	Salon	A	B	C	of us. # To really appreciate what I'm talking about, consider what philosopher Brian Keeley wrote in a 1999 paper, « Of Conspiracy Theories. « The
7	2017	MAG	The Atlantic	A	B	C	only in high school essays that introduce their insights with those gleaned from the great philosopher Merriam-Webster, but also in the self-help genre, and in academia, and in
8	2017	MAG	Daily Beast	A	B	C	one of its best-selling and prominent figures who also operates as a sort of internal philosopher. In the mid-2000s, his Mistborn trilogy put him on the map. In
9	2017	MAG	Nerdist	A	B	C	fancy term for « science wizard cops «) and discover the location of the Philosopher's Stone, a legendary artifact that may help them in their quest. In
10	2017	MAG	Medical Xpress	A	B	C	confusion,' « says lead author Shari Liu, referring to a description by philosopher and psychologist William James about a baby's first experience of the world. «
11	2017	NEWS	ColoradoSprings Gazette	A	B	C	Park's impeachment to the « unjust « deaths of Jesus Christ and ancient Greek philosopher Socrates. # Your browser does not support IFrame Embeds, please update your browser
12	2017	NEWS	NY Times	A	B	C	etchings and paintings. Her pieces include a display about Simone Weil, the French philosopher and activist, that is on loan from the Peace Gallery at the Anti-War Museum
13	2017	NEWS	NY Times	A	B	C	4182355 Philosopher Susan Neiman: « The president of our country is evil « Author of
14	2017	NEWS	Chicago Sun-Times	A	B	C	worlds. « That is the mantra expounded by Dr. Pangloss, the irrepressibly optimistic philosopher at the center of « Candide « -- the Leonard Bernstein musical inspired by the
15	2017	NEWS	Chicago Sun-Times	A	B	C	Leonard Bernstein musical inspired by the work of Voltaire, the 18th century French Enlightenment philosopher whose razor-sharp wit and biting irony feel freshly minted. # To be sure,

Table 4. Concordance lines for *philosopher* based on popular newspapers and magazines

64	2017	ACAD	Philosophy Today (PhT)	A	B	C	thought. For a long time, Simondon was first and foremost perceived as a philosopher of technology. While his Du mode d'existence des objets techniques (On the mode
65	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	few who discerned the wide-ranging implications of Simondon's thinking at large there was another philosopher, who drew significantly on his ontology of difference: Gilles Deleuze. # Simondon was
66	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	. # How to disentangle the nexus between Simondon and Deleuze, and give each philosopher credit for his own singularity? Whereas Simondon and Deleuze both reject the opposition between
67	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	of invention is the influence of Georges Canguilhem. # Georges Canguilhem, the epistemologist and philosopher of biology who happened to be also on Simodon's thesis committee, had developed
68	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	Simondon's heritage seriously, and also sees much more in him than either a philosopher restricted to the issue of technology or to a' dark precursor' to Deleuze
69	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	of pets, or the so-called superior animals. # Thus, according to the philosopher, if, on the one hand, it is impossible to face such a
70	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	the human being, connect the thinking being to the bodily-vital being. The German philosopher hence tries to definitely destroy-by removing the idea of a kinship, albeit remote,
71	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	of the subtraction or privation of such an animal background from the human that the philosopher can clearly mark the anticontinuistic breaking point between the human's and the animal's
72	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	sees at work the remainder of a humanist and metaphysical anthropocentrism in which the German philosopher would have unwillingly remained stuck as a result of the primacy he attributed to the
88	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	Examining this historical relation also (1) establishes Canguilhem's international importance as a philosopher because of his role in the 1953 UNESCO report on The Teaching of Philosophy;
89	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	Architectonic, " A838/B866; quoted in UNESCO 1953:17 # Nel Noddings, the well-known philosopher of education and proponent of care ethics, worries that Foucault's approach to education
90	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	said or written about how to philosophize or think, I will consider how one philosopher endeavored to develop and transform methods and ideas found in another. I respond to
91	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	philosophy, framing these as critical continuations of Georges Canguilhem's own work as a philosopher concerned with education. # Such an endeavor is authorized by Foucault's own late
92	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	about Canguilhem, that, for instance, he was a historian more than a philosopher or that his sole area of interest was medicine and the life sciences. His
93	2017	ACAD	PhT	A	B	C	want to make clear in this paper, though, is that Canguilhem was a philosopher of international repute at least as early as 1952. And this was not solely

Table 5.Concordance lines for *philosopher* based on"Philosophy Today"

The above tables with concordance lines show that philosopher as a concept is not under discussion both in popular and academic texts. This word is mainly used in respect with quotations or in historical references. That is, the authors resort to the authority of an individual thinker, while philosopher as collective image of a thinker has not become a subject of examination.

A bright illustration for how philosopher is viewed to-day has been offered by the addressor-oriented website of the Kentucky University, College of Arts and Sciences, Philosophy Department. Analyzing this educational advertising item under the title "Where Can Philosophy Take Me?"(n.d.), we see that its authors avoid direct mentioning the profession of philosopher per se, for they understand it is out of the public focus. In order to attract would-be students, they emphasize great power of philosophical education in self-development, cultivation of intellectual abilities, and mastering skills enabling graduates to find one of the sought-after professions:

What skills does studying philosophy develop?

- *generate ideas on a variety of problems*
- *formulate and solve problems*
- *uncover assumptions and suggest alternatives*
- *ability to distinguish subtle differences without overlooking similarities*
- *analyze, develop and formulate logical arguments*
- *capability to make knowledgeable decisions, examining thoroughly the consequences of various actions*
- *aptitude to examine various angles of topics*
- *ability to write and speak clearly and effectively*
- *interpret and assess various thoughts and theories*

In outlining career opportunities for students due to obtaining "*transferable work skill*", the authors mention 8 occupational fields among which philosophy itself is absent, it being implied that professionally philosophy can be practiced only in low-paid educational area (see below: *professor* and *teacher*):

Career Opportunities

Philosophy majors successfully work in, but are not limited to the following occupational fields:

- *lawyer*
- *banker*
- *public relations director*
- *publisher*
- *journalist*
- *retail management*

- *librarian*
- *counselor*
- *marketing*
- *consulting*
- *research*
- *accountant*
- *social worker*
- *professor*
- *self-employed*
- *labor relations*
- *foreign service officer*
- *public policy*
- *non-profit work*
- *minister*
- *teacher*

It can be seen, that positions are presented according to their social weight and financial status, not in an alphabetic order. On the top there are lawyer, banker and public relations director; at the bottom – minister and teacher. Professor is among less wanted occupations, though it precedes the self-employed position.

Moreover, the add employs manipulation in its attempt to create a positive image of philosophical education referring to a long list of successful individuals with such background, among which are important businessmen, judges, lawyers, film-makers and even a Prime-Minister and a Pope:

What can you do with a philosophy degree? You can become...

- *President of Morgan Stanley (Robert Greenhill)*
- *Founder and Manager of a Hedge-fund (Don Brownstein)*
- *Investor (George Soros)*
- *CEO of Overstock.com (Patrick Byrne)*
- *Supreme Court Justice (Stephen Breyer AND David Souter)*
- *Mayor of Los Angeles (Richard Riordan)*
- *US Secretary of Education (William Bennett)*
- *Prime Minister of Canada (Paul Martin, Jr.)*
- *Network Television Journalist (Stone Phillips)*
- *Pulitzer-Prize Winning Author (Studs Terkel)*
- *Host of an Iconic Game Show (Alex Trebek)*
- *Co-founder of Wikipedia (Larry Sanger)*
- *Comedian/Actor/Producer (Ricky Gervais)*
- *Academy-Award Winning Filmmaker (Ethan Coen)*
- *Four-star General in the US Army (Jack Keane)*
- *Fighter in the French Resistance in WWII (Stephane Hessel)*
- *Co-author of the UN's Universal Declaration of Human Rights (P.C. Chang*

AND Charles Malik)

- *Martyr to German Opposition to Nazism in WWII (Sophie Scholl)*
- *Pope (John Paul II AND Benedict XVI)*
- *Seminal Anthropologist (Claude Levi-Strauss)*

In last decade, quality American press came out with a number of publications advocating philosophical education. Whatever the reasons for companying for philosophical education were (either these were the orders from universities, advertising themselves; or an invitation from employers, aiming at requiting more qualified personnel in their awareness of the lack of fundamental ideas and their practical value; or, hardly, it was enthusiastically launched by some intellectuals actuated by the illumining mission), exemplify the similar marketing strategies of manipulation like we witness in the above given adds. The very titles of these articles – "I think, therefore I earn" in The Guardian (Shepherd, 2007, Nov.20); "Philosophy is back in business" in Bloomberg Business Week; "Study of philosophy makes gains despite economy" in Philadelphia Inquirer (Baker, 2011, Dec.15) and others aggressively promote philosopher as a top-quality intellectual product (labor), thus forming a new communicative area for philosophical ideas. Following the lines of Presentation Theory of Discourse (Olianich, 2007, pp. 211-220), we can infer that the representamen *philosopher* is presented in the out-of-philosophy contexts of success, business, well-paid jobs, and high social status that does not correspond to traditional relations between the rheme and the dicent of philosopher as a sign.

Hardly the campaign for philosophy have achieved much in making public at large more sensitive to the lack of fundamental ideas and recognizing philosophers as their transmitters. At least, dictionaries have not yet fixed these newly evolving connotations of practicality and success. Professional philosophy communities, on contrary, remain concerned about their relevance in society.

Tim Dean, PhD in philosophy, an award winning philosophy and science author, and launcher of a pioneery media-project "Philosophy news" is also concerned with the low social status of philosophers and their shrinking career opportunities. In his blog he tries to reconsider the importance of philosophy in the present-day society:

Yet, if philosophy has **a practical value (and I feel strongly it <u>has many</u>**), it is as a force for clarity. Philosophy can carve the world into thinkable chunks, it **can clarify concepts, highlight assumptions and presuppositions that lurk beneath our notice**, and tease out sloppy thinking where it taints our reasoning.

In a world informed by popular media brimming with partisan pundits and professional opinionators, **philosopher can offer a breath of reason** that can bring genuine progress to stalled debates. (2015, Jul.)

The author tries to persuade the society in the necessity to listen to philosophers in strong "intellectually emotional" language of metaphors and pathos, and it only confirms the unfavorable situation with philosophy today.

The discussion "Why and How of the Unemployed Philosophers Guild (2017, Nov.8) on the Unemployed Philosophers Guild website (USA) shows that either employed or not, graduates from philosophy departments claim their disillusions for they fail to practice their profession. Their stance are best reiterated by B. Susnack from Australia in her essay "The Truth About Majoring in a 'Dying' Field", "… the numbers suggest that there's just no place for these [philosophy – I.M.] careers in the modern, working world" (2015, Jun.22).

Conclusion

The analysis of the dictionaries and textual samples provided in this article draws to a conclusion that in the English language the concept PHILOSOPHER is rather richly lexicalized with nouns, adjectives, verbs and phrases (up to 50 units fixed in dictionaries), the nuclear slots being represented by neutral lexemes, peripheral – by expressive ones. This structured linguistic diversity leads to the point that the concept has been well-established in public consciousness and has its rightful place in the national picture of the world.

In the Anglosphere, PHILOSOPHER is a sign of an ambiguous, at least, ambivalent image. On the one hand, society coded him/her as extraordinary personality, whether positive of negative, the gradation being represented mostly in contexts, though by means of direct lexicalization as well. On the other hand, in the British and American societies there is a widespread conviction, that due to their unique intellectual abilities and ultimate skills, philosophers are able to realize in full outside of the field of philosophy itself due to little practical value of "love of wisdom". In public view, philosopher remains to be a key agent (actor) in translation of ideas, political and cultural and public communication, though his/her message can easily be neglected and discarded by many. Social outcomes of such attitude can be justified by many language facts nominating and describing philosopher as a profession. The paradox can be formulated like that: philosophers are highly wanted as top intellectuals, while they are unwanted as professional philosophers due to a long-rooted stereotype of philosophy as an isolated from the real life activity. It is this understanding that dominates to-day in general (non-scholarly) discourse on philosophy. Professional discourse of philosophers show that they are aware of and devoted to their mission of transmitting knowledge and ideas, though are trying to substantiate the practical value of their profession too.

Thus, in the sphere of philosophy, the English language as a system is still oriented at fixating ontological facts of mind and social life, while the language in use testifies to a substantial cognitive shift in public consciousness reflected in the Anglosphere. Conational metamorphosis of PHILOSOPHER correlates with the latest tendencies in the cultural evolution of the Anglophone world to be directed by the ideas of Pragmatism.

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Elizaveta Snegireva

BREXIT AND ITS POTENTIAL AFTERMATH: LINGUISTIC ANALYSIS

This article attempts at discussing some repercussions of Brexit and their diverse formats. Naturally, the linguistic aspect of Brexit is the topic of utmost importance and concern for language professionals, most prominently - interpreters and translators. The future of English in Europe (in particular, in European institutions) is discussed, and some prospects for Euro-English are outlined in brief.

Key words: official (EU) language, Euro-English, global English, Brexit, European institutions

"Minister, Britain has had the same foreign policy objective for at least the last five hundred years: to create a disunited Europe. In that cause we have fought with the Dutch against the Spanish, with the Germans against the French, with the French and Italians against the Germans, and with the French against the Germans and Italians. Divide and rule, you see. Why should we change now, when it's worked so well? We had to break the whole thing up, so we had to get inside. We tried to break it up from the outside, but that wouldn't work."

Yes, Minister, 1980

When even preliminary Brexit results were announced, there was talk that the 1980s sitcom "Yes, Minister" has predicted this after all. Even now, a little over one year after the referendum, Brexit continues to attract attention of politicians, economists, analysts, linguists and general public interested in European and global affairs. To take a wild stab in the dark, repercussions of Brexit are expected to be rather diverse, and may ensue as the ones of social, economic, political, legal, and linguistic importance.

Obviously, no matter what their character, the results of Britain exiting the EU are interlinked in the most complicated way, and affect not only virtually each and every citizen of the EU, but perhaps the whole world.

Linguistic outcome of Brexit may influence availability of and access to (open/public) data of various sorts, and facilitate or indeed impede transparency and accountability of the EU institutions. But most intriguing is that in terms of linguistics, Brexit may hit hard the English language itself, undermining its global status (at least in Europe).

Economic (or socio-economic) results may potentially change efficiency of administrative services provisioning in/ by the EU and lead to cost-saving (cutting down the numbers of professional (in-house and free-lance) linguists offering T&I services in English). This way, economic and linguistic results intertwine.

Also, mobility of labour force within the EU may change in terms of numbers of hired workers or self-employed individuals, economic sectors with greater/lesser (un)employment, countries or regions in Europe profiting or losing as the result of English being banished from the official use.

Politically, Brexit may mean that the UK (and London) lose the status of one of the world's most influential financial centres. This, in a way, may be comparable to the fall of an Empire.

We would like to present an attempt to draw a linguistic perspective of what Brexit may bring about with it.

Some Baseline Information

At its early stages back in 1951, the European Coal and Steel Community (later known as the European Economic Community (EEC), and currently the European Union (EU) used four languages for the purposes of international communication amongst its members – French, German, Italian, and Dutch. The French language was dominant in all European institutes and agencies until 1990s, when Sweden and Finland, joining the EU, chose English as their preferred language for international communication, and thus tipped the balance of linguistic preferences in the EC to the benefit of English. This was the starting point for the ever growing influence of English, as it was later chosen as the working (floor) language by the Central and Eastern European countries joining the bloc.

Even though today there are 24 official languages in the EU, some European institutes and agencies continue to employ only some selected official (floor) languages. The choice of languages reflects, to an extent, affinities of each country in the EU, as well as practical aspects and traditions.

For example, the European Commission has three official working languages: French, German, and English. French remains the first language of the EU Court of Justice, whereas the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg employs both French and English.

There are other examples of linguistic "attachment". Despite the fact that Great Britain never adopted the Euro as its currency unit and continued to enjoy its monetary independence the European Central Bank admitted English as its sole communication mode from the very start of its operation. Naturally, this does not mean entertaining financial hubris or business reputation of London as the financial capital of Europe. Rather, this is a well-calculated step to ensure effective communication in delicate financial matters and avoid unnecessary complications emerging through the use of multiple communication channels.

As mentioned, today there are 24 "official and working" (floor) languages in the EU to translate all documents and legal papers, and to interpret discussions in the European Parliament.

All EU citizens enjoy the right to access any EU document in any of the EU languages. Official language policy of the EU aims to facilitate mobility and understanding among peoples and cultures, and to this purpose, funds multiple programmes and projects so that each European citizen can master at least one foreign language. Therefore, multilingual European landscape is one of the factors to enhance Europe's competitiveness.

EU linguistic diversity results from the right of each member-state to choose one language to communicate in the EU capital and the EU institutes and agencie. English is the language for communication in Europe and an official language in three EU member-states. In line with the EU registration mechanism it was only Britain that has selected English as its working (floor) language.

EU operational structure is rather convoluted and vague language-wise across all the EU institutes and agencies, and it is impossible to rely on one criterion solely to cancel or retain any country's membership in the community. Official language of any member-state does not automatically mean that this language becomes an "official" (floor) EU language. Languages of member-states become "official" following an application of a member-state. In case a country exits the EU, its language may lose its "official EU language" status (Special Eurobarometer 386, 2012).

This means that English, the second world language and the major working language of all EU institutes and agencies, may cease being one of the official EU languages the very moment Britain (officially) exits the Community.

Statistics in Brief

As it has already been mentioned, the EU language policy provides all citizens of the Community with the right of free access to all EU official documents in any of the EU official languages. The EU institutes and agencies employ around 2,500 in-house expert linguists, some 600 administrative and technical experts, and almost 3,000 free-lance conference interpreters. As of now, English is the language of the majority of business transactions, followed by French and German. English dominates both in oral and written form (interpretation and translation), whereas numbers of documents disseminated in French or German have fallen by almost 10% (Lynn, 2016).

According to "Special EuroBarometer 386: Europeans and Their Languages" study (Special Eurobarometer 386, 2012), almost 38% non-native English speakers have sufficient language proficiency to engage in daily routine communication, and only 12 and 11 % respectively demonstrate the same proficiency to communicate in French or German. Moveover, some 67% of EU citizens name English as the most useful foreign language (FL) and an essential tool needed for competitive advantage in modern world (Doughty, 2013).

Eurostat annual reports repeatedly confirm importance of English as a FL for the European able-bodied population strata aged 25 to 64 (Eurostat, 2011-2017).

The ratio between English SFL (second FL) speakers and English native speakers is roughly 2:1, reflecting the state of affairs both in Europe and worldwide (Britain, Thurlow, 2016; Lynn, 2016; Betts, 2016). So, potentially, with or without Britain in the EU the English language remains *lingua franca* for some foreseeable future at least.

Euro-English: pros and cons

Official standing towards all languages of the EU bloc is that of equality. Alison Graves, Head of Unit for Interpreter Training and Contacts with Universities, DG Interpretation and Conferences, European Parliament, confesses that all languages are equal, but some are "more equal", and English is used far more often in EU institutes and agencies than German or French (DGINTE, 2013). Non-English speakers often prefer to use English rather than their native languages in the hope to be better understood or simply be taken more seriously by their interlocutors and colleagues. This is true not only of European Parliament, or European Commission, or indeed any other EU institution or agency. This is true for any non-English speaking country, whose officials and common citizens want be heard by the entire modern world.

This is also the case of this country when officials from the Cabinet of Ministers, or the Presidential Administration, or indeed any other official organization use English to address European and international donors at all sorts of conferences, round tables, workshops, etc. Naturally, this does not mean that interpreters are not called for. Very often, though, interpreters have to engage in the so-called "whispering" interpretation, rather than work in the consecutive mode, to assist those participants in a meeting who are courageous enough to own that they do not understand the language.

On the one hand, this situation:

- Contributes to increased numbers of non-native English speakers, thus multiplying the overall numbers of those who use English as *lingua franca*, and further reinforcing its status of the leading global language;
- Saves time in rendering information and facilitates communication. The latter statement, though, may be seen as a caveat. Very often non-native speakers of English say *only* what they *can* say in English, rather than *what* they actually *mean* or *want* to say. Apart from complicating the job of professional interpreters, such speeches and presentations take more time, and from the structural point of view – become more cumbersome compared to professional interpreter delivery.

This state of affairs gradually leads to formation of the so-called "Euro-English": non-idiomatic, straightforward in its simplicity, and grammatically incorrect lingo (DGINTE, 2013; Walker, 2010).

It is indeed sad that what we eye-witness today is the rise of devalued, degraded, and impaired form of Euro-English replacing the literary normative of the language. This grievous observation lay at the heart of a discussion held at a CIUTI forum in Geneva this January. Alison Graves and Daniel Pashley (both professional interpreters to EU institutes) offered their views on why English is more and more often used by non-native speakers.

They argue that from the pragmatic perspective, non-English speakers very often want to be seen as virtuoso-multilinguists to "gain points" to improve their political standing, or brag about their education. Better still, they may be driven by the highly commendable common courtesy and the willingness to answer a question in the same language. Or, perhaps, sticking to English means their affiliation to a certain group. At any rate, no matter what are the reasons for non-native speakers choosing English to communicate, interpreter job becomes more difficult: if a speaker's proficiency in English leaves much to be desired, the interpreters must understand (decipher, sometimes) the real intention first. This means that interpreters have to think and process information at even faster rates than in a "regular" conference interpreting mode not to lose precious time.

As professional conference interpreters, Alison Graves and Daniel Pashley agree that when speakers choose their native languages to address audiences, they express their communicative intentions much better and say what they really mean. Since using native languages is much more natural for any speaker, interpreting native speech is always a real pleasure for any professional.

Implications, Reverberations, Repercussions

In case English loses its current status, the British will have to translate all official EU documents as all other EU member-states. As the same time, English is one of three languages to translate EU patents. This fact, naturally, gives preference to English speaking researchers and companies.

There are many issues that the EU stands disunited in, and linguistic preferences is one of them. The European Commission, for one, expects English to remain the main language for daily routine communication of European officials.

Surprisingly, it is not only English that is under pressure in the EU now. Concern is growing about the future of many other EU official languages from the economic or, more precisely, savings point of view. Net expenditures to translate and circulate documents and papers, and to cover conference interpretation costs of speeches, discussions, etc, increase annually. A large number of critics of the EU multilingualism claim that the current annual spending of about J1 billion to ensure translation and interpretation (T&I) services must rather be funneled to other purposes.

Sometime before the Brexit results were announced, the EU has already been hit by a budget crisis. The solution emerged almost immediately and was speedily adopted in the new long-term EU budget approved by all member-countries. Within the next five years, it is necessary to downsize some 10% of in-house full-time translators. Inadvertently, Brexit serves the purpose of improving the EU budget.

Still, this is not the sole bad news for professional translators. An online machine translation service (MT@EC) provided by the European Commission is up and running already. This software uses all the bureaucratic jargon and professional lexicon used by the EU institutions and agencies in Brussels and Strasbourg, and offers a raw automatic translation of a text. Until 2020, it is expected to be free of charge, and currently this tool is available to anyone in the public administration, institution or agency of an EU country, Norway, and Iceland (MT@EC, 2016).

So far, even with MT@EC assistance, users only end up with a gist of a text. To get a high-quality and accurate translation, readers still require text revision and editing by a professional human translator.

Conference or simultaneous interpreting is also getting gradually affected by artificial intelligence (AI). As of today, AI appears in the form of applications capable of deciphering a message in one language, interpreting and synthesizing it into another, and providing captions. To get ready for a demanding task of simultaneous interpreting at conferences with an infinite number of specific terminology, interpreters must prepare in advance. To save time and ensure the best possible performance, interpreters use electronic corpora to find and extract special terminology, concepts, etc. It is perhaps too early to say that there already exist some all-user-friendly disposable web corpora or term extraction tools to serve the interpreter needs. Naturally, self-learning software is our next-door neighbor, still, at this stage, even its designers admit that it still lacks a certain "human touch": intuition, ability to take hints and understand intonation subtleties, and the sense of humour.

To conclude

It is impossible to say exactly what particular effects of Brexit come true in the nearest future and the mid-term. Guessing game is time-consuming and utterly unnecessary. We live not only in the time of change, but in the time of (digital) information as well. English is one of the languages of information society, existing in all currently known forms (oral, written, and digital), and as such is likely to retain its *lingua franca* status for many years to come. The best thing its users – both native and non-native – can do is keep their English clear and precise, jargon-free, and coherent.

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Yaroslava Bedrych

METAPHORS OF INCLUSIVE SEMANTICS IN THE LANGUAGE OF SCIENCE

Scientific discourse is viewed as a specific object of linguistic analysis in light of cognitive-discursive paradigm. Categories are integral parts of scientific discourse, yet there is no full list of such categories. Insufficient studies of the category of inclusiveness, as one of the categories that has not come under linguistic scrutiny, specifically, in modern English scientific discourse, call for investigating this category and its elements. The paper deals with the analysis of the metaphors of inclusive semantics to convey the category of inclusiveness. Empirical material of our study involves Anglo-American articles in the field of information and communication technologies, as this research domain deals with the latest cutting-edge technologies that influence virtually all spheres of human life due to the potential of such technologies to dramatically reshape information society in the age of digital revolution. We have outlined the following types of inclusive metaphors in the language of science: the metaphor of CONTAINER that is expressed through a bunch of linguistic devices (nouns: container, envelope, family, house; verbs: to house, to wrap up); the metaphor of CIRCLE (nouns: circle; verbs: to circle, compass, to compass, to encircle, to enclose, to surround, set phrase: to range from…to); and the metaphor of CONTENTS. The obtained results have shown that the metaphor of CONTAINER is the most frequently used one.

Keywords: scientific discourse, language categories, information and communication technologies, inclusiveness, metaphor, container, circle, contents.

Introduction. Perhaps one of the best accounts of the enormity and vastness of the language of science is the one by professor Steven Darian (2003): "The language of science…is an enormous undertaking, with a nearly endless variety of audiences and participants, purposes, and degrees of complexity. A work encompassing this would be a lifetime's task…all we can do within that universe of discourse is to catch glimpses of our topics." (p. ix-xi). Our topic of interest within the realm of scientific discourse is the study of **the category of inclusiveness**, and the ways it could be conveyed in the English language of science.

Why study language categories? First and foremost, they help us to understand the world better (Smith, 1981). As such, they help us to provide some sort of classification that lies behind the workings of the mind. Language categories have been studied by many researchers (O. Jespersen (1958), G. Paul (1960), E. Benveniste (1974), I. Meschaninov (1981), W. Chafe (1975), G. Lakoff, M. Johnson (1980), O. Bondarko (1976), V. Akulenko (1990), S. Shvachko

(1981), S. Katsnelson (2001), O. Ilchenko (2002), O. Shalya (2011), to name a few. But when we talk about categories and metaphors, it is the name of George Lakoff that first comes to mind. In his seminal works, the now-classic "Women, Fire, and Dangerous Things. What Categories Reveal about the Mind" (1987) and "Metaphors We Live By" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), he changed our understanding of metaphor and cognition. George Lakoff and Mark Johnson have redefined the term metaphor. They argue that human thought processes are largely metaphorical, and that the human conceptual system is metaphorically structured and defined. Metaphor is no longer a way of expression, but also a way of conceptualization. The term metaphor has come to mean "a cross-domain mapping in the conceptual system" (Ibid). Hence in the contemporary paradigm, metaphor is studied as the system of human conceptualization, operating deep in human thought and cognition. The **novelty** of our research is to determine the main metaphors that render inclusiveness in modern Anglo-American scientific discourse.

The **object** of our investigation is the study of the category of inclusiveness as one of the main categories of modern English scientific discourse because of its universal nature to all scientific endeavors. According to Greenberg (1978), the category of inclusiveness, as well as the category of quantity and the category of person are linguistic universals that can vary in certain languages as they obtain different embodiment in different languages (p. 178). Yet, few attempts have ever been made to consider inclusiveness in the language of science thus far. As a cognitive category, inclusiveness has been studied in psycholinguistics as a way of structuring and understanding the cognition and as a way of mental processing of the new information. Marc H. Bornstein and Martha E. Arterberry (2010) put an emphasis on different aspects of categorization such as specific character of information processing and structuring (p. 352). Their approach deals with hierarchical inclusiveness and taxonomic organization (Collins, 1969; Murphy, 2002). Also, it has been found out that the category of hierarchical inclusiveness presents different levels of reality (Berlin, 1992). The category of inclusiveness has been addressed in professor Svitlana Zhabotynska's paper (2013) in the context of inclusiveness-possessiveness. She described the methodology developed for conceptual analysis of linguistic meanings (semantics of lingual networks) and outlined five basic frames. One of them is a possessive frame that can be divided into possessive schemes of partitiveness, inclusiveness and possession. She argues that a part always belongs to a whole (partitive scheme); content (as independent part) can be whether inside container or outside container (scheme of inclusiveness) (pp. 47-76). On the other hand, a group of US researchers - K. Frels, Anthony J. Onwuegbuzie, John R. Slate (2010) have conducted the study of verbs typology in scientific writings. They argue that the verbs are the most important way of communication because a reader can understand the sentence only if a writer uses correct verb (p. xx). The researchers classify the verbs into four main groups, namely, statement verbs, cognition verbs, knowledge verbs, action verbs. Group of verbs that express statement includes implicit, explicit and inclusive verbs. The latter is used for description of connection among the elements of a whole (Ibid., p. xxiii). Another evidence of the importance of inclusiveness is corpora research. Corpus linguistics studies reveal that the verbs of inclusive semantics such as "to group," "to system," "to include," "to involve" are among the most frequently used words in 120 billion words COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) Academic vocabulary lists of English (Davies, 2012). However, previous studies haven't addressed the category of inclusiveness as a specific category in modern scientific discourse. Moreover, there is no definition of inclusiveness per se, so we suggest our own take on it: if one thing (part) is the element of other thing (whole), is included in other thing (whole), if one element (part) is grouped with other elements (parts) to form a bigger thing (whole); or if one thing (whole) is composed of a number of smaller things (parts), then such interrelation is called inclusiveness. In our previous research, we have already defined several explicit, implicit, as well as non-verbal ways of expressing inclusiveness in the language of science (Bedrych, 2014). In this paper we address the basic metaphors of inclusive semantics in scientific discourse, hence **the subject** of our study.

Methods. To do our research, we used the language material selected from Anglo-American articles in the field of information and communication technologies, such as Telecommunications Policy (TP) (2013-2014), Journal of Telecommunications System & Management (JTSM) (2013-2014), The International Journal on Advances in Internet Technology (IJAIT) (2010-2015), The International Journal on Advances in Systems and Measurements (IJASM) (2010-2015), The International Journal on Advances in Telecommunications (IJAT) (2010-2015), The International Journal on Advances in Intelligent Systems (IJAIS) (2010-2014), The International Journal on Advances in Networks and Services (IJANS) (2010-2015), IEEE Communications Magazine (CM) (2008-2014). Overall number of such articles is 1686, or about 8 billion words. The first stage of our research was to define the main lexical units of inclusive semantics that are used as metaphors. The second stage was to study their semantic and lexical features and functions in the articles. Next, we grouped the metaphors into bigger groups according to their lexical meanings. Finally, we counted the absolute numbers of metaphors in the articles and then used quantitative method to count the percentage of the metaphors employed.

Results. For easier comprehension of obtained results, we presented them in tables.

Table 1

Metaphors in the articles

№	Metaphors	Absolute number of metaphors
1.	surround	438
2.	container	432
3.	house *(noun)*	359
4.	circle *(noun)*	337
5.	envelope	321
6.	contents	273
7.	range from…to	266
8.	family	211
9.	compass	54
10.	enclose	54
11.	house *(verb)*	46
12.	circle *(verb)*	20
13.	wrap up	7
14.	encircle	4

Table 1 shows the absolute number of metaphors in our empirical material.

Table 2

Percentage of metaphors in the articles

№		Absolute numbers	Percentage
	Absolute number of words in the articles	8459768	100%
	Groups of metaphors		
1.	The metaphor of CONTAINER	1376	0.02
2.	The metaphor of CIRCLE	1173	0.01
3.	The metaphor of CONTENTS	273	0.003

Table 2 shows percentage of metaphors according to the groups of metaphors in our material.

Discussion. We have found different lexical units that are used metaphorically to indicate inclusiveness. They are: verbs “to wrap up,” “to house,” “to circle,” "to encircle," "to enclose," "to surround," "to compass;" nouns "container," "envelope," "family," "house," "circle," "compass," "contents"; lexical bundles like "to range from…to...".

We have grouped all metaphors in three large groups according to the meanings they convey. They are:

1. The metaphor of CONTAINER
2. The metaphor of CIRCLE
3. The metaphor of the CONTENTS.

Let's consider each of them in more detail.

1. The metaphor of CONTAINER. It is conveyed mainly with the help of the noun container. S. Zhabotynska (2013) has considered "container" and its "content(s)" in the context of frames as a possessive scheme of inclusiveness, and has pointed out that content is a separate part, and that it can be placed not only inside the container, but also outside the container (p. 60). Our material confirms this statement. Consider the following two instances:

For example, an "insert" primitive will involve adding one or more rows and columns to the bitmapped matrices, as well as adding one or more entries ***to the*** *Node Set* ***container*** *(IJAIT № 1-2, 2014,* p.*2).*

Finally, to remove the node ***from the*** *Node Set* ***container****, the system performs one work unit after locating the record of the target node (line 15) (IJAIT № 1-2, 2014,* p. *6).*

In these examples, we can see that the noun "container" is used metaphorically, and indicates a whole. Parts (entries) are involved in the container (1-st example) or part (the node) is removed from the container (2-nd example). In both cases the "container" does contain some parts.

Let's consider one more case:

A session is a communication descriptor that contains everything needed for linking entities, applications and devices together in a flexible way. A session can be viewed ***as a container*** *storing the identity and the management information of a given communication (IJAIT № 1-2, 2012,* p. *12).*

In this example, the noun "session" is identified with the noun "container" with the help of the preposition as, which confirms the possibility of expressing absolute identity among things, suggested earlier elsewhere (Shalya, 2011, p. 57).

The noun envelope is related to the metaphor of container. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (AHD) (2009) provides the following definition: envelope – a flat paper container, especially for a letter, usually having a gummed flap. Here we notice the implication of a container or a cover. We can consider an "envelope" as a "container" for some parts, as in the following example:

For example, the SAML SOAP binding specifies how a SAML message is encapsulated in a SOAP ***envelope*** *(IJAIT № 1-2, 2011,* p. *20).*

Here, the noun "envelope" is used as a metaphor and denotes a whole (SAML SOAP) with some part (SAML message).

At this point, let's turn to other examples:

The only communication between boxes is done by sending ***envelopes*** *(communication units containing data) along their outgoing edges. Each* ***envelope*** *consists of several columns and each column contains a certain number of data items. The data type of items in one column must be the same in all* ***envelopes*** *transferred along one particular edge; however, different columns in one* ***envelope*** *may have different data types (IJAIS № 3-4, 2012,* p. *303).*

In this case, the word "envelope" metaphorically denotes a whole (communication units containing data) that consists of some parts (several columns). Besides, parts are also composed of several other parts: each column contains a certain number of data items, so here we observe the so-called "nested dolls effect."

The noun <u>family</u> can be used not only to denote family members like father, mother, daughter etc., but also to denote family as a whole – container for parts. For example:

Additional terminology in this ***family*** *of dynamic networks includes disruption-tolerant networks, intermittently connected networks, and opportunistic networks (CM № 7, 2012, p. 155).*

In the above example, terminology of dynamic networks denotes a family (a whole) that comprises several parts (disruption-tolerant networks, intermittently connected networks, and opportunistic networks.)

The noun <u>house</u> can also be used as a metaphor to denote a whole that includes a large number of parts. Example:

Cyber attacks can also cause catastrophic failures: in September 2012, an unclassified computer network for the office that handles all military-related functions at the White ***House****, including nuclear war plans, was targeted by unidentified attackers (CM № 5, 2014,* p. *236).*

The White House (the official residence of the president of the United States) consists of a large number of rooms (for example, East Room, Green Room, Blue Room, Red Room, State Dining Room, Family Dining Room, The White House Master bedroom, the Queen's Bedroom etc.), actually implying several parts of a whole. In the following sentence, the phrase "student house" is used to denote container for students:

On Sundays, faculties are closed and only the library and the student ***house*** *are open (IJAIT № 1-2, 2011,* p. *43).*

The verb <u>to house</u> is also used metaphorically. As a verb in active voice, "house" denotes the process when a whole is composed of some number of parts, for example:

The third track (cf. Fig. 10) was measured inside the Hochschulfond Building (HF), which has been built in the year 2003. Because it is mainly dedicated to *practical research, it* ***houses*** *technical laboratories, offices and storage spaces (IJANS № 1-2, 2011,* p. *146).*

When used in passive voice, this verb denotes the process when parts are included in a whole, as in the following example:

The SAA module ***is housed in*** *the OBC of the payload (IJANS № 1-2, 2011,* p. *97).*

If the verb of inclusive semantics to wrap up is used as a metaphor, it can denote the process of formation of a whole, with some parts placed within, for example:

The simulation layout is 10 by 10 hexagon cells ***wrapped up*** *to avoid boundary effect (CM № 11, 2010, p. 78).*

2. The metaphor of CIRCLE. As a noun, circle can be used for a region bounded by a circle; a group of people sharing an interest, activity, or achievement; a process or chain of events or parts that forms a connected whole; cycle (AHD (2009). The metaphor of "circle" can be defined as a possessive scheme of partitiveness (Zhabotynska, 2013, p. 60). Typical examples:

On the display side, a specific adapter was written to convert Tic Tac Toe Model to a Display Source: the tic-tac-toe state change events are converted to drawing commands such as drawing ***circles*** *(IJAIS № 3-4, 2012, p. 252).*

Let us assume user A (whose related messages are numbered within ***circles*** *in the figure) and user B (in squares) are two buddies using the system (CM № 7, 2010, p. 104).*

As a verb, to circle can be used to denote "to enclose in a circle"; "encircle" (AHD (2009). Example:

The node carrying the messages could, for instance, be a fast-moving UAS, which ***circles*** *a larger area and gathers information (CM № 10, 2013, p. 45).*

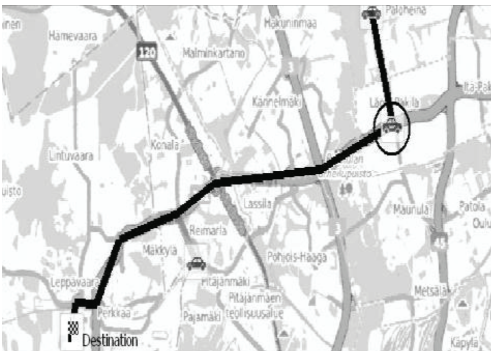

Fig. 1. The car is situated within the circle.

The verb to encircle belongs to this group of metaphors. The main meaning of this verb is "to form a circle around"; surround" (AHD (2009). In this case, parts are always within the circle. For example:

*The **encircled** car in the figures shows the location where the driver is offered to pick up the passenger (IJAIS № 1-2, 2012, p. 108).*

The verb "to encircle" has a synonym to enclose that means "to surround on all sides; close in" (AHD (2009). Both can be used either in Active or Passive voice. For example:

*MicaZ motes **were enclosed** in plastic boxes to act as a protective casing, with the antennas protruding (CM № 4, 2010, p. 72).*

*In the XML code, the Properties element **encloses** all properties of a segment, which are in this particular case two Quantitative QoS elements of the mentioned QoS parameters that are identified through their QoS ID (IJANS № 3-4, 2011,* p. *310).*

The verb to surround has the meaning "to extend on all sides of simultaneously; encircle; or to enclose or confine on all sides so as to bar escape or outside communication" (AHD (2009), e.g.:

*PES dynamically, automatically, and intelligently reconfigures the electronic, electrical, and mechanical equipment **surrounding** a user according to his/her preferences based on the current user's location and his/her current mental/ emotional state (CM № 6, 2010, p. 68).*

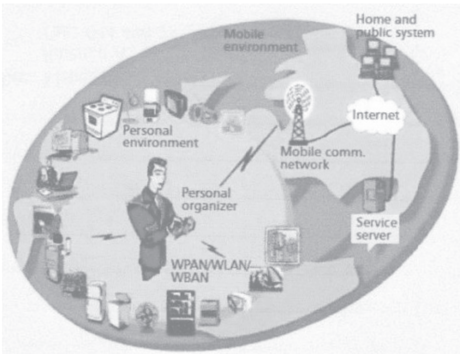

Fig. 2. A user is surrounded by different equipment

The word compass as a noun has the following basic meanings: 1) (*mathematics, often plural*, also called: pair of compasses) an instrument used for drawing circles, measuring distances, etc, that consists of two arms, joined at one end, one arm of which serves as a pivot or stationary reference point, while the other is extended or describes a circle; 2) limits or range, (e.g.: within the compass of education; the broad compass of the novel). As a verb, the word compass means "to comprehend; to grasp (as with the mind)" (AHD (2009). Linguistically speaking, it has the following implications: 1) limits or range; 2) grasping something.

The phrase to range from…to is concerned with the metaphor of "circle" and defines the borders where the parts are placed. For example:

*That maximum power can **range from** below 0 dBm to cover apartments (in the absence of a strong macro interferer) **to** 10 dBM or more to cover houses (CM № 9, 2009, p. 94).*

3. The metaphor of the CONTENTS deals with parts of a whole. The noun contents surely belongs here. The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (2009) gives the following definition: contents - everything that is inside a container. We consider the noun "contents" to denote some parts that are included in a whole, for example:

*Instead of manipulating **the contents** of io CMD Bat databases level, our approach suggests to perform such alter nations through specified functional areas, as we outline in Section IV-D (IJAIT № 1-2, 2012, p. 42).*

*In addition, we have defined frameworks to offer a visual feedback to the user via displays. This includes 2D and 3Dgraphical objects rendering and multimedia **contents** such as videos (IJASM № 1-2, 2014, p. 11).*

In the second example, we observe the combination of explicit way of rendering inclusiveness, like the verb "to include" and the noun "contents" used as metaphors to indicate some parts of a whole.

Conclusions. In this paper we have addressed metaphors of inclusive semantics in modern Anglo-American scientific discourse. Implicit, metaphoric ways of expressing inclusiveness, alongside some explicit linguistic devices (words "to involve", "to include" and the like) enrich scientific language immensely. They reflect the metaphoric nature of scientific thought. We have outlined three basic groups of metaphors that convey the idea of inclusiveness in the language of science – the metaphor of CONTAINER that is expressed by the nouns "container," "envelope," "family," "house"; verbs: "to house," "to wrap up"; the metaphor of CIRCLE that is conveyed thorough the nouns "circle"; "compass"; verbs: "to circle," "to compass," "to encircle," "to enclose," "to surround," set phrase "to range from…to…"; and, finally, the metaphors of CONTENTS. We have calculated the frequency of occurrence of such groups of metaphors, and found out that the metaphor of CONTAINER is the most frequently used one. Further research might well elucidate the subtleties of metaphoric expression of inclusiveness and cognitive metaphor in scientific discourse and general English, as well as the interplay of the category of inclusiveness with other language categories.

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Tetiana Myroniuk

A LINGUISTIC VIEW AT SCIENCE BLOGGING PRACTICE

A science blog is attracting the attention of scientists all over the world as it is one of the ways to share research findings and to raise social awareness. The present article aims to examine the blogging practices of English-speaking researchers from a linguistic point of view. It also analyzes the role of blogs in the interaction of scientists and in the dissemination of their research. The study was conducted based on the selected blog posts written in English and published on the website ScienceSeeker in 2016–2017. It concludes that science blogs are of great popularity as they immediately present the most topical issues that are comprehensible to both professionals and the interested readers due to a variety of linguistic means and multimedia used.

***Key words**:* scientific activity, science blog, dissemination of research findings, popularization of science.

"Time devoted to writing a blog post
is not time away from research"
(Dunleavy, 2015)

Introduction. The development of digital media facilitates rapid and profound changes in science. In particular, it promotes scholarly communication and cooperation as well as professional evaluation of scientific achievements. Nowadays, there is a wide range of choices for publishing research results: an open-access refereed journal or the one with the restricted access, preprints in repositories (e.g. arxiv.org, biorxiv.org, f1000research.com, plos.org), or social networking sites for researchers (for example, researchgate.net and academia.edu).

Several studies in various spheres reported on the importance of professionally-oriented blogs. The specialists in programming and applied linguistics study a blog structure and the principles of its work (Du & Wagner, 2006; Herring, Scheidt, Wright, & Bonus, 2005). Psychologists investigate a blogger's personality, behaviour, and motives for the publication of posts (Dennen, 2014; Mahrt & Puschmann, 2014) while teachers are interested in the educational potential of blogs (Amir, Ismail, & Hussin, 2011; Halic, Lee, Paulus, & Spence, 2010; Thomas, 2010). Marketing specialists study the promotional function of blogs (Kondratyeva & Zavyalova, 2015). A blog as a genre of digital discourse, communicative roles of a blogger, types and functions of blogs are subjects of interest to many linguists and journalists (Barbulet, 2013; Bolander, 2012; Brown Jarreau, 2015; Crystal, 2006; Danet & Herring, 2007; Dennen, 2014; Luzón, 2017).

Communication of scholarly research through science blogs attracts the attention of many investigators (Brossard & Scheufele, 2013; Kouper, 2010; Könneker & Lugger, 2013; Luzón, 2017; Shema, Bar-Ilan, & Thelwall, 2012). However, there is still a need for their studying from a linguistic perspective. The ***purpose*** of the study presented in this paper was to examine the blogging practices of English-speaking researchers from a linguistic point of view. We also aimed to analyze the role of blogs in the interaction of scientists and in the dissemination of their research findings. To achieve this aim, we addressed the following issues: (a) to define science blogs, (b) to determine their structure, (c) to investigate their distinctive characteristics from other sources of information, (d) to consider the classification of communicative roles of blog participants, (e) to specify the communicative aims of bloggers, (f) to single out the linguistic means for attracting the readers' attention, and (g) to distinguish the most popular topics discussed in science blogs.

The rest of the article is organised as follows. We first describe the empirical material, the methods of the research and outline its theoretical background. Then we follow by presenting our findings and representative samples chosen from science blogs. Finally, we offer some concluding remarks and suggestions for further studies.

Materials & Methods. To carry out our research, we used the language material selected from blog posts written in English and published on the website *scienceseeker.org* in 2016–2017 (*ScienceSeeker*). This website collects and organizes 2,160 science and popular science blogs from around the world.

This study involved a variety of general and specific linguistic methods. First, selective and descriptive methods were used to define science blogs and to determine their structure. Second, a comparative analysis allowed us to investigate the distinctive characteristics of science blogs from other scientific sources of information. Third, using a pragmatic analysis, we considered the classification of communicative roles of blog participants and specified their communicative aims. Finally, a content analysis was employed to single out the linguistic means for attracting the readers' attention and to distinguish the most urgent themes of science blogs.

Results & Discussion. A science blog is a relatively new form of scholarly communication via the Internet since the first e-journals appeared only in 1997. The relevance of the present research is determined by the rapid development of blogs. In fact, almost 3 million blogs are created every month, bloggers publish 1.6 billion posts a day, i.e. they make 18 updates per second (Brown Jarreau, 2015). Tumblr (*tumblr.com*), WordPress (*wordpress.com*) and Blogger (*blogger.com*) are the most popular platforms for creating blogs.

In this paper, the term ***a science blog*** (also known as *an academic/scholarly blog*) refers to a website with a certain number of scientific or popular scientific messages (blog posts) in a reversed chronological order. As a rule, science blogs concern some specific area of investigation, the works of some researcher or a group of researchers. Besides, science blogs mix the features of conventional academic written and spoken genres, combine different modes, and have several aims in order to reach a diversified audience (Luzón, 2017).

The previous research reported on the typical motives for creating, maintaining, and updating a science blog. Kouper (2010) and Luzón (2017), for instance, argue that blogging scientists accomplish complex objectives: to publish and popularize their own research, to strengthen the links with the international disciplinary community, to connect with the interested readers, and to raise social awareness. Moreover, the research has shown that blogging about an academic article can increase its visibility and lead to more readers (Dunleavy, 2015; Mahrt & Puschmann, 2014).

The data indicate that science blogs are similar to general blogs by their structure. They consist of the following components: the date of publication; the category or the area of research; the title of the post; the body that may include the text as well as multimedia; hyperlinks to other sources of information; the link to the full-text version of the article at the university or the journal repository; the comments of readers; sometimes there is a footer with the date or the time of publication, the author's name, statistical data concerning the number of views and comments. A structural part *Comments* sometimes reflects quite an active debate regarding a scientific result or a hypothesis. We distinguish two types of comments: a comment to the main text of the post and a comment to one or a few previous comments of readers or the author. The second type may be divided into a *Reply to a comment* that is placed under every comment, and a *Quote* of any previous comment or a post further in the *Comments* section.

It is worth determining the characteristics that distinguish a science blog from other sources of information. First, it provides an independent presentation, pre- and post-publication review, and discussion of scientific data. Second, many blogs are anonymous. Third, an author may update the content of a blog whenever he/she wants omitting a long-lasting reviewing procedure. Fourth, being a digital medium a blog may contain hyperlinks to other Internet sources. Such a hypertextuality and the potential to integrate audio, video, graphics in a single blog post allow constructing meaning that will reach different audiences. Fifth, a science blog provides free access to its content. Finally, the archive of all publications is available at any time and in any place (Bolander, 2012; Herring, Scheidt, Wright, & Bonus, 2005; Luzón, 2013). These features contribute to the effective exchange of information, critical remarks, or appraisal, recommendations of the specialists as well as the interested public.

Compared to traditional mass media and printed scientific journals, blogs stimulate the author-reader interaction. There is also a difference between a professional Internet forum and a science blog. In the former, every post is equally important while in the latter the author's post is the core issue for discussion. The focus of a professional Internet forum is on the exchange of information, whereas the goal of a science blog is to present and discuss research results (Barbulet, 2013).

Dennen (2014) suggests the classification of communicative roles of blog participants: (a) *bloggers*, i.e. the authors of blog posts; (b) active *commenters*; (c) *lurkers* are people who read blogs regularly but never leave comments; (d) *passers-by* are people who read blogs from time to time; (e) *characters* are people who neither have their own blogs nor read the blogs of others but are constantly discussed in the posts of their family members, friends or foes.

Interestingly, some of the blogging scientists deliberately choose a pen name (e.g. *STEM Chick, Grrl Scientist, Neuroskeptic, Mathlete, Positron, Science Chef, Ms. Beautyphile* (*ScienceSeeker*). A possible explanation for this is that they do not want to be found on the Internet by their surname. It is caused by possible distrust or doubt in their qualification within a professional environment. Besides, scientists often write about their fear of mistakes, improper level of productivity, work-life imbalance, political views, i.e. the things they do not wish to discuss at work (Dennen, 2014). It appears possible to distinguish reflexive and psychotherapeutic functions of running a blog.

Our results show the tendency of blogs to aggregate on blog platforms, such as ScienceBlogs (*scienceblogs.com*), Sciblogs (*sciblogs.co.nz*), ScienceSeeker (*scienceseeker.org*), etc. In particular, every week the editors of the latter choose the most read and commented posts from 2,160 blogs in 60 areas and publish them as a weekly summary of the most popular scientific issues and events.

Studying blogs from *scienceseeker.org* allows us to determine communicative purposes of blogging researchers: (a) to disseminate and discuss the author's research results or some notable disciplinary achievement, (b) to present one's own scientific experience, (c) to assist colleagues in professional issues, (d) to express academic criticism or appraisal and to give a recommendation, (e) to share some personal reflections, (f) to circulate the information about upcoming events, etc. The data are broadly consistent with the results of previous investigations (Luzón, 2017), in particular, the content analysis of 100 academic blogs (Herring, Scheidt, Wright, & Bonus, 2005).

Experienced blogging scientists (Darian & Ilchenko, 2012; Dunleavy, 2015) claim that to achieve the above-mentioned aims it is necessary to publish challenging, exclusive data and give original titles to attract the attention of readers. These titles usually employ allusion to proverbs, tongue-twisters, the quotes from well-known films or literature (e.g. *In Serotonin We Trust; Throwing the baby (fish) out with the (ocean) water; Birds of a Feather Hunt Better Together; Lights, Cameras, CRISPR: Biologists Use Gene Editing to Store Movies in DNA; How much wood would a termite chuck…if it was missing it's microbial symbionts; What's in a name? Venoms vs. Poisons; To change or not to change… the time; Climate change: to bee or not to bee?; To diet or not to diet: what does your brain think?; TETRIS! Seventh Row of Periodic Table Completed; May the Fourth Be With You! Testing the Physics of BB-8;* (*ScienceSeeker*). Metaphor as a means of "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) is also quite popular in blog titles (e.g. *Meet the Robin*

Hood of Science; Educate Your Immune System; How do black holes eat?; Food for Thought: Do We Owe Our Large Primate Brains to a Passion for Fruit?; How the flu works; Life and death and the jaguars of the mind; Gene-edited soybeans and other foods avoid GMO regulations – and perhaps the whole frankenfood debate (*ScienceSeeker*). To capture the reader's attention, bloggers use numbers in the titles (e.g. *Understanding immortality, one slice at a time; Recovery: A tale of three hurricanes; Three Myths About Solar Energy and the Eclipse; When the sun goes dark: 5 questions answered about the solar eclipse; 5 Bad Tips About Sugar; Five Impossible Facts that Would Have to Be True if the Earth Were Flat; 10 Ways That Running Changes Your Mind and Brain* (*ScienceSeeker*).

Periodically it is worth publishing non-scientific information, such as religious, political, sports or art facts and news (for example, *Trick or tweet, or both? How social media is messing up politics; Chatham House: Brexit could harm UK climate and energy policy; Trump Admin officially proposes opening vast areas of U.S. coastal waters to oil and gas drilling; What Germany's election results mean for science; Will Democracy Survive Big Data and Artificial Intelligence?; Why you should avoid the gym in January (and do this instead); Did Rembrandt "Cheat"? Optics Paper Weighs in on Art History Debate; Mayweather and McGregor's 8-ounce boxing gloves have started a science fight; Science photos as art; Scientists, Insta-Fix Thy Public Image* (*ScienceSeeker*). The bloggers should also comment on publications in their field or on scientific news coverage, interact with the readers of their own blogs, and response to the comments quickly (Kondratyeva & Zavyalova, 2015; Pinto & Riesch, 2017).

When it comes to the gender issue, the data indicate that most bloggers are women. A possible explanation for this is that they are more emphatic, they need help and advice concerning professional and personal life more often than their male colleagues. Men run blogs rarely since they prefer to publish only their research results (Brown Jarreau, 2015; Dennen, 2014).

The results of the content analysis show that *the most popular topics of science blog*s during the considered period were the following (Fig. 1): (a) investigating brain cells, memory, déjà vu effect, mental illnesses (in particular, depression, schizophrenia, autism, anorexia), Alzheimer's disease, different types of addiction, intellectual growth and development; (b) studying and treatment of HIV/AIDS, cancer, Zika virus, malaria, antibiotic and drug resistance; (c) discovering new chemical elements and adding them to the periodic table; (d) the issues of organ transplantation, DNA, genetic engineering (CRISPR), GMO food, fighting obesity, ageing of population and attempts to become immortal; (e) climate change, renewable energy, threat to forests and oceans, endangered flora and fauna, the reasons of floods and hurricanes, the research of Arctic and Antarctica; (f) nuclear energy, the large hadron collider, the Big Bang theory, a black hole, gravitational waves, Laser Interferometer Gravitational-Wave Observatory (LIGO), investigating natural conditions in outer space and launching the satellites of NASA as well as the launch of

Falcon rocket by Elon Musk's company SpaceX; (g) artificial intelligence, big data, new Internet technologies, the influence of various devices (mobile phones, microwave ovens) on human health; (h) the role and place of a woman in science (STEMinism), publications in research journals, academic integrity and ethics, scientific repositories, scholarly rewards; (i) the adaptation of refugees in Western Europe, the question of happiness and the sense of life, interpersonal relations, language mechanisms, the language of gestures, social networking sites and their impact on a person's life; (j) pregnancy, parenthood, and childhood; (k) physical exercise and its influence on health, Olympic games, the effect of stimulants on sportsmen's performance; (l) the impact of political events on science (e.g. the speeches of US President Donald Trump, Brexit (British researchers call it "brain exit" while the citizens feel "Bregret"), etc. (*ScienceSeeker*).

Thus, it may be assumed that the researchers of life sciences and those doing STEM run more blogs and share more scientific achievements than their colleagues from other areas. It could be explained by the fact that applied investigations are in greater demand in modern society. The results of our research show that the most popular blogs are as follows: *Brain Blogger, Lunatic Laboratories, The Atlantic, The Neurocritic* (neurobiology and human physiology), *Starts with a Bang, Physics Buzz* (physics, astronomy), *Skeptical Science* (climatology), *Scientific American, New Scientist, Ars Technica, Popular Science, The New York Times, BBC Future, Discover, Slate* (a wide range of scientific topics).

It should also be noted that linguistic blogs concerning research (*Games with Words, Language Log, Babel's Dawn, A Replicated Typo, From the Lab Bench, All Things Linguistic, Olga the Onlooker: To Learn What Works, Rose Hendricks, Lingthusiasm*) are less popular than the ones about learning foreign languages.

Fig. 1. The most frequently used topics of science blogs
(based on the materials of ScienceSeeker)

Conclusions. In this article, we have surveyed the blogging practices of English-speaking researchers from a linguistic viewpoint. We also considered the role of blogs in scientific interaction and in the dissemination of research findings.

Our research suggests that science blogs have a number of advantages in comparison with traditional sources of information. They mostly concern pre- and post-publication review, discussion of scientific data, and ability to update the blog, post and share new items quite often. Besides, it is possible to integrate audio, video, graphics in a single blog post which helps reach different audiences. Moreover, the archive of all publications is free and available at any time and in any place. The above-mentioned topics of the blog posts are extremely relevant since they represent the current situation in the world. Along with publishing exclusive data, the authors give original titles and use a variety of linguistic means to attract the attention of readers. These features allow blogging scientists to effectively communicate their research, to strengthen the links both with colleagues and the interested readers all over the world, and to raise social awareness. Thus, our future work will focus on studying the language choice in a number of science blogs. In that connection, metaphor is of particular interest.

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Zinaida Shelkovnikova

NARRATIVES IN SCIENCE: LANGUAGE AND CULTURE CHALLENGES OF TODAY

Modern demand of a global scientific society is the accessibility of knowledge. Such accessibility is gained due to the general language and culture trends of the new millennium outlined by Italo Calvino. They are: lightness, quickness, exactitude, visibility, multiplicity and consistency. The present paper examines the ways in which they can be applied to the Anglo-American scientific discourse, specifically, via narratives.

***Key words**:* narrative, scientific discourse, scientific narrative, lightness, quickness, exactitude, visibility, multiplicity, consistency

The postindustrial era of technology inevitably influences all the aspects of human activities. The modern pace of life and development also influences discourse modifications, which is but a natural process of language development, the reflection of human verbal interaction. There are no more rigid demands and regulations for any type of discourse, including the language of science. Indeed, scientific discourse has modified considerably in recent times. The research is relevant due to the much attention to the aspects of communication efficiency under the conditions of tough competition and world globalization in the scientific sphere.

First, let us note that the efficiency of text reception depends on its comprehensibility. A French scholar E. Benveniste wrote: "Language is also a human phenomenon. For a human it is a connecting chain among a psychological, social and cultural, as well as the means of their interaction." (Benveniste, 1973, p. 45) It's no wonder, that nowadays the structures of fiction and science discourse interact, penetrate and influence each other. It is argued that the reasons for this might well be a raging development of the electronic and Internet technologies; the information exchange acceleration; science involvement in the market economic relationship; scientific borders expansion, and science becoming a transnational phenomenon." (Yakhontova, 2014, p.136). Genre borders of scientific discourse are rather fluid and sometimes are not defined distinctly. (Ilchenko, 2002, p. 65) Entering the world of the intellectual pursuit calls for the in-depth study of modern scientific discourse tendencies and to implement the outcomes in teaching the rhetoric of science. In this paper, we **aim** to outline some of such recent developments against a broader cultural perspective, specifically, the one envisaged by the Italian writer and visionary Italo Calvino.

"Is it legitimate to turn to scientific discourse to find an image of the world that suits my view? If what I am attempting here attracts me, it is because I feel it might connect with a very old thread in the history of poetry," wrote Italo Calvino (1988. p.8), a famous Italian writer, the proponent of the ideas of neorealism, post-structuralism and postmodernism. He also studied the narrative technique and the possibilities of multi-level story. For instance, his "Space Stories" is an attempt to expand the structure of science fiction by involving – as a fiction material – the information taken from science. In 1988 Harvard University Press published Calvino's book "Six Memos For The Next Millennium," in which the author reveals six aspects of the language and culture trends for the XXI century. In his research, he refers to the famous writers' discourse. Calvino notes the interaction of all the systems: "the world as a system of systems, where each system conditions the others and is conditioned by them". (Calvino, 1988. p.6) We also observe this trend in the narratives used in the language of science. The precise, accurate, specific scientific discourse develops its structure with the help of narratives promoting another level – the level of a story in the science discourse. We might agree that culture elements are overtly or covertly reflected in categories and functions of discourse elements, scientific discourse being no exception (Ilchenko, 2002, p. 48).

Italo Calvino foresees six following culture-specific trends in the modern discourse: **lightness, quickness, exactitude, visibility, multiplicity, consistency**. The science narratives are good examples to prove the point. "I have tried to remove weight, sometimes from people, sometimes from heavenly bodies, sometimes from cities; above all I have tried to remove weight from the structure of stories and from language," Calvino writes (1988. p.3). Let us illustrate the trend realization in the science discourse via narratives.

In order to reveal **lightness**, and simplify complex scientific ideas on the techniques and principles in language training, the author Diane Larsen-Freeman uses narratives employing cases, actually narrating them:

"…The class we <u>observe</u> is at the end of its first year of English language instruction in a scuola media.

EXPERIENCE.

The teacher is calling the class to order as we find seats toward the back of the room. He has placed a big map of the United States in the front of the classroom. He asks the students to open their books to a certain page number. The lesson is entitled "Looking at a map." As the students are called on one by one, they read a sentence from the reading passage at the beginning of the lesson. The teacher <u>points to</u> the part of the map the sentence <u>describes</u> after each student has read his sentence…" (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 18)

In this very example the author describes the "direct method of teaching foreign languages" showing the experience she had had. Thus the narrative ‑conveys not only the information on the method, but also the atmosphere of a class using this direct method. Creating expressive emotional atmosphere, as well as esthetic audience orientation are the obvious features of a scientific narrative. Generally speaking, in this case-narrative, all the power and importance of scientific matter was shown in a light, enjoyable, and simple way.

Visibility is also observed in the above mentioned passage. Visibility is expressed through a wide range of descriptive instruments, among them are the following expressions: *by observing, to point to, to describe, to look at, to draw, to illustrate*. As Italo Calvino puts it, "this mental cinema is always at work in each one of us, and it always has been, even before the invention of the cinema. Nor does it ever stop projecting images before our mind's eye." (Calvino, 1988. p.83) Visibility promotes the imagination of an addressee and simplifies the reception of the information. In particular, scientific narratives significantly simplify the imagination practice.

Quickness is another overall language and culture trend: "saving time is a good thing because the more time we save, the more we can afford to lose. Quickness of style and thought means above all agility, mobility, and ease, all qualities that go with writing where it is natural to digress, to jump from one subject to another, to lose the thread a hundred times and find it again after a hundred more twists and turns" (Calvino, 1988. p.46). In the language of science, "quickness" is about using words and expressions like *after, then, next, the first, another, this time.* They not only accelerate a story, but also convey succession. It should be noted that such markers of succession, sequence and overall linear structuring are abundant in narratives. To sum up, the agility of both thought and expression can be easily conveyed via scientific narratives. A reader is more likely to enjoy a prompt consistent narrative that will be remembered in a better way, than a boring and overly long descriptions. The expressions: *thus, finally, it is considered* indicate the final conclusions. In such a way, they considerably accelerate narrating, avoiding extra unnecessary details. The author directly goes to the final conclusions without an overly detailed description of minor points. Let us look at the following example:

"It is considered desirable to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers." (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 132)

Here, some questions immediately come to mind. Who decided it? When was it decided? In what way was it decided? All these details were not mentioned. The expression *it is considered* employs narrativization, in the way David Herman treats it: "narrative is intrinsic to persuasion in the sense of effective appeal to the audience. Without narrative, argument would be nothing." (Herman, 2008, p.349) Thus the author appeals to the audience, makes an argument, and he does it quickly without any hesitations. In the following example, the narrator does not outline all the stages of research, yet goes directly to the conclusions:

"Finally, we noted that activities in the Communicative Approach are often carried out by students in small groups." (Larsen-Freeman, 1986, p. 132)

The minimal condition of narrativity is at least one change of one condition

(Shmid, 2008, p.16). The expression "finally" not only conveys quickness, but also moves a story to another stage (condition).

Paolo Volonte in his article "The problem of demarcation" shows a very good way of rendering "quickness" by narrating his fundamental points in the following way:

> *"…let us establish some fundamental points.*
> *First of all, the above reported scientific discussion clearly underlines the importance…*
> *Second, we have seen that credibility is…*
> *Third, advancing a new claim…*
> *Fourth, it is clear that, as a consequence, people's credibility…*
> *Lastly, we have observed that science…*
> *It could be argued that credibility is not exclusive to the sphere of science but determines the social relations of most professionals…*" (Volonte, 2006, p.55)

Generally speaking, enumeration of the points that afterwards lead to a logical conclusion, are inherent features of scientific narratives. This fact is evident in the modern Anglo-American scientific discourse.

Another important thing in the language of science is clarity, precision and persuasion. It's what Italo Calvino calls **exactitude**: "my search for exactitude was branching out in two directions: on the one side, the reduction of secondary events to abstract patterns according to which one can carry out operations and demonstrate theorems; and on the other, the effort made by words to present the tangible aspect of things as precisely as possible. To my mind exactitude means three things above all:

1) A well-defined and well-calculated plan for the work in question;

2) An evocation of clear, incisive, memorable visual images;

3) A language as precise as possible both in choice of words and in expression of the subtleties of thought and imagination. (Calvino, 1988. p.59)

Narratives facilitate the "exactitude" in all its aspects. In order to demonstrate the exactitude realization via narratives in scientific discourse, let us consider the article written by Brooke Ricker Schreiber "Multilingual Identity and Digital Translanguaging." This paper presents a case study of the multilingual writing practices of Serbian university student on Facebook, examining how he uses multiple varieties of English and Serbian, images, and video to shape his online identity and establish membership in local and global communities. The exactitude is promoted also by the stimulated-recall interviews, online participant observation, images, videos, semiotic resources on Facebook and digital writing (i.e. writing on social networking sites). The purpose of the paper is to examine one student's use of multiple linguistic codes and semiotic resources on Facebook through the theoretical concept of translingualism. Adopting a qualitative case study approach, this paper presents the student's linguistic history, online composing processes, and perceptions of his own writing exploring his portrayal approach to language, allowing him to accomplish his communicative goals with a linguistically diverse audience. In order to evoke visual images, to express subtleties of thought and imagination the author uses flashback narratives of her life story, history of relationships:

"As with many of my former students, Aleksander had added me to his Facebook network in order to keep in contact, and we often read and commented on each other's posts…" (Shreiber, 2015, p.71)

"This case study emerged from a larger study of university student's multilingual writing on Facebook. Participants were selected from the English department at a Serbian university where I had previously been a visiting lecturer." (Shreiber, 2015, p.73)

In both examples we observe the use of Past Perfect, which is essential not only from the point of grammar, but also in light of exactitude as far as it helps to reveal the supplementary details from the past. To add precision, details, and to create the exact impression of the research subject, the author employs the narrative flashback, in which she explains the system of Serbian Academic Environment:

"The Serbian university system is based on a European model: students take entrance exams for specific departments and once enrolled, follow a mostly set curriculum." (Shreiber, 2015, p.73)

Finally, let's turn to Calvino's **multiplicity.** Multiplicity is another trend and important feature of the modern scientific discourse. According to Italo Calvino, "there is such a thing as the unified text that is written as the expression of a single voice, but that reveals itself as open to interaction on several levels" (Calvino, 1988. p.117).

Multiplicity can be fulfilled in a number of ways: either through a combination of laughing emoticons, juxtaposition of slang with elevated vocabulary, or via the narrative presentation through different voices (focalization). Italo Calvino: "the proper use of language, for me personally, is one that enables us to approach things (present or absent) with discretion, attention, and caution, with respect for what things (present or absent) communicate without words" (Calvino, 1988. p.77).

In particular, in the article discussed above we observe the use of laughing emoticons (:D) (Shreiber, 2015, p.75) and juxtaposition of slang with elevated vocabulary.

Multiplicity can also be employed by diverse media and tools. In the article "Commenting to Learn: Evidence of Language and Intercultural Learning in Comments on YouTube Videos" Phil Benson, the author aims his study "to go beyond observation through a case study that explores how discourse analysis tools might be used to uncover evidence of language and intercultural learning in comments on YouTube videos involving Chinese-English translanguaging. It is argued that the methodologies used have good potential for use in studies that aim to investigate learning in online settings, both at the environmental level, in macroanalysis of large data sets, and at the individual/situational level, in microanalysis of shorter interactional sequences. (Benson, 2015, p.88) In the example below we observe multiplicity in the combination of various cognitive processes:

> *"In both cases, there appears to be an assumption that learning involves a change of cognitive state, in which a specific individual learns something specific at a specific moment in time. However, if we assume that interactional learning processes also take place below the level of observation in discourse, there may well be value in approaches that evaluate broader orientations toward learning in larger data sets."* (Benson, 2015, p.90)

Multiplicity is understood not only as interaction at several levels, but also as "weaving together the various branches of knowledge, the various "codes" into a manifold and multifaceted vision of the world." (Calvino, 1988. p.112) We treat multiplicity as the feature of scientific narratives and, vice versa, we consider narratives as the modes and tools of conveying multiplicity in scientific discourse. Finally, talking about **consistency**, we may argue that the narrative scientific discourse tends to be consistent as far as it contains lightness, quickness, exactitude, visibility and multiplicity.

To summarize, modern scientific discourse is a product of intertwining of various modes of thought, styles of expression, as well as the continuity of forms and interpretation at different levels. State-of-the-art scientific discourse emphasizes precise data, information and relevant experience. We consider lightness, quickness, exactitude, visibility, multiplicity, consistency to be inherent characteristics of scientific narratives. Such discourse trends call for the narratives as their tools. The tools that make the knowledge more accessible and comprehensible, and, eventually, understandable by both the academia and the general populace.

We also consider a narrative to be one of the best ways of effective persuasion. Narratives in science are not only language and culture challenges, but also effective tools of persuasion.

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FRINGE SCIENCE: A FORMIDABLE FOE

This paper addresses the issues of the so called fringe, or cargo cult science, a.k.a. pseudoscience. Based on abundant previous research, as well as on our own findings, linguistic devices that signal pseudoscientific claims in modern English were singled out and analyzed. Emphasized here are the linguistic devices of discerning fact vs. factlet, masking half-truth, scaremongering, vague and misleading language, technobabble and so on. Cases of scientific fraud, the so-called "cosmetic" science, and advertising in light of pseudoscience discourse are also considered.

***Key words**:* fringe science/cargo cult science/pseudoscience; linguistic devices fact; factoid/anecdata; misleading language; exaggerating; intimidating; scientific fraud; advertising.

"Science is the great antidote to the poison of enthusiasm and superstition."
(Adam Smith)

Admittedly, just like any activity, science has two poles: truth and untruth. In a "post-truth" era, however, they can s get blurred at times. But what is "fringe science", or "cargo cult science" anyway? It's just another name – suggested by the US physicist Richard Feynnman – for the thing commonly known as "pseudoscience". There exist other names for the phenomenon, with subtle shades in meaning, and we'll deal with them, as well as with linguistic devices that indicate pseudoscience, in this paper. Our principal aim is to uncover the essence of pseudoscience as convenient and comforting lies, wrapped in words.

The phrase "cargo cult science" comes from Richard Feynman's Caltech commencement address given in 1974. He vividly depicted the phenomenon:

During the Middle Ages there were all kinds of crazy ideas…

Then a method was discovered for separating the ideas – which was to try one to see if it worked, and if it didn't work, to eliminate it.

This method became organized, of course, into science. And it developed very well, so that we are now in the scientific age. But even today I meet lots of people who sooner or later get me into a conversation about … astrology, or some form of mysticism, and so forth. And I've concluded that it's not a scientific world.

In the South Seas there is a cargo cult of people. During the war they saw airplanes land with lots of good materials, and they want the same thing to happen now. So they've arranged to imitate things like runways, to put fires along the sides of the runways, to make a wooden hut for a man to sit in, with two wooden pieces on his head like headphones and bars of bamboo sticking out like antennas – he's the controller – and they wait for the airplanes to land.

They're doing everything right. The form is perfect. It looks exactly the way it looked before. But it doesn't work. No airplanes land. So I call these things cargo cult science, because they follow all the apparent precepts and forms of scientific investigation, but they're missing something essential, because the planes don't land.

There is one feature I notice that is generally missing in cargo cult science. It's a kind of scientific integrity, a principle of scientific thought that corresponds to a kind of utter honesty… For example, if you're doing an experiment, you should report everything that you think might make it invalid – not only what you think is right about it… In summary, the idea is to try to give all of the information to help others to judge the value of your contribution; not just the information that leads to judgment in one particular direction or another. And it's this type of integrity, this kind of care not to fool yourself, that is missing to a large extent in much of the research in cargo cult science. (Feynman, 1998).

The term "pseudoscience" has many faces: "bad science"; "cargo cult science"; "quasi-science"; "junk science" Linguistically, the dichotomy between real science and pseudoscience is that between fact and factoid. While a fact implies something that has proved to be true, a factoid (a factlet) is a historical fact that isn't true, but presented in press as factual, real one – because of frequent repetition. The term was coined by the US Pulitzer Prize-winning author Norman Mailer. For example, Thomas Edison did not invent the lightbulb, or even the first incandescent one. British scientist Warren De La Rue made a lightbulb in 1840 using a platinum filament, and the first demonstration of incandescence (making a wire glow by running electricity through it) was in 1802 by British chemist Humphry Davy. In 1879, Edison did invent the first incandescent lightbulb that was reliable, long lasting, and manufacturable. Similarly, urban legends are unscientific by their very nature. (Ilchenko, 2014, pp. 219, 575).

Pseudoscience stems from anti-intellectualism (Finley, 2009; Hofstadter, 1966; Mayne, 2014; Pseudoscience) and poor science education that nurtures it. For example, Bill Bryson's book on science for kids «A Short History of Nearly Everything» (Bryson, 2003), though extremely popular, contains way too much anecdotal evidence, to say nothing of many mistakes that have been already noticed by the educated readers and interpreters of the book (Feyerabend). Another issue is the so called magical thinking that relies on the belief of interconnectedness of all things through forces and powers that transcend both physical and spiritual connections (Magical Thinking).

Such ideas have been in the air since ancient times – recall the works of the Danish astronomer Tycho Brahe, who both promoted mathematical approach to astronomy vs. astrology-oriented one. Tycho Brahe supported credibility and observational astronomy. The abandonment of astrology in public discourse is primarily explained by Tycho's social position and greater sensibility to controversial issues (Almási, 2013).

In the mid-20th century, Karl Popper suggested the criterion of falsifiability, refutability, and testability to distinguish science from nonscience (Popper, 2002). In a similar vein, Imre Lakatos proposed the demarcation criterion of pseudoscientific theory: if it can't make any novel predictions of previously unknown phenomena (Lakatos, 1973).

On the other hand, such philosopher of science as Paul Feyerabend, the proponent of theoretical anarchism, argues that a distinction between science and pseudoscience is barely possible, as there are no methodological rules at all, just ephemeral generalities (Feyerabend, 1975).

In a more popular, everyday sense, pseudoscience, according to Charles Pierce, is about the following Great Premises:

1. Any theory is valid if it makes money.
2. Anything can be true if it is said loudly enough.
3. Fact is what enough people believe (the Truth is what you believe) (Pierce, 2010). That also represent an unscientific approach.

What it means is that pseudoscience tends to be driven by ideological, commercial or similar goals. It has evolved very little since it was first established. A challenge to accepted dogma is considered heresy, the data that are not consistent with the existing beliefs are ignored or suppressed. Pseudoscientific concepts tend to be shaped by individual egos and personalities; pseudoscientific explanations tend to be vague and ambiguous. According to Russel Turpin, «paradigm» is perhaps the most abused word. Its uses are often so vague that no significant meaning can be attached. For that matter, the phrase «scientific paradigm» has almost no useful meaning. Another case is the word «science» used narrowly, or «theory» («it's only a theory») (Turpin).

Critical thinking and evidential reasoning are essential to scientific literacy. Skills for critical thinking are summarized by C. Wade and C. Travis (1990):

Skills	***Simple Techniques***
1. Ask questions: be willing to wonder	Start by asking "Why?"
2. Define the problem	Restate the issue several different ways so it is clear.
3. Examine the evidence	Ask what evidence supports or refutes the claim. Is it reliable?
4. Analyze assumptions and biases	List the evidence on which each part of the argument based. The assumptions and biases will be unsupported.
5. Avoid emotional reasoning	Identify emotional influence and "gut feelings" in the arguments, and exclude them.
6. Don't oversimplify	Do not allow generalization from too little evidence.

7. Consider other interpretations	Make sure alternate views are included in the discussion.
8. Tolerate uncertainty	Be ready to accept tentative answers when evidence is incomplete, and new answers when further evidence warrants them.

Evidential reasoning is the key to the scientific method (Feynman, 1998):

Falsifiability	Conceive of all evidence that would prove the claim false
Logic	Argument must be sound
Comprehensiveness	Must use all the available evidence
Honesty	Evaluate evidence without self-deception
Replicability	Evidence must be repeatable
Sufficiency	1. Burden of proof rests on the claimant. 2. Extraordinary claims require extraordinary evidence. 3. Authority and/or testimony is always inadequate.

It is argued that when distinguishing science from nonscience, one must clearly understand the nature of science itself – the criteria of valid evidence, the design of meaningful experiments, the weighing of possibilities, the testing of hypotheses, the establishment of useful theories, which enables drawing accurate, reliable, meaningful conclusions about the phenomena of the physical universe. However, every now and then, the media provide sheer nonsense and misinformation, fantasy and confusion – all proclaimed to be «true facts.» Sifting sense from nonsense is an almost overwhelming job. It is claimed that there exist some signals, or earmarks of pseudoscience one can easily detect, namely:

- indifference to fact; use of bogus, fictitious facts («factoids») makes extraordinary claims and advances fantastic theories that are in contradiction to what is known about nature.
- pseudoscientists never revise; they use the inherited «sacred texts» as if they were contemporary science textbooks;
- pseudoscience begins with a hypothesis – usually one which is appealing emotionally, and spectacularly implausible – and then looks only for items which appear to support it; conflicting evidence is ignored;
- pseudoscience shows a total indifference to criteria of valid evidence, and controlled, repeatable, reproducible scientific experiments;
- pseudoscience relies heavily on subjective validation;
- pseudoscience does not progress; just switch from one fad to another;
- pseudoscience persuades using misinformation, appeals to widespread belief, rhetoric, propaganda, and misrepresentation, rather than presenting valid evidence;

- pseudoscience argues from ignorance, from alleged exceptions, errors, anomalies, strange or paranormal events; it bases claims on incompleteness of information about nature, rather than on what is known at present; it appeals to the ancient human habit of magical thinking;
- pseudoscience appeals to false authority, to emotion, to sentiment, or to distrust of established fact. Emotional appeals are common: «If it makes you feel good, it must be true.» «In your heart, you know it's right.» «Follow your bliss!» «Use your intuition!»;
- pseudoscience is fond of imaginary conspiracies «Scientists don't know everything!» «the government keeps it secret»;
- pseudoscience makes heavy use of an invented vocabulary in which the new terms introduced do not have precise or unambiguous definitions, and most have no definitions at all.

And, finally, pseudoscientists tend to be the so-called «crossovers»: «a scientist almost invariably winds up doing pseudoscience when he moves out of a field in which he is knowledgeable and competent, and plunges into another field of which he is quite ignorant. A physicist who claims to have found a new principle of biology – or a biologist who claims to have found a new principle of physics – is almost invariably doing pseudoscience. A scientist becomes a pseudoscientist when he defends an idea when all evidence and experiment is against it, because he is emotionally or ideologically committed to it. A scientist who forges data, or suppresses data which do not agree with his preconceptions, or refuses to let others see his data for independent evaluation, has become a pseudoscientist. Science is a high peak of intellectual integrity, fairness, and rationality» (Distinguishing Science from Pseudoscience).

An even shorter such guide is suggested by Russell Mayne, who studied cases of pseudoscience in English language teaching. He puts forward two main problems: lack of evidence and erosion of standards.

- Does it make too good to be true claims (panacea, cure-all)?
- Does it make claims that are vague or hard to test?
- Does it use a lot of science-sounding (wonderful and exotic) terms?
- Does it have little or no scientific credibility?
- Does it lack rigorous scientific evaluation?
- Is contrary evidence ignored by supporters? (Mayne, 2014).

Based on all of the above, as well as on our own findings, let's provide our own **summary of linguistic indicators of pseudoscience.**

Here belong:

- **factoids and various endorsements from celebrities or anyone who has no scientific expertise rather than facts;**
- **covering only the tiny part of actual events that claims "all the truth"; employing linguistic devices that mask half-truth** *("further research is needed")* **and eclecticism** *("a novel multidisciplinary approach");*

• **ignoring "facts in a world of disinformation"** (Jackson & Hall Jamieson, 2007);

• **use of scaremongering, -phobia and hoax-laden, alarmist and hysteria language** (ominous future; ominous truth behind …; rhetorical questions like "Can you imagine a life without smartphones?" "Imagine going two months without clean water?" using phrases like "global warming", "climate breakdown/ disruption/ shock/failure", instead of more scientifically accurate and far more linguistically neutral "climate change");

• **exaggerated language**, use of **weasel words** and **glittering generalities**; propaganda and sensationalist mass-media language ("sensational"; "a revolutionary discovery"; "one-of-a-kind" etc.)

• **use of empty words and vague language** to create the Woozle effect ("everyone knows", "it is clear that…"; "it is obvious…";

• **empty posturing.** Says Noam Chomsky:

"What you're referring to is what's called "theory". And when I said I'm not interested in theory, what I mean is, I'm not interested in posturing – using fancy terms … and pretending you have a theory when you have no theory whatsoever. So there's no theory in any of this stuff, not in the sense of theory that anyone is familiar with in the sciences or any other serious field. Try to find in all of the work you mentioned some principles from which you can deduce conclusions, empirically testable propositions where it all goes beyond the level of something you can explain in five minutes to a twelve-year old. See if you can find that when the fancy words are decoded. I can't. So I'm not interested in that kind of posturing. " (Chomsky, 2013);

• use of **scientific-sounding** but **misleading** and **unclear language** (a. k. a **technobabble; technospeak; scientese**).

This is also reflected in the following neologisms:

fruitloopery

n. The improper or ignorant use of scientific or technical language to make a false or impossible claim seem more believable.

"In 2005 Mike Holderness, a freelance contributor to New Scientist, wrote of "professional dissidents" who are given the oxygen of publicity by those journalists who "divide all stories into precisely two sides that get equal space: too often the reality-based community Versus fruitloops and/or special interests. " Language needed a term like that, and Holderness's choice was inspired. "Fruitloopery" became the New Scientist's generic word for advertisers' use of science either unverifiably or wildly out of context. Fruitloopery indicators in ads include the words quanta, tachyons, vibrational energies, or restructured water, especially in combination" (WordSpy).

nasty effect

n. The polarization of opinions on a particular topic caused by exposure to uncivil commentary about that topic.

"Science" magazine reported on the effects of nasty comments about science stories online. Not only do they fail to improve the debate, they also make people stupider… the readers become more entrenched in their previous opinions, whether positive or negative. " (WordSpy);

- **lack of self-correction**; over-reliance on personal experience, on confirmation rather than refutation;
- **making "too good to be true"** claims;
- **anecdata**, or **anecdotal evidence used to attempt to prove a hypothesis or to make a forecast or used just for fun**:

PAUL SOLMAN: You actually come to this place to find evidence for your forecast?

DAVID WYSS: Yeah, I actually do. I come to the Burlington Mall, especially like at Christmastime, just to see how many people are shopping. Is there a recovery in consumer spending, or are the stores empty?

MR. SOLMAN: This store is empty.

DAVID WYSS: This store is empty, no question.

MR. SOLMAN: A handful of stores, just one mall, not what you'd call a statistically significant sample. In fact, the most recent government report was that retail sales rose in January, which just goes to show why the journalist's approach to reality, what you might call "anecdata," may be the flimsiest form of forecasting (WordSpy).

Or: "Physicists are notoriously scornful of scientists from other fields. When the great Austrian physicist Wolfgang Pauli's wife left him for a chemist, he was staggered with disbelief. "Had she taken a bullfighter I would have understood, " he remarked in wonder to a friend. "But a chemist …" (Bryson, 2003);

- trying to detect some kind of **conspiracy** behind something:

"There seemed to be a mystifying universal conspiracy among textbook authors to make certain the material they dealt with never strayed too near the realm of the mildly interesting" (Bryson, 2003).

Another case of pseudoscience is scientific misconduct. **Scientific fraud** is not just about **plagiarism**, but also about

- **"scamferences",** when scientists are sent a well-written email inviting them to an international conference in their research field, complete with actual research topics that will be discussed, a professional looking conference website and a personal invitation to submit a paper. If the invitation is accepted, a notification of the paper's acceptance is sent and the author is asked to pay a standard subscription fee. All seems perfectly normal and very convincing, until people arrive on the venue, only to find that the conference never existed;
- **computer-generated research papers to mimic actual research.**

Most of them were "created" by using SCIgen computer program. Here's the actual story of Phil Davis:

"Would a publisher accept a completely nonsensical manuscript if the authors were willing to pay Open Access publication charges? After being spammed with invitations to publish in Bentham Science journals earlier this year, I decided to find out. Using SCIgen, a software that generates grammatically correct, "context-free" (i. e. nonsensical) papers in computer science, I quickly created an article, complete with figures, tables, and references. It looks pretty professional until you read it. For example:

In this section, we discuss existing research into red-black trees, vacuum tubes, and courseware [10]. On a similar note, recent work by Takahashi suggests a methodology for providing robust modalities, but does not offer an implementation (Feyerabend).

The manuscript, entitled "Deconstructing Access Points" was submitted on January 29th, 2009, to *The Open Information Science Journal* (TOISCIJ), a journal that claims to enforce peer-review. The manuscript was given two co-authors, as was their institutional affiliation: The **C**enter for **R**esearch in **A**pplied **P**hrenology based in Ithaca, New York. If the acronym didn't reveal the farce right away, phrenology is the pseudoscience of reading personality traits from the lumps on one's head. Bentham confirmed receipt of my submission the very next day (January 30, 2009). Nearly four months later, I received a response. The article was accepted. The acceptance letter read:

This is to inform you that your submitted article has been accepted for publication after peer-reviewing process in TOISCIJ. I would be highly grateful to you if you please fill and sign the attached fee form and covering letter and send them back via email as soon as possible to avoid further delay in publication.

The letter was written by a Ms. Sana Mokarram, the Assistant Manager of Publication. She included a fee schedule and confirmation that I would pay US$800. The manuscript was subsequently retracted:

Dear Ms. Mokarram,

I'm afraid that we have to retract this article. We have discovered several errors in the manuscript which question both the validity of the study and the results.

I have yet to receive a response. What is surprising is that the assistant manager claimed that the article went through peer-review although there is no evidence that it actually did. Anyone with English proficiency – with or without a degree in computer science – would recognize that this manuscript makes absolutely no sense. Had it gone through peer review, I should have received reviewer comments. If you are skeptical that I might be misreading the response of someone whose first language is not English, I clarified the decision in a previous email with the simple question, "Does this mean that our manuscript was accepted for publication?" Her answer was the above quote. " (Davis, 2009).

Doing "cosmetic" science has nothing to do with fancy cosmetics world, of course. The term is inspired by "cosmetic engineering":

"*Equally unscientific is the so-called **cosmetic engineering**, that deals not with fancy world of cosmetics, of course, but is about the impact that personal computers with elaborate graphical environments have had on modern engineering practice: "These tools have eliminated much tedium from the design process, allowed us to stimulate many systems before prototype construction, and provided a means of quickly visualizing complex phenomena… One unfortunate result has been the encouragement of a type of engineering best characterized as "cosmetic". Cosmetic engineering is more concerned with appearance than substance. It is performed by cosmetic engineers whose first priority is to create things that look good; content and performance are of secondary importance. Cosmetic engineering's products are many and (one might say) many-splendored. On paper, they take the form of bland, immaculate graphics, often in color, and always of "publication quality". The computer screen is the medium of choice for the true cosmetic engineer since it provides a dazzling variety of ingenious means for saying something about nothing… This is not to deny appearance its rightful place in product design. An automatic dishwasher should look good in addition to being able to wash dishes. The trouble starts when they get involved in the guts of the technical design itself. Worse yet, one of them may be allowed to manage the project with the values of cosmetic engineering. Imagine, if you will, the development of a complex piece of military software by a team consisting of entirely cosmetic engineers. The topics are technical, in a sense, but have little relevance to the fundamental tasks the engineers are being* *paid to perform. Instead, they focus on the mechanics of producing the visible end-item. As in all cosmetic endeavors, the issues that ought to be addressed become secondary. Finally, a demonstrable product emerges. It displays its results in luscious, 24-bit true color. It has only one fault: it produces erroneous results"* (Johns, 1993).

In other words, research becomes a **simulacra** and **simulation** (terms by Jean Baudrillard who claims that modern society has replaced all reality and meaning with symbols and signs, and that the human experience is of a simulation of reality rather than reality itself (Baudrillard, 1994), which brings to mind another pseudoscientific simulacrum case of **advertising**. Its inherently unscientific nature is aptly revealed by Richard Feynman, who analyzed the case of one of TV commercials:

"*Wesson oil doesn't soak through food. Well, that's true. It's not dishonest; but the thing I'm talking about is not just a matter of not being dishonest, it's a matter of scientific integrity, which is another level. The fact that should be added to that advertising statement is that no oils soak through food, if operated at a certain temperature. If operated at another temperature, they all will – including Wesson oil. So it's the implication which has been conveyed, not the fact, which is true, and the difference is what we have to deal with*" (Feynman, 1974).

Let's compare what the ad says (left column) with scientist's comments:

Advertising	*Skeptical scientist's comment*
Imagine a world without laundry detergent. No more troublesome decisions as to whether to buy Cheer or Joy or Surf or Tide or Amway. *What a wonderful world it would be! Well, it's here. You can quit buying detergent. The new ABI Laundry Ball is here. The what? The ABI Laundry Ball. You can buy one for a mere $75.* *Here is how it works:* ***The ABI Laundry Ball emits a charge into the water which breaks the bonds between molecules, enabling the individual water molecules to penetrate the fabric. The water is also highly charged with negative ions.***	I find this information a bit puzzling in light of another claim made by the people at ABI. In their explanation as to how laundry detergents work they say: **The detergent saturated water enters the fabric and the dirt is attracted to the positive charge in the soap molecule. The dirt and detergent rinses out during the rinse cycle (in theory). Clothes are clean at a cost of approximately 11 to 25 cents per load.** If dirt is highly positively charged and soap molecules are positively charged, the dirt should be repelled by the soap, not attracted to it. This must be an example of New Age Physics where «energy» means whatever you

The dirt, which is highly positive in charge, is attracted to the individual water molecules and it [sic] flushed out with the water during the rinse cycle. The rinse cycle actually acts like a second wash cycle, since there in NO SOAP to rinse out. Clothes are clean at a cost of approximately 5 cents per load. ***By manipulating the electric fields associated with hydrogen and oxygen atoms, crystals are formed in the shape of electrical keys.*** ***These keys fit into locks and bonds of other compounds to dissolve away dirt much like the action of enzymes in the human digestive system.*** ***These crystals [sic] retain their form in boiling liquids. I_e Crystals, although completely benign to man and the environment, can perform and enhance reactions formerly only possible by chemicals, soaps, and detergents.***	want it to mean because Quantum Mechanics proves that anything goes. Here is some especially interesting technological information for New Agers who love their crystals: So, there you have it. The ABI people even quote Dr. Shui-yin Lo, nuclear physicist, who apparently spends his time working on new and improved ways to do the laundry. Some people might wonder what is in this little ball that can manipulate electrical fields and form little crystals. I wonder if the crystals act as anti-matter and annihilate the dirt, too. If not, where do all the little dirt ball locks go with their crystal keys stuck in them? And do they bond together into one giant dirt ball crystal?

The above case clearly proves the idea that advertising is about pseudoscientific manipulating.

Finally, it could be concluded that pseudoscientific discourse can be pervasive and sometimes very persuasive. We see it in everyday life (e. g. magical thinking), in popular science and science education, in mass media, and, of course, in science itself. The comforting untruth of pseudoscience leads to denying the uncomfortable truth. However, there are many clues that reveal pseudoscientific claims wrapped in words in virtually any setting imaginable. It's about reading between the lines to understand someone's real intentions from what they write or say.

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Olga Ilchenko

THE WARS OF THE ROSES: ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VOICE IN MODERN ENGLISH

Anxious, inexperienced authors obey rules. Rebellious, unschooled writers, break rules. Artists master the form. (Robert McKee)

The author seeks to shed light on the current debate on passive vs. active voice in modern English, to give some of its history and rationale, and to explain why there will and always should be such a debate. We emphasize the importance of the passive voice in general (lay) English and in the language of science. The study applied mixed methods to reveal several specific cases of passive vs. active voice preference and the combination of both. Finally, we discuss relevant editing techniques and make recommendations for improving teaching the category of voice in EFL classroom.

Key words: active voice, passive voice, variation, coherence, editing

The problem of the category of voice in linguistics is not new. What makes it special is the mere fact that it belongs to the so-called "eternal" problems in language studies. There have been fundamental studies of this category since ancient times. Aristotle, in his work "The Categories" (part of a bigger treatise called "Organon") deals with all kinds of things that can be the subject or the predicate of a proposition. The last but not least category he suggests is the category of "being affected" (the other categories are: the category of substance, of quality, of quantity, of relatives, of place, of time, of position, of condition, of having, of doing) (Artistotle, 2014). Since then, there have been numerous studies that dealt with the issues of the passive vs. active voice in various languages. In English linguistics, especially noteworthy is W. Mathesius's work on the passive voice who emphasized not only verbal, but also nominative, adverbial, possessive and perceptive types of passive predication (Mathesius, 1915). But perhaps the best and most comprehensive theoretical treatise of the passive voice in English belongs to professors Lyudmyla M. Medvedeva (1983) and Alla D. Belova (1988). Other studies of the passive voice deal mostly with translation studies and pedagogical implications and classroom applications (Hinkel, 2004). A recent fundamental corpus analysis has revealed the diachronic and syncronic trends in academic writing in terms of grammatical complexity. Specifically, it notes the increasing use of get-passive overall, the decreasing use of the be-passive and the development of progressive-passive (Biber 2016, p.31). Here, we rely on analyzing discourse production and comprehension in terms of context interpretation and focus on concrete practical issues.

Opting for active voice, whenever possible, has become commonplace in today's authoritative grammar and style books (Strunk & White, 1999; Zinsser, 2016). On the other hand, June Casagrande writes on myths about the passives, especially this one: "passive structure is bad". She notes that passives are quite useful when used wisely. Also, we can't convert the sentence into active voice if we don't know the new sentence's subject. She gives a good example:

Professor Persimmon is considered a leading expert.

People consider professor Persimmon a leading expert. (What people?) (Casagrande, 2010).

Still, in scientific discourse, with its traditional abundance of passive voice constructions of all sorts, we are constantly being told to avoid it at all costs. But is it really worth doing so?

Let's start with some important basic things. If the verb can be followed by a direct object (transitive verb) it can be made passive. Some verbs can be used **only in the active voice**: *exist, happen/occur, rise, arise, fall, depend (on), consist (of), and result (from).* The passive voice is believed to create the so-called "objectivity effect", to concentrate on the subject itself, especially in the language of science. In such cases, it is put in the very beginning of a sentence:

The models were developed from scratch.

Much has been written about various aspects related to standards and standardization.

This technology is widely used nowadays.

It can be concluded that the argument is valid.

Still, there are cases when active and passive voice may be used interchangeably:

One can conclude ...

I/ we conclude ...

You can conclude ...

The conclusion is…

One more important point about passive voice preference: it is widely used when subject is ether unimportant (e.g. *the agenda was changed yesterday*) or undesirable (for some reasons) to mention (e.g. *authorization is required; the project was rejected; the document isn't filled out correctly*). Here, passives can be used to "hide" the agent for some reason, say, the agent may be unknown, redundant:

Potatoes are grown in almost every country.

English is spoken worldwide.

or … someone to blame:

The message was misinterpreted.

On the other hand, sometimes the authors specifically emphasize who is NOT to blame, as in the book by Carol Tavris and Elliot Aronson (2008), entitled "Mistakes Were Made (But Not by Me): Why We Justify Foolish Beliefs, Bad

Decisions, and Hurtful Acts." Here, "by" is somewhat hidden in the brackets, which sort of reflects current trend of not using "by" in passive constructions.

It is also preferable to use modal verbs (specifically, can, could, may, might) in passive constructions, especially when writing about examples and conclusions:

A simple example <u>can be used</u> to illustrate the approach described here.

<u>It could be concluded</u> that this is less important.

The matter <u>may be elucidated</u> by further analysis.

Also, Polish scholar D. Lachowicz (1981) noticed that the so called "active" verbs (e.g. conduct, connect) are "neutralized" by Passive voice. On the contrary, "passive" verbs (e.g. indicate, reveal) tend to be used in Active voice.

The next important thing to consider is word order. Examples:

How many friends <u>were invited by you</u>?

(Emphasis is on "how many have **you**, personally, invited).

How many friends <u>were you invited by</u>?

(Emphasis is on how many **people** were interested in inviting you).

Let's look at one more case: the phrase *to have/get something done*:

I <u>had</u> my printer <u>fixed</u>. (the agent is implied)

I <u>got</u> my printer <u>fixed</u>. (basically, the same as above, only less formal).

In academic writing, the passive voice is still widely used, moreover, passive voice verbs are important for distinguishing academic prose in English, that is, most written academic texts (regardless of specific field) will use passive voice verbs to a greater extent than conversational English, though in engineering and natural science texts, as compared to humanities, passives are especially common (Biber & Gray, 2016, pp. 71-72).

The debate on active vs. passive voice preference seems to be perennial. First, because the subject matter is so complex. Second, because it is often misinterpreted. Geoffrey Pullum (2014), in his seminal paper "Fear and Loathing of the English Passive" points out that writing advisers have been condemning the English passive since the early 20th century. However, the only problem is actually *what* should be avoided. He argues that it is not just the verb that exhibits passive voice in English, but larger units, specifically the verb phrase (VP) and the clause, and focus should be NOT on "receiving action". Professor Pullum says there are many kinds of passives in English, namely:

- **short** passives and
- **long** passives (the ones with by-phrase),
- **be-**passives and
- **get-**passives,
- **prepositional** passives (**idiomatic** and **locative** types),
- **bare** passive clauses (e.g. *That said*,),
- **embedded** passives (e.g. *manufacturers saw themselves pushed to the brink of going out of business*),

- **adjectival** passives (e.g. *the island was uninhabited by humans*), and
- **concealed** passives (e.g. *the situation needs looking into by experts*).

The most important point made by Pullum is this: passives are sensitive to discourse conditions and information-structure constraints. He gives several examples:

a. *Have you heard the news about <u>YouTube</u>? <u>It</u> was bought by Google. [**acceptable** because the subject is old and by-phrase NP is new]*

*b. Have you heard the news about Google? <u>YouTube</u> was bought by it/them. [**unacceptable** because the subject (YouTube) is newer in the discourse than the by-phrase]* (Pullum, 2014)

For that matter, we'd like to stress one important point, aptly expressed by Stan Carey "whenever someone complains about the passive voice, see if they're misidentifying or oversimplifying it. There's a very good chance of both." (Carey, 2014). G. Pullum gives numerous examples of this: cases that do not contain passive at all, but are mistakenly perceived as such (e.g. *there was a ceasefire agreement*; *mistakes happened; when a boy,* and many other cases of that ilk) (Ibid.). We agree with him on this point, with the exception of just one specific case that he mentions in his article. He says there is no passive clause in the following example of a Reuters headline: *Palestinian not named as perpetrator; Israeli not named as victim.* We tend to disagree on this one, because, apparently, here we observe a special linguistic device that might be called "hidden passive", so typical of media headlines (full version of the title is obviously *Palestinian <u>was (not) named</u> as perpetrator*).

Still, currently, the overall trend in English is opting for active voice wherever and whenever possible. With the ubiquitous mantra "choose the active voice, do not use passive" it sometimes looks – speaking figuratively and literally – like the war on the passive voice. But are there going to be any winners in, figuratively speaking, "the Wars of the Roses"?

Let's see. On the one hand, writers, such as George Orwell (1946) used to complain about the passive (but used it extensively themselves, nonetheless)**.** On the other hand, some of the greatest literary and science writings do start with the passive voice constructions. Consider the following:

It is <u>a truth universally acknowledged</u>, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife.

(Jane Austen, Pride and Prejudice (1813).

The story of our world is a story that <u>is still very imperfectly known</u>. A couple of hundred years ago men possessed the history of little more than the last three thousand years. What happened before that time was a matter of legend and speculation. Over a large part of the civilized world <u>it was believed and taught</u> that the world had been created suddenly in 4004 B.C., though authorities differed as to whether this had occurred in the spring or autumn of that year. This fantastically precise misconception <u>was based upon</u>

a too literal interpretation of the Hebrew Bible, and upon rather arbitrary theological assumptions connected therewith. Such ideas have long since been abandoned by religious teachers, and it is universally recognized that the universe in which we live has to all appearances existed for an enormous period of time and possibly for endless time.

(H. G. Wells. A Short History of the World (1922).

And the recent example of a cool beginning with passive:

What if the world we knew was subtly being replaced with a new one? Would we notice immediately, or would it only be evident in hindsight? According to the World Economic Forum, the "Fourth Industrial Revolution" is here. It's a change as significant as any modern revolution before it. And if we look, we'll see the signs.

(O'Keefe II (2016).

The famous, almost 100% passive voice-laden, Intel's Andy Grove quote contains three passives: *"There is always more to be done, more that should be done, always more than can be done."* (Kruse, 2016). More past and current examples? One of the well-known Ernest Hemingway's books uses semi-passive in its title: "The Moveable Feast" (1964). In science, we have "Speakable and Unspeakable in Quantum Mechanics" (1988), and "Quantum [Un]Speakables II" (2017). Obviously, "Orwell was not always right" (Skapinker, 2017).

Implicit semi-passives – mostly adjectival (but there are nouns, too) are abundant in English (e.g. *the "unsinkable" ship (the Titanic), understandable, irreplaceable* etc.*)*. Here are recent additions, adjectives:

a demonstrable product
an implementable idea
a readable book
customizable content
pre(-)loved / pre-owned (secondhand)
searchable
ungoogleable
undeliverable
uninsurable
huggable
kissable
salvageable
more easily digestible
It's a doable task.
The author's characters are believable.
We've put together this manageable list of suggestions.
Modest bragging is a learnable skill.
How to be instantly likeable / loveable?
It's something that we all need: to be loved when we are unlovable.

It doesn't matter if something I buy turns out to be a mistake and unreturnable, because three years ago I found fifty dollars on the street, so THAT BALANCES EVERYTHING OUT!

Here come several novel and trendy nouns:

usability
writability
tellability
ambient findability (the property of being findable at all times)
(digital) deliverable(s) (a tangible or intangible good or service produced as a result of a project that is intended to be delivered to a customer).

Some things in the English language can be expressed only with the help of the passive voice. Simply because there *are* cases when only passive voice will do:

a.k.a. - also known as
She was born in December / in 1987 / thirty years ago.
They got married last year.
"Everything which is not forbidden is allowed." (a constitutional principle of English law).

To say nothing of:

made in…
made from
shipped by
much spoken about
(X) was first discovered
forbidden / not permitted / access denied
banned from travel (укр. невиїзний, рос. невыездной)
taken-for-granted context
close-knit community
a truth universally acknowledged
a lie universally hidden
no stone unturned
What needs to be done?
It is not unheard of.
You must not be seen.
S/he doesn't need to be told again/twice.
I was invited to the conference/party.
This technology is widely used.
It can/could be concluded that… .
The book was printed on acid-free paper/last year.
Never leave a burning candle unattended.
Not much is known about… .

It has long been known…
You are all set.
Well done !
I'm done. (I'm ready.)
Are you done? (Are you ready?)
Are we understood?
Duly noted.
Much appreciated.
It seems they can be trained. Who would think?
Twas meant to be. (It was meant to be.)
We are very easily fooled.
Get lost! (Go away!)
Just get it done!
Get more done in less time.
He wants his new project to get green-lighted.
It remains to be seen.
Much remains to be done.
Everything must be done with love.
When all is said and done. (at the end of the day/sooner or later)
What's done cannot be undone.
Lessons must be learnt!
The conference was well-attended.
The book is dedicated to… .
Modern electronics is based on semiconductor transistors.
Vanderbilt is located in the heart of Nashville, home to a diverse population of 1.6 million and marked by its unique blend of cosmopolitan flair and small town appeal.
This website is not currently being updated. For current news and latest information please visit the new website that is being developed.
The book sells well. (a rare case of implicit passive).
404! This page was not found.

Interestingly, in German, in the last example, this very idea is expressed either via active or passive voice – *404! Diese Seite existiert nicht. 404!Seite nicht gefunden.*

Modern book reviews abound with emphatic recommendations containing passives, e.g.: *"Could. Not. Put. Down. It must be read!"* or, to convey a similar idea, with semi-passives like *"an unputdownable book"*.

And here are some examples from modern songs:

Pink "Get the Party Started".
Miley Cyrus "Can't Be Tamed".
Maroon 5 "She Will be Loved".

In manuals and all kinds of guidelines, passive voice is traditionally more preferable. However, what we observe today, is rather the **interplay** of both passive and active voice, even in guidelines and regulations:

Successful conferences are based on the strong cooperation of more than one IEEE organizational unit, such as technical/professional and geographic units. The earlier these units are involved in the conference, the better. These arrangements must be made before the selection of the conference location.

Use this form to provide IEEE with details about your conference as soon as you have basic information such as the dates, location, and sponsors of the conference set. You can later provide IEEE Conference Services with updates or additional information when it is available.

A Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) is required when two or more entities agree to co-sponsor a conference. These entities may all be IEEE organizational units or IEEE and non-IEEE organizations that are legally registered as a not-for-profit. (IEEE).

The following spreadsheets list all IEEE conference titles found (or soon to be found) in IEEE Xplore. These lists are fully searchable and include data such as:

Conference titles.

Meeting dates and locations.

ISBNs (if applicable).

These spreadsheets are updated frequently; the last update is listed for each spreadsheet. Each list is available to download as an Excel file, can be sorted or customized, and is fully searchable. (IEEE).

Still, *generally* it is advisable to seek active voice alternative whenever possible, even when it comes to abstracts, traditionally dominated by the passive constructions. Example:

This latest monograph challenges and disrupts traditional notions of the anthropology of Britain as simply the practice of social anthropology "at home" by illuminating the ways in which this area of inquiry is outward looking in terms of its inter-disciplinary scope, theoretical, philosophical and social policy perspectives. Crucial to this endeavour is an exploration of the ways the ethnographic study of Britain contributes to issues and concerns that are central to anthropology and more broadly to sociological inquiry. This monograph will not only affect the ways sociologists think about the potential contribution of the anthropology of Britain to their empirical and theoretical concerns, but will also impact upon how anthropology thinks about itself and its relationship to other disciplines. (Reconfiguring the Anthropology of Britain, 2017).

When speaking about passive and active voice in research setting (and elsewhere) we have to make a choice from the editing perspective. Below we suggest **editing** tips for applying in your writing, with several before-and-after examples. Such revisions have also proved useful in our teaching practice:

This volume, ~~that was~~ edited by two professors, contains twenty-one chapters ~~that are~~ divided into five roughly equal parts.

Keynote speakers ~~who had been~~ invited at these events have often gained nationwide fame.

Your order ~~will be delivered~~ in 3 working days.	*We will deliver your order in 3 working days.*
~~As can be seen from table 7~~ ...	*Table 7 shows ...*
~~recently done~~ research	*recent research*
~~(it) is analyzed~~ ...	*we analyze ...*

Some authors suggest the notion of "strategic editing" when it comes to choosing active vs. passive voice, as in this example of rejection letter:

Although ~~you were not selected for~~ we filled the position for which you applied, ~~the interview committee was impressed with~~ your credentials and experience impressed the committee. We're offering you the opportunity to interview for a second job opening as a sales representative in our company. (ProsWrite, 2015).

On the other hand, it is noted that passive rather than active voice is preferable in the language of science, namely, when reporting about some potent drug that *"has been discovered"* at some university, *"has been shown to work"* by clinical trials, and *"is likely to be approved"* for clinical use. Here, passive voice constructions focus on the subject matter - the drug itself (as it is mentioned in the beginning of the sentences) rather than the university, number of clinical trials or other details (Freeman, 2013). Moreover, passive voice may be more than welcome in some situations – like when it's necessary to maintain thematic flow. Active voice is better suited to establishing a personal style or tone. The choice should be strategic and depend on the rhetorical context (the purpose, the reader's needs, and the content of the message. (ProsWrite, 2015).

Another important issue is **cohesion** and **information flow**. Kenneth D. Mahrer points out that in modern technical writing, we advise writers to use the direct, active voice and avoid the weak and indirect, passive voice. He gives the following example (two sentences are: (1) active and (2) passive):

(1) Fluid injections in deep wells in which the downhole fluid pressure sufficiently reduces the effective frictional stress across a plane of weakness induce microseismicity.

(2) Microseismicity is induced by fluid injections in deep wells when the injected fluid pressure sufficiently reduces the effective frictional stress across a plane of weakness.

While some would automatically advise using the active voice in the following case:

Geophysicists are finding some astonishing new results about fracture and *joint growth by studying microseismicity.* ***[insert sentence (1) or (2)]*** *By reducing the frictional stress below the in situ shear stress, we generate a local slip or dislocation that grows into a microseismic event.*

Mahrer suggests that coherence dictates using (2), not (1) – simply because in the last part of the first passage microseismicity is some *new* information. If we use the active voice sentence, microseismicity is not mentioned until the end of the second sentence. This distance between introducing and discussing microseismicity makes the passage incoherent (Mahrer, 2001).

Also, it is very important, especially in the language of science, to give priority "to those features of style that make our discourse seem cohesive, those features that help the reader organize separate sentences into a single, unified whole", to prepare your readers for new and important information, to move "from the known to the unknown" (Williams, 1995, p.48). Joseph Williams stresses the topic of a sentence is its "psychological subject", i.e. the idea we announce in the first few words of a sentence: "it is almost always a noun phrase of some kind that the rest of the sentence characterizes, comments on, or says something about" (Ibid., p.50). In a similar vein, Joshua Schimel writes about the passive voice in scientific discourse: "it's a tool that weakens a single sentence, but in a way that can allow it to fit more snugly into a paragraph, strengthening the whole" (Schimel, 2012, p.135)

One more important point is using the passive voice with the word pairs "because of" and "due to". Though often mistakenly considered otherwise, they are not interchangeable. "Due to" has adjectival nature, and can modify only nouns and pronouns, while "because of" is an adverb and therefore can modify verbs

His reward was ***due to*** *hard work.*

He was rewarded ***because of*** *hard work.*

Useful hint for choosing "because of": He was rewarded could be a complete sentence, unlike His reward. One more example:

Rutherford B. Hayes ***was nicknamed*** *"His Fraudulency" and "Rutherfraud"* ***~~due to~~*** ***because of*** *the highly contested – and some think stolen – presidential election of 1876.*

Both active and passive voice can be used with "because of"; however, our own counts tend to show preference for passives.

When it comes to teaching the passive voice, one thing is evident: artificial, unnaturally sounding constructs (frequently found in instructional materials – various textbooks and grammar books) should be avoided at all costs. Examples? While "*English is spoken here*" or "*the Internet is dominated by English*" are perfectly acceptable, *"*English is spoken by Kate and Bill*" is not. As is "*it will be remembered by me*" (the transform of "*I will remember it*"). Instead, lists of set-phrases and collocations with passive voice are more than welcome in the EFL classroom.

Eventually, it all boils down to two points: linguistic and pedagogic. When it comes to passive vs. active voice in English, we should speak not of "either... or", but rather, of "both…and" approach. That is about the interplay of active and passive voice to add variety and elegance, like in the following example: *If you really want to impress someone, then be impressed by them.*

Or:

The issues of coherence and information flow should not be overlooked, either. And, I must admit, that while I, too, prefer the active voice as much as possible, I strongly believe that those who learn English as a second language (non-native speakers at large) and even native speakers (especially editors), should have a firm understanding of the passive voice: the structure, logic, and grammar behind it. They should be able to recognize it and adjust to various discourses and discursive conventions, and to observe variation and current trends in language development.

We could conclude that passive voice is still a topic of interest today, and this offers an insight into just how enduring its "legacy" is. And just like the Wars of the Roses eventually ended in the cordial union between the rivaling clans, there is a bright prospect for coexistence of passive and active voices in English. There isn't a one-size-fits-all formula for properly crafting the perfect sentence, paragraph, or text, but there are always effective linguistic devices that help making oral and written communication more effective. The list is open, and the possibilities are endless.

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Olga Ilchenko

JAMES THURBER AS A MASTER OF PARODY: AN INTERDISCURSIVE TAKE

The paper deals with some of James Thurber's works that feature parody. Analyzed is the collection of short stories "Ladies' and Gentlemen's Guide to English Usage." It is argued that the humorous effect is achieved through the interplay of various types of discourses. The article also addresses the terms "intertextuality", "interdiscursivity", and other relevant notions.

Key words: James Thurber; intertextuality, interdiscursivity; parody

I'm humbled and truly delighted to dedicate this vignette to professor Kolegaeva. Ever since I've known her, first by getting my hands on her brilliant book on scientific and literary communication (Kolegaeva,1991) that actually ignited my lifelong interest in the language of science. Later on, meeting her in person, I have never stopped admiring her expertise, wit and sense of humor. In this paper, I try to somehow continue the **timely** tradition set forth by Iryna Mykhailivna, of, figuratively speaking, making the best of both worlds – **the scientific/academic** and **literary discourses.**

Parody is an imitation of a particular thing, be it a writer, a genre, or a discourse, to create a comic effect through apt imitation of the original (but, unlike satire, without direct criticizing). In our case, it is about the **interplay** of everyday and academic discourses, as **non-professional** and **professional** (or, in our case, it is what in terms of M. Bakhtin, is called "authoritative discourse" that is used to educate the addressee (e.g. a word of a teacher, a user's guide, academic book, religious discourse, etc.), which is inherently "superior" to other discourses and demands "unconditional allegiance" (Bakhtin, 1984).

So why James Thurber? First, because some of his works are exactly about combining the two discourses in question. Second, because he is one of the lesser known, and hence lesser studied US writers, though this writer definitely deserves more prominence, possibly, no less of the caliber of Mark Twain. And last, but not least, it's a great material for employing the **methods and techniques** of linguistic analysis suggested by professor Kolegaeva (1977), namely the author's vocabulary repertoire, which also brings to mind both post-structuralist Derrida's deconstruction ideas (Derrida, 1998), and more recent approach in terms of intratextuality and data mining (Palmer).

What is so specific about **intermingling the discourses**? This inevitably calls to mind the terms "speech interference", "textual interference"(or "hybrid construction"), "intertextuality", "hypertextuality", "bricolage", "anchorage", "transtextuality", and, finally, "heteroglossia", "polyphony" and "interdiscursivity".

Let's briefly sort it out. "**Speech intereference**", as suggested by V. Voloshinov, is about meeting and confronting of **two** persons' intonations, of two points of views – the author-narrator's (ironic, sarcastic) and the characher's (lacking any irony at all) (Voloshinov, 1929, p. 148). Now what M. Bakhtin calls "**textual interference**" or "**hybrid construction**" is more about the utterance that belongs to **one** speaker combining two speech manners, two styles, two senses and values (Bakhtin, 1934-1935, p. 118). Another important notion put forth by Bakhtin was "**dialogic**", or "**dialogism**" (suggesting that all language – verbal and nonverbal – is dialogic, not just literature) (Bakhrin, 1984, p. 90). The idea of Bakhtinian dialogism later on was creatively reworked by Julia Kristeva who introduced the semiotic notion of "**intertextuality**" (Kristeva, 1986). It should be emphasized that Kristeva differentiated between the "two axes" of texts: a **horizontal axis** (author – reader) and a **vertical axis** (text – other texts) (Kristeva, 1980).

J. Culler suggested two types of intertextuality: **macro-intertextuality** (the whole world is a text) and **micro-intertextuality** (the relationship between a given text and other texts existing in a given text.) (Culler, 1981). Intertextuality is basically about various borrowings (like quotations etc.). In modern computer-mediated world, we talk about digital culture **hypertextuality** that disrupts the conventional "linearity" of texts since computer-based text(s) could easily (sometimes even in one click) take the readers directly to other texts. An example of such computer-based intertextuality is **bricolage –** "adopting and adapting borrowed material from the public domain of the Web in the process of fashioning personal and public identities" (Chandler, 1998, 2007).

Intertextuality is also about all sorts of **allusions**. Interestingly, Roland Barthes introduced the concept of **anchorage** to denote **allusive** linguistic elements that serve to "anchor" the preferred readings of an image, especially (but not only) in advertising, and specifically, to address text-image relationships (Barthes, 1977, pp. 38,41).

Gerard Genette suggested the term **"transtextuality"** as a more inclusive and broader term than "intertextuality" that involves the following five subtypes:

- **intertextuality**: quotation, plagiarism, allusion;
- **paratextuality**: the relation between a text and its "paratext" that surrounds the main body of the text (titles, headings, prefaces, epigraphs, dedications, acknowledgements, footnotes, illustrations, dust jackets etc.);
- **architextuality**: (text as part of a genre or genres);
- **metatextuality** (explicit or implicit critical commentary of one text on another text);
- **hypotextuality** (the relation between a text and a preceding "hypotext" a text or genre on which it is based but which it transforms, modifies, elaborates or extends – including parody/spoof, sequel, translation). Genette also called this "hypertextuality", but as we said above, currently "hypertextuality" is used in regard to digital milieu. (Genette, 1997)

N. Fairclough differentiated between **“manifest intertextuality”** (other texts are explicitly, or “manifestly” marked by quotation marks and other relevant textual features) and **“constitutive intertextuality”** (which refers to the complex relation of genres or configuration of discourse types’ conventions when the text is produced.) (Fairclough, 1992, pp. 17, 85, 105; Fairclough, 2003). In fact, “interdiscursivity” is rooted in Bakhtinian **“heteroglossia” –** different strata of the same language and **“polyphony”** – the diversity of voices employed (Bakhtin, 1934-1935). Today we speak of interdiscursivity mostly in terms of French linguistic traditions, i.e. relating a certain type of discourse to other discourses (Courtine, 1981, 5), relations among discursive formations (large heterogeneous discursive entities, e.g. natural history and political economy during enlightenment) (Angenot, 2004) or, according to M. Foucault, interdiscourse is differences and equalities across discursive formations (Foucault, 1969). The result of such discursive interplay is evident in neologisms, most of them are **portmanteau words**, like “infomercial” (information + commercial, which is about combining information (scientific discourse) and commercial (marketing and advertising), infotainment (information+entertainment), edutainment (education+entertainment), and advertorial (advertisement + editorial), to describe the **hybrid features of various discourses**, as is noted by V. Bhatia, who, for example, explores the cases of interdiscursivity in business advertising, news reporting and legal documents (among other things), that result in a “mixing”, even “blending” of genres. Such “intense interdiscursivity” mirrors the “dynamic complexity of professional communication is the result of several factors, including the ever-increasing use of multi-media, explosion of information technology, multi-disciplinary contexts of the world of work, increasingly competitive professional (academic as well as business) environment, and the overwhelmingly compulsive nature of promotional and advertising activities.” (Bhatia, 1995, 2004). Other approaches toward studying interdiscursivity include exploring cross-cultural and professional interdiscursivity (Scollon, Scollon & Jones, 2012) and also R.Wodak’s “discourse-historical approach” (Wodak, 2001).

Getting back to James Thurber as a master of parody, we should note that his literary works are rooted in the literary traditions of Charles Dickens and his predecessors, namely, Henry Fielding, Tobias George Smollett, and especially Lawrence Sterne. Also, not to be forgotten are Jonathan Swift, Mark Twain, Bernard Shaw, and also Rabelais and Cervantes. For instance, Lawrence Sterne in “The Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy, Gentleman” humorously refers to John Locke’s “An Essay Concerning Human Understanding.” It’s one of the first cases of the language of science parody – starting with the fact that Tristram Shandy, who narrates about his life, is unable to explain anything in simple words. Another interdiscursive feature of Sterne’s book is reference to Cervantes’s Don Quixote (whose character stunningly resembles Uncle Toby) and Rocinante.

James Thurber, one of the most popular humorists of his time, is best known for his short stories, fairy tales, and fables. He was also a brilliant cartoonist:

"Well, if I called the wrong number, why did you answer the phone?"

Like Anton Chekhov, Thurber humorously portrayed the frustrations and eccentricities of ordinary people. Among his favorite subjects were the psychology of man-woman relationship (e.g. the fable "The Unicorn in the Garden") and the English language (e.g. "The Spreading "You Know" (the phenomenon noted in 1960, and still with us), "The New Vocabularianism," and, of course, "Ladies' and Gentlemen's Guide to English Usage", published in 1931 as part of the book "The Owl in the Attic and Other Perplexities". It is a parody of Henry Watson Fowler's 1926 "Dictionary of Modern English Usage", which is a good example of professional/"authoritative", and somewhat opinionated discourse. "The Guide" includes nice short stories on usage: "Who and Whom"; "Which"; "The Split Infinitive"; "Only and One"; "Whether"; "The Subjunctive Mood"; "Exclamation Points and Colons"; "The Perfect Infinitive"; and "Adverbial Advice". Let's analyze some of the pieces. In the examples below we observe the use of elements of academic discourse (underlined) to create humorous effect *(italics)*:

> "A common rule for determining whether "who" or "whom" is right, is to substitute "she" for "who," and "her" for "whom," and see which sounds the better. Take the sentence, "He met a woman who they said was an actress." Now if "who" is correct then "she" can be used in its place. Let us try it. "He met a woman she they said was an actress." That instantly rings false. It can't be right. Hence the proper usage is "whom." In certain cases grammatical correctness must often be subordinated to a consideration of taste. […] You might say: "There is, then, no hard and fast rule?" ("was then" would be better, since "then" refers to what is past). You might better say (or have said): "There was then (or is now) no hard and fast rule?" Only this, that it is better to use "whom" when

in doubt, and even better to re-word the statement, and *leave out all the relative pronouns, except ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub, and super.*" (Thurber, 1931)

The humorous effect in the last lines is achieved by the reference to the old-fashioned ways of studying Latin: "*ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, pro, sub,* and *super*" is a list that schoolchildren used to be required to memorize, because verbs compounded with these prepositions generally govern the dative case. Thurber has left off "… and sometimes *circum*", but he seems to have managed to make his way in the world nevertheless." (Liberman, 2012)

Another example:

The Perfect Infinitive

It is easy enough to say that a person should live in such a way as to avoid the perfect infinitive after the past conditional, but it is another matter to do it. The observance of the commonest amenities of life constantly leads us into that usage. Let us take a typical case. *A gentleman and his wife, calling on friends, find them not at home. The gentleman decides to leave a note of regret couched in a few well-chosen words, and the first thing he knows he is involved in this: "We would have liked to have found you in." Reading it over, the gentleman is assailed by the suspicion that he has too many "haves," and that the whole business has somehow been put too far into the past. His first reaction is to remedy this by dating the note: "9 p.m. Wednesday, Jan. 21, 1931." This at once seems too formal, and with a sigh he starts in again on the sentence itself. That is where he makes a fatal mistake. The simplest way out, as always, is to seek some other method of expressing the thought. In this case the gentleman should simply dash off, "Called. You were out. Sorry," and go home to bed.* (Thurber, 1931)

One more case:

There is a simple rule about past conditionals which will prevent a lapse into that deep contemplation which is so often fatal. After "would have liked," "would have hoped," "would have feared," etc., use the present indicative. The implication of non-fulfillment is inherent in the governing verb itself, that is, in the "would have liked," etc. You don't have to shade the infinitive to get *a nice note of frustration*. Let it alone. Dr. Fowler himself says: "Sometimes a writer, dimly aware that "would have liked to have done" is wrong, is yet so fascinated by the perfect infinitive that he clings to that at all costs." That's what it is – *a fascination – like a cobra's for a bird.* Avoid the perfect infinitive after the past conditional as you would a cobra. (Thurber, 1931)

Here a special emphasis is on the oxymoron "nice note of frustration", and on pictorial comparison. Now let's proceed with yet another example, this time on subjunctive mood.

The Subjunctive Mood

The importance of correct grammar in the home can not be over-estimated. Two young people should make sure that each is *rhetorically sound* before they get married, because grammatical precision, particularly in mood, is just as important as anything else. *Rhetoric and sex*, in fact, are so closely related that *when one becomes confused they both become confused.* Take the subjunctive. […] Let us examine the *all too common domestic situation where the husband arrives just after another gentleman has departed -- or just after he thinks another gentleman has departed (Suppositional Departures lead to just as much bitterness, and even more subjunctives, than Actual Departures).*

The wife, in either case, is almost sure to go into the subjunctive -- very likely before any accusation is made…Wives select the subjunctive usually because it is the best mood in which to spar for time, husbands because it lends itself most easily to ranting and posturing. As long as they both stay in it they are safe. Misunderstandings are almost certain to arise, however, when the husband goes into the indicative, as he is pretty sure to do… First he will begin with a plain past-tense indicative if-clause, "If George Spangrell was here," the husband will begin, lighting a cigarette, "I ..." "Well, what would you do if he were?" demands the wife. The confusion, which begins at this point, is pretty intricate. The husband has gone into the indicative, but his wife has stayed in the subjunctive and, furthermore, she thinks that he is still there, too. Thus she thinks he intended to say: "If George Spangrell was here [that is, now] I would tell him what I think of him, the low scoundrel." [...] What he probably intended to say was merely something like this: "If George Spangrell was here, I wouldn't like it, but of course I know he wasn't, dear." However, misunderstandings now begin to pile up. The husband is instantly made suspicious by her "What would you do if he were?" He considers her "were" tantamount to "is." [...] There are several ways to prevent a situation like this. In the first place, when a husband says "was" a wife should instantly respond with "wasn't" at its face value, because it preserves their egotism and self-respect. On the other hand, "if ... were" is always dangerous. Husbands have come to know that a wife's "if... were" usually means that what she is presenting as purely hypothetical is, in reality, a matter of fact… Husbands are suspicious of all subjunctives. Wives should avoid them. (Thurber, 1931)

James Thurber thought punctuation was no less important. Here's why.

Exclamation Points and Colons

Take the sentence "You are wonderful!" That's trite, and it's made triter by the exclamation point, but if one writes it thus: "You are: wonderful," it's certainly not trite. Nothing so closely resembles the catch in the voice of the lover as that very colon. Instead of shouting the word "wonderful," as the exclamation point does, it forces a choking pause before that word, thus giving an effect of tense, nervous endearment, which is certainly what the writer is after. (Thurber, 1931)

To put it in a nutshell, all pieces by Thurber are wonderful (here I might use Thurber's technique and write "all pieces by Thurber are: wonderful") and definitely worth reading and digging deeper. They are full of wit, but "The Guide," especially, contains exemplars of parody due to intermingling of various discourses. In it, specifically, the parody is built around general advice-giving on just about everything: life, marriage, society, middle class oddities. It implies that "authoritative" literature is never perfect, just as us and everything around us. And that such prescriptive books should be treated as a potential subject to creative interpretation. As James Thurber has shown, this would probably make them devoid of some "authoritativeness", but will definitely breathe new life into otherwise way too serious stuff.

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Olga Ilchenko

NARRATIVIZE THIS: AN UNLIKELY CASE

Behind the need to communicate is the need to share.
Behind the need to share is the need to be understood.
(Leo Rosten).
We are all united by one single desire to be valued by another.
(Dale Carnegie).

The present paper addresses the issue of narrativization of educational materials with focus on syllabi. The study applies discourse analysis to reveal the linguistic essence of visual syllabi. We look at narrativization via visualization, on the one hand, and empathizing and marketization, on the other. The paper analyses several specific cases of innovative visual syllabi through the lens of the above parameters.

***Key words**: variation, narrativization, visual syllabus, empathy, marketization*

Education is changing. So are curricula and syllabi. Alongside the more established practices and genre conventions, new and novel approaches pave their way.

In this paper, we aim to show some current trends in syllabi writing. We have studied 39 visual curricula with qualitative methods of linguistic inquiry, specifically, discourse analysis, with emphasis on the principle of variability (audience and context), and interpretative or linguistic repertoires. The relevance of our approach consists in identifying and emphasizing the phenomenon of syllabi narrativization.

Traditionally, educational administrators tend to admire the complexity of mundane paperwork. They praise verbose curricula with long (and mostly boring) introductions, rationales and all kinds of justifications and instructional caveats. Yet some of the unorthodox curricula and syllabi are breaking the rules. Basically, it's about visual narrating of educational content. Or telling stories. And it is stories that make us human (Gottschall, 2013). And it's not even a bit surprising, if we consider the very phenomenon of "narrativist turn" with its"extensive discursive promiscuity" (Kreiswirth, 1992) and overall "narrative ubiquity" (Herman, Jahn, Ryan, 2008) of various pan-narrative models that justify contextualizing and re-contextualizing of meaning. More and more syllabi drift away from purely descriptive lists to vivid narratives. We call this process narrativization in that it reflects discourse dynamics of educational materials.

Innovative approach to syllabi does not undermine the importance of its core elements, best summarized by Tona Hangen. Syllabi components should involve the following:

- Course information, including year, catalog number, section number, Gen Ed or departmental requirements it fulfills.
- Instructor information, including phone, email, office location, office hours, website.
- Course description (key dates, topics) and objectives (learning goals).
- Student Learning Outcomes, whether phrased explicitly or woven into the description/objectives.
- Required materials and textbooks, with ISBNs.
- Strategies or advice for course success.
- Course requirements, including clear grading scale & due dates.
- Assignments, in at least nominal detail.
- Detailed syllabus of course meetings, topics, readings, and what's due on each date.
- Guidelines for submission of assignments.
- Other course policies, like attendance, use of technology in class, academic honesty.

Resources for help, legal statement about disability accommodations. (Hangen, 2018).

At the same time, syllabi need to be modern(ized), or as David Gooblar points out, they should NOT be: first of all, syllabi should NOT look like contracts. And yes, they might even look more like a spread from a comic book than a contract. His pieces of advice boils down to this:

- **Keep it simple.** The syllabus is one of the first opportunities you have to communicate with your students. It is a chance to introduce your course, and to invite them to collaborate with you. This is not the time for elaborate language and ambiguity.
- **Limit how much you write**. You don't need to tell your students everything - right away. See if you can get your syllabus down to two pages. You don't need to tell students in August all the details about their fourth assignment, due in December.
- Make your syllabus at least somewhat **visually engaging**. **Think about how you might break up information in eye-catching ways.** Look for inspiration in magazine layouts, posters, brochures, and infographics (e.g. use an online infographic maker like Piktochart) (Gooblar, 2018).

The study conducted by Mary-Jon Ludy with co-authors clearly demonstrates that even though the students in their study responded positively to both types of syllabi (i.e. "graphic-rich engaging syllabus" and "text-rich contractual syllabus"), the visual syllabus was rated more favorably in areas related to interest and motivation for the class as well as to the impressions of the instructor. (Ludy et al., 2016). Examples of "visual syllabi" or "syllabi gone infographics" are numerous: see, for, example https://bhpenglish.wordpress.com/2015/08/

So visualization in creating visual syllabi seems to be a current hot trend.

Let us emphasize several pertinent points, or rather, several lenses to look at the syllabi, on top of graphic-rich design. They are: **marketization** and **empathy**. So what's so special about syllabi in terms of the outlined parameters?

A visual narrative (or a visual storytelling) contains, according to Bruce Block, space, line, shape, tone (brightness of objects), color, movement and rhythm (Block, 2007). But that's only part of the story, albeit a very important part.

Nancy Duarte emphasizes the role of visual storytelling for becoming an effective visual communicators: making a strong connection with the audience and leading them to a purposeful action via conveying your content with passion, persuasion, and impact. (Duarte, 2010). All of the above is related to empathy. Borrowed from aesthetics and psychology, "empathy" is a notion that is "difficult to define and hard to measure" (Kestenbaum, Farber, Sroufe, 1989). It is about "connoting a shared experience" (Eisenberg, 1989), it is also an "almost magical" emotion when "I and you" becomes "I am you," or at least, "I might be you." (Spiro, 2018). Accordingly, in linguistic and communication terms, empathy connotes similar ideas: "sharing another's feelings" (Tatsenko, 2018), and, what we believe the most important feature - building trust and emotional bonding via verbal and non-verbal devices (or the combination of both). The German word "Einfühlung" introduced by Theodor Lipps in 1903, and translated by the British-born psychologist Edward Titchener in 1909 as "empathy" is still a most widely used one.

Empathy has always been and still is a current hot topic in the humanities (Cialdini et al., 1997, Nowak, 2011, Herlin, Visapää, 2016**,** Eng, 2017, Ganczarek, Hünefeldt, Olivetti Belardinelli, 2018, Tatsenko, 2018). In educational context, Norman Eng (2017) call this "touching your audience", because, as he specifically emphasizes, ultimately, the students want to know two major things prior to taking a class: "Will the professor be nice?" and "Will this course be useful?" (Eng, 2018). He suggests reconsidering syllabi in this light. He gives some good examples:

INSTEAD OF	USE
You must complete makeup work to receive credit.	*You are welcome to make up missed work to earn credit.*
I only accept papers that are…	*I encourage you to submit papers that…*
Late work will result in a 40% deduction.	*If your work is late, you can still qualify for 60% of the original points.*

(Ibid.)

Above examples show the importance of acceptance, recognition and approval. They convey the unconscious need for validation: and don't we all crave it? Instead of categorical "must", "you are welcome" sounds indeed inviting. Instead of "I only accept", communication-friendly "I encourage you" is used. The final example is a perfect case of optimistic "half-full" and pessimistic "half-empty" glass. Such encouraging approach fits in market-driven economy. Which brings to mind the notion of "marketization".

The word itself is quite transparent, at least in terms of economics. In the linguistic sense, however, it was first used by T. Yakhontova in her seminal paper "Selling" or "Telling"? The issue of cultural variation in research genres" (2002) to denote culture specific traits of Anglo-Saxon writings (this important issue was first addressed by R. Kaplan (1987), which she and, sometime earlier, J. Hinds (1997) qualifies in terms of "writer responsibility" that results in "reader oriented" texts.

Norman Eng thinks of a syllabus as a sales brochure (or sales page – called so online) employing AIDA formula (attention-interest-desire-action) that addresses:

- Some sort of a decision or issue one might face
- The benefit one gets from consuming a product or service
- How potential customers can learn about a product or service (Eng, 2018)

Even the cursory glance at narrativized visual curricula reveals the abundance of linguistic devices employed to perform just that. Here belong rhetorical questions, the constant use of "you", initially positioned -ly adverbs, adjectives that convey positive evaluations any other devices. Examples:

How do you feel about .... ?
Would you like to ...
You can consider ....
You might find ... helpful.
You will be surprised…
All you need to do is to ....”
As soon as you ...
A simple way / method to change it will be to…”
Simply put,
Probably the best…
There's no substitute for simply [doing sth]…
Periodically, you will find…
Frequently…
Definitely ...
Exactly ...
Completely…
Quickly ...
Certainly…

In her syllabus, Erin McLaughlin, who teaches "Multimedia Writing and Rhetoric" emphasizes big questions the course will address:

WHAT IS "LITERACY" AND WHY DOES IT MATTER?

What does it mean to be "literate" in the 21st Century? What import do these literacies have for knowledge production, civic participation, community identification, and so on?

WHAT IS THE IMPORT OF MEDIUM TO MESSAGE? TO RHETORIC?

What rhetorical practices are invited/constrained by the medium? What cultural attitudes shape the text? Which genres matter most, and in what contexts?

HOW DOES MEDIA LITERACY IMPACT IDENTITY & COMMUNITIES?

How do you use media to craft an identity? What kinds of media are important in your intended major, profession, club, etc? What arguments are relevant in those communities, and what form do those arguments take? (Clark, 2014).

Similar questions are used in narrativized visual syllabi:

Why study…?

Why should you want to study…?

What should you be able to know and do by the end of this course?

Such questions invite further story to unfold.

Lolita Paff (cited in Bart, 2015) advocates learner-centered approach to teaching. She suggests rewriting more raditional sullabi thus:

BEFORE. *Econ102 is an introduction to microeconomic analyses and policies. Microeconomic deals with the behavior of individuals and firms and how the behavior is influenced by government policy. The principal objective of the course is to enable students to analyze major microeconomic issues, clearly and critically.*

AFTER. *Why should you want to study microeconomics? Alfred Marshall defined economics as the study of people in the ordinary business of life. Every choice you make, from what time to get up … whether or not to go to class … how long to study, or work, or how much to eat, or where to go on Thursday nights … ALL of it incorporates microeconomic principles. Microeconomics helps us to understand how people and firms make choices, how markets are organized, why and how markets behave differently, and the effects government interventions have in market outcomes. I LOVE this course, and I am hoping that by the end of the semester you will develop a deep appreciation for the subject.*

As David Gooblar (2018) points out, many of us have our hands tied to some extent when it comes to syllabus-making: departments require certain formats and certain information. He suggests trying the following: even if you can't turn your syllabus into a mini graphic novel, you can work to make it simpler, clearer, and more visually appealing: just remember the **chief rhetorical purpose** of the syllabus - to convince your students to **buy** in to your course.

Marketization goes hand in glove with audience sensitivity. Perhaps it was

Tona Hangen who best verbalized this subtle issue. She even suggests the original classification of students and tries to incorporate this into her syllabi. Below you will find her take on the issue, with my comments:

"*I was looking for a way to arrange it…less text-y, more visually engaging, more like a magazine or a website.*	**visualizing syllabus is paramount**
I have realized that my classroom invariably contains multiple audiences – those with an antipathy to history, a severe learning disability, functional illiteracy, or an allergy to opening the textbook who are just hoping to escape my clutches with a barely-passing grade; a few coveted slots for Honors students who are usually strong discussants but are rarely history majors; some passionate budding young historians or future schoolteachers; recent immigrants for whom American history is a vast cipher; sometimes even a retiree on the free-tuition program whose life experience overlaps the course content… and usually the majority of young people eager to learn and engage with course ideas but so overworked from second jobs and demands of the commuter-student life that they are more likely than not to fall asleep in class and would prefer to be "fed" information rather than be made to work for their knowledge.	**multiple audience analysis (see classification below)**
"Mild" (Waders) *means that students tend to assume (for the sake of clarity if they are beginners to history or the content of the course is all new for them) that what I say reinforces what the textbook says which reinforces what the reader's primary sources tell us about the past.*	**students who rely mostly on textbook content**
"Medium" (Snorkelers) *students are beginning to understand that history is a conversation and that they can enter that conversation; they may notice inconsistencies between their readings and what I say in lecture, and may be confident enough to raise those in (respectful) discussion. They are perceptive of the areas where their own knowledge is strong or weak. They know that what they're being offered on the syllabus is not all there is to know. Snorkelers are interested in in how and why things happened as they did.*	**students with critical thinking**
"Spicy" (Divers) *go beyond the surface, seek out alternative sources, recognize and challenge their own assumptions, eagerly seize the intellectual challenge that a wide-ranging historical survey can be. They encounter genuine moral consternation about what happened in the past and try to work through that using intellectual tools (reason, evidence, argument, theory). They care about what happened and draw connections that make the past relevant to their own experience and circumstances. They inscribe themselves somewhere on the wheel of history."*	**advanced students able to think "outside the box"**
One section I expanded considerably this time around was the "Help and Resources".	**emphasis on resources used and help provided**

The above examples suggest strong audience analysis based on years of teaching experience. This classification is both complete and impeccable. I subscribe to each and every word of it.

Syllabi visualization, empathy and marketization are the signs of narrativization in unlikely places. Who would have ever thought that part of an educational sacred cow - syllabus - would turn some day into an advertising leaflet of sorts? Yet, in post-modern times, anything is possible. And why not? Why not make classroom communication more user-friendly? Filled with compelling stories? With a visual syllabus as an exciting journey roadmap?

Our current findings offer a humble attempt to shed the light on some pedagogically relevant linguistic trends. Future research is still necessary to explore the potential of narrativized visual curricula for instruction and assessment. Because ideas, "the currency of the twenty-first century", as Carmine Gallo (2014) calls them, and continues by adding: "effectively packaged and delivered, can change the world".

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