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THE LANGUAGE OF WAR

This article is devoted to the semantic, structural and etymological analysis of the language of war that reflects the relationship between the participants of various military conflicts with consideration of the extralinguistic factors that caused its appearance and usage. Special attention is paid to the fact that the language of war is stylistically marked and that is why every slur, every stereotype, every nationalistic and racist assumption is a war without weapons. Words of racist and nationalistic intolerance can hurt, and in world history there are many examples of effective propaganda and informational wars. Such words may only be the reason, but their effect is potentially lethal. That is why their power must be studied and taken into a consideration. An analysis of the language of war also presupposes studies of national history, international relations and economic and cultural relations. The extralinguistic factors, mainly the historic ones, which explain the reasons why such words came into being have been taken into consideration. Special attention has been paid to the most productive word building patterns according to which the analyzed words were coined, such as affixation, blending and different types of shortening.

Key words and phrases: language of war, national history, word building patterns, slur, stereotype.

Formulation of a research problem and its significance. While studying the language of war it is important to pay attention to the fact that every conflict has its verbal representation. We come across words and set expressions that came into being as a result of certain military or ethnic conflicts and were coined according to the existing word-building patterns or secondary nomination. The language of war cannot but be stylistically marked and that is why every slur, every stereotype, every nationalistic and racist assumption is a war without weapons. Words of racist and nationalistic intolerance can undoubtedly hurt, and in world history there are many examples of propaganda wreaking its horrible effects. According to J. Green, words may only be the cause, but their effect is potentially lethal and that's why their power is not to be underestimated.

Analysis of the research into this problem. Many scholars such as B. Azhniuk, V. von Humboldt, J. Green, D. Hymes, M. Saville-Troike, Y. Zatsny and others have done studies of culturally marked vocabulary. They paid attention to a language as a reflection of a national culture in all its aspects and also studied the influence of a language on the ethnic community, international relations and their role of national stereotypes in cross-cultural communication.

The goal and the specific tasks of the article. This article is devoted to the semantic, structural and etymological analysis of the vocabulary that reflects the relationships between different nations at war with consideration of the extralinguistic factors that caused its appearance and usage.

Statement regarding the basic material of the research and the justification of the results obtained. The oldest examples in the inventory of the language of war contain such ethnic names as the Goths, Vandals and Huns. In 1779 the American inventor and statesman Benjamin Franklin wrote "I am sorry for the losses you have suffered by the Goths and Vandals", referring to the depredations of Britain's troops in their fight to suppress American Independence. Both Goths and Vandals were Germanic tribes, who between the 3rd and 5th centuries, moved out from their homelands to invade Western Europe. The peak of such invasions was in 455 AD when Genseric, the Vandal king, led his troops to Rome, took and sacked it. The attack was so severe that the Romans coined the phrase furor Teutonicus – German fury [7, 307]. Since that time the terms Goth and Vandal have both meant barbarian, one who cheerfully destroys anything beautiful or worthy of preservation. Another form of Goth, the Ostrogoth or East Goth, is a name that serves to describe a crude individual.

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As well as Goths and Vandals, the Huns under the leadership of their commander Attila were among the tribes that were destroying Europe. Hun became a term of abuse in the American Civil War and at the time of World War I it took on its modern meaning: a brutal, but not necessarily uniformed German. The history of this term is connected with the name of the German emperor Wilhelm II who, addressing the German troops that was about to sail from Bremerhaven to China to help suppress the Boxer Uprising, said: "No quarter will be given, no prisoners will be taken. Let all who fall into your hands be at your mercy. Just as the Huns a thousand years ago under the leadership of Etzel (Attila) gained a reputation in virtue of which they still live in historic tradition, so may the name of Germany become known in such a manner in China that no Chinaman will ever again even dare to look askance at a German" [7, 308]. Later the term Hun was still used in the English language to denote a German soldier, as there were other clashes of the economic and military interests of England and Germany. In addition to the term Hun, there appeared its derivatives, such as Hun-folk (Germans), Hun-land, Hun-eating (violently anti-German), Hunhunting (a slang word for chasing enemy planes or ground troops) and Hun-pinching (rounding up Germans in their trenches in order to secure information) [7, 309]. Hunnish became another term for German and the well-accepted expression chicken pox was sometimes substituted with the term Hunpox [7, 309].

A lot of set expressions came into being during World War I. As the main language of the war was French the French produced a word for the Germans – *boche* (literally "rake, rip or beard splitter") and its derivatives – *caboche* "head", *Alboche* (modification of Allemand) "a German" [7, 309]. Many examples of such creations can be found in the trench journals of those days that were produced by troops and for troops. The trench journals were issued in vast numbers, at the front, in hospitals, behind front lines, in troopships and in prison camps. Issues were printed in a small number of copies, or in the thousands. They are known from September 1914, and they immediately tell the experience of the war. J. G. Fuller writes that they were important and effective as they represented the experience of the war to those who were going through the experience, presented by those who were going through the experience; they are uncoloured by subsequent thoughts and to a large extent give us the immediate idea of what 'it was like' [8].

One of the peculiar features of the trench journals was that people who often had no professional journalistic experience, but employed the skills of soldiers who used to be printers, compositors or commercial artists, produced them. Some trench journals were made up in the trenches and printed back in Britain; others were copied out by hand and circulated amongst the handful of men. They are said to resemble school magazines as they were full of in-jokes, poetry, limericks, well and badly drawn cartoons, puns, football results, and thankfulness for gifts from home and red dates' congratulations. Graham Seal describes them as 'a democratic cultural republic amidst a hierarchical martial regime'. Jonnie Robinson points out that though British journals display an attitude of 'grumbling but not complaining', 'pride in achievement, group identity', 'laughing will get us through', 'we laugh with you never at you', and 'getting on with the job'. They might have been uneasy and fragile masks of the soldier's awareness of his unprecedented environment, and manifestation of a desperate need to say 'I am still here and alive now' [9].

Many war terms and derogatory names are connected with Germans, as they were active participants of the world wars. For example, *Gerry* or *jerry* [7, 309] is an abbreviation of German that can be shortened to *Ger* and a homonym of *jerry* – slang for a chamber pot. To name Germans in general the Poles used the name *Bismarck*, the name of the Germany's 19th century chancellor. Other terms, such as *bucket-head* or *square head* were supposedly based on the shape of German helmets, although square head appeared way before the war in 1903, meaning "a dullard". In the 19th century it played on the image of square and uncomplicated and was used to nominate an honest person. *Johnny Square head* meant anyone of German extraction, including Swedes and Norwegians, Roundhead had the meaning – a Scandinavian.

A very dramatic period in German history, the Nazi times (1933–1945), saw the introduction of many terms that were either used by the Nazi leaders themselves or were coined by the representatives of other nations influenced by them. Thus, a German was known as a *Hitlander* and Germany was known as *Naziland* or *Vaterland* (from the word Fatherland that was widely used by the Nazi ideologists in their speeches and propaganda). At the time of WWII the term *Nazi* was used to name all the Germans including the ones living outside Germany, e.g. German-Americans. As Jews had to leave Germany there appeared the term *refujew* – a blending of the words *refugee* + *Jew* to name such refugees [7, 310]. The Nazis themselves created the word *Judenbude* [7, 310] a "Jewhut" or "Jew-den" to describe a crate in which Jews were allowed to pack their belongings before their emigration.

A large amount of war terms came into being as a result of the war between Britain and Holland that took place in the 18th century. A lot of present day phrases containing an ethnic adjective *Dutch* still have a negative meaning or give a hint that there is something wrong with the object described: *Dutch concert, Dutch uncle*. The phrase *to beat the Dutch* which meant, "to do something outstanding" was transformed a century later into, *that beats the Dutch*, describing what is otherwise barely credible. During the American Civil War the supporters of the North from Missouri were called the *Dutch* but, as John Green puts it, it was a case of mixing *Dutch* with the term *Deutsch* due to the fact that there were many German settlers in Missouri. A well-known confrontation between the British and Dutch marine forces for the control of the seas introduced many derogatory phrases and terms that are used nowadays. Thus, we have the phrase *sink the Dutch* – a general exclamation of distaste, *a Dutch caper* – a light privateering ship, *to do a Dutch* – to run a submarine aground on submerged rocks or a reef, *a Dutch rod* – a Luger pistol [7, 311].

An ally of Nazi Germany in the East – Japan – played its role during WW II being especially active with the American troops. As a result there appeared quite a lot of terms to call Japanese or its citizens. For example, Jap – as an abbreviation of the word Japanese, $dirty\ Jap$ – as in the teasing rhyme "We 're gonna zap, zap, zap | the dirty little Jap!" – $To\ pull\ a\ Jap$ – to ambush [7, 311]. Other terms are connected with the proper names of the Japanese military leaders and are used as a general name for Japan and its soldiers. For example, the name of the Japanese general Hideki Tojo (1884–1948) became an embodiment of the American view on Japanese militarism. As a result there appeared the term Tojo that stood for Japan and its soldiers, as well as the derivatives Japland and Tojoland that had the same meanings [7, 311].

The revolutionary events that have been taking place in Ukraine introduced many terms to describe the changes and their participants. In this case we can see one more proof of how powerful of a role a language becomes during periods of hardships and conflicts. According to Dmytro Chekalkin [6], the conflict was translated into the language of WW II (it was called *the Great Patriotic war* in the Soviet Union). As a result, a very powerful and strong image of Ukraine as an enemy was very quickly and successfully created in Russia and some pro-Russian eastern regions of Ukraine.

Due to the fact that the ideology and propaganda in the USSR were very effective and there are still many people who are under their influence, the restoration of the derogatory terms that were used to name the Nazis, fascists and the Ukrainian Riot Army soldiers worked as a trigger. Now they are widely used by the Russian mass media, but in a new context. For example, the revolutionary events on the Maidan in Kyiv (2013–2014) were translated as *anti-government riots*, the change of power – фашисть узурпація влади (fashystska uzurpatsia vlady) "a fascist usurpation of power", переворот (perevorot) "upheaval", Ukrainian soldiers – каратели (karateli) "punishers, chastisers", бандеровцы (banderovtsy) "members of the Ukrainian Nationalists Organization started by Stepan Bandera", нацисты (natsisty) "Nazis", фашисты (fashysty) "fascists". On the other hand, the so-called rebels from the illegal republics – "Donetsk national republic (DNR)" and "Luhansk national republic (LNR)" – are called ополченцы (opolchentsy) "members of the home guard" and поветанцы (povstantsy) "insurgents". Other terms that are used by the Russian mass

media are the new coinages based on the word $y\kappa pon$ (ukrop) and its derivatives. The etymology of this term is connected with the contracted form of the phrase $y\kappa pa\"{i}hc b\kappa i$ $ono \pi vehui$ (Ukrainsky opolchentsi) $< y\kappa p(a\"{i}hc b\kappa i)$ Ukr(ainsky) + on(onvehui) op(olchentsi) + i (noun plural ending in Ukrainian) – members of the Ukrainian home guard. Later the term $y\kappa pon$ (ukrop) became associated with the Russian name for the dill plant, probably with the hint that this plant grows almost everywhere. In the Ukrainian environment the idea of the dill (this plant is very often used in Ukrainian cuisine) being a symbol of the Ukrainian National Guard was widely accepted and the image of the dill plant has been used on clothes, military uniforms and chevrons.

Other derogatory terms that are used by the Russian mass media and pro-Russian separatists were formed by various types of shortening: $y\kappa p(\omega)$ (Ukry) $< y\kappa p(aunu)\omega$; $\mu auzaab\omega$ (natshady) $< \mu au(uonanbhue) + zeapaeuu\omega$ where the last component $zeapaeuu\omega$ was corrupted and transformed into a derogatory term $zaab\omega$ instead of a neutral one $zeapab\omega$. The change evidently happened because of the very similar pronunciation of these coinages, but the chosen word $zaab\omega$ has a very negative connotation meaning "vermin, foul people".

The Russian abbreviation $y\kappa\rho oCMU$ "Ukrainian mass-media" appeared as a result of the shortening of the adjective $y\kappa\rho(aunc\kappa ue)$ "Ukrainian" and the abbreviation CMU "mass media". The term has a negative connotation as the shortened ethnic adjective $y\kappa\rho o$ describes Ukrainian mass media as the ones that are different and/or deviated from the existing standards. One more term that was coined recently is used to name the defenders of the Donetsk airport. The courage of the soldiers was so astonishing that they were called $\kappa i\delta o\rho eu$ (cyborgs) with the connotation that their behaviour and deeds were almost unnatural.

The new terms have been used together with old derogatory ethnic names that stand for the name *Ukrainians*: *хохол* (khokhol), *салоеды* (salojedy "the ones who eat salo").

In Ukrainian mass media the pro-European meetings and manifestations on the main squares of Ukrainian cities in 2013–2014, revolutionary changes of the government, military events in the Crimea and its annexation and a war in the eastern parts of Ukraine were given new names that reflect the general attitude of the Ukrainian society towards those changes. First of all, the name Майдан (Maidan) "square" and its derivative EuroMaidan that stands for the main square in Kyiv – Майдан Незалежності (Maidan Nezalezhnosti) became a general term for all the main squares in cities and towns all over Ukraine where the revolutionary events against the criminal president Viktor Yanukovich and his government were taking place. The derivative Свромайдан (Euromaidan) came into being when the anti-presidential protests started as a reaction to the unwillingness of president Yanukovich to sign the association with the European Union that had been declared before. The participants of those events were called *maŭdanieui* (maidanivtsi). The government tried to confront the massive protests of pro-European Ukrainians and hired various people from eastern and southern regions of Ukraine to participate in the anti-Maidan actions. They were called mimyuki (titushki) after the surname of a Ukrainian sportsman Vadym Titushko who was hired to participate in one of the meetings against the opposition and on May 18, 2013 badly hit two Ukrainian journalists [4]. The Ukrainian ex-president Yanukovich and members of his administration were given many derogatory names; for example, Yanek < Yanukovich+Yanek, Yalynkovich < Yanukovich+Yalynka (fir tree). The second coinage was caused by the fact that the official reason to suppress and disperse the protesting students on the Maidan in Kyiv was the necessity to remove a New Year Tree.

During the annexation of Crimea (spring, 2014) there appeared the terms *зелені чоловічки* (zeleni cholovichky "little green people"), *ввічливі люди* (vvichlyvi liudy "polite people") that were used to nominate the soldiers of the Russian Army who wore the green uniform of the Russian Army and its ammunition, but had no chevrons. They controlled the situation in Crimea during the illegal referendum and its annexation to Russia, but due to the fact that there were no shootings they were called 'polite'. A Ukrainian journalist, Myroslav Syvolap, gives examples of other derivatives from

the phrase ввічливі люди < ввічливі автомобілі (vvichlyvi avtomobili) - polite automobiles meaning "ironclad automobiles". The phrase comes from the context when Putin was shown a new automobile whose construction was something between a car and an ironclad vehicle for the infantry. The producers called the new model of the automobile "a polite ironclad automobile" keeping in mind the primary phrase "polite people/little green people". The Russian president praised the invention having said that it was possible to achieve a lot more with the help of politeness and weapons than with just politeness [this phrase resembles a well-known expression said by a leader of the Italian mafia Al Capone "With the help of a nice word and a pistol it is possible to achieve a lot more that just with a nice word" [1].

Another group of the newly coined terms are used to name the supporters of the pro-Russian separatists: ватники (vatniki), вата (vata) [both terms come from the word wadding that was/is used in the coats and jackets worn by blue-colour workers, poor people and prisoners with the connotation that usually they are not very intelligent], гопники (hopniki) [a slang word for a criminal], колоради (kolorady) [the ones who wear George's ribbons], лугандони (lugandony) [citizens of the illegal Luhansk National Republic], лицо русского мира [a face of the Russian world; a phrase is built on the same pattern as the derogatory ethnic name used by the Russians to name any person from the Caucasus лицо кавказской национальности) [2]. The term Русский мир (Rusky Mir "the Russian world") stands for the concept of the international transcontinental community of people united by the relationships to Russian and devotion to the Russian language and its culture. The purpose of this community is to preserve and develop the Russian culture and language, to strengthen and improve the international position of Russia in the world landscape and to protect the interests of the Russian speaking people [3].

There are a number of geographical names that nominate the illegal Donetsk and Luhansk people's republics: \mathcal{L} аунбасс (\mathcal{L} аунбасс (\mathcal{L} аинбас), \mathcal{L} угандон (\mathcal{L} идалдон), \mathcal{L} угандо (\mathcal{L} идалдон), \mathcal{L} онбабве (\mathcal{L} аун+ \mathcal{L} донбасс > \mathcal{L} аунбасс (\mathcal{L} аунбасс із the name of the territory occupied by the separatists in the East of Ukraine], \mathcal{L} уганск+гондон > \mathcal{L} угандон (\mathcal{L} аундон) [where \mathcal{L} уганск is a geographical name of the territory controlled by separatists and \mathcal{L} ондон means "condom"]. The next two blendings were formed on the basis of Ukrainian/Russian geographical names and the names of the African countries with the hint of a very low level of their development: \mathcal{L} уганск+Уганда > \mathcal{L} уганда (\mathcal{L} идалда); \mathcal{L} Онбасс+Зимбабве > \mathcal{L} Онбабве (\mathcal{L} Оонбабве (\mathcal{L} 0) (\mathcal{L} 0) (\mathcal{L} 1) (\mathcal{L} 2) (\mathcal{L} 3) (\mathcal{L} 3)

A good number of terms were coined to name the Russian president Vladimir Putin and Russia itself. For example:

Bloodimir < blood+vladimir, Путлер < Путин+Гитлер (Putler < Putin+Hitler), Путиноллино < Путин + Чиполлино (Putinollino < Putin+Chipollino), emperor Putin, Путия < Путин+Россия (Putija (Putinland) < Putin+Rossija (Russia)), Путлеровское шапито "Putler's circus tent"). The following blendings and abbreviations that name Putin became very popular and frequent used: ПУЙЛО < ПУТИН + *УЙЛО (PUJLO < PUTIN+*UJLO), ПТН ПНХ (where ПТН stands for ПУТИН (PUTIN) and ПНХ is an abbreviation of a four letter word).

A large block of the newly coined words and phrases come from the so-called *Georgijevska lenta* (George's ribbon). In the former Soviet Union it served as a symbol of the victory over the fascists in WWII in spite of the fact that it was widely used by the soldiers of Vlasov's Army [general Vlasov and his army surrendered to the fascists during WWII]. In present day Ukraine it became a symbol of the pro-Russian separatists in the Eastern regions. Due to the fact that the colours of George's ribbon are very similar to the colours of a potato bug that is called in the Ukrainian and Russian languages *koloradsky zhuk* (Colorado bug). The term has been shortened to *колорады* (kolorady) and is applied to nominate the pro-Russian soldiers and citizens in Donetsk and Luhansk regions [5].

Conclusions and prospects for further research. An analysis of the vocabulary that belongs to the language of war has proven that such linguistic units reflect the negative relationships between the participants of different military conflicts. They are coined at different times, but in most cases they are the coinage of a secondary nomination and are stylistically marked. From the structural point of view they are mainly shortenings of various types, abbreviations and blending. The importance of such studies are caused by the fact that they deal with the language phenomena that reflect real military conflicts and their participants and enable the scholars to decode the history of such terms and their pragmatic and manipulative power.

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Рогач Оксана. Мова війни. Здійснено семантичний, структурний та етимологічний аналіз лексики війни, яка віддзеркалює стосунки між учасниками різноманітних воєнних конфліктів, з урахуванням тих екстралінгвістичних факторів, що спричинили її появу та використання. Особливу увагу звернуто на той факт, що мова війни є стилістично маркованою, саме тому кожен дерогатив, кожен стереотип, кожне націоналістичне чи расистське переконання є «війною без зброї». Лексика расистської, націоналістичної нетерпимості може викликати образу чи біль, і в світовій історії багато прикладів ефективних пропагандистських та інформаційних воєн. Такі слова можуть бути лише причиною, проте їхній ефект – потенційно летальним, саме тому їхню силу необхідно брати до уваги та вивчати. Аналіз мови війни передбачає також вивчення національної історії, міжнародних стосунків, економічних та культурних зв'язків, тому взято до розгляду екстралінгвістичні фактори,

переважно історичні, які пояснюють, чому такі слова з'явилися в мові. Особлива увага звернута на найпродуктивніші словотвірні моделі та зразки, за якими утворено аналізовані слова: афіксація, блендинг та різні типи скорочень.

Ключові слова: мова, війна, національна історія, упередження, словотвірні зразки, зневага, стереотип.

Рогач Оксана. Язык войны. Проведен семантический, структурный и этимологический анализ лексики войны, отображающей отношения между участниками разнообразных военных конфликтов, с учетом тех экстралингвистических факторов, которые послужили причиной её появления и использования. Особое внимание обращено на тот факт, что язык войны является стилистически маркированным, именно поэтому каждый дерогатив, каждый стереотип, каждое националистическое или расистское убеждение является «войной без оружия». Лексика расистской, националистической нетерпимости может вызывать обиду или боль, и в мировой истории множество примеров эффективных пропагандистских и информационных войн. Такие слова могут быть только причиной, но их эффект — потенциально летальным, именно поэтому их силу необходимо принимать во внимание и изучать. Анализ языка войны предусматривает также изучение национальной истории, международных отношений, экономических и культурных связей, поэтому приняты к рассмотрению экстралингвистические факторы, преимущественно исторические, которые объясняют, почему такие слова появились в речи. Особое внимание обращено на самые продуктивные словообразовательные модели и образцы, по которым образованы анализированные слова: аффиксация, блендинг и различные типы сокращений.

Ключевые слова: язык, война, национальная история, предубеждение, словообразовательные образцы, презрение, стереотип.

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APPLICATION OF THE DISTRIBUTIONAL AND DESCRIPTIVE METHODS IN STUDIES OF IDEOGRAMS AND PICTOGRAMS

This article is devoted to the description of the practical application of the two main methods of linguistic research: the descriptive and distributional methods. Special attention has been paid to considering these two methods and describing their procedures and practical applications, doing an analysis of two paralingual units – pictograms and idiograms – and then achieving conclusive results. We discovered that with the help of the descriptive method it was possible to describe and analyze the structure and typology of the pictograms and idiograms that are widely used in present day Australian newspapers. Attention was given to the correlation between the verbal and non-verbal elements of creol texts and to the realization of paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of pictograms and idiograms. These connections point out the connectivity and cooperation of the visual units with the verbal units of a language system on phonological, morphological, lexico-semantic and syntactic levels. Realizing their combinability, pictograms and ideograms can be combined with units of the same type or with one or several verbal units. Besides such cases, their combinability can be implemented inside a pictogram, within the frames of an advertising message, a newspaper article or a newspaper in general, for example, in its title.

Key words and phrases: pictograms and idiograms, descriptive and distributional methods, syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations, Australian mass-media means.

Formulation of the research problem and its significance. The descriptive and distributional methods are inseparable parts of the majority of linguistic research, as they enable scholars to perform a fundamental description of pictograms and ideograms, distinguish their differences and similarities, establish their place in the language system, and to define their distribution, combinability and pragmatics. As modern mass-media texts become more and more multimodal their linguistic description and analysis are topical and important.

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