МИНОБРНАУКИ РОССИИ

Федеральное государственное бюджетное образовательное учреждение
высшего образования
«Российский государственный гуманитарный университет»
(ФГБОУ ВО «РГГУ»)

ИНСТИТУТ ЛИНГВИСТИКИ
КАФЕДРА ЕВРОПЕЙСКИХ ЯЗЫКОВ

«Устный перевод с первого иностранного языка в научной сфере»
РАБОЧАЯ ПРОГРАММА ДИСЦИПЛИНЫ

45.03.02 Лингвистика
Код и наименование направления подготовки/специальности

Перевод и переводоведение
Наименование направленности (профиля)/ специализации

Уровень высшего образования: *бакалавриат*

Форма обучения: *очная*

РПД адаптирована для лиц
с ограниченными возможностями
здоровья и инвалидов

Москва 2022

«Устный перевод с первого иностранного языка в научной сфере»
Рабочая программа дисциплины

Составитель:
докт.филол.наук, профессор КЕЯ Р.И. Розина

Ответственный редактор
канд.филол.наук, доц. КЕЯ Е.В. Семенюк
УТВЕРЖДЕНО
Протокол заседания кафедры ЕЯ
        № 4а от 01.04.22

Оглавление

1. Пояснительная записка

1.1. Цель и задачи дисциплины

Цель дисциплины: дать студенту знания, умения и навыки, необходимые ему для осуществления его профессиональной деятельности в области устного перевода текстов научного стиля.

Задачи:

☐ научить студента создавать эквивалентный перевод исходного текста с учетом всех требований русского языка;

☐ научить его приемам передачи на русском языке специальной (научной) информации, заложенной в тексте;

☐ дать ему инструментарий, достаточный для дальнейшего самостоятельного решения проблем, возникающих в его профессиональной деятельности.

Содержание дисциплины охватывает круг теоретических вопросов и практических проблем, связанных с переводом текстов научной направленности.

1.2. Формируемые компетенции, соотнесённые с планируемыми результатами обучения по дисциплине

Компетенция (код и наименование)	Индикаторы компетенций (код и наименование)	Результаты обучения
ПК-3 Способен осуществлять устный последовательный перевод	3.1 Переводить с одного языка на другой в режиме последовательного перевода	Знать: - основные переводческие приемы в области устного перевода. -уметь применять основные переводческие приемы в области последовательного перевода;
	3.2 Сохранять коммуникационную цель исходного сообщения	Уметь - учитывать важность контекста и особенности целевой аудитории;
	3.3 Быстро переключаться с одного языка на другой	Уметь: - пользоваться переводческим инструментарием, в т.ч. системами переводческой записи;
	3.4 Использовать надлежащие формулы речевого этикета	- порождать текст, соединяющий в себе эквивалентность оригиналу и соответствие речевым и стилистическим нормам русского языка.
	3.5 Соблюдать профессиональную этику	3. Владеть: способностью отбирать и использовать в научной и практической деятельности необходимую информацию по проблемам,

		связанным с предметом курса, с использованием как традиционных, так и современных образовательных технологий.

1.3. Место дисциплины в структуре образовательной программы

Дисциплина относится к части, формируемой участниками образовательных отношений блока дисциплин учебного плана.

Для освоения дисциплины необходимы знания, умения и владения, сформированные в ходе изучения следующих дисциплин и прохождения практик: Теория перевода, Практический перевод с 1 иностранного языка.

В результате освоения дисциплины формируются знания, умения и владения, необходимые для изучения следующих дисциплин и прохождения практик: Преддипломная практика, ГИА.

2.Структура дисциплины

Общая трудоёмкость дисциплины составляет 2 з.е., 72 академических часа (ов).

Объем дисциплины в форме контактной работы обучающихся с педагогическими работниками и (или) лицами, привлекаемыми к реализации образовательной программы на иных условиях, при проведении учебных занятий:

Семестр	Тип учебных занятий	Количество часов
7	Практические занятия	32
	Всего:	32

Объем дисциплины (модуля) в форме самостоятельной работы обучающихся составляет 40 академических часа(ов).

3. Содержание дисциплины

РАЗДЕЛ I. Особенности научного текста.
Различия в характере и организации научного текста в русскоязычной и англоязычной традициях. Нейтральность научного текста. Терминологическая насыщенность научного текста. Безэквивалентная лексика. Клише научного языка. Принципы перевода текстов, принадлежащих к различным видам научного дискурса. Генерирование и первичное редактирование переводов.
РАЗДЕЛ II. Устный последовательный перевод научного текста.
Основные особенности устного последовательного перевода. Приемы сокращенной переводческой записи. Мнемотехника. Активация линейной памяти. Запоминание тематических рядов на русском и английском языке. Лексико-синтаксические конверсивы. Переводческие соответствия, автоматизация навыков их употребления. Клишированные словосочетания. Речевая компрессия. Лексическое свертывание. Лексико-семантические преобразования. Использование базовых и специфических приемов в научных текстах.

Особенности произношения носителей различных акцентов английского языка. Этика устного перевода. Генерирование и первичное редактирование переводов.

4. Образовательные технологии

Для проведения занятий лекционного типа по дисциплине применяются такие образовательные технологии как интерактивные лекции, проблемное обучение. Для проведения занятий семинарского типа используются групповые дискуссии, анализ ситуаций и имитационных моделей.

В период временного приостановления посещения обучающимися помещений и территории РГГУ для организации учебного процесса с применением электронного обучения и дистанционных образовательных технологий могут быть использованы следующие образовательные технологии:

– видео-лекции**;**

– онлайн-лекции в режиме реального времени;

– электронные учебники, учебные пособия, научные издания в электронном виде и доступ к иным электронным образовательным ресурсам;

– системы для электронного тестирования;

– консультации с использованием телекоммуникационных средств.

1. Оценка планируемых результатов обучения
1.1 Система оценивания

Форма контроля	Макс. количество баллов

В течение семестра:
  устные ответы на занятиях
  выполнение домашних заданий
  контрольные работы
	
	20 баллов
	20 баллов
	20 баллов

Промежуточная аттестация	40 баллов
Итого за семестр	100 баллов

Полученный совокупный результат конвертируется в традиционную шкалу оценок и в шкалу оценок Европейской системы переноса и накопления кредитов (European Credit Transfer System; далее – ECTS) в соответствии с таблицей:

100-балльная шкала	Традиционная шкала		Шкала ECTS
95 – 100	отлично	зачтено	A
83 – 94			B
68 – 82	хорошо		C
56 – 67	удовлетворительно		D
50 – 55			E
20 – 49	неудовлетворительно	не зачтено	FX
0 – 19			F

1.2 Критерии выставления оценки по дисциплине

Баллы/ Шкала ECTS	Оценка по дисциплине	Критерии оценки результатов обучения по дисциплине

Баллы/Шкала ECTS	Оценка по дисциплине	Критерии оценки результатов обучения по дисциплине
100-83/ A,B	отлично/ зачтено	Выставляется обучающемуся, если он глубоко и прочно усвоил теоретический и практический материал, может продемонстрировать это на занятиях и в ходе промежуточной аттестации. Обучающийся исчерпывающе и логически стройно излагает учебный материал, умеет увязывать теорию с практикой, справляется с решением задач профессиональной направленности высокого уровня сложности, правильно обосновывает принятые решения. Свободно ориентируется в учебной и профессиональной литературе. Оценка по дисциплине выставляются обучающемуся с учётом результатов текущей и промежуточной аттестации. Компетенции, закреплённые за дисциплиной, сформированы на уровне – «высокий».
82-68/ C	хорошо/ зачтено	Выставляется обучающемуся, если он знает теоретический и практический материал, грамотно и по существу излагает его на занятиях и в ходе промежуточной аттестации, не допуская существенных неточностей. Обучающийся правильно применяет теоретические положения при решении практических задач профессиональной направленности разного уровня сложности, владеет необходимыми для этого навыками и приёмами. Достаточно хорошо ориентируется в учебной и профессиональной литературе. Оценка по дисциплине выставляются обучающемуся с учётом результатов текущей и промежуточной аттестации. Компетенции, закреплённые за дисциплиной, сформированы на уровне – «хороший».
67-50/ D,E	удовлетво-рительно/ зачтено	Выставляется обучающемуся, если он знает на базовом уровне теоретический и практический материал, допускает отдельные ошибки при его изложении на занятиях и в ходе промежуточной аттестации. Обучающийся испытывает определённые затруднения в применении теоретических положений при решении практических задач профессиональной направленности стандартного уровня сложности, владеет необходимыми для этого базовыми навыками и приёмами. Демонстрирует достаточный уровень знания учебной литературы по дисциплине. Оценка по дисциплине выставляются обучающемуся с учётом результатов текущей и промежуточной аттестации. Компетенции, закреплённые за дисциплиной, сформированы на уровне – «достаточный».
49-0/ F,FX	неудовлет-ворительно/ не зачтено	Выставляется обучающемуся, если он не знает на базовом уровне теоретический и практический материал, допускает грубые ошибки при его изложении на занятиях и в ходе промежуточной аттестации.

Баллы/ Шкала ECTS	Оценка по дисциплине	Критерии оценки результатов обучения по дисциплине
		Обучающийся испытывает серьёзные затруднения в применении теоретических положений при решении практических задач профессиональной направленности стандартного уровня сложности, не владеет необходимыми для этого навыками и приёмами. Демонстрирует фрагментарные знания учебной литературы по дисциплине. Оценка по дисциплине выставляются обучающемуся с учётом результатов текущей и промежуточной аттестации. Компетенции на уровне «достаточный», закреплённые за дисциплиной, не сформированы.

5.3. Оценочные средства (материалы) для текущего контроля успеваемости, промежуточной аттестации обучающихся по дисциплине

Контрольные вопросы

1. В чем состоят особенности построения русскоязычного научного текста в отличие от английского?
2. В чем проявляется эмоциональная нейтральность научного текста?
3. Какие проблемы для перевода представляет терминологическая насыщенность научного текста?
4. Какую роль в научном тексте играет безэквивалентная лексика?
5. Приведите примеры клише, свойственных научному языку, и их соответствий на русском языке.
6. Назовите известные вам приемы переводческой записи.
7. Что такое мнемотехника?
8. Что такое лексико-синтаксические конверсивы?
9. Что такое переводческие соответствия?
10. Как добиться автоматизации употребления переводческих соответствий?
11. Что такое речевая компрессия?
12. Что такое лексическое свертывание?
13. Назовите известные вам лексико-семантические преобразования.
14. Что такое «ложные друзья переводчика»?
15. Приведите примеры «ложных друзей переводчика».

Типовые тексты для практического перевода на русский язык

Patterns of Linguistic Variation in English Internet Language
Abstract
Most previous linguistic investigations of the web have focused on special linguistic features associated with Internet language (e.g., the use of emoticons, abbreviations, contractions, and acronyms) and the "new" Internet registers that are especially salient to observers (e.g., blogs, Internet forums, instant messages, tweets). Multi-Dimensional (MD) analysis has also been used to analyze Internet registers, focusing on core grammatical features (e.g., nouns, verbs,

prepositional phrases). MD research differs theoretically and methodologically from most other research approaches in linguistics in that it is built on the notion of linguistic co-occurrence, with the claim that register differences are best described in terms of sets of co-occurring linguistic features that have a functional underpinning. At the same time, though, most previous MD studies are similar to other previous research in their focus on new Internet registers, such as blogs, Facebook/Twitter posts, and email messages. These are the registers that we immediately think of in association with the Internet, and thus it makes sense that they should be the focus of most previous research. However, that emphasis means that we know surprisingly little at present about the full range of registers found on the web and the patterns of linguistic variation among those registers. This is the goal of the present study. Rather than beginning with a focus on new registers that are assumed to be interesting, we analyze a representative sample of the entire searchable web. End-users coded the situational and communicative characteristics of each document in our corpus, leading to a much wider range of register categories than that used in any previous linguistic study: eight general categories; several hybrid register categories; and twenty-seven specific register categories. This approach thus leads to a much more inclusive and diverse sample of web registers than that found in any previous study of English Internet language. The goal of the present study is to document the patterns of linguistic variation among those registers. Using MD analysis, we explore the dimensions of linguistic variation on the searchable web, and the similarities and differences among web registers with respect to those dimensions.

Giving Advice and Responding to it in a Spanish Discussion among Puerto Ricans
Abstract
Although advice is considered in many languages as a face-threatening speech act; in Spanish it is often seen as a solidarity-building tool that shows closeness among the interlocutors. This study analyzes the advice sequences in a conversation between a Puerto Rican couple in order to identify the strategies, types of sentences, and reactions that took place during the verbal exchange. Results show evidence that -contrary to building solidarity among Spanish speakers- advice can also serve as a tool for questioning, criticizing, and demeaning the interlocutor.

Genre and linguistic expectation shift: Evidence from pop song lyrics
Popular song lyrics constitute an exception to dominant, standard language ideologies of English: nonstandard grammatical forms are common, relatively unstigmatized, and even enregistered in the genre. This project uses song lyrics to test whether genre cues can shift linguistic expectations, influencing how speakers process morphosyntactic variants. In three self-paced reading experiments, participants read sentences from pop songs. Test sentences contained either 'standard' NPSG + doesn't or 'nonstandard' NPSG + don't. In Experiment 1, some participants were told that the sentences came from lyrics, while others received no context information. Experiment 2 eliminated other nonstandardisms in the stimuli, and Experiment 3 tested for the effect of stronger context information. Genre information caused participants to orient to the sentences differently, which partially—but not straightforwardly—mitigated surprisal at nonstandard don't. I discuss future directions for understanding the effects of context on sociolinguistic processing, which I argue can inform concepts like genre and enregisterment, and the processes underlying language attitudes. (Morphosyntactic variation, genre, invariant don't, language ideology, pop songs, experimental sociolinguistics, sentence processing)*

Codeswitching and emotional alignment: Talking about abuse in domestic migrant-worker returnee narratives
Early research on bilingualism and emotion suggests that bilingual speakers' L1 may be preferred for emotional expression whereas L2 may be used for emotional detachment. The evidence comes primarily from surveys, interviews, and laboratory studies. Studies of bilingual

codeswitching (CS) and emotion tend to focus on perception and recollection of experience rather than actual language data. This article uses data from domestic migrant-worker returnee narratives to explore the use of CS in storytelling. Domestic-worker returnees in Indonesia participated in sharing sessions in which they talked about the trauma they experienced while they worked overseas as domestic helpers. CS was widely used and, through a discourse analysis of selected excerpts, the article shows that CS is used for addressee specification and emotional alignment. The article concludes by considering how researchers may use the trauma narratives of repressed groups for social activism. (Codeswitching and emotion, domestic migrant workers, trauma narratives, Indonesia)*

Anna Wierzbicka. . A Framework for Studying and Describing Meaning

The subtitle of this book combines two words, both central to this book's approach to English: meaning and culture. So far, I have focused mainly on culture. Now I will turn more specifically to meaning, which in fact, as I will try to show throughout this book, is a key to understanding culture.

There are good reasons to think that even if all the ideological and political obstacles that stand in the way of exploring English from a cultural perspective were to be removed, it would still not be possible to explore English in this way—at least not effectively and in depth—without a semantic perspective.

Throughout the second half of the twentieth century, the study of English was dominated by the Chomskyan approach and thus was conducted "within a framework that understands linguistics to be a part of psychology, ultimately human biology" (Chomsky 1987, 1). In effect, for half a century the dominant (generativist) approach to the study of English was totally blind to culture. Focused on syntax and preoccupied with formalisms, it was also inimical to the study of meaning. This book, which studies English as a historically shaped semantic and cultural universe, radically breaks with that tradition.

There are, of course, books that include both English and meaning in their titles, and one would expect less opposition on a priori grounds to looking at English from a semantic perspective than to looking at it from a cultural perspective. But to explore English in depth from a semantic perspective, one needs a well-grounded semantic theory and an effective methodology. In most recent books on English that in principle are not hostile to semantic considerations, such a theoretical and methodological foundation is lacking. As a result, if they do discuss the meaning of English words, expressions, or constructions, they usually do so on an ad hoc basis. This can also be valuable, but it is not enough for a systematic and precise investigation of meanings, changes in meaning, and differences in meaning. Without such a systematic and methodologically informed investigation of meaning, it is not possible to investigate, in a rigorous way, the cultural underpinnings of English key words, pragmatized expressions, salient discourse patterns, and so on.

This book is based on the semantic theory (to be described shortly) whose name comes from the initials of the name of its main tool: the natural semantic metalanguage (NSM). This theory, whose main ideas were first presented in English in my 1972 book, Semantic Primitives, has since been developed in collaboration with my colleague Cliff Goddard and with valuable input from other colleagues (see, in particular, Wierzbicka English as a Cultural Universe 17
1996c; Goddard, ed., 1997; Goddard 1998; Goddard and Wierzbicka, eds., 1994, 2002). It has also been extensively tested in practice, through empirical study of a large number of diverse languages, and is now supported by a large body of semantic descriptions of aspects of many languages, carried out within the NSM framework.

The NSM approach to linguistic description is based on two fundamental assumptions:

first, that every language has an irreducible core in terms of which the
speakers can understand all complex thoughts and utterances and, second, that the
irreducible cores of all natural languages match, so that we can speak, in effect, of
the irreducible core of all languages, reflecting in turn the irreducible core of human
thought.

As Leibniz argued eloquently three centuries ago, not everything can be explained.
At some point, all explanations must come to an end, for a regressus ad infinitum
explains nothing. Some things must be self-explanatory (intuitively clear),
or we could never understand anything. The explanatory power of any explanation
depends, therefore, on the intuitive clarity of the indefinable conceptual primes that
constitute its ultimate foundation.

A natural language is a powerful system in which very complex and diverse
meanings can be formulated and conveyed to other people. The NSM theory of language
assumes that the intelligibility of all such meanings depends on the existence
of a basic set of conceptual primes that are intuitively clear (and presumably innate)
and do not require any explanations and that constitute the bedrock of human communication
and cognition. Cross-linguistic empirical work undertaken within the
NSM framework suggests that there are some sixty universal conceptual primes. They
are set out in Table 1.1.

The first hypothesis, then, is that all languages have lexical exponents for each
of the sixty or so conceptual primes (words, bound morphemes, or fixed expressions).
The second, concomitant, hypothesis is that in all languages conceptual primes can
enter into the same combinations. Of course, the word order and the morphosyntactic
trappings may differ from language to language, but the hypothesis is that the elements,
their combinations, and their meaning will be the same (see Goddard and
Wierzbicka, eds., 2002). This means that just as we can have a rudimentary universal
lexicon of indefinable concepts, we can also have a rudimentary universal grammar of
such concepts. And if we have a minilexicon and a minigrammar, then we can have
a minilanguage—a minilanguage carved out of natural languages that can be used
for the description and comparison of languages, in their lexicon and grammar, and
also in their discourse practices: in short, a "natural semantic metalanguage" (NSM).
Since this metalanguage is carved out of natural language (any natural language),
the semantic explications and scripts constructed in it are intuitively meaningful and
have psychological reality. Consequently, unlike semantic formulae based on various
artificial formalisms, NSM formulae are open to verification (they can be tested
against native speakers' intuitions). Being based on the shared core of all languages,
the natural semantic metalanguage can serve as a "cultural notation" for the comparison
of cultural values, assumptions, norms, and ways of speaking across the boundaries
between societies, communities, subcultures, and epochs.

The authors of a relatively recent article entitled "Culture as an Explanatory
Variable," Bond, Zegarac, and Spencer-Oatley (2000, 48), state that when they
attempted to study "differences in communication across cultures" they found in the
literature "a patchwork quilt of unrelated studies, focusing on a myriad speech forms
and their associated non-verbal behaviours . . . when these studies invoked culture
to explain results, they made opportunistic and speculative forays into the available
literature." The authors concluded that there was no "emerging paradigm or paradigms
(Kuhn 1962) that could help guide future research in this topic area, so important
for our twenty first century" (p. 48).

With one proviso, the NSM framework and the theory of cultural scripts based
on it (see chapter 2) are proposed as just such a paradigm. The proviso has to do with
the idea of "measuring cultures," which Bond and his colleagues include in their
vision of what is to be done. They ask "whether more promising ways to conceptualize

and measure cultures, especially when studying speech behaviour, can be found
by bringing together concepts from different disciplines (including social psychology,
pragmatics, linguistics, the psychology of culture)" (p. 98).
Although statistical evidence is used in this book, among other kinds of evidence,
the theory on which the book relies offers a framework for conceptualizing cultures,
not for measuring cultures. As such, however, it does provide a paradigm that I believe
could guide future research into "differences in communication across cultures,"
including different cultures associated with different varieties of English.
Which objections does A.W. have to Chomskian approach to the study of language?
In which context does A.W's book study the language?
What does she see as the main deficiency of many modern books devoted to semantic analysis of
words phrases, etc.?
What does the abbreviation NSM mean?
What are the two basic assumptions of NSM?
What was Leibniz's idea? What does regressus ad infinitum mean?
How many irreducible concepts are there? What are they called?
What is the role of semantic primes?
Which components constitute a minilanguage for meaning and culture analysis?

TABLE 1.1 Table of semantic primes—English version

Substantives I, YOU, SOMEONE/PERSON, SOMETHING/THING,
PEOPLE, BODY
Relational substantives KIND, PART
Determiners THIS, THE SAME, OTHER/ELSE
Quantifiers ONE, TWO, SOME, ALL, MUCH/MANY
Evaluators GOOD, BAD
Descriptors BIG, SMALL
Mental/experiential predicates THINK, KNOW, WANT, FEEL, SEE, HEAR
Speech SAY, WORDS, TRUE
Actions, events, movement DO, HAPPEN, MOVE
Existence and possession THERE IS/EXIST, HAVE
Life and death LIVE, DIE
Time WHEN/TIME, NOW, BEFORE, AFTER, A LONG TIME,
A SHORT TIME, FOR SOME TIME, MOMENT
Space WHERE/PLACE, BE (SOMEWHERE), HERE, ABOVE,
BELOW, FAR, NEAR, SIDE, INSIDE, TOUCHING
Logical concepts NOT, MAYBE, CAN, BECAUSE, IF
Augmentor, intensifier VERY, MORE
Similarity LIKE (AS, HOW)
• Primes exist as the meanings of lexical units (not at the level of lexemes).
• Exponents of primes may be words, bound morphemes, or phrasemes.
• They can be formally, i.e., morphologically, complex.
• They can have different morphosyntactic properties, including word-class, in different
languages.
• They can have combinatorial variants (allolexes).
• Each prime has well-specified syntactic (combinatorial) properties.
After Goddard and Wierzbicka 2002.
English as a Cultural Universe 19

In particular, as this book seeks to demonstrate, the new paradigm based on the

natural semantic metalanguage makes it possible to explore in depth the cultural
meanings that are embedded in Anglo English and that in the twenty-first century
continue to inform the use of English in the world at large.
Thus, this book seeks to launch a new, meaning-based approach to the study of
the English language. Its aim is to investigate English as a historically shaped universe
of meaning and to reveal English's cultural underpinnings and their implications
for the modern world.

The impact of Labov's contribution to general linguistic theory
Leonie Cornips , Frans Gregersen

Abstract
The paper first discusses the influence of Labov on certain recent Chomskyan developments,
starting
from an identification of two radically different readings of the relationship between Labovian
variationist
sociolinguistics and the dominant theoretical paradigm of the latter half of the 20th century
which is
Chomskyan theoretical linguistics, i.e. as either a supplement or an alternative. Variation at the
level of
closely related languages, at the level of the language community, and at the level of the
individual,
have all been treated by Chomskyans under various headings, thus giving evidence that
empirical
results stemming from variationist sociolinguistics cannot be ignored. However, the treatment
has not led
to an integration of variation into Chomskyan theory, nor could it. In the final section we outline
what a
Labovian materialist alternative to Chomskyan idealism could be. We argue that this calls for a
broader
definition of sociolinguistics than just variationism and poses demands for both internal
integration, viz.
of linguistic disciplines, and external integration of the language sciences with evolutionary
psychology,
anthropology and social history.

1 Introduction
Our assignment is this: what is Labov's contribution to general linguistic theory and how has he
influenced
the theoretical character of linguistics as a whole? In this question, the notion 'general linguistic
theory' is
not self-explanatory. Thus, we must begin by explaining in what sense Labov has contributed to
what kind
of theory.
A general linguistic theory may be taken to consist of at least the following elements (Gregersen
and Køppe 1988): a stance as to what ontological status the object of enquiry – in this case
language – has, and a setof assumptions and assertions leading from that to:
a delimitation of the field of enquiry, thus characterizing possible types of data;
a specification of the central questions to be answered or issues to be investigated; and
a characterization of the methods favored in addressing the issues scientifically.
Any specification of method and data implies a stance on the theory of science, viz. what is
recognized as
valid ways of doing research on language.

From this perspective, what William Labov has contributed is a set of generalizations and insights firmly
based on data collected and analyzed by methods developed by Labov himself – albeit based on prior
developments within dialectology and anthropology – into how language changes; in particular, sound
change. Labov was encouraged by Uriel Weinreich as his doctoral supervisor 'to apply the tools of
linguistics to the language of every-day life, and to set aside the barriers between linguistic analysis and
dialectology' (Labov 1998: 111). The paradigmatic nature of Labov's first foundational work, i.e.
The Social Stratification of Language in New York City (1966), is obvious. Suffice it to say that
establishing a firm empirical basis for a theory of sound change, for so long the province of
historical linguistics (always
focused on written materials from distant epochs) and/or dialectology (always primarily
concerned with rural speech), is a significant achievement in and of itself.
But is that all we should ask from a general linguistic theory, i.e. a theory of language? Surely not. At this
point, it may be helpful to introduce the seven-layered model of the levels of data and theory
In an ideal world, a theory would be consistent on all levels – a materialist theory of
language would delimit a different field of study to an idealist one. Briefly, a materialist theory would open
the field of linguistics such that any statements on language should, in principle, comply with 'known facts'
from e.g. neurology, memory research and other cognitive psychological insights on the one
hand, and with 'known facts' from sociology and history on the other. Idealism would, in
contrast, favor the autonomy thesis so influential since Saussure, i.e. that language, as such, is a
decontextualized separate structure. Issues raised as desiderata to be addressed would also differ
profoundly: whereas idealism is connected to the individual (grammar) and takes ideas (or
abstract language structures) to be the leading driving forces in history, materialism takes the
contradictions between the forces of production and social structures to be the essential
conditions for change, including – in this case – language change (we will come back to this in
section 6).
1.1 Labovian (variationist) sociolinguistics and Chomskyan generative linguistics
We will, below, investigate how Labov's contribution – fleshing out a materialist perspective on language
has interacted with Chomskyan idealist linguistic theory. There are several reasons to focus on
Chomskyan theory as the general linguistic theory to be discussed in this paper. First, instead of
presenting – forced by the word limits of this paper – a brief and necessarily superficial view on
convergence, divergence and connections between sociolinguistics and all other linguistic
theories possible, we choose instead to detail the relationships to the one linguistic theory that
universally is considered to be the most influential of the latter half of the 20th century. Second,
if William Labov (2002) took a stance on other linguistic theories, he most often, if not always,
positioned himself towards Chomskyan linguistics from the perspective of variationist
sociolinguistics. Last, but not least, the first invited author is a syntactician who has worked
extensively within both the Chomskyan and the Labovian paradigm.
The paper will deal mainly with variationist sociolinguistics since we will argue that Labov's theory and
practice has had a major effect on work in syntactic theory, through the development of methodologies
focused on micro-variation. The final section, however, will elaborate on the need for a broader and more

encompassing sociolinguistic theory including parts of the field which may not be seen as variationist by
any standard, even types of linguistics which are not seen as sociolinguistics at all.
Our point of departure has repercussions for the view taken in this paper on how to answer the introductory question as to William Labov's influence. We are left with two alternatives:
Thus, one choice is siding with the two alternatives and Labov's revolutionary view on it:
The idealist approach is exemplified by generative grammar, as originated and developed by Chomsky (1957, 1965) (…). The materialist position is exemplified by the practice current in phonetics, historical linguistics, and dialectology. The principles of this position have been developed most explicitly in sociolinguistics, and in particular in the quantitative study of linguistic variation (…). (Labov 1987)
The two approaches, idealist and materialist, differ sharply in their approaches to the foundations of the field: definition of language itself, the methods for gathering data and analyzing it, and the goals of linguistic activity. (Labov 1987)
This would lead to the elaboration of sociolinguistics as an alternative to Chomskyan theory, viz. a
materialist alternative to the idealism admittedly characteristic of Chomskyan theorizing. However, the more appealing alternative from the point of view of Labov's influence outside his own field , i.e. on theoretical linguistics, is rather to side with the ecumenical stance taken by Labov in a number of more recent papers.
Here, Labov voiced the notion that the materialist and idealist approach each contribute to an understanding of the general phenomenon of human language, as follows:
Even more recently, he expressed this in a clip from an interview with Sali Tagliamonte:
Accordingly, the train of thought in this paper is as follows. We first explain why there was indeed no
alternative to Chomsky as a theoretician and detail the Labovian stance on data and methodology. Then
we tell the story of how Labovian insights and methods have gradually seeped into Chomskyan theorizing
and – primarily – practices. It started with accounting for variation between languages attempting to
elaborate on the Universal Grammar hypothesis. This initial comparison between whole languages, viewed essentially as abstractions of individual grammars, developed into the micro-syntactic enterprise of comparing minimal differences between typologically closely related languages and finally to differences within a language (dialect differences) and eventually to intra-individual variation . This is, then, a story about how the central Labovian notion of variation has made its way into mainstream theoretical linguistics:
Labov's contribution, both his ideas on (1) how to elicit dialect data, i.e. data that are normally excluded
from (national) standard languages, and (2) the sociolinguistic variationist knowledge about minimal dialect differences within a language, have, as we show, been an inspiration to those working in syntactic microvariation research. Our story Our story details how the study of Labovian variation challenged received wisdom as to what linguistic facts are and which conception of the individual's grammar should be the point of departure for solid empirical work. The story might also be phrased as the gradual empirification of armchair linguistics under the pressure of linguistic evidence.
The issues which Labov (1972, 1975, 1984, 1996) has himself brought to general linguistic theory in his discussions with the Chomskyans were and are:
1. The definition of a linguistic fact.
2. The methods for gathering data.
3. The theoretical instantiation of inter- and intra-individual variation.

This paper will be structured around these three topics, where the idealist and materialist positions differ most profoundly, until the end when it takes up the challenge of being more explicit about what a general materialist alternative would look like (see section 6).

Among the paths that linguists follow in pursuit of a better understanding of human language, we can trace two main branches.

THE SEARCH FOR UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR […]

UNDERSTANDING LANGUAGE CHANGE. (Labov 2012: 4)

There's only one serious mistake you can make in Linguistics, which is fatal and once you've made it, you're finished. Sali: What's that? Bill: To think that Chomsky's the problem. If you get rid of Chomsky you've suddenly solved something. (Tagliamonte 2015: 81)

2 The original landscape of Labovian sociolinguistics:

back to the 60s

In this section, we will address the question of why Labov did not develop an alternative linguistics since his intent never was to create a sociolinguistics.

The pedigree of variationist sociolinguistics has been explicitly laid out first and foremost in the programmatic 1968 paper by Weinreich, Labov and Herzog. In this paper, Hermann Paul is treated as the only opponent worthy of thorough discussion. It is noteworthy that Weinreich (who wrote the first section) dismissed Saussure as irrelevant although he himself might be placed directly in the line of succession from Saussure to Meillet and on to Martinet who was Weinreich's doctoral supervisor. Martinet even wrote theimportant preface to Weinreich's celebrated Languages in Contact (Weinreich 1953 [1967]).

The choice of the Neogrammarian Hermann Paul as the favorite ancestor is, however, not accidental. The inheritance from the Neogrammarians includes:

the interest in language change;

the empirical slant of their approach to theorization and, consequently;

the obligation to search for possible generalizations.

In addition, Neogrammarian historical linguistics was the first scientific linguistics to be introduced to the

U.S.A. and, thus, has formed the background for every succeeding wave of theory. In the early 20th

century, historical linguistics was replaced by structural linguistics as the main current in American

linguistics through the work of the Bloomfield generation (Hymes and Fought 1981). In contrast to

European structuralism, the American current of the same name was mainly descriptive, inductive and behaviorist. So when the so-called Chomskyan revolution discarded structuralist thinking in general and so to speak turned American structuralism on its head, favoring a deductive, theoretical approach and model building instead of description (Ruwet 1968), the only niche left for sociolinguistics in the family of American linguistics was that of an empirical synchronic study of language change . By synchronic we mean dynamic, hence the apparent time model of linguistic change. The methods adopted were taken from anthropology and dialectology, and were combined to result in a detailed prescription for field work (Labov 1984) leading to spoken language data replete with variation. This was the challenge for early sociolinguistics, and we argue it still is: how do we account for the various kinds of variation between speakers (interspeaker variation) and within the same speaker (intraspeaker variation) that we find in the data?

It is a fact of particular historical irony that the generation of leftist American scholars from the late 1960s would form a tight-knit group of idealist revolutionaries promoting precisely idealism , i.e. mentalism, in linguistics. Chomsky and his followers were undeniably leftists engaged in fierce resistance to the Vietnam War. The, at the time, long awaited volume of Readings in Transformational Grammar , edited by Jacobs and Rosenbaum and finally published

in 1970, bore the dedication: 'To the children of Vietnam 1945–19??'. But within linguistics their program was, as Labov has precisely characterized it, idealist in contrast to his own materialist stance (Labov 1987; see above).

But then why was Labovian linguistics placed as a separate discipline, one of the two hyphen-disciplines of socio- and psycho-linguistics? Labov expressly stated that 'I have resisted the term sociolinguistics for a long time since it seems to imply that there can be a successful linguistic theory or practice which is not social' (Labov 1972 [1982]: xix).

One answer is that the publication of The Social Stratification of English in New York City in 1966 attracted the attention of empirically minded linguists trained in dialectology (e.g. Peter Trudgill, J.R. Chambers, and countless others). The prevailing climate of opinion, more or less created by the Chomskyans in debates since the publication of Chomsky's Syntactic Structures in 1957, was, however, that descriptivism, as in the case of American structuralism, was simply uninformative butterfly collecting if it was not guided by a general theory. Thus, linguistics henceforth was to be concerned with the general and abstract study of the organization of individual grammars reflecting universal principles. Only in this way could the highest goals of the enterprise of linguistics, explanatory adequacy, be fulfilled. Thus, we have a self-styled revolutionary approach centering on the individual and his or her tacit competence as revealed by introspective judgments on the limits of the language L, versus the painstaking collection of 'performance' data from a number of informants in order to reveal the hidden social structure behind apparent chaos. As Labov has recently put it:

The burning question lurking behind this formula of a sharp division is whether the two kinds of study could in fact be united, either as a materialist or an idealist endeavor. The jury is still out on that.

Efforts to understand human language may be sharply divided into two distinct undertakings. Both spring from an acknowledgment that language, like the species that uses it, had a single origin. Given this perspective, one task is to discover those constant properties of language that reflect the innate biological endowment of the human species – the language faculty. The other, equally challenging, task is to discover the causes of the present diversity among the languages of the world. (Labov 2010a: 4)

3 What is a linguistic fact?

One of the differences between an idealist (Murray 1994: Chapter 9) and a materialist conception of

language has to do with data, i.e. the issue of which data constitutes a linguistic fact. Like all other facts, linguistic facts must be fixed or permanent entities, so that they allow retrieval, inspection, questioning and evaluation. When linguistics at the beginning of the 19th century was founded as a science, the only available permanent data were written. This tallied with the historical nature of the enterprise. The aim was to establish first the family connections between languages and genealogical relationships among languages (Collinge 1995). This led to the need for an idealized standard, e.g. the Greek or the Old Icelandic language.

Paul Nichols. Point of View in Subordinate Clauses
June 18, 2018
1 Introduction
The semantic analysis of sentences used to ascribe mental states and processes has been central to the project of natural language semantics from the beginning of the analytic tradition.And, also since the beginning, the semantic analysis of mental ascriptions has been stronglyinfluenced by theories of the nature of mental states and processes. For instance, Frege'sview that to have a belief is to be related in the appropriate way to a thought is mirrored inhis semantic analysis of sentences in which a subordinate clause is the complement of a verbof cognition.(1) Kopernikus glaubte, daß die Bahnen der Planeten Kreise seien.
According to Frege (1892), (1) describes Copernicus as being related in a certain way to the thought expressed by the subordinate clause "die Bahnen der Planeten Kreise seien". The tight

connection between the semantic analysis of this belief ascription and Frege's analysisof belief is underwritten by the assumption that the truth of the sentence depends on thefidelity of the subordinate clause to the manner in which Copernicus thinks about the orbitsof the planets and their shapes.Despite a great deal of controversy over Frege's basic semantic theory and his theory of the nature of thoughts, there is, to this day, wide acceptance of the idea that when a clause isthe complement of a verb of cognition it contributes something about the perspective of the

Paul Nichols Point of View in Subordinate Clausessubject of the main clause to the meaning of the sentence as a whole. Neo-Fregean analysesof belief ascriptions make the role of this assumption more visible. I'll use an example in English to illustrate.(2) (a) Trump can pardon himself.(b) Guiliani believes Trump can pardon himself.Following Forbes (1990), neo-Fregean theories typically differ from Frege's own view on twocounts. First, rather than shifting from one referent (bedeutung) to another, embedded def-inite noun phrases do double duty: they refer to a mode of presentation (e.g., a way of thinking about Donald Trump) in addition to referring to the thing it presents (the realDonald Trump). Second, Frege's idea of a customary sinn has been replaced with the sinn associated with the phrase by the subject of the report. So, the mode of presentation des-ignated by "Trump" in (2b) would be the one associated with that name by Guiliani, asopposed to the author of the sentence.The thesis that definite noun phrases (with the notable exception of personal pronouns)within the complement clause of a verb of cognition are attributable to the subject of themain clause is common to both neo-Fregean and direct-reference theories. The majorityof direct-reference accounts of indirect discourse are variants of David Kaplan's analysis,in which embedded definite noun phrases refer to themselves, and are interpreted as being used by the subject to think about their customary referent (Kaplan (1968)). So, while the theoretical details differ in important respects between neo-Fregean and direct-referencetheories, it is generally agreed that being in a subordinate clause shifts the point of view towhich definite noun phrases are attributed. In neo-Fregean theories, the sinn associated withan embedded noun phrase is attributed to the subject of the main clause, as opposed to theauthor (or narrator). Similarly, according to Kaplan (1968) and the many views that followhis basic idea, it is the embedded noun phrase itself that is attributed to the subject of themain clause. A quick note on terminology. Though I general will be using phrases like "belief ascriptions", the specificcategory about which I mean my argument to apply to can be precisely defined in syntactic terms as follows.(i) NP V (that) S.Where V is a verb of cognition (I stick with "think" and "believe" for the most part to avoid addingunnecessary variables), and S is a finite clause (often referred to as a subordinate clause in this construction).NP is the subject of the main clause, but I often use phrases like "subject of the main clause" where it wouldbe less ambiguous to use an unwieldy phrase like "referent of the subject of the main clause". Exceptions include the neo-Russellian theories of Nathan Salmon and Scott Soames, who account forso-called de dicto cases pragmatically. Another exception is Erin Eaker, whose worked I am deeply indebtedto.

The fact that embedded definite noun phrases do not always represent the point of viewof the subject of the main clause has long been recognized.

 (3) Everyone in the stupid alliance thinks the spy is a hero............ah hahahaha.
Sentence (3) strongly suggests that the people being described ("everyone in the stupid alliance") are unaware that the spy is a spy. The point made by (3) is precisely that thepeople in the alliance do not think of the referent of "the spy" as a spy, but rather as a hero.This example does not fit the hypothesis that embedded definite noun phrases represent howsomething is thought about by the subject of the main clause.Rather than seeing examples like (3) as counter-examples to the theory that embeddednoun phrases represent the point of view of the subject of the main clause, standard theoriesof belief ascriptions posit a systematic ambiguity: An occurrence of a noun phrase within anembedded clause may be de dicto, in which case it designates a way of thinking (or talking)about things; Or it may be de re, in which case it simply designates the same thing it wouldif it were an unembedded constituent of the main clause.
I will refer to thesis that there isa semantic feature of the belief ascriptions that fits the general criteria ascribed to de dictointerpretations "the de dicto hypothesis".
Against both neo-Fregean and Kaplanian theories of belief ascriptions, I will argue thatbeing in a subordinate clause does not change the meaning of a definite noun phrase: thepotential range of semantic values of a definite noun phrase in an embedded clause is the same as when it is an immediate constituents of the main clause. I am in fact arguing not only for a semantic thesis, but for the wider thesis that embedded definite noun phrases are interpretedaccording to the same principles as when they are un-embedded. Thus, I am arguing boththat belief ascriptions do not involve the semantic encoding of a point-of-view shift, and alsothat the ways that point of view is pragmatically represented in belief ascriptions are not special features of verbal subordination but occur also in simple sentences.Contrary to the widely accepted theory that verbal subordination changes the way thatdefinite noun phrases are interpreted, I will show that embedded noun phrases have the same communicative functions and thus are interpreted in the same ways as when un-embedded.
Belief ascriptions with subordinate clauses can be used to represent point of view, but theydo so using resources that are also available in simple sentences.In section (2) I will give a brief general account of the communicative roles that definitenoun phrases play in English, followed by evidence to show that, at least as a default, being constituents of the subordinate clauses of belief ascriptions does not alter the roles that theyplay. In sections (3) and (4) I will argue that there is no direct evidence in support of the de dicto hypothesis. A falsifiable hypothesis should be tested using the predications itmakes. But, as it turns out the predications that are specific to the de dicto hypothesis arenot validated by linguistic evidence. In section (5) I review the evidence that substitutionfailures imply the de dicto hypothesis. Then finally, in section (6) we will look at a novelargument by Samuel Cumming for the de dicto hypothesis based on a symmetry failurewithin a belief report.
2 The Communicative Roles of Definite Noun Phrases
In order to argue that embedded definite noun phrases do not have a special communicativefunction, it is first necessary to give a brief general account of the communicative roles of definite noun phrases.The underlined expressions in the following sentences illustrate the range of communica-tive roles that definite noun phrases play in English.

Barbara Hall Partee. Topics in semantics / Lecture 5. Formal semantics and the lexicon.

The Lexicon in Model-theoretic
To each set Σ of closed formulas there corresponds the class Σ* of all models in which all the formulas of Σ are true.
1.1. Languages, world, models. Axioms.
The class Σ* is called an axiomatizable class of models, and the set Σ is called the set of
Let us consider the relation between an artificial language like the predicate calculus (PC)

its axioms. But in Σ*, not only the axioms of Σ may be true. The set Σ** of all closed formulas which are true in Σ* is called a theory, and the formulas of Σ** are called the theorems of the theory Σ**. (The axioms are a subset of the theorems; they are the generators of the set of theorems. The same theory may often be generated by different choices of axioms.)

Example. Consider the example of a tiny PC language containing just two binary predicate symbols parent and grandparent.

It is easy to see that the formula (i) is true in every model.

(i) $\forall x \forall y(parent(x,y) \lor \neg\, parent(x,y))$

Such formulas are called tautologies. And formula (ii), for example, is false in every model.

(ii) $\forall x \forall y(parent(x,y)\ \&\ \neg\, parent(x,y))$

Such formulas are called contradictions.

Of course, not all formulas are tautologies or contradictions. There are formulas which are true in some models and false in others (called contingent). For example, the formula (iii)

(iii) $\forall x \forall z(grandparent(x,z) \leftrightarrow \exists y(parent(x,y)\ \&\ parent(y,z)))$

is true only in those models where a given pair of individuals a and c stand in the grandparent-relation, i.e. B.H. Partee, MGU, March 22, 2005

$\langle a,c\rangle \in \|grandparent\|$

iff there exists an individual b such that a is a parent of b and b is a parent of c, i.e.

$\langle a,b\rangle \in \|parent\|$ and $\langle b,c\rangle \in \|parent\|$.

Thus formula (iii) selects the class of models (the axiomatizable class of models characterized by axiom (iii)) in which the relation grandparent has some properties which the relation expressed by English grandparent has in the real world.

But our axiom (iii), which captures some "correct" properties of the given kinship relations, is evidently insufficient for a complete characterization. It admits, for example, the

---

and a natural language like English and the meaning of Montague's phrase "English as a formal language". Expressions of a natural language of course relate in some way to the real world in all its richness, in a broad sense of real world including conceivable and possible worlds. Expressions of artificial formal languages are interpreted in models and have no meanings other than those assigned to them by the interpretation function (on the model).

Models function as abstractions and representations of some aspects of some kind of reality; their structure reflects on the one hand the structure of the language for which they provide the basis for interpretation, and on the other hand the nature of the reality they are intended to represent to some degree.

Model structures are like structural presuppositions about the world, or some aspect of some world, implicit in a formal language. Such presuppositions in PC are very primitive: the world consists of objects, devoid of any internal structure, and connections among these objects are represented as (extensional) relations. These presuppositions are similar to relational database representations of the world. Different predicate symbols of the same arity: love, like, kiss, see etc. are just different "labels".

When we view a natural language as a formal language, we simultaneously view the world (or the set of possible worlds) as a model of it. This involves some abstraction and regimentation both of the language and of the world(s), as reflected in the type structure imposed on the language and the ontology of the model structures in which it is interpreted.

B.H. Partee, MGU, March 22, 2005

2 Integrating formal semantics, lexical semantics, natural language metaphysics

2.1. Formal semantics in the broader setting of natural language use.

(1) Lexical semantics in the Moscow School:

•

Lexical definition is modeled as mathematical definition

•

There are some undefined notions, semantic primitives (atoms of meaning)

model (i.e. is true in the model) MBAD which consists just of objects a and b such that:

•

Meaning of other words described by lexical definitions. Such a definition is a text

$<a,b> \in \|parent\|$

describing necessary and sufficient conditions

$<b,b> \in \|parent\|$

•

We represent the meaning of the word as a set of meaning postulates, the theory of this

$\in \|$

$\|$

word. This is our version of the Moscow school approach. (Borschev and Partee 1998,

$<a,b>$

grandparent .

Borschev and Partee 1999)

Consider the formula (iv).

$\forall \ \forall$

(2)

We consider a sentence or a text as a theory describing the model of the situation

(iv)

x

$y(parent(x,y) \rightarrow \neg(x = y))$

(model of this theory) (Borschev 1996, Borschev 1994)

It is true in some models admitted by axiom (iii), and false in others, for example in the "bad"

(3)

This theory is formed from several sources:

model MBAD considered above. If we add this formula (iv) as an axiom, and take axioms (iii)

•

text itself, its sentences are considered as formulas (formal semantics)

and (iv) together, we slightly improve the situation, excluding from the class of models

•

meaning postulates corresponding to words of text (lexical semantics)

corresponding to these two axioms the model MBAD along with various other "bad" models.

•

contextual information (formal pragmatics in Montague's sense)

But it is easy to see that even these two axioms together admit not only "correct"

The interaction of these constituents may be rather complicated. (Asher and Lascarides 1995,

("intended") models. To describe correct models of kinship, we need some additional axioms.

Borschev and Partee 2001, Borschev and Partee 2002)

We will not continue that task here, but will turn to further illustrations of the notion of an

axiomatic theory and its models.

2.2. Meaning postulates.

Consider the formula (v).

The sample meaning postulates included here are quite primitive. They are also

(v) $\forall x \forall y \forall z((parent(x,y) \ \& \ parent(y,z)) \rightarrow grandparent(x,z))$

oversimplified in omitting some essential modal and intensional operators; these are

It's not difficult to show that this formula is true in all models in which the formula (iii) is

extensional approximations to rules which really must be stated in intensional terms.

true. So formula (v) is included in the theory generated by axiom (iii) and is a theorem of this

theory.

(i) Illustrating the use of meaning postulates to spell out the content of "semantic features".

And formula (vi) below is false in all models in which the formula (iii) is true, i.e. it is

∀x[king(x) → human(x)]

inconsistent with formula (iii) (and with the theory generated by that axiom).

∀x[senator(x) → human(x)]

(vi) ∃x∃z(grandparent(x,z) & ¬∃y(parent(x,y))

etc. I.e., one can think of "semantic features" like "[+human]" as abbreviations for such

If we were to add formula (vi) as an axiom to form the set of axioms (iii) and (vi), the

meaning postulates.

resulting theory would be inconsistent, i.e. would have no models at all. And the negation of

formula (vi) is in fact a theorem of the theory whose only axiom is (iii).

(ii) Illustrating the use of meaning postulates to specify semantic properties that distinguish

The concepts of axioms and theories will be useful at several points in these lectures.

various semantic subclasses within a given semantic type. (More below.)

In formal semantics, axioms play a role in at least two places. We will discuss their role

(a) ∀x∀P[skillful(P)(x) → P(x)] (a skillful surgeon is a surgeon; this meaning

in the axiomatization of "natural language metaphysics" (Bach) or the "naive picture of the

postulate does not apply to adjectives like former and alleged.)

world"(Apresjan). And axioms which describe the properties of the intended interpretations

(b) ∀x∀P[former(P)(x) → ¬P(x)] (former is a "privative" adjective, like "counterfeit")

of lexical (non-logical) constants, called meaning postulates, will play a large role in our

program of connecting formal and lexical semantics.

(iii) A meaning postulate with enough information packed into it may constitute a definition;

if the meaning postulate specifies necessary and sufficient conditions, it can be written with

an "iff" (↔) rather than just as a one-way implication.

∀x∀P[former(P)(x) ↔ [PAST(P(x)) & ¬P(x)]]

Whether such meaning postulates are possible for more than a small fraction of the lexicon of

a natural language is a matter of debate which we do not aim to settle.

Тематика итоговых презентаций по дисциплине

Не предусмотрены.

6. Учебно-методическое обеспечение и информационное обеспечение дисциплины

6.1. Список источников и литературы

Основная литература

Перевод - мост между мирами [Электронный ресурс] / М-во образования и науки Рос. Федерации, Федер. гос. общеобразоват. учреждение высш. образования "Рос. гос. гуманитарный ун-т", Ин-т лингвистики ; [отв. ред. Е. В. Семенюк]. - Режим доступа : http://elib.lib.rsuh.ru/elib/000013198. - Загл. с экрана. - 127 с.

Дополнительная литература

Роль перевода в развитии языков и межкультурной коммуникации [Электронный ресурс] : сборник статей / Рос. гос. гуманитарный ун-т ; сост. К. Т. Гадилия, О. А. Самойленко ; под ред. К. Т. Гадилия, Р. И. Розиной. - Электрон. дан. - Москва : РГГУ, 2017. - 155, [1] с. - Режим доступа : http://elib.lib.rsuh.ru/elib/000011247. - Загл. с экрана. - Библиогр. в конце ст. - ISBN 978-5-7281-1871-8.

6.2. Перечень ресурсов информационно-телекоммуникационной сети «Интернет», необходимый для освоения дисциплины

http://edition.pagesuite-professional.co.uk/launch.aspx?referral=other&refresh=5d0RiK311wS7&PBID=c4c5af3f-e733-4c9e-9067-6b472efa41dc&skip=
http://www.cadoutsourcingservices.com/
http://www.daff.gov.au
http://www.huntingtoningalls.com/
http://www.multitran.ru
http://www.m-w.com
http://www.pentaximaging.com/files/scms_docs/K20D_Manual.pdf
http://www.scribd.com

Национальная электронная библиотека (НЭБ) www.rusneb.ru
ELibrary.ru Научная электронная библиотека www.elibrary.ru
Электронная библиотека Grebennikon.ru www.grebennikon.ru
Cambridge University Press
ProQuest Dissertation & Theses Global
SAGE Journals
Taylor and Francis
JSTOR

1.3   Профессиональные базы данных и информационно-справочные системы

Доступ к профессиональным базам данных: https://liber.rsuh.ru/ru/bases

Информационные справочные системы:
1.   Консультант Плюс
2.   Гарант

2. Материально-техническое обеспечение дисциплины

Для обеспечения дисциплины используется материально-техническая база образовательного учреждения: учебные аудитории, оснащённые компьютером и проектором для демонстрации учебных материалов.
Состав программного обеспечения:
1.   Windows
2.   Microsoft Office
3.   Kaspersky Endpoint Security

3. Обеспечение образовательного процесса для лиц с ограниченными возможностями здоровья и инвалидов

В ходе реализации дисциплины используются следующие дополнительные методы обучения, текущего контроля успеваемости и промежуточной аттестации обучающихся в зависимости от их индивидуальных особенностей:
    для слепых и слабовидящих: лекции оформляются в виде электронного документа, доступного с помощью компьютера со специализированным программным обеспечением;

письменные задания выполняются на компьютере со специализированным программным обеспечением или могут быть заменены устным ответом; обеспечивается индивидуальное равномерное освещение не менее 300 люкс; для выполнения задания при необходимости предоставляется увеличивающее устройство; возможно также использование собственных увеличивающих устройств; письменные задания оформляются увеличенным шрифтом; экзамен и зачёт проводятся в устной форме или выполняются в письменной форме на компьютере.

для глухих и слабослышащих: лекции оформляются в виде электронного документа, либо предоставляется звукоусиливающая аппаратура индивидуального пользования; письменные задания выполняются на компьютере в письменной форме; экзамен и зачёт проводятся в письменной форме на компьютере; возможно проведение в форме тестирования.

для лиц с нарушениями опорно-двигательного аппарата: лекции оформляются в виде электронного документа, доступного с помощью компьютера со специализированным программным обеспечением; письменные задания выполняются на компьютере со специализированным программным обеспечением; экзамен и зачёт проводятся в устной форме или выполняются в письменной форме на компьютере.

При необходимости предусматривается увеличение времени для подготовки ответа.

Процедура проведения промежуточной аттестации для обучающихся устанавливается с учётом их индивидуальных психофизических особенностей. Промежуточная аттестация может проводиться в несколько этапов.

При проведении процедуры оценивания результатов обучения предусматривается использование технических средств, необходимых в связи с индивидуальными особенностями обучающихся. Эти средства могут быть предоставлены университетом, или могут использоваться собственные технические средства.

Проведение процедуры оценивания результатов обучения допускается с использованием дистанционных образовательных технологий.

Обеспечивается доступ к информационным и библиографическим ресурсам в сети Интернет для каждого обучающегося в формах, адаптированных к ограничениям их здоровья и восприятия информации:

для слепых и слабовидящих: в печатной форме увеличенным шрифтом, в форме электронного документа, в форме аудиофайла.

для глухих и слабослышащих: в печатной форме, в форме электронного документа.

для обучающихся с нарушениями опорно-двигательного аппарата: в печатной форме, в форме электронного документа, в форме аудиофайла.

Учебные аудитории для всех видов контактной и самостоятельной работы, научная библиотека и иные помещения для обучения оснащены специальным оборудованием и учебными местами с техническими средствами обучения:

для слепых и слабовидящих: устройством для сканирования и чтения с камерой SARA CE; дисплеем Брайля PAC Mate 20; принтером Брайля EmBraille ViewPlus;

для глухих и слабослышащих: автоматизированным рабочим местом для людей с нарушением слуха и слабослышащих; акустический усилитель и колонки;

для обучающихся с нарушениями опорно-двигательного аппарата: передвижными, регулируемыми эргономическими партами СИ-1; компьютерной техникой со специальным программным обеспечением.

9. Методические материалы
9.1 Планы семинарских занятий

Семинары № 1-16

Устный перевод в научной сфере (36 часов)

Раздел 1. Семинары 1-8 (16 часов)

Вопросы семинара

Особенности научного текста. Особенности устных и письменных научных текстов. Различия в характере и организации научного текста в русскоязычной и англоязычной традициях. Нейтральность научного текста. Терминологическая насыщенность научного текста. Безэквивалентная лексика. Клише научного языка. Принципы перевода текстов, принадлежащих к различным видам научного дискурса. Генерирование и первичное редактирование переводов.

Контрольные (проблемные) вопросы

В чем состоят особенности построения русскоязычного научного текста в отличие от английского?

В чем проявляется эмоциональная нейтральность научного текста?

Какие проблемы для перевода представляет терминологическая насыщенность научного текста?

Какую роль в научном тексте играет безэквивалентная лексика?

Приведите примеры клише, свойственных научному языку, и их соответствий на русском языке.

Раздел 2. Семинары №9-16. Устный последовательный перевод письменных и устных (лекций и докладов) научных текстов. (16 часо)

Вопросы семинара

Основные особенности устного последовательного перевода. Особенности перевода лекций и докладов. Приемы сокращенной переводческой записи. Мнемотехника. Активация линейной памяти. Запоминание тематических рядов на русском и английском языке. Лексико-синтаксические конверсивы. Переводческие соответствия, автоматизация навыков их употребления. Клишированные словосочетания. Речевая компрессия. Лексическое свертывание. Лексико-семантические преобразования. Использование базовых и специфических приемов в текстах разных жанров. Особенности произношения носителей различных акцентов английского языка. Этика устного перевода. Генерирование и первичное редактирование переводов.

Контрольные (проблемные) вопросы

Назовите известные вам приемы переводческой записи.

Что такое мнемотехника?

Что такое лексико-синтаксические конверсивы?

Что такое переводческие соответствия?

Как добиться автоматизации употребления переводческих соответствий?

Что такое речевая компрессия?

Что такое лексическое свертывание?

Назовите известные вам лексико-семантические преобразования.

Приведите примеры особенностей диалектной речи.

Аннотация

Дисциплина реализуется в Институте лингвистики кафедрой европейских языков. Содержание дисциплины охватывает круг теоретических вопросов и практических проблем, связанных с переводом текстов научной направленности.

Цель дисциплины: дать студенту знания, умения и навыки, необходимые ему для осуществления его профессиональной деятельности в области устного перевода текстов научного стиля.

Задачи:

☐ научить студента создавать эквивалентный перевод исходного текста с учетом всех требований русского языка;

☐ научить его приемам передачи на русском языке специальной (научной) информации, заложенной в тексте;

☐ дать ему инструментарий, достаточный для дальнейшего самостоятельного решения проблем, возникающих в его профессиональной деятельности.

Дисциплина направлена на формирование следующих компетенций:

ПК-3 Способен осуществлять устный последовательный перевод	3.1	Переводить с одного языка на другой в режиме последовательного перевода
	3.2	Сохранять коммуникационную цель исходного сообщения
	3.3	Быстро переключаться с одного языка на другой
	3.4	Использовать надлежащие формулы речевого этикета
	3.5	Соблюдать профессиональную этику

Знать:
- основные переводческие приемы в области устного перевода.
-уметь применять основные переводческие приемы в области последовательного перевода;

 Уметь:
- пользоваться переводческим инструментарием, в т.ч. системами переводческой записи;
- учитывать важность контекста и особенности целевой аудитории;
- порождать текст, соединяющий в себе эквивалентность оригиналу и соответствие речевым и стилистическим нормам русского языка.

Владеть:
способностью отбирать и использовать в научной и практической деятельности необходимую информацию по проблемам, связанным с предметом курса, с использованием как традиционных, так и современных образовательных технологий.

Рабочей программой предусмотрены следующие виды контроля: аттестация в форме зачета.
Общая трудоемкость освоения дисциплины составляет 2 зачетные единицы.