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УДК 81'253

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INFORMATION IN EMOTIVE AND EMOTIONAL ENGLISH DISCOURSE

Стаття присвячена розгляду обмеженої та необмеженої інформації в емотивному та емоційному англомовному дискурсі, основним джерелам для отримання необхідної інформації через прямі та непрямі відкриті запитання, закриті, підготовлені та буферні питання.

Ключові слова: інформація, емотивний, емоційний, дискурс, питання.

Статья посвящена рассмотрению ограниченной и неограниченной информации в эмотивном и эмоциональном англоязычном дискурсе, основным источникам получения необходимой информации посредством прямых и не прямых открытых вопросов, закрытые, подготовленных и буферных вопросов.

Ключевые слова: информация, эмотивный, эмоциональный, дискурс, вопросы.

The article deals with the limited and unlimited information in emotive and emotional English discourse, the main sources for getting necessary information through direct and indirect open questions, closed, prepared and buffer questions.

Key words: information, emotive, emotional, discourse, questions.

A verbal world of emotions is one of the aspects of a speaker. It is represented by a sophisticated inlay of speakers' psychological interrelation and information. Means of the emotive semantics represent us all the national, psychological, social and cultural sides of a speaker. Thus, we may talk about an emotional aura and emotional perception of the person's being. It is explicated through the combination of emotive signs of the language or speech and their situational derivation.

The fundamental scientific contribution into investigation of general theoretical aspects of emotive and emotional communication is made by the prominent foreign scholars and linguists, such as: A. Wierzbicka, J. Barbalet, R. Posner, Ch. Plantin, O. Furmanek, K. Bennetti, F. Ungerer; by the following Ukrainian linguists as: I. Mats, G. Kuzenko, I. Brenik,

T. Myronenko. Despite their basis, the author of the article thoroughly investigates the role of information in emotive and emotional English discourse.

The purpose of the article is to illustrate linguistics of emotions, principles of emotional inference, limited and unlimited information in emotive and emotional English discourse, the main sources for getting necessary information in emotive and emotional English discourse through factorial and motivated open questions, direct and indirect open questions, closed, prepared and buffer questions.

Emotion in discourse is seen from two distinct angles: the emotional and the emotive. Emotion as the "degradation" of discourse can be intentionally exploited by the speaker [1: 45-61]. Emotions within the framework of a "before, during and after" emotional scenario cover the emotional situation and its developments. The starting point is the idea that an emotion is the result of a stimulus and information of discourse. Every individual has unique emotional abilities that are employed to read the emotions of others as well as to express personal emotions [1: 113-133].

In emotive and emotional English discourse communicative intentions are quite different. They vary depending on the circumstances, information and the nature of the discourse. Emotive vocabulary, the main part of which is the spoken language, acts as a kind of indicators of the interpersonal relationships between interlocutors [2: 1-2]. Emotivity in the different linguistic levels, points out the ability of different words to have emotional and expressive values by which people can express their feelings and emotions [3: 79]. Emotivity acts as a semantic component of the word which works for the expression of emotions.

Emotive connotation which appears emotivity is a logical component of lexical meaning and therefore denotes a certain emotion and information. Words related to this category always have a double semantic structure and specific neutral synonyms. Emotive potential, spread of the specific word works for the expression of a certain speaker's emotions, has, as well as for identity of new emotional valences [4: 143].

While the interlocutors are, at least to a certain degree, aware of their emotional states, even if they do not want to reports on them, there are deviations from neutral coherence that are neither the result of strategic intentions nor the expression of a specific emotional state. Interlocutors may communicate with each other in a non-cooperative way, using very subtle means to hinder their partners from participating in the conversation in an adequate way. It may therefore be appropriate to speak of the functional effectiveness of these (unintentional) communicative strategies [5].

The linguistic approach to emotional discourse differentiates between emotional speech (i.e. expression of an experienced emotion) and emotive speech (i.e. expression of a controlled, shaped emotion). The "source – place – emotion" relation allows us to understand the semantic structure of emotions. The analysis of emotional speech can be undertaken on one of the following three levels: expression, pragmatics and interaction [1: 135-163].

According to F. Ungerer's approach (1997), there are four principles of emotional inference: principles of emotional relevance, a principle of emotional evaluation, a principle of intensity of presentation and a principle of emotional content. Plantin Ch. proposes a twelve-axis system to organise emotive discourse. These twelve axes are: consent, type of event, type of person, quantity/intensity, analogy, time, place, distance, causality/agentivity,

consequences, control, and norms [1: 165-183]. The author of the articles offers to add “information” to this classification.

Apart from the influence of emotions on the language preference in multilingual individuals, emotions imprint themselves in the development of information in the foreign language at any level of proficiency acquisition. The meaning is established in the learner’s dialogue with his own previous cognitive baggage under specific spatiotemporal and psychological circumstances.

A speech organization is based on the quality and quantity of the information in emotive and emotional English discourse. There are two types of the information: (1) limited, when a speaker is interested in getting a definite information or answer “Yes” or “No”; (2) unlimited, when a speaker gives an opportunity to the interlocutor to disclose his/her conversation in detail.

If interlocutors are unacquainted to each other, a speaker uses a limited type of information, mostly such phrases as: please, I’d like etc.

- Is Miss Gospie in, please? (O. Priestley)
- I’d like to leave a message for one of your guests. (P. Auster)

At first, a speaker uses limited information – emotive or prepared speech in the conversation and then he/she can proceed to the unlimited one – emotional or spontaneous speech.

- Is that you dear?
- Yes.
- What was Milly shouting about?
- She’s gone out?
- Well, it looks like it, doesn’t it?
- So, what happened? (C. Snow)

A speaker uses more indirect narrative expressions than questions to get necessary information. He/she should be tactful in the conversation and not show a direct interest in it.

- mother-son, Ex.: You were very late last night. (S. Maugham)
- woman-man, Ex.: We missed you Friday night. (O. Updike)
- men friends, Ex.: I hear you’ve seen Blanche. (S. Maugham)

A question is the main source for getting necessary information in emotive and emotional English discourse. More often a speaker puts emphasis on the open and close questions in the speech. He/she uses the following types of questions such as: factorial and motivated open questions, direct and indirect open questions, closed, prepared and buffer questions.

Open questions demand argumentation, motivated and detailed answers. The main types are the following:

1. (Why, What, Where, When, How long/many) + auxiliary V + subject + V + ..?
- How long did you stay?
- Oh, about an hour. May be an hour and a half. (J. Updike)
2. (What, Who) + V..?
- Who are you then?
- I’m a writer. (P. Auster)
3. Why + auxiliary V + not + subject + V..?

- If you wanted to waste your money, why didn't you ask him?
- He's dead. He died early this year. His daughter's supposed to be good too. (J. Murdoch)

Open questions are divided into factorial and motivated questions in emotive and emotional English discourse. Factorial questions emphasize a definite event in the speech. Motivated questions study a motivated behavior of interlocutors and their values.

(1)

- Doctor, how is he? What's the matter with him exactly? Why doesn't he wake up?
- He's all right. Nothing to shout about, he could be better, I think. But he's all right; believe me except for the hairline fracture of the skull.
- Oh, no. (R. Carver)

(2)

- But what's wrong?
- Nothing wrong. I want to be alone for a while.
- Why didn't say something before now?
- I didn't know before now. I'm exhausted. (J. Oates)

Some linguists divide open questions into direct and indirect. Direct questions are laconic, concrete, simple, definite and clear to the interlocutors. Indirect questions disclose the essence of the problem, a speech process in detail.

- Are you ready to tell me?
- Are you ready to here it?
- Oh, sure.
- Well, I think I'm in love.
- Who's the lucky girl?
- You must know. You must have guessed. (J. Updike)

Open questions make a person think, analyze and logically argue in emotive and emotional English discourse. However, a person uses close questions to solve private affairs. They limit "vast" questions, emphasize concrete information and reduce possible answers to minimum. In emotive and emotional discourse a close question is a way to define the contents of the information.

- Did you by any chance have an affair with her?
- She's just a kid.
- Yes, but did you?
- Look, I appreciate your help. I don't think that entitles you to make assumptions about my affairs. (R. Bausch)

Close questions demand a definite answer from the interlocutor "Yes" or "No" in emotive and emotional English discourse. A speaker gives an opportunity to choose a positive answer or a negative one. Close questions can take the following forms of syntactic expressions as:

1. Auxiliary V + S + V + ..?
- Is that all?
- Yes. He gave me some pills (R. Lacy)
2. Auxiliary V + not + S + V + ..?
- Didn't he have a name?

- That's the stupidest thing. Margue told Sukie and Sukie told me but something's scared it all right out my head.

3. Affixed (according to Pocheptsov's terminology):

a) positive assertion

- I hate being slow about things, don't you?

- Yes. (J. Galsworthy)

b) negative assertion

- It isn't because of Mother, is it?

- No, it is not that. (C. Snow)

4. Interrogative sentences without inversion:

a) positive assertion

- He told you just before he went?

- Yeas, and earlier too. (J. Murdoch)

b) negative assertion

- She didn't say anything about his going with anyone?

- No. (S. Maugham)

5. Elliptical close questions in unofficial situations:

- Energetic?

- Very

- Fair?

- No, darkish (J. Galsworthy)

Close and open forms of questions complete each other. Their combination let interlocutors get a desirable effect for receiving necessary information in emotive or emotional English discourse.

According to the official and unofficial situations in the communication, linguists use Averyanova's terminology who has classified questions into prepared and buffer ones. Prepared questions demand more attention, training, some skills to get a sympathy and trust of the interlocutor in emotive and emotional English discourse.

- This house wouldn't work without your niece, Miss Cherrell.

- It wouldn't Dinny's wonder.

- Doesn't she ever think of herself?

- Why no, no more than reason; indeed not so much!

- She looks to me sometimes as if she'd been through sometimes pretty bad. (J.

Galsworthy)

There is a great number of prepared questions according to the communicants' acquaintance (stranger or unfamiliar man), social status (employer-employee), relations (cold, martial) etc. However, a speaker should follow all these communicative strategies to support substantial answers to basic questions.

- Well, at least you got some good of it. It was just on my way to the hotel for a cup of tea. I don't suppose you'd care to join me?

- I'm sorry. I'm going to have tea with my sister-in-law at Sleeton.

- I did here of her. Your brother is lucky to have such a good wife. Did they meet when he was in the Army? Was she a nurse? (A. Cronin)

Buffer questions are used to transfer an interlocutor's attention to another subject and to reduce monotones in emotive and emotional English discourse (Ex.: Do you think it could be menopause? Why couldn't be? Well, how's Sukie?)

- What your friend described as the life of pretence?
- Except they're not pretending. They just are, aren't they?
- Do you mind if I take my tie off?
- Please. Of course.
- I've spent all day dreaming of water.
- Me, too. (J. Fowles)

Speakers' actual use of affective displays as communicative devices is often strategic. Signs of emotion are not always simply outward manifestations of internal states. They are often produced intentionally in order to project a particular definition of the situation and influence others' behaviour. Different emotional elements may appear in the utterance depending on its character and pragmatic information aspect.

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