Mega-Discourse on the Cognitive and Ethno-Cultural Aspects of the Problem of the Functional and Genre Stratification of Modern Sport

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ABSTRACT
The problem of classifying various discourses is topical. The aim of this research is to describe various discourses of sport communication. Sport is a huge sphere of human physical activity. The questions addressing sport as communication through the different structure of physical activity are rather topical in our research. Sport is a form of physical activity that is performed by professionals, non-professionals and their supporters. Ethnocultural studies can provide insight into the peculiarities of sport communication through a verbalised description of the cognitive-pragmatic processes involved in this communication. This will greatly benefit our multicultural world. Having generalised the empirical data of translation practice in the field of sport, it remains for researchers to work out new models of sport discourse based on European languages. We provide an interdisciplinary understanding of the integrated system of knowledge accessed from different fields for solving the topical and difficult scientific, theoretical and practical tasks of sport megadiscourse in the context of an integral and competency-based approach that combines the cognitive, ethno-cultural, medico-social and psycholinguistic aspects. This synergetic approach is used to consider the subject from the setting of international competitions and the Russian 2014 Olympics.

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INTRODUCTION

The problem of classifying various discourses in modern multicultural society, of which sport discourse holds a prominent place, is particularly topical. The aim of this research was to describe various discourses on sport communication as part of a mega-sport discourse from the cognitive-pragmatic aspect. This research has theoretical and practical significance. Sport is a huge sphere of human physical activity, making sport communication an important area of social needs and expression.

Social roles represent institutionalised behaviour and actions. They limit the activity and independence of the individual and predict his actions in traditional society. Berger and Luckmann (1966) referred to the “non-classical” image of the nature of social institutions and their social functions in the interaction system between people. While they took the key postulates of their belief from their predecessors, Spencer and Parsons, Berger and Luckmann discovered and described the participation of the individual in forming social institutions and how they function and develop. Their methodological succession allows us to accept the non-classical approach as adequate in studying the socio-linguistic and ethno-cultural aspect of the problems of sport mega-discourse.

METHODS

A social order is the result of human activity that is created in the process of constant externalisation. So, Berger and Luckmann (1966) saw institutionalisation as the origin of human activity that has undergone habitualisation of actions. Sport as a social institution is based on social control over individuals’ behaviour, seen in their willingness to follow models and rules of behaviour, traditions, moral principles and orders that are socially approved and established in society. Thus, there arises a set of typified actions that are habitualised for every person.

Institutions are perceived by man as an objective and historic reality. Institutions resist change them or does without it, as it has mandatory power over individual and control mechanisms. In the course of socialisation of knowledge preceding experience is passed to the next generation by having it internalise subjective realities. This can influence the formation of the individual, creating unique human personalities. It is necessary to emphasise that Berger and Luckmann (1966) considered socialisation as the process of assimilating roles and establishing new rules and relationships. A person is capable of assimilating and reproducing new rules and relationships but he is also able to destroy them. Idea creation means the possibility of changing social structures.

In the course of our analysis, the following scientific methods of research were used:

- linguistic supervision;
• description using special language facts for the purpose of obtaining the generalised data, implemented by interpretative technique;
• partial component and contextual analysis in translation;
• interpretation of scientific and public text.

The research material used in this research was as follows: theoretical research data based on discourse theory (Bloor & Bloor, 2013; Taylor, 2013; Teun, 2011; Trubcheninova, 2015); cognitive linguistics (Lopez-Ferrero & Bach, 2016; Trubcheninova, 2015); and translation theory using Russian and English texts and analytics in sport (Kudrin, 2011; Trubcheninova, 2015; Yarmolinets & Shcheglova, 2014).

Social construction methodology is used here to study sport as non-classical social methodology. Much attention was paid to institutions by the American sociologist, Berger, and the German sociologist, Luckmann. The main thesis of their theory was stated in their 1966 work, “The Social Construction of Reality”. There, they stated that social reality is simultaneously both objective and subjective i.e. it meets the requirements of objectivity as it is independent of individuals but it is yet possible to be considered as a subjective world because it is created by individuals. According to the researchers, the phenomenon of institutionalised social roles arose as a result of social interconnections in joint activities.

RESULT

The questions connected with sport as a different structure that includes the various activities of a person who takes part in different communicative situations are rather topical in our research. Sport discourse has always elicited much interest, but even more so in the course of preparations for and during the Olympic Games of 2014 that were held in Russia. Sport discourse research is topical because sport is a vast subject area that includes a large number of participants, spheres, situations and topics dealing with communication and various chronotopes. Sport discourse commands a huge following as it covers all social strata. Sport is a form of activity performed by professionals, non-professionals and their supporters. It is diverse in manifestation. Therefore, it is necessary to regulate the list of sport discourses, each of which has its communicants with their own status and thematic relationships, communicative situations and a context. However, the genres of sport discourse, in which there is communication between a sportsman and a coach, a doctor and the members of a team, an announcer and an organiser of the sport event, for instance, the International Olympic Committee (IOC), remain insufficiently studied.

We adhere to Malysheva’s definition of discourse as a “process of thematic communication dependence that is determined by the social and historic conditions whose specificity is reflected in a set of texts (in a wide semantic comprehension of this term), which are
characterized by a conceptual, speech genre and pragma-linguistic variety” (2011, p. 370). Sport discourse is a type of communication between participants in sport and a socio-cultural phenomenon that is itself a combination of communicative practices, which were developed in sport institution formation, determined by a number of extra-linguistic factors (Komleva, 2012, pp. 199-224).

Much attention has been paid to the question of stereotypification in sport discourse and the problem of studying mass communication in sport since the end of the 20th century. Philosophers, sociologists, psychologists, linguists and representatives of other societal and humanitarian sciences showed interest in these problems. The processes of stereotype formation and function in a philosophic aspect were considered by Alexeev, Lippmann, Shirokanov and Shikhirev. The psychological theories of the stereotype were reflected in the works of Bern, Bodalev, Violett, Duaz, Kats, Allport, Silvert and Taguiri. The scientists conducted a sociological analysis of everyday reality as an intersubjective world, considered the value of the social institution in modern construction and discovered how reality is interpreted by people and acquires subjective significance as an integral world. Psycholinguists defined the problem of a stereotyped perception that influences the personal verbal and mental worldview of an individual. However, there was a rise in the invariability of showing a linguistic persona’s individual discourse in the situation of the electronic-information society.

The linguo-cognitive and linguo-cultural aspects of sport communication have been studied least of all. They present many questions connected with the theoretical and methodological description of the conceptual dominant system and conceptual models analysis by means of which sportdom is understood. This type of communication is shown taking place where sport discourse is connected with other discourse. Training, performance or a meeting between sportsmen and coaches or coaches and parents are some of the combinations between sport and pedagogical discourse. Healing and medical support combine sport and medical discourse. The listed genres are subdivided into oral and written forms. Competition schedules, reports and training schemes, sport websites, sportsmen’s Internet blogs, world ratings of sport celebrities and sport advertisements etc. serve as examples of written discourse. Oral discourse includes reports and interviews. Mass media contain a vast collection of both written and oral discourse.

DISCUSSION

Sport discourse is considered the richest repertory of material on discourse. Television has strengthened the influence of sport, bringing in millions of people into the discourse. Therefore, mass media act as a peculiar laboratory where new forms of language expression are tried and tested. This is why research into mass media texts draws the attention of Russian linguists.
In their opinion, a printed text, a radio interview, an Internet text and a television report are all examples of sport discourse. The main difference is in the medium, which allows a different connection between sport and the society. Speech acts between subjects of sport who serve as linguistic personas provide implementation of sport discourse.

Sport communication is inseparable from the mass media and is defined by this connection in many respects. Therefore, it is helpful to use the concept ‘media discourse’. Media discourse is any kind of discourse that is implemented in the sphere of mass communication, particularly, in mass media. Consequently, the genre and pragmalinguistic diversity of sport discourse texts is defined by the properties of media discourse, especially, when the media content is characterised by a stable connection with the audience and a dependence on technical means of information transfer. It becomes obvious why researchers of communication in sport use the concept ‘media sport’ when it is necessary to describe sociocultural verbal and cogitative activity connected with sport as a subject and implemented in mass media. In this regard, there is a need to discuss sport media discourse that combines its own discursive characteristics and the general characteristics of any type of media discourse that is determined by the specificity of the sphere of mass communication and the peculiarities of the information channel. For instance, a scandal involving high-profile members of the body governing world football, FIFA, became a top story covered in every country of the world. One British news provider interpreted the conflict as follows:

The Not-So-Secret Shame of Sepp Blatter and the FIFA Scandal. Busting soccer’s governing body for corruption feels like ignoring reports on Jeffrey Dahmer for years, then raiding his kitchen for health-code violations. As far as sports controversies go, you’d think blowing the whistle on FIFA’s alleged bribes and the open-air slave mausoleum being constructed in Qatar as a byproduct of erecting stadiums for the 2022 World Cup would be a no-brainer (Rauzy, 2015).

Russian mass media presented as follows:

… I have not understood as yet how one could pass judgement on the two prominent men in world football. It is just worth remembering what measures Sepp Blatter as the President of UEFA (Union of European Football Associations) took, having replaced João Havelange. How Michel Platini managed to make UEFA commercially successful, the Champions League and the Europa League bright brands. The direction given by these people was efficient…. As far as I am concerned, the whole case, dealt with Blatter,
does not have to do with football, and Platini just happened to come into the heat of the moment. Their being disqualified is a political decision. … I want these people not to be suspended from football for a long time. It is clear to me that changes have brewed, but it is conducted so, it is a bit much (Lund, 2016).

French media discourse provided the following comment:

This is the whipping boy in this corruption scandal, which has been shaking FIFA for five months already, who answered the questions of the Russian News Agency, ‘Tass’, without controlling his temper. During this interview….

Sepp Blatter, having been suspended from the position of the President of FIFA…, declared that he refused to take any responsibility. He pointed to those who, in his opinion, are answerable for the disturbance shaking the world football … The main initiator of his fall is the former No 10 “Blue” (colour of French football jersey, explanation ours), Michel Platini. When asked about the reasons that could induced the Frenchman to dismiss him, Blatter answered: “Because he wanted to be the President of FIFA.” His ambitions are at the root of the Federation as the suspended President sees it (Rauzy, 2015).

The authors of the articles interpreted the material in their own understanding and chose their own stylistic and visual means. In general, the assessment and the point of view in which an event is presented depends on the identity of the author. The main task of a sport article is to provide a careful analysis of events and their assessment. For this purpose, the author selects the necessary language forms and eliminates stereotypes. Syntactic constructions are chosen to strengthen the dynamics of the sport and to transfer emotions and associations in the subconscious level of perception. As part of an institutionalised code of culture, the language used participates in forming the national and cultural parameters of the discourse.

The concept of sport media discourse is wider in relation to journalistic sport discourse, which is part of it. Malysheva distinguished media content as the main category for journalistic sport discourse together with other criteria. These criteria are as follows:

1. The person who addresses the subject, who performs a certain social role and has a defined status and participates in role relations with other actors in the discourse such as the readers, listeners, the audience and Internet users.

2. The genre and stylistic characteristics of the discourse that are reflected in the verbal and cognitive action of the texts.
The core of sport and journalistic discourse is sport discourse, a discursive space that makes room for categories such as communication conditions, communication purpose, the subjective and objective characteristics of communication, a set of functional texts, their genre and stylistic characteristics and a representative concept system.

Besides sport and journalistic discourse, sport media discourse can include athlete and trainer discourse, sport official discourse, fan discourse and politician discourse if their verbal and cognitive activity is connected with sport subjects and the discourse is carried out in the sphere of mass communication. In this regard, any of the listed forms would cross and intercross with other discourse such as political, ideological, art, every day and household, among others. The experience of describing the poetic creativity of fans at thematic Internet forums or linguistic parameters in the analysis of a ‘non-typical’ genre of sport discourse such as an ice show can serve as an example. Sport discourse can be considered a difficult formation and a discursive space that includes discursive varieties with different criteria, but it is characterised by a thematic and conceptual community.

In studying sport discourse it is necessary to distinguish its basic categories (Zilbert & Zilbert, 2016, pp. 45-55), emotional breadth and evaluative research in connection with the nature of sport action entertainment (Trubcheninova, 2015), target audience and genre revelation (Komleva, 2012, pp. 199-224). Participants of sport discourse represent three groups of language persona that are represented differently, depending on the communicative purposes. The participants of the first group structure their speech for achieving the sport result. It is easy to guess that this group includes athletes and their immediate interactors such as coaches, referees and administrators. The second group includes fans and the audience. Their function is to provide emotional assessment and a response to actions, and they reflect the readiness of direct participants of sport events. The participants of the third group are sport journalist and reporters who fix and describe a course of happening events to TV viewers, readers, radio listeners and the Internet community. Researchers have noted that mass media discourse needs the presence of TV, radio and print media journalists to fulfil its functions. In this case communication bears a unilateral character, with no feedback. The intermediary between this or that sport is a representative of mass media.

The mode of real time i.e. happening here and now is peculiar to sport. Sportsmen are active participants, and so are the audience and speech participants. The communicative status of ‘observer’ is allocated to the audience. In many types of sport, for instance, swimming, artistic and modern rhythmic gymnastics and figure skating, communicative interaction happens without the use of words during a competition. As a rule, referees’ brief remarks, which explain their gestures, serve as communication in other sports. Lack
of structural completeness does not allow admitting referees remarks as texts. They are closer to signals, whose main purpose is to cease, renew or continue sport actions. The remarks of the audience are a peculiar type of feedback. However, they are also poorly structured. The specified characteristics refer this type of speech communication to the sphere of colloquial discourse.

Many texts of written discourses show a precedent for sport discourse. In this regard, the special vocabulary and phraseology of sport discourse are the only sign that they belong to the sphere of sport. Oral and written sport discourse combine sports and mass information features owing to the fact that they are broadcast on channels of mass media. Sport differs in the increased emotionality and implements educational and recreational functions for effective discharge. It is noted that fans whose main activity is gathering sport information fully feel the influence of information and the educational, analytical and propaganda functions of sport discourse, while more indifferent fans are limited to the information and recreational functions. This functional diversity fully defines the peculiarity of the structure of sport discourse as a genre of discourse.

Subjects of sport discourse such as sportswriters, sportsmen, their coaches, sport doctors, organisers and leading sport organisations deserve individual attention. The subject of gender was introduced in sport discourse in the last century. Seeking to inflame the reader and to make the message interesting, many journalists use unusual images and even create new words, very often resorting to the traditionally developed stereotypes. Authors do not use fresh language devices and expressions frequently. Men and women are equal in sport. Nevertheless, the gender stereotype is constantly presented in the print media, as, despite the advances of modern times that women will be women and men will be men. Today, there are more and more successful sportswomen. For this reason one of the perspective branches of modern linguistics is the study of gender vocabulary in sport discourse. This research is especially topical if it is based on the written types of discourse, as it is possible to retrace development and change in the meaning of this or that lexical item, stereotype, change or preservation.

It is necessary to realise the specified processes, and consequently, the new techniques of overcoming difficulties in cross-cultural and interethnic communication as required in a multicultural world community. Team sport is of special interest. English sport discourse construction is different from Russian sport discourse in several aspects due to the influence of worldviews and sociocultural communication in the world of sport.

It is well-known that the majority of popular sport such as basketball, volleyball, rugby, tennis and baseball originated in English-speaking countries, which undertook an onomasiological activity of designating this new sphere of public life. They also took charge of developing the rules of the different sport and went on to
develop and improve sport. Tactics and technique were changed, while the basic concepts and regulations were detailed. These processes became reflected in the terminology used, which was constantly refined and extended. Therefore, the English terms used in sport are different from those used in the Russian language.

Researching the process of term formation in English sport discourse shows development of terms not due to promoting the qualificative indicators of their modification. A large number of specific terms are used. In English an attributive model represents a convenient and efficient means of forming specific terms and this is the most widespread method. The word-formation features of English with its unlimited opportunity for conversion are one of the main reasons for attributive attraction.

The majority of the attributive model combinations are characterised by transparency of the internal form. The meaning of a polylexeme term is usually derived from the meanings of its components. In this regard, deriving meaning in Russian causes difficulties. On the one hand, it is connected with more detailed English term-fixing, which is absent in Russian. On the other hand, it is connected with the different systems of both languages. The Russian language is practically deprived of conversion; this includes combinations rendered in Russian, which tend to be a long description: ‘high post play’ is ‘an action of the centre player who is in the front area of the free-throw lane’; ‘full-court play’ is ‘a combination of players arranged in the full court’; ‘driving play’ is ‘a basketball pass’. As we see from the examples, no rendering of the term in Russian is possible without a descriptive translation, even when used calquing. Thus, the majority of terms in sport discourse require a broad and descriptive translation in reference to this context.

The specific and differential peculiarities of sport discourse terminology must be appraised subjectively as the naming unit of the same denotation is based on different features depending on the individual perception of the person or persons taking part in the communication. This inevitably leads to the subjective element in introducing terms, synonyms, nonce words and terms originating from the author. Expressive and appraisal connotations in deriving the meaning of many terms is explained by the fact that this is traditionally considered nontypical for terminology and presents a certain difficulty in adequate rendering of the semantic meaning of terms in the target language. It should be noted that the connotative component of some terms consists of expressive and pragmatic semes, which are mostly rendered through expressive and figurative language, not through rational, logical language. It is not always easy to find an exactly corresponding term in the target language (Yarmolinets & Shcheglova, 2014). However, it is necessary to prevent ethnic conflicts triggered by use language and cultural differences.

The term ‘backdoor play’ is a typical case of combination theory that contradicts
the object-logical meanings of the compound words. As all actions are direct in sport, no action made somewhere behind the scenes, outside of the public eye, is possible. So, the combination ‘backdoor’ and ‘play’ is logically impossible. However, there are tactical combinations that may be performed behind an opponent in a game that he does not notice. These combinations are performed seemingly in secret, therefore, they are denoted as ‘backdoor’. Thus, ‘backdoor’ receives an emotional connotation and gains a figurative meaning in this context and means ‘a combination of tactical actions behind an opponent’.

Graphic illustrations help a lot. They play on technique and tactics. The combination of context and graphic illustration is used to find the equivalent term in Russian. For instance, the compound term ‘low post’ means ‘a tall player’, who usually acts as a central player in a game. The graphic scheme of the tactical combination identifies the position of the player as being ‘low’, that is, he is in the ‘the low lane of a free throw’. Thus, ‘low post’ is ‘a central player in the low zone of a free-throw lane’.

Contextual verbal term combinations, which are infrequently used and are limited to one idiolect and are used for specific actions in a game using a ball represent difficulties in translation. A verbal component has no sport terminological meaning and often differs in its figurativeness. Connotative meaning refers to the denotative meanings of the neutral verbs used in specific combinations within a term system. It causes associations that are peculiar to words, used in terminology that produces individual emotional and evocative nuance to the collocation: ‘to cough up the ball’, ‘to fling the ball’, ‘to pass a ball carelessly’; ‘to blanket the ball’; ‘a ball is passed over a net using a blanket’ etc. These terms were used in the Olympic Games to express the same specific action using a ball, but they are distinct in expressive connotation. This diversity is not available in the Russian language.

The above-mentioned peculiarities of sport discourse terminology have led to a phenomenon called ‘buzzwords’ (vogue words) by linguists in sport communication. It arose from the need for quick and efficient communication between players and coaches during training and matches. To be sure, there are borrowed English terms in Russian sport discourse. Foreign coaches and players in top Russian teams are the source of these borrowed terms. The following examples were received from the informant-players of the team ‘Locomotive-Kuban’, who play in the top division of the Russian Basketball Men’s Championship, the European Cup and the Euroleague. When the coach yelled “Deny!” all the players surround the players of the opposition team to prevent them from getting the ball. “Defence!” is the signal for all the players to defend. “Alley-oop!” is the signal for a short player to pass the ball to a tall player, who then jumps, catches the ball and puts it in the hoop. “Drop-step!” is the call for attack. “This is my house,” is what the fullback says when he blocks a playmaker.

During training sessions, buzzwords
used by the team include: ‘hand-off’, which means ‘to pass a ball from hand to hand’, ‘cross-over’, which is a trick movement, when a player seems to move to the left only to suddenly veer sharply to the right to trick his opponents and ‘buzzer’, which is when a ball is shot through the basket, ending the game.

‘Team language’ is used by players during a game so that their intentions will not be understood by their opponents. This can be seen in English football discourse. The Glossary of Soccer Terms, 2016, gives the following example: ‘Robert’ could mean: “Hey, someone is in an offside position; hold the ball, while players check their position.” There is no player named Robert; the name is simply a code that the team have selected for one specific use so as not to alert the referee or their opponents.

‘Corner serve’ means ‘to run to the corner with the ball’ and ‘in the mixer’ means ‘to kick the ball into the net’.

This discussion serves to show that the cognitive-pragmatic approach in ethnocultural studies is necessary for successful communication in sport. Having generalised the empirical data of translation practice in sport, it remains for researchers to work out new models of sport discourse based on European languages.

CONCLUSION

All the given parameters are equally important as sport mega-discourse is in rapid evolution and presents a definite part of any linguistic view of the world. The modern electronic-information society raises the question of choosing a language for communication and thought. The entropy processes involve transfer, intervention (language sphere capture) and attraction (language damage) phenomena, which are involved in the poly-linguism process that influences the processes of acquiring new languages and conserving native languages. Modern society, entrenched in digital techniques and communication, remains split in social, ideological and national relationships. Understanding intercultural sport interaction remains topical and problematic although sport plays a significant role in modern society.

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