**Al-Farabi Kazakh National University**

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**Ways and Principles of Linguistic Studies**

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For the first time brought together all the main methods and techniques of language studies and methodological problems of linguistic knowledge from comparative historical to modern methods of discourse studies and text. The paper also deals with methods of applied research related to the method of learning a second (foreign) language. In conclusion, we discuss the challenges the organization of the scientific and technical design of the rules of the scientific works of the manuscript.

The book is intended for young scientists, philologists (undergraduates, graduate students, trainees and researchers) and all those interested in the methodological problems of linguistic knowledge. Thankful to the help of Al-Farabi Kazakh National University master students the book was translated.

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**Foreword**

History of linguistics as a science is not only a chronological sequence of theories of language, but also the history of linguistic knowledge. Language Problems interested mankind since time immemorial. The philosophers of ancient India and the ancient world left a great number of talented, thoughtful sayings, observations and assessments about the nature of language and its relationship with human thought. However, the history of linguistic science begins in our time, in the early 19th c., when not only the object of study was determined (to some extent, it was clear to ancient people), but also the ways of learning of the given object. This was achieved by the works of the founders of comparative historical linguistics - F. Bopp, J. Grimm and R. Rask. Since that time, it took about 200 years and it is clear that during this period not only our knowledge about the object of linguistics – language – changed, but also about the methods of its cognition. There is a bilateral dependence between linguistic theory and methodology (the science of the methods the object of investigation): theory stimulates the development of cognition methods and new methods stimulate the development of theory. This is the dialectics of any science.

Now we know more about the language than our predecessors, but we also know that without the achievements of previous generations of linguists our current knowledge about the object of knowledge would be impossible. It can be said about the methodology of linguistics, and the rejection of the achievements of previous years cannot be considered appropriate.

Specific methods and linguistic research techniques have a great variety, their variability associated with their understanding of nature of the subject, purpose, and the selected aspect of investigation: synchronic and diachronic; oral and written language; lexis and phraseology: literary language and dialects; psychological and sociological problems of speech activity and etc. This work is not intended to provide an exhaustive description of all the methods and techniques of linguistic analysis, but only those that are captured and occupied a special place in the history of scientific research of linguists, representatives of different schools and courses. It will be discussed about the most developed methods of analysis positively proven in practice, which can be used to solve similar problems. Each new method of knowledge does not negate the previous one, they are all connected in a single whole by the principle of subsidiarity, i.e. each of them offers a new vision of the different sides of the object from the point of view of different approaches and learning purposes.

Currently, it has accumulated a truly infinite number of publications on issues of linguistic cognition, but the number of works of generalizing, systemic nature, covering all the main areas and topics of modern linguistics is still very small. (See Serebrennikov [eds.] (1973). Koduhov (1974); Stepanov (1975); Beezin Golovin (1979)). Methodology of the science traditionally does not take its rightful place in the system of higher philological education. Students are introduced, mainly with the result of linguistic knowledge, without paying attention to the methods and techniques for obtaining this result. This leads to the wrong understanding by students of the essence of process of knowledge (the unity of theory and method), as well as some distorted view about the scientist’s work at all.

In connection with the above, this work pursues one single goal: to give into the hands of a beginner linguist necessary the knowledge about the methodology of modern science of language in its formation and development in a simple and easily accessible form. In spite of the fact that the work to some extent, applies for the relative completeness of the coverage problems of this issue, it is devoid of the debatability element, which is common with of the process of cognition. Thereby, the number of references to the professional literature will be limited. All specific examples taken from the literature used, which is not specifically bespoken.

The work, of course, is not without drawbacks, and all suggestions and criticisms connected with this circumstance, will be received with gratitude.

Feci, quod potui, faciat meliora potentes

**Introduction**

***The role of science in modern society***

The knowledge of the world around for solution of urgent, practical problems - one of the most important properties of a person from the day of his occurrence. In the modern world, science takes priority position in all major areas of social life. Nowadays, a scientist - it's not a genius - loner, driven primarily by his interest and curiosity, but a mass profession. The number of the scientists doubles approximately every 15 years.

Developed countries spend to 3% of gross national product to the needs of research. Scientists have combined in large organizations (academies of Sciences, research institutes, universities, etc.). The achievements of modern science catch the imagination. It is a progression the study of the microcosm (the study of the elementary parts of the physical and biological world), such as an atom, molecule, cell, etc., and the latest achievement - deciphering the genome of animals and human, and the possibility of their cloning. In the area of ​​knowledge of the macrocosm (the study of the earth and near-earth space) also recorded remarkable achievements: the structure of the solar system and the cosmos. Much attention is paid to the improvement of knowledge of the laws of receipt, keeping, processing and transmission of information.

All these achievements of science significantly changed people's lives and contribute to the improvement of means of transport (train, car, plane, helicopter, rocket); the development of means of communication (telephone, telegraph, radio, TV, Internet); optimizing the processes collection, processing and transmission of information (from the microprocessor to personal computers and super computers); the creation of new food products, new drugs and medical technologies (antibiotics, transplantation of organs of the human body, etc..). The successes of linguistics significantly stimulated the development of methods of teaching the native and non-native (foreign) language, as well as the creation of artificial languages ​​of the first order (Esperanto, Ido) and second-order languages ​​(BASIC, Pascal, etc.). In addition, increase in knowledge of the language helped to improve the theory and practice of conventional and machine translation.

Advances in sphere of scientific knowledge in the middle of sixties years of the 20th century, has stimulated the need to systematization of experience of scientific knowledge, as a result, there is a new science – scientology, the science of science, which includes the following main sections:

History of science: investigates the cognitive processes from contemplation and logical reasoning in the ancient world through the period of formation of natural sciences in the 17-18 centuries AD to the present state.

2) Classification of sciences: on the specifics of the object it is distinguished the natural, social and human sciences, and the target of knowledge - fundamental and applied sciences.

3) The interrelation and interaction of sciences in the process of their development. Here, the process of differentiation of Sciences stands out - the separation of holistic knowledge on parts: philosophy as the science of sciences, whereby physics, agrobiology, mathematics, and rhetoric, etc. and modern branches of knowledge (physics, chemistry, biology, mathematics, linguistics, etc...) studied, as well as the integration of science: the combining of two adjacent sciences into the integrated whole (biophysics, biochemistry, biolinguistics, etc.).

4) Methodology of Science – the study of the ways and means of scientific knowledge of the world and human society that excludes ideological and subjective factors (methodos ''method'' + logos "doctrine")... The fact that the purpose of science is objective and precise knowledge, independent of the will, wishes and feelings of the knowing subject or subjects of the group. Worldview as a system of a priori opinions and beliefs, pre-defining the relation to reality can significantly distort the real picture of the world. It is necessary to distinguish between general (Philosophical) and specific methodology.

General (philosophical) methodology is based on the knowledge of the universal laws of nature and society, is relevant (significant) for all the sciences, without exception;

• Specific science methodology is based on the knowledge about the features of the object of knowledge of this particular science. The qualitative features of objects determine their methods and techniques of research. It is clear that knowledge of the phenomena of macrocosm and microcosm is not possible using the same tools and techniques (cf. methods of physics and astronomy. Chemistry and mathematics, biology and linguistics, etc...).

It should be noted that the provisions of the general (philosophical) methodology because of its universal nature come in as part of the specific scientific methodology, but not vice versa: with the help of the provisions of the general methodology cannot be known qualitatively different objects and phenomena of the world, because in addition to the general properties, which are inherent in them, but that does not determine the quality of their specificity, it is necessary to identify such properties and relationships that distinguish them from the totality of objects. Taking into account these circumstances we will consider of the methodology of modern science about language in the course of further discussion.

*Chapter 1.* **Cognition as a type of human activity**

***1. What is an activity?***

Any organism has to demonstrate a definite activity in order to guarantee its existence and specie’s preservation. This organism’s activity is the basis of vital functions for the human as well, and it is realized in different types of their activity. An activity is a conscious, creative, purposeful interaction of a human with the surrounding world to satisfy their material and mental needs. Human activity is significantly different from animals’ activity. Animals interact with the world on the basis of the instinct only to satisfy their material needs (hunting, nest, lodge); they lack mental needs. They consume the life support products only in natural form. A human can convert natural products into the form which is convenient for consuming, into the so-called artifacts (Lat. arte “artificially” + factus “made”) for instance, food (bread, sausages, soup), clothes (a dress, a coat, a hat), a housing (house, furniture, a refrigerator, etc.).

The main peculiarities of a human in contradistinction to animals is *thinking* ability, the process of awareness of objective world in the form of concepts, judgments and conclusions, and the *language*, a special means of exchanging thoughts between people, which gives a creative character to all their actions. Human behaviour, as well as animal's one, changes under the influence of a certain situation, which is connected to the impact of stimuli on the mind directly at the moment. However, for animals this behaviour is mostly situational. At the same time a human through their intellect can create necessary situations on their own or actively counteract unwanted ones.

Thus, an animal in the process of its activity adapts to the nature, while a human cognates and transforms it on the basis of knowing essential characteristics and laws of the outward things. In the course of further exposition, we will always mean precisely human activity when we use the notion of "activity".

*2. The basiс types of human activity*

An activity is the process of human performance in their interaction with the outward things, which consists of separate actions, acts of behaviours. All the actions as the units of performance possess a universal structure:

S→I→O,

where *S* is the *subject*. That is a human, affecting an object or a phenomenon of the outer world; *I* means an *instrument*, a tool, a device to affect the objects and phenomena; *O* means the *object*, a thing or a phenomenon, to which the subject's activity is directed.

Depending on the aim of subject's actions and on qualitative specificity of the object, three main types of human activity are distinguished: transformative, cognitive and communicative. Let us observe some of their details.

1) Transformative activity is aimed at changing the animate and inanimate nature in the desired direction. Depending on the specificity of the object, three subtypes of the transformative activity are distinguished.

* ***Labour activity*** is aimed at transforming nature phenomena into the form which is convenient for the usage. The instruments of this activity have been changing in relation to humans' progress success. During its history, the humanity has lived through three scientific and technological revolutions (STR), which are connected mainly to the changing of labour tools: hunting and gathering were replaced by the epoch of husbandry and livestock with the use of elementary labour tools (a knife, a hammer, a sickle, a millstone and others). Then there came the epoch of technical revolution, connected with the creation of machine production and the use of complicated devices and tools. Now we are living through the period of informative revolution which is connected to the use of the newest means of collecting, storing, processing of the information (knowledge about the objects and phenomena of the surrounding world) in the form of complicated electronic computers and means of connection (Internet) for the development of the social production.
* ***Revolutionary and reformist activity***. Its aim is transforming forms of the social life into the most convenient ones for a human. Herewith both violent (revolution) and non-violent (reforms) methods can be used.
* ***Humanitarian activity*** is connected to the transformation of a human being in their physical and mental existence (compare to Lat. humanitas "human nature as the unity of physical and mental powers"). This is the area of the medicine, sports, pedagogy and methodology. All of them are connected to affecting a human with various means in order to improve their physical state (medicine, sports) or changing the behaviour models in spiritual area (pedagogy).

2) **Communicative activity** is connected to the exchange of thoughts between people in order to solve concrete tasks in the process of their interaction; it is an important factor of the social life organization and the personality sociologization. The means of communication is a language; however, if the laws of thoughts are universal, the laws of language (as well as the cultural ones) are idiocentric (Gr. idios "peculiar" + ethnos "nation"). Communicative activity therefore can be intraethnic and interethnic, and the language itself as the means of communication may be in oral, written and electronic form. The ability of communicative activity is inborn and the most important peculiarity of a human as well as the thought (homo sapiens "a reasonable man" and homo loquens ("a speaking man"). That is why communication organically includes all the types of activity in total.

3) **Cognitive activity** is aimed at receiving objective and precise knowledge on the essence of the objects and phenomena of the outward things and on the nature and social laws. Phenomena are the objects, features of which are accessible to the human's senses (a tree, water, sounds, speeches, etc.); essence is the main features of the objects, which are not given to us in direct observation; they are hidden and it is necessary to find them by purposeful cognition (structure and composition of plants, water, language); laws are the most essential connections of the objects and their natural interaction (laws of the nature, laws of the society, laws of the language). Cognition is regulated in two subtypes: practical knowledge and scientific knowledge.

* ***The level of practical knowledge*** is inherent to the human as the genus from the very beginning of its existence. This is the process of observation and life experience. By trial and error, the human sets the evaluative and orientation frames of their behavior and attitude to the nature and other people, within whom they may satisfy their material and mental needs. Thus, edibility and inedibility of natural products (mushrooms, berries, vegetables, fruit) are determined, as well as the importance of objects’ features (stones and metals) for creating labour tools. Besides, rational human behavior models in different situations are set and generalized. The results of this cognition are transmitted from generation to generation and are fixed in human memory in the form of proverbs (*for one that is missing there's no spoiling a wedding*), recommendations and recipes (ethnoscience, cookery, popular pedagogy, etc.). The level of practical knowledge should probably contain different types of beliefs and arts.
* ***The level of scientific knowledge***. The science appears in the depth of the practical knowledge on the definite stage of the social, economic and cultural development of the society. Its task is to receive objective and precise knowledge about the essence and the laws of the outer world. Objective knowledge are the data about the features of the objects and phenomena which do not depend on the will, partiality and desires of the researcher. Accuracy is usually linked with the use of mathematics in natural sciences. However, in social and humanitarian sciences, in which, because of the introduction of the experiment the methods of mathematical statistics are also used, the accuracy of the received results is determined by their *verifiability*. Introducing different researching procedures and experiment to linguistics provides a basis to refer it to exact sciences. In the course of the further exposition we will try to substantiate this point of view. The means of scientific knowledge in linguistics are special methods and techniques of the research which provide the search for truth in the way from concrete phenomena and facts of speech to the essence and laws of the language.

**3. The science and its relation to other social phenomena**

Science, as well as religion and art, composes the basis of the society's spiritual richness. All of them are connected with the aspiration to understand and explain the surrounding world of the human, make their life more comprehended and favourable for existence and offspring rearing. However, there are significant differences between them.

1) **Science and religion**. The science is directed to the search for truth, i.e. objective and precise knowledge about the objects and phenomena of the surrounding world; it is the result of social experience and is connected with the use of definite methods and techniques of the cognition. Even though the received knowledge has an objective character, their verity is relative. With the development of science one scientific doctrine is replaced with the others or is included into the new theory as a special case. Religion claims to know the absolute truth, which is laid in the Holy Scripture and is based on the belief without the use of special methods of proving, and this applies even in the cases which clearly contradict the laws of physics (walking on water, ascension to heaven and etc.). Credo quia absurdum, "I believe for the absurd", says the believer. What is impossible for the common people in common conditions is possible for the participants of the religious tradition. Here the knowledge of the world has a dogmatic character and does not change in the course of time, it is the inner state of the believer's soul, which determines their moral principles and behaviour norms in standard situations.

At the same time, science and religion complement each other. Many names of the scientists are known who believed in God. It is connected to two circumstances. First of all, there are still many mysterious phenomena in the world which cannot be explained by the science (the sense of the life, the end of the history, etc.); secondly, religion pays much attention to the inner, spiritual life of a human, it is the part of the people's culture. Logics, the "truth – lie" relation is the basis of the science. The basis of the religion is the ethics, relation of right and wrong behaviour, what a believer may or may not do.

2) **Science and art**. We remind you, that the science is objective and precise knowledge of the world, gathered in the way of using special tools (methods and techniques) of cognition. Art is the subjective knowledge of the world. Despite of the world unity, of the presence of one reality, the number of ways of its reflection may be endless, as the differences between people admit many individual points of view on the objects and phenomena in the real world. Here no special methods of cognition are used, which remove or significantly diminish the amount of subjectivity in the science. Compare different directions in the art (realism – romanticism; impressionism – expressionism, traditionalism – avant-garde, etc.). The central issue of the art is the issue of "beautiful – ugly" (aesthetics), at the same time, these notions are relative and subjective. The works of art are individual worldview; they do not complement nor deny each other. We can admire the works of ancient artists and sculptors as well as the modern ones. Who reflected the world better – Beethoven or Tchaikovsky? This can only be a matter of taste – different worlds, different authors. The theories of the ancient philosophers are now significantly outdated, our knowledge of the modern world cannot be compared to them.

Thus, the science develops after its own laws while art has its own ones; however, together they satisfy the spiritual needs of a human both in cognition of the surrounding world and in the attitude of different people to it. Science – religion – art represent the specific forms of the social consciousness, they will always be alongside and will complement each other.

*Chapter 2.* **The language as the object of the scientific knowledge**

The object of linguistics as the science is the language. Everyone knows that. However, this statement is not enough to receive a clear and accurate idea of the science's principles and structure. The Ancient Greeks understood the language as only the written form of expression of the thoughts and feelings of a human. They called the doctrine of the language the grammar (Gr. grammatike – "the science of the language's composition") from Gr. gramma "letter, written, note" and referred it to philosophy as the part of common knowledge about the outward things.

Comparative-historical linguistics even during the period of its blossoming (neogrammarians, the end of the 19th century) did not aspire to give a significant definition of the notion "language", though it paid attention not only to grammar in the modern sense itself (linguistics section about the highest level of the language system), but to studying of the laws of sound structure of the word. Only after the distinction of the notions "language" and "speech" by F. de Saussure (1857 – 1913) quite a clear scientific idea about the language as the systematic and structural formation was received, which substantially determined the character of the following linguistic research up to the present time. Though there are still a lot of controversial points around the notion "language", its structure, functions, potency, which is rather natural for a science, a science is not a monologue and not even a dialogue, but a polylogue, it is possible to reasonably claim that at the moment (the beginning of the 21st century) there is objective, practically approved knowledge about the language as the object of linguistics. Hereafter we will try to observe them in the most general way.

The science has a cumulative character (Lat. cumulatio "increasing, accumulation"), it selects the practically approved knowledge of the object, by thus increasing our knowledge of it. For a young scientist it is very important to know what is known about the language so far at the present moment in order to be able not only to clearly determine the goals and methods of cognition of their subject, but also to save the time and nervous energy, not to invent a bicycle, as it is said, and not to discover what is already familiar to the science.

At the present time our knowledge of language is somehow different from those of de Saussure, however, his main idea about the distinction of language and speech received a logical and philosophical proof on the basis of the universal features of all objects and phenomena in the world doctrine. We are speaking of so-called substantial and functional features of the objects, independent of their nature. Let us observe them more detailed.

* **Substantial features** (Lat. substantia "essence") are the innate features of the objects, organisms and phenomena, which are inherent for them by the nature. They are internal (immanent), have an absolute character and define the qualitative specificity of the objects, by that distinguishing them of all the totality of other objects. For instance, substantial features of a human are determined by their inner structure (body construction, brain organization, nervous system, blood supply system, metabolism, etc.), which they possess from the moment of birth, emergence.
* **Functional features** (Lat. functio " purpose, role, relation") characterize the outer, relative, acquired features of the objects, which are demonstrated in relation to other objects, namely are demonstrated, not appear, as they are potentially inherent in the inner structure of the objects. For instance, a human may be a teacher in relation to their students, or a driver in relation to the car, or a rector in relation to educational institution, etc.

By taking into account these features which are inherent to all the objects and phenomena, including the language, we can (after de Saussure) distinguish two main directions in the science about the language: internal linguistics, which studies substantial features of a language, and external linguistics, which studies functional language properties.

***1. The subject of internal lingusitics***

Internal linguistics studies the language as a systematic and structural formation on the basis of its substantial features. Let us firstly introduce this section of linguistics as a planar model, and then observe it in details.

**Table 1**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Plans  Levels | | Paradigmatics | Syntagmatics |
| Hierarchy | Grammar | Morphology | Syntax |
| Lexicology | Lexemics | Phraseology |
| Phonology | Phonematics | Phonotactics |

1) Lets us primarily observe *the language as the systematic formation* considering corresponding sections of the science about the language.

One should understand the system as the totality of interrelated units, the features of which are not equal to the sum of all the units' features. As a human being is not just a sum of their heart's, liver's, brain's, skeleton's, etc. features, but a being with peculiar common features (homo sapiens and homo loquent), and so is the language – it is not just a sum of all the features of phonemes, lexemes, grammemes, etc., but a specific tool of human communication.

The language system consists of three subsystems, which are named *levels*, there are three of them: phonological, lexical and grammatical levels. They are relatively closed parts of the language system, which are characterized by the special set of units and rules of their compatibility.

*Language units* are standardized elements of the language system, possessing different functions and meanings.

*A phoneme* is a unit of the lowest level, the minimal unit of the system (a kind of atom), which performs distinctive, differential function. Compare: cat ≠ rat ≠ mat etc., where the contradistinction с ≠ r ≠ m differentiates the meanings of cat "a pet animal", rat "a large mouse" and mat "a piece of material", all the following units of which /at/ coincide. The science that studies the subsystem of phonemes is called phonology.

*A lexeme* is a two-plan unit of the middle level performing a nominative function. Its expression plan composes a complex of phonemes, while the content plan correlates with the object of the thought (denotatum, referent), reflecting the fragments of the reality: objects, properties, processes. The branch of linguistics that studies lexemes as a two-plan essence (sign) is called lexicology.

*A grammeme* is the unit of the highest level, performing a connective, congruent function. These are different affixes, inflections, auxiliary words, prepositions, conjunctions, as well as the other means of linking lexemes, as, for instance, the word order (compare English pocket watch and Russian "карманные часы" and watch pocket "карман для часов"). The science about the properties and types of grammemes subsystem is called grammar.

2) Let us observe *the language as the structural formation.*

We understand the *structure* as the character of the relations between the units and levels of the language. Types of relations between the units of separate levels of the system are called *plans*: paradigmatic relations (paradigmatics) and syntagmatic relations (syntagmatics).

* ***Paradigmatics*** is the totality of associative relations between the units of each level separately, i.e. mental connection between the units of one level on the basis of their common, integrative features. On phonological level this is the relation between vowel and consonant phonemes and their types (front and back row vowels, etc.). On the lexical level they are the connections between the synonyms, antonyms, lexical and semantic groups, hyponymies and hypernymies, etc. Hyponymy is the totality of the units of the type significance (red, blue, yellow and others), included into the corresponding generic class of "colour denotation" (Gr. hypo "under, below" + onyma "name" and Gr. hyper "above, beyond" + onyma "name").

On grammatical level these are relations between grammemes, expressing categorical connections of the lexemes (case, number, gender, person, tense, aspect, etc.). These are also two-plan units (signs), but their referents are not objects, properties and processes, but connections and relations between the facts of reality.

* ***Syntagmatics*** characterizes the linear connections between the units of the given level, the rules of compatibility of the language units in speech chain. Combinations of phonemes are studied by phonotactics, combinations of the lexemes – by phraseology, combination of words in the sentences (sentence models) – syntax.

Besides the two types of the connection between the units of different levels, mentioned above, there is one more type of intrasystem connections – *hierarchical*, providing the connection of all three levels into the whole unity – the language system. It is connected with the location of the elements from the lowest to the highest level. Thus, the units of phonological level, gathering after the rules of phonotactics, compose the complex, which nominates the facts of reality and so turns into the unit of the middle level – the lexeme (T+A+B+L+E = table, "nomination of a piece of furniture"). The meanings of the lexemes, combining with each other, compose a phrase (writing-table), which receives the grammatical formalization with the help of grammemes and turns into a syntagm, and different syntagms are the components of the syntactic structure of the sentence, which is realized in speech.

Thus, the main substantial properties of the language are being systematic and structural, which is characterized by three types of system formative connections: paradigmatics, syntagmatics, hierarchy. All these factors provide the language functioning as the means of communication.

**2. The subject of external linguistics**

External linguistics studies the functional properties of the language. These features are observed in the system of "language and non-language objects" relations, which, however, are closely connected to a human, peculiarities of their biological structure and form of existence. External linguistics is a border discipline that appeared at the junction of two sciences: internal linguistics and humanity in the widest sense (human – society – culture). Depending on the character of relations between language as a systematic and structural formation with different sections of human science the following sections of the external lingusitics are distinguished in modern linguistics:

1) Biolinguistics (neurolinguistics) studies the relation "language – human biology", i.e. relation of the language system to the brain substratum of the language behaviour. Language reflection of the reality, including speech recognition, is realized from the periphery of the nervous system, from visual, auditory and tactile analyzations of the brain towards the centre (Broca zone), while the speech generation flows in the opposite direction: from the centre to the periphery. Very important data for biolinguistics are received in the result of studying different forms of speech pathologies (aphasia), connected to the violation of phonological, lexical and grammatical norms, with nonobservance of the rules of paradigmatics and syntagmatics of the language (the so-called telegraphese style of the aphasic speech). These deviations appear because of the brain damage as the result of a wound or haemorrage. Biolinguistic data is extremely important for the study of bilingualism, when in the case of aphasia the ability to speak native language is lost, while the ability to speak foreign one stays and vice versa, or a mixed speech appears, including the elements and compatibility rules of both languages.

2) ***Cognitive Linguistics*** (lat. cognoscere “to learn, to know”) explores the relation of "language-thinking", i.e., how the processes and results of human cognitive activities are reflected in the language and speech, how relate universal mental category with idioethnic language categories: different types of notions, called concepts (in the form of diagrams, pictures, frames, and scripts), and the meaning of individual words or phrases; opinions and suggestions. There should be two basic processes: the emergence of "linguistic view of the world" of this ethnic group and its features, on the one hand, and mental processes in communicative speech production.

3) ***Psycholinguistics*** considers the relation of "language - man" as being endowed with a mind as a set of spiritual qualities (memory, will, desires, intentions, relationships, etc.) of human, reflecting the reality in the form of sensations, perceptions, ideas that defines uniqueness of his verbal behavior. Psycholinguistics - the science of speech activity of man, how he makes his intentions in the vibrations of the air or the system of graphic symbols and how he identifies these fluctuations and symbols with specific meanings. In other words, it studies the processes of speaking (synthesis) and understanding of the processes (analysis). Additionally, psycholinguistics investigates the processes of assimilation of native and non-native (foreign) language by children and adults.

4) ***Sociolinguistics*** - the science of the relation of "language - society". Society is not homogeneous (gr. homogenes «uniform in composition"), it consists of various age, social, professional, political groups, each of which uses its own language for the purpose of intra-group and inter-group communication. In each society, according to its socio-economic structure of languages ​​may have different number of functions: from a minimum (home language) to the maximum (the international language of communication). Writing functional typology of the languages ​​of the world (according to the number of functions carried out by them) - the most important task of sociolinguistics. In addition, sociolinguistics studies the language situation and language policy of the state, the role of bilingualism and multilingualism in society, the attitude to the languages ​​of national minorities, the problem of the state and official languages, etc.

5) ***Ethnolinguistics*** (gr. ethnos "people"), or the ratio of cultural linguistics "language - culture". By culture are meant peculiarities of material and spiritual life of definite nation. Here the focus is on the so-called national-specific vocabulary and phraseology, which reflects the way of life in connection with the satisfaction of material (food, clothing, housing, farming) and spiritual (religion, art, customs, traditions, patterns of behavior in standard situations) needs. Important role acquires the study reflect the specific realities (things, objects) in the language of everyday life and the so-called background knowledge. Country studies studied in departments of foreign languages ​​should be seen as an applied ethnolinguistics in connection with the practical study of the language and culture of the nation.

6) ***Paralinguistics*** (gr. para 'beside, under, out ") has as its object of the study the relationship “language - non-verbal signs of communication”. This is mainly facial expressions, gestures, body movements in their interaction with verbal means of definite nation’s language . It also includes and phonatory (sound) means: the pace and tone of speech, peculiarities of so-called accent (dialect, foreign language, social), and graphical features of handwriting. All of these tools not only add some information expressed by verbal means, but also contain information about the author of the speech. All this is very important for pragmalinguistics, as will be discussed below.

7) ***Areal linguistics*** (lat. area "space") examines the relation of "language - area", or rather territorial variants of a particular communication system. First of all the dialects as territorial variants of the national language, arising in connection with the migration of large groups of people with specific language to other territories (f.e. variants of the English language in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand) or in connection with the formation of the territory of the related tribes of separate, independent states (f.e. variants of the German language in Austria, Switzerland and Luxembourg). In addition, areal linguistics studies the so-called linguistic associations, connected with the emergence of the common structural features in the various languages ​​within a single geographic area. For example, the Balkan linguistic union, which includes such different systems of languages ​​like Romanian, Bulgarian, Turkish and Albanian.

The above sections of the external linguistics seem disconnected at first sight, and are not connected with each other by systemic relationships. In reality it is not. All branches of foreign linguistics can be divided into two interrelated groups. The first group includes those sections that reflect the relationship of language to the person as a member of the genus with all the signs of the substantive. They are biolinguistics, cognitive linguistics and psycholinguistics. They all explain the functioning of the language through the categories of thinking and the human psyche. We call this group as *mental linguistics* or *mentalinguistics* (lat. mentis «mind, thinking, brain»). The second group consists of the sections of external linguistics associated with the union of people into specific groups based on common economic, political and cultural interests. They are sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, paralinguistics and areal linguistics, which can be grouped under a common name - extralinguistics (lat. extra «out, beyond").

Thus, we see that the area of extralinguistics is not chaos (as assumed de Saussure), as well as some system unification, and not of units and the rules of language, but native speakers, between whom also can be observed certain relationships and dependencies.

***3. Subject of pragmalinguistics***

In addition to the above-mentioned universal (the substantial and functional) properties of language as a means of communication of people (human language), it can be seen even from one position - in terms of man's relationship to language (people for the language).

The subject of pragmalinguistics (gr. pragma “effect, relationship”) is the study of the interaction of substantial and functional properties of the language in real communication, i.e. study exchange of ideas between particular individuals in a given situation, using verbal and non-verbal means of communication, how people use these tools to communicate their intentions to the reader or interlocutor in specific circumstances. The main forms of communication are discourse and text. These features will be discussed in the opposition on the basis of the teachings of cognitive science about the difference between the process and the result of the process.

**Table 2**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **DISCOURSE** | **TEXT** |
| 1. The process of speech production in audio form.  2. Spontaneous speech in a particular situation based on verbal and nonverbal means.  3. Personal contact between the communicants.  4. Generation and speech perception in terms of space and time unity.  5. Two speech authors at a constant change of roles "the speaker - hearer" (two-way discourse). | 1. The result of the process of speech production in graphical form.  2. Indirect (treated) speech.  3. The lack of personal contact between the communicants.  4. Generation and speech perception in different spatial and temporal conditions.  5. One author – owner of speech at incomplete communicative situation. |

*Notes:*

1. Speaking is primary in many respects in terms of phylogeny (gr. phile "tribe, clan" + genesis "origin"), the historical development of the human race, while the letter came later, at a certain stage of human development, and in terms of ontogenesis (gr. ontos "things» + genesis), individual human development from germination to the end of life. The child first acquires spoken language, and then written, and can do without the latter, from the point of view of language acquisition techniques, speaking assimilated from the environment in a natural way, without the help of teachers and textbooks. Written speech requires special methods of teaching.

2. Text - is purposefully elaborated speech, where the category of "situation" is immaterial.

3. Any form of discourse (monologue and dialogic speech) mandatory in personal visual and auditory contact between participants of communication, text communication of information such direct contact is not provided.

4. Exchange of thoughts with the discourse occurs in a unity of time and place, writing and comprehension (reading) the text may be a large gap in time and space. We can read the texts created a century ago, in another country, of course, if we acquire that language.

5. Two authors (with bilateral discourse) are constantly changing roles and may pursue different or general communication objectives (conversation, discussion - debate, discussion). The text has one author (even co-authors of a text even act as one person!) owner of written speech. In this case, alienation of the text from the owner and turning it into a commodity is possible.

At the base of these two types of speech are two different experiences: the experience of the spoken language (discourse) basically dialogic, experience of written – monologic. Although both forms of speech (discourse and text) have much in common, as relate to the same language as the system-structural form, there are also significant differences between them. These differences cannot be reduced to a single feature (oral form - written form or process - the result of the process), essential for determining the discourse and the text should take into account the set of features.

Pragmalinguistics - a relatively young field of linguistics, the occurrence of which refers to the 70-th of last century. All previous linguistics (historical and structural) was linguistics of sentences, because as the main source of knowledge of the language, its units and the rules of functioning in speech were considered isolated sentences taken out of context. Communicative-pragmatic linguistics explores the interaction of units and the rules of the language in the transmission of information-sharing between specific individuals, taking into account all the factors of real communication: the intentions and character of the communicants, their relation to each other, on the one hand, and the form and content of speech, on the other, particular life situations, the use of verbal and non-verbal means, etc. This problem requires going beyond the separate sentences and consideration of complex formations in the form of text and discourse, reflecting the whole fragments, "pieces" of reality. Accordingly, two main aspects of pragmalinguistics are should be highlighted: the theory of discourse (discourseology) and the theory of the text (textology). In them we should look for an explanation of general and individual; process and outcome; the substantial and functional. In other words, pragmalinguistics - the science of human communicative activity.

***4. The structure of modern linguistics***

It was found that the entire body of knowledge of the language (macrolinguistics <gr. macros «big, expansive"), taking into account the characteristics of the facility consists of three interrelated sections, internal linguistics, external linguistics and pragmalinguistics.

*Internal linguistics* studies the substantial properties of language as a system-structural formation. *External linguistics* studies the functional properties of the language in its relation to the individual and society. *Pragmalinguistics* studies the interaction of substantial and functional properties of the language in real situations of communication in oral and written form. All of these relationships can be represented in the following scheme of dependencies:

**Table 3**

**Macrolinguistics**

Internal Linguistics External Linguistics

Phonology Lexicology Grammar Mental Linguistics Extralinguistics

Phonosemantics Lexemics Morphology Biolinguistics Sociolinguistics

Phonotactics Phraseology Syntax Cognitive Linguistics Ethnolinguistics

Psycholinguistics

Paralinguistics

Areal Linguistics

Pragmalinguistics

Theory of Discourse Theory of the Text

The table above shows that pragmalinguistics as the science of communicative activity is not something isolated from the other sections of linguistics, and includes, synthesizes (gr. Synthesis «connection») almost all aspects of the language as a real-world phenomenon. This is a unit of language, and the rules of linear compatibility and the use of language as a tool in the speech activity of the individual and society, and finally, the functioning of language as part of the standardized forms of communication in oral and written form (discourse and text).

In this regard, it is appropriate to conduct some parallels between macrolinguistics and semiotic theory of signs (gr. semiotike “signs studies"), which also includes three sections: *semiotics* that studies the relationship of signs to the objects of reality, denotation or referents (f.e. meaning of nominative units as linguistic signs); *syntax* that studies the relationship between signs (f.e. linear rules of compatibility of nominative units in the chain of speech), and *pragmatics*, explores the relationship of the subject of speech to sign (f.e. attitude of the speaker or the writer to the nature and content of speech units in the form of text and discourse).

However, it should be emphasized that language as a communication tool is the perfect form and can realize itself in materialized form in human speech. The fact that the reception and transmission of information in communication is only possible through the material in the form of channels of audio and graphic symbols. This situation requires a deeper consideration of the relationship "language - speech - communication".

***5. Language, speech, communication***

Comparative and Historical Linguistics did not distinguish language as an instrument of communication, on the one hand, and the use of this tool in the process of human communication, on the other. Delineation of these concepts for the first time was given by the Swiss scholar Ferdinand de Saussure in his famous triad:

Langue – parole: langage

The first two words of the French language have exact matches in other languages: f.e. fr. langue - parole; rus. язык - речь; eng. language - speech; ger. Sprache - Rede; sp. lengua - habla, etc. For fr. langage such correspondence in other languages ​​was not found, which created some difficulties in translating the work of de Saussure in other languages. For example, in Russian linguistics tradition fr. langage. had different interpretations:

1) The system of expressive language possibilities (the language in terms of its potency).

2) Speech activity, i.e., human use of language as a communication tool.

3) The combination of what has been said and written in this language (the language material).

We believe that all of these three interpretations fr. Langage can be united in one concept - *communication* (lat. communicare “do common, connect, communicate”). This use of the potentialities of language as a communication tool in oral and written form (discourse and text as an empirical material of communication). This interpretation is confirmed by the abstracts of lectures F. de Saussure, which were not included in his "Course of General Linguistics" (for details, see Slusarev 156, 12 et seq.). There we find the following scheme:

**Table 4**

Langue

Langage (language) *Means* for language ability

(communication) Parole manifestation; passive and social

(speech)

*Using* human language in accordance with his

                individual thought; active and personal

The relationship "language - speech" is the key to understanding the essence of the language as a systematic structural formation through given phenomenon for us to survey - speech. Their attitude is usually determined by the opposition and the listing of major properties.

Based on our current knowledge about the knowledge of the objective world, there are three main aspects, three approaches to define the specificity of relations "language - speech": a gnoseological aspect (gr. gnosis "knowledge"); ontological aspect (gr. ontos «things») and the pragmatic aspect (gr. pragma “effect relationship”) (see Slusarev 156, 17-28).

**Table 5**

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Language** | **Speech** |
| **1.Gnoseological aspect** | |
| 1. Essence (not given in direct observation).  2. The ideal (mental and spiritual). | 1. Phenomena (given in observing and perception by sense organs).  2. Material (a chain of sounds or letters). |
| **2.Ontological aspect** | |
| 1. Static (passive, product).  2. The invariant (abstract scheme as the basis for all forms of implementation, including the units and their operation rules).  3. Simultaneous organization system (levels, plans, hierarchy). | 1. Dynamics (active, activity).  2. Variant (concrete forms of implementation of the language scheme and the rules of its units: the phoneme sound, token-word, the model of the sentence - a real sentence.  3. Linear Organization (sequence of linguistic elements in time). |
| **3.Pragmatic aspect** | |
| 1. Code (signaling system used for transmission, storage and processing of various information).  2. Social (fixing in units and the rules of collective experience in the form of "linguistic view of the world").  3. Tool (means of human interaction with the environment in the process of joint activity). | 1. Message (transfer of knowledge about the phenomena of the world and relationship to them using code signals).  2. Individual (individual, situational due to the implementation of language potentials for individual intentions, individual and functional styles of speech).  3. The use of tools by the individual as a natural tool of transmission and understanding of the information in the sound or graphic form. |

Thus, it is clear that language - is a complex mental, systemic-structural formation, the result of human cognitive activity, invariant scheme, does not change its signs, depending on the types of material realization. *Speech* (speech activity) - a way of existence and functioning of language in human society. This is the use of language as a means of communication not by concrete, but the ideal man. This is the process of speaking and understanding in general as the implementation capacity of every member of the human race. Communication (communicative and pragmatic activity) - as it is, but it is already a particular person in a particular situation using verbal and nonverbal signals, the process of mental purposeful speech production, immersed in life. The main forms of communicative speech - discourse and text.

From this it also follows that the cause of all the changes in the language to be found in the speech and related phenomena (individual, society, culture, communication), and that all the properties of the language (the substantial, functional, pragmatic) can only be detected through study of speech, voice and communicative human activity.

***Chapter III.*** **Methodology of the science of language**

Any scientific discipline consists of two main sections: information about the qualitative specifics of the object of knowledge and information on the principles and methods of its research. Above we have briefly considered the basic properties of language as a linguistic object. Next we will talk about the second main section of the science of language - linguistic methodology. Methodology - is part of the science. In this area are distinguished general (philosophical) and private (specific scientific) methodology.

*The philosophical methodology* is a set of common rules of man's knowledge of the world, based on knowledge of the most general laws of animate and inanimate nature. Everything is connected in the world, everything is in motion and change, which is determined by the unity and struggle of opposites, etc. This is determined by a specific approach, the dialectic of knowledge, which requires knowledge of the world in its entirety, development and contradictions. More specifically, the basic ideas related to the purely scientific knowledge, first formulated Rene Descartes (1596-1650) in his "Tractite on Method" (see Descartes 191,7):

1) In the study of the essence of phenomena is necessary to give the most comprehensive listing of individual facts in generalization nothing was lost.

2) For a better solution to the problem every difficult question should be reduced to elements and systemize received data.

3) When systemizing data it should be started with a simpler and more accessible, and then move on to more difficult.

4) Nothing can be considered as a true fact that has not received a clear and reliable evidence.

All the above provisions apply to the language as an object of reality. But if the philosophical methodology based on the general laws of knowledge, there are ideas of Descartes relate more to technical working with the facts, which, of course, is also important. In any case, the general methodology - it's just a set of *principles* of cognition (lat. Principium “fundamental principle of the basic rule of activity.”). Designed common approaches are important for any science, including linguistics (ct. historical – systemic; logical (comparison, analysis, synthesis) experimental; inductive - deductive approaches, etc.).

*Private (concrete-scientific) methodology* - a set of methods and ways of learning a particular subject area of ​​the objective world, starting with a common approach (principles) to how to work with concrete facts. This is the full three-part chain (principle - method - reception) in interaction and connection of its parts. Let us consider in more detail the links of the chain in relation to the knowledge of the language.

***1. Principles of Linguistic Studies***

This is application of general (philosophical) approaches to the knowledge of language as a phenomenon of the objective world, taking into account the specifics of the object and achievement of linguistic theory at this time (see chap. II).

The most important ones are the following:

(1) *synchronic* (gr. syn “together” + chronos “time”) - *diachronic* (гр. dia “through” + chronos) approaches related to the study of language as a system, existing at a given time, or study it in the process of historical change ( systemic - historical principle).

(2) *intralinguistic - interlinguistic* approaches (gr. intra “inside” - inter “between”) are connected with the study of one individual language from the inside, without comparison to other languages ​​or to study the laws of human language at all, which already requires many comparisons (at least two) communication systems.

(3) *microlinguistic and macrolinguistic* approach. In the first case study is taken as a basis for the sentence, which lists all of the basic elements of the system, its unity and compatibility rules. In the second - the interaction of speech production and communication factors in their mutual connection conditionality.

(4) *semasiological* ( gr. semasia “designation”) - *onomasiological* (gr. onoma “name”) approaches (principle of induction-deduction). In the first case - it is the path of knowledge from form to meaning (ct. rus. заяц (form) has the following meanings ​​in the speech: animal with long ears, fearful (трусливый, как заяц), the secretive (безбилетный пассажир), in the second – from the meaning to the form (ct. "furry animal of the breed rodents with long ears" in the Russian language is the name of the заяц, is derived from the sign of "jumping"; in German Hase (eng. Hase) from Germ. haso "gray"; in the French Lievre (< lat. Livor “leaden color”); in Kazakh қoян < қoю "hitting, banging" (legs). Onomasiological approach involves feature selection problem for the name (motivation), and the name (nomination).

(5) *Logical - experimental approaches*. In the first case we are talking about the observation of speech phenomena and analyze them according to the laws of logic (analysis, synthesis, comparison), the second - on language study and related phenomena with the help of special means of knowledge (tests, questionnaires, instruments).

Chosen approach (principle) of research determines the choice of method.

***2. Methods of linguistics***

*Method* - a general intellectual (mental) plan for achieving the scientific objectives, which coordinated set of operations research in the study of linguistic phenomena. Any plan implies a certain phasing, the process leading up to the goal. In other words, the method - a combination of successive stages of the research, based on the general principles of cognition. As between the object and the method there is one-way communication (peculiarities of object determines the methods of investigation, and not vice versa), then the sequel will be considered the way of language learning by taking into account the peculiarities of its properties: the substantial (internal linguistics), functional (external linguistics), pragmatic (pragmalinguistics).

***3. Methods of studying language***

Reception - specific action of researcher to study the materials at the level of the specific facts of speech and writing. This is a way to achieve the ultimate goal in the stage of practical stages of cognition. Hence, the connection with the receiving method.

Thus, between the parts of the linguistic methodology (principle - method - reception) there is a link: the method stems from the knowledge of general scientific principles and is being implemented in conjunction practical methods of work on the level of facts.

Next will be discussed: methods and techniques of internal linguistics in synchronic and diachronic view at intra- and interlinguistic approach; methods and techniques of external linguistics on basis of experimental approach; methods and techniques of pragmalinguistics with taking into account the complex macrolinguistic approach.

***4. Actual problems of linguistic methodology***

Linguistics as a science of language must learn its object with all of its properties and quality specifics. To obtain adequate knowledge of the language, it is necessary to investigate as a whole, has a complex structure, taking into account all the various relations to other phenomena of the world, on the one hand, as well as the relationship of man to language. No sign language can not be considered more important than other characteristics. However, at each stage of development of linguistics at the heart of these problems are usually placed language learning, which are more relevant in relation to the result of linguistic research and the accumulated knowledge of the language at this stage of development of science. For example, during the birth of linguistics (the first quarter of XIX century). Before the beginning of the XX century. the focus was historical phenomena. After the work of Ferdinand de Saussure (1916) have become more relevant synchronous study of living languages, which led to the emergence of new research procedures involving informants - carriers of certain languages. Currently, we came to the forefront pragmalingustic problems. This has created new challenges and to linguistic methodology. In the most general terms they are as follows:

1) Finding ways to better *distinction* of the subject of internal linguistics (the substantial properties of language); external linguistics (speech activity of the ideal man) and pragmalinguistics (individual speech in oral (discourse) and written (text) form).

2) Priority of *anthropocentric* approach (gr. antropos “people”) is connected with the study of models of speech patterns of individual under different conditions, taking into account the peculiarities of the language person.

3) The pursuit of *objectivity and accuracy* of the research procedures, which are associated with: sound and lighting equipment, experiments (tests, questionnaires), as well as other methods of science (logic, mathematical statistics, etc.).

4) Research ethnolinguistics issues and inter-ethnic communication in different spheres of social life (economics, politics, culture).

**Chapter IV. Methods and techniques of internal linguistics in diachronic and synchronic**

The first scientific method of linguistic research was the so-called comparative-historical method. Its founders were F. Bopp, R. Rusk, J. Grimm (the beginning of XIX century.). The results of knowledge in this case, however, as in many others, find their expression in different types of descriptions of the historical state of the language, which can be of varying completeness (description of the individual isolated units of language, the description of the individual levels or categories) that characterizes the so-called atomic, no systematic approach. The thus-obtained evidence could subsequently be generalized (c.t. theoretical grammar) or to be used for training purposes (regulatory, grammar school), mostly ancient languages.

It has already been pointed out that the methods of cognition is closely related to the theory and the goals that poses a researcher belonging to a particular scientific field. Therefore, consider the methods and knowledge of techniques without these problems is simply impossible, and therefore will address specific ways to study the language will always be preceded, firstly, a brief description of learning goals and objectives and, secondly, the definition of the basic concepts of the relevant linguistic theory.

Due to the accumulated knowledge in the field of historical linguistics is now depending on the purpose of knowledge distinguished *method of external reconstruction* (diachronic, interlinguistic approach) and *method of internal reconstruction* (diachronic, intralinguistic approach).

***1. Method of external reconstruction***

1) *The content and objectives:*

1. Establishment of the source (proto-language) of all related languages ​​and dialects of the group or family by successive comparison of phonological, lexical and morphological phenomena in these languages;

2. The study of the laws of divergence (lat. divergens “diverging in different directions.”) And the emergence of written language recorded on the epistemological language base;

3. Creation of genetic classification of languages.

*2) Definition of basic concepts.*

* **Parent language** (tongue-base) - redeveloped abstract model of language, thought of as the source of all related languages ​​constituting in the aggregate one family.
* **Language family** - all the related languages ​​and dialects (living and dead), arising from a single proto-language.
* **Language group** - a set of closely related languages ​​and dialects within the same language family. For example, the Indo-European language family includes Germanic, Romanic, Slavic, Baltic, Persian, Indian and other groups.
* **Archetype (protoform)** - theoretically established the initial form of proto-language (phoneme, morpheme, word). Regarded as a basis for further change. The literature indicated by typographical sign an asterisk (asterisk <gr. Aster “star”), which is placed before protoform. C.t. sp. \* Dhol -: gr. tholos “recess”, goth. dal, eng. dale, ger. tal, rus. дол, etc.
* **Genetic identity** - a regular correspondence of phonemes, morphemes, words in related languages, rising to a common archetype, but do not coincide completely at the time of writing fixation. So gr. \th\, Goth. \d\, ger. \r\ genetically identical not go back to \* \dh\.
* **Etymon** (gr. etymon “source, the primary”) - primary meaning of the words of the genetic identity.

Ct. \* Nebh – “fog, cloudiness”: gr. nefos “cloudiness”, lat. nebul «mist cloud", da. Nebul “fog”, rus. небо "extraterrestrial space" - where the etymon of the words is "fog, cloudiness".

The science of the original meanings of words and morphemes called *etymology*. Knowing etymon of genetically identical words opens the way to the knowledge of the laws of the names of objects of reality, which is very important for onomasiological research. Therefore, we introduce two more terms.

* **Motive** (motivation) - a sign of an object or phenomenon, formed the basis of names of the linguistic sign (morpheme, word).

Ct. \* men “thinking” > germ. \* man “man”, goth. \*manen “man”, eng. man “man”, i.e. female person. The motive for all these items served as the ability of a person «homo sapiens» to thinking.

* **Nomination** - name and fixation a certain linguistic form of knowledge about objects, attributes and processes of the objective world (denotation, referents) on the basis of their motivational signs. We distinguish *primary nomination* when the motive for the name is one of the signs of the real denotation, ct. nomination on the basis of form - brier; sound - the cuckoo; color - Rose, etc. (now very rare (ct. Ping Pong).), and a *secondary nomination*, where as a motivating sign serves not the properties of subject, but the meaning of the root (preformative) basis (morpheme). Ct. name of the meaning "tailor" in different languages: rus. портной < порт "denim"> порты "trousers"; ukr. Кравецъ кроiти "cut, shape"; ger. Schneider < schneiden “cut, cut”; fr. couturier < couture “sew”; eng. Tailor < tailcoat “suit with long tails behind” < tail “tail”; kaz. Тігінші < тігу "sew", etc.

Last terms appeared in our time due to studying the problems of word formation and phrase formation, but the essence of the phenomena is referred to them in close connection with the historical principle of cognition (etymology) and related methods.

3) *receiving an external reconstruction* are reduced to drawing up the so-called equation of lexical words from related languages, based primarily on the external similarity (their meanings ​​are in the process essentially disperse in history). They are usually taken from the word basic word stock: kinship terms, color terms, names of animals and plants, natural phenomena (weather, seasons), etc. Thus, archetypes at all levels (phonemes, token, grammems) are established. As an example, consider a fragment of a set of kinship terms in the Indo-European languages: mother - father.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Sanskrit** | **Ancient Greek** | **Latin** | **Old Slavic** | **Gothic** | **Old Saxon** | **Old German** |
| ‘māter | mēter | māter | МАТЕРЬ | mōder | mōdar | muoter |
| pi’tar | patēr | pater | ОТЪЦЪ | atta | fadar | vater |

So we got two rows of genetically identical words, the presence of which all or most languages ​​gives reason to believe their presence in the Indo-European language-basis: and ie. \* mater “mother” - pater “father”. The table shows that the last archetype is not preserved in Old Slavonic (отъцъ "father") and Gothic (atta "father"), due to innovation in Slavic languages ​​from praslav. \* оть "father" and borrowing from Turkic atta "father" in Gothic (in Hun Language).

Because of this (and similar) equations can be reconstructed units of proto-language phonological system:

1. vowels: \* /ā, a, s/, and long /ā/ preserved in Sanskrit and Latin, in Greek it passed in /ē/, in Slavic languages ​​has decreased and become short /a/, in the Germanic languages ​​it corresponds /ō/ Gothic in Old Saxon, which is then turned into a diphthong /uo/ in Old German. The reduced /s/ (the so-called "swa indoevrikum") designated in writing by means of the letter <i> before the stressed syllables (pi'tar) and passed into other languages ​​in a short /a/;
2. consonants: \* /m, t, p, r/, of which /m/ preserved in all Indo-European languages, ie. /t/ has become in Old German /d/ - the so-called Werner's law, and in Old German /t/ - on the second interrupted consonants; for the same reason ie. /p/ turned to in German /f/, etc. Increasing the number of lexical equations allows to set the full composition of the phonological level of language units - the basics. Although the picture thus obtained is hypothetical, it reflects a certain reality, as complies with the requirements of objectivity and accuracy.

In the same way it can be mounted morphological structure of the word proto-language and grammatical features of the paradigms (a collection of different grammatical forms of the same word), as well as the specifics of a gram.

Consider this as an example of present time form ie. \* bher “take anything and carry.”

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | **Indo-European** | **Latin** | **Gothic** | **Old High German** | **Old Slavic** |
| 1 | \*bher-ō | fer-o | bair-a | bir-n | ber-ō |
| 2 | \*bher-e-si | fer-i-s | bair-i-s | bir-i-s | ber-e-ši |
| 3 | \*bher-e-ti | Fer-i-t | bair-i-ъ | bir-i-t | ber-e-tъ |
| 4 | \*bher-o-mos | fer-i-mus | bair-a-m | ber-a-mēs | ber-e-mъ |
| 5 | \*bher-e-te | fer-i-tis | bair-i-ъ | ber-e-t | ber-e-te |
| 6 | \*bher-o-nti | fer-u-nt | bair-a-nd | ber-a-nt | ber-ō-tъ |

*Note:* Word forms 1-3 characterize single form; 5-6 word forms – plural form in three persons, respectively.

Thus established wordforms chains allow us to conclude that the verbal word form in the Indo-European proto-language was composed of three elements: the root of the carrier of lexical meaning of the word + *connection* (thematic) *vowel* indicator morphological classes of verbs (thematic verbs) + *endings* (inflections) - grammatical categories of indicators verb (person, form, time, mode). Different genetic variants of the phonemes in the root, in a thematic basis (ie. \* e/o.) and endings observed in various languages ​​find their explanation in the laws of phonetic (vowel’s interchange, consonant interruptions; simplification of unstressed syllables, which are the usual endings, etc .), related to the laws of the collapse of the original language and the generality of the emergence of new languages.

At the semantic level, the purpose of external (comparative) reconstruction is to establish a baseline meaning (etymon) of the archetype observation of life of this meaning in ​​related (living and dead) languages. It is quite difficult, because eventually it is broken not only the material unity of the archetype, but semantic connection between genetically identical tokens.

Ct. germ. sāl “cut off from life”

germ. Selig

Eng. Silly

Here we see a change not only in terms of expression, but also in terms of content, the latter associated with changes in motivational features underlying the nomination, “cut off from life” shall be construed in German as "blessed» (selig), and in English as “stupid” (silly).

Thus, we see that using the method of reconstruction with foreign diachronic (historical) approach can be reconstructed prastation of language is not recorded in written sources, and then trace the divergent processes that led to the emergence of modern related languages. It is an outstanding achievement of linguistic thought has not lost its importance now.

**2. The method of internal reconstruction**

1) *The content and purpose*

This is the second kind of comparative-historical method. The main research procedure is also a comparison, but no longer relevant phenomena of related languages ​​(intralinguistic approach), and a comparison of the same phenomena of language at different stages of historical change (interlinguistic approach). In this connection, put forward new objectives:

1. Opening of the laws of historical development of specific language on the basis of written sources;

2. Establishment of residual forms and anomalies surrounding features of the language in the preliterate period, or the identification of new forms that have arisen as a result of language contact (borrowing);

3. An explanation of the current state of the language system as a result of certain historical changes and the establishment of the time and the reasons for these changes.

*2) Definition of basic concepts*

* **Periodization** (period < gr. periodos «gyre") - the establishment of periods during which the relative stability is preserved phenomena of the language system. Language in its change knows no jumps, this is a lengthy process that can be investigated (as well as any historical process), but selecting it periods of relative stability. Comparing between these periods, it is possible to identify the main patterns of the whole process of changing the language. In Indo-European languages ​​usually distinguish three periods (old - middle - new).
* **Combinatorial phonetic changes.** They are connected with the influence on each other sounds in the speech stream. This is a different type of assimilations (lat. Assimilation “assimilation”), aimed at leveling the ways of articulation of neighboring sounds, mostly within a word.

Ct. germ. einbar > eimber > eimer [æmer] «bucket», where old high german /n/> Old Slavic /m/ influenced subsequent labial /b/, which was then completely assimilated in /m/. Ct. kaz. балалар//інілер (vowel harmony).

* Spontaneous phonetic changes - the regular alternation of vowels (eg ablaut) or consonants (eg. 1st in Germanic languages ​​and 2nd outage of consonants in German.).

Ct. old high german bintan - bant- buntum - gibuntan;

Modern german binden - band - gebunden;

Rus. бей – бой – бить (аблаут).

* **Divergent evolution/ convergence**

*Divergence* (Latin divergere «consumption») - splitting of a single whole on two different elements in the process of change.

Ct. ohg. kraft - krefti> mg. Kraft-Kräfte, where as a result of the so-called umlaut /a/ was split into two independent phoneme /u/ and /e/.

*Convergence* - two phonemes merge into one.

Ct. o.s. min, m.g. mein, where /i/ transformed into a diphthong /æ/ (diphthongization of old long vowels).

o.s.. stein> o.g. Stein, where the old diphthong /ei/ as a result of expansion and turned to /ae/. In this way:

O.s. /ī/

Modern German /ae/

O.s. /ei/

*3. Methods of internal reconstruction*

(1) *method of retrospection* (lat. Retro “back” + spectare “watch”) is associated with the reversal of the current state to determine the nature and timing of the changes. Thus, the establishment of a timeframe, historical changes, for example, so-called second (high German) failure consonants, words come from the modern German language and set their correspondence by the most ancient monuments of writing:

1) Etzel < Atilla. The name of the leader of the Huns of Attila became a German history in the form of Etzel, where there is a transition /t/> /ts/. The Huns came to Germany at the end of IV-th century, and Attila died in 453. This suggests that interruption /t/ > /ts/ occurred somewhere in the second half of the V century.

2) Pfaffe <papa (pfaffe “priest”). This borrowing a word from gr. papa, but the West Germans had no direct contact with the Greek Church, they could get it from the Goths (East Germans), who converted to Christianity from the Greeks to the end of the IV-th century. Contact Western with Eastern Germans were particularly active in the V century, during the so-called "Great Migratio". In the word Pfaffe < Goth. \* Papa we have seen two kinds of alternation: /p/ in the beginning of a word given /pf/, and in the middle of a word / f /.

3) Idorih > \* Idorik. This is the name of the German warrior spear, discovered during excavations in Austria that archaeologists refer to the beginning of the V century. It consists of a ido (name of Germanic goddess) and rih "lord, chief" (found in other proper names: Heinrich, Dietrich Friedrich, etc.)., ct. Lat. rex “ruler, the king.” For the first time there is a shift /k > h/. Thus, the main types are set for a second interlace interrupted consonants and his time: the end of the V and the beginning of the VII centuries, when the first texts in German, where all explosive /p, f, k/ found already in a broken form.

**3. Advantages and disadvantages of comparative historical study**

Comparative and Historical Linguistics laid the foundation for the modern science of language. Instead of opinions, guesses and interpretations regarding the different linguistic phenomena appeared coherent theory of historical knowledge of the living and dead languages, which has not lost its relevance to the present. New written sources along with new knowledge on the substantial and functional properties of language as a system-structural education allow new issues to solve the traditional diachronic linguistics (reconstruction of proto-language, the laws of linguistic change, the relationship of language to the form of a special unit of society, and others.).

However, there are some rather serious drawbacks.

1. Study of historical linguistic process has *atomic* character, it allows you to track the behavior of individual units and the rules of the language in time, but makes it difficult to get a stricter system of knowledge of the language of previous, especially preliterate, eras.
2. Reconstruction of conditions and laws of language changes is possible only for closed subsystems with assessable inventory units (phonology, morphology). There is only partial reconstruction for open subsystems (vocabulary, phraseology and syntax).
3. The exaggeration of the historical approach, the consideration of it as the only way to learn the language, lack of interest in synchrony, in spite of the increased interest in the study of colloquial foreign languages and dialects, which was outlined at the end of the XIX century – it began to slow down the knowledge of language. Scientists of a new generation of linguists post-Saussure era have found a solution of this situation.

*Chapter 5.* **Methods and techniques of internal linguistics to synchrony**

Appeal to the synchrony occurred not only in the light of the growing signs of crisis in historical linguistics, but also with the appearance of Saussure's ideas about language and speech, and paradigmatic syntagmatic of synchrony and diachrony, and so on, the practical need to learn the unwritten languages (languages of American Indians) as well. A new trend in linguistics has been called structural because it focuses on the study of the structure of language through the study of relations intra-line structure of tne sentence. This required the development of an equally rigorous methods of language descriptions in synchrony, as methods of external and internal renovation of historical linguistics were. This work led to the discovery of new objective methods of language learning, which structural linguistics attached great importance to.

So-called ideographic nomogrammic methods of simultaneous analysis have been developed based on old approaches (intralinguistic and interlinguistic approach).

**Ideographic** (idios - "special, specific", grapho - "write") is aimed at studying the properties of an individual single language in synchrony.

**Nomogrammic** methods (rp. nomos - "law", grapho - "write") is associated with the identification of overall, universal languages in the world that requires to move beyond one language.

The results of linguistic research are reflected in the descriptions of the different types of synchronous state of the language or languages that served as the basis for the names of all branches of the descriptive linguistics.

1. **Ideographic techniques of synchrony**

The essence of these methods is to analyze a plurality of predetermined sentences to study the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations within the language system. The proposals are taken from the written or spoken speech. In the latter case it is possible to attract informants.

**1.1. Analysis of directly-components**

(Abbreviated: analysis of DC)

1) *The content and purpose*. This is formalized descriptive method, based on the sequence of the double (dichotomous) partitioning (dicha – into two parts" + tome - "division, the section") offers on directly-components until further indivisible components (Abbreviated: IC). These elementary units are phonemes (in terms of expression) and morpheme (in terms of content).

*2) Determination of the basic concept.*

* + - **Construction** - any group of linearly arranged elements filed a division into smaller parts. It can be a sentence, phrase, or a derivative of a composite word
    - **Directly components** (English immediate constituents.). Elements of statements, which are included in the design as the constituents.
  + **End components** (English ultimate constituents) are not further divided unit directly to components (phonemes, morphemes).
    - **Allophones** - version of speech phonemes manifestation (English allophone.).
* **Allomorphs** - version of a particular manifestation of the morpheme in the speech.

*3) Methods for immediate constituents analysis*

The basic techniques of the method is the selection of sentences for immediate constituents analysis and building the dependency tree by consecutive double articulation and establish hierarchical relationships between elements. Let us consider the following sentence:

From under the bottom spurted | the cold water

From under the bottom spruted the cold water

From under the bottom spruted the cold water

From under the bottom sprut ed the cold water

As a result of the double division 14 morphemes (minimal semantic units of language) were obtained. We can classify them as follows:

*(1) Free and related morphemes:* **free** morphemes can be used in speech independently: *под, низ, холод, вод* (4). **Related** morphemes are used in speech only in direct connection with other morphemes: *не, у, Он, л, а. стру, я, н, ой, ы* (10).

*(2) Lexical and grammatical morphemes:* **lexical** (root and affixal): *ис, под, низ, би, стру, холод, н, вод* (8). **Grammar**: *y, л, а, я, ой, ы* (6).

*(3) Establishing allomorphs -* identifying semantically identical morphemes that differ in terms of expression.

These phenomena can only be explained historically based on the action of phonetic laws.

*(4) The establishment of the final components* in terms of the expression: this is achieved by means of word equations by placing chains of minimum (root) morpheme. Compare: под - вод - год - род - ход ...; под - пот - пол ...; под - пуд - пад ...

According to data elements of morpheme chains set of consonants (*п, в, г, р, к; д, т, л* / and the vowel /*о, у, а...*/ phonemes, which are then undergo classification. In the same way, you can determine the phonemes according allophone speech with the help of informants, if the researcher does not speak that language as his mother tongue.

Thus, analysis of DC can be applied to both oral (unwritten) language and the written well-studied modern languages. Based on the method of DC analysis M.D. Stepanova established 4 models of words in German, 5 types of grammatical morphemes and 14 types of lexical morphemes, also a group of authors (see. Zuyev, etc.) has created a "Dictionary of word-forming elements of the German language" that contains 770 lexical entries, including the derivation of all parts of the speeches of the modern German language. Very promising seem to us similar studies in the field of Turkic languages, where the derivatives of speech and grammatical forms are formed by joining morphemes, clearly preserving its borders.

Due to the method of the DC the "atomic structure" of the language features can be set of its construction material (phoneme, morpheme, word). However, it contains some shortcomings that emerged in the course of research practice.

(1) Neglecting the semantics of the whole sentence and its immediate constituents - syntagmas (phrases). The focus is on language units (paradigms), but semantic relationships are set aside between them (syntagmatics). It entails other negative consequences.

(2) The role of function words (articles, prepositions, conjunctions) remains unclear, as well as the word order and prosody as a special type of grammeme.

(3) Sentences with identical semantics, but with different syntactic structures, on the one hand, or ambiguity of the same statement, do not differ.

These shortcomings were to be designed by the so-called distributive method, which was developed as part of the same descriptive linguistics.

**1.2. Distributive method**

1) *The content and purposes:* distributive analysis is linked to the observation of the nature of semantic words and phrases within a sentence by artificial changes in their environment (distribution). It addresses to achieve the following objectives: 1. Study of the lexical and grammatical relations in all constructions (syntagmatics); 2. Determination of the structure meaning of individual words and word classes based on their environment; 3. The establishment of quantitative (valence) features of classes of words and their combinations.

2) *Determination of the basic concepts.*

* **Distribution** – the set of lexical and grammatical environments, in which this element is found in the speech. Or else: Distribution - is the sum of all possible environments of this class of words.
* **Environment** - neighborhood of lexical classes regarding this element of the sentence.

For example, a boy drinks water, where ‘boy’ and ‘water’ form environment of verb ‘drink’.

* **Lexical class of words** - a set of words that express a general concept, which includes this particular word as a constituent (hyponym).
* **Semantic markers of words (**French marquer, ‘labeling, making a mark’) – conventional reductions denoting the semantic and grammatical class of words.

**Lexical markers**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Abst. | (absract) | To hold an event | Mod. | Modality | Read fast |
| Act. | (action) | Swimming is healthy | Temp. | Time | Last for 2 hours |
| Caus. | (cause) | To die of alcoholism | + Hum. | Human | The sick felt better |
| Dir. | (direction) | A letter to mother | - Hum. | Non-human | The rose blooms |
| Loc. | (location) | A house in the village | + Anim. | Animal | The dog barks |
| Liquid | (liquid) | To drink water | - Anim. | Object | The clock works |

**Grammatical markers**

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Art. | (article) | Der Vater | PSg | A noun in Gen. with a preposition  Wegen des Vaters |
| Pron. | (pronoun) | He sleeps | NS | (subordinate clause) |
| P | (preposition) | Rose on the snow | V | (verb) the boy drinks |
| Sn | (g, d, a) | A noun in the corresponding case |  |  |

See Helbig (97-99) for more details

* **Semantic field** - a set of mutually conditioned language tools for expressing of some common (integrating) meaning. The parts of field are often called micro-fields. "Lexical-semantic group" (LSG), "lexical and grammatical field" (LGF) are the synonymous of the concept "field".

Development of phraseology as a lexical syntagmatics demanded reduction of some old and introducing new terms, concepts of distributive analysis method. For example, the term distribution remained to describe the grammatical relations of words in a sentence (see. Grammatical markers), and for expression lexical relations established the term "compatibility". Let’s consider it.

* **Compatibility** - the ability of a word to be in the immediate vicinity of certain semantic classes of words without regard to their grammatical processing. This is qualitative limitation of lexical semantic relations within the structure of words.
* **Valency** - the number of semantic classes of words, which can combine the elements of construction. This is quantitative restriction of collocations.
* **Actants** - semantic elements of the verb environment, directly involved in the action of the verb. The number of actants defines lexical valence and denoted by the figure standing at the bottom right side of the symbol.

Example: *boy drinks water.*

Compatibility: Hum - V2 - Liquid

Distribution: Sn – V2- Sа

* **Types of valency.** According to the force of the verb there are three types of valency.

*(1) Required valency*, when none of actants can be omitted *(Студент посещает занятия*). (The student attends classes).

*(2) Optional valency* when one of the actants can be omitted (*Мальчик еcт (котлету)*). (The boy eats (meatball)).

*(3) Free valency* when no actants is directly connected to the verb and can easily be included/excluded from the sentence, it is usually different adverbial words and constructions).

(Nikolay has a dinner in the dinning room/ with friend/ at three o’clock).

*3) Methods of distributive analysis*

*(1) Substitution* - replacing actants to determine their semantic class. Ex.: *мальчик прислонил велосипед к стене. The boy leaned the bike against the wall.*

Actants at the right: велосипед, лопата, доска, жердь = предмет (- Anim)

Actants at the left: tмальчик, девушка, студент, солдат = человек (+ Hum) + к cтене, к забору, к дереву ... = направление(dir). As a result of this sorting of actants we obtain a model of compatibility of the verb "to lean" to the actants (3 of them). + Hum +V3 + -Anim + Dir.

It is possible to determine semantic structure of polysemantic word.

Comp. Женщина несет корзину. A woman carries a basket: +Hum+V2+-Anim;

Курица несет яйца. Hen carries eggs: +Anim+V2+-Anim.

Парень несет чепуху. Man carries a nonsense: +Hum+V2+Abstr.

Артист несет радость людям. Artist carries joy to people: +Hum=3 +Abstr. + Dir.

From this example we can see that the verb "carry" has four values, but in the speech can be realized only one of them, which is determined by the specifics of the environment (the problem of language and the actual value). In this case the following values:

Carry: 1. move objects;

2. lays (eggs);

3. speak;

4. bring.

*(2) Distributive deployment.* This method is associated with an increase in the number of structural components to determine its semantics.

Comp. серое пальто - темно-серое пальто (цветообозначение)

серый день - темносерый день (мрачный день)

серая личность - темносерая личность (ограниченная личность)

gray coat - dark gray coat (color term)

gray day - dark gray day (dark day)

gray personality - dark gray person (limited individual)

*(3) Distributive summarization* - a process for producing nuclear proposals (with minimal mandatory acants) to determine the types of valency. Ex.: *Друг посетил меня вчера в Алматы*.

* + \*Друг посетил.
  + Друг посетил меня (+ Hum+V2+Hum)
  + \*Друг посетил вчера.
  + \*Друг посетил в Алматы.

A friend visited me yesterday in Almaty.

 \* A friend visited.

 A friend visited me (+ Hum + V2 + Hum)

 \* A friend visited yesterday.

 \* A friend visited Almaty.

Nuclear sentence here is: *Друг посетил меня. A friend visited me.* We can now identify the semantic class of all components of the sentence by substantives.

*(4) Matrix method* connected with the preparation of the matrix - a rectangular table that reflects the types of relationships between the followed phenomena.

Consider this example of semantics impersonal verbs in the Russian language.

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| № | Actants  Impersonal verbs | , что | , чтобы | , как | infinitive |
| 1 | видно | + |  | + |  |
| 2 | известно | + |  | + |  |
| 3 | ясно | + |  | + |  |
| 4 | целесообразно |  | + |  | + |
| 5 | необходимо |  | + |  | + |
| 6 | удобно |  | + |  | + |
| 7 | можно |  |  |  | + |

Incongruous features of these verbs are defined in the text or by involving informants.

So the verb «видно» can be combined with a subordinate (Видно, что она опоздает. Видно, как он страдает), but not allowed «видно» as infinitive. By a procedure established three classes of impersonal verbs in the Russian language.

Class #1: ‘evidence’ (видно, известно, явно).

Class #2: ‘necessity’ (целесообразно, необходимо, удобно).

Class #3: ‘possibility’ (можно).

*(5) Acceptance of the semantic field.* This is not a particular method of investigation but a special means of compilation and systematic presentation of the results of the distributive analysis of the total linguistic means that express one common categorical value. System ratio inside the field is fixed in the form of horizontal and vertical sections (matrix) or in the form of concentric circles that symbolize Microfields. Consider this as an example of lexical and grammatical field in the English language.

Example: *время*

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Nucleus | Time, eternity, a millennium, a century, a year, a month, a week (Monday, Tuesday…), a day, an hour, a minute, a second | | |
| Microfields | Past | Present | Future |
| Grammatic way | Forms of the past tense | Forms of the present tense | Forms of the future tense |
| Lexic way | Adverbs: yesterday  Adjectives: yesterday, previous, last  Noun: prehistory, precursor, ancestor | today  today, modern, present  modernity, contemporanity | tomorrow  future, forthcoming, tomorrow  future, forthcoming, descendant |
| Constructions | before the lecture  last year  past time | during the lecture  this year  at the present time | after the lecture  next year  future time |

Field method is particularly useful in studies of so-called functional grammar, the aim of which is precisely to establish all the methods (grammatical and lexical) in expression of categorical values in a given language.

*(6) Component analysis methods*

Component analysis is a variant of the method of distribution. Its characteristics is to focus on the establishment of sem’s structures. Seme refers to the smallest unit of the limit values. It is set on the basis of matched potency of the word. It is usually reflected in the word definitions.

Comp. Soldier: 1. male person

2. The lowest rank in the army (common soldier)

3. Member of important events (the soldiers of the revolution).

It is best to use the technique of component analysis in the description of the closed sub-systems: kinship terms; color terms; name furniture; names of pets.

So in order to describe kinship terms in Russian language it is enough three pairs of sem, which reflect:

1) differences by gender (male - female): a-a’;

2) differences in the degree of relationship (direct - indirect relationship): b – b’;

3) differences in age (older - younger): c-c’.

Semantic structure of kinship terms in Russian language:

Father: a,b,c. Uncle: a, b’,c.

Mother: a’, b,c. Aunt: a’,b’,c.

Son: a,b,c’. Nephew: a, b’,c’.

Daughter: a’,b,c’. Niece: a’,b’,c’.

Thus meaning of word ‘father’ consists of three sem: a – male, b - direct relative, c – the eldest one.

*4) Advantages and disadvantages of the distributive method*

The distributive method has received considerable development and plays an important role in the methodology of linguistics. It focuses on the questions of semantics (the structure of values ​​of nominative units and their relationship within the sentence), taking into account the paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations. The distribution analysis is a type of directed experiment (observation of the behavior of language elements by their surroundings changes in speech), which increases the objectivity and accuracy of linguistic investigations. However, it does not solve all the problems and there are some drawbacks.

(1) The distributive method does not reveal the semantic features of the entire sentence as the basic units of speech.

(2) In this context the question of the semantic identity of different syntactic structures (active and passive voice, declarative and interrogative sentences, etc.), is not reveal the characteristics of ambiguous statements.

**1.3. Transformative method**

1) *The content and purposes:* the transformative method was formed within descriptive linguistics resulting from the necessity to address the shortcomings of already known procedures (for NA analysis, distributive method). It is also descriptive method, but in contrast to the previously discussed methods of analysis, it has constructive character and explains how you can get the totality of sentences of the language by using a set of rules. It is also a kind of directed experiment when the researcher is both an investigator and an experimental (if he owns that language at the level of the mother tongue), or can involve informants for this purpose. This implies following goals and objectives of the transformative method:

1. Study of the semantic features of any structures from compounds to sentences;

2. Learning the rules of derivative construction from nuclear explication of the speaker’s intuition of what is commonly called the “language sense”;

3. Explanation of the identity of the semantics of different syntactic structures or distinction of meanings of the same statements.

2) *Determination of the basic concept.*

* **Syntactic system** (grammatical syntagmatic) consists of two subsystems: the nuclear and derivative.
* **Nuclear syntactic subsystem** includes a set of nuclear sentences, consisting of essential and optional actants without definitions, infinitive and participial groups and without subordinate clauses. They are set out from real sentences of the text with distributive summarization
* **Derivative syntactic subsystem** is obtained by using a specific set of transformational rules.
* **Transformation** is obtaining (generation) of derivative constructions from nuclear ones by the so-called “internal” transfers, i.e. by using various linguistic means to express the same meaning.
* **Transform** - is each single structure produced from nuclear:

Compare: *The father has a house.*

The house belongs to the father.

The father is the owner of the house.

The father owns the house.

The house of the father.

The father's house.

The house that belongs to the father.

Here we have 6 transforms, and not all of them are predicative entities (sentences). Part of them is just grammatically constructed phrases (syntagmas), but they are all united by the common meaning - a proposition.

* **Proposition** is a common logic meaning that underlies one phrase or sentences, or a combination of several phrases or sentences. Meaning is the idea contained in the words and structures implemented in the speech.
* **Transformative rules** are regulations for the implementation of transformational actions, i.e. to obtain a transform from the source (nuclear) construction. It is necessary to distinguish between general and specific rules.

*General transformative rules:*

A) All transforms derived from a nuclear construction shall retain the original semantic relationships, i.e., to express the same meaning - proposition.

B) When a transform is obtained, there is the syntax structure change while maintaining the constituents of lexical semantics.

C) In some cases, it may be replaced with the word synonymous, addition or elimination of the structural elements that does not change its propositional structure.

Compare: The father has a house.

The house belongs to the father. (*belong = have*)

The father's house. (*has* is omitted).

*Private transformative rules* cover all of the major steps of transformative change.

1. **Permutation** is associated with a shift of the elements within a sentence.

*Миша был на уроке* ↔ *На уроке был Миша*, but permutation is not valid if it changes the meaning of the sentence.

Example: *Кошка съела мышку ≠ мышка съела кошку.*

1. **Substitution** - replacement of sentence elements by another (word, structure, grammatical means) while maintaining the common meaning.

Compare: *Я знаю, что он хочет − Я знаю его желание.*

*Рабочие строят дом 🡪 Дом строится рабочими.*

*(Look at substitution as a method of distributional analysis).*

1. **Adjunction** is an insertion of additional elements into the structure of the sentence.

*Example: Миша был на уроке. Был ли Миша на уроке?*

*English: You know this. Do you know this?*

In these examples, the sentences have changed according to the purpose of the statements and their semantic (propositional) basis remains unchanged (compare: Distributive method).

D. **Elimination** is an exclusion of an element from the sentence, while maintaining the foundations of propositional (compare: method of distributive analysis).

Eg.: *В тех краях всегда тепло → В тех краях тепло → Там тепло.*

*E)* ***N*ominalization** is the formation of nouns from different forms of verbs of nuclear structure.

Eg. *Собака лает → лай собаки.*

F) **Adjectivization** means using predicative adjectives or past participles formed from the personal forms of the verb as a noun definitions.

Ex.: Обед был вкусным → вкусный обед. (Compare with English: This book is interesting - the interesting book).

Мальчик читает книгу → читающий книгу мальчик.

G) **Complex transformation** occurs when several transformation rules are used to form one.

Compare with English: The father loves his son → The son is loved by his father.

Here: permutation (reordering of words); grammatical substitution (*is loved* instead of *loves*); adjunction (*by* is added).

*3) Methods of transformative analysis*

Transformative method can be used in studying semantics of all types of structures (composites, phrases, sentences).

Let us first consider the example of the analysis of composites, which are so commonly-used in the German language.

German lang.: krebsrot - rot wie ein Krebs (comparison);

zomrot - rot vor Zorn (cause);

hochrot - sehr rot (quality level);

braunrot - braun und rot (conjunction)

Thus, not only the specifics of semantic links between elements of color terms structures, but also the role of function words are established: *wie* “how”, and *vor* “because”; and *und* “and”.

Analysis of semantic relations in the level of phrases (in English):

1. the growling of the lions → the lions growl (subject relations)

2. the raising of the flowers → somebody raises the flowers (object relations)

3. the shooting of the hunters →

→ the hunters shoot (subject relations)

→ somebody shoots the hunters (object relations)

From these examples it is clear that the same syntax can make various types of transforms, which is an indication of their different semantic organization. The last example (3) can be at two kinds of transformation that speaks of the ambiguity of this phrase.

Compare: посещение друга → друг посетил кого-то → кто-то посетил друга.

With the help of transformations particular grammatical semantics can be studied.

*The functions of the genitive case in Russian language*

(the nature of semantic relations are shown in brackets)

стирка белья →кто-то стирает белье (object relations)

желать славы → кто-то желает славы (purpose)

выпить воды → выпить немного воды (limitation)

слезы радости → слезы из-за радости (cause)

крыша дома → крыша (часть) дома (partitive = part - whole)

книга сестры → сестрина книга (appliance)

дым костра → дым от костра (consequence)

упрек матери →мать упрекает кого-то (subject relations) → кто-то упрекает мать (object relations)

The latest example is ambiguous.

The more complicated the syntax, the greater the number of transforms it allows you to receive. Consider this at the level of sentences

*Мальчик читает книгу →*

*→ Мальчик, читающий книгу;*

*→ Мальчик, который читает книгу;*

*→ Книга, читаемая мальчиком;*

*→ Книга, которую читает мальчик.*

*→ Книга читается мальчиком;*

*→Чтение книги мальчиком;*

*→ Читающий книгу мальчик.*

Thus, the proposition “кто-то читает что-то” can be expressed in Russian language in eight transforms. Speech is the possible realization of language system, it is constructed of units and rules, but the number of options is limited with the language speakers practice. That's why the number of possible transformations is limited, it cannot be infinite.

Nevertheless, the inverse relation can be observed, when the structure of the speech is converted into nominative unit of the language through the transformational process. It is a way of replenishment vocabulary from its own resources, which, together with borrowing is the main way of formation of new nominative units. This is called synchronous reconstruction of the derivational process, which aims to obtain the derivatives of words in the form of the final product transformation of certain structures on certain specific transformative rules.

Compare: Человек рубит лес → рубящий лес человек → лесоруб, or

человек читает книгу → читающий книгу человек → читатель,

where -тель suffix means name of agent (nomina agentis).

As a result of these transformations sentence pattern turns into a paradigmatic language fact, which can be used to generate new patterns such as: старый лесоруб; пила лесоруба; лесоруб точит топор, etc.

*4) Advantages and disadvantages of the transformative method*

Transformative analysis were originated in structural linguistics in connection with the search for ways to solve language problems which were to supported by the DC analysis followers and distributive method. Its development has allowed to describe the semantic structure of any pattern up to the sentences. It has been clearly demonstrated that the same syntax can express different types of semantic relations (see. the functions of the genitive case in Russian language), or that different syntax may have the same meaning. Thus, it was an important step of the individual towards the knowledge of the linguistic intuition, even noted by the representatives of historical and comparative linguistics. As part of the transformational analysis of a new type of description was developed in contrast to the purely descriptive type - namely, the so-called constructive way in which you can get the whole set of sentences of that language. Transformational method greatly increased the accuracy of linguistic research. Usually it is associated with the use of mathematics, however, for studies of high-quality objects, namely that of a linguistics, accuracy is determined verifiability of the results. A certain level of accuracy is already achieved using the previous methods of language learning, starting with comparative-historical. Transformational analysis raised the level of accuracy to a new, higher level. Any researchers who use transformation rules, should have identical or very similar results, and the accuracy of the experiment can be enhanced by the attraction to his informants. However, this method has certain disadvantages.

(1) Analysis of the structures are carried out on the speech level of isolated sentences, as well the traditional linguistics did. However, the semantics of the ambiguous statement loses its ambiguity in the context of the speech, and the choice of a possible range of choices (transforms) of one and the same sentence can be defined within the discourse or text.

(2) A list of transformations of this structure cannot determine a priori, it is established by the researcher based on their ODA and which, however, can be verified by the informants-native speakers of a particular. This option is not always available.

(3) Adherence to the transformational rules (required to use the same lexical elements) may cause certain difficulties.

**2. Nomographic methods in synchrony**

Unlike ideographic methods discussed above, nomographic methods are related to the knowledge of qualitative specificity of human language in general. But language does not exist, there are many specific languages ​​and dialects, and identify the similarities that unite them, or, on the contrary, the traits that distinguish between them, only through comparison, which is a universal way of experience of the world and requires going beyond one language. This comparison reveals the universal phenomena, common to all languages ​​of the world (so called universals < Latin universalis ‘global’) or *frekventalii* (Latin frequens ‘frequent’), linguistic phenomena inherent in the majority of languages ​​of the world, or whole groups of languages. People showed their interest to this kind of events for a long time, trying to explain the entire language category after category of thought (concept, judgment, and reasoning) that are known to be universal. These categories can be, in principle, expressed in any language of the world, but through a variety of linguistic resources. This circumstance does not give grounds for underestimating the independent character of the actual language categories. Logicism and universalism ideas of Port-Royal scientists have created the prerequisites for the development of comparative linguistics in the field of diachronic (comparative-historical method), and in synchrony (nomographic method) based on interlinguistic approach.

*Goals and objectives of nomographic studies* go far beyond the universal grammar. Along with the search for a universal and idioethnic matters in the languages ​​of the world, put the problem with important theoretical and practical significance: the creation of a typology of individual linguistic phenomena, as well as all the languages of the world; development of scientific bases of linguistics; the creation script for unwritten languages or existing languages problems solution.

Nomographic methods in synchrony, which we are going to consider, have three varieties depending on the objectives of the study: a comparative, contrastive and typological methods.

**2.1. Comparative method**

*1) The content and purposes.* As mentioned above, the comparison is a universal method of cognition of the objective world, which is used in all sciences. But this does not mean that it alone can provide comprehensive knowledge about specific events. For a more complete knowledge it is necessary to combine a comparison with other methods of logical knowledge, such as analysis, synthesis, generalization. However, entering a pre-certain restrictions, the relatively high degree of accuracy (verifiability) of the results can be achieved by comparing.

Firstly, you can compare only homogeneous objects and phenomena. You cannot compare poods with the arshins. The language can be compared with units at various levels and their functioning rules in a speech in a variety of languages, lexical and grammatical categories, sentence patterns and ways of their realization in the speech, and so on.

Secondly, it is necessary to compare multilingual phenomena on essential (relevant) characteristics, and only then, to consider the accompanying (secondary) signs as needed. So, investigating phonological subsystems of language, it is important to establish the phonemic structure of language, ignoring the allophones.

*The main objectives of the comparative method* can be summarized as follows: identification of similarities (rather than differences!) between the natural world languages ​​at all levels (phonological, lexical, grammatical) and plans (paradigmatic, syntagmatic), in other words, the problem is posed to establish universal or near-universal properties of language or individual linguistic phenomena, and both related and unrelated languages can be​​ compared in the analysis of not only closed (phonology, grammar), but also open (vocabulary, phraseology) subsystems. This formulation of the problem requires a study of an increasing number of languages, of which there are several thousand (according to different sources from three to five thousand). Now on the globe, there are about 20 families of related languages, disintegrating for several more groups. In this case, it suffices to take 100 languages ​​(about 5 from each family) and the results are extended to the rest by the laws of incomplete induction. Clearly, the minimum number for comparing languages is two.

*2) Determination of basic concepts*

* **Correspondence** - any kind of cross-language compliance on the plan of expression (Kazakh нан «хлеб» - English nun «монашка»); or only in plans of the content (Kazakh нан «хлеб» - English bread «хлеб»), or both plans together (Kazakh лаборант – Russian лаборант).
* **Isomorphism** - equality or similarity (coincidence of the main features) of corresponding elements in compared languages. Depending on the nature of these elements following patterns are distinguished: isophone (similar sound), isogloss (similar words in content) (Russ. Жена=Eng. Wife = Dutch Weib); isotaxeme (similar syntax patterns) (Russ. Я читаю книгу = I read a book).

*3) Methods of comparative analysis.* They are empirical, descriptive, related to the preparation and lexical syntax equations. For example, based on the study of phonological systems of 100 languages ​​Polish scientist Tadeusz Milewski found a universal phonological system of the language world, consisting of three vowels / i, u, a / and seven consonants / m, n, l, s, p, t, k /.

In the same way you can set lexical universals too, consider for example a fragment of the system of kinship terms from 6 languages, belonging to three families (Austronesian, Indo-European, Finno-Ugrian and Turkic families).

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Malaysian | English | German | Russian | Hungarian | Kazakh |
| sudrā | brother | Bruder | брат | bátya | аға |
| öссes | іні |
| sister | Schwester | сестра | néne | әпке |
| húg | сіңілі |
| қарындас |

According to the rules of incomplete induction, even this limited material it can be argued that:

1. There are the names of the children of the same parents in all languages of the world (absolute lexical universal),

2. Majority languages of the world, these names are differentiated by sex of children (universals)

3. The names of the languages of some families of children vary by age (senior - junior) – near-universals.

4. In some languages there are differences by sex and age (Kazakh қарындас –the little sister towards brother) - near-universals.

So you can get a universal system of human language in general, based on purely linguistic data, and differentiating from a rational universal grammar.

The main disadvantage of comparative analysis is related to the fixing search of only similarities between the languages of the world, and the differences are ignored. At the same time to identify the specifics of individual languages, especially in dealing with applied tasks, it is very important to know the differences between them.

***2.2. Contrastive method***

1) *The content and purposes. It is* a kind of comparative knowledge, its main purpose is to study the specificity of the language phenomena of different languages. In other words, we are talking about establishing system idioms (dimorphism) of individual languages. It is used as a synchronic study of related and unrelated languages, and in most cases, the researchers limit their study on a single pair of languages ​​(native and non-native). This option of contrastive method, when two languages are compared, called **confrontative** analysis in the German linguistic tradition.

The main purpose of the contrastive method is the solution of applied problems related to the use of language: linguistic foundations: developing methods of teaching national (foreign) language, as well as conventional and machine translation theory.

2) Determination of the basic concepts

* **Diamorphism** - the difference between corresponding elements in two studied languages. Each individual element depending on where it is placed in the system and quality specifics is called diaphones (sonic differences), diaglosse (lexical distinction), diasemes (semiotic distinction), diataxemes distinction in structure of syntactical construction).
* **Dialingual relations** - relations between the systems of the two languages ​​that have differences.
* **Lacun gap** - lack of lexical correspondences (correspondences) in the studied languages.
* **Unique** - a word or phrase that is available in one of the compared languages, which corresponds to a different language gap. For example, Kazakh «шанырак», «чапан», «кобыз» are the unique of Kazakh languages, which corresponds to a gap in the Russian

*3) Methods of contrastive studies*

(1) Within the diaphony investigation, it is necessary to contrast (or, as it is often said, to impose) phonological systems to each other, using available descriptions, or to identify them with immediate constituents method. As the result of such procedure, for example, within comparing phonological systems of Russian and Kazakh languages, Kazakh-Russian diaphones are set:

in vowels subsystem: /*ө, ұ, ә, і, ы*/

in consonants subsystem: /*ң, қ, ғ, һ*/

This bilingual relations are not reversive, i.e. do not possess the meaning of reverse acting. Russian-Kazakh diaphones would be consonants /v, f, ts, tš, x/.

(2) Within the study of diglossia /diasemics/ it is necessary to take corresponding lexemes of the two languages on the base of cooccurence of their basic meanings and to identify with the help of dictionaries their semantic structure and to compare them with the help of matrix.

For example, Russian *пить* – Kazakh *ішу*

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Sememe  Lexeme | To absorb liquid | To tope | To eat liquid food | To eat solid food |
|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| Russian *пить* | + | + | - | - |
| Kazakh *ішу* | + | + | + | + |
| English *drink* | + | + | + | - |
| German *getränk* | + | + | + | - |

In the first two cases the units of meaning (sememes) correspond, they are the base foe comparison:

1. Он пьет воду →Ол су ішеді.

2. Ом много пьет → Ол көп ішеді.

In the last two ones the meanings diverse:

3. Он ест суп → Ол сорпа ішеді.

4. Он ест жирную пищу → Ол майлы тамақ ішеді.

Thereby, Russian *пить* and Kazakh *ішу* are Kazakh-Russian diglosses.

(3) Kazakh-Russian diataxia (syntactic differences of corresponding structures) is studied by comparing corresponding syntagms or sentences. Compare, for example:

1 2 3 4 . 1 4 3 2

Мне надо идти в библиотеку → Маған кітапханаға бару керек.

1 2 3 4 . 1 4 3 2

Ты пойдешь сегодня в магазин? → Сен дүкенге бүгін барасың ба?

On the base of this comparison it is possible to draw a number of conclusions: first of all, about the specifics of the word order in Kazakh language sentences in relation to Russian – here the tendency of the predicate location at the end of the construction in Kazakh language is clearly seen; secondly, when composing an interrogative sentence in Kazakh language special particle *ба* is used; thirdly, spatial relations (an indication of the direction of movement) are usually expressed in Russian language with the help of different prepositions, while in Kazakh language the same relations are expressed with a spacial case form (directing case) – *ға/ге*.

(4) *Achievements and limitations of contrastive method.*

With the help of contrastive analysis it is possible to give the whole description of the idioethnic characteristics of one language system in relation to the other language, at that of both related and non-related one and on all levels.

It is especially important when contrasting two languages – native and non-native (foreign) for solving applied problems. However, the absence of attention to the identical (similar) phenomena of different languages weakens the diagnostic power of this method, as systematic approach to language requires considering both similarities and differences, in other words it requires holistic approach of the investigated or, in case of bilingualism – interacting languages. The limitations of contrastive (and also comparative) method are designed to be eliminated by the typological language analysis.

***2.3. Method of structural typology***

1) *Content and purposes*

The method of typological analyses appeared within the frames of descriptive structural linguistics and is designed to eliminate the lopsidedness of comparative and contrastive methods. Its main objective is to find the similarities and differences between the languages of the world and separate phenomena of the inquired languages. This is a unity of comparative and contrastive methods, and it is possible to utilize within the inquiry of related and non-related languages.

But that is not all. Typological methods can be observed as a kind of reaction to "atomic" approach of comparativists to language phenomena in general. This is an alternative to element by element comparison of two or more languages. The world of a language, like the world of nature, is variable, and it is impossible to reflect it in details. *Idealization* is needed as an important factor of any cognition. *Typology* is a mental act in the process of idealization, linked with the creation of notions and categories of relatively different objects of the outward world, which do not possess "pure" analogue in reality. Such idealization of an object allows to combine homogeneous objects and phenomena into one class (Latin *classis* – "category") or type, despite the presence of some secondary features differences in them. For example, flexion can possess different form and meaning in different languages. However, its presence or absence is an important feature of certain grammar categories and languages in general.

The basic ideas of structural typology method are:

1. The study of corresponding phenomena of the languages of the world on all the levels and layouts and creating their typological characteristics;

2. Design of world languages typological classification;

3. Design of linguistic bases of non-native (foreign) language teaching.

2) *Definitions of the main notions*

- **Typology** is the science about the types of language phenomena of the different system levels (phonology, lexemic, grammar) and about the language types in general.

- **Type** is some variety (totality) of language phenomena, which possess common integrative features. This is the base for any classification.

- **Similarity/difference** are two interrelated phenomena properties of the outward world, including the language ones. Comparability of homogeneous objects is based on the presence of some common features in them, which, however, does not exclude variant (differential) features.

- **Similarity** of the language phenomena is the amount of integrating features of the homogeneous objects, combining them into one type (class).

- **Difference** is the feature that distinguishes the phenomenon in language A from the corresponding one in language B. The differences signify the qualitative specifics of the homogeneous phenomena of the two languages.

- **The degree of similarity/difference** is defined by the ratio of the number of similar or different features of the compared phenomena. The more similar (integrative) features in relation with varied (different) there are, the higher is the degree of similarity of this phenomena and vice versa.

The degree of similarity can be determined with the help of the empirical formula developed by T. Milevsky (118.11).

where *D* is the index of the elements' or systems' degree of similarity (< Latin distantia – "distance"); *a* is the sum of all the similar equivalent phenomena (< Lat. aequs "equivalent" + valens "possessing power") in both languages; *b* is the sum of the different non-equivalent phenomena and features in both languages.

3) *Techniques of typological research*

Altogether, it is possible to distinguish three basic techniques of structural typology method: questionnaires, references and quantitative method.

1. Questionnaire technique.

Using the given above formula, it is possible to determine the degree of similarity (D) of the two investigated languages' phonological system. We will observe only the vowel subsystem in German and Kazakh languages.

(1) For this purpose it is primarily necessary to take the list of the vowel phonemes of the mentioned languages and present them for the clarity and convenience of comparison in the form of a planar model.

**Table 7**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Height**  **Row** | **German** | | | **Kazakh** | | |
| **Front** | **Central** | **Back** | **Front** | **Central** | **Back** |
| Upper | i: y:  I Y |  | u:  ʋ | I Y | і ы | u |
| Middle | e: Ø:  ɛ: ɛ ɶ | ə: | o:  o | ɛ ɶ |  | o |
| Lower |  |  | a:  a | æ |  | a |

By the imposition of the subsystems the totality of equivalent and non-equivalent phonemes is set (they are marked on the scheme with squares for German and round for Kazakh language).

The sum of equivalent phonemes for two languages: a = 14 (I, Y, U, E, ɶ, ɛ, o, a = 7x2=14).

The sum of non-equivalent phonemes in two languages:

b = 12 (i:, y:, e:, Ø; ə:, ɛ:, a:, o:, u: = 9 in German; і; ы; æ = 3 in Kazakh language).

In the same way the consonant subsystem is observed. In this way it is possible to get the information about the types and degrees of similarity of grammar categories and lexis-semantic groups of two or more languages.

(2) As an example we will observe several cases from the area of lexis

- determination of the degree of similarity of semantic structure for Russian and Kazakh correspondent lexemes – *пить – ішу*. Russian "пить" has two meanings: 1. To absorb liquid. 2. To tope. Kazakh "ішу" has 4 meanings: 1. To absorb liquid. 2. To tope. 3. To eat liquid food. 4. To eat solid food.

a = 4, b = 2

- determination of the degree of similarity (assimilation) of Russian borrowings in Kazakh language in expression plan.

Compare:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Russian | b | o | č | k | a |  | a = 4 (b+b+k+k) |
| Kazakh | b | ö | š | k | e |  | b = 6 (o+ö+č+š+a+e) |

This means that the amount of differences between the borrowing and the original word is more than the amount of similarities.

- We will take the fragment from the system of kinship in Russian and Kazakh languages:

Russian: отец, мать, брат, сестра.

Kazakh: әке, ана, аға, іні, әпке, сіңлі, қарындас.

a = 4; b = 7

On the base of this data it is possible to get the typology of corresponding phenomena in two languages. However, concerning many languages questionnaire technique appears to be very time-consuming. Thus, when studying typological peculiarities of three languages A, B, C it will already be required to make a peer analysis of three types: A-B, A-C, B-C. This limitation is eliminated by the so-called reference technique of typological research.

2. **Reference technique**

The reference technique of typological research is aimed not on comparing several languages with each other, as it takes place in inventory technique, but on comparing any amount of languages to some invariant, reference system. This type of base for comparison and indication of similarities and differences between systems, subsystems and separate language phenomena may be corresponding system (phonological, lexical, grammar) of one language (for instance, Latin or Greek), or artificially created ***reference*** (Fr. etalon – "reference standard, sample for comparison"). It is used in typological analysis of both related and non-related languages in synchrony.

(1) *Typology of world languages phonological systems*

The degree of similarity of any languages' phonological systems is observed as ratio of their primary (equivalent) and secondary (non-equivalent) phonemes. *Primary* phonemes are understood as universal phonemes (vowels and consonants) which are common to all the languages in the world. They were determined by observing 100 languages, belonging to different systems and groups. Namely the primary phonemes system is observed as the reference for comparison.

*Secondary* phonemes are idioethnical, they have appeared in every concrete language beyond the primary ones. The totality of primary and secondary phonemes forms the phonological system of every concrete language.

Reference phonological system represents the totality of the primary phonemes (according to T. Milevsky, 118, 8).

**Table 8**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Vowels | Consonants | | | | In total |
| Nasal | Lateral | Fricative | Explosive |
| i u | m |  |  | p | 4 |
|  | n | l | s | t | 4 |
| a |  |  |  | k | 2 |
| 3 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 10 |

The type of phonological system of any language in relevance to reference is determined by the formula (in per cents):

where *Dt* is the degree of systems' differences; *a* is the sum of primary phonemes (=10); *b* is the sum of secondary phonemes of the distant language.

*Arantxa language* (Australia) has only one secondary phoneme (ə).

Here the degree of difference in relation to primary system is minimal. Let us determine this index for some other languages.

German language: a = 10; b = 29

French language: a = 10; b = 24

Kazakh language: a = 10; b = 21

Theoretically, the degree of difference of world language in relation to reference phonological system may be presented as some continuum (Lat. continuum "continuous, solid") from zero to 100% difference. This continuum can be presented as a solid line, which can be divided into some amount of classes (types) on a rounded degree of difference. For example, dividing 100 on 5, we get 5 typological classes.

0 20% 40% 60% 80% 100%

1 2 3 4 5

The languages above are allocated into the following types:

Arantxa language – 1st type (D1 = 9,09%)

German language – 4th type (D1 = 74,3%)

French language – 4th type (D1 = 70,6%)

Kazakh language – 4th type (D1 = 67,7%)

(The D fluctuations are within the limits of 60% to 80%).

In this case we can observe a bright example of idealization of the objects connected with the disregard in relation to some reality factors, which are the object of the science. No theory (including linguistic one) can absolutely precisely reflect the reality, only approximately, as nature and language phenomena possess uncountable variety of features with different importance for the theory. The less idealization is the greater number of classes it explains. If, for instance, we distinguish not 5, but 10 classes on this continuum, Arantxa language will get into 2nd class (from 10% to 20%), Kazakh language will get into 7th (from 60% to 70%), and French and German – into 8th class (from 70% to 80%).

However, any idealization must correspond to the aim and not to cross the certain borderlines. The degree of idealization cannot be set a priori, it is executed by the researcher on the base of experience and level of knowledge about the object.

(2) Reference technique can also be used to observe as well the questions of open lexical systems typology. For this it is necessary to determine the totality of primary, universal lexemes, which are in all the world languages. Such a list was obtained by M. Swadesh (149, 75-77). It covers 200 words, divided into 23 semantic groups: personal pronouns; question words; denotations of motion and rest; natural phenomena; color designator; kinship, etc. By defining the number of secondary lexemes, related to these groups, it is possible to define Dt of the world languages lexical systems according to the above formula.

For studying morphological systems typology a new technique was developed, on which we will focus especially.

*2.3.1. Quantitative techniques in typological research*

Already at the rise of scientific linguistics simultaneously with setting the basics of comparative and theoretical method the interest arose to typological study of the world languages (dead and living ones). So, in 1818 the Schlegel brothers distinguished 3 types of all the world languages due to the grammatical ways of linking words in sentences: *fusional* (*flectional)* languages (Lat. flexsīs "transition, change"), in which the connection between the words is executed by means of flections (inflections); *agglutinative* languages, in which the linking between the words in the sentences is actualized with the help of affixes (Lat. agglutinare "to stick"); *amorphous* (subsequently – isolating) languages (Gr. amorfos "formless"), in which morphological means of connection are absent, but an important role is performed by word order and intonation. W. von Humboldt added one more type to these three, the fourth one: *incorporative* languages (Lat. incorporatio "including in the composition"), in which the sentence is a verbal complex including root nominal and pronominal morphemes. For example, in the language of the Aztecs: Ninakaqwa – "I eat meat" consists of morphemes ni "I" + naka "meat" + qwa "to eat".

This traditional morphological typology of the languages consequently revealed a number of considerable shortcomings:

(1) Under the influence of C. Darwin's ideas considered above morphological types of languages started to be treated as certain types (stages) of evolutionary development of human language in general. Thus, the stages theory appeared (A. Schleicher in Germany, N. Marr in Russia).

(2) According to the stages theory, the lowest (the 1st stage) was allotted to isolating (amorphous) languages, the highest one – to fusional languages (the 4th stage). The other languages of the world were arranged between these ones: incorporative languages – the 2nd stage, agglutinative ones – the 3rd stage.

(3) Such stages in the development of world languages gave rise to a number of conclusions contradicting reality. It turned out, for example, that Korean, an isolated language (the 1st stage) did not develop in regard to grammar since the days of the primitive communal system. Fusional languages (the 1st stage) reached a kind of blossoming in a slave society (Sanskrit, Ancient Greek, Latin), and after that in the course of history started to "degrade", losing the flection (compare to analytical system of English and French languages).

(4) It was found that absolutely "pure" languages, which relate entirely to one type, do not exist at all. Thus, for example, Kazakh language (agglutinative type) has a developed flection in the systems of declension and conjugation on one hand, and analytical verb forms (Present Progressive) on the other. German language (fusional type) has analytical forms of nouns (articles) and verbs (passive and active). Besides, it also has agglutinative forms (suffixes of plural forms of the nouns, Past Simple suffix –te for weak verbs), as well as the elements of incorporation: compare Drehstromkopierbogenlampe "a copying alternating current arc lamp".

All these contradicting factors gave the base for elaborating the bases of typological languages classification considering not only morphological means, but others as well: synthetic character, word composition, coordination, derivation, isolation, etc., altogether 10 features. This is how the so-called quantitative technique appeared in language typology research, designed by J. Greenberg (45, 60).

Extracts of the written texts of 100 tokens are subjected to the analysis; then markers, indexes (the "I" symbol) are calculated by each of ten features. By tokens we mean the chain of symbols (letters) between two spaces. Let us observe particular techniques of this work on the example of only one sentence in 4 languages (English, German, Russian, Kazakh).

Eng, The farmer killed the ugly duckling (9/6).

Ger. Der Bauer tötete das häßliche Entlein (11/6).

Rus. Крестьянин убил гадкого утёнка (10/4).

Kaz. Шаруа кейіпсіз үйректі өлтірді (7/4).

Note: The first number in brackets on the right means the number of morphemes; the second one is the number of the words in each sentence.

(1) Synthetic index Js is determined by formula

,

where M means the number of morphemes, and W means the number of words in the sentence.

Eng.

Ger.

Rus.

Kaz.

Due to this feature all the world languages may be divided into three large classes (high level of abstraction):

The first type: *analytical languages*, in which grammatical relations are expressed with the help of auxilary words, intonation and word order (Js = 1,00 – 1,99).

The second type: *synthetic languages*, in which grammatical relations are expressed within the limits of a completely formed word with the help of affixes and inflections (Js = 2,00 – 2,99).

The third type: *polysynthetic languages*, in which the sentence structure includes a number of roots and various pronominal indicators into a single complex (Js = 3,00 – 3,99).

Out of all the languages observed by us (on the level of one sentence) on synthetic index only Russian language can be attributed to synthetic languages themselves (Js = 2,5). The other languages (English, German and Kazakh) are attributed to analytical languages (their Js lies between1,00 and 1,99). Out of them, so to say, the most analytical one is English (Js = 1,5).

(2) *Word composition index* – (Jcomp.) is calculated by the formula:

, where R is the number of root morphemes, and W is the number of words.

Eng.

Ger.

Rus.

Kaz.

According to this index, English and German (Jcomp. = 0,7) and Russian and Kazakh languages (Jcomp. = 1,0) are closer to each other.

(3) *Index of suffixes* (Jsuf.) is determined by the formula:

, where s is the number of suffixes, and W is the number of words.

Eng.

Rus.

Ger.

Kaz.

According to index of suffixes, Kazakh language (agglutinative) has the highest indication, the others have less.

In a similar way the calculations are performed on all other indications, and only on the base of summarized data of all indexes the relation to the given type of one or the other language is determined. Even on the level of one sentence (4-6 word usages, not a hundred, as required by the condition!) quite indicative data is received. They can be compared by the calculated indexes on all the 10 parameters regarding the languages, which are usually observed as the samples for language type determination (the summary table of 8 living and dead languages, Greenberg 45, 91). Quantitative way of typological research diminishes the level of abstraction (object idealization), the number of classes considering the complex of features is increased (not one feature as it was in traditional typology!), and they characterize only the peculiarities of the grammatical syntagmatics. Naturally, it is possible to receive the most complete picture of the diversity of the world languages' types considering their peculiarities on all the levels and layouts of the system (phonology, lexemics, grammar).

Such a complex language typology is still waiting for its researcher, and the features, which can be used to execute it, are in need of clarification.

With the tendency of the modern science to the theory of monogenetic human origin, and, consequently, the language origin, the search for the universal and idioethnical in each concrete language, undoubtedly, will always attract attention of geneticists and linguists. In this case, linguistics acts as part of the humanology.

*Let us sum up a little.* Nomographic methods, unlike ideographic ones, directed to the cognition of separate languages' specifics, are based on the comparison and require going beyond the frames of one concrete language. The largest success here was achieved within the analysis and comparison of closed subsystems (phonology, grammar), which cannot yet be said to the full extent about typological study of nominative language units (lexis, phraseology). There is still a lot to be done here.

Speaking of methods and techniques of internal linguistics in general, we can positively say that the development of ideographic and nomographic ways of synchronic analysis of the languages was an important step in linguistic methodology; it significantly widened our knowledge about a language as a systemic and structural formation and discovered the new ways of its scientific cognition. Structural and descriptive methods (of descriptive and constructive types) have increased the objectivity and the accuracy of linguistics, bringing it closer to the exact sciences. Their appearance has stimulated the interest to world languages typological classification, which in traditional linguistics was not attached separate importance. The search for universalism and typological features of the world languages became an essential part of the modern science about language.

At the same time it should not be forgotten that all the structural researches were executed traditionally on the level of separate sentences; in this connection, many issues of communicative activity, requiring going beyond the frames of a sentence, appeared unaffected. It is seen particularly brightly on the example of transformational analysis, which explains the ways of expressing on and the same meaning (proposition) with the help of different syntactic variants (transforms), without uncovering, however, the rules of individual's choice of these options in concrete situation. The problem of the choice of language differential features for the universal structural typology still remains not completely solved.

*Chapter VI*. **Methods and techniques of external linguistics**

***1. Anthropocentric paradigm in linguistics***

Let us recall that external linguistics studies functional properties of a language. Its central issue is first of all the cognition of its social and individual essence. Without a language it is impossible to execute any type of human activity (transformative, cognitive, etc.), connected to any nation's life support. This verity was understood by the ancient people. It has found its reflection in a famous biblical myth about building of the tower of Babel. While people were using a common language, the work on the tower construction was getting ahead successfully. But later the so-called language mix happened; the builders stopped understanding each other and the work was terminated.

However, any language community (see in detail in Appendix) consists of people who are homogeneous in relation to language. It is they who possess the innate speech (along with mental) ability. The study of social essence of a language is impossible without the study of the central figure of the speech production – a human. At the same time we are not talking about the speech activity of a concrete person, but of an ideal person, of the average representative of this language community, possessing all the necessary features of homo sapiens and homo loquens, related to the given historically established cultural and language group. Thus, we are not talking about the study of substantial language features as a systematic and structural formation, but about the way of existence and functioning of a language in the society, consisting of many different groups of homogeneous language individuals. A language is the system of the units of different levels and the rules of their linear compatibility. Within the process of speech creation, human attaches a new property to language phenomena – predicativity. It is not a grammatical, but a logical and semantic category. Due to it, the language phenomena are combined into a single unit – a sentence, and certain relations with tense and aspect are attributed to it. These relations are set by a human in accordance with his thought of the outward things phenomena, and are expressed with the help of the corresponding forms of a verb. This sentence peculiarity served as the basis of the so-called verb-centric theory of the sentence, in which the personal form of the verbs is observed as grammatical and semantical center of speech production, in which the cognitive speech creative human act is realized.

The section of external linguistics (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, etc. (see Chapter II, Section I) represent border disciplines, which in their totality reflect all the basic aspects of language functioning in human society, but in all these cases the central figure of speech production is human. However, their role is not limited with it. Human is the creator of the language picture of the world, the source of language changing in time. Everything new enters the language through the individual speech. This is how anthropocentric paradigm (Gr. anthrōpos "human") appeared in the modern linguistics, where language community and language identity is put forward to the first place, as it took place already in the works of W. von Humboldt, H. Steinthal, K.Vossler and the other linguists of the 19th century. Thus, the tradition was restored that had been interrupted by structuralism, which put forward to the fore the requirement to study the language "within itself and for itself". At the same time the return to the old problems in new historical conditions of the second scientific and technical revolution cannot be observed as simply repeating the old ideas. Anthropocentric paradigm in linguistics, which has found its realization in the sections of external (functional) linguistics, investigates language as the fact of social consciousness of the given ethnos, which in its own way divides, reflects the surrounding world in the language and determines mentality of the basic informant of the language.

**2. Methods and techniques of psycholinguistics**

1) **Content and purposes**. There is an opinion that external linguistics is internal linguistics that uses the methods of boarder sciences: psycholinguistics utilizes the methods of psychology, sociolinguistics uses those of social sciences, etc. Such a belief about the object and methods of cognition of external linguistics is a little simplified. Psycholinguistics, for instance, uses the methods of psychology, but it pursues another aims than internal linguistics and psychology themselves; it does not pursue the aim of cognition of the language as the system of units and rules, but it tends to uncover the essence of the “language-human” relations, which is connected to the use of experimental method of analysis of individual speech activity. The main objectives of this analysis can be formulated in the following way:

1. The study of human’s speech activity, i.e. the study of language production and understanding processes.

2. The study of the processes of native and non-native language learning by children and adults.

3. Verification of the data received by the methods of internal linguistics (Lat. verus “true”), i.e. the inspection of the psychic reality of the data about units and rules of the language system.

2) *Definition of the main notions*:

* **Psycholinguistic experiment** is the active method of empirical cognition of the speech activity processes within the artificially created conditions involving informants and under surveillance of the experimenter.
* **Informant** is the probationer who is involved in experiment in order to receive the results on the speech composition processes. Usually it is a person speaking the given language as the native one.
* **Types of experiments.** Three main directions of psycholinguistic experiment are distinguished: 1. **Laboratory** (directed) experiment is connected with testing some hypothesis, which must be formulated in advance by an experimenter. 2. **Natural** experiment is the study of speech processes not in artificial, but in natural, habitual for the informant condition (family, work, school). 3. **Associative** experiment is especially allocated. In this case an informant is imposed with different stimuli with the aim of causing a definite reaction on the base of **associations** – mental connections between two or more language phenomena. By way of stimuli we can use words, word combinations, sentences, as well as pictures.
* **Test** is the main technique of psycholinguistic research. It is an individual or a group task for identification the rang of the person (their place in the list of testees) concerning the given task and the given rating scale.
* **Types of tests**. We distinguish open and closed tests. The **open type** refers to the tasks, which do not meet the strict requirements of accuracy (dictation, essay, translation, etc.), making them difficult to be assessed objectively. Its positive side is in ability to trace independence of informants' actions and their way of thinking. The **closed test** refers to a task which strictly meets the unified assess requirements and contains a single complex of tasks, mandatory for all the testees. In this case an informant answers to the strictly specified list of questions and does not have a chance to avoid answering, but they may select their reply by guess. Besides, abilities of a closed test to control the processes of speech and thinking are limited. The most common type of a closed test is the so-called multiple choice test.
* **The main test requirements**.

(1) **Test reliability** is connected to receiving such data that may be extrapolated to similar unobservable entities. Reliability depends on the quantity and quality of informants, as well as the quality of the working hypothesis. In order to receive statistically reliable data the number of informants may fluctuate from 19 to 70, and the quality of the informants depend on their homogeneity (gender, age, education level). Test reliability may be checked in two ways: by the congruence of the research results of one and the same informants group using different tools (different types of tests and applications), or by the congruence of the research results using one and the same test in different homogeneous groups of informants. Reliability is the indicator of the research results stability within allowable margins fluctuation up to 15 %.

(2) **Test validity** (Lat. validus "strong") is diagnostic and prognostic power of the experiment. **Diagnostic** validity is the power of determining the quality of language knowledge and skills of an informant at the present time, while **prognostic** validity is the power of determining the abilities and predicting the informant's success in the future in the given sphere (for instance, an ability to foreign language learning). Test validity is determined by the congruence of the test data and oral interview – the control by three experienced specialists in the given sphere.

(3) **Test accuracy** is a relative value; it is an indicator of the degree of adequacy of the received research result to the real object. It depends on the quality of mathematical processing of the test results and on the number of tasks in the test. Thus, 100 question test's accuracy and 50 question test's accuracy on one and the same problem will be different.

* **Test assessment scale** is necessary for determination of the person's rang in the overall list of testees. It is a numeral indicator, using which qualitative differences between the informants are established a ratio of numbers. Within an open test it is a number of mistakes in one page of a text (dictation, essay, summary, picture description, etc.). Within a closed test it is a number of correct answers (the amount of points) in relation with the overall number of questions in the test. The minimal number of the questions in a closed test should be not less than 20. In this case, for instance, the assessment scale is determined in the following way: the overall number of questions (20) is divided into the number of points (5 – in case of five-point system) and we get 10. If an informant gave correct answers to less than 10 questions (half of them), then they failed the test; if they answered to 10 or more questions correctly, then they passed the test. The final scale in this case will look in the following way:

1 (bad) – if there are less than 5 correct answers;

2 (unsatisfactory) – if there are less than 10 correct answers;

3 (satisfactory) – if there are 10-13 correct answers;

4 (good) – if there are 14-17 correct answers;

5 (excellent) – is there are 18-20 correct answers.

3) *Techniques of psycholinguistic inquiries*

(1) Let us observe the samples of test tasks optionally in order to diagnose the quality of informants' acquisition of the foreign language phenomena.

**a) Definition**

What does the word "nap" means in English?

1. a brief sleep

2. a happy song

3. a sharp rock

4. a short meeting

Out of the offered possible answers it is necessary to choose the right one and to mark it with a circle or a plus sign.

**b) Insertion**

Fill in the missing word:

The old woman was too \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ to push open the heavy door.

1. sincere

2. feeble

3/ deaf

4. harsh

**c) Paraphrase**

Change the underlined word with a synonymous phrase:

John was astounded to hear her answer.

1. greatly amused

2. greatly relieved

3. greatly surprised

4. greatly angered

(2) *The study of native language acquisition by the children with the help of an interview*

Children at the age of 3, 5 and 6 years old were asked the question: What is a cat?

**3 years**: "I know a cat, it lives in our yard."

**5 years**: "A cat catches mice, and it also likes milk."

**6 years**: "Ä cat is an animal, it lives at home, but I know that there are wild cats too. They catch mice."

On the first stage the notion of "cat" exist in an undifferentiated form, as a kind of a label, denoting the type of a being. In course of time, the meaning and the capacity of the notion expands by inserting differential (catches mice and likes milk) and specific attributes (an animal) (q.v. Guizdatov, 41, 17).

(3) *Psycholinguistic verification of internal linguistics' inquiries*.

Below an example of the study of psycholinguistic reality of colour designation in 15 languages of the world is provided (q.v. Vasilievich 33, 56).

**Experiment preparation**: there is a hypothesis on a system of colour designation in corresponding languages on the basis of written texts observation by the methods of internal linguistics; there is a set of numbered colour samples; there are words – colour designations; encoded by the numbers of corresponding colour samples; 100 people participated in the experiment.

**The course of the experiment**. Informants are offered several colour samples visually with the task to name the corresponding colour designation. The answers were fixated in a special blank.

**Discussion of the obtained results**. The overall assessment of the informants' choice was set and is shown in the table:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Colour de-**  **signation**  **Word** | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** | **…** |
| **A** | 30 | - | - | - | 70 |  |
| **B** | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 92 |  |
| **…** |  |  |  |  |  |  |

A-word denotation: 70 (colour), 30 (shades).

B-word denotation: 92 (colour), no shades.

On the basis of the obtained data the groups of colour and their shades designations are set. Thus, for instance, the groups of words with the denotation "red" are separated in English and Russian languages.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **English language** | **Russian language** |
| 1. violet  2. purple  3. red, crimson  4. dark red, ruby | 1. красный, алый, ярко-красный  2. багровый, темно-красный, рубиновый |

We can see from the table that in the English language in the red specter zone 4 synonymous groups and two shades are distinguished, and in Russian language 2 synonymous groups and 4 shades are distinguished. Within an intralinguistic research all the given colour designations compose one synonymous group in each language.

(4) Association test techniques allow determining psychic connection between speech and language phenomena on the basis of their internal unity. One should distinguish paradigmatic (peculiarities of associative connection between the units of one level), syntagmatic (linear connection between the units of the lexical level) and complex associative tests (accounting features of both types of connection) (see details: Zalevskaya 58, 34).

a) An example of a paradigmatic associative test:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Stimulus word** | **Reaction word** |
| 1. water  2. kind | sea, lake, river, tap, liquid, life, source  evil, good, strong, gentle |

b) An example of a syntagmatic associative text:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Stimulus word** | **Reaction word** |
| 1. water  2. kind | cold, pure, drink, transparent, spring, potable, living, flow  uncle, man, friend, father, fellow, doctor, parents, mother, wizard |

With the help of associative tests it is possible to check the psychic reality of lexical and semantic fields, as well as the rules of semantic compatibility of particular lexemes. Besides, associative tests can have a big practical value for the theory of foreign language teaching and translation, because in this sphere significant differences can be observed between the native speakers of different languages in the field of associative connections.

***3. Methods and techniques of sociolinguistics***

Sociolinguistics studies the nature of "language – society" relations. A society is a socio-cultural group of people, being in certain relations with each other and with the outer world. Language community is a complex of people using one or several languages in communication aims (see details in Appendix 1). With an appearance of a nation a new historically determined community has appeared, as state borders are usually set not on the basis of ethnical feature, but political ones. In different states because of these and other social reasons their own language problems appear, connected with the use of languages in different spheres of social life (science, education, administration, etc.).

1) *Content and purposes*. One should distinguish passive and active methods of sociolinguistic research.

(1) Active methods (contact, field research) are connected with the experimenters' creation of the conditions for direct communication or intervention in a communicative process in order to encourage informants to active speech activity for getting necessary sociolinguistic data. In this case the researchers themselves choose a place of communication (family, work or study place, street), communication participants (age, gender, education, profession) as well as the theme of a conversation (selection of questions, connected with the research aim). Here we are talking about obtaining socially relevant data from the individual, belonging to a certain social group, which also opens the way to use psycholinguistic methods and techniques, which were observed before. The most widespread methods of analysis, except a test, are a questionnaire and an interview. In all of these cases it is possible to use light and sound recording equipment. The main advantage of the active (contact) methods is the live contact with informants, while the disadvantage is the significant consumption of time and resources, as well as the limited coverage of language groups and situations.

(2) **Passive (distant) methods** of sociolinguistics are connected, on one hand, with the study and interpretation of written sources (archive documents, statistic data, press, laws and regulations of the authorities, connected to language issues, etc.). On the other hand it is creating and post-delivery of applications and questionnaires in order to subsequently process them in a center (form of language existence, cartography, social peculiarities in the use of language units and rules by different groups of respondents, etc.). The advantage of the passive (distant) methods is in time and resources economy along with the great coverage of the groups of respondents and administrative-territorial formations. However, there are disadvantages too: the absence of a direct contact with the native speakers, unreliable transcriptions of the local pronunciation forms.

On the basis of the account the pros and cons of active and passive methods, the most reliable results can be obtained by combining both methods of sociolinguistic research.

The **objectives** of social linguistics are of multi-vector character. That means: 1. Study of the language situation in the country, taking into account qualitative and quantitative data on languages which exist therein and with respect to ​​ public functions they perform (the use of language in education, administration, everyday life and the role of bilingualism and multilingualism in society); 2. Study the forms of existence of national languages (dialects, spoken language, literary language, versions of national languages outside the boundaries of the state); 3. Learning how representatives of different social groups use that language according to their age, etnic, professiona and, educational indication; 4. Analysis of the state language policy in order to regulate the functions performed by language in the society: the problem of the state and the official languages, the attitude to languages ​​of national minorities, the use of the languages ​​in secondary and higher education, etc .; 5. Development of the functional classification of world languages ​​in addition to the existing genetic and morphological classifications.

*2) Definition of basic concepts*

* **The language situation** is a set of languages ​​and speakers of these languages in a certain territorial administrative unit (village, city, region, state) in a certain historical period.
* **Forms of existence of language** are versions of the national languages that are ​​used as a means of communication in a particular social and territorial environment: dialect - colloquial language (vernacular) - literary language - variant of the language outside the state (English in the United States, German in Austria, French in Canada, etc.).
* **Functional ​​load of languages** is determined by the number of areas of public life that are served by the existence of certain forms of language: household items, folklore, religion, law, administration, education, media, science, etc.
* **Language policy** is a government activity that is concentrated on regulating and changing the language situation and linguistic relations in this country in the desired direction. As a form of the state management of language processes, it allows for coercive measures: the publication of laws and regulations on languages ​​and programs for their implementation.
* **Bilingualism** is the practice of alternate use of two languages by an individual or group of individuals ​​ in order to communicate. Such individuals are called bilingual (Lat. *bis* “two” + *lingua* "tongue"). The native speaker of three or more languages is called “multilingual” (Gr. *poly* "many" + *lingua* "tongue"), or “polyglot” (Gr. *poly* "many" + Gr. *glōtta* "language").
* **The survey** is one of the most important ways of gathering the sociolinguistic information, both during contact survey (reception interviews), and in the course of distant survey (receiving questionnaires). It allows to receive a set of persons’ responses to questions relating to the individual, group or public ownership of a specific language and attitudes to linguistic problems from their point of view.

3*) Methods and techniques of sociolinguistic research*

Along with the experimental methods of cognition (test), the basic tools of sociolinguistics are questionnaires and interviews. The **questionnaire** is a set of questions that are related to the goals and objectives of the study, for which the respondent has to provide answers in writing. Questionnaire usually consists of three parts: the introductory part contains an appeal to the respondent that explains the purpose of the survey and indicates the degree of anonymity; the main part is the list of numbered questions; the final part contains some sociodemographic information about the respondent (it can be omitted in case of full anonymity), opinions and wishes of the respondents who were not covered by this questionnaire. The requirements to the content of questionnaires are the same as to the texts, they are: reliability, solidity, accuracy, – however, they have some specifics due to the peculiarities of sociolinguistic studies, so they can be set *a priori*. The **reliability** of the questionnaire is determined by clarity, unambiguousness of questions, which are compiled with taking into consideration the data that were obtained by other researchers who have studied similar phenomena. The **validity** of the questionnaire (diagnostic and prognostic power of questionnaires) is achieved by clear understanding of the objectives of the study and well-defined questions that prevent their multiple interpretations. The **accuracy** of received data depends on the reliability of mathematical processing and the divisibility of scale of responses. If the question demands either answer "yes" or "no", then the accuracy will be minimal (a high degree of abstraction!); if the answer has a number of options (yes - probably yes - probably no - no - I do not know), then it will improve not only the accuracy (lower level of abstraction), but also the solidity of the experiment.

For example, in order to study the language situation, a complex questionnaire has been developed in the state, which it included seven major blocks:

1. The language in the education system (secondary and higher).

2. The language in the media system.

3. Language in the field of administrative activity.

4. The language of science.

5. Language in everyday life (family, work place).

6. The language of religion.

7. The language of legislation and its implementation.

Each block of the questionnaire contains from one to three groups of questions. For example, block 3 (the language in the field of administrative activity) contains three groups of questions (the language of Parliament, the language of law and language of state institutions), which also contain three questions (see Kondrashkina 91, 151; The list of specific questions on all units and groups of the questionnaire *"The language situation in Kyrgyzstan"* see. in Appendix №2).

Interview (Eng. *interview* "conversation") is the second important survey tool which is used in contact interaction between the researcher and the informant. It can be used both on the stage of preparation of mass surveys to clarify the boundaries of research and design issues, and as an independent method of investigating a limited, small number of informants and problems.

**4. Methods and techniques of Ethnolinguistics**

**1)** *The content and purposes*

Ethnolinguistics as an outer section of linguistics is focused on the study of the relationship "language - culture". Society can be mono-ethnic, which occurs in our time very rare, or a multi-ethnic, i.e. composed of several ethnic groups. Usually, with the emergence of the state, a complex multi-ethnic community emerges. Since the language along with culture is an important ethnic index, in different countries the specific problems appear, due to the use of languages ​​in various spheres of communication. Language is a mirror of culture. Everything in a given culture is reflected in the language, mainly in its nominative units (vocabulary, phraseology). Everything in that language is reflected in the worldview of nation and in the norms of behavior of its members in different situations. Ethnolinguistics studies words and idioms not in terms of their place in the system (paradigmatics - syntagmatics), but in terms of their expression of national-specific features of the culture in the speech of native speakers of a definite language. In this regard, an important role is given to proverbs (Gr. *paroimia* " proverb") as the clichés of predictive type. So, the main **goals of ethno-linguistic research** are: 1. To determine the reflection of cultural characteristics of the ethnic group in the nominative units and clichés. 2. To determine the features of attitudes of members of the ethnic group to the objects and phenomena of the world around, that are expressed in the speech by different linguistic means (for example, time and space, the approval - disapproval, agreement - disagreement, etc.) in linguistic categories (lexical and grammatical). 3. The impact of cultural differences (knowledge of reality, the presence of background knowledge) to the ethnic (intercultural) communication in different situations.

2) Definition of basic concepts

* **Ethnicity** (Gr. *ethnos* "people") is a group of people, based on a common origin (history), language and culture, regardless of social organization: family, tribe, nation, nationality.
* **Idioethnic** (Gr. *idios* "peculiar" + *ethnos* "people") – reflects specific features of the language and culture of the ethnic group.
* **Culture** is the peculiarities of historical features of materiality in the spiritual life of the community (nation). Material culture of people is reflected in: household items, food, clothing, housing types, methods of obtaining material benefits; and spiritual culture is reflected in: folklore, myths, beliefs, customs, traditions, people’s rights, rituals, arts, etc.
* **Realia** is the names of things, objects, phenomena, that are closely related to the culture of the given nation. In a broader sense, realias include names of historical events, names of historical persons, personalities of culture and art, names of festivals and sights, etc. Even in those cases, when the name of reality is translated into another language, it needs further interpretation.

Compare to: Gr. *Bierdermeier* "philistine" is a way of life that is characteristic to the German layman in the period of 1815 - 1848.

Gr. *Eintopf* (literally: "one pot") is the name of a thick soup with meat and vegetables, which is used as first and second courses simultaneously.

* **Background knowledge** is the complex of knowledge of a native speaker about phenomena of culture of the ethnic group that do not have any univerbal expression, but influence on the verbal behavior of any member of this language community.

For example, the name of Frederick II is not just the name of the Kaiser, but it is also the name of those cultural phenomena that are associated with his name: the abolition of corporal punishment; the introduction and distribution of potatoes in Germany; going in disguise to the people; he is a hero of numerous anecdotes; his portrait is depicted on the plates, tiles, decorative plates, etc.; he has got a nickname *der Álte Fritze* "old Fritz".

* **Linguistic relativity** - the Sapir - Whorf hypothesis, according to which all people see and fraction the world differently, seeing it through the lens of own language and culture.
* **Way of thinking** is the complex of facts of interaction between the outside world and the members of ethno-cultural community, as opposed to **thinking** as the feature that is inherent to all people. There is no Russian, Chinese or German thinking, but there is a certain set of behavioral acts that are specific to the ethnic group. This is expressed in the types of attitudes to elderly people, to parents, to strangers, to woman; in the concepts of duty and decency, the place of religion in daily life, etc.

3*) Methods of Ethnolinguistics*

The ethno-linguistic research can proceed in two ways: from the cultural phenomena to the language, and vice versa, from the language to culture phenomena. In the first case both contact (the survey informants, interviews) and distant methods (surveys, study of written sources) are used for the study of cultural phenomena of a particular ethnic group in a given time (synchrony). In the second case, necessary knowledge about the culture can be obtained only through the analysis of written sources (literature, legal documents, newspapers, folklore, epics, etc.).

Along with the archaeological data, information received from written sources is one of the main keys to the knowledge of the ancient cultures of nations and peoples (diachrony).

In general, the concept of "culture" is very capacious, it covers practically all layers of society, all spheres of social life and has no clearly defined boundaries. In addition, every culture contains universal, common human features and specific, idioethnic features. This can be seen from a comparison of two different cultures. However, to make such comparison it is necessary to make certain limitations, to highlight the most significant areas of social life in the material and spiritual life. On the basis of a purely logical reasoning about own culture, we can put forward a number of hypotheses, which together make up the universal scheme of levels of culture. This approach allows you to select the main tools(?) of culture in the form of a predefined list.

(1) **Territory and environment**: the *geography* of the country (rivers, mountains, cities); *flora* (grasses, flowers, trees, forests); *fauna* (domestic and wild animals, birds, fish); *climate* (weather, seasons).

(2) **The sphere of the material life**: food, meals; clothes; housing; household; agriculture, manufacturing, trade.

(3) **The sphere of spiritual life**: folklore, myths, fairy tales, legends, its heroes; moral norms, people's rights; religion, science, art, traditions, family celebrations.

(4) **The sphere of public life**: the social system, the constitution, justice, law enforcement, the military, trade unions, parties, movements, the sphere of mass media; education and upbringing (family, school, social); health (public, folk medicine, family-friendly forms of rest, tourism).

(5) **Time sphere**: stages of human life (birth, childhood, school years, middle age, familiarizing the profession, family, old age, death) and related to them customs and traditions.

Such studies have great practical importance for the foreign language teaching methods and for bilingual lexicography.

Cognition of cultural phenomena through language can be carried out on the base of the same descriptive methods, but in this case, information about the features of material and spiritual life of speakers of other languages ​​can be obtained not only from the literature and the press, and, mainly, from monolingual dictionaries and reference books. A considerable objectivity and accuracy are achieved in connection with development of method of the culture study through keywords. The central problem of researches based on this technique is the problem of isolation and description of keywords, words that are especially important and indicative for each individual culture. It is based on the sequence of several techniques.

a) First, it is necessary to determine a vernacular character of these words using the frequency dictionaries. Only high-tokens should be included in the selected list.

b) Then, their semantic sphere (concepts, emotions, evaluations) should be determined. For example, the "fate" is destiny, lot, doom, humility.

c) After that, it is necessary to identify their phrase-building potency, ability to enter into the idioms and proverbs. For example: a stroke of fate; it is destined; nothing can be done (the impersonal construction); hence, this is my fate; I believe in my destiny, etc.

All this work is done by using explanatory, ideographic and phraseological dictionaries.

d) The next step is to determine their compliance with respect to languages ​​and cultures using bilingual dictionaries and texts.

After identifying common core keywords in different languages, it is necessary to go to their description in each separate language with the help of so-called mini-language that is universal, but idioethnic by its form. Each mini-language should be isomorphic to the rest of the languages that have been studying, as a kind of English, Russian, Kazakh, etc. BASIC (Eng. basic <abbr. from *beginners all purpose symbolic instruction code* "multi-purpose symbolic code for beginners"). This natural semantic meta-language (NSM) provides the description of keywords through universal human **concepts** (Lat. *conceptus* "idea, concept" (The main provisions of such semantic code in Russian see Vezhbitskaya 35, 53; see Appendix №3).

As an example, the semantic structure of the word "friend" in the English and Russian languages is given.

Eng. ‘friend’.

(1) I know this man well.

(2) I want to be often with this person.

(3) I want to do things often with this man.

(4) When I am with this person, I feel good.

(5) I think that this man thinks of me the same things.

Rus. ‘friend’.

(1) I know this man very well.

(2) I have very good thoughts about this man.

(3) I want to be often with this man.

(4) I want to talk often to this man.

(5) I know I can tell that person anything.

(6) Nothing bad will happen because of it.

(7) I want this person to know what I think.

(8) I want this person to know why I think this.

(9) I want this person to know what I feel.

(10) I want to do good things for this person.

(11) When something bad happens to that person, I cannot restrain myself from doing something good for this person.

(12) I know that this man thinks of me the same thing.

(13) When people think so about other people, they feel something very good.

Units of semantic structure of words studied above are described in the form of proposals, that consist of units of natural semantic meta-language.

Compare to: (1) **I** (substantive) **know** (mental predicate) **this** (determinative) **person** (substantive) **well** (attribute), etc.

Units of this language can be translated into any human language. Semantic meta-language may be regarded as some model (see *The model method of typological studies*) for determination of similarities and differences between cultures. Therefore, along with dictionaries and reference books data, the sociolinguistic questionnaires can be used in ethno-linguistic researches with such questions as: How many friends do you have? How often do you meet with your friends? How do you feel while meeting with friends? Would you like to do some work together with your friend? and etc.

From the example given above we can see that the concept of "friend - friendship" means in Russian culture closer relationships between people than the English concept "friend - friendship". Thus, it is clear that the peculiarities of culture are determined not only by idioethnic indicators (realities, background knowledge, idioms), but also by semantics of commonly used words that can have its own specific shades and characterize not only the "language picture" of the world, but also the relationship between people in a certain moment in history.

Being an important step in the study of ethno-linguistic problems, the method of cultures cognition through keywords still has some drawbacks. Firstly, there is no clear designation of number of keywords for describing the specifics of the given culture; secondly, there are no clear criteria of description of their semantic structure using natural meta-language; thirdly, the natural semantic meta-language (NSM) itself cannot be considered definitive, it contains only about 60 concepts and needs to be clarified.

**5. Methodology of other branches of foreign linguistics**

The functional (distinctive) signs of the language are studied by other (except for the mentioned above) outer branches of linguistics: cognitive linguistics (cognitive science), paralinguistics and areal linguistics. As the central figure, that uses language as a tool of communication, is the individual and society, then only this factor suggests that cognition methods must be identical for research of all aspects of human speech activity, because speech is the only way of existence and functioning of the language. The language does not have its energy resources; it becomes means of communication and exchange of ideas only during the process of speaking and listening. Since this is a process of human activity, the main way to its cognition must be experimental methods, contact and distant (test, questionnaire, and interview). Thus, the differences between the ways the study of various aspects of speech activity are not between methods, but between **objectives** of cognition.

Let us dwell briefly on these issues.

1) **Cognitive Science** is the science of the laws of production, storage, conversion and use of the language information by human. It studies the relation of "language - thinking" as two fundamental properties of homo sapiens and homo loquens. It defines the main objectives of Cognitive Science: 1.Study of mental processes associated with sampling (Lat. *discretus*" consisting of separate parts"), i.e. the splitting up the objective reality and its reflection in certain nominative units (vocabulary, phraseology) and grammatical categories. The combination of these phenomena and the relationships forms a "linguistic picture of the world", the collective consciousness of the native speakers of a particular language. 2. The investigation of process of speech-thinking human activity in moment of real communication, i.e. the exchange of ideas between people in conditions of intraethnic and interethnic communication.

In the first case the formation (phylogeny) of a language picture of the world of the ethnic group is studied, its group consciousness, by comparing the nominative forms and grammatical categories of the language according to the written sources data (the method of internal reconstruction) and establishing their role in modern speech production processes (tests, interviews). All concrete language pictures of the world are in a relationship of complementarity and form the picture of mankind's world reality. Comparison of similar phenomena in other related and unrelated languages, especially ethnic groups that stand at different stages of socio-political development, allow to reveal the universal laws of language sampling of reality by human at all (*The experience of cognitive analysis of the linguistic category of time*. See *Carlinsky* 80, 52 and voc.).

*Chapter VII*. **Methods and techniques of Pragmalinguistics**

**1. General Provisions**

1) *The content and aims*

Even in the depths of external linguistics there is a need to study a communicative human activity in all its diversity. Communicative activity is one of three main types of human activity, which is aimed at meeting the material and spiritual needs of human and society. Development of external (functional) linguistics does not only mean a transition from static to dynamic, to speech, but it also means the transition to anthropological linguistics, where the central figure is human, but at the beginning, the interests of understanding the speech did not go beyond the scope of sentence.

Pragmalinguistics expanded the scope of scientific interests of linguistics to the level of complex speech entities (discourse and text), which require consideration not only of mental and modal factors of speech production, but also taking into account the intentions of the speaker, the specifics of the communication situation and characteristics of the interlocutor. All of this is a set of questions and issues related to the relationships between the communicants in a particular communicative situation.

Pragmalinguistics studies communicative human activity in two forms: oral (discourse) and writing (text). Although there is a lot in common between these forms of language implementation, as they are related to the same linguistic system, there are important differences (for details, see *Chapter II, 3*) between them. All the circumstances discussed above define main *objectives* of pragmalinguistic research: 1. The study of discourse, its types according to the purpose of communication, as well as verbal and non-verbal means of its implementation in concrete communication conditions. 2. The study of text, its types, text inner relationships and characteristics as a whole.

2) *Definition of basic notions*

* **Pragmatics** (Gr. *pragma* "action") is the personal attitude communicators to each other and to the content of the speech (oral or written) with taking into account their communicative intentions (intentions) and the communication situation.
* **Communication** (Lat. *communicare* "to communicate") is a relationship between two or more individuals, based on exchange of giving the information or communication via verbal and nonverbal (paralinguistic) funds. The participants of the act of communication are called the communicants.
* **Information** (Lat. "message about something") is a set of data about the properties and characteristics of objects and phenomena of the world, transmitted by means of natural language in terms of communication. Information can be received, stored, transmitted, processed, it can be exchanged. The way of transmission and receipt of information as the main entity can be phonic or graphic (transfer of information in the system "human - machine" is not considered here).

3) Methods of Pragmalinguistics

Language and speech are systemized systems; they are the subject of historical and structural linguistics. Communicative-pragmatic linguistics deals with probabilistic processes which involve a large number of variables: situation, communicants’ strategy, the choice of language means for the realization of communicative intentions, etc. Due to these circumstances, the analysis of pragmalinguistic data cannot be implemented with a single well-defined operation as it usually happens in structural studies. A system of several successive transactions is necessary. This operation system with strictly defined rules, which (after their implementation) leads to the solution of complex problems, is called an **algorithm**.

The analysis of discourse and the text is complex, but it can be in some extent arranged by the algorithm for human. The algorithm for human does not meet the mathematical accurateness of heuristic steps; "jumps" in the order of operations are possible, however, it may serve as a guide to the researcher activities towards the goal achievement.

Creating algorithms even for human, not for machine, i.e. in a simplified manner is a very difficult task. Therefore, only a list of specific actions of the analysis of verbal communication will be outlined, the totality of which should lead to the achievement of this goal.

The first area of ​​analysis should contain a list of researcher’s actions "top- bottom", i.e. from broad categories such as: situation, theme, structure, etc.; and the second – «bottom- top », i.e. from specific language phenomena to general communicative-pragmatic features of discourse or text. As there are significant differences between discourse and text, their analysis should have appropriate characteristics, as the properties of the object of cognition determine a method, and the method determines the specific techniques for working with language material, and not vice versa. All these problems will be discussed in following sections by scheme, which is represented in the preceding sections of this paper.

***2. Methods and techniques of text analysis***

The interest to the study of text formed in the 60s of the last century in the scope of traditional linguistics, which is known to be mainly based on the analysis of certain sentences taken from written sources. The problem of communication in the theory of the text is specific as compared to discourse. This is primarily the **result** (not the process!) of cognitive speech production in writing, where there is only a message, but there is no exchange of information between people. The author of the text focuses on an average reader without having a personal contact and he does not know his reaction to the content of the text. Communicative strategy of author is unambiguous, while the one of reader, who is the recipient of information, allows multiple interpretation of the text. However, this situation has its advantages, because it gives a high degree of certainty to judge the spiritual and linguistic identity of the author. Here the author is not so much adapted to a particular reader, as tends to influence on reader, and to impose his way of thinking.

1*) The content and objectives of analysis of the text*

The theory of text (text linguistics, grammar of the text, hermeneutics) considers the text as a coherent, semantically related entity, which is created by a particular author's intention. His perception in the light of the author's intention is ensured not only by purely linguistic means, but also by reader’s necessary common fund of knowledge about the world and the subject content of the text. The study of text has the following main objectives: 1. Definition of types of texts; 2. The study of structure of texts; 3. The establishment of intra-relationships features of the text; 4. Determination of semanitic-pragmatic features of texts.

2) *Definition of basic notions*

**Sentence** is the basic speech unit of text. This is a chain of linear expansion of linguistic elements, expressing knowledge of the segment of reality. Meaning of the sentence is uniquely implemented as part of the text, which is information about the fragment ("part") of reality.

Compare to: *Kolya read the book*. From this sentence we learn what Kolya did. Who is he, how old is he , what he did before? etc. – we do not know it.

Now let’s take the same sentence as part of the text: "Kolya, the 5th grade student, went home after school. No one was home. Dad was at the war. His mother worked as a nurse at the hospital. She did not come back from work yet. Kolya really wanted to eat, but he decided to wait for his mother. Kolya sat at the window and began to read a story from the book, which was presented to him by his mother on his birthday. Kolya read the book and sometimes glanced at the table, where a piece of bread laid, covered with a napkin ...".

Consideration of the sentence gains a specific meaning only as a part of the whole content of the text.

Sense (Eng. *sense*, French *sens*, Ger. *sinn*) is an implemented in the speech knowledge of linguistic forms (word, phrase, sentence) that they receive in a given context. The combination of speech senses compiles the text. Any sentence consists of nominative units and predicative relations.

**Predicative** **relations** (predicativity) define the interrelationship between meaning of the sentence and time and modal correlation at the time of speech. This is not a grammatical category, but it is a semantic (verbal) category.

Compare to: Boy is reading / read / will read / would read the book.

**Cohesion** (Eng. *cohesion* "linkage") is the link between meanings of the sentence in the text, which provides a logical interdependence of facts, events and actions.

**Coreference** (plural reference <Eng. multiple reference) is the basic language means of cohesion. The use of different linguistic forms for reuse of names of people or objects in the text.

Compare to: Once there was a *king*. *His* name was *Frederick*. **He** had three daughters. **He** loved them very much. Once **he** had a dream about ...

The forms here: king, his, Frederick, he are related to the same referent (the fact of reality).

Coreference can be implicit (Eng. *implicit* "unexpressed"), when the connection between the objects is established purely by associations.

Compare to: The *car* was perfect in appearance, but the *motor* was too bad.

**Lexical-thematic lines** (LTL) are the set of text elements that belong to the same referent, which are the part of sentences and are distributed throughout the text in the form of thematic classes of words that are in associative relations with referents (see *implicit form of coreference*).

**Referent** (Eng. *to refer* "to point at something, to relate with something") is an element of reality, which is correlated with the given linguistic expression, the thought of which is firmly fixed in collective consciousness as the inner side of the word. It means the same as **denotation**.

The **style** **of** **speech** is a specific version of language expression with peculiar vocabulary, phraseology and grammatical structures, and which is associated with certain forms of speech.

There are: **functional** **styles** as a set of linguistic means, that are characteristic for main types of writing (fiction style, conversational, scientific and journalistic styles); **individual** **style** is a set of stylistic elements that are characteristic for works (texts) of the particular author; the originality of the author's methods of influence on the recipient; **neutral** **style** is general-average type of any sort of speech without specific stylistic means.

**Subject** (Gr. *thema* "the question for discussion, the basic sentence") is the core of the narrative, a nucleus semantic basis of the text.

**Delimitation** (Fr. *delimitation* "delimitation, demarcation") is the determination of the boundaries, the limit range of the text.

*3) Methods of text analysis*

Text analysis has comprehensive, descriptive feature, which is a series of sequential steps in a system of algorithm for humans. Algorithm for study of any text consists of the following points:

1. Delimitation of the text.

2. Determination of type of the text.

3. Establishment of the text topic.

4. Determination of structure of the text.

5. Identification of features of intra-relationships of the text.

6. Determination of stylistic features of the text.

7. The establishment of pragmatic nature of the text.

The first three steps are devoted to "top-bottom" analysis of the text, the next steps – to "bottom-top" analysis.

Let’s examine this general scheme of analysis on the example of text №1.

**Text № 1**

**The ancient story**

(1) Once upon a time a fierce khan lived. (2) He was very rich and his most favorite subject, which he possessed, was a delightful bowl. It was more than 1000 years old. Masters who made it have died long time ago, so no one knew the secret of their art. (3) One day, when khan was returning from a successful military campaign, he ordered his trumpeters to greet him. They played so loudly that it the walls of the palace shook and the beautiful, precious bowl fell off and was broken. (4) Khan became very sad, and soon he died.

**Step 1: Delineation of text** can be accomplished in three ways.

(1) **Semantic** method: the beginning of the text is marked by the first sentence, which has no reference forms to the left. The end is determined by sufficiency of referential meanings, which provide its understanding as a whole. This method is most suitable for the isolation of communicative-pragmatic texts within large literary or scientific works (novels, monographs, etc.).

(2) A **formal** method is used for delimitation of small texts with a title at the beginning, and empty space at the end of the text. This method is used in the analysis of short literary texts (novelette, short story, newspaper articles and folklore (fairy tales, legends, etc.).

(3) The **author's** method of delimitation of the text is based on the definition of boundaries of the text that are set by the author of the text by use of opening and closing remarks. For example: "In this article, we will consider ..." (beginning of the text) and "taking into account the foregoing, we conclude that ..." (end of the text). This is characteristic to scientific papers and school essays.

For delimitation of our text we are going to apply the formal method.

**Step 2: Defining the type of the text**

It must be distinguished: **artistic** and **informative** texts.

1. Artistic text contains information about the fragment of reality with the use of special linguistic means of influence on the reader (tropes, comparisons, repetitions, epithets, etc.); informative text is aimed at attracting attention of the reader to some concrete information (publicism, manual, advertisement, accounting report, etc.).
2. Artistic texts might be monological (description) and dialectical (dramatic works, dialogues within the literary texts). Besides artistic texts might be **representative** and **unrepresentative**. Representative texts are related to real referents ( human being, houseware, society, nature, etc.), whereas unrepresentative ones reflect phenomena of fantastic unreal world (science fiction, fairy tales).
3. Informative texts might be **scientific** and **unscientific**. Scientific texts reflect process and result of cognition of objective world with the use of special terms and figures of speech (for example, performatives). Unscientific texts reflect opinions, instructions, recommendations, etc. with the use of naming of concrete people and objects.

According to this typology, text №1 might be attributed to informative unscientific texts.

**Step 3: Determination of the theme of the text.**

The theme of the text is defined by the short answer on elementary question “What is the text about?” in the form of one-two sentences. In our case such answer will be: “About the khan’s love to the old bowl and his death because of it”.

**Step 4: Determination of the structure of the text.**

Structure of the text is its composition (<lat. compositio “forming, composition”), i.e. inner structure of the narrative. Usually it includes 4 sections:

1. **Exposition** is a part of the text which characterizes situation before the main event. Usually it is the title or the first sentence of the text. In our case we have both factors: “Ancient legend” (title) and “ Once upon a time lived one cruel khan” (first sentence).
2. **Introduction** forms a direct transition to the main event (description of the khan and his favorite bowl).
3. **Main body** is a fragment of the text which reflects the main event, thematic component of the narrative (return of the khan from a successful campaign, he was greeted by the trumpeters so that the walls trembled, the bowl fell down and smashed).
4. **Conclusion** is a part of the text which finishes the narrative (the khan was displeased and died).

**Step 5: Elicitation of peculiarities of intratextual connections.**

Coreherence is the main means of cohesion, linkage of the sentence. In our text it refers to the words “khan, he, his” throughout the whole text. Second means of intratextual connections is lexical thematic lines (LTL), which are based on associative links (implicit coreference). There might be one or several LTLs in the text. There are two of them in the text 1. They are as follows:

1. **Line of the khan:** he is cruel, rich, an owner of his favorite object – bowl, once was returning from the campaign, died because of his favorite object.
2. **Line of the bowl:** antique, admirable object, is more than 1000 years old, the secret of its manufacture is lost, wonderful and priceless bowl once was broken.

Both lexical thematic lines are combined in one whole: the bowl was khan’s favorite object, it breakage was the reason of khan’s death. In this way cohesion of the text is provided by explicit and implicit coreference.

**Step 6: Elicitation of stylistic peculiarities of the text.** Style as a totality of linguistic means of information transfer and influence on the reader is the most important part of the pragmatics of the text. Depending on the type of the text (“artistic, scientific, publicistic, etc.”) detection and interpretation of such means has an important meaning. However, in our text their role is insignificant; several epithets underline material and aesthetic value of the bowl (antique, wonderful, priceless) and khan’s temper and power (rich, cruel). All in all, the style can be defined as a neutral one, because there are no special means of influence on the reader.

**Step 7: Elicitation of pragmatic essence of the text.** It is defined by the author’s view on people, objects and events fixed in the text. The author himself wasn’t a witness of the described event; he only passes on the old legend. His attitude is neutral; he is just trying to pass on objectively what he once heard from other people. Direct author’s opinion is absent; however we can distinguish indirect assessment. It is shown in the description of the khan, the main figure of the narrative. From one hand he is endowed with some negative characteristics (cruel), from another hand with some positive features (love to the things). This sentimentality cost him his life. You must be a man of integrity; you must love not only soulless things but also people.

The language of narrative is laconic, it is dominated by simple sentences in the indicative mood, the text has public lexicon. It’s hard to distinguish some specific features of linguistic personality of the author; he merges with the numerous carriers of this ancient legend.

From the analysis of the text 1, in spite of its simplicity and transparency, it’s clearly seen that unlike taxonomic linguistics (analysis of the units and rules of the language), and also functional linguistics (analysis of connections “language – personality and society”), analysis of the text within the framework of pragmalinguistics is concentrated solely on investigation of the text as one organic whole, which reflects a “piece” of reality from the perspective of a certain linguistic identity.

At the same time, text is not the complete communication it is just transfer of information to the ideal reader.

*3. Methods and ways of discourse analysis*

1) *Content and aims*

Written speech plays an important role in a modern social life, particularly in the field of scientific, political and economic communication, and also in mass media. Exchange of thoughts between communicants in the written form has its specifics. Correspondence between people and organizations, exchange of scientific information through publications, where reviews, ratings, clarifications regarding previous publications are published, are not of a spontaneous nature, there is no personal contact between the participants of communication; there is no dynamic change of roles in the system “person who is writing – person who is reading” which gives an opportunity for multiple interpretation of the text and emergence of “informational noise”, etc. All these and other factors explains the fact that in spite of all social importance written speech couldn’t extrude the oldest natural innate form of communication – oral communication. It is strange but linguistic investigations started and continued till the end of XX century particularly on the material of separate sentences taken out of the texts totally ignoring human oral speech. But in the history of linguistics there were moments connected with the interest to oral speech when absence of writing hindered investigations of such communicative systems such as dialects in Europe and languages of Indians in America. However, they were studied after graphical fixation as written forms without taking into consideration situation, real participants of communication, role of non-verbal means of communication, etc. Only Pragmalinguistics in the 80s years of the last century took the knowledge of the language back to its firstborn beginning, to the study of communicative activity of the person in the verbal form. It gave necessity to the design of the new terminological apparatus and setting of new **goals**, namely: 1. Study of discourse, its types and language peculiarities; 2. Defining of intentions, communicative strategy and tactics of the participants of the discourse; 3. Study of peculiarities of the speech of each participant of the interaction; 4. Defining of semantic peculiarities and lexical grammatical means of the whole discourse.

2) *Defining of the main notions*

* **Discourse** (fr. discours “logically linked speech”) – coherent oral message of one individual considering all extralinguistic factors (situation, temper of the interlocutor, kinesics, phonation). This **one-sided discourse.** Totality of utterances of two communicants in the oral form “immersed into life” with the exchange of roles “person who is talking- person who is listening” is called **two-sided discourse.**
* **Situation** it is information about the conditions (place, time) and participants (gender, age, social status) of the communication.
* **Interact** (lat. inter “between” + actus “deed, action”) is an alternative interaction between the communicants with the help of verbal and non-verbal means of communication.
* **Utterance** (speech act in logical philosophical terminology) is a speech action of one communicant during one voice tour. It is the main unit of discourse which is defined regarding the sentence or it can be a combination of several sentences.

Compare Did you go to the cinema yesterday? – Yes! / Yes, I was / I was in the cinema/ Yes, I was in the cinema yesterday. I liked it very much. It was just awesome!

Here we have two utterances: one question and variants of the answer – from simple confirmation to totality of several sentences.

Utterance differs from the sentences also by the timbre and intonation, it correlates with a concrete situation of communication, it is oriented on concrete speaker (presupposition).

* **Voice tour** (move) is an each next part of discourse owned by one communicant in the process of communication.

For example, Did you go to the cinema yesterday? – Yes, I was. (Two voice tours).

* **Presupposition** (lat. prae “before”+ supositio “position” –sentence) – speaker’s evaluation of the general fund of knowledge of the interlocutor, his views and his psychological state at the moment of the speech. Speaker not only knows what he wants to say to the interlocutor but also assumes how this message will be accepted by the interlocutor and what is opportunity of insertion of new topics in speech.
* **Intention** (lat. intention “aspiration”) – communicative intention of the speaker, what he desires to transmit and ask interlocutor in the given speech situation.
* **Communicants’ strategy and tactics. Strategy** is a general plan of speech behavior of collocutors in the given situation to reach the aim of communication, general way of realization of communicative intention. **Tactics** is a way of realization of the strategy.
* **Topical unit of discourse** (TUD) is a totality of both collocutors’ utterances related to one topic as an object of communication. One-sided discourse (monologue speech) has as a rule one topical unit and is realized in the form of conceptual **frame**. Two-sided discourse (dialogue speech) is a consequence of several topical units and is executed in the form of conceptual **scenario**. Totality of topical units of the discourse forms its structure.

*3) Ways of discourse investigation*

Methods and ways of discourse analysis are not well developed because of serious objective obstacles. Discourse is primarily a process, i.e. consequence of speech acts in time. Any processes, however, can be investigated by stopping them at particular points (stages) and by analyzing and describing them in statics. What is most suitable for solving problems of discourse investigation is an algorithm, which however should differ from the algorithm of text analysis discussed above due to the differences between the objects of investigation. But that is not all. Situation of communication which does not have special verbal (word) expression becomes important. Besides, discourse is a totality of communicants’ utterances in combination with extralinguistic factors (phonation and kinesics). It is necessary to use light and sound recording devices for investigation of interaction of all above mentioned factors, after all semantic pragmatics of the discourse is not in separate elements but in their totality, and they become clear only in the whole exchange of thoughts in a concrete situation of communication.

*Algorithm of two-sided discourse analysis* might be done in the following way:

1. Description of communicative situation.
2. Defining of the type of discourse.
3. Determination of the discourse structure.
4. Communicants’ roles in the places of exchange of the move.
5. Semantic peculiarities of communicant A’s speech behavior.
6. Semantic peculiarities of communicant B’s speech behavior.
7. Defining of both communicants’ intentions of speech strategy and tactics.
8. Semantic peculiarities of the whole discourse.
9. Lexical semantic aspects of the discourse.

Analysis according to the given scheme we will give on example of discourse №1.

**Discourse 1**

Two friends of the same age meet by chance on the road, shake hands.

Hand of one of them is bandaged.

1. 1. **A.** Hi! Haven’t seen you for ages. Where were you?

2. **B.** I drank beer.

**II.** 3. **A.** No, I’m serious. What have you been doing all this time?

4. **B.** I went fishing with friends. I became an avid angler.

5. **A.** What did you catch?

6. **B.** Carp.

7.**A.** And how many did you catch?

8. **B.** None.

9. **A.** How do you know then that you were catching a carp?

III. Why is your hand bandaged?

1. **B.** Because of the fishing but the other time.
2. **A.** Perhaps you sprained it when you were pulling out the fish?
3. **B.** No, when I was showing its size to friends.

IV. 13. Okay. How is wife?

14. As usual, demands money in the morning, afternoon and evening.

15. What is she doing with them?

16. I don’t know myself; I don’t give anything to her.

V. 17. Okay, see you then, give my regards to your wife.

18. Be healthy and don’t cough.

**Step 1: Description of communicative situation.**

Two male friends of the same age and of the same social status meet by chance on the road, hand of one of them is bandaged.

**Step 2: Defining of the type of discourse.**

Type of the discourse is defined by the subject (theme) of the exchange of thoughts and relationships between participants of the dialogue. It can be: **conversation** – discussion of one theme by equal communicants; **talk** – arbitrary discussion of several themes; **interview** – answers to one communicant’s questions who wants to get particular information from the other; **debate** – discussion of the controversial question at the meeting, during the talk (dispute); **interrogation** – talk of the investigator and a violator; **talk show** – review of different people’s opinions on an important social question, etc. Type of our discourse is **talk**.

**Step 3: Determination of the discourse structure.**

Discourse structure is defined by the number of topical units and is established by asking a question “What is it all about?” to the connected parts of the discourse. The beginning of the first topical unit coincides with the beginning of the discourse. The end of the given topic is the beginning of the next one, etc. We distinguish **5 topical units of discourse** in our case**:**

1. Greetings (1-2).
2. About the fishing (3-9).
3. About the bandaged hand (10-12).
4. About the wife (13-16).
5. Farewell (17-18).

**Step 4: Communicants’ roles in the places of exchange of the move.**

These roles are defined by the range of factors:

1. Usage of social ethnic forms of interaction by the communicants: you –you; Vanya – Ivan Ivanovich; Petrov- comrade director, etc.
2. Character of distribution of tours between the communicants. There can be several variants: communicants show **interest** or **disinterest** as extension of exchange of thoughts by adding something like- yes-yes; wow!; agree completely; who would have thought?; (in the first situation) and no! enough! Can’t agree; enough; everything is clear (in the second).
3. It is important on this stage of analysis to define the rules of word transfer which are used by the communicants. Word transfer can be voluntary and involuntary. **Voluntary** transfer is usually marked by intonation of question or checking (Isn’t it?) or by common words and constructions: This is as it goes; that’s all and now what can you say? This is my opinion and what do you think about this issue?, etc. **Voluntary** (undemocratic) word transfer means interruption of someone’s speaking by using some typical constructions: Sorry to interrupt you, completely disagree, now listen to me, etc.
4. In order to define the roles of communicants in the place of exchange of turn is important to identify who is an initiator of the first tour (beginning of the discourse) and the host of the finishing topical unit.

**Remark:** In formal situations of communication (dispute, debate, talk show) the turn of speaking tours is regulated by the host (chairman, moderator) whose speech also must be analyzed on this stage of analysis.

And now let’s come back to our discourse.

Communicants A and B say “you” to each other, they are old friends, what is more the pronoun “you” is often omitted because it’s clear from situation: What have you been doing all this time? (3). Where were you? (1).

Initiator of the talk is communicant A, he is a host of the first (greeting) and the last tour (farewell), he is interested in continuing of exchange of ideas whereas communicant B just answers the questions. Rules of transfer of turn has a voluntary character and are marked by question intonation of communicant A’s speech, his interlocutor doesn’t ask questions.

**Step 5: Semantic peculiarities of communicant A’s speech behavior.**

In order to evaluate character of semantic connections of the whole discourse firstly it is necessary to define the specifics of speech behavior of each participant of interaction separately. The main stimulus of their speech is their inner spiritual features (intelligence, character, life goals) and also the form and content of interlocutor’s speech taking into account not only verbal but also non-verbal signs (timbre, intonation, gestures, body language). Complex fixation of all aspects of interaction requires development of special transcription.

Such transcription was designed by German scientists. It implies using some specific signs.

□ Sign of time line

abc Logical stress

↓ Downstream edge tone

↑ Bottom-edge tone

/ Break of the speech

▪ Short pause

[ ] Non-verbal behavior under the sign of the time line (Hofman 200, 260).

This is how beginning of our discourse looks like in this way of recording.

1. Hi ↑ Haven’t seen you for ages. Where were you↓
2. I drank beer

[smiling gave his hand]

[shook his hand]

1. No, I’m serious. What have you been doing all this time ↑

B. I went

[looking at B’s hand]

A.

B. fishing with friends. I became an avid angler↓

A. What did you catch↑ and how many did you

B. carp↓

A. Catch↑

B. None↓

[[looking at B’s eyes]

As an initiator of the interaction communicant A while organizing his cooperation with communicant B is ruled by the category of aim, i.e. what is expected in the mind as a result of particular actions. His aim is to get to know as much as possible about his friend, about the events which happened in his life while they didn’t see each other. He does it by asking concrete questions (Where were you? What have you been doing? What happened with your hand? How is your wife?). Having noticed that interlocutor avoids direct answers communicant A is constantly changing the topic of conversation clearly being eager to continue the conversation, he is striving to cooperate and precedes new question by common expressions: No, I’m serious (3), okay (13, 17). By doing so he demonstrates tactics of communication to establish contact what cannot be said about his interlocutor.

**Step 6: Semantic peculiarities of communicant B’s speech behavior.**

Firstly it is important on this stage to define how communicant B interprets and reacts on the interlocutor A’s speech. He understands clearly the asked questions but avoids a direct answer. He doesn’t object, he doesn’t show his disinterest in communication in an obvious way but answers jokingly. His sense of humor cannot be denied. Comp. Where were you? – I drank beer (1,2); Did you sprain your hand when you were pulling out the fish from the water? - No, when I was showing its size to the friends (11, 12); The wife always asks for money but where she gets it he doesn’t know because he doesn’t give her anything (14,15,16). So, communicant B demonstrates unwillingness to continue conversation, he doesn’t show any interest in his interlocutor’s life and close people.

**Step 7:** **Defining of both communicants’ intentions of speech strategy and tactics.**

Both communicants’ communicative intentions are different. Communicant A is active and he is striving to get more information about his friend and his close friends by asking questions. It determines his strategy: concrete, businesslike questions about work, health and interlocutor’s family.

**Communicant B** is passive, he avoids answering questions and is not interested in his friend’s life.

Communicants’ different intentions define their speech strategy: A is striving to call on revelation and find out about him more even observing his disinterest in disclosure.

Communicant B’s general plan of speech behavior (strategy) is to avoid answering interlocutor A’s questions but he does it not openly, invisibly by using meaningless jokes. Peculiarity of his tactics is using humor to avoid direct answers.

**Step 8: Semantic peculiarities of the whole discourse.**

The type of discussed discourse is conversation with the change of topical units, it is defined by the situation, interlocutors’ characters and peculiarities of their utterances. Conversation is virtually pointless because communicants have different goals and use different strategies of speech behavior.

Discourse has the form of question-answer dialogue (About types of question-answer dialogues consult Lenert 112, 258). The tone of conversation is explicitly friendly, not tense with elements of humor, but implicitly estrangement of interlocutors is clearly seen. Communicant A is virtually a host (subject) of the whole discourse, communicant B is an object, his speech behavior is determined by character of A’s questions.

**Step 9: Lexical semantic aspects of the discourse.**

In spite of the fact that center of gravity is on the analysis of intentions and strategies of communicants in the given concrete situation what is reflected in their speech acts, utterances, however concrete understanding and sense of utterances require usage of the language as means of communication, particular lexical grammatical means.

It is all about not setting of logical grounds of utterances (propositions), but about the sense of the speech acts which are expressed by particular language means. One and the same proposition depending on communicative intention can take different language form.

Compare, for example:

1. Peter is coming out of the room (statement in Present).
2. Peter came out of the room (statement in Past).
3. Peter will come out of the room (statement in Future).
4. Peter, come out of the room (order).
5. If Peter came out of the room (desire).
6. If Peter comes out of the room, I’ll come out (condition).

So, with one proposition (“Peter is who came out of the room”) we have 6 different meanings choice of which is determined by the situation of communication, choice of nominative means and rules of their connecting in the utterance is meant. Here we have a chance to be assured in importance of **predicative** category, not lexical, not grammatical, but **semantic** speech category.

Consequently, even in spite of the fact that mental, social, ethnographical and logical aspects are alternated in the discourse proper place in its analysis must be taken by investigation of actual language notions – vocabulary and grammar.

Speaking about lexical peculiarities of our discourse, we must notice that it has everyday character: beer, fishing, carp, hand, wife, money, etc., i.e. it refers to the sphere of everyday life. And this is rather natural but if we analyzed the talk of two scientists or representatives of the youth vocabulary of their discourse would reflect other presuppositions: knowledge of particular scientific sphere and corresponding terminology in the first case and peculiarities of youth jargon in the second one.

Grammar peculiarities of the speech of our discourse also reflect specifics of two-sided dialogue. Above all, it is the usage of shortened forms of utterance (unfinished sentences, ellipsis), i.e. omitting of all what is clear to interlocutors from the situation. For illustration let’s compare shortened and full forms of utterances:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Shortened form** | **Full form** |
| 1. Hi! Haven’t seen you for ages. Where were you? 2. Drank beer. 3. No, I’m serious. What have you been doing all this time? 4. Went fishing with friends. Became an avid fisherman. | 1. Greetings to you! I haven’t seen you for ages. Where were you? 2. I drank beer. 3. No, I’m asking you seriously. What have you been doing all this time? 4. I went fishing with my friends. I became an avid fisherman. |

Economy of language means and efforts can be observed in the shortened form. There are 24 word usages in the given abstract of the discourse and 36 in the full form. Besides, clichés are used here, like: Hi! Where were you? Ok, bye, be healthy, etc. what is connected with the same idea of economy. It is also worth noticing that unambiguous meaning can be realized only in the discourse. For example, question “Where were you?” means not the interest to the interlocutor’s residence but to what he has been doing during the absence of contact (“Haven’t seen you for ages”). On the other hand, reverse tendency is observed in the discourse which is connected with the introduction of the additional elements. For example, “but I don’t give her anything” (16), where “but” doesn’t give new information in the propositional meaning but emphasizes it (surprise).

All in all, transparent syntax is characteristic for the discourse: predominance of simple sentences (interrogative and affirmative) which are not overloaded by participle and verbal participle turnovers.

Having finished investigation of methodology of pragmalinguistics it is necessary to underline one more time that the notion “communicative activity” is wider than the notions “language” and “thinking”, language is a tool and thinking is a substratum of this activity. Also it is necessary to remind that discourse reflects the whole volume of communication, exchange of thoughts in human interaction while text or one-sided discourse (monologue speech) can be observed only as prolonged speech act in written and oral forms linked only with the **transfer** of information. Both these phenomena are later formations in the history of humankind.

Pragmalinguistics completes the full circle on the spiral of language investigation. First thoughts about language in the ancient world were connected with the speech analysis in oral and written forms that is reflected in the interest in dialectics as an art of controversy and in rhetoric as an art of eloquence on one hand and in text grammar (Gr. gramme “letter, record”) on the other. Later interest to oral speech was lost (historical linguistics) and revived only with the connection to the development of dialectology (end of XIX century) and necessity to study unwritten languages (middle of XX century). However, this work was done as before on the level of sentences. Investigation of the text (1960s) and discourse (1980s) as holistic formations returned linguistics to the old problems but on a higher level of social and scientific development. Pragmalinguitics unlike one-sided models of analysis as a complex science about the communicative human activity hasn’t developed finally main procedure of linguistic analysis of the text and discourse, however the general approach and general steps in this direction are already quite clear and we’ve tried to demonstrate them in the course of our exposition. A lot must be done here, especially regarding discourse analysis.

1. Pragmalinguistics is an empirical scientific subject which requires taking into consideration a lot of background knowledge (this nation’s knowledge about the world, peculiarities of material and spiritual life, type of social organization), what is necessary for understanding and explanation of people’s speech actions in different life situations.
2. Since the quantity of such situations forms a multitude basing on the category of possible it is necessary to cover all **typical** life situations: education (teacher’s speech); explanation (professor’s lecture); message (mass media); grounding (science); argumentation (lawyer’s speech); investigation (interrogation, conversation of road police worker and a driver); recommendations ( talk of the doctor and a patient); decision of social problems (talk of an official and a visitor), etc.
3. Analysis of discourse and text requires taking into consideration communicants’ mental problems of speech actions regarding their intentions, communicative strategies and tactic in connection with the usage of verbal and non-verbal means of communication. Solving of all these problems requires not only taking into consideration internal and external linguistic factors but also interaction with other humanitarian and social subjects: psychology, sociology, ethnography, philosophy, etc.
4. Above given analysis on the form of algorithm for a person has a general character, each step includes a range of much smaller analytical actions which are needed to be investigated.

*Chapter VIII.* **Methods of mathematical statistics in linguistic researches.**

Mathematics as a science about quantitative relationships between objects and phenomena of real world takes an important place in modern scientific researches. It lacks subjectivity and provides maximum accuracy of the knowledge. It is found that a defined connection exists between qualitative and quantitative characteristics of objects.

Language and speech are first of all qualitative phenomena but in order to investigate them formal apparatus of mathematics can be used: for investigation of language as a systematic structural formation – apparatus of mathematical logic, for investigation of processes of language alterations in time and processes of speech formation in people’s communicative activity – apparatus of math statistics. Last direction is called linguistatistics and we will start to investigate it.

There are two main types of rules in our earthly conditions: so-called **determined laws** which are connected with absolute determination (Lat. determinare “define”), which acknowledges strict causal conditionality of phenomena of nature and society. Performance of determined laws are defined by the peculiarities of inner structure of the objects, which regulates their behavior in connection with certain external effect. For example, if we boil water to 100 degrees Celsius keeping the same conditions (water without impurities with pressure 670 mmHg) it turns from liquid state into steam and vice versa if we cool it with the same conditions to 0 degrees Celsius it turns into solid state, ice. Here we can observe strong causal relationships which have an imperative (Lat. imperativus “imperative, not admitting choice”) character having no exceptions in time and space. Such laws are also called the laws of nature.

Statistical-probabilistic laws rule the events which can happen and cannot happen. Each random event is defined not by the inner structure of the objects but by the specifics of effect on them of many random reasons. For example, if we toss a coin it can drop on the earth on one side “heads” or on the other “tails”. The range of random reasons (variables) which can be unidirectional or multidirectional can affect the behavior of the coin. In our case it can be form of the coin, the weight of the coin, wind speed, air density, etc. It’s impossible to predict the behavior of the coin. But if random events (heads or tails) are observed with the same conditions many times, they comply with defined laws and quantity of having heads or tails are determined by two numbers – end of the interval of variables: “from” and “to”. Activity of statistical laws are connected mainly with the life of nature (animals, plants) and human being, they underlie communicative speech formation which is influenced by a range of variables, such as mind and mentality of the speaker (writer), his communicative intention, stock of his knowledge about the world, interlocutor’s character, peculiarities of situation of communication, etc. Hence the laws of functioning and changing of the language can be only statistical (Golovin (1971); Muller (1972); Nosenko (1981), etc.

1. *Content and aims of linguostatistic analysis*

Linguostatistics is a science about the usage of methods of math statistics in linguistics. In our case it is about the text statistics. It is possible to count all what can sampled in the text: phonemes, morphemes, words, word combinations, sentences, but it is not possible to count or explain in number the mind of donor of information, his communicative intention, reasons of choosing language means, his attitude to the recipient, etc. Consequently, it is important for a linguistic investigation not only to get quantitative data about the language but also interpret them **qualitatively**.

**The aim** of statistical text analysis:

1. Define lexical and grammatical richness of the given text or complex of texts;
2. Determine peculiarities of individual style of the author, his means of influencing the reader;
3. Investigate specifics of separate functional styles (sublanguages of science, mass media, literature);
4. Define the basics of collecting and classification of language data which were taken as a result of observation or as a result of experiments done according to the aims of investigation;
5. Compilation of frequency dictionaries.
6. ***Definition of main terms***

* **General complex** is a complex of all texts of the given author or the given functional style or a concrete sublanguage of the science (linguistics, economics, architecture, etc.). It is possible to investigate the whole given complex but it will take large material and time efforts. In relation to this a limited amount of objects is chosen from the general complex to be analyzed.
* **Chosen complex** or **selection** is a sample from the general complex of a particular size. Selection must be representative (Lat. representatif “representative, exponential”), i.e. it must represent the general complex correctly.

Numeric expression of coefficient *t* changes in relation to the number of selection and desired reliability of . It is defined according to the following table:

|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **n** |  | ***t*** | **n** |  | ***t*** |
| 5 | 0.95 | 2.78 | 15 | 0.95 | 2.15 |
| 10 | 0.95 | 2.76 | 20 | 0.95 | 2.09 |

For example, if we have 5 selections and reliability 0.95 (95% of observed frequencies out of 100 will not go beyond the frames of statistical probability ().

With 10 selections *t*=2.26, with 15 *t*=2.15, etc.

With the help of defining of evaluation accuracy of distribution of the observed frequencies () it is possible to achieve significant accuracy with the small amount of samples. While conducting linguistic investigation it is the most convenient to take 10 samples for calculation with reliability 92% (out of 100!) and coefficient *t=*2 (Gmurman 42,464; Golovin 43, 26-27).

* **Statistical probability of the studied phenomenon** () among other phenomena equals: = , i.e. value of changes of observed frequencies will be in the limit: “from” x- “to” x+.

1. ***Methods of lingvostatistical analysis***

For defining statistical probability () of a concrete phenomenon it is necessary to perform a sequence of operations (algorithm).

1. Define the number of samples from the general complex on the basis of random selection or using a table of random numbers (Appendix №4). We take 5 samples of 500 word usages (*n*=5);
2. Define selection frequency (x1) for each selection separately: x1=28; x2=33; x3=36; x4=42; x5=46.
3. Define the sum of selected frequencies:
4. Define the middle selected frequency using a formula:

We have

1. Define deviation of each selected frequency from the middle (a1=x1-

a1=28-37=-9; a2=33-37=-4; a3=36-37=-1;

a4=42-37=+5; a5=49-37=+9

1. Define the squares of deviations on each sample (without taking into consideration signs +/-):

(7)Calculate the sum of squares of deviations which equals:

(8)Define middle square deviation using formula:

(9)Define the evaluation accuracy of distribution of the observed frequencies with reliability =0.95 (*t*=2.78).

(10)Define statistically probable evaluation of the studied phenomenon ().

= , =

Hence, the trusted interval has the following borders:

from : = 37-8=29; to: = .

For visibility and convenience of calculation it can be represented in the form of the following table:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Number of samples,** | **Selected frequency,** | **Deviation of selected frequency from middle,** | **Square of deviations,** |
| 1 |  | 28-37=-9 | 81 |
| 2 |  | 33-37=-4 | 16 |
| 3 |  | 36-37=-1 | 1 |
| 4 | =42 | 42-37=5 | 25 |
| 5 |  | 46-37=9 | 81 |
|  |  |  |  |

**Sequence of operations:**

1. Defining of the sum of selected frequencies :
2. Defining of the middle selected frequency:
3. Define the deviation of selected frequencies from middle:
4. Define the squares of deviations for each sample.
5. Define the sum of squares of deviations:
6. Define the middle square deviation:
7. Define the coefficient of accuracy of t with the given amount of samples (n=5) and with the given level of reliability =0.95 in the table: *t*=2.78.
8. Define the evaluation accuracy of distribution:
9. Define the statistically possible value of the studied phenomenon: = = (from 29 to 45)

In our case only goes beyond the borders of the trusted interval, i.e. it is in those 5% which go beyond the level of reliability ( and consequently, it has an accidental character admitted by the statistical theory: instead of the boarder of interval -45,

How accidental this deviation is we can check using “He-square” in a special table (Golovin, 43, 31).

There is a simpler way of defining admissibility of deviation value from the trusted interval using formula:

Deviation to 40% is considered acceptable. In our case deviation has an accidental character and is acceptable (Golovin, 43, 35-36).

Some authors consider that in linguistic investigations we can do without defining “He-square” or coefficient of variability.

Before we’ve considered methods of statistical analysis taking into consideration mainly written speech. However, it doesn’t mean that we cannot use statistical analysis for oral speech (Turko 15,192) and other problems connected with the existence and functioning of the language (Digests “Statistics of speech” (1968); “Math linguistics” (1964) and monograph by R.M. Herz (1974), etc.). It is necessary to underline one more time that usage of mathematical methods and tools (math logic, math statistics) in linguistics is not the main aim but only one of subsidiary means of increase of objectivity and accuracy in the investigation of such a complicated phenomenon as a natural language. Mathematical data has flesh and blood only if they have qualitative (linguistic) interpretation.

**Chapter IX. Methods and ways of applied linguistic researches**

Like every other science, linguistics possesses two main directions: fundamental and applied. Fundamental linguistics is a science about language and its substantial, functional and pragmatic properties. These problems were discussed above. Results that were taken through such kind of investigation widen up our knowledge on language as a phenomenon of objective reality, it returns to linguistics, by that providing its progress.

Applied linguistics – is a branch of linguistics which is directed to solve practical problems connected with the language usage, which means to go out of the border of fundamental sciences and refer to other aspects of human existence. These problems are: to create the script and its reformation, to make a system of stenography and scripting for blind people, to solve the problems of usage and standardize the science terminology, to design rules for ordinary and mechanical translation, to create artificial languages of first (Esperanto, Ido, Volapük) and second (ALGOL, BASIC) order. However, one of the oldest fields of practical application of linguistic sciences is linguodidactics i.e. the method of teaching mother tongue and second (foreign) language.

There is not only tight connection between fundamental and applied sciences but there is also important differences. Fundamental science – is a constant discussion, clash of different views on object and methods of research. Applied science is where the discussion ends, problems may be solved only on the basis of knowledge about the object, checked by social practice and applied by majority of scientists. The connection between fundamental and applied science is obvious and confirmed by the development of modern civilization (compare the success of natural sciences and their influence on people’s lives, the creation of new transportation system, new means of communication, new technology, new drugs and methods of treating etc.). In this context, it is also important to consider the success of teaching first and second languages. The connection between theory and practice has a deeper basis: the development of theory helps to solve practical problems and the solution of practical problems leads to theory improvement. However, not every linguistic theory can help to solve practical problems connected, for example, with the teaching of second (foreign) language. The matter of connection of linguistics and methods generally is positive, although the problem of interaction and inter-influence remains open up to these days. Some think that the success of teaching language, developed the linguistic theory which is connected with the progress of descriptive grammar of Latin in the beginning of our era, connected with the evaluation of comparative-historical linguistics on reading and analyzing religious texts and certainly connected with the attention to structural methods of teaching languages orally. Others claim the opposite, that success in linguistics stimulated the development of methods in language teaching: comparative-historical linguistics built up the way to grammatical-translational method and the attention to linguistics set up the way to a native speakers’ speech and non-scripted languages (end of 19c beginning of 20c) which in its turn, put the light into so-called direct method of language teaching. The last point of view contributed to an opinion that the method of teaching is the applied linguistics itself (L.V. Scherba). Both of the opinions represent the two poles of a stick, which means that the truth is somewhere near in between.

It is well known, that language-teaching methods stand on three main columns, such as: linguistics, psychology and general didactics (the theory of learning). The mixture of these aspects of knowledge makes the methodology specific, bordered and scientific discipline with its object and methods of cognition. The methodology of foreign language teaching methods has its complex characteristics. We, however, are going to highlight only those problems of linguodidactics, which have a direct connection to language sciences.

1. ***Principles of teaching non-native language.***

Traditional basics of non-native language teaching is based on general-didactic principles of any learning from the position of a learner, teacher (from simple to complex, one problem at once etc.) and they can be related to any taught subjects (physics, biology, history, literature etc.) and compose the general methodology of learning methods. These positions are crucial to linguodidactics as well. However, the method of teaching of any subject requires taking into account the specific features of taught subjects (the language – in our case) and taught person (the student). Linguistic and psycholinguistic moments (the relation “man – language”) exactly are considered relevant for working out scientific basis on teaching native and non-native (foreign) languages. In relation to this, it is important to highlight the specific features of teaching at school non-native language in comparison to a native language. **Firstly**, when child goes to school he/she already knows some basic forms of mother tongue and the aim is to teach some theory of a language (as parts of speech, conjugation, declension etc.), to expand the vocabulary and to develop writing skills. Starting to learn a foreign language the student first, has to learn to speak, to pronounce words, have lexical and grammatical cognition of foreign language in practical way. Secondly, the mother tongue is learned by a child from his childhood, through environment, without teachers and books and thus, implements his/her natural skills of language learning by real life communication. A foreign language is learned by a child in artificial conditions with a help of teachers and books, and the notion of native language may influence the learning process positively as well as negatively.

Hence, private methodological basis of non-native language teaching must take into account all these circumstances and look at teaching process from the learner’s angle – homo sapiens and homo loquens i.e wise man and speaking man.

Main principles of teaching L2 from the position of learner can be formulated as such:

1. *The principle of relying on native language*

A learner who is to start learning a new language already possesses one communication system – his/her native language. These two systems interact with each other in the process of learning and the native language influence not only positively (facilitation <*lat*. facilio – “easy”>) on acquiring L2, but also negatively (interference <*lat*. entre – “between” + ferir “to strike”> ) Attenuation of interfering impact of native language on a speech in L2 can be achieved through **theory of language contact and bilingualism.**

1. *The principle of communicative teaching*

The main goal of foreign language teaching method is to tech learners to develop communicating skills i.e real communication through verbal and non-verbal means. Since oral speech is primary in relation to written speech, dialogic oral speech with interchangeable roles “speaker <-> listener” **(discourse theory)** comes first, and only then written speech **(text theory)**

1. *The principle of lingua-country-studies*

This principle is based on necessity of taking into account tight connection between language and culture (ethnolinguistic). The acquisition of foreign language in practical lessons should be organized not only by considering national-specific meanings of words and phrases, but also with gaining a knowledge in material (food, clothes, accommodation) and spiritual (traditions, beliefs, customs, values) spheres. Lingua-country-study is applied linguistics.

1. *The principle of educational materials minimization*

This principle is connected with the fact that the teaching hours for non-native language learning are usually very limited. Various high educational institutions have different amount of teaching hours, hundreds of hours for technical institutions, whereas thousands of hours for foreign language faculties. In every case, this circumstance requires definition of micro language of teaching; since every national language is a complicated, multidimensional, structural and systematic formation, then the principle of minimization concerns first of all, lexis (selection of minimum vocabulary) and grammar (setting up grammatical minimum). Linguastatistics is the main solution of all these problems.

1. *The principle of time sequence consideration in the assimilation of*

*educational grammar materials* is based on considerations below: grammatical level of a language builds up complicated and closed system, through which words and phrases gain their communicative significance. The summation of all grammatical categories (conjugation, declension) and sentences’ models (syntax) cannot be acquired at once. Observations of L1 acquisition have shown that grammatical system of a language is acquired gradually and completes only by the age of 5. The acquisition of practical grammar in conditions of focused learning should be build up the same way. It can be achieved on the basis of psycholinguistics data about the laws of L1 acquisition.

By reviewing the principles of non-native language teaching, we pointed out those linguistic theories that can improve the whole process of learning. The list above shows how irrelevant are some spheres of modern linguistic in teaching non-native (foreign) language, and it’s just a part of it.

They are: theory of language contacts, linguastatistics, psycholinguistics, ethnolinguistics and pragmalinguistics (theory of text and discourse). Besides, it is important to highlight the fact that methodology of linguadidactics is not just a simple incorporation of linguistic methods to methodic but its adaptation for specific and pedagogic solutions. It is not build up based on one linguistic method but usually carries a complex feature.

One more comment worth mentioning. The methods of teaching foreign languages have achieved significant success last few years. There is no need to change anything drastically or make a revolution. To develop taking into account the success of the methodic and complex sciences as linguistics, psychology and general didactics would be decision that is more sensible. There are two ways of improving the teaching process: intensification and optimization.

**Intensification** – it is the improvement of teaching method during the lesson with the aim to enlarge the time of teaching to intense (*fr*. intensif “strained, stressed”) trainings on different types of speaking skills. This is connected with the compression of a lesson through unshortening non-communicative activities (explanation of materials, checking up a home task, analysis of sentences and errors etc.) and on the one hand, with increase of time on speaking activities through usage of technical means of teaching and group and pair work on the other.

**Optimization** - it is the improvement of the content of teaching itself considering specialty of students and amount of time allotted by curriculum for foreign language teaching.

Pedagogical practice like every other activity consists of two stages: **projecting** (programming) phase connected with a selection and regulation of teaching materials and **implementation** phase – practical work directly with the learner.

In other words, projecting phase is a **stage before the lesson**, defining the subject of teaching and designing the suitable program, manuals and textbooks. Implementation phase is a stage **during the lesson** for achieving goals. Both these phases are in bilateral dependence. Projecting phase is a foundation of practical stage, and practical stage stimulates the development of projecting phase (improvement of manuals and textbooks). Theoretical basis of projecting (before the lesson) phase optimization is linguistics whereas, theoretical basis of during the lesson stage improvement is speech and behavioral psychology and the theory of general didactics teaching. During the further exposition, some problems of teaching process optimization will be reviewed with the help of applied linguistics.

1. ***Definition of interlanguage of teaching***

Every natural language represents a huge wealth, while teaching process is limited in time and textbooks (written and electronic) have limited capacity. Thereby the most important problem in optimization of teaching process is the limitation of teaching materials.

1. *The content and aims of research*

Any levels and plans of a language can be susceptible to a contraction as systematic and structural formation. Units (paradigmatic) and the rules of their functioning (syntagmatic) are the base of speech production and communication. The challenge is to choose the most relevant material from the vast language system and be able to provide it despite the time limitations, curriculum changes and make sure that the material could help the acquisition of speaking and writing skills: from basic exchange of ideas on certain topics to fluent user of a foreign language. Lexis and phraseology needs the most restriction, then does grammar and the least limitation needs the pronunciation (phonetics). Thus, interlanguage of teaching cannot be the same for every form of teaching and educational institutions. In connection with said above, it is important to solve such problems as:

1. Limit the academic vocabulary taking into account aims and time parameters.
2. Organize the vocabulary according to the topics.
3. Restrict grammar materials and order them by foreign language acquisition stages.
4. *Definition of basic concepts*

**Interlanguage** – limited (shortened) model of a language as a goal of teaching in certain cases.

**Minimum-vocabulary** – the complex of words of interlanguage teaching, selected by aims (learners’ specialty) and time parameters (amount of teaching hours for a certain course).

**Active/passive vocabulary. Active vocabulary** (*lat*. activus “busy”) – summation of words in a particular language a user needs to produce and understand the speech. **Passive vocabulary** (*lat*. passivus “receptive”) - summation of words in a particular language that user understands when receives oral or written speech but cannot produce himself.

**Statistical activity of a vocabulary** defines by the rang (place) of its elements in frequency list and by the area it covers in any text of a particular language. It is considered that 1 300 most frequent words cover 77% of the text; 2 000 words – 80%; 3 000 words – 85%; 4 000 words – 88% and 5 500 words – 92% of any text. It should be noted that, all parts of speech are took into account and most frequent are not main parts of speech but supporting ones (articles, conjunctions, prepositions and axillary words). If we look at active part of main words, we get such information: nouns – 42%; adjectives – 13%; verbs – 25%; adverbs – 10%. This lexis should be included to active minimum-vocabulary.

**Disposable lexis** – dominating words of a particular language stored in a memory of a language user and used often in appropriate situations, but those that not included in most frequent 1000 words. Difference between frequency of the word and its presence in a memory of the user is important achievement of French scholars (*see* Lapidus 107, 43-48).

**Index Ingve (I) –** measurement of human capability to perceive and store certain time 7+- 2 units of information in his memory in form of unconnected words. 45 minutes (academic hour) are taken as a unit of time. That means, it is possible to introduce and primarily consolidate from 5 to 9 words in an hour (*see* Ingve 63,127).

1. *Research methods*

It is been found that human gets 80% of information about external world through lexis. Lexical material defines the content of non-native language teaching. Therefore, we will discuss the selection of minimum-vocabulary first. There are several approaches on minimizing academic lexis. The most convenient method was introduced by French scholars G. Gugeniem (46) and R. Michea (120) (*see* Karlinskiy 75, 4).

In this case, minimum-vocabulary consists of three parts, selection of which can be done through different methods: **first part – nuclear vocabulary** is selected with the help of **linguastatistics** and builds 50% of all the capacity of academic vocabulary; **second part – disposable lexis** is defined by psycholinguistical experiments and makes 35% of a general vocabulary; **third part – complementary lexis** (*lat*. complementum “addition”) is established with the help of expert review method and contains 15% of minimum-vocabulary. It is clear from the written below, that minimum-vocabulary is not a homogeneous in terms of its method of defining and whole process of vocabulary minimizing carries complex feature also can be presented as an algorithm for a human:

**A minimum-vocabulary defining algorithm**

1. To define a general capacity of academic vocabulary considering time parameters.
2. To determine a nuclear part of active vocabulary.
3. To find a disposable lexis.
4. To spread the defined vocabulary by teaching topics.
5. To define a complementary part of an academic vocabulary.
6. To establish a correlation between generally-used and terminological vocabulary considering aiming parameters.

Let us review steps of an algorithm precisely.

**Step 1: Definition of a general capacity of academic vocabulary considering time parameters.**

In different types of educational institutions, certain amount of hours on teaching non-native (foreign) language assigned by curriculum. For instance, take 300 hours (for non-specialized faculties). Considering the importance of lexis for communication, let us have a half of this time for explanation, primarily consolidation of a vocabulary and for oral practice i.e. 300:2=150. Using index Ingve (I= 7+-2 words per hour) find a whole capacity of academic vocabulary which can get the skills level: minimum-vocabulary: 150x5=750 and optimum-vocabulary: 150x9=1 350 words. In other words, the border of academic vocabulary is from 750 to 1 350 units, while average capacity of academic vocabulary (150x7=1 120) for the complete teaching period equals 1 120 units. This index should be orientated during the organization of teaching process in this institution.

Let us have another example of defining an active academic vocabulary for special institutions. According to 4 year curriculum on “German language and literature” specialty (1998) 718 hours are given for oral practice (not counting hours for practical phonetics and grammar). The capacity of active vocabulary for each year group will be as such:

**Table 9**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Year group** | **Number of hours** | **Hours for lexis** | **Minimum-vocabulary (I=5)** | **Optimum-vocabulary (I=9)** | **Average capacity of a vocabulary (I=7)** | **Capacity of a passive vocabulary** |
| 1 | 210 | 105 | 525 | 945 | 735 | 1 470 |
| 2 | 172 | 86 | 430 | 774 | 602 | 1 204 |
| 3 | 204 | 102 | 510 | 918 | 714 | 1 428 |
| 4 | 132 | 66 | 330 | 594 | 462 | 924 |
| Total | 718 | 359 | 1 795 | 3 231 | 2 513 | 5 026 |

*Notes:*

1. During the whole period students should learn 2 513 active words. Depending on skills and amount of teaching the capacity of an individual vocabulary may fluctuate from 1 795 to 3 231 units.
2. Active vocabulary capacity of 2 500 units provides communication almost on every topic of daily life.
3. It is considered that the capacity of passive vocabulary of an average, educated native speaker is twice bigger than his active vocabulary (*see* Abramov 2, 97).

For Russian language, it is 10 thousand of active and 20 thousand of passive vocabulary. For non-native (foreign) language, this index should be four times less i.e. 2 513 words for active vocabulary and 5 026 words for passive vocabulary respectively.

**Step 2: Determination of a nuclear part of active vocabulary.**

A nuclear part of an active vocabulary (it is 50% of all academic vocabulary!) is defined by appropriate frequency vocabularies. However, it is important to remember a circumstance: as we mentioned above, articles, conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, axillary verbs and primitive adverbs (those that are not formed from adjectives) take a significant place among most frequent words. They are in every text despite its content. However, these most frequent words, which grammar reviews, are not the carriers of information about the world but nouns, verbs and adjectives. Although they occupy lower rang among most frequent words they must be included in 50% of active vocabulary.

In examples we discussed, the nuclear vocabulary for not linguistic educational institutions contains 50% from 1 350 units i.e. 675 words ((1 350:100)x50=675), and for specialized faculties 1 256 words ((2 513:100)x50=1 256). This vocabulary has to be split up into topics because the usage of them depend on subjects.

**Step 3: Finding a disposable lexis.**

Disposable lexis, which should build up 35% of academic vocabulary, is found through psycholinguistic tests with the involvement of informants for whom this particular language is native. Our examples in quantitative correlation of disposable lexis for not linguistic educational institutions will be - 472 units (1 350:100x35=472) and for specialized faculties (“German language and literature”) - 879 words (2 513:100x35=879).

Following types of test exercises are used:

1. Write down 20 meaningful words (nouns, adjectives and verbs) given by a curriculum, you would need to talk about certain topics (accommodation, clothes, food etc.)
2. Write down all the phrases you know and you would need to use on certain topic.
3. Describe the following pictures (pictures are selected according topics taught).

Data gained through such method then statistically processed and lexemes not included in basic vocabulary of academic lexicon, builds up its disposable part.

Some difficulties may occur during the experiment but they are avoidable.

**Firstly**, it might be difficult to collect number of informants, if teaching language is foreign in the country. In that case, psycholinguistic experiment can be performed in native language of a learner, and the collected data can be translated into appropriate language considering cultural features of both nations.

Secondly, disposable lexis can be defined with the help of specific consideration of a lexis and different dictionaries by the **relative lexical isolation** criteria (associative connection in a particular thematic group). For example, the word “house” is in basic lexemes but the words “window, door, wall, roof etc.” are not, they easily can be set by association. Second criteria to set a disposable vocabulary is **typical lexical environment** which is based on compatibility of lexemes in a speech (according to compatibility dictionaries). For example, house – big, little, paternal, in a garden, in a forest etc. (*see* Suprun 165,111).

Moreover, it is possible to perform associative experiments (paradigmatic and syntagmatic) on key words of basic vocabulary in native language and then translate them into foreign language.

Such vocabulary should be compared with basic one and should be included in disposable lexicon if they are not in basic (frequent) vocabulary.

**Step 4: Division of defined vocabulary by teaching topics.**

Basic part of academic vocabulary is usually presented in a list in descending order of frequency or by alphabetical order. Lessons (and textbooks) of speech practice are organized by thematic principle. In connection with this, it is very important to set up all teaching vocabulary by teaching topics according to curriculum for a particular group. From the very beginning, disposable vocabulary (in any type of text) is selected by thematic principle. It is good to spread the basic vocabulary on its basis just by logical way in appropriate themes. For instance, for the topic “accommodation” the words such as – house, apartment, kitchen etc. must be presented by their paradigmatic connections.

**Step 5: Defining a complementary part of an academic vocabulary**.

Complementary lexis of a vocabulary, which constitutes 15% of general academic lexicon, is defined through expert review. For non-linguistic educational institutions quantity of it is – 202 ((1 350:100)x15=202) units, for linguistic educational institutions – 377 ((2 513:100)x15=377) lexemes. The teachers of non-native (foreign) language with huge and positive experience in working in class act as experts in this case (preferably they should possess this language as their native). The vocabulary selected with the help of linguistic method may not satisfy practical needs of a learner in class. These problems can be withdrawn through an experienced teacher by polishing academic vocabulary to perfection. So the active academic vocabulary of foreign language according to time parameters in curriculum looks as such:

**For non-linguistic educational institutions** – 1 350 units (676 (50% nuclear vocabulary) + 473 (35% disposable lexis) + 202 (15% complimentary lexis)

**For linguistic educational institutions** (“German language and literature”) – 2 513 units (1 256 (50% nuclear vocabulary) + 879 (35% disposable lexis) + 377 (15% complimentary lexis).

**Step 6: Establishing a correlation between generally-used and terminological vocabulary** considering aiming parameters. All the examples and index performed above are precise and concern humanitarian educational institutions. They are given in rounding and some fluctuations do not go out the border. Teaching foreign languages at non-linguistic educational institutions has its own specific features, which worth mentioning while preparing textbooks and practical tasks in class. Students of non-linguistic educational institutions should have speaking skills not only for communicating with people of learnt language but also with foreign colleagues and to read authentic materials on their working sphere. It is connected with skillful use of terminological vocabulary in particular profession. However, the terminological variety of sciences are different. For example, in such sphere as “Physical education and sport” there are less terms than in “Medicine” and engineering area has more than medical so on (*see* Postoev 142,4) The correlation between generally-used and terminological vocabulary depending on students’ specialty still hasn’t been set up. In our opinion, active terminological vocabulary must fluctuate in borders with complementary vocabulary (15% +- 5%) i.e. in spheres like “Physical education and sport” – 10%, medicine – 15%, engineering specialties – 20% of general academic vocabulary. It is possible to find optimum through method of linguastatistics (research special texts) or through expert review by attracting professionals of this sphere, preferably those who possess foreign language.

The selection of active academic vocabulary for teaching school and university students is a crucial aim of linguistic optimization of teaching process. One must admit, this may cause some difficulties like in organizing the teaching process itself but also in the sphere of applied linguistics. Let us highlight some of them again:

1. All textbooks (especially stable ones) are set up thematically and active vocabulary in them are constructed intuitionally based on experience. Complex selection of vocabulary considering time and aiming parameters will let some specification in textbooks already exist and will let make new more scientifically reasonable.
2. It is not always possible to perform psycholinguistic experiment in order to find disposable lexis and set up words by topics attracting native speaker informants of a certain foreign language. In that case, psycholinguistic experiment can be performed in native language of a learner, and the collected data can be translated into appropriate language considering cultural features of both nations.
3. A problem of correlation between generally-used and terminological lexis for non-linguistic educational institutions is not solved yet. This aim can be achieved through statistic observation of appropriate language and through expert review of professionals in this sphere.
4. ***Selection and ordering of grammatical teaching materials***

The main function of grammatical units is different from lexical units (nominative function), it is to connect the later to a whole in speech (congruent function). Grammatical meanings are obligatory because none of the utterances cannot be formed without them while lexical meanings are optional; they depend on situations and speaker’s intentions. This feature of grammatical units and meanings allow us their selection through just statistical method taking into account difference on humanitarian and technical educational institutions. For example, voice forms (passive/active) and constructions in German texts look as such:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **#** | **Verbal forms and constructions** | **Technical texts (in %)** | **Literature texts (in %)** |
| 1 | Passive voice (passiv) | 20,4 | 6,1 |
| 2 | Modal verbs + infinitive II | 7,6 | 1,1 |
| 3 | Condition (sein + Partizip II) | 7,0 | 1,9 |
| 4 | Modal verbs + infinitive I | 4,9 | 8,9 |
| 5 | Perfekt + Plusquaperfect Ind. | 2,3 | 12,5 |

The table above shows that in technical texts forms and constructions of passive voice/condition prevail over literature texts (active voice). Some methodical conclusions can be made: in technical educational institutions, the attention should be paid to passive voice, whereas in humanitarian educational institutions to active voice. It is necessary to investigate statistically the texts on certain specialty in order to define grammatical minimum. For example, microsystem of English verbs on specialty “Medicine” (*see* Artemov 13,28) look as such:

1. **Productive use:** Present/Past Indefinit; Present/Past Perfect; Future Indefinit (5 forms in total out of 14!)
2. **Receptive use:** Future in the past; Present Continuous; Past Continuous (3 forms in total)
3. **Impersonal forms of verbs:** Infinitive Active; Past Participle; ing-Form (3 forms out of 6!)

Unfortunately, the data has been collected through statistic researches of written texts. The definition of communicative values in conditions of a discourse (one of the most important goals in non-native language teaching) can be achieved only by researching the discourse itself through linguastatistic methods.

The selection and limitation of grammatical teaching materials considering aiming and time parameters doesn’t solve all the problems of non-native language teaching process optimization. The problem is, teaching process itself is not an immediate act but always takes time. The research of regularities of native language acquisition by a child (psycholinguistic problem!) has shown that this very process has a strict sequence of stages in grammar material adoption. A child starts speaking in his mother tongue at the age of 18+-3 months and completes adoption of systematic, stable forms and rules of grammar level only by 6 years. Stadial character, that we observe, in this case is universal and has no sociocultural, racial and language attachment of people. In general, 3 main phases can be highlighted within which, there are some other specific sequence of separate grammatical forms.

1. The acquisition of grammatical formation by a child always starts with a **monoverbal phase** of statement (word-sentence), when thoughts expressed in undifferentiated way. Such kind of word-sentences can be interpreted differently depending on communicative situations. It is impossible to understand it in not-specific situations. Take monolexeme ‘mum’ which might mean: Mum, come here! Mum, I want to eat! Mum is good. I love mum. I want my mum. Mum, take me! It is my mum etc. It is very important that, language acquisition starts, in the level of communicative pragmatics i.e. in conditions of specific communicative situation. Grammar is not used.
2. However the speech starts getting complicated and grammatical development of a child begins with two-worded phase, in ungrammatical form first (apple give! “Give me apple”). Later with proper grammatical formation (Want an apple, give an apple, apple is tasty).
3. As a result, child’s rapid growth of grammatical competence begins and completes at the third stage (4-5 years old), when the speech is close to a competent user of that language.

Within the last two grammatical phases, there are some sequences in acquiring morphology and syntax of a mother tongue.

Through child’s speech observations, such sequences possessions of English language morphology has been noted:

**1st stage:** personal pronouns; prepositions in, on; Present Indef.; 1-2 person singular; the imperative; possessive case of nouns.

**2nd stage:** linking verbs; axillary verbs; plural form of nouns; articles; -ing participle.

**3rd stage:** possessive pronouns; regular and irregular verbs in Past Indef.; 3rd person singular verbs in Present Indef.; irregular plurals of nouns.

Sequential and ordered acquisition is inherent to syntax as well. Let us review it in example of child’s question form sentences acquisition.

**1st stage:** Questions are formed by intonation (rising tone is on two-worded phase)

Compare: Germ. Auto weg? Du spielen?

Eng. Ball go? Jim, you finish?

**2nd stage:** This is a stage of general questions which consists of three consistent steps: first, the question is formed by intonation with no inversion of a verb, then with inversion of linking or modal verbs and only then come constructions with inversion of main or axillary verbs.

Compare: Germ. (1) Christa nicht kommt? 🡪 (2) Bist du bleib hier? 🡪

(3) Kommt sie heute?

Eng. (1) Joe, you want to go home? 🡪 (2) Is it hot dogs?/

Can me have it? 🡪(3) Do you see this jump?

**3rd stage:** Possession of structures with particular question (sentences with question words).

Acquisition of these forms require solvation of several mental problems from a learner.

1. To realize that particular question is much different from general question.
2. To learn that question word always comes first no matter what part of speech it refers to.
3. To understand lexical meanings of question words (*see* Feliks 194,39).

In acquisition of question words, there is also universal sequence.

**Table 10**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **#** | **German language** | **English language** | **French language** | **Kazakh language** | **Russian language** | **Type of relations** |
| 1 | Wo | What | Ou | Қайда | Где | Object-locative |
| Was | Where | Que | Не | Что |
| 2 | Wer | Who | Qui | Кім | Кто | Subject- occasional |
| Wie | How | Comment | Қалай | Как |
| 3 | Wann | When | Quand | Қашан | Когда | Temporal-causal |
| Warum | Why | Pourquoi | Неге | Почему |

Only after acquisitionof these three pair of six questions in order, one can learn the rest such as: which, whom etc.

Therefore, according to psycholinguistics, we see that natural acquisition of language and its grammatical subsystems are not chaotic but hierarchical from easiest to harder. This ordered structure is different from linguistic and it should be taken into account while organizing a teaching process considering the age of learners and the principle of relying on native language. In addition, it is important to consider the fact that acquisition of mother tongue by a child develops gradually and recording appropriate stages are relevant for classroom conditions.

1. ***Creation of methodological typology of teaching materials***

When study a new language (non-native) the learner already has one communicative system – his/her mother tongue. He/she owns the mother tongue on a level of skills and automatisms that are not controlled by conscious. Our conscious controls only the meaning of speech but not the units and rules of a particular language.

During the process of language learning, one has to become a bilingual person who automatically uses units and rules of an alien language in order to communicate.

At the same time, the acquisition of non-native language does not develop separately, but with the interaction of mother tongue. Like in every other activity a human being tries to use skills he/she already possess in order to learn another similar activity. From a psycholinguistic point of view, laws of speaking activity in different languages are equal. The differences mainly occur in language and culture peculiarities that an individual has.

Transfer of skills once drawn by solving problems A (mother tongue) to solvation of tasks B (non-native) is a natural psycholinguistic process which is investigated through theory of language contacts and bilingualism. It is been proved that there is a cooperation between native and non-native languages that affect on acquisition of the later. This cooperation twice influences a bilingual person: either positively or negatively.

Positive skill transformation or in other words, **facilitation** (*lat*. fasilitas “ease”), takes place when separate units and rules of both languages coincide. For example, in Kazakh (native) there are such phonemes as |l, a, ᶇ | that make learning the same German (non-native) units easier.

Compare: g/ laᶇ 🡪 laᶇ/k

**Notes**: This example is read as such: German (g) /laᶇ/ will be pronounced in Kazakh (k) as /laᶇ/ i.e. identical.

Negative skill transformation or in other words, **interference** (*lat*. inter “between” + ferens “ to carry”) is connected with the use of own language units and rules instead of alien.

Compare: g/ laᶇ 🡪 lan/r where the Russian speaker (r) will pronounce German (g) /ᶇ/ as its own /n/.

It is considered that number of errors in foreign speech caused by interference of native language can reach up to 70% of all errors. Therefore, typological peculiarities of interacted languages (ratio of similar and different) significantly affect on a quality of foreign speech of learners and define the level of difficulty while they acquire the alien language.

1. *The content and the aims*

Set up the level of difficulty for learners with particular mother tongue while acquiring another language (non-native or foreign) is the most important objective in optimization of teaching process. It allows predicting and preventing speech errors instead of correcting them and explaining constantly. One should remember that to own a foreign language in short period is impossible. Only through errors and by intensive trainings in the class, perfect speech production can be achieved.

The awareness of difficulties on the way of a learner may ease or even speed up the process.

The main purpose of non-native language teaching optimization in classes is the creation of methodological typology of teaching materials by levels of difficulties of its acquisition, for certain, contingent of learners. This needs a special design of researching process in order to prevent the particular cases of interference in all three levels: pronunciation, lexical semantics, grammatical semantics and pragmatic level.

1. *Main concepts of language contact theory*

**Bilingualism** – the alternate use of two languages by an individual or a group in order to communicate.

**Bilingual** – the person, who uses two languages in order to communicate (regardless of second language acquisition degree).

**First language (L1)** – the earliest language that an individual learns to speak without a mediator in the form of books and teachers i.e. learns through direct method and from the environment.

**Second language (L2)** – a language that has been acquired after L1 in natural surroundings of a learnt language or in artificial (indoor) environment.

**Clear** **(coordinative)** **bilingualism** means to possess the second language on a level of competent user of a certain language (language balance).

**Mixed (subordinative) bilingualism** is characterized by flawed possession of second language with different types of speech errors (domination of L1).

**Interference** (*see* above) might be potential i.e. set up theoretically through contrasted events (units or rules) of contacting languages considering psychological laws of skills transformation. The interference observed in bilingual’s speech in L2 is called real.

1. ***Methods and ways of creation of methodological typology of L2 teaching materials***

Cognition of mechanisms and interference types on different levels of language system is a base of creation of methodological typology of L2 teaching materials by increasing the degree of difficulty for acquisition according to L1 speakers’ data.

Complex research procedure was designed for this purpose, and got the name **dialingual analysis of contacting languages** (*see* Karlinskyi 71,103).

Dialingual analysis can be introduces as 5 staged algorithm, which has the description of language systems in contact at the start, and finishes with methodological typology of L2 teaching materials.

**Algorithm of dialingual analysis of languages.**

1. Events’ description of interacting languages in three levels (phonetics, lexis and grammar) and two plans (paradigmatic, syntagmatic).

2. Definition of potential interference fields through contrastive analysis of corresponding facts of two languages.

3. Prediction of particular types of potential interference based on universal rules of skills transformation.

4. Receipt of list of real interference through performing psycholinguistic experiment with attraction of informants.

5. Definition of methodological typology of L2 teaching materials based on statistic characteristics of separate types of real interference.

Let us review certain ways of dialingual analysis on phonetic-phonologic level in artificial bilingualism of Kazakh (L1) and German (L2) (subsystem of noisy consonants).

**Step 1:** Description of consonant contact languages (paradigmatic) in united terms and from united theoretical positions. In order to have visual and comfortable analysis it should be done not in a random list of consonants of both languages but in a flat model where vertically (1,2,3…) there are acoustic features of phonemes and horizontally (a,b,c…) – articulational.

**Table 11**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| # | **Kazakh language (L1)** | | | | | | | **German language (L2)** | | | | | | |
| **a** | **b** | **c** | **d** | **e** | **f** | **g** | **a** | **b** | **c** | **d** | **e** | **f** | **g** |
| 1 | b |  | d |  | j | g |  | b |  | d |  | j |  |  |
| 2 | p |  | t |  |  | k |  | p |  | t |  |  |  |  |
| 3 |  |  | z | z |  |  |  |  | v | z |  |  |  |  |
| 4 |  |  | s | s |  |  |  |  | f | s | s | c | x | h |
| 5 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  | pf | ts | ts |  |  |  |

*Notes*: Model symbols have following meanings.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Acoustic features** | **Articulational features** |
| 1. Explosive voiced  2. Explosive unvoiced  3. Fricative voiced  4. Fricative unvoiced  5. Affricates | a – Labial  b – Labiodental  c – Front-uvular  d – Alveolar  e – Mid-uvular  f – Back-uvular  g – Pharyngeal |

**Step 2:** Definition of potential interference field by contrasting noisy consonants subsystems of two contacting languages. As the table above shows, from 18 noisy consonants of German language 8 of them do not exist in Kazakh, especially they may cause interference (they are bordered with frames in the table). They can be divided into three groups by their pronunciation features: (3,4) – labiodental fricative /v, f/; (4) – fricative unvoiced /c, x, h,/ and (5) – affricates /pf, ts, ts/

The rest of the consonants of German language /b, p, d, t, z, s, s, j, g, k/ make space for potential facilitation as they exist in Kazakh language and the level of difficulty in their acquisition equals zero.

**Step 3:** Prediction of certain types of interference based on rules of skills transformation. Present them as a list from top down.

The list of potential interference in Kazakh-German bilingualism.

1. (3b) g/ va:za 🡪 \* baz’e /k
2. (4b) g/ fa:ran 🡪 \* par’en /k
3. (4e) g/ ic 🡪 \* is /k
4. (4f) g/ naxt 🡪 \* nakit /k
5. (4g) g/ hunt 🡪 \* kunt /k
6. (5b) g/ pfana 🡪 \* pan’e /k
7. (5c) g/ ts aet 🡪 \* sajt /k
8. (5d) g/ doots 🡪 \* dojs /k

Step 4: To get the list of real interference according to the degree of decreasing frequency. It can be achieved through psycholinguistic experiment (find text requirements in ch VI. 2) with the attraction of bilingual informants; first language of whom are Kazakh (graduated Kazakh schools). As a text task they can be asked to read a special text constructed in German, which could include all the theoretical cases of potential interference, made in a previous stage. The process of text reading by informants is recorded on a tape. In addition, informants could individually repeat after a researcher short phrases that have German language elements exposed to interference from L1. Collected data needs to be written in a special table made for this purpose.

**Table 12**

|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Interference types** | **v 🡪 b** | **f 🡪 p** | **c 🡪 s** | **x 🡪 k** | **h 🡪 k** | **pf 🡪 p** | **ts 🡪 s** | **ts 🡪 s** |
| **Informants** |
| Informant A | + | + | + | - | - | + | + | + |
| Informant B | - | + | + | + | - | + | + | + |
| …….. | ……. | ………. | …… | …… | …… | …… | ……. | ……. |
| Total | 1 | 2 | 2 | 1 | - | 2 | 2 | 2 |

*Notes:* Sounds [x, k] are in Kazakh words from ancient Arabic, Persian borrowings (*see* “қаhарман” hero, “махаббат” love). However, these sounds are not in opposition of Kazakh phonemes, they create coexisting system. In similar situations, the interference takes place instead of expected facilitation. The results of experiments processed mathematically with index percentage of real errors relatively to theoretically possible ones.

The list of real interference according to the degree of decreasing frequency:

1. g/ hunt 🡪 \* kunt /k (76,7%) 4
2. g/ pfana 🡪 \* pan’e /k (75,3%)

--------------------------------------------------------------------------------

1. g/ ic 🡪 \* is /k (69,0%)
2. g/ doots 🡪 \* dojs /k (63,4%) 3
3. g/ ts aet 🡪 \* sajt /k (46,5%)

--------------------------------------------------------------------------------

1. g/ fa:ran 🡪 \* par’en /k (45,7%) 2
2. g/ va:za 🡪 \* baz’e /k (30,1%)

---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

1. g/ naxt 🡪 \* nakit /k (21,4%) 1

**Step 5: To get methodological typology of teaching** materials by increasing degree of difficulty.

All cases of interference may have different levels of difficulty. It is mainly because of individual features of informants (level of L2, other language awareness, motivation, language skills and other personal facts). Level of difficulty in acquisition of particular L2 fact is defined on the base of these thoughts: the often you can see a certain type of error in informant’s speech; the more difficult it is to acquire. The area where this type of interference is found can be pictured as some kind of continuity from 0 (no errors) to 100% (all informants made mistakes).

This space can be divided into a finite number of classes, each of which represents a degree of difficulty.

In this case, together with the phenomena of facilitation (zero difficulty) we get methodological typology of German noisy consonants for carriers of the Kazakh language.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Noisy consonants of German language (Я2) | Degree of difficulty | Quantity |
| /Ь. р, d, t. z, s, s, j, g,k/ | 0 | 10 |
| /X/ | 1 | 1 |
| / t S, f, V / | 2 | 3 |
| /<?, ts / | 3 | 2 |
| /h, pf / | 4 |  |
| Total |  | 18 |

Thus, from 18 noisy consonants of German language only 8 are really difficult for learning, but their degree of difficulty is also different: from minimum /x/ to maximum /h.pf/. (4 degree of difficulty)

Availability of methodological typology of educational material Я2 can provide a solution to a number of practical problems directly in the classroom.

1. An explanation of the new material should be given to the opposition of “???” in the composition of words or constructions. For ex.: Kasse – Katze; Panne – Fahne
2. It is necessary to distribute time for workout on lessons with regard of degree of difficulty: the higher degree of difficulty – the more training time needed to develop skills. In the case of facilitation (the degree of difficulty equal to zero) is not necessary to spend time explaining and fixing the material. Primary language of learners automatically provides assimilation of this material.
3. Methodical typology helps to identify the main types of exercises at the first stage of training. It can be bilingual exercises based on similar elements or elements of co-existing systems in a variety of positions of foreign language words.

Main type of exercises in this case should be monolingual aimed at creating a contrast between similar from carrier I1 point of view, but in fact various elements of I2.

Ex. Nacht\nackt; Vase\Base ; Fahne\Pannе; Chemie\Schema; Hund\Cund

Then you must use the exercises to develop multidimensional oppositions at the level of isolated words and only then move on to the construction level.

Ex. Vase\Base; Fasc\Pfau;

Fahne\Wannc; Pfanne\Раппе

And then Meine Base schenkte mir eine

Vase. Die Fahne hangt an der Wand.

Pfeffer wachst im Garten

It must be emphasized that methods of work of the teachers in the classrooms are built directly by its own law. Types, sequence, nature of exercises depend on the purpose of the lesson and the achievements of modern linguistics. Linguistics cannot solve these problems, but it can identify ways and means to optimize the learning process, mainly on programming phase.

Consider on an abbreviated program some other aspects of the methods and techniques of applied linguistic researches. Considering interference problems, we emphasized its voice character. However, its reasons lie in the differences of language systems, located in contacts. Above, cases of interference were considered in the phonetic-phonological level in the field of paradigmatic. But the language system – is not just a set of units, but also the rules of linear compatibility in speech (syntagmatic). In order to our analysis was complete, it is necessary to consider the problem of methodological typology of educational material and in terms of phonotactic.

It found that the combination of “vowel + consonant” are available in all languages of the world, are universal and do not pose difficulties in mastering foreign languages (facilitation). The greatest difficulty in mastering foreign phonological system creates differences in the field of combination of consonants and their place in the phonological structure of the word.

Dilinguistical analysis in this case does not change its structure (5 steps of the algorithm), but the differences in the object of knowledge is undoubtedly imposes its own specific. Description of the model according to the compatibility of the contacting languages in uniform terms and uniform theoretical positions.

In the first case (class number> 1) - the coincidence of both plans will encourage facilitation.

Ex. – Laborant

In the second case - only the same plane of expression and content plan is different.

Ex. – medicine (drugs)

This so-called false friends, because these words have both common and different unit values.

Ex. – medicine "the science of the treatment of people"

G. Medizine - "the science of the treatment of people" and "medicine"

The differences may cause interference.

In the third case (class №3) we are talking about the words of corresponding two languages coincide in meaning but differing in form.

The possible error in the speech may only be out of ignorance, not due to interference.

Expert - Mr. Koppen

Usually this term and unambiguous words.

Hiller- Haufler

The fourth type of relationship (Class N '> 4) the most complex, has several subclasses, are offsetting the words of the two languages are different both in form and content. It is also the most complex, usually ambiguous words, their unit values may coincide (facilitation) and do not necessarily reflect what is causing the interference.

Determination of potential interference of the field and its prediction of specific types of skills-based migration of the law is carried out by means of the relationship of the table (matrix). According to dictionaries (monolingual better) the appropriate language, first determine the value of offsetting on the main word and then a set of values of units (sememes) in the first then I.

Consider this as an example r. old and g. dumb.

The scope of potential interference is in the difference (+/-), and the coincidence of the values of units should be expected fatsilitation (I.)

In the cases You can specify the types of potential interference in the perception of the German language.

(4) и. { alie Geschichle —\* \* "old history\*4 (antique history)

(5)и. { altes Rom —\* \*"Old Rome” (antique Rome)

(6 ){ alter Walzer • —> \* "old valse (antique valse)} р

When the generation of speech in the German language in a bilingual can be a so-called hesitations (lat. Haesitatio "hesitation, confusion"), t. E. The voice of inhibition associated with the choice of a German equivalent for the expression of Russian values "ancient, antique, vintage.

This type of paradigmatic lexical interference. From these examples it is clear that the value of each unit of an ambiguous word appears in the speech only in a particular environment, at phrase level. In this regard, the study of the paradigmatic and syntagmatic lexical interference can be combined into a unified research process in stages dialingual analysis, which have been discussed above.

Dialingua; analysis on the lexical level languages

Step 1: Select from selected vocabulary on the topic basic phrases and composites.

Spend a few examples on the theme "World War II":

1. Frontsoldat
2. tap fever Soldat
3. den Traktor fahren
4. Soldaicnlied
5. dicker Brei
6. Eroberungskrieg
7. der kalte Krieg

Step 2: Determine the field potential of a lexical interference by double translation of selected structures, first in his native language (Russian), then the Russian version of the German word for word.

Thus, the possible interference field consists of six of the seven selected designs.

Step 3: Predictions of specific types of interference potential (indicated by an asterisk) on the basis of skills transfer law.

1. {Frontsoldat Kriegsleilnehmer (фронтовик) }
2. {tapferer Soldat kuhпег Soldat (храбрый солдат)}
3. {den Traktor fahren \* den Traktor fuhren (водить трактор) }

This formalized entry should read: Russian-German bilingual will interpret German construction den Traktor fahren a \* den Traktor fuhren under the influence of an appropriate mix in your own language "drive a tractor."

Step 4: Get real lexical interference of the list according to the degree of decreasing frequency using the psycholinguistic experiment. As a test task informants are invited to translate from native to foreign (German) language combinations required.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
|  | Stimulus | Reaction | Interference в% |
| 1 | Drive the tractor | \*den Traktor fuhren | 94,4% (4) |
| 2 | Veteran | \* Kriegsleilnehmer | 38,8 (2) |
| 3 | Wars of conquest | \*eroberischer Krieg | 22,2 |
| 4 | Brave soldiers | \*kiihner Soldat | 13,9(1) |
| 5 | Soldier's song | \*soldatisches Lied | 5,6 |
| 6 | A thick porridge | \*dichter Brei | 2,0 (0) |
| 7 | Cold war | der kalte Krieg | \_o | |

Step 5: Preparation of methodological typology of lexical teaching material for the school above.

1. The zero degree of difficulty (error rates near zero): dicker Brei; der kaltc Krieg

2. The first degree of difficulty (up to 24% of errors): Eroberungskrieg, Tapferer Soldat, Soldatenlied

3. The second degree of difficulty (from 25% to 49% errors): Frontsoldat

4. A third degree of difficulty (from 50% to 74% errors) no.

5. The fourth degree of difficulty (from 75% and above): den Traktor fahren.

On the basis of the data can be on a scientific basis to develop the quantity and quality lexical exercises to enhance vocabulary for academic topic.

In the same way solves the problem of methodological typology of grammatical material (eg. Kovylina LN (85)).

At the same time we should not forget that all the issues discussed above relate mainly speech activity of the ideal of the individual without regard to the situation of communication, the nature of the interlocutor and communicative intentions.

In other words, learning foreign language proficiency requires taking into account the features of communicative activity of people in specific circumstances, taking into account the provisions of discourse theory and the theory of the text

In the context of real communication in a bilingual manifest weight of those speech errors, speech which were higher as well as new errors associated with the pragmatics of speech.

Implementation of communicative foreign language learning principles can not be achieved without taking into account the interaction of verbal and nonverbal factors of Interact with bilateral discourse and without taking into account the composition of text and features of intra-connections in teaching writing (essay writing, see chap. VII).

So, bring some results. Based on aspects of applied linguistic research discussed above, not all sections of modern linguistics are important and relevant for the methods of teaching a second (foreign) language. Methodology - Integrated Science and its basic problems can not be solved only by linguistic methods, necessary to take account also of psychology (the psychology of speech, behavioral psychology) and general didactics (learning theory).

In order to optimize the learning process (and that's great experience) at the moment can be successfully used by the methods and techniques of modern linguistics the following industries: Psycholinguistics (generation and speech understanding and the problem of rules, see Appendix №5.); ethnolinguistics (intercultural communication training and uncultured behavior); linguastatistics (selection of educational material in terms of time and target parameters of training); theory of language contacts (Warning interfering influence H1 on the foreign language speech and creation of methodological typology of educational material) and pragmalinguistics (training bilateral discourse and writing essays in a second language).

It should also be noted that the methods and techniques of the analysis of these branches of modern linguistics are used in applications not in its pure form, and adapt to solve practical problems of linguistics in the form of multi-stage

**Chapter X. Culture work of a scientist**

Dissertation (diploma and master's work) - a scientific essay, which must answer certain substantive and formal requirements. Consider them.

1. Stages of research work

The work of the scientist is creative and systematic in nature and usually consists of three main stages: entry into the topic; stages of research itself; preparation of the manuscript by special rules. Let us consider them one by one (see details. Arnold 10).

1. Entry into the theme. This step marks the beginning of scientific work on the collection and study of special literature on the subject of the study. The initial list of the literature should be obtained from the scientific adviser. Further expansion of the list associated with the study of footnotes read publications and fixations of those works, which can help to delve deeper into the problems being studied. Besides, you need to organize themselves and find the necessary literature by the use of alphabetic and system catalogs of libraries and reading rooms, as well as bibliographic collections and the Internet. Also, we must note that in recent numbers of periodicals magazines on linguistics and methods usually provides a list of articles, reports and reviews of new titles published in all rooms of this publication over the past year.

Studying the specialized literature on the subject is necessary to make the necessary entries. You should outline not in the notebooks, you should outline on separate sheets of standard format, making notes on one side only, and providing continuous sheets of pagination. Then, if it’s necessary, (writing reviews on certain issues, summarizing research on this problem last time and so on.) necessary pages of notes can be removed from the summaries by expanding them again in order after the appropriate job. You don’t need outline everything, but only those ideas that are necessary for the writing of this work. In presenting the thoughts of others or quoting necessarily need to specify the publications pages in parentheses; then refer to them in the preparation of the manuscript of the scientific work. If in the process of reading and note-taking special literature on the association and on the basis of already learned there are new thoughts or questions regarding this issue, they should also be recorded on the same page, or taking in parentheses and equipping their initials, or writing on the back, clean of the appropriate abstract page. This note can be provided with special litters ("check for dictionary", "consult with the supervisor," and so on.). After learning the basic literature on the topic of research is necessary to make the notes made by the index, making it easier to find the relevant quotations and references.

According to the results of the study of the literature on the subject and interviews with the supervisor, you can already write the introduction of the project, which should include the following points:

1. Justification of the choice of research topic, indicating its relevance: scientific novelty, theoretical and practical value. There it also should specifically define the goals and objectives, as well as to articulate the main provisions for the defense. It is also necessary to specify the principles (synchrony - diachrony; Ingra - interlinguistics; semasiology-onomasiology and so on) and methods (narrative, experimental, and others.) of research, also used in the artistic and informative texts, archival materiapy, statistics, directories and dictionaries.

It is desirable here, in the introduction, to define the basic initial concepts (terms) of the study. If they are, however, typed quite a lot, they can be isolated in a separate (first) chapter, or in a special paragraph of the first chapter.

Some authors believe that the introduction should be written after the completion of all the work, when it is already clear the way, and the final results of the study. This strategy seems to us wrong, because it pushes the author on a purely empirical way of knowledge (first collect sufficient evidence to classify them and to draw conclusions), neglecting the programming phase of human activity, which must precede the implementation phase. Introduction – is a theoretical and practical basis, coordinating all the activities of the scientist to achieve this goal. Of course, the research process may require the use of other methods and ways to solve common problems. The ego is quite possible, and the introduction can be refined and finalized at the end of work on the topic. But the introduction of the project should be ready before the start of the practical steps of the study.

2) Stages of the actual research work

Practical study consists of three main stages: segmentation, classification and generalization. Let's consider them in order.

The first phase of research begins with the collection of verbal material (segmentation) from various sources (text, discourse, data dictionaries and so on). Studied materials is recommended to write on separate cards (words, phrases, sentences in the narrow context) indicating the author, source and pages of publications. In the lower right corner of the card should indicate a chapter or section of the manuscript, which will be used by these examples.

At this stage, we are preparing and carrying out experimental work, if they are provided by the plan: the development of tests, etc. The results are compiled and then used in the writing of the manuscript text.

2. The next stage - the systematization (classification) of the collected material. Ego is associated with the partition of the test data into separate classes (types) on the basis of their common integrating features. It is at this stage should be used to achieve the objectivity and accuracy of the techniques and methods of linguistic research discussed above: nomogrammic methods (methods of structural or quantitative typology) or idiographic methods (for NA analysis, distribution or transformation methods), as well as experimental methods of foreign linguistics and algorithm pragmalinguistics.

3. The third stage of writing a research paper - generalization, generalization of the study data. At this stage, the final distribution of the material of the manuscript on the individual chapters and sections.

After each chapter is a brief summary of the results obtained in its investigations in accordance with the goals and objectives that have been defined in the introduction. At the end of the actual research ra¬boty drawn a general conclusion on the entire work, which should not only summarize the conclusions of the heads, but also to give clear information about achievements goal of the study and solution of all problems for the defense. In the end, it is desirable to conclude the schedule perspectives further study of the issues and questions.

The resulting manuscript all this work should be executed in accordance with the existing requirements and is equipped with a reference apparatus: a list of abbreviations, list of references and applications, if they are available.

2. Basic requirements for the content and design of the manuscript

Thesis must meet certain general requirements for the content and form.

1. The main requirements to the content of the thesis (diploma or literary work). Important when writing a written scientific work is not just to present the result of knowledge, and the result of this process, obtained with the help of certain methods and techniques most appropriate goal in accordance with the achievements of linguistics at the time of writing the work. It is advisable to give a brief history of the consideration of the issue by a critical review of the available literature. We must not recite the point of view of each author; and give them to the generalization, such as: 1) One group of authors (transfer) adheres to this point of view; 2) Another group (transfer) - a citing references.

Language describing linguistic facts determined by the specific features of scientific style and sub-language of this scientific branch, which formed the foundations of the system of linguistic terms.

The bulk of the work - not just a description of the views and examples, and reasoning, explanation, justification and proof of certain provisions related to the achievement of this goal. However, the scientific text must meet all the essential requirements of the theory of the text. This set of paragraphs, sub-chapters and chapters are closely related to each other by a single concept of the author. Individual paragraphs and chapters are actually separate thematic lines of text as a whole. It should not be just a collection of knowledge about a given subject area, and a system of knowledge about it.

World languages ​​as well as all around us, is a very complex entity. Examine and describe all the signs of linguistic phenomena is impossible without neglecting some of their properties. This neglect is called idealization object. This act of thought, associated with the formation of simplified, ideal objects reflecting the totality of the symptoms that are relevant for the present study. In linguistics, it is connected with the modeling language objects for the delimitation of significant-when the original characters from the inessential. Any record or formalized scheme represents only the simplified prototype of a skeleton, a examples homogeneous structures.

For example, the model offers a simple type \* Sn + V-v Saj reflects an infinite number of similar speech products.

Boy reading a book.

Dad drinks coffee.

The orchestra plays Bach.

Cat drinking milk.

The plant produces tractors.

The sun illuminates the Earth

Similarly, the model about the text as the algorithm (e.g., the analysis algorithm) may be formulated.

Also, the statistical data represent a relatively (but not completely!) Accurate data on the phenomena of language, they are also the facts of the idealization of real objects.

Writing the thesis (diploma or master's thesis) - a kind of cognitive activity that relates to creativity, creative pile. On the one hand, the scientific work should already fit into the overall system of the existing knowledge of the language, on the other hand, it must contain some new information and be even little step forward in the knowledge of the language of people. Cognitive activities (as well as any other creative activity of the person) requires some experience and has a possibility of error. The following (this applies in the first place diploma and master's works) should be referred to the most common errors: compilation - writing of scientific works on the basis of a combination of extracts from the works of other authors; empiricism - a study based only on facts collected of its own, underestimate the role of theory and existing knowledge; and quotation-mongering - passion literal statement of the thoughts of others. The fact that the quote as a reference to scientific authority is not a method of scientific knowledge. The main thing - to prove his point of view on the basis of methods and analysis techniques, using a quote only to reinforce the results obtained for clarification or objections to the existing points of view.

2) The basic requirements for the technical design of the manuscript

Although the scientific work is creative, the result in the form of written compositions must meet certain general requirements standardize-Rowan. The thesis should be printed on a typewriter or computer, single-spaced na A4 paper, font, normal, size 14, with one side of the sheet and broken down into paragraphs (a new paragraph starts after three empty shock). All pages should be numbered consecutively, starting with the third. Each page should have fields (left - 35 mm, about 10 mm to the right, above - 20 mm, bottom - 20 mm).

The main sections of the manuscript should be arranged in the following order: Title page (standard form); Introduction to the subsections, which are numbered in Arabic numerals (1, 2, 3 ...); Sections (chapters) of the main part of the thesis with the order numbering Latin numbers (Chapter 1 Title chapter, Chapter II: The title of Chapter, etc...) Are typed in large letters with a space above and below. Then there are: Conclusion (required with numbered paragraphs), the list adopted by the symbols and the reduction of the list of references and applications to the numbering order of s upper right corner (Appendix A1 "1, №2, №3) specifying the content.

Contents must match exactly the chapters and paragraphs 1 and manuscripts can be placed either at the beginning of the work (immediately after the title page), or at the very end, after the list of references

applications. In addition to the above the purely technical requirements to the design of the manuscript must also comply with certain rules of citation and references to the literature. It is necessary to distinguish between subscript and inline links.

Footnotes references to books run in the bottom of the page, and are separated from the main text by a horizontal line with a quarter length of the sheet, the numbering of the text and the link should be unified.

Bondarko A.V. Functional Grammar, Leningrad, 1984, p. 47.

When you re-link to the same source the output data can be fed in abbreviated form:

~ Bondarko A.V. decree. Cit., P. 10 ; or p. 18.

Footnotes references to articles in journals and collections are carried out in the same manner with an indication of the periodical.

Similarly, made a reference to descenders and dissertation abstracts.

3. Drawing up the list of references

References (bibliography) - is not just an auxiliary reference apparatus, and the rate of scientific knowledge of the author, an indicator of its body of knowledge about the subject of research and related scientific problems.

Collecting and arranging of scientific publications on the topic of research begins with the first step of cognitive activity, even at the stage of entry into the subject. It should consider the following: each researched bibliographic source should be written on a separate card, precisely specifying all output data (surname and initials of the author, the publication name, place and year of publication) and secure with the total number of pages for books and a set of pages (to and up) for individual articles, abstracts and reviews in professional journals, books and other periodicals. At the bottom of the card it is recommended to do special labels, bottom left the library - the code to re-call, if necessary; bottom right - an indication of pages abstract (K), which statements were made, quotes from this work.

Cards should be kept in separate envelopes for each letter. Such processing of bibliographic material saves time and facilitates the preparation of a common list of references and clearance of intra-references.

Itself a list of references can be built, in alphabetical order, or as mentioned in the pages of the manuscript. In the first case, the first are the works written in Cyrillic, then - the Latin, and more in other types of charts (. Arabic script, the characters, etc.) While sources using various types of graphics arranged in alphabetical list, they get the general numbering system. In the second case, where publications are located as they are used in the text manuscript, they also receive a continuous numbering. Re-quote or link to the already mentioned publication should not lead to the expansion of the general list by second of (tertiary). Incorporating the previously mentioned publications.

The above rules of writing and technical design of the manuscript of the scientific works are advisory in nature, they reflect not only general, but also the personal experience of the author of this guide. Each researcher can develop and justify a system for collecting, organizing, and storing scientific information (for example, using a computer), the main thing, however, that it was just a system, but no mess.

4. The Council of Young Scientists

Man aspires to the knowledge of the world since its inception, first, on a purely practical, then at the scientific level. This is not a momentary act, but a long process, which is actually a process of identity formation. Already at the dawn of mankind under tsinno clan system with the accumulation of experience handed down from generation to generation, some of the recommendations on the organization of autonomous learning. These guidelines (rules) had to follow every single individual of the socio-cultural and linguistic system.

The main provisions of the model of practical knowledge are reduced to the fact that each individual learns throughout his life developing his training strategy, but guided by the four main rules (regulations), which are closely linked and characterize the individual steps on the path of knowledge . Consider them.

Wheel bugs



1. The first rule is associated with the initial stage of learning a new subject area. Here, the individual has to realize that he already knows something that in the course of acquiring new knowledge, errors are possible. But it is quite natural and should not be afraid. Overcoming oshibkoboyazni makes a person free, confident in their abilities.

2. The second rule is associated with the development of the capacity for introspection, readily absorb the new, to abandon the old and to change their attitudes and behaviors are constantly asking yourself: What do I get? What I fail? Why? What should be done to clarify the issue? Dig into the literature, reference books, dictionaries? Ask an experienced colleague, supervisor of studies?

3. The third rule requires an active interaction with the environment, critical approach to people and theories, and to be able to justify on-melts their point of view in the scientific debate with others on workshops. Asking questions with "bated objection", but not fangazirovat not make unsubstantiated comments.

4. The fourth rule is associated with self-esteem (evalyuatsiey) razmashleniem with the results achieved: This is what I wanted? Could I go with this knowledge into practice? What theoretical and practical value are my opinions on this subject the authorities? There have to be some kind of an examiner for himself, honest and a strict examiner.

At all stages of knowledge considered zyshe errors are possible, they should not be afraid, and comprehended the reason - to eliminate. This is the way knowledge itself, as called by the ancient Greeks: nesce te ipsem? The number of North American Indians errors as if we projected on modern scientific life in the form of advice for young researchers.

We complement them with some recommendations contemporary scholars (See Migdal 117, 107.):

1. The driving force of knowledge should not be striving to get a degree or to make a revolution in science and curiosity, the desire to understand and experience the beauty of the process of cognition.

2. Foster a perfect honesty in criticism, and in the use of other people's thoughts and ideas.

3. It is necessary to find a way out of the conflict and to bring any complex vo¬pros to the limit of simplicity and clarity.

4. be guided by intuition and common sense, but do not trust them completely and to seek formal ways of checking intuition and existing knowledge.

5. To believe in the results of research, but all the time to look for his rebuttal.

6. Find your individual style of scientific work, but to change it as they gain experience and due to new discoveries in the field and in the related sciences.

7. Understanding of all even the most difficult issues is achieved not by a sudden inspiration, and is the result of painstaking labor targeted. The results of the work of the scientist is directly proportional to the amount of labor input and time.

In conclusion, it should be stressed that the ability, as a condition for the successful implementation of certain activities (including informative!), Are not innate but socially acquired. Congenital are just some of the makings associated with psycho-physiological characteristics of the human body (memory depth, speed of reaction). Development of abilities depends on the interaction with the outside world and focused work, which becomes a vital need of the individual (See Voitko 3;. 67).

Science - an important aspect of modern political life, but it is the demiurge, the creator is the man.

**List of symbols and contractions**

| | straight brackets: phonemic transcription

[ ] square brackets: phonetic transcription

{ } braces: semantic unit

< > angle brackets: 1) Letter 2) Lexical Unit

\* asterisk: 1) Reconstructed pro-forma 2) Incorrect construction

“ “ quotation marks: meaning

< sign: “arose from...”

> sign: “turned into...”

➜ pointer: “converted into...”

⇏ sign: “converting is impossible”

= sign of equivalence

≠ inequality sign

En – English

Germ – German

Got – Gothic

Gr – Greece

IE – Indo-Europian

An – Ancient

Sp – Spanish

Kaz – Kazakh

Lat – Latin

Rus – Russian

Ukr – Ukrainian

Fr - French

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**Appendix**

Appendix 1

**Linguistic community**

The rapid development of sociolinguistics, observed in the second half of the XX century, largely stimulated by the study of bilingualism and multilingualism. In this regard, a number of concepts used in the literature for a long time without a clear definition of terminology acquired the character of the linguistic problems that need careful study. It is to such problems (along with others) and apply the concept of "linguistic community". We consider it more in detail.

The definitions of the concept of "common language", available in the literature, usually limited to an indication of the fact that it is a stable group of people who use a specific language for the purpose of intro-group communication. (See Nikolsky 5, 48;. Wright 6.41).

This definition does not give a clear idea about the essence of the concept, does not reveal, in particular, the specificity of the language community, relatively other social organizations, such as family, party, nation, state, etc., which can also be used one language. Such a purely linguistic approach is rather simplistic, since It does not account for the social, psychological and cultural factors inherent in any human association. In this regard, it would probably not uninteresting to stay on all the features of a social community. "Group, wrote the famous Polish sociologist Jerzy Wiatr (10, 94), - two or more individuals, between which certain social relations; in other words, the group takes place in the event that its members come together in a certain type of communication ". Thus, the main feature of a social group is to bring together people in character relationships between them. It is for the peculiarities of these links and some other signs carried out classification of social groups. In order to determine what type of social groups related linguistic community, and what is its specificity, look at the main features of groups. (See. Wiatr 10, 98-108). Any social group can be characterized on the basis of the following five criteria:

1. **Group connection type.** Here we must distinguish between the group of informal, which includes people associated related-or friendly relations (such as a family or group of friends who went for a joint holiday), and formal, bringing together people who are not in kinship and friendship ties (religious communities, political parties and m. n.).
2. **The extent of the duration of connection.** On this basis allocate temporary groups or sporadic that disintegrate upon reaching defined goals-divided, and permanent (long-term) that exist throughout an individual's life, or even longer than the life of each of its members. The latter include ethnic group (tribe, people, nation). Ethnicity - a common historical destiny, based on social ties and features of the language and culture.
3. **The size of the group.** Under a small social group understand such a group, all members of which are able to establish direct private contact with each other. Large social group excludes this possibility. The contact between its members requires a certain mediation (administrative acts, the use of letters, mass means of communication, and so on).
4. **The nature of group membership** can be automatic, immediately after the birth of the individual, to the emergence of a sense of social solidarity and voluntary when an individual consciously developed a definite type of group solidarity, and only then became a member of the group.
5. **Type of group solidarity.** The members of the social group establish a certain type of solidarity associated with the common interests of the group as a whole and all its members in particular. There are race-governmental, cultural, political, religious, profession-functional and linguistic solidarity. Group solidarity can carry and complex character. For the linguistic community is: related (common historical destiny), cultural and linguistic solidarity.

In general, based on the signs of social groups linguistic community listed above can be defined as a formal (community of people who are not in kinship and friendship ties); long-time, large, with an automatic membership and comprehensive solidarity (common history, culture and language). From a linguistic point of view it is important to emphasize the primacy of the language used not only for intro-group communication, but is a carrier of history and culture of the people. Language, in this case, serves as a symbol of the respective ethnic group, as well as the connecting link between the interests of the individual and collective communication. Complex solidarity creates a special social community, consisting of kolingvs - people using as a means of communication any language, regardless of its structure, social status and forms of existence:.. It may be unwritten language, literary language, territorial or social dialect, corporate jargon, and so on. n. (See. Haugen 8.91).

It is necessary to distinguish between monolingual linguistic community consisting of monolinguals, using a specific language for the purpose of intro-group communication and bilingual (multilingual). Under bilingual language community is supposed to understand the group of bilinguals, using for the purpose of intro-group and inter-group communication, two specific language. It may seem that the monolingual language community, in view of its linguistic and cultural unity, does not contain any contradiction. This is not so. And in a monolingual community exist and interact with each other by different variants of the same language: the territorial dialects, jargon, and, at some stage, literary and vernacular languages. In the latter case we are talking about the contradiction between the so-called organic and inorganic languages ​​(See details. Zhluktsnko 1.31).

Organic languages ​​are developing in a particular community and operate mainly in oral form, performing a limited number of public functions: the family and household and labor sphere, various kinds of folklore (legends, folk songs, fairy tales, etc...).

Inorganic languages ​​based on organic occur. This standardized, multifunctional languages, covering all spheres of public life (education, science, art, law science, religion, the media and others.). They have spoken and written realization, exist in parallel with organic languages, gradually displaced past from public life, including in the sphere of family and household. Realization between organic and inorganic languages ​​is especially acute in the conditions of a centralized state. It is important to emphasize, however, that a common feature of both types is their connection with the culture and history of the people. The basic form inter-relation idioms in a monolingual society. (See Karlinsky 2, 22.).

It is known that the same individual may be a member of several social groups at the same time (family, ethnicity, profession, religion, party and so on. N.). The peculiarity of bilingual compared to monolinguals is just what it is included simultaneously in the three language communities. He is a member of: (1) the primary language community consisting of monolinguals, using only the primary language bilingual; (2) secondary language community consisting of monolinguals with secondary bilingual language as their mother tongue, and (3) a bilingual linguistic community consisting of bilingual holding two specific languages, regardless of degree possession. For example, the Kazakh-Russian bilingual at the same time is a member of the three language groups: the Kazakh language group; Russian language; Kazakh-Russian bilingual language group, in which case it can be the primary language of the Kazakh and second - Russian or vice versa: Russian primary and secondary Kazakh addition, both of these languages ​​can be primary. Bilingualism is an elementary form of multilingualism. The main manifestation of language interaction in bilingualism and multilingualism is the - bilingualism and interference (See details Karlinsky 2, 39.). Bilingual (and multilingual) language group must not be confused with a multilingual state which is primarily administrative and economic union within the prescribed boundaries of well-defined hierarchical structure and authorities.

Multi-language state - is education more social you are, higher order than a social group, it includes a large variety of different nature monolingual and bilingual groups. Not surprisingly, in a state of this type having its own specific language problems are not specific to the net of intro-group relations. Here there may be serious difference, when along with inorganic autochthonous language can appear inorganic and operate a foreign language, it is not connected with the history and culture of the people and their organic language. Let us call this language inorganic. The language situation in this case is much more complicated, and gets a different environment functioning languages ​​when exolect is becoming an important factor social-economic, cultural and political life of society. In this case, may occur social voltage due to the fact that a foreign language has a maximum inorganic public functions in contrast to the autochthonous and the limits social development of the latter. On the other hand, shows a deficit exolect linguistic means to express family and cultural realities of the indigenous population (See. Zhluktenko), 28 et seq.).

From the current situation, there are two outputs between which mo¬gut be several transition states. In one case exolect displaces local language in all spheres of social and linguistic change takes place (see. Eg, history of French, Romanian, Azerbaijani and Arabic in Egypt). In another - exolect inorganic displaces local language, which preserves traces of a foreign language by phenomena. This proves history of many languages ​​(French elements in English, German and Latin in t. H.). (Read more about the results of the interaction of languages, see. Karlinsky 3, 68).

It is known that linguistic diversity in a multilingual country is not in itself an insurmountable obstacle for communication if at least part of the representatives of the various language groups show desire to become bilingual, t. E. The desire to form a bilingual within the group. After all, bilingualism - it is nothing like communicative bridge between the two (or more), multilingual teams.

The study of the internal social structure of language groups in the conditions of various social and political formations in terms of explanation what segments of the population are more willing to become bilingual, or vice versa, are resisting this trend represents an important challenge for sociolinguistics.

It is known that bilingual or are only certain, primary language community (individual bilingualism), or some part of it (the group bilingualism), or almost all of its members (mass bilingualism). What regulate all the above processes? To answer this question is not so simple. However, the main driving force is necessary to recognize the contradiction between social aspirations and any real opportunities to meet them inside given linguistic community. In other words, if social needs individual. F.e. The need for further professional, cultural, political and so on. The development, will be completely satisfied, f.e. inside kolingvs group, the likelihood of bilingualism will be practically zero. If, however, the language is the primary language generalization is the limiting factor that inhibits the progress of general personality, then going beyond the group of kolings becomes inevitable. (See. Haugen 8.96).

As a bilingual social networks are more complex than monolinguals, t. To. He comes at the same time in the three language groups, it can not but affect its relations with the pervich¬noy and secondary language community. It is noted, for example, that those mono¬lingvy whose social activity proceeded under conditions of use only their native language and in general disapprove of bilinguals. The situation within the group, under certain social conditions may be the cause of so-called language of loyalty, when the mother tongue becomes a symbol of the group occupying the highest positions in the scale of social values. One of the typical manifestations of linguistic loyalty is xenophobia. (See. Weinreich 9.99).

On the other hand, the desire to identify with the bilingual members of the secondary language community may also be associated with definite difficulties. The fact that the usual bilingual communication with members of secondary language community is achieved at a relatively possession of the relevant language. To achieve social integration, for ex. the full entry into the group is necessary that it bilingual closer in quality to the level of speaking monolingual, using it as a mother. Since this level rarely achieved, the degree of occurrence of a bilingual group in H2 may be different. The presence of errors in the speech (foreign language accent or interference) can largely determine the relation a bilingual person from kolingvs group H2.

Depending on the cultural-historical and social-political factors, the ratio can have many varieties, from hostility through good-natured irony (anecdotes about the behavior of bilinguals.) To the absolute tolerance, f.e, to the full tolerance for error if they do not interfere with understanding. In case last primary means of integration with the group of bilingual is not a language, and other types of group solidarity:.. Economic, cultural, political, professional, etc. Of particular linguistic community of the city, with its mixed population and frequent changes of speech situations. Then each speaker may change his verbal behavior and to identify with members of different language groups with which the individual would like to communicate. Here he has possibility observe and analyze the behavior of people belonging to different linguistic and social groups. It requires him pretty strong motivation to select the model of behavior in different situations of communication and the ability to adapt to the behavior of the group (See. Wright 6, 43).

In the multinational linguistic situation of a sovereign state in certain social and political conditions may arise languages fight of a dominant position in society, which can examine in Africa and the CIS. The flow of language processes in these conditions can be adjusted by targeted language of political state.

For languages ​​with the highest social status in a multilingual on-exist, there are two terms, which are still not yet sufficiently defined. This is the concept of "public" and "official" language, which is usually used either as synonyms or as a subjective uncertain nature. In Europe, in this case, only used the term "official language" as a language of education, science, public institutions and the media. In one state may be several official languages. Thus, in Switzerland, for example, of 4 (German, French, Italian and Romansh); in a small Luxembourg of 3 (German, French); Belgium - 2 (French and Dutch), etc. (See the World 7, 11; 71; 26.)... In Africa, both terms are used in different countries without terminological distinction. For example, in Botswana – official languages ​​English and Tswana, as in Zimbabwe - 3 official language; English, Shona, Sindebele (See. World 7 250- 75).

The first attempt to distinguish between these concepts we find in M. Kpylenko, who believes that the scope of the concept of "official language" is broader than the "official language." The official language is people who formed the State, it should be a means integration and unity of all the people of this ethnic group and the subject of international laws. All state symbols, international documents, negotiations, presentations at international congresses should be made the official language. At the same time the state is the official language throughout the country.

Official language - is, above all, the language of the political integration of all peoples living in this state. He must insuring the needs of citizens in education, health, trade, communication of citizens with the controls and power (Kopylenko 4, 21). Go-statehood language must necessarily be one, the official may be several. "The best for Kazakhstan, where a high percentage of Russian-speaking population, it would, in our opinion, recognition one state language - Kazakh and two official languages ​​Spoken- Kazakh and Russian" (Kopylenko 4.242).

The present work does not exhaust all the problems of the language commonness. In the future, it is necessary to compile a list of language and extra-linguistic features of different communities, on the basis of which the development of their typology.

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**Scheme of situational analysis**

1. The language in the system of high education.

1.1. Language in elementary and secondary schools (national and Russian).

A. Which languages ​​are taught in primary, secondary schools.

B. From what class native language is taught as a subject.

C. Are there any books in national languages, if their number is sufficient and whether the quality is high.

D. Do teachers speak native languages ​​of the pupils, can they explain the incomprehensible student in his language.

E. How to encourage the study of the native language or Russian (essay contests, games, week language and so on)

F. How can the knowledge of Russian and national languages be evaluated after graduating from high school.

1.2. Language in higher education system

A. In what language are lectures read

B. Are there any books in their native language

C. How can the degree of understanding of the language of lectures in Russian language be assessed (sufficient - insufficient)

D. Does the university increase the level of knowledge in the Russian / national language.

2. The language in the mass-media system.

2.1. Press Language.

A. What languages ​​are newspapers, magazines, weeklies written and the number of each language.

B. Provision of media in countryside.

2.2. Radio and television language

A. How many hours a day broadcast in native languages ​​(National languages) and how much Russian.

B. Are there lessons (what?).

C. Is there radio broadcasting and dramas in the national languages, how often.

D. The situation with radio and TV broadcasts in rural areas.

3. Language in republican administration activity.

3.1. Language of the Parliament and of higher authorities.

A. What languages session of Parliament / Supreme Council of Congresses ​​are conducted.

B. What languages documents and legislation ​​are published.

C. What languages rural councils and other authorities are held the meetings.

3.2. Law Language.

A. What languages is court session conducted.

B. What languages are the accused and witnesses interrogated.

C. What languages ​​are sentences read .

3.3. The language in state institutions.

A. What is the ethnic composition of employees, whether there are institutions, dominated the local population, immigrants from other republics.

B. What language are meetings, meetings with the team conducted.

C. Which language do team workers communicate.

4. The language of science.

A. What languages ​​beyond the scientific literature in the exact, humanity-tare and natural sciences.

B. Is the national language used somewhere in the science.

C. Whether there is such a need.

D. If not used, what prevents this.

E. Whether the work is carried out to create a national terminological system.

5. Language in the family, at home, in everyday life.

A. What language is spoken at home (in monoethnic and mixed families).

B. Does the code change observe when changing the topic of conversation.

C. What language do you communicate in the market, on the street, if you want to ask something.

6. The language of religion

A. What religion other than Islam, is common in the country.

B. What is the ratio between them.

C. In what languages ​​is being Service (Arabic, local, Russian)

D. Whether Arabic studies only for the needs of religion or wider, and where.

E. Is Koran translated into the national language and other languages ​​in Kyrgyzstan and when.

F. How did the resolution of Khomeini in Iran influence on Kyrgyzstan Muslims.

G. Is there a trend towards an increase in the number of Muslims at the moment.

7. Language legislation in Kyrgyzstan and its implementation.

Appendix № 3

Basics of natural semantic metalanguage

1. Substantives: I, you, somebody/someone, something, people, body.

2. Determiners: this, that, other.

3. Quantifiers: one, two, some, all, much/many.

4. Attributes: good, bad, big, small.

5. Mental predicates: to think, to know, to want, to feel, to see, to hear.

6. Speech: to tell, a word, truth.

7. Actions, events, movements: to do, to happen, to move.

8. Existence and possession: to be, to have.

9. Life and death: to live, to die.

10. Logical concepts: may be, can, because/because of, if, whether.

11. Time: when/time, now, after, before, long time, not long time, some time.

12. Space: where/place, here, below/under, above/over, far, close, side, inside.

13. Intensifier, amplifier: very, more.

14. Taxonomy: type, variety, part.

15. Similarity: such as/as.

Attachment No.3

FUNDAMENTALS Natural Semantic Metalanguage

(By A. Wierzbicka 35, 53)

1. Substaptivy: I, you, someone / person, something / thing people body.

2. Determiners: this is the same as another.

3. Quantifiers: one, two, a few, a little, the whole / all much / many.

4. Attributes: good, bad, big, small.

5. Mental predicates: to think, to know, to want, to feel, to see, to hear.

6. Speech: I say a word, though.

7. Actions, events, movement: do occur / happen to move.

8. Existence and possession: have (has) have.

9. Life and death: to live, to die.

10. Logical concepts: not moe / set be able to, because / because if, if,

11. The time: when / time, now, after, before, long, long, time.

12. The space: where / location here below / under, up / over, far, near, side, inside.

13. Enhancer, power: much more.

14. Taxonomy, nartoiomiya: species, variety, portion.

15. The similarity: like / as.

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| 2 | 51 | 119 | 198 | 298 | 457 |
| 3 | 50 | 127 | 206 | 429 | 453 |
| 4 | 181 | 334 | 353 | 440 | 490 |
| 5 | 94 | 108 | 229 | 260 | 415 |
| 6 | 38 | 142 | 152 | 303 | 343 |
| 7 | 147 | 172 | 371 | 426 | 433 |
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| 3 | 24 | 70 | 216 | 241 | 266 | 274 | 280 | 299 | 355 | 428 |
| 4 | 8 | 21 | 84 | 127 | 130 | 154 | 181 | 278 | 295 | 444 |
| 5 | 40 | 41 | 65 | 84 | 167 | 222 | 296 | 298 | 426 | 447 |
| 6 | 8 | 99 | 101 | 176 | 247 | 271 | 317 | 391 | 461 | 484 |
| 7 | 19 | 129 | 183 | 287 | 353 | 366 | 369 | 443 | 485 | 493 |
| 8 | 3 | 42 | 190 | 193 | 247 | 288 | 341 | 373 | 395 | 459 |
| 9 | 13 | 88 | 165 | 255 | 361 | 432 | 441 | 468 | 469 | 495 |
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| 3 | 289 | 414 | 474 | 585 | 957 |
| 4 | 25 | 347 | 434 | 669 | 805 |
| 5 | 162 | 238 | 465 | 614 | 734 |
| 6 | 196 | 356 | 662 | 898 | 953 |
| 7 | 265 | 476 | 565 | 576 | 777 |
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| 2 | 22 | 29 | 146 | 146 | 369 | 679 | 731 | 758 | 869 | 937 |
| 3 | 20 | 43 | 115 | 115 | 376 | 503 | 602 | 680 | 685 | 714 |
| 4 | 24 | 59 | 216 | 216 | 345 | 555 | 738 | 747 | 777 | 908 |
| 5 | 6 | 81 | 475 | 475 | 543 | 605 | 661 | 758 | 946 | 965 |
| 6 | 12 | 42 | 297 | 297 | 309 | 584 | 700 | 725 | 826 | 923 |
| 7 | 13 | 70 | 212 | 212 | 470 | 731 | 848 | 873 | 900 | 993 |
| 8 | 217 | 243 | 254 | 254 | 539 | 638 | 639 | 744 | 850 | 859 |
| 9 | 27 | 32 | 173 | 173 | 177 | 342 | 418 | 469 | 818 | 887 |
| 10 | 152 | 213 | 426 | 426 | 448 | 608 | 785 | 797 | 828 | 840 |

**Appendix No. 5**

**Theory of communicative regulation and its applied value**

**1. Standard system of communication**

The latest researches in the field of linguistics (the theory of a discourse and the text) have delivered on the agenda along with new problems also needed for creation new and refining of old terms. Language along with an origin and culture is the major ethnoindicator. Each ethnos forms a special linguistic community, a certain type of social group whose members’ behavior in various life situations is regulated by specific public regulations.

One of the major human activities (purposeful interaction of the person with world around) along with converting and informative are communicative activities which basic purpose is connected with ensuring exchange of information between people in the course of communication. Human activities are based on the basis of the rules ordering a certain type of behavior in various situations, but not on the basis of the laws characteristic of inanimate nature. The system of rules forms regulation of communicative behavior of all members of this ethnos.

The regulation is "the accepted use of language means, set of the rules (regulation) ordering the use of language means in the speech of the individual". The given and similar definitions of language regulation have post-Saussure time in connection with differentiation of language and the speech when language was considered as a means of communication (ideal, special, a statics), and the speech as use of this means by the person in the course of communication (material, individual, dynamics). This binary partitioning of object linguistics was fruitful as has allowed to learn a lot of new as about language (system and structural education), so about the speech (functioning of language in various conditions (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics etc.). However now our knowledge of object of linguistics has significantly changed. Instead of De Saussure’s double partitioning we deal with threefold partitioning of object of linguistics: language (system and structural education, the communication tool) – the speech (a method of existence and functioning of language in ideal conditions of communication) pragmatics (the individual speech in a specific situation).

Certainly, as the concept of regulation needs refining, it shall cover all three aspects of communicative activities of the person taking into account feature of object of linguistics.

The standard aspect of activities includes as the main components of concept of correctness/abnormality and also the sanction. System of the rules constituting regulation and managing directors of people’s behavior it is not obligatory to be realized by the individual. Being incapable explicitly to create rules of conduct in various situations, he knows, however, that he means to make a mistake. On the other hand, standards of behavior are characterized by certain sanctions, i.e. reaction of society to these or those abuses of regulations. Types and nature of sanctions serve usually main for classification of standard systems. With respect there to differentiate four groups of social norms: religion, morals, right, customs. We will consider them briefly:

1) The religious standard system considers as a punishment source (and encouragement) of supernatural forces.

2) The standard system of morals operates with concepts "good" and "evil" and its sanctions are connected with impact of public opinion on a mental condition of the individual, on his conscience.

3) The legal standard system is based on the sanctions connected with physical compulsion (isolation, the reference, execution).

4) The standard system of customs is supported by tradition and is characterized by the strongest pressure upon the personality from the environment. The consent with custom has no nature of freely made decision. People eat, put on, communicate according to custom, not always realizing it. Any act of behavior not pleasant in this group, is considered as strange, unnatural, ridiculous and even hostile to group. From here and reaction of a community to abuses of regulations: from restraint and a sneer ("Good people do not act this way") to obvious disapproval and the individual's exception of this group. Hedgehogs Vyatr specially do not consider regulation of communication as public phenomenon. However, proceeding from features of various standard systems, it is not difficult to be convinced that regulations of communication are very close to regulations of customs. Violation of regulation of communication automatically causes reaction of that Wednesday where this regulation works, and nature of sanctions a little in what differs from the sanctions connected with violation of customs: from disapproval ("At us so do not speak") to a sneer and the individual's exception of structure of this linguistic community when the violator of speech rules is considered as "stranger". Here it is pertinent to give reasonings of the Polish philosopher and the linguist Klemensevich on the standard of speech: "1. The culture is an avoiding of mistakes. 2. The mistake is an aberration. 3. The regulation is the public coercion requiring sanctions for violation. 4. The sanction against the speech is the laughter caused by a public line item".

At the same time, having similarities on nature of sanctions to regulation of customs, the system of communicative regulation possesses a number of the special lines inherent only it. First, the regulation of customs has no biological bases and is a result of history and experience of these people while the communicative regulation along with regulations of thinking has such biological basis in a human brain (Brock's zone); secondly, communicative activities and regulation not only are connected with other public regulations (religions, the rights, customs), but also with all other human activities: converting and informative; thirdly, the regulation of customs has idioethnic character, it is inherent only in this ethnos, the communicative regulation from the point of view of the structure has universal, universal nature. From there are all bases to consider communicative regulation as the special public and language phenomenon.

It is necessary to add to told that communicative activities include without fail the subject of activities whose communicative intention (intension) is realized in the speech which has three versions. After M. M. Kopylenko (but with some differences) we will distinguish the following types of speech actions: production, generation, synthesis of the speech.

(1) Production of the speech is a speech of the individual in the latent period to a stage of its transformation into a flow of material symbols (the internal speech, the speech act).

(2) Generation of the speech is the speech-thoughts process of the individual connected with connection of the phenomena of language and thought at a stage of material implementation (the speech of the ideal individual, the speech act).

(3) Synthesis of the speech is a process of an intensive speech creation taking into account a communication situation (the individual speech in a specific situation; speech act). Thus, speaking about communicative regulation, we will deal with the factors regulating behavior of the subject (language-speech-pragmatics) taking into account specifics of the corresponding types of the speech (production-generation-synthesis).

**2. Structure of communicative norm**

On the basis of triple partitioning of communicative area covered above, borders and features of certain areas of norm can be established:

(1) Area of invariants (language norm);

(2) Area more and less equal options (pragmatical norm). We will consider them in more detail.

1) The language norm operates a speech creation at the first, latent stage of communicative process. The internal speech is under construction on the basis of the language system consisting of language units of various levels, their operating rules in chain, which in relation to the speech production is imperative as well, and normalizing the character. In this case, the concept of "language system" as it coincides with the concept of the "normal". This requires the support of language knowledge in the first place, a set of nominative units, and on the rules of their compatibility.

For example, there is a number of denominative verbs and verbal nouns in the Russian language, which are formed by adding the relevant fundamentals special derivation morpheme:

Cf. рыбак-рыбачить (но: рыбалить)

строить-строитель (но: \*строилец\*, строильщик)

We also observe the similar phenomena in rules of compatibility of lexemes:

Cf. to пить горькую чашу до дна - \*пить горький стакан до дна.

Пить воду, молоко - пить борщ, (in Kazakh such combination of lexemes is possible: (борщ ішу, тамак ішу).

2) The speech regulation is a regulation of generation of the speech in a material form (audio and written). If the language regulation is potentialities of a means of communication, the set of invariants of units and rules allowing to create an infinite set of options, then the speech regulation limits their number. It is the implementation of potentialities of language fixed by public practice, a method of existence and functioning of language in lips of the ideal person, representative of a certain linguistic community. In the speech there is a real connection of forms of thought (concepts, judgments and conclusions) with the materialized speech phenomena. Intensions of the ideal native speaker are connected at the level of the speech mainly with expression of a pro-line item (Latin of propositio "offer"), i.e. general meanings which can be expressed in several ways.

Cf.

1) the father has a house.

2) The father has the house.

3) Father host.

4) Father owner of the house.

5) Fatherly house

6) The father owns the house

7) The father who possesses the house.

8) The house which is property of the father.

9) House of the father.

Here we make one general sense (pro-line item): "the father has the house", but nine methods of its implementation. The knowledge of necessary transformations in case of expression of the same sense forms so-called "intuition of language" (German of Sprachgcfuehl) and actually determines extent of ownership of this language. The choice of one of possible options is performed already at the following, pragmatical stage.

**3) The pragmatic rule** is associated with regulation of individual speech language-specific support in specific conditions of life (the place, the nature of the source, target). There is already, along with the speaker important role in the communication process takes and the listener. After all, if the listener does not understand the speaker, the communication is not possible at all. It is very important is the fact that the source ns only understood the meaning of the speech, but also the attitude of the speaker felt to him and to the subject of speech. Speech synthesis requires consideration of all the circumstances (of the speech to the situational context) for the successful exchange of ideas. three main pragmatic speech synthesis rule associated with this: the desire for complete clarity of speech while saving language means in accordance with the situation (economy of effort), the pursuit of the greatest fullness of expressing their thoughts and feelings, the desire for a variety of ways to influence the listener (reader) through the use of various stylistic devices in various fields of use of language. These three rules is the basis of pragmatic norms. Let us consider them in more detail.

**(1) Rule voice minimum effort** is to be made aware of the interlocutor in this particular situation using the minimum amount of resources (verbal and nonverbal) and time. This goal is achieved by the omission of elements statements that are easy to recover from a narrow (speech) and wide (situational) context. Take the example of a dialogue meeting of two old friends in full and reduced (pragmatic) form:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| The full form | The reduced form |
| 1. how do you feel? | А. How are you feeling? |
| B. Thank you asked me about this. I feel bad | B. Thank you. Bad |
| А. And you. probably very tired? | А. Tired? |
| B. Yes, I'm very tired. | B. too much! |
| A. You should not worry about this occasion. Your fatigue will soon be over! | А. Don’t worry. It will be over. |
| B. Thank you for your wishes | B. Thank you! |

Here we have: in a full form - 40, in the reduced (synthesized) form - 12 word usage (30% from 40!) when saving all necessary information. In similar cases along with an ellipsis (contextual and situational) nominal and incomplete sentences are often used:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Full Form | Reduced form |
| А. . I have met Maria by chance yesterday | А. I have met Maria yesterday |
| B. Have you met Maria by chance yesterday? | B. Maria? |
| A. Yes, I have met her. | A. Her... |
| B. I remember that she was a blonde, well played volleyball when we studied at school. It was even before reorganization. | B. I remember. The blonde, Well played volleyball. At school... Even before reorganization. |

In the first case we have - 36, in the second - 17 word usage.

**2) Rule of strengthening of elements of the statement.** It is connected with pragmatical distributive expansion for stronger emotional impact on the recipient of information by addition to the propositional statement of modal words, particles, interjections and some phrases: конечно, действительно; же, ли, ка; бах! ого! так скачать, кто бы мог подумать, не так ли? and so on. Here it is possible to carry also various types of a parenteza. Сf. Oh! Ах! Как мы его тогда ждали, а он, увы, не пришел. И вдруг, подумать только, является, букет алых роз в pyке как настоящий, так сказать, кавалер.

Speaking about the process of speech synthesis, usually emphasize his creative character, t. To. Communicant selects the appropriate language tools to express their thoughts in this particular situation. This is basically true, but only generally. The fact that the pragmatic purpose of speaking (writing) can be used not only as units (paradigms) and rules (syntagmatics) of the language, but also ready propositional speech cliches (proverbs, aphorisms, winged words, quotes) that it does not create in the process of synthesis and uses ready-to strengthen his thoughts in terms of the same type. repeatedly recurring situations. For example: Hello, good to see you. Could you tell me what time it is, please. I wish you ‘Bon appétit’ if and so on.

Or take the situation when friends gathered to go somewhere, and one of their fellow delayed: "Come on, do not expect a seven." This proverb is used to justify the care of friends, violated the terms go together. The same role is played by amplifying and citations in the scientific text, aphorisms in journalism and so on. All these segments of speech is already someone once were used (usually referred to as usage). These are the facts of the improper, the so-called subjectless discourse. It can be concluded that the pragmatic competence communicant are not only a few rules and language, but also ready-speech segments created by other people, at other times, but in the same or similar situations. Hence the creative nature of the synthesized speech of the individual is a relative.

Typically variety ways to influence the recipient of information, depending on the areas of public life, served by the tongue. Functional and individual styles associated with a specific vocabulary, phraseology and speech structures are the most important aspect of the pragmatic form. Unfortunately, we cannot dwell in detail on this aspect. Summarizing the above, it is necessary to stress once again that the basic rule pragmatic rule is that this particular interlocutor not only understood the speech of the donor of this particular life situation, but felt his attitude towards himself and the subject of conversation at the most rational use of resources of the language and speech experience of this ethnic group. This concludes our consideration of the peculiarities of the communicative structure of norms, including three specific rules (language, speech and pragmatic), which, however, do not represent three successive norms, and is separate aspects, the parties of mechanisms regulating the real processes of production at design level), the speech rate is coordinating illocutionary acts ideal native speaker (a product of speech at the level of implementation of the propositional concept and the investment it in a material form.) Pragmatic rate determines perlocutionary speech acts of a particular individual in a particular life situation (synthesis of verbal and nonverbal factors in the communication process). It is a communicative human activities and its regulatory mechanisms are the real object of linguistics as a science.

**3. Applied Problems of communication standards.**

One of the most important areas of practical application of linguistic theory is the method of learning a second (non-native, foreign) language. It is known that the main factors adversely affecting the process of learning the second language, is the so-called interference, which refers to cases of irregularities observed in the speech of bilingual (bilingual person) on the secondary language, arising under the influence of the primary (native) language. Abnormal (error) determines the quality of foreign speech feature: the greater the error, the lower the quality of the speech in the secondary language. In artificial conditions, the number of bilingual classroom mistakes (students) in foreign speech is the main criterion for assessing his abilities and skills in the field of speech production and communication capabilities in a foreign language. It must be considered, however, that all the rules of the regulatory system of communication cannot be secured in special handbooks, manuals and textbooks. It is important therefore to know about some aspects of the rules and the communication in question, and how to organize the most successful assimilation in the classroom environment. Based on the threefold division of communicative rules (language, speech and pragmatic rule) the whole educational process should be divided into three successive stages, although all three aspects of communication standards do not form a sequence of successive stages. The need for this is caused by the requirement of teaching methods, "one difficulty at a time," which in our case means the construction of a three-stage system of foreign language teaching:

1. In the first stage (let it be the first course) the main purpose is to teach the language norm (nominative units and the rules of their compatibility) in the process of speech production. However, speech production (inner speech) stage that cannot be directly observed. In connection with this, a purely methodological reasons, speech production step is necessary to exteriorize ie voice. The basic unit of the training at this stage is a syntagm, i.e. grammatically decorated phrase (phrase). Selecting from the thematic field of active academic vocabulary (for example, "furniture") a word (.. Eg table, chair, wardrobe, bed, etc.), we are able to determine its ability to create a syntagma of different types: a) the substantive syntagma: round square, old new, large, small; high, low: cooking, writing, wooden, plastic table. b) verbal syntagma: set to move to push, carry, bear, lift, lay the table. c) Adverbial syntagma: on the table, under the table at the table in front of a table, the table, across the table. g) predicative structure: something on the table. Someone puts something on the table. Someone puts a table by the window. The table is in the kitchen, and so on. D. The most convenient type of exercise at this stage will be the so-called dummy tables and conversion exercises
2. In the second stage (though it will be the 2nd year) focuses on ways of expressing propositional meanings (judgment and reasoning) means that language. This requires the setting of all possible variations of the structure using the transformation rules. Moreover, the more complex syntax, the more transformations (transformations) she admits.

Dad is sleeping

(1) Dad fell asleep

(2) the Pope embraced the dream; In the rush I forgot to pay the bill (1) because of the rush I forgot to pay the bill

(2) due to the fact that I was in a hurry, I forgot to pay the bill

(3) slowly, I forgot to pay the bill.

(5) I was in a hurry and forgot to pay the bill, etc.

The main type of training in the generation of speech should recognize the different types of transformation, not only syntax but also grammar: transform the narrative in interrogative sentences, in active passive, far in the past or the future, in the indicative mood in the subjunctive.

3) The third stage (let it be the 3rd and 4th course) focuses on speech synthesis in specific situations of communication. The main types of individual synthesized speech is discourse (oral form) and the text (writing). In the first case, the focus should be dialogical exercises (voprosno- reciprocal dialogue, role-playing and simulation games, interviews, debates, etc...) Using on distributive folding or deployment tasks in the second - the description of objects, people and situations, presentation , writing and so on. n.

From this it does not follow, however, to conclude that all other types of exercise can be neglected. Far from it, you just need to know exactly what we want to achieve by students at each given stage of education. This realization will allow to introduce some consistency in the communication rate of the learning process based on the characteristics of the object. In addition, it will contribute to the development of more precise criteria for assessing the speech activity of pupils at different stages of the learning process and provide a higher level of reliability and validity of the tests used for the current and final control.

In one report, of course, it is impossible to solve all the raised theoretical and applied problems related to the regulatory system communicative activity. Doubtless it should, however, recognize that further study of the issues raised may contribute significantly to the development of topical problems as a modern theoretical linguistics, as well as important issues of practical training in a foreign language school.

**References and Notes**

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