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PRAGMALINGUISTIC STUDIES IN LINGUISTICS

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Monograph

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The aim of this monograph is to give a systematic education on the main issues in medialinguistics, types of media texts which form , jenre-pragmatic peculiarities and to teach the main linguistic approaches in Kazakh media texts.

Moreover, this course teaches a new direction in anthropocentric paradigm –apparatus of medialinguistic terminology, formation, stages of development, constituent components of basic subject, methodology, pragmatic aspects of press studying.

The monograph is meant for MAs, Ph doctorates, students of higher educational institutions.

Foreword

There have been a lot of changes, established stereotypes have been broken in the last twenty years after the country gained independence.

These changes also reflected on Mass media. They allowed to open the way for the formation of a variety of creative approaches and searches in **informational space**.

The first reason is annihilation of the Soviet censorship for more than half a century, creative freedom achieved alongside with the independence, new trends of the press service in market conditions, increased competitativeness in the informational space due to occurrence of variety types of mass media; the second reason is the increase of the mass consciousness to a new level, the former audiences' increased demand for the mass media who were bound to agree earlier , the readers', listeners' taste change as viewers' was the second reason.

The media is a mirror of society and it is an universal tool which introduces and informs the people with political, social, economic, cultural, sports, arts, cinema news, all the accumulated problems in the areas of education and health care, any scientific discoveries and achievements and for this reason we can call journalists as **informational images of the universe.**

This group collects it , analyzes, selects and offers to the general public and their final product could be called as a media text. Because audio (ear)and visual (sight) news which are spread through the media constitute **verbal and collection of media signs** and gives a notion to **a media text.**

Due to the form of delivering the information media is subdivided into three types: television, radio and print. When media language is the object of the research and a text is the concept of linguistics, specific peculiarities of periodicals are revealed from different angles in accordance with the its function in mass media communication.

First of all, in comparison with news shown on TV or listened to the radio news which are in newspapers are always available and a reader has an opportunity to reread. And it is one of the advantages of newspaper news.

Secondly, no matter what the problem is,in comparison with radio and TV news , issues in press are widely observed and analyzed.

Because of the time factor which is in the first place, TV and radio keep time limit. As a result events or issues are shown or listened to rapidly. People who listen to the radio or watch news on TV have to make conclusions themselves on what they have listened or seen. As a result the majority of people who listened to the news on the radio or watch them on TV on the runs they search for them in newspapers the next day. Consequently, a newspaper gives an opportunity to receive a full information for recipients (the readers) and expands his worldview.

It is better to consider media texts not just as a language unit from a linguistic point of view, but a combination of a general area of education and communicative sector. In this regard, media texts are paid a special attention to be considered within the framework of cognitive linguistics.

The language is considered to be recognized as a display(representation) of a received information and as a cognitive tool to reveal it with the help of encoded data.

It is vital for cognitive linguistics experts to organize topic which forms **informative space.** After all, a huge range of media, the flow in the distinctive cultural features are reflected in it. It is of great importance to determine what linguistic methods are used to identify ideological orientations of media texts.

In addition to this, informational extralinguistic factors which are of great importance are carried out by verbal tools, i.e, consideration of a human being in terms of the society and language communication, and it is the main requirement of a fundamental science in anthropocentric direction.

Chapter I

Contemporary directions in linguistics

1. The concept of paradigm in science
2. Anthropocentric paradigm- the main system in modern linguistics.
3. Medialinguistics-one of the interdisciplinary nature of education.
4. Peculiarities of communicative and pragmatic approaches in linguistics.

Modern science is characterized by a combination of various fields. In this regard, at the end of the twentieth century, there was a necessity to change old tendency and to identify a set of approaches to put forward new issues and to solve them. This tendency is coincided with the notion **paradigm** in science.

The term paradigm was firstly introduced in science by Ferdinand de Saussure. At that time its meaning was "declension" or " classification" of a certain word. Later, "scientific paradigm" occurred on the basis of this term. This phrase was known after T.Kun's famous work "The structure of scientific revolution" which was published in 1962. This work was translated into Russian in 1977. According to T.Kun "paradigm is a set of scientific achievements recognized by the public as a whole".He wrote, they are considered to be a model of problems and ways of solution for researchers for a certain period of time". It was important for researchers for a period of time is a model of the problems and ways of their solution "[1, 17]. This term has lost the meaning lately. Thus, it is used in any system of education , in putting forward an issue and principles to find solutions for it.

So, **scientific paradigm** is a set of scientific concepts and theoretical model, a set of principles and achievements in the field of research to solve the issue of the study . Choosing a certain paradigm a scientist has an opportunity to make a research within a certain sphere.[1, 10]. We can say for sure that there are 3 main types of paradigm in Linguistics.

The contract in the history of linguistics can be created over 3 different paradigm.

1. Before **comparative historical paradigm** general scientific methods as control, description were used. There is no doubt if we consider that later introduced **comparative historical paradigm** changed linguopragmatics into a full-fledged science. Because in order to become an independent branch of science there should be not only an object, subject, but also methods to

investigate various phenomena. Comparative historical paradigm played a leading role throughout the whole nineteenth century.

2. According to **system-structural paradigm** a word is a core while researching. Special attention was paid to the name and substance. This paradigm is still recognized as a prior direction in linguopragmatics. A wide range of different grammatical textbooks and academic reference books, huge researches are carried out within the framework of this paradigm.

Structuralism which was the basis of structural paradigm was initially established not in linguistics , but in the field of biology, physiology and physics. Outstanding scientist L.S.Vygotsky in his work "Problems in the development of structural psychology" focused on this notion as a very broad concept «structural principle in worldview is considered to be a model of “conquering ” the theoretical idea» [2,8].

Vygotsky took a socio-historical (also called sociocultural view of development that makes social interaction the center of his theory. Cognition and behavior arise from the interaction of a person with other persons and events in the world,over time,with the use of cultural tools, particularly semiosis. Though Vygotskian theory recognizes that humans are biological organisms in a physical environment, it argues that very early in ontogeny, social rather than biological factors carry the burden of explanation for cognitive development.

For Piaget, cognitive development is at bottom an individual process that is only influenced by social interaction, and his unit of analysis is the individual. Though in some early writings(as yet untranslated) Piaget makes statements that sound very close to a socio-historical position, in his subsequent work he did not develop an analysis of social influence or of social context. Instead Piaget took a structuralist view of development, most explicitly in his later work. He saw cognition and behavior arising by means of functions (organization and adaptation) and structural relations.

Like Kant (whose influence he often acknowledged)Piaget saw the structure of the individual human mind as the source of our perception and rationality; but unlike Kant, he sought a biological explanation in a universal tendency in each organism towards selfregulation or equilibration, as it perpetually encounters and adapts to its environment, a process Professor Brell alludes to in his first paragraph. Professor Brell also points out that Piaget rejected innatist views, including Kant's apriori categories. Piaget argued that human beings are not born with categories or structures of thought but instead construct them through a long process of development. For Piaget, however, that process of construction, though influenced by social factors, has its ontogeny in sensorymotor activity, the interaction between physiology and physical(not social) environment.

In Piaget's mature theory, human beings construct their minds byactivity in the physical world, not the social world, as Vygotsky argued. For Piaget, the social world provides information or content for cognitive operations that have their origins elsewhere (Forman). In the deepest sense, each individual learns to think through his or her body, not through human community. Out of the biological functions of organization and adaptation come cognitive functions (assimilation, accommodation), which in turn give rise to mental categories of reason (such as causality, reciprocity, number, space, quality and class) and also, later, to semiosis, though semiosis is derivative of other cognitive operations and has no special status, as it does in Vygotsky's theory. This led Piaget to argue that cognitive development follows stages. And because our bodies have certain species-specific physiological regularities acting through equilibration and because our experience with physical objects and forces has certain universal regularities, Piaget argues these stages are, to use Professor Brell's term, "inevitable," and thus common to individuals in all cultures: universal. Because in the deepest sense we learn to think with our bodies, abstracting from what Piaget calls schemes of action, the categories of thought are also universal, though they manifest themselves in many cultural forms. "Biological invariants," Piaget wrote, "once they have been reflected upon and elaborated by consciousness during the great stages of mental development, give rise to a sort of functional apriori of reason". In this way Piaget is able to post "inevitable" mental categories from biological processes, without resorting to Kant's innatism. Consequently, I referred to Piaget's stages of cognitive development as "biologically determined"-though they are neither genetically-determined nor, strictly speaking, innate.

They are biologically determined through sensory-motor activity and the universal functioning of equilibration. Consciousness is not (as in Vygotsky's theory) socially constructed through the mediation of cultural tools such as semiosis. Many critics (Vygotskians and others) find the concept of equilibration vague and wonder whyit must mean that all individuals walk down the same developmental path toward logic because of their common physical donne, irrespective of historical cultural formulations. But Piaget insisted, "If the concept of self-regulation or equilibration has any sense at all, the logic or pre-logic of the members of a given society cannot be adequately gauged by already crystallized cultural products .... What wewant to know about is individual inventions" . Yet it is precisely those "already crystallized cultural products" -language, literature, art, science, music, games, institutions, academic disciplines-c-that the Vygotskian (and other externalist) theorists analyze to explain individual cognition, "not from the individual to the social, but from the social to the individual". For Piaget, however, development is fundamentally an individual matter, a substrate of structural transformations, a universal cognitive

base upon which semiosis and culture rest. "So then," Piaget continues in Structuralism, "the history of intelligence ... is a bundle of transformations, not to be confused with the transformations of culture or those of symbolicactivity,but antedating and giving rise to both of these".

Brian Rotman, a Popperian critic of Piaget, puts succinctly a central question that a Vygotskian perspective also raises in this regard These aspects of Piaget's theory are what led me to place it in a different category than Vygotskian socio-historical theory. Piaget's positing of inevitable mental categories, logical/pre-logical structural transformations, or universal stages of development through which individual cognition is constructed, is an excellent example of what Rorty calls a tertiumquid, a "third thing" that dualistic theories require to mediate between an organism and its environment .

Indeed, Piaget himself used the term tertiumquidto describe his attempt to theorize the development of mental structures as neither innate nor created through culture, but as part of an inevitable sensory-motor ontogenesis of cognitive development. Piaget did, as Professor Brell points out, reject traditional Cartesian dualism, but his theory admirably illustrates what Donald Davidson calls "a dualism of scheme and content, of organizing system and something waiting to be organized" . Indeed, the term schemeis important to Piaget's theory, denoting a property of an action which can be generalized to other contents . Piaget wrestled mightily with the problem of the relationship between scheme and content. But he never gave up his search for, as Professor Brell puts it, a "sanction" for "an inevitable sequence of steps of 'interactive' development.,,2 In response, I argue that, from an externalist perspective, the search for such a sanction is fruitless if there is no dualism of scheme and content to be mediated by some tertiumquid, whether this be a Rousseauian universal human nature, Kantian innate a priori categories, or a Piagetian inevitable pattern of cognitive developmental stages.

Piaget does not explore the possibility that culture might, at times, "transmit" knowledge without coercion in such a way that individuals actively create knowledge through cultural participation. Vygotsky's approach, on the other hand, emphasizes the socio-historical interaction of student(s) and school(s) constructing development in ways unique to each culture (often, in Western culture, through academic disciplines). In this view,the activity of schooling leads development. The teachers (and/or more expert peers) are essential partners in development, co-creators, not accompanying facilitators to a process that begins and develops by other means. In the view of some, myself included, applications of Piaget's theory to literacy improvement have had some unfortunate unintended consequences. Piagetians have sometimes explained students' not having acquired certain literacies by assuming that the students

have not yet arrived at a certain developmental level. From a socio-historical perspective, positing a tertiumquid of inevitable stages is not only unnecessary but may also keep us from confronting and reforming the social and institutional structures through which students acquire and appropriate and transform those literacies (or fail to do so).

In structural paradigm, much attention is paid to the language , which is considered to be as a system of research. In this regard, we can notice a tendency like, a fall of interest in the history of the language in the proportion to the current situation of the language-synchronism.

In this regard, several schools of science were established: Prague, Copenhagen, American structural linguistic schools. The following principles are common for these schools: 1. language units are considered to be system-structural formation through **syntagmatic and paradigmatic** universal relations;

Secondly, language- is a sign system which is in coorelation with a lot of sign systems in semiotics;

Thirdly, there was a distinction between ”a language and **communication**”;

Fourthly, there is an opportunity to investigate the language synchronically and diachronically. Thus, much advantage is given to synchronic approach , statics and dynamics are admitted to go alongside with the language;

Fifthly, there was an implication to use definite approaches while researching the language. Subsequently, it related linguistics with humanitarian sciences.

To sum up, similarities of above mentioned two paradigms is that much advantage is given to consider the language within it. In the history of linguistics system-structural paradigm has been playing an important role in linguistics.

3.In **anthropocentric paradigm** researchers' attention changed from cognitive objects to subjects. In other words, human and the language were analyzed deeply at this stage. Thus, much attention was paid to the study of the structure of the language system and the ability of the owner of the language, the language of the universe, the world picture of the world, language features.

In other words, the human factor is in the first place in this direction.

According to reseacher V.V.Bogdanov factors which constitute the notion”a person” are the followings:

- language skills, i.e, communicants should know language codes to have mutual exchange of information;
- social and cultural status (social group, profession, position, cultural norms and traditions, education level, place of residence, marital status, etc.).
-biological, physiological data (age, gender, health, etc.);

- psychological type;
- psychological condition at the time of speech (moods, goals and interests);
- communicants acquaintance;
- tastes and habits;
- appearance (clothes, and self-maintenance), etc.

These signs can be of different importance and values in various societies. It can be revealed during a communication. These signs can be attributed to the important ones [3,29].

Thus, anthropocentric significance of the language is one of the most important ideas in linguopragmatics. Therefore, determination of different language systems is not limited in linguopragmatic analysis. At the moment, language can not be investigated separately. In this regard, communicative-pragmatic approach is of great importance in linguistics. It occurs when we relate it with the notion of system-structural paradigm.

Communicative-pragmatic approach is to potray the language *functionally, communicatively, pragmatic*.

1.There are 2 types of functional approach in linguistics: 1) internal functional (functionally structural) approach which focuses on a certain level of linguistic units or categories. Specific features of language units and their main properties are studied in communication. Therefore, potential of the semantic language units ,their roles and importance are determined; 2) in external functional units or functional language, the language is considered beyond the language environment or in contact with other languages .

The following preconditions were the basis to potray grammatical phenomena from functional point of view:

1. Patterns in the history of grammatical theory.Due to them, the search begins with the study of differentiation of grammatical phenomena and it gradually change to less content differentiated phenomena;

2. The main principles to reconsider scientific concepts. Accrding to them, a new generation of linguists revive their previous categorization trying to contribute to it. Much attention is paid to minimize conflicts, to make conclusions more consistent;

3.Linguomethodological requirements. Firstly, grammatical knowledge is taken into account in order to communicate [4.14].

In general, functional peculiarities of the language phenomena are being studied in different directions. For instance, consciousness , where the language system serves as an external environment**, cognitively-fuctional** approach is used. But, relationship, as an external environment ,the language serves as a coomunication tool, communicative functional approach is used.

2.Properties of language units (direct) in the course of communication are recognized **by communicative approach**. The use of functional and communicative approaches simultaneously, priority is given to intentional (target), social and communicative values. Special attention is paid to the partners' cooperation during the exchange of views. It is obvious to have passive participation of the subject (functional style, functional syntax), as well as active participation (psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, pragmalinguistics) during the communication. .

3. In **pragmatic approach ,** focus is given to the language units and important components which are directly related to the subject, and he in his turn uses the language as the tool of communication.

This approach integrates researches which were carried out in various fields of humanitarian education, also it gives an opportunity to enrich a variety of methods, positions and expectations. No matter how the language units are of great semantic potential in certain **language cases** bthey can not be determined. A speaker chooses the most important and useful tool out of many to reach his goal. We can say for sure that pragmatic approach is used in this case. In any case, components of language units are being actualized constantly in accordance with the text, communicative conditions, communicant's intention. So, to determine how far a word has a strong effect could be carried out through a pragmatic approach.

Thus, linguistics in accordance with the current tendencies in the development of the humanitarian sciences expanded significantly the scope of its impact: researchers changed their directions from phonetics to phonology, from morphology to syntax, semantics, from sentence to texts, from syntactic structure to communication . Thus, interaction between all aspects of speech act and communication are covered within the framework of linguistic research.

1.1. Current intersection of trends in linguistics

Information about a person's life is in the first place in modern science. It reflected on person's mental, social, and cultural features and characteristics and it led to intensive intervention of many disciplines. Strict restrictions were eliminated in modern science, humanitatian and natural sciences mixed. Related disciplines appeared due to the impact of various researches and at the crossroads of sciences. As a result, the former **linguistics** was divided into several branches and they have become more interesting and challenging ones: sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, ethnolinguistics, paralinguistics , linguocultural studies**.**

Ethnolinguistics occurred earlier than others. Language in relation to culture, people's psychology, mentality and mythology are considered in this interesting branch. A great attention is given to the interation of ethno-cultural and ethno-psychological factors in the development of the language and its usage. Specialists in this branch pay a special attention to the nation's genetic relation, bilingualism, multilingualism, social and cultural factors which influence on the development of the language and with the help of the language they recover spiritual and ethnic culture.

The object of linguistics is the language of the tribes and models of ancient culture. It means that definite cultural and historical elements which are connected with the lexical system of the language are of great interest.

Particularly, language materials concerning traditions and customs are very important.The main purpose of ethnolinguistics is historical retrospective, i.e, to reveal the language of the world folklore and stereotypes concerning a certain nation. The 1st part of the proverb ***Ерді намыс өлтіреді, қоянды қамыс өлтіреді*** **(A man could die of dignity, a hare could die of a reed)** is understable, because as we know a man is ready to sacrifice his life to save his dignity. But, how could it be that a reed could kill a hare? In ancient times hunting was a widely spread occupation for Kazakh people. The hunting was carried out with the aid of hunting birds, a Kazakh wolfhound called "tazy" and bows. Except, these methods there was one, which was meant to catch hares. Hunters cut reeds bias beforehand, covered the ground, and chased hares towards them. Coward hares by nature, seeing people and wolfhound "tazys" had to jump on those cut reeds in order to escape. But they were spit by the reeds when they were running fast. Here, people's life is potrayed in the form of proverbs and sayings.

The main aim of ethnolinguistics is to revive forgotten aspects of people's lives and views with the help of language data. Ethnolinguistics (sometimes called cultural linguistics) is a field of linguistics which studies the relationship between language and culture, and the way different ethnic groups perceive the world. It is the combination between ethnology and linguistics. The former refers to the way of life of an entire community, i.e., all the characteristics which distinguish one community from the other. Those characteristics make the cultural aspects of a community or a society.

Ethnolinguists study the way perception and conceptualization influences language, and show how this is linked to different cultures and societies. An example is the way spatial orientation is expressed in various cultures. In many societies, words for the cardinal directions *east* and *west* are derived from terms for sunrise/sunset. The nomenclature for cardinal directions of Inuit speakers of Greenland, however, is based on geographical landmarks such as the river

system and one's position on the coast. Similarly, the Yurok lack the idea of cardinal directions; they orient themselves with respect to their principal geographic feature, the Klamath River.

Cultural Linguistics (capitalized) refers to a related branch of linguistics that explores the relationship between language and cultural conceptualisations. Cultural Linguistics draws on and expands the theoretical and analytical advancements in cognitive science (including complexity science and distributed cognition) and anthropology. Cultural Linguistics examines how various features of human languages encode cultural conceptualisations, including cultural schemas, cultural categories, and cultural metaphors. In Cultural Linguistics, language is viewed as deeply entrenched in the group-level, cultural cognition of communities of speakers. Thus far, the approach of Cultural Linguistics has been adopted in several areas of applied linguistic research, including intercultural communication, second language learning, and World Englishes.

Plexus of linguistics and culture studies gave a way to occurrence of **Linguocultural studies.** It mainly determines the language representation of a nation's culture. It considers the language as a cultural phenomenon. As the universe is considered through national languages much attention is paid to national mentality or a way of thinking. The subject of the study constitute symbolic, figurative and metaphorical meanings of the language units. It investigates results of people's minds or thinkings on myths, legends, customs and traditions, folklore and religious texts, different phraseological phrases, idioms and metaphors. Consequently, a man and the language areconsidered to be a central concept in the context of culture. Linguocultural studies has been developing rapidly during the last decade in linguistics.

The spiritual world includes certain norms of behavior, a system of rules of relationships. In different parts of the world life is infinitely diverse. The mentality and cultural values of people can vary greatly, and even be the exactly opposite. Each ethnic group lives in the world made up of customs and traditions, which find expression in the peculiarities of behavior, religion, values and norms. People relate differently to each other, there is no person with the same lifestyle as everyone perceives the world differently: such notions as experience, failure, success, love, money, beauty, anger, friendship, etc. are perceived and understood by people very specifically and individually. Due to certain circumstances and factors, the existing stereotypes contribute to the formation of the unique private world, unique form of consciousness by every particular individual. It is this personal space and general patterns of social relations constitute the culture of the people.

Concept as a universal category plays a very important role in the culture of each nation; concepts in all the languages reflect not only universal notions, but also completely different meanings and properties of the objective world, which explains their different manifestation in the language. Culturally colored picture of the world affects humans and shapes their linguistic consciousness, and with it, their cultural and national identity. The impact of cultural and human factors on the formation and functioning of different linguistic units (lexemes, free and non-free word-combinations or idioms), the culturally marked content of which is embodied in the national cultural connotations.

Language is the natural form of manifestation and expression of the material and spiritual culture of the people. It shapes the picture of the world, which is the reflection of the national ways of representation of extralinguistic reality. Linguoculturology studies the relations and connections of culture and language in its functioning. The notion of concept is central in linguoculturology. Irrespective of the diversity of views on the nature of the concept, all researchers believe that it is the concept that performs the role of a mediator between cultures, language, and individuals. This is because it is a complicated mental concept tat includes only semantic content, evaluation and the attitude of the people to a particularly reflected object of reality . Lingual concepts are multidimensional, representing principal elements of the picture world, and various values of the individual and his linguocultural community. Babushkin (1993) considers the concept as a discrete mental unit that reflects the object of the real or imaginative world and is kept in the national memory of native speakers in the verbalized form.

Plexus of linguistics, sociology, social psychology and ethnography gave a way to occurrence of **Sociolinguistics**. It considers social nature of the language, its role in the society, impact of social factors on the language. Sociolinguistics is explained in 3 different types: 1) all types of connections between the language and society(language and culture, language and history, language and ethnos, language and religion, language and politics, language and media); 2) speakers are free to choose any model of language or language units. For instance, bilingual, literal language and dialect, bookish and conversational language.3) peculiarities of different types concerning the language, i.e, social and age peculiarities.

Sociolinguistics is the descriptive study of the effect of any and all aspects of society, including cultural norms, expectations, and context, on the way language is used, and the effects of language use on society. Sociolinguistics differs from sociology of language in that the focus of sociology of language is the effect of language on the society, while sociolinguistics focuses on the society's effect on language. Sociolinguistics overlaps to a considerable degree

with pragmatics. It is historically closely related to linguistic anthropology and the distinction between the two fields has even been questioned.[1]

It also studies how language varieties differ between groups separated by certain social variables (e.g., ethnicity, religion, status, gender, level of education, age, etc.) and how creation and adherence to these rules is used to categorize individuals in social or socioeconomic classes. As the usage of a language varies from place to place, language usage also varies among social classes, and it is these sociolects that sociolinguistics studies.

The social aspects of language were in the modern sense first studied by Indian and Japanese linguists in the 1930s, and also by Louis Gauchat in Switzerland in the early 1900s, but none received much attention in the West until much later. The study of the social motivation of language change, on the other hand, has its foundation in the wave model of the late 19th century. The first attested use of the term sociolinguistics was by Thomas Callan Hodson in the title of his 1939 article "Sociolinguistics in India" published in Man in India. Sociolinguistics in the West first appeared in the 1960s and was pioneered by linguists such as William Labov in the US and Basil Bernstein in the UK. In the 1960s, William Stewart[4] and Heinz Kloss introduced the basic concepts for the sociolinguistic theory of pluricentric languages, which describes how standard language varieties differ between nations.

For example, a sociolinguist might determine through study of social attitudes that a particular vernacular would not be considered appropriate language use in a business or professional setting. Sociolinguists might also study the grammar, phonetics, vocabulary, and other aspects of this sociolect much as dialectologists would study the same for a regional dialect.

The study of language variation is concerned with social constraints determining language in its contextual environment. Code-switching is the term given to the use of different varieties of language in different social situations.

William Labov is often regarded as the founder of the study of sociolinguistics. He is especially noted for introducing the quantitative study of language variation and change, making the sociology of language into a scientific discipline.

Sociolinguistics as a field distinct from dialectology was pioneered through the study of language variation in urban areas. Whereas dialectology studies the geographic distribution of language variation, sociolinguistics focuses on other sources of variation, among them class. Class and occupation are among the most important linguistic markers found in society. One of the fundamental findings of sociolinguistics, which has been hard to disprove, is that class and language variety are related. Members of the working class tend to speak less standard language, while the lower, middle, and upper middle class

will in turn speak closer to the standard. However, the upper class, even members of the upper middle class, may often speak 'less' standard than the middle class. This is because not only class, but class aspirations, are important.

Studies, such as those by William Labov in the 1960s, have shown that social aspirations influence speech patterns. This is also true of class aspirations. In the process of wishing to be associated with a certain class (usually the upper class and upper middle class) people who are moving in that direction socio-economically will adjust their speech patterns to sound like them. However, not being native upper class speakers, they often hypercorrect, which involves overcorrecting their speech to the point of introducing new errors. The same is true for individuals moving down in socio-economic status.

In any contact situation, there is a power dynamic, be it a teacher-student or employee-customer situation, this power dynamic results in a hierarchical differentiation between languages.

Basil Bernstein, a well-known British socio-linguist, devised in his book, 'Elaborated and restricted codes: their social origins and some consequences,' a social code system he used to classify the various speech patterns for different social classes. He claimed that members of the middle class have ways of organizing their speech that are fundamentally very different from the ways adopted by the working class.

In Basil Bernstein's theory, the restricted code was an example of the speech patterns used by the working class. He stated that this type of code allows strong bonds between group members, who tend to behave largely on the basis of distinctions such as 'male', 'female', 'older', and 'younger'. This social group also uses language in a way that brings unity between people, and members often do not need to be explicit about meaning, as their shared knowledge and common understanding often bring them together in a way that other social language groups do not experience. The difference with the restricted code is the emphasis on 'we' as a social group, which fosters greater solidarity than an emphasis on 'I'.

The time when "restricted-code" matters is the day when children start school where the standard variety of language is used. Moreover, the written form of a language is already very different from the everyday form. Children with restricted-code, therefore, struggle at school more than those who speak an "elaborated-code".

However, this type of communicative skills may not be understood by other children who belong to other classes. What's more, children with restricted-code may have difficulty in understanding the teacher, the only source of information for them at school. Therefore, it is suggested that working-class children should have pre-school training within their early childhood period.

Early schooling may provide them with opportunities to acquire a manner of speaking that is considered appropriate at school.

Basil Bernstein also studied what he named the 'elaborated code' explaining that in this type of speech pattern the middle and upper classes use this language style to gain access to education and career advancement. Bonds within this social group are not as well defined and people achieve their social identity largely on the basis of individual disposition and temperament. There is no obvious division of tasks according to sex or age and generally, within this social formation members negotiate and achieve their roles, rather than have them there ready-made in advance. Due to the lack of solidarity the elaborated social language code requires individual intentions and viewpoints to be made explicit as the 'I' has a greater emphasis with this social group than the working class.

Psycholinguistics is the science which considers word-formation, relation between word perception process and language system. It also considers a speech act, physiological activity and various psychological experiments were verified.

According to the subject of the study psycholinguistics is close to linguistics,according to the object of the study it is close to psychology.The aim of this branch of science is to explain and describe the features of the language as a mental phenomenon. It also considers issues on mastering and using the 1st and the 2nd languages at the same time.

Psycholinguistics or psychology of language is the study of the psychological and neurobiological factors that enable humans to acquire, use, comprehend and produce language. Initial forays into psycholinguistics were largely philosophical or educational schools of thought, due mainly to their location in departments other than applied sciences (e.g., cohesive data on how the human brain functioned). Modern research makes use of biology, neuroscience, cognitive science, linguistics, and information science to study how the brain processes language, and less so the known processes of social sciences, human development, communication theories and infant development, among others. There are a number of subdisciplines with non-invasive techniques for studying the neurological workings of the brain; for example, neurolinguistics has become a field in its own right.

Psycholinguistics has roots in education and philosophy, and covers the "cognitive processes" that make it possible to generate a grammatical and meaningful sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures, as well as the processes that make it possible to understand utterances, words, text, etc. Developmental psycholinguistics studies children's ability to learn language.

Psycholinguistics is an interdisciplinary field. Hence, it is studied by researchers from a variety of different backgrounds, such as psychology, cognitive science, linguistics, and speech and language pathology. Psycholinguists study many different topics, but these topics can generally be divided into answering the following questions:

(1) how do children acquire language (language acquisition)?;

(2) how do people process and comprehend language (language comprehension)?;

(3) how do people produce language (language production)?;

and (4) how do people acquire a new language (second language acquisition)?

Subdivisions in psycholinguistics are also made based on the different components that make up human language.

Linguistics-related areas:

- Phonetics and phonology are concerned with the study of speech sounds. Within psycholinguistics, research focuses on how the brain processes and understands these sounds.
- Morphology is the study of word structures, especially the relationships between related words (such as *dog* and *dogs*) and the formation of words based on rules (such as plural formation).
- Syntax is the study of the patterns which dictate how words are combined to form sentences.
- Semantics deals with the meaning of words and sentences. Where syntax is concerned with the formal structure of sentences, semantics deals with the actual meaning of sentences.
- Pragmatics is concerned with the role of context in the interpretation of meaning.

A researcher interested in language comprehension may study word recognition during reading to examine the processes involved in the extraction of orthographic, morphological, phonological, and semantic information from patterns in printed text. A researcher interested in language production might study how words are prepared to be spoken starting from the conceptual or semantic level. Developmental psycholinguists study infants' and children's ability to learn and process language.[4]

There are essentially two schools of thought as to how children acquire or learn language, and there is still much debate as to which theory is the correct one. The first theory states that all language must be learned by the child. The second view states that the abstract system of language cannot be learned, but that humans possess an innate language faculty, or an access to what has been

called universal grammar. The view that language must be learned was especially popular before 1960 and is well represented by the mentalistic theories of Jean Piaget and the empiricist Rudolf Carnap. Likewise, the school of psychology known as behaviorism (by B.F. Skinner) puts forth the point of view that language is a behavior shaped by conditioned response, hence it is learned.

The innatist perspective began with Noam Chomsky's highly critical review of Skinner's book in 1959. This review helped to start what has been termed "the cognitive revolution" in psychology. Chomsky posited humans possess a special, innate ability for language and that complex syntactic features, such as recursion, are "hard-wired" in the brain. These abilities are thought to be beyond the grasp of the most intelligent and social non-humans. According to Chomsky, children acquiring a language have a vast search space to explore among all possible human grammars, yet at the time there was no evidence that children receive sufficient input to learn all the rules of their language (see poverty of the stimulus). Hence, there must be some other innate mechanism that endows a language ability to humans. Such a language faculty is, according to the innateness hypothesis, what defines human language and makes it different from even the most sophisticated forms of animal communication.

The field of linguistics and psycholinguistics since then has been defined by reactions to Chomsky, pro and con. The pro view still holds that the human ability to use language (specifically the ability to use recursion) is qualitatively different from any sort of animal ability. This ability may have resulted from a favorable mutation or from an adaptation of skills evolved for other purposes. The view that language can be learned has had a recent resurgence inspired by emergentism. This view challenges the "innate" view as scientifically unfalsifiable; that is to say, it can't be tested. With the amount of computer power increasing since the 1980s, researchers have been able to simulate language acquisition using neural network models. These models provide evidence that there may, in fact, be sufficient information contained in the input to learn language, even syntax. If this is true, then an innate mechanism is no longer necessary to explain language acquisition.

One question in the realm of language comprehension is how people understand sentences as they read (also known as sentence processing). Experimental research has spawned a number of theories about the architecture and mechanisms of sentence comprehension. Typically these theories are concerned with what types of information contained in the sentence the reader can use to build meaning, and at what point in reading does that information

become available to the reader. Issues such as "modular" versus "interactive" processing have been theoretical divides in the field.

A modular view of sentence processing assumes that the stages involved in reading a sentence function independently in separate modules. These modulates have limited interaction with one another. For example, one influential theory of sentence processing, the garden-path theory, states that syntactic analysis takes place first.

Under this theory as the reader is reading a sentence, he or she creates the simplest structure possible in order to minimize effort and cognitive load. This is done without any input from semantic analysis or context-dependent information. Hence, in the sentence "The evidence examined by the lawyer turned out to be unreliable," by the time the reader gets to the word "examined" he or she has committed to a reading of the sentence in which the evidence is examining something because it is the simplest parse. This commitment is made despite the fact that it results in an implausible situation; we know from experience that evidence can rarely if ever examine something. Under this "syntax first" theory, semantic information is processed at a later stage. It is only later that the reader will recognize that he or she needs to revise the initial parse into one in which "the evidence" is being examined. In this example, readers typically recognize their misparse by the time they reach "by the lawyer" and must go back and re-parse the sentence. This reanalysis is costly and contributes to slower reading times.

In contrast to a modular account, an interactive theory of sentence processing, such as a constraint-based lexical approach assumes that all available information contained within a sentence can be processed at any time. Under an interactive account, for example, the semantics of a sentence (such as plausibility) can come into play early on in order to help determine the structure of a sentence. Hence, in the sentence above, the reader would be able to make use of plausibility information in order to assume that "the evidence" is being examined instead of doing the examining. There are data to support both modular and interactive accounts; which account is the correct one is still up for debate.

The analysis of systematic errors in speech, writing and typing of language as it is produced can provide evidence of the process which has generated it. Errors of speech, in particular, grant insight into how the mind processes language production while a speaker is in the midst of an utterance. Speech errors tend to occur in the lexical, morpheme, and phoneme encoding steps of language production, as seen by the ways errors can manifest. The types of speech errors, and some examples, are:

- Substitutions (phoneme and lexical) – replacing a sound with an unrelated sound, or a word with an antonym, and saying "verbal outfit" instead of "verbal output", or "He rode his bike tomorrow" instead of "...yesterday", respectively,
- Blends – mixing two synonyms together and saying "my stummy hurts" in place of either "stomach" or "tummy",
- Exchanges (phoneme [a.k.a. Spoonerisms] and morpheme) – swapping two onset sounds or two root words, and saying "You hissed my mystery lectures" instead of "You missed my history lectures", or "They're Turking talkish" instead of "They're talking Turkish", respectively,
- Morpheme shifts – moving a function morpheme such as "-ly" or "-ed" to a different word and saying "easy enoughly" instead of "easily enough",
- Perseveration – continuing to start a word with a sound that was in the utterance previously and saying "John gave the goy a ball" instead of "John gave the boy a ball", and
- Anticipation – replacing a sound with one that is coming up later in the utterance and saying "She drank a cot cup of tea" instead of "She drank a hot cup of tea."

Speech errors will usually occur in the stages that involve lexical, morpheme, or phoneme encoding, and usually not the first step of semantic encoding. This can be credited to how a speaker is still conjuring the idea of what to say, and unless he changes his mind, can not be mistaken in what he wanted to say.

In **cognitive linguistics** language is considered as a system of encoding symbols and transmitting the information. Its main category is knowledge stock, its types and approaches of transmitting them through language tools. In other words, language as a main tool is a warehouse, storage and supplier. The main goal of cognitive linguistics is person's perception of the world around her, categorization and classification of processes, accumulation of knowledge and understanding how information is performed.

Cognitive linguistics is a school of thought that focuses on language as an instrument for organizing, processing and conveying information.

Within cognitive inguistics, the analysis of the conceptual and experiential basis of linguistic categories is of primary importance. The formal structures of language are studied not as if they were autonomous, but as reflections of general conceptual organization, categorization principles, processing mechanisms, and experiential and environmental influences. Since cognitive linguistics sees language as embedded in the overall cognitive capacities of man, topics of special interest for cognitive linguistics include: the structural characteristics of natural language categorization (such as prototypicality,

systematic polysemy, cognitive models, mental imagery, and conceptual metaphor); the functional principles of linguistic organization (such as iconicity and naturalness); the conceptual interface between syntax and semantics (as explored by cognitive grammar and construction grammar); the experiential and pragmatic background of language-in-use; and the relationship between language and thought, including questions about linguistic relativity and conceptual universals. To summarize, what holds together the diverse forms of cognitive linguistics is the belief that linguistic knowledge involves not just knowledge of the language, but knowledge of the world as mediated by the language.

In addition, cognitive linguistics argues that language is both embodied and situated in a specific environment.

Cognitive linguists deny that the mind has any module for language-acquisition that is unique and autonomous. This stands in contrast to the stance adopted by Noam Chomsky and others in the field of generative grammar. Although cognitive linguists do not necessarily deny that part of the human linguistic ability is innate, they deny that it is *separate* from the rest of cognition. They thus reject a body of opinion in cognitive science suggesting that there is evidence for the modularity of language. Departing from the tradition of truth-conditional semantics, cognitive linguists view meaning in terms of conceptualization. Instead of viewing meaning in terms of models of the world, they view it in terms of mental spaces.

They argue that knowledge of linguistic phenomena — i.e., phonemes, morphemes, and syntax — is essentially conceptual in nature. However, they assert that the storage and retrieval of linguistic data is not significantly different from the storage and retrieval of other knowledge, and that use of language in understanding employs similar cognitive abilities to those used in other non-linguistic tasks.

Areas of study:

Cognitive linguistics is divided into three main areas of study:

- Cognitive semantics, dealing mainly with lexical semantics, separating semantics (meaning) into meaning-construction and knowledge representation.
- Cognitive approaches to grammar, dealing mainly with syntax, morphology and other traditionally more grammar-oriented areas.
- Cognitive phonology, dealing with classification of various correspondences between morphemes and phonetic sequences.

Aspects of cognition that are of interest to cognitive linguists include:

- Construction grammar and cognitive grammar.

- Conceptual metaphor and conceptual blending.
- Image schemas and force dynamics.
- Conceptual organization: Categorization, Metonymy, Frame semantics, and Iconicity.
- Construal and Subjectivity.
- Gesture and sign language.
- Linguistic relativity.
- Cultural linguistics.

Related work that interfaces with many of the above themes:

- Computational models of metaphor and language acquisition.
- Dynamical models of language acquisition
- Conceptual semantics, pursued by generative linguist Ray Jackendoff, is related because of its active *psychological realism* and the incorporation of prototype structure and images.

Cognitive linguistics, more than generative linguistics, seeks to mesh together these findings into a coherent whole. A further complication arises because the terminology of cognitive linguistics is not entirely stable, both because it is a relatively new field and because it interfaces with a number of other disciplines.

Insights and developments from cognitive linguistics are becoming accepted ways of analysing literary texts, too. Cognitive Poetics, as it has become known, has become an important part of modern stylistics.

There is significant peer review and debate within the field of linguistics regarding cognitive linguistics. Critics of cognitive linguistics have argued that most of the evidence from the cognitive view comes from the research in pragmatics and semantics, and research in metaphor and preposition choice. They suggest that cognitive linguists should provide cognitive re-analyses of topics in syntax and phonology that are understood in terms of autonomous knowledge.

There is also controversy and debate within the field concerning the representation and status of idioms in grammar and the actual mental grammar of speakers. On one hand it is asserted that idiom variation needs to be explained with regard to general and autonomous syntactic rules. Another view says such idioms do not constitute semantic units and can be processed compositionally.

Paralinguistics studies non-verbal means of communication alongside with verbal one. It is imposiible to imagine our communication without them even they have been introduced as paralinguistic tools in language system. Therefore, we can say for sure that it's a great achievement in paralinguistics

that it is studied as a tool. Paralanguage is a component of meta-communication that may modify or nuance meaning, or convey emotion, such as prosody, pitch, volume, intonation etc. It is sometimes defined as relating to nonphonemic properties only.

Paralanguage may be expressed consciously or unconsciously. The study of paralanguage is known as paralinguistics, and was invented by George L. Trager in the 1950s, while he was working at the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State. His colleagues at the time included Henry Lee Smith, Charles F. Hockett (working with him on using descriptive linguistics as a model for paralanguage), Edward T. Hall developing proxemics, and Ray Birdwhistell developing kinesics. Trager published his conclusions in 1958, 1960 and 1961. His work has served as a basis for all later research, especially those investigating the relationship between paralanguage and culture (since paralanguage is learned, it differs by language and culture). A good example is the work of John J. Gumperz on language and social identity, which specifically describes paralinguistic differences between participants in intercultural interactions.

The film Gumperz made for BBC in 1982, *Multiracial Britain: Crosstalk*, does a particularly good job of demonstrating cultural differences in paralanguage, and the impact these have on relationships.

Paralinguistic information, because it is phenomenal, belongs to the external speech signal (Ferdinand de Saussure's *parole*) but not to the arbitrary conventional code of language (Saussure's *langue*).

The paralinguistic properties of speech play an important role in human communication. There are no utterances or speech signals that lack paralinguistic properties, since speech requires the presence of a voice that can be modulated. This voice must have *some* properties, and all the properties of a voice as such are paralinguistic. However, the distinction linguistic vs. paralinguistic applies not only to speech but to writing and sign language as well, and it is not bound to any sensory modality. Even vocal language has some paralinguistic as well as linguistic properties that can be *seen* (lip reading, McGurk effect), and even *felt*, e.g. by the Tadoma method.

Speech signals arrive at a listener’s ears with acoustic properties that may allow listeners to identify location of the speaker (sensing distance and direction, for example). Sound localization functions in a similar way also for non-speech sounds. The perspectival aspects of lip reading are more obvious and have more drastic effects when head turning is involved.

Organic aspects

The speech organs of different speakers differ in size. As children grow up, their organs of speech become larger and there are differences between male and female adults. The differences concern not only size, but also proportions. They affect the pitch of the voice and to a substantial extent also the formant frequencies, which characterize the different speech sounds. The organic quality of speech has a communicative function in a restricted sense, since it is merely informative about the speaker. It will be expressed independently of the speaker's intention.

Paralinguistic cues such as loudness, rate, pitch, pitch contour, and to some extent formant frequencies of an utterance, contribute to the emotive or attitudinal quality of an utterance. Typically, attitudes are expressed intentionally and emotions without intention, but attempts to fake or to hide emotions are not unusual .

Consequently, paralinguistic cues relating to expression have a moderate effect of semantic marking. That is, a message may be made more or less coherent by adjusting its expressive presentation. For instance, upon hearing an utterance such as "I drink a glass of wine every night before I go to sleep" is coherent when made by a speaker identified as an adult, but registers a small semantic anomaly when made by a speaker identified as a child. This anomaly is significant enough to be measured through electroencephalography, as an N400. Individuals with disorders along autism spectrum have a reduced sensitivity to this and similar effects.

Emotional tone of voice, itself paralinguistic information, has been shown to affect the resolution of lexical ambiguity. Some words have homophonous partners; some of these homophones appear to have an implicit emotive quality, for instance the sad "die" contrasted with the neutral "dye"; uttering the sound /dai/ in a sad tone of voice can result in a listener writing that word significantly more often than if the word is uttered in a neutral tone.

Ordinary phonetic transcriptions of utterances reflect only the linguistically informative quality. The problem of how listeners factor out the linguistically informative quality from speech signals is a topic of current research.

Some of the linguistic features of speech, in particular of its prosody, are paralinguistic or pre-linguistic in origin. A most fundamental and widespread phenomenon of this kind is described by John Ohala as the "frequency code". This code works even in communication across species. It has its origin in the fact that the acoustic frequencies in the voice of small vocalizers are high while they are low in the voice of large vocalizers. This gives rise to secondary meanings such as 'harmless', 'submissive', 'unassertive', which are naturally

associated with smallness, while meanings such as 'dangerous', 'dominant', and 'assertive' are associated with largeness. In most languages, the frequency code also serves the purpose of distinguishing questions from statements. It is universally reflected in expressive variation, and it is reasonable to assume that it has phylogenetically given rise to the sexual dimorphism that lies behind the large difference in pitch between average female and male adults.

In text-only communication such as email, chatrooms and instant messaging, paralinguistic elements can be displayed by emoticons, font and color choices, capitalization and the use of non-alphabetic or abstract characters. Nonetheless, paralanguage in written communication is limited in comparison with face-to-face conversation, sometimes leading to misunderstandings.

A gasp is a kind of paralinguistic respiration in the form of a sudden and sharp inhalation of air through the mouth. A gasp may indicate difficulty breathing, and a panicked effort to draw air into the lungs. Gasps also occur from an emotion of surprise, shock or disgust. Like a sigh, a yawn, or a moan, a gasp is often an automatic and unintentional act.[10]Gasping is closely related to sighing, and the inhalation characterizing a gasp induced by shock or surprise may be released as a sigh if the event causing the initial emotional reaction is determined to be less shocking or surprising than the observer first believed.[11]

As a symptom of physiological problems, apneustic respirations (a.k.a. apneusis), are gasps related to the brain damage associated with a stroke or other trauma.

A sigh is a kind of paralinguistic respiration in the form of a deep and especially audible, single exhalation of air out of the mouth or nose, that humans use to communicate emotion. It is voiced pharyngeal fricative, sometimes associated with a guttural glottal breath exuded in a low tone. It often arises from a negative emotion, such as dismay, dissatisfaction, boredom, or futility. [10] A sigh can also arise from positive emotions such as relief,[12] particularly in response to some negative situation ending or being avoided. Like a gasp, a yawn, or a moan, a sigh is often an automatic and unintentional act.[10] In literature, a sigh is often used to signify that the person producing it is lovelorn.

Scientific studies show that babies sigh after 50 to 100 breaths. This serves to improve the mechanical properties of lung tissue, and it also helps babies to develop a regular breathing rhythm. Behaviors equivalent to sighing have also been observed in animals such as dogs, monkeys, and horses.

In text messages and internet chat rooms, or in comic books, a sigh is usually represented with the word itself, 'sigh', possibly within asterisks, *sigh*.

Clearing one's throat is a metamessaging nonverbal form of communication, used in announcing one's presence upon entering the room or

approaching a group. It is done by individuals who perceive themselves to be of higher rank than the group they are approaching and utilize the throat-clear as a form of communicating this perception to others.

The throat-clear is also used to convey nonverbalized disapproval.

And in chimpanzee social hierarchy, this utterance is a sign of rank, directed by alpha males and higher-ranking chimps to lower-ranking ones and signals a mild warning or a slight annoyance.

As a form of metacommunication, the throat-clear is acceptable only to signal that a formal business meeting is about to start. It is not acceptable business etiquette to clear one's throat when approaching a group on an informal basis; the basis of one's authority has already been established and requires no further reiteration by this ancillary nonverbal communication.

Neurolinguistics -the branch of linguistics dealing with the relationship between language and the structure and functioning of the brain. It appeared to meet the needs of clinical diagnostic tasks. Its object is to observe a patient's manner of speaking (interviews, graphics, narrative, reading, writing, etc.) and to control the use of it. It is very a important issue for neurolinguistics to observe a way of speaking and behavior of people whose brains are damaged learning two or more languages.

Neurolinguistics is historically rooted in the development in the 19th century of aphasiology, the study of linguistic deficits (aphasias) occurring as the result of brain damage. Aphasiology attempts to correlate structure to function by analyzing the effect of brain injuries on language processing. One of the first people to draw a connection between a particular brain area and language processing was Paul Broca, a French surgeon who conducted autopsies on numerous individuals who had speaking deficiencies, and found that most of them had brain damage on the left frontal lobe, in an area now known as Broca's area.

Phrenologists had made the claim in the early 19th century that different brain regions carried out different functions and that language was mostly controlled by the frontal regions of the brain, but Broca's research was possibly the first to offer empirical evidence for such a relationship, and has been described as "epoch-making" and "pivotal" to the fields of neurolinguistics and cognitive science. Later, Carl Wernicke, after whom Wernicke's area is named, proposed that different areas of the brain were specialized for different linguistic tasks, with Broca's area handling the motor production of speech, and Wernicke's area handling auditory speech comprehension.

The work of Broca and Wernicke established the field of aphasiology and the idea that language can be studied through examining physical characteristics of the brain. Early work in aphasiology also benefited from the early twentieth-

century work of Korbinian Brodmann, who "mapped" the surface of the brain, dividing it up into numbered areas based on each area's cytoarchitecture (cell structure) and function; these areas, known as Brodmann areas, are still widely used in neuroscience today

The coining of the term "neurolinguistics" is attributed to Edith Crowell Trager, Henri Hecaen and Alexandr Luria, in the late 1940s and 1950s; Luria's book "Problems in Neurolinguistics" is likely the first book with Neurolinguistics in the title. Harry Whitaker popularized neurolinguistics in the United States in the 1970s, founding the journal "Brain and Language" in 1974.

Although aphasiology is the historical core of neurolinguistics, in recent years the field has broadened considerably, thanks in part to the emergence of new brain imaging technologies and time-sensitive electrophysiological techniques, which can highlight patterns of brain activation as people engage in various language tasks; electrophysiological techniques, in particular, emerged as a viable method for the study of language in 1980 with the discovery of the N400, a brain response shown to be sensitive to semantic issues in language comprehension. The N400 was the first language-relevant brain response to be identified, and since its discovery EEG and MEG have become increasingly widely used for conducting language research.

Neurolinguistics is closely related to the field of psycholinguistics, which seeks to elucidate the cognitive mechanisms of language by employing the traditional techniques of experimental psychology; today, psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic theories often inform one another, and there is much collaboration between the two fields.

Much work in neurolinguistics involves testing and evaluating theories put forth by psycholinguists and theoretical linguists. In general, theoretical linguists propose models to explain the structure of language and how language information is organized, psycholinguists propose models and algorithms to explain how language information is processed in the mind, and neurolinguists analyze brain activity to infer how biological structures . Neurolinguists can also make new predictions about the structure and organization of language based on insights about the physiology of the brain, by "generalizing from the knowledge of neurological structures to language structure".

Where is language in the brain?

This question is hard to answer, because brain activity is like the activity of a huge city. A city is organized so that people who live in it can get what they need to live on, but you can't say that a complex activity, like manufacturing a product, is 'in' one place. Raw materials have to arrive at the right times, subcontractors are needed, the product must be shipped out in various directions. It's the same with our brains. We can't say that language is 'in' a particular part of

the brain. It's not even true that a particular word is 'in' one place in a person's brain; the information that comes together when we understand or say a word arrives from many places, depending on what the word means. For example, when we understand or say a word like ‘apple’, we are likely to use information about what apples look, feel, smell, and taste like, even though we aren’t aware of doing this.

So listening, understanding, talking, and reading involve activities in many parts of the brain. However, some parts of the brain are more involved in language than other parts.

Most of the parts of your brain that are crucial for both spoken and written language are in the left side of the cortex of your brain (the left hemisphere), regardless of what language you read and how it is written. We know this because aphasia is almost always caused by left hemisphere injury, not by right hemisphere injury, no matter what language you speak or read, or whether you can read at all. (This is true for about 95% of right-handed people and about half of left-handed people.) A large part of the brain (the 'white matter') consists of fibers that connect different areas to one another, because using language (and thinking) requires the rapid integration of information that is stored and/or processed in many different brain regions.

Areas in the right side are essential for communicating effectively and for understanding the point of what people are saying. If you are bilingual but didn’t learn both languages from birth, your right hemisphere may be somewhat more involved in your second language than it is in your first language. Our brains are somewhat plastic – that is, their organization depends on our experiences as well as on our genetic endowment. For example, many of the ‘auditory’ areas of the brain, which are involved with understanding spoken language in people with normal hearing, are used in (visually) understanding signed language by people who are deaf from birth or who became deaf early (and do not have cochlear implants). And blind people use the ‘visual’ areas of their brains in processing words written in Braille, even though Braille is read by touch.

Bilingual speakers develop special skills in controlling which language to use and whether it is appropriate for them to mix their languages, depending on whom they are speaking to.

What is aphasia like? Is losing language after brain damage the reverse of learning it? People who have difficulties speaking or understanding language because of brain damage are not like children. Using language involves many kinds of knowledge and skill. People with aphasia have different combinations of things that they can still do in an adult-like way and things that they now do clumsily or not at all. In fact, we can see different patterns of profiles of spared and impaired linguistic abilities across different people with aphasia.

Therapy can help aphasic people to improve on or regain lost skills and make the best use of remaining abilities. Adults who have had brain damage and become aphasic recover more slowly than children who have had the same kind of damage, but they continue to improve slowly over decades if they have good language stimulation and do not have additional strokes or other brain injuries.

What about dyslexia, and children who have trouble learning to talk even though they can hear normally? Why do people have reading difficulties? Research suggests that dyslexics have trouble processing the sounds of language and have difficulty relating the printed word to sounds. Genetic differences and genetically-based brain differences have been found in families with dyslexia and developmental language disorders, and research in this area is helping us understand how genes act in setting up the initial 'wiring' of all of our brains. There is solid evidence that appropriate language-based therapy is effective for children with developmental disorders of reading and language, including stuttering.

Many established ideas about neurolinguistics – in particular, roles of the traditional 'language areas' (Broca's area, Wernicke's area) in the left hemisphere of the brain - have been challenged and in some cases overturned by recent evidence. Probably the most important recent findings are 1) that extensive networks involving areas remote from the traditional language areas are deeply involved in language use, 2) that the language areas are also involved in the processing of non-language information, such as some aspects of music , and 3) that the correlations of particular areas of the brain with particular language impairments are much poorer than had been thought. This new information has become available because of major improvements in our ability to see what is happening in the brain when people speak or listen, and from the accumulation and analysis of many years of detailed aphasia test data.

For over a hundred years, research in neurolinguistics was almost completely dependent on the study of language comprehension and production by people with aphasia. These studies of their language ability were augmented by relatively crude information about where the injury was located in the brain. Neurologists had to deduce that information, such as it was, by considering what other abilities were lost, and by autopsy information, which was not often available. A few patients who were about to undergo surgery to relieve severe epilepsy or tumors could be studied by direct brain stimulation, when it was medically needed to guide the surgeon away from areas essential for the patient's use of language.

Early-generation computerized x-ray studies (CAT scans, CT scans) and radiographic cerebral blood-flow studies (angiograms) began to augment experimental and observational studies of aphasia in the 1970s, but they gave

very crude information about where the damaged part of the brain was located. These early brain-imaging techniques could only see what parts of the brain had serious damage or restricted blood flow. They could not give information about the actual activity that was taking place in the brain, so they could not follow what was happening during language processing in normal or aphasic speakers. Studies of normal speakers in that period mostly looked at which side of the brain was most involved in processing written or spoken language, because this information could be gotten from laboratory tasks involving reading or listening under difficult conditions, such as listening to different kinds of information presented to the two ears at the same time (dichotic listening).

Since the 1990s, there has been an enormous shift in the field of neurolinguistics. With modern technology, researchers can study how the brains of normal speakers process language, and how a damaged brain processes and compensates for injury. This new technology allows us to track the brain activity that is going on while people are reading, listening, and speaking, and also to get very fine spatial resolution of the location of damaged areas of the brain. Fine spatial resolution comes from magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), which gives exquisite pictures showing which brain areas are damaged; the resolution of CT scans has also improved immensely.

It is very complicated to figure out the details of how the information from different parts of the brain might combine in real time, so another kind of advance has come from the development of ways to use computers to simulate parts of what the brain might be doing during speaking or reading.

Investigations of exactly what people with aphasia and other language disorders can and cannot do also continue to contribute to our understanding of the relationships between brain and language. For example, comparing how people with aphasia perform on tests of syntax, combined with detailed imaging of their brains, has shown that there are important individual differences in the parts of the brain involved in using grammar. Also, comparing people with aphasia across languages shows that the various types of aphasia have somewhat different symptoms in different languages, depending on the kinds of opportunities for error that each language provides. For example, in languages that have different forms for masculine and feminine pronouns or masculine and feminine adjectives, people with aphasia may make gender errors in speaking, but in languages that don’t have different forms for different genders, that particular problem can’t show up.

We can consider **linguo-semiotics** as an old branch as well as new one. It is based on the sign theory and appeared on the necessity to identify sign content of language units. It also considers interconnection of a person’s thinking and semiotic information. Mainly, it is difficult to explain for the

present society disclosured language units on an ancient manuscripts and, here, method of **interpretation** is of huge value while transmitting author's original version.

1.2 Reseach issues of mediatexts in pragmalinguistic aspect

Additional objectives of medialinguistics are to identify language style of mass media communication and to to describe it in terms of functional and stylistic features. Firstly, language complexity in the media is explained by the fact that it is made collectively; secondly, it covers all types of spoken and written words.

Therefore, oral speech , features of literary and written language are connected with mass information. Thus, creation of mass media information using complex oral and written sources are considered to be a large-scale text. Integrity and unity of mass media language depends on speech peculiarities, the stability of the structure and the theme. Functional and stylistic diversity of mass media is that it can have universal issues, media texts are democratic and variable and its interation with other branches.

There are 2 ways of identifying the status of the language and style of communication:

1) Independent in the system of functional style ;
2) Internal functionally- stylistic demarcation of media language[5,39].

Newspaper language is of great interest, because it is the oldest among mass media, stylistic approaches and tools have been established, also, it is more convenient to describe issues in media texts in terms of linguistic description and, finally they are available.

It is not necessary to consider it again, to get a preliminary interrogation as in radio or video material. In comparison with other types of mass media, the body of a newspaper text is common. The role of a newspaper is especially important among total mass-media complex (it includes newspapers, magazines, radio, television, cinema and other new forms of communication with the audience). It is explained with the fact that newspaper is daily available, versatile range of information is of great scale, and it is given in a convenient form [6].

Quiet a lot of terminological vocabulary which was used in narrow sense in newspapers go through the process of adaptation, definite speech elements of various styles are used in an increased frequency and are added to a general stylistic flow, and form a new stylistic integrity. The main constructive principle is a combination of elements of different styles.

Thus, the main difficulty to consider a newspaper-journalistic style systematically is connected with the fact that the main difficulties and problems on a regular basis will depend on the nature of accumulation, reflecting the diversity of the circle. It shows that it has many styles and many genres. For instance, A.N.Vaslieva in her work “Newspaper-journalistic style of speech ” distinguishes 11 substyles: officially- informative, informative-business, reporting , expressive publicistic and the author considers each style as a whole and internally unfinished system as well. No matter how many substyles are there, what part of the text space is measured, what options will vary depending on the application of the system are of great importance[7].

So, newspaper-journalistic style is kind of continuum in speech motion. It usually exists between 2 poles: informative and impact. According to the main functions of a language a lot of texts are between 2poles. They carry out these fuctions in different levels. In other words, priority is given to them either to inform or influence. To describe stylistic range of changes in a right way in media texts as a complex and multi-faceted phenomenon such approach should be used.

A lot of researches which are connected with media occurred in 1970.

They considered media texts in different schools and areas: sociolinguistics, functional stylistics, discourse theory, content analysis, cognitive linguistics, rhetorical criticism, etc. The researchers focused on a variety of problems: the status of functional-style of media language, means to describe different types of media texts; impact of socio-cultural factors on media speech, impact of linguomedia technologies.

We should note such Russian scientists in medialinguistics as S.I.Bernshtein, D.N.Shmelev, V.G.Kostomarov, T.Ya.Solganik, A.N.Vasileva ,foreign scientists Teun Adrianus van Dijk , Martin Montgomery, Alan Bell, Norman Fairclough, etc.

Works by B.Abilkasymov, O.Burkit, Sh.Mazhitayieva, B.Momynova are devoted to the language of mass media. After the increase of the number of studies connected with media speech it reached a new stage of investigation. Thus, **medialinguistics** was stablished due to a system that uses an integrated approach to the study of media language.

The term “medialinguistics” appeared at the junction of various sciences based on the examples of new academic disciplines names: sociolinguistics, ethnolinguistics, mediapsychology, etc. These are interdisciplinary fields of education. They combine two different scientific fields : theoretical basis and methodology. Sociology with linguistics, ethnography with linguistics, media with psychology. "Medialinguistics" appeared In Russian science in 2000.

Dj.Korner indicated medialinguistics separately as an independent scientific approach focusing on the nature of its subject: " different genres of media speech are researched in many studies concerning with media language . For example; news discourse, documentation, advertising, etc. Media language interacts with various types of semiotic systems, including visual one as well as having different types in mass media information [5].

The subject of a new branch which consists of 2 components is to investigate the use of language in the field of mass media communication. Thus, medialinguistics studies a media language. A question arises in this matter:"Is it right to investigate this branch of linguistics apart from it ?". For example, business communication language, literary language, the use of scientific language still remain as a part of functional style. Why is a media language the basis for investigation of medialinguistics?

An answer to this question is based on the role of mass media in a new stage of a language development in society.

Since the fifties of the twentieth century, media has been developing rapidly in geometric progression: growth of traditional media (press, radio, TV) is in continuous improvement with informational technologies. Internet has opened the way for the formation of large-scale informational space [5].

Social informational processes influence greatly on a language . Mass media communication has become one of the dynamic sphere in communication. Amount of texts are increasing through media channels in a rapid way. It has led to an increase of interest in academic science.

The formation of any new scientific direction there should be components which form a basic subject,For instance:

- theory on which all researches are based;
- Methodology;
- Terminological apparatus.

The concept of a media text is considered to be an integral part of medialinguistics. It can be found in all researches connected with media speech. The difference between a text in traditional linguistics and a media text is that the last one has expanded circle in the field of mass media. In other words, the text is usually regarded as a symbolic chain of sequential units in relation to the media text which is not verbally a sign system only, but also a sign chain and its continuation.

Most of the researchers consider that a level of mass communication adds a new significance to the notion "text". They appear accordingly due to media peculiarities.They are there any media media properties. Thus, a text which appears on TV does not include just words, but it is carried out through several

levels: verbal, video series, audio editions which constitute a whole unit.It is possible to consider radiotexts and media texts as a verbal text with certain media characteristics. For example, music, sound effects, and peculiarities of graphic decorations in newspapers and magazines, etc.

Periodicals are considered to be a type of visual mass media. There are two sign systems in periodicals. One of them is a language sign system. The next is secondary,e.i, iconic sign system which includes photos, pictures, caricatures. Readers are is provided with information by these two types of codes.

Radio broadcasting has three types sign systems. The main one is language, music and natural voice and secondary ones. Thus, broadcasting information is of three different codes.

TV broadcasting has four different types sign systems, four different codes. The main one is language, too. Natural voice, music, including "live" video signs are considered to be secondary ones [8.210].

This principle is significant in medialinguistics: ”understanding of a text is provided not only by language units and their combinations, but by communicative background as well ”. Communicative background in relation to the media is explained as a a set of specifications and contracts of a media text creation, distribution and adoption.

Therefore, the concept of communicative background includes a great range of phenomena: reconstruction peculiarities of socio-cultural events, a range of interpretation, ideological modal category, concept "metainformation", etc.

Thus, the concept communicative background is closely related to the category **"discourse"** which is very important in media reseaches. After all, discourse includes definite words in communication, as well as socio-cultural, and situational-contextual and extralinguistic components.

While considering discourse as a complex communicative phenomenon the following extralinguistic factors are taken into account: social context, communicators and their characteristics; production, distribution and perception features; cultural- ideological background, etc.

One of the factors which form medialinguistics as a subject is an **internal structure**. At the moment, there are 6 major parts in medialinguistics. Their content is structured around the following main topics:

1) to determine the status of an internal language of media, to determine it in terms of basic paradigms as language –communication, text and discourse;

2) an opportunity to group media discourse according to its functional and stylistic differentiation, according to its basic service and distribution channels (press, radio, TV);

3) typology of media speech, a range of grouping media texts due to its genre-specific types, to highlight the types of texts: news, information, analysis and commentary, journalism, advertising;

4) linguostylistic peculiarities of mediatexts;

5) extralinguistic components of media discourse, preparing media texts, distribution and perception, socio-cultural and ideological contexts, interpretative properties of media speech; implementation features of metainformation; cultural-specific signs;

6) linguomedia technologies which influence on the individual and mass consciousness (information policy approaches, manipulation, propaganda techniques and information management, public relations and linguistic component).

Methodology and terminological apparatus in medialinguistics can be considered as an interactive description. For example, within the framework of the medialiguistics full range of processing methods are widely used in the text: the traditional system analysis and content analysis methods, logical, empirical, sociolinguistic and reflected to describe the comparative mädenïetttanımdıq.

For example, within the framework of processing all methods are widely used: traditional systematic analysis, content analysis method, as well as ,logical, empirical, sociolinguistic and comparative –cultural studies.

We can say for sure that all linguistic schools made contributions in media methodology. Media texts are investigated through cognitive linguistics, discourse analysis, structural linguistics, functional stylistics, pragmatic and rhetorical critical methods.

Novelty on medialinguistic methodology is the study of media texts on the basis of existing approaches.

Terminological apparatus of medialinguistics is used as well as the basic terms in humanitarian sciences: linguistics, sociology, psychology, journalism, culture, etc.

In spite of the fact that terminological apparatus of media is being established a number of terms are widely used to describe the use of media language. These are lexical words and phrases basically made on the stem word "media" : a media text, media communication, linguomedia signs and characteristics, linguomedia technologies of impact, media space, medianotion, media landscape, media signs,image of a media world, media streaming, etc.

To conclude, through the analysis of the core components of the current situation in the humanitarian sphere one may consider it as a scientific discipline. Medialinguistics as a science being formed within other disciplines includes 2 signs of scientific directions:1.it is formed on real research base; 2. It is formed on a new scientific direction **medialogy** which is engaged in a comprehensive study .

Part II

Pragmalinguistics- an integral component of functional approach (direction)

1. Pragmalinguistic aspect of universal terminological database.
2. The main aim, object and and objectives of pragmalinguistics.
3. Main units of conceptual apparatus in pragmalinguistics.

One of the fastest growing area in linguistics is pragmalinguistics. Reseachers explain pragmalinguistics in different ways. According to Y.D.Apresyan pragmatics is a speaker attitude to1) truth to identity; 2) content otothe message; 3)speaker\s attitude to the addressee by means of language units (affixes, lexims, grammar, syntactic structure). In general, according to the definitions given in scientific literatures linguistic pragmatics can be grouped as follows: 1) priority of human factors; 2)definitions based on functional aspects in linguopragmatic researches, and contextual conditions: " Science about the use of a language ", " science about a language in a context"; 3) definitions, where much attention is paid to the effective interactions between communicants while speaking; the language in relation to relationships affect each to focus on the study of the efficiency of the; 4)definitions where interpretative aspect of speaking is considered separately in any communicative context. Here, interpretation refers to pragmatic significance of a sentence [9].

There is no definite explanation on pragmatics as researchers see it from different angles. Because, specialists on syntax, analyzing pragmatics syntactically and semantically consider it, as non-standard or incomplete sentences. So , in the field of semantics, pragmatics is the estimated as evaluative. Also, it can be found in association and connotation contexts. Well, in the field stylistics and oratory pragmatics is considered as a language tool to influence on politics, advertising and psychotherapy in terms of communicative semantics. Pragmatics are the examples in terms of the theory on speech acts, presupposition and communicative postulates in researches devoted to speaking.

To understand pragmatics V.Karasik distinguishes 3 directions: conversational (speech acts); functional (rhetoric, stylistics) and psycholinguistic (word-formation and word usage) [10].

In addition, pragmalinguistics is a branch of linguistic researches which considers the use and interaction of language units in definite communicative pragmatic areas as an object. If there is a close interaction between a speaker

and a listener, the venue of the speech act, time, its goals and expected results are also considered to be important.

Before investigating aims and objectives of pragmalinguistics as a science it is better to speak on an ambitious concept as **language** . Language is the main key of any communication. Scientists consider language from at least three aspects. 1)Language is a system of sign and symbols; 2) language is a group of symbolic systems consisting of (phonemes, morphemes and lexemes) a single human language, a set of specific properties of universal languages; 3) language is a system of sign which exists in a certain society, a certain time and any space. It can be called ethnic language.

It is better to use the second meaning of a language in speech opposition. **Speech** is a language use in interacton. Here, the role of a language is communicative. Speech is carried out either in phonetic or written form within a certain period of time

Typically, the process of speech means both the written and spoken language as experienced in everyday life and what is kept in one's mind. Therefore, speech is unlike language ,it is diverse and varied. According to Ferdinand de Saussure: language is mental ,but speech is psychophysical. Language is social, speech is individual. Language encompasses the abstract, systematic rules and conventions of a signifying system; it is independent. Language is systematic, speech is unsystematic.

One of the most frequently used terms in studies is a sentence. It is an abstact element in terms of paradigm in a system of language. Being a part of grammar, it also considered to be a big part in syntax.

Speaking is considered to be a type of speech activity. It occurs during communication, and it is used as a unit which has its own intonation and it is lexically complete. I.P.Susov identifies 3 structural parts of a sentence: communicative, pragmatic, semantic which are concerned with a context. Phonological structure of a sentence is displayed in graphic design. Among criteria of the content and criteria of the form, lexico-pragmatic structure makes the meaning to provide the code [11, 7-11].

A text is a set of units which convey a certain significance of symbolic signs. Its main properties: dependence, integrity, completeness, etc. Text is explained differently in scientific literature. Text is a set of signs which has a definite meaning in semiotics.Musical composition, architectural monument). Ex .: signs representing the colors of traffic lights: *Stop! Prepare! Go!*

In linguistics a text is a set of verbal signs. In general, there is no consistent interpretation of a text in linguistics. Some common definitions include the following ones: 1) a text is a unity of the highest level of a language

system ; 2) text is a unity of speech, that is, the result of a speech activity; 3) text is a unity of a relationship. It has complete meaning.

The following terminological use is **discourse.** Discourse is considered to be a key concept of communicative linguistics and social sciences. In spite of the fact that there are a lot of scientific interpretations to this phenomenon, the circle of its study has not been defined yet.

Initially, the term discourse analysis was originally applied to advertising when it was introduced in 1952 by Zellig Harris. Later, in 70s of the twentieth century American and European scientists began to correlate discourse analysis and traditional linguistics. Between 1980-1990, fundamental works on this issue were published for the first time.

The concept of discourse has been important since psycholinguistics, cognitive linguistics, sociolinguistics, paralinguistics became independent branches which have anthropocentric orientation. This internal classification with the integration of the industry is centered around the concept of this discourse. In this regard, the full completion certificates are still discourse, can not be considered accurate.

Kazakhstani researcher B.A.Akhatova considers discourse as a result of communicative activity of a recipient's interpretation. That is, discourse is a verbal product of written and oral communication . The author related "discourse" with a speech activity, and a "text" with a language system. The researcher always suggests to consider a discourse in a certain situation with specific objects in a particular context [13,42]. This term has a lot of definitions in terms of pragmalinguistics, functional linguistics, linguostylistics, formal or oriented linguistics, linguistic-cultural. Firstly, it is explained as the use of communicative strategies as participants' interactive activities in the course of of information exchange, and non-verbal means of communication [14.19]. Due to us, when a discourse is considered in terms of pragmatics the following things are taken into account: a communicative situation, participants' extralinguistic, ethnocultural factors, and their goals. Any listener or a reader while receiving an information tries to picture to himself writer's feeling and thoughts.In other words it means penetration into writer's world of thinking involuntary and voluntary. And, addressee uses all semantic opportunities in the language to make it clear for himself.

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involuntary and voluntary. And, addressee uses all semantic opportunities in the language to make it clear for himself.

The following researchers considered a text and discourse in various aspects: E.D.Suleimenova, G.Burkitbayieva, Z.Ernazarova, Zh.Kenshinbayieva, D.Alkebayieva, G.Matzhanova, etc. It is better to consider a discourse as a triad an addresser (sender)– a text- an addressee, when the object of research is a media text. A discourse can not be carried out without a presence one of them. It goes without saying that the presence of the 1st and the 2nd components of a discourse are obligatory. But, the third component can be of different level in accordance with the type of a discourse. According to this principles we tried to consider a media text on the level of a discourse. In other words, we took into account the following things: we predicted the author's nuances before he puts his ideas about a definite theme on a paper, situations in terms of addresser's pragmatic concepts, ways of depicting the author's thoughts using linguistic and non-linguistic tools. Well, studies connected with the 3rd triad , addressee,which is the most important, was based on the survey conducted among the readers. We tried to identify to what extent modern Kazakh media can determine political discourse in the society using these approaches.

So, in spite of the fact that pragmalinguistics is a relatively a new scientific branch, universal concepts in linguistics form its terminological database. However, during the study of discourse, much attention is paid to addresser's intention, thoughts, strategies and tactics to achieve them, emotions based on true identity, context of a message during a speech activity. We can say for sure that a complex of pragmatic components were identified, because an interaction between communicators had been analyzed. In conclusion, discourse is considered to an object of the study in pragmalinguistics .

We should point out an object, aims and objectives of pragmalinguistics if we want to consider it as an independent branch.

The main task of the pragmalingustics is to investigate the language in terms of pragmalinguistic role. In other words, language is considered to be as a tool which influences on people's minds, behavior. In particular, much attention is paid to the factors where a speaker identifies and chooses the best options to send his communicative intention; situations which influence on understanding communicative aim of a sentence. Such difficulties form the subject of pragmalinguistics. To sum it up, we may consider pragmalinguistics as a branch which regulates human behavior. Therefore, the purpose of pragmalinguistics is to investigate the use of language signs in accordance with the speaker's intentions. Well, we can specify the following duties:

- to determine the speaker's purpose in the process of communication;
- to identify the choice of tools and reasons to express his opinion;

•to take into account the audience and addressee of a message;

•to be able to form addressee's thoughts more consistent , effective, and true to life;

• to identify addressee's pragmatic approaches, principles;

•to select linguistic structures in a right way, conditions to influence on a reader;

• addresser's competence etc.

• to take into account prerequisites for positive speech activity;

• to send speaker's thoughts open or indirect;

• a speaker should have a full and right understanding of a message.

So, pragmalinguistics is considered to be a scientific branch which combines theory of speech activity, communicative grammar, theory of speech act. Pragmalinguistic categories are still in the process of formation . Therefore, they are interrelated and are characterized by different researchers differently.

2.1 Basic units of conceptual apparatus in pragmalinguistics

The word pragmatics means "action" from the Greek language. Therefore, its subject is a current language. This term was used in the sense of *experience or action* in philosophy and psychology.

Linguistic pragmatics is the discipline which considers the language not "individual", but as a tool in human communication. Nowadays, pragmatics is considered to be an interdisciplinary branch , because apart from linguistic branches other branches are also included as, logical, philosophical, sociological, psychological, ethnographical , and even cybernetics. Theoretical objectives of pragmatics is to make a cognitive model of keeping in mind and understanding speech acts; a model of cooperation in communication; a model of usage specific socio-cultural situations.

Ultimately, pragmalinguistics has not been established as a science yet. However, it is obvious that it studies linguistic communication. In this linguistic studies a human factor is in the 1st place. This idea takes its source from semiotics. **Semiotics** (from Greek denotes a sign) is a scientific discipline which studies common features of different structures of sign systems and their usage, the storage and delivery of information.It includes systems related to human society, nature or a person.

In general, it is true that it is explained as to know the language, its structure, to master grammar rules, to make sentences in accordance with

syntax. These are traditional requirements in linguistics. But, the object of pragmalinguistics is to distinguish additional values in accordance with communication situations. For instance, *This room is bright, isn't it?* This sentence has a lot of meanings. Firstly, it is clear that a speaker hasn't been in that room before. Secondly,it is clear that previous rooms were darker. Thirdly, the speaker wanted to leave a good impression on a host. Fourthly, the speaker wanted to draw the host's attention.

Similarly, if we look at this sentence: *He is going to the competition, too*. From the speaker's speech one can understand that he is not evaluating him, and a bit surprising; it happens all of a sudden and he does not agree. If we change the same sentence in this way: *He is going to the competition* , the meaning of the whole sentence changes completely. It is obvious that the speaker has a neutral attitude towards it. So, particle *too* apart from grammatical meaning has pragmatic one. Consequently, in order to understand it the listener should be aware of the communicative situation.

The use of nonverbal means of communication is very important in oral communication in order to make each speaker's pragmatic significance understandable. At first glance, the words used in the sense of any additional meaning can affect the listener differently. It is connected with the previous situations or events. Just a simple word between communicators can give a prompt to the whole situation at the moment of speech. Let's have a look at the extract from the novel "My name is -Kozha" by B.Sokpakbayiev. A young teacher Maikhanova tells to an old teacher: "You are satisfied, aren't you?. A person who is unaware of this novel he is not able to understand the meaning of these words. In fact, she disapproves the way the old teacher asked not to punish a naughty pupil Kozha.

The old teachers regrets that he couldn't find a way with Sultan, another naughty boy with destructive behavior as Kozha, who stopped going to school. She shows her disapproval in terms of this simple sentence. Sultan's long history is understood by this sentence *you are not satisfied*. A few months later she points out that situation using this sentence. So, this situation is symbolized with the term presupposition in pragmatics. Maikhanova's words can't influence on a person if he doesn't know the 1st part of it. One can understand its pragmatic meaning if he is aware of previous communicative situation. So, any person in order to send his thoughts to the addressee carries out certain activities. This activity is connected with the speaker's aims and intenions. So, terminological apparatus of this science include the following ones: communicative situation, addresser, addressee, intention, speech act, presupposition.

2.1.1 Communicative situation

Different circumstances are a cause of any speech act. In such situations a person needs to talk to other person. The set of such circumstances lead to communicative situation.

There are a lot of definitions on communicative situations in pragmalinguists work. One of them, in N.I.Formanovskaya's work: "Communicative situation is a complex one, which shows the relationship between the external conditions and the status of the participants in the form of discourse [15,12].

In V.G.Gak's, I.P.Susov's, K.A.Dolin's work communicative situations are described differently, but to sum up them, we can give the following main components:

- partners and communicants in communication;
- the main goals of communication;
- Conditions of communication (reasons, etc.)

Generally, communicative situations will be represented in the following chain:

«I – will say-you- about this problem-through the text (message) or sentence –according to this reason-this time-this place» [16].

But this chain should be made according to a situation. Each chain depends on different situations.

In general, the speech act consists of several stages: the 1st stage – preparation to speaking. Here the speaker prepares his opinion; a purpose based on previous similar occasions and predicts the result.

Especially in the case of the official communication, the speaker taking account a colleague's age, gender, position etc. features, checks each word; in the 2nd stage the speaking structure is carried out, that is, addressee in accordance with his purpose, using the words which he found more effective in order to describe his opinion and normalize his inner speech; in the 3 stage prepared inner speech is transmitted as sounds or is written on the paper.

In some cases, the speaker may not be able to say the prepared inner word. In this case, it will be very difficult to surrounding audience to understand the addressee's meaningless opinion.

In general, the result of the speech act is defined by addresser's perception. That is, when there is feedback, the speech act is considered to be realized. To carry out this connection, a word must be perceived correctly.

In other words, the process of perception consists of several stages: 1) acoustic or graphic code conversion to inner speech code (to listen to or read the message and sound perception); 2) to analyze syntactic structures, graphical forms; 3) the general perception of a sentence; 4) to understand the content of a sentence; 5) to assess the obtained information (content of a sentence, its ideas, the speaker's attitude and position); 6) to understand the reason of the selected language tools.

We know that during the communicative situation communicants communicate with each other. It can be divided into several steps: communication, its continuation and terminate the connection. The speech and greeting samples are used in the first step; in the second step the attention is paid to the important problems for communicants. When their aims are defined, their conversation is concluded in an emotional way, they part with each other wishing good luck.

This relation is a generalized scheme. In fact, it may take a shorter time to communicate. For example, in informal situations the first or third step may be even unnoticed. Obviously, it depends on the degree of communicants' relationship degree, interests and temporary or casual partners.

The correct interpretation of the message of communicants is connected by several factors. Such terms and conditions set is called pragmatic communicative context in the scientific literature. In general, in the context of the relationship in the form of speaking will be open and hidden. All visible and directly control are covered by open and explicit context. It can be conditionally divided into verbal and nonverbal. But not directly visible or hidden context consists of communicants' purpose, interests, motives, personal behavior, in particular, the degree of education, social status, etc. features. According to these contexts the speech results will be different.

The same type of communicative situations depend on their main components. That is, the relationship of time and place are known to communicants, sender's speech and behavior, addressee's certain presspositive qualities (as interests, goals, knowledge); message to a certain topic. Thus, first of all, the communicative pragmatic context of speaking constitute participants. Therefore, the main important component of communicative situations is the participants.

2.1.2 Communicative intention

The word intention was firstly used by Dj.Ostin's disciples. In general, participants' efforts to show their intentions and mental state to other people form speech act. In any case, intention as thinking comes before the language.

Different phenomena, events, situations influence on communication which is carried out between participants or speakers. We can call them as external environment or environment. In many cases, the necessity for communication between people is connected with situations in the external environment. For example, if someone feels uncomfortable and unpleasant in that atmosphere he obviously tries to change the situation immediately. Such motivations leads to communicative intentions.In scientific literatures this notion is given as communicative intention(from Latin it means intention or internal thought). I n general, the term intention was initially used in philosophy.

The term intention is also explained as an intial stage before speaking in psychology. Later, it was explained as a motivation or formulation of inner words.

And in linguistic studies, the content of intention is explained as a speaker's intention and initial thought. In any case, people do not start to speak without a valid reason. Speaker's each word is directed to achieve his purpose. To sum up, it aims communicative situation to be effective.We should pay attention if an intention is transmitted open or(secretive) affectedly in speech act. That is, not in all situations speakers show their intentions openly. There is no doubt that an experienced partner may reveal his partner's secretive intention .

In many cases, if it happens to an inexperienced partner it can be left as a mysterious thoughts. It is widely used that a speaker's intentions can be transmitted openly as well as in a secretive way. There are many examples or models of secretive forms of transmittion communicative intentions between an adult and young, familiar and unfamiliar people, a young man and woman.

The necessity of secretive forms of transmitting intentions could be based on various situations and reasons. Traditional customs as Kuda tusy(құда түсуі), Kelin tusyry(келін түсіру), congratulations on some occasions (құтты болсын айту), to visit a sick person (науқастың көңілін сұрау) are the examples of classical communicative situations. Typically, each of these have specific communicative forms based on Kazakh mentality. We want to point out that apart from established one, one can face unexpected (sudden) situations. From the following example, which is kept in people's minds, we can see that communicative situation is not of typical form ,but, unexpected one.

In earlier times , a young man was an unexpected guest to a house on his long way to somewhere.The host,who was so poor laid the table, he put everything he had. The exhauseted traveler who spent a lot of time on the way didn't wait until the meal cooled down and put it hot into his mouth. The meal was so hot that he scalded his mouth, he looked at the shanyrak and it made him ask a question: "Where did you get these trees?"unexpectedly. A young

lady , a daughter of that home , who was pouring tea smiled a bit saying: "These trees are from the clay ground, and punishment of an impatient man". The man became silent and felt ill at ease hearing her answer. In this situation we can say for sure that there was not any initial intentions. It left an impression that the man who spent a lot of time on the way, came to that house with the purpose to know what the house was made of. At this point, the daughter showed a remarkable ingenuity. Thus, communicative situation is not carried out according to specific implementation or a scheme. However, it is obvious to plan how communication would be carried out beforehand in accordance with the venue, time and reasons.

As a result, two types of intentions can be identified in linguistic communication:1) the speaker's initial intention; 2) intention which appears on a sudden. It should be noted that quialities of variability and adaptability are dominant. Ultimately, each participant has his own intentions and he tries to make the conversation similar to his intentions. Because each participant tries to make speech act effective. Thus, we can group bases to describe the concept of intention in the following way:

1) according to the way how intention is carried out through speaking it could be be **directly or indirectly;**

2) according to the way how speaker's intention is carried out plain or vague it could be implicit or explicit;

3) according to the way how the speaker react to any kind of activity it could be mental or feasible;

4) according to the way how intentions influence on speakers,it could be positive and negative;

5) according to the length of intention, it could be short or deploying.

Thus, intention is an important factor which is carried out in communicative activity.

2.1.3 Speech act

For much of the history of linguistics and the positivist philosophy of language, language was viewed primarily as a way of making factual assertions, and the other uses of language tended to be ignored, as Austin states at the beginning of Lecture 1, "It was for too long the assumption of philosophers that the business of a 'statement' can only be to 'describe' some state of affairs, or to 'state some fact', which it must do either truly or falsely." He was one of the first people who made a systematic account for the use of language.

Later Wittgenstein came up with the idea of "don't ask for the meaning, ask for the use." showing language as a new vehicle for social activity. Speech act theory hails from Wittgenstein's philosophical theories. Wittgenstein believed meaning derives from pragmatic tradition, demonstrating the importance of how language is used to accomplish objectives within specific situations. By following rules to accomplish a goal, communication becomes a set of language games. Thus, utterances do more than reflect a meaning, they are words designed to get things done.

The work of J. L. Austin, particularly his How to Do Things with Words, led philosophers to pay more attention to the non-declarative uses of language. The terminology he introduced, especially the notions "locutionary act", "illocutionary act", and "perlocutionary act", occupied an important role in what was then to become the "study of speech acts". All of these three acts, but especially the "illocutionary act", are nowadays commonly classified as "speech acts".

Austin was by no means the first one to deal with what one could call "speech acts" in a wider sense. The term 'social act' and some of the theory of this sui generis type of linguistic action are to be found in the fifth of Thomas Reid's Essays on the Active Powers of the Human Mind (1788, chapter VI, Of the Nature of a Contract). "A man may see, and hear, and remember, and judge, and reason; he may deliberate and form purposes, and execute them, without the intervention of any other intelligent being. They are solitary acts. But when he asks a question for information, when he testifies a fact, when he gives a command to his servant, when he makes a promise, or enters into a contract, these are social acts of mind, and can have no existence without the intervention of some other intelligent being, who acts a part in them. Between the operations of the mind, which, for want of a more proper name, I have called solitary, and those I have called social, there is this very remarkable distinction, that, in the solitary, the expression of them by words, or any other sensible sign, is accidental. They may exist, and be complete, without being expressed, without being known to any other person. But, in the social operations, the expression is essential. They cannot exist without being expressed by words or signs, and known to the other party."

In linguistics, a speech act is an utterance defined in terms of a speaker's intention and the effect it has on a listener [15.111].

In other words, a speech act is a purposeful activity which is carried out in accordance with the established rules in the society. Thus, speech acts can be analysed on three levels:

1)a locutionary act is the performance of a grammatically correct utterance, and hence of a speech act;

2) an illocutionary act – the performance of an act in saying something;

3) a perlocutionary act - is focused on possible responses in speech act.

Here, the 1st level could have a neutral intonation. At the 2nd level intention is added. At the 3rd level there should be the result of any act of speech. For example, after greeting the teacher a student says: ”My mom is coming from the country tomorrow”. From this sentence one can understand the student’s intention, he has to ask a permission not to attend a lesson tomorrow. If the teacher understands the student’s intention she could respond in different ways: "Well, I permit you not to attend the lesson" (permission); "How could it be?" "Tomorrow is the most important day" (not clear); "No, you can’t miss the lesson, ask another person to meet your mother!" (cut-off response), etc.

So, an illocutionary act is a speaker’s aim to carry out his purposeful action through a phrase. In this case, a speaker can ask the 2nd person to do something, to ask a question, to persuade, to advise, even to judge. The illocutionary force is the speaker's intention. Consequently, the main factor is the intention of the speaker.

A speaker can resemble his illocutive intention in accordance with addresser’s response. For instance, speech act which is mentioned before could have the following models: the teacher: I need you tomorrow.

Student A: ”My mom is coming tomorrow ”.

B: “My mom will come tomorrow!”.

C: ”If mom doesn’t come from the country tomorrow?”

From the student’s responses one can understand that in model A he didn’t show his resistance directly, in model B he showed his resistance , in model C he is not sure and he has a doubt. From these responses we see that a speaker can show his illocutive intention using intonation, morphological method, interrogative constructions. In conclusion, illocutive intention is carried out in 2 forms: direct and indirect. Z.Vendler considers illocutive intention of speech act as mental, i.e, an act which is carried out in mind or thinking. That is, speech act is carried out as a prediction, agreement , prevention, denial, coordination, disagreement [17.245].

One of the issues which has not been clarified yet is its classification. In general, speech acts are grouped according to their illocutive and communicative intentions in pragmalinguistics.

The concept of **illocutionary acts** was introduced into linguistics by the philosopher John L. Austin in his investigation of the various aspects of speech acts. In Austin's framework, *locution* is what was said, *illocution* is what was meant, and *perlocution* is what happened as a result. For example, when somebody says "Is there any salt?" at the dinner table, the illocutionary act (the

meaning conveyed) is effectively "please give me some salt" even though the locutionary act (the literal sentence) was to ask a question about the presence of salt. The perlocutionary act (the actual effect), was to cause somebody to offer salt.

The notion of an illocutionary act is closely connected with Austin's doctrine of the so-called 'performative' and 'constative utterances': an utterance is "performative" *if, and only if* it is issued in the course of the "doing of an action", by which, again, Austin means the performance of an illocutionary act.

According to Austin's original exposition in *How to Do Things With Words*, an illocutionary act is an act (1) for the performance of which I must make it clear to some other person that the act is performed (Austin speaks of the 'securing of uptake'), and (2) the performance of which involves the production of what Austin calls 'conventional consequences' as, e.g., rights, commitments, or obligations . Thus, for example, in order to make a promise I must make clear to my audience that the act I am performing is the making of a promise, and in the performance of the act I will be undertaking an obligation to do the promised thing: so promising is an illocutionary act in the present sense. Since Austin's death, the term has been defined differently by various authors.

One way to think about the difference between an illocutionary act (e.g., a declaration, command, or a promise), and a perlocutionary act (e.g., an insult or a persuasion attempt) is to note how in the former case, by uttering the object—for example, "I hereby declare," or "I command," or "I hereby promise you"—the act has taken place. That is to say, in each case a declaration, command, or promise has necessarily taken place in virtue of the utterance itself, whether the hearer believes in the declaration, command, or promise or not. On the other hand, with a perlocutionary act, the object of the utterance has not taken place unless the hearer deems it so—for example, if one utters, "I hereby insult you," or "I hereby persuade you," one would not assume an insult has necessarily occurred, nor persuasion has necessarily taken place, unless the hearer were suitably offended or persuaded by the utterance.

Many define the term "illocutionary act" with reference to examples, saying for example that any speech act (like stating, asking, commanding, promising, and so on) is an illocutionary act. This approach has generally failed to give any useful hints about what traits and elements make up an illocutionary act; that is, what defines such an act. It is also often emphasised that Austin introduced the illocutionary act by means of a contrast with other kinds of acts or aspects of acting: the illocutionary act, he says, is an act performed *in* saying something, as contrasted with a locutionary act, the act *of* saying something, and also contrasted with a perlocutionary act, an act performed *by* saying something. Austin, however, eventually abandoned the "in saying" / "by saying" test.

According to the conception adopted by Bach and Harnish in 'Linguistic Communication and Speech Acts' (1979), an illocutionary act is an attempt to communicate, which they analyse as the expression of an attitude. Another conception of the illocutionary act goes back to Schiffer's book 'Meaning' , in which the illocutionary act is represented as just the act of meaning something.

According to a widespread opinion, an adequate and useful account of "illocutionary acts" has been provided by John Searle (e.g., 1969, 1975, 1979). In recent years, however, it has been doubted whether Searle's account is well-founded.

Several speech act theorists, including Austin himself, make use of the notion of an illocutionary force. In Austin's original account, the notion remains rather unclear. Some followers of Austin, such as David Holdcroft, view illocutionary force as the property of an utterance to be made with the intention to perform a certain illocutionary act—rather than as the successful performance of the act (which is supposed to further require the appropriateness of certain circumstances). According to this conception, the utterance of "I bet you five pounds that it will rain" may well have an illocutionary force even if the addressee doesn't hear it. However, Bach and Harnish assume illocutionary force if, and only if this or that illocutionary act is actually (successfully) performed. According to this conception, the addressee must have heard and understood that the speaker intends to make a bet with them in order for the utterance to have 'illocutionary force'.

If we adopt the notion of illocutionary force as an aspect of meaning, then it appears that the (intended) 'force' of certain sentences, or utterances, is not quite obvious. If someone says, "It sure is cold in here", there are several different illocutionary acts that might be aimed at by the utterance. The utterer might intend to describe the room, in which case the illocutionary force would be that of 'describing'. But she might also intend to criticise someone who should have kept the room warm. Or it might be meant as a request to someone to close the window. These forces may be interrelated: it may be by way of stating that the temperature is too cold that one criticises someone else. Such a performance of an illocutionary act by means of the performance of another is referred to as an indirect speech act.

There are several types of classifications in scientific literature. For instance, John Searle groups them in the following way in his work “classification of illocutive acts”:

•assertives; they commit the speaker to something being the case- I believe;

•directives; they try to make the addressee perform an action- I command you;

• commisives; they commit the speaker to do something in the future-I promise;

•expressives; they express how the speaker feels about the situation-Thank you;

• declaratives; solutions of certain issues- You are fired.

Also, N.I. Farmanovskaya identifies 7 types of speech act:

1) Representatives- posts, messages

2) commisives -requirements

3) directives- orders

4) requests -questions

5) declaratives- ads

6) contactives- etiquette of speaking [18.1].

Some researchers rely on other justifications while classifying speech act:

- according to the intention speech act can be direct or indirect(Maslova);
- according to the features of messages: informative and uninformative;
- according to relations between speakers speech act is divided in 2:status marked (to order, to demand, to request, to pray); status neutral(to report, to describe, to specify);
- according to social communication Dj. Lich identifies 4 types of speech act: speech act based on competitiveness(to demand, to order); 2) speech acts based on festive occasions (apologies, congratulations, etc.); 3) speech acts based on cooperation (messages, instructions, etc.); 4) speech acts based on conflicts (threatening, harassing, etc.)

S.Krekel grouped speech act according to 3 different signs: 1) orientation to the speaker or the listener; 2) orientation to cognitive- imperative branch; 3) orientation to the present, past or future.

So, a common sign in all classifications: 1) communicative intention; 2) relations between speakers, their attitude to each other. Classifications vary according to the works dedicated to the research aspect.

Making a statement may be the paradigmatic use of language, but there are all sorts of other things we can do with words. We can make requests, ask questions, give orders, make promises, give thanks, offer apologies, and so on. Moreover, almost any speech act is really the performance of several acts at once, distinguished by different aspects of the speaker's intention: there is the act

of saying something, what one does in saying it, such as requesting or promising, and how one is trying to affect one's audience.

The theory of speech acts is partly taxonomic and partly explanatory. It must systematically classify types of speech acts and the ways in which they can succeed or fail. It must reckon with the fact that the relationship between the words being used and the force of their utterance is often oblique. For example, the sentence 'This is a pig sty' might be used nonliterally to state that a certain room is messy and filthy and, further, to demand indirectly that it be straightened out and cleaned up. Even when this sentence is used literally and directly, say to describe a certain area of a barnyard, the content of its utterance is not fully determined by its linguistic meaning--in particular, the meaning of the word 'this' does not determine which area is being referred to. A major task for the theory of speech acts is to account for how speakers can succeed in what they do despite the various ways in which linguistic meaning underdetermines use.

In general, speech acts are acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. For example, a statement expresses a belief, a request expresses a desire, and an apology expresses a regret. As an act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience identifies, in accordance with the speaker's intention, the attitude being expressed.

Some speech acts, however, are not primarily acts of communication and have the function not of communicating but of affecting institutional states of affairs. They can do so in either of two ways. Some officially judge something to be the case, and others actually make something the case. Those of the first kind include judges' rulings, referees' calls and assessors' appraisals, and the latter include include sentencing, bequeathing and appointing. Acts of both kinds can be performed only in certain ways under certain circumstances by those in certain institutional or social positions.

1. Levels of speech acts
2. Communicative and conventional speech acts
3. Types of speech acts
4. Direct, indirect and nonliteral speech acts
5. Philosophical importance of speech act theory

Levels of speech acts

How language represents the world has long been, and still is, a major concern of philosophers of language. Many thinkers, such as Leibniz, Frege, Russell, the early Wittgenstein, and Carnap (q.v.), have thought that understanding the structure of language could illuminate the nature of reality. However noble their concerns, such philosophers have implicitly assumed, as J. L. Austin complains at the beginning of How to Do Things with Words, that 'the business of a [sentence] can only be to "describe" some state of affairs, or to "state some fact", which it must do either truly or falsely'. Austin reminds us that we perform all sorts of 'speech acts' besides making statements, and that there are other ways for them to go wrong or be 'infelicitous' besides not being true. The later Wittgenstein also came to think of language not primarily as a system of representation but as a vehicle for all sorts of social activity. 'Don't ask for the meaning', he admonished, 'ask for the use'. But it was Austin who presented the first systematic account of the use of language. And whereas Wittgenstein could be charged with having conflating meaning and use, Austin was careful to separate the two. He distinguished the meaning (and reference) of the words used from the speech acts performed by the speaker using them.

Austin's attention was first attracted to what he called 'explicit performative utterances', in which one uses sentences like 'I nominate ...', 'You're fired', 'The meeting is adjourned', and 'You are hereby sentenced ...' to perform acts of the very sort named by the verb, such as nominating, firing, adjourning, or sentencing (performatives). Austin held that performatives are neither true nor false, unlike what he called 'constatives'. However, he came to realize that constatives work just like performatives. Just as a suggestion or an apology can be made by uttering 'I suggest ...' or 'I apologize ...', so an assertion or a prediction can be made by uttering 'I assert ...' or 'I predict ...'. Accordingly, the distinction between constative and performative utterances is, in Austin's general theory of speech acts, superseded by that between saying something and what one does in saying it. This broader distinction applies to both statements and other sorts of speech acts, and takes into account the fact that one does not have to say 'I suggest ...' to make a suggestion, 'I apologize ...' to make an apology, or 'I assert' to make an assertion.

The theory of speech acts aims to do justice to the fact that even though words (phrases, sentences) encode information, people do more things with words than convey information, and that when people do convey information, they often convey more than their words encode. Although the focus of speech act theory has been on utterances, especially those made in conversational and other face-to-face situations, the phrase 'speech act' should be taken as a generic term for any sort of language use, oral or otherwise. Speech acts, whatever the

medium of their performance, fall under the broad category of intentional action, with which they share certain general features (action). An especially pertinent feature is that when one acts intentionally, generally one has a set of nested intentions. For instance, having arrived home without one's keys, one might push a button with the intention not just of pushing the button but of ringing a bell, arousing one's spouse and, ultimately, getting into one's house. The single bodily movement involved in pushing the button comprises a multiplicity of actions, each corresponding to a different one of the nested intentions. Similarly, speech acts are not just acts of producing certain sounds.

Austin identifies three distinct levels of action beyond the act of utterance itself. He distinguishes the act of saying something, what one does in saying it, and what one does by saying it, and dubs these the 'locutionary', the 'illocutionary' and the 'perlocutionary' act, respectively. Suppose, for example, that a bartender utters the words, 'The bar will be closed in five minutes,' reported by means of direct quotation. He is thereby performing the locutionary act of saying that the bar (i.e., the one he is tending) will be closed in five minutes (from the time of utterance), and what is said is reported by indirect quotation (notice that what the bartender is saying, the content of his locutionary act, is not fully determined by the words he is using, for they do not specify the bar in question or the time of the utterance). In saying this, the bartender is performing the illocutionary act of informing the patrons of the bar's imminent closing and perhaps also the act of urging them to order a last drink. Whereas the upshot of these illocutionary acts is understanding on the part of the audience, perlocutionary acts are performed with the intention of producing a further effect. The bartender intends to be performing the perlocutionary acts of causing the patrons to believe that the bar is about to close and of getting them to want and to order one last drink. He is performing all these speech acts, at all three levels, just by uttering certain words.

There seems to be a straightforward relationship in this example between the words uttered ('The bar will be closed in five minutes'), what is thereby said, and the act of informing the patrons that the bar will close in five minutes. Less direct is the connection between the utterance and the act of urging the patrons to order one last drink. Clearly there is no linguistic connection here, for the words make no mention of drinks or of ordering. This indirect connection is inferential. The patrons must infer that the bartender intends to be urging them to leave and, indeed, it seems that the reason his utterance counts as an act of that sort is that he is speaking with this intention. There is a similarly indirect connection when an utterance of 'It's getting cold in here' is made not merely as a statement about the temperature but as a request to close the window or as a proposal to go some place warmer. Whether it is intended (and is taken) as a request or as a proposal depends on contextual information that the speaker

relies on the audience to rely on. This is true even when the connection between word and deed is more direct than in the above example, for the form of the sentence uttered may fail to determine just which sort of illocutionary act is being performed. Consider, by analogy, the fact that in shaking hands we can, depending on the circumstances, do any one of several different things: introduce ourselves, greet each other, seal a deal, or bid farewell. Similarly, a given sentence can be used in a variety of ways, so that, for example, 'I will call a lawyer' could be used as a prediction, a promise, or a warning. How one intends it determines the sort of act it is.

Communicative and conventional speech acts

The examples considered thus far suggest that performing a speech act, in particular an illocutionary act, is a matter of having a certain communicative intention in uttering certain words. Such an act succeeds, the intention with which it is performed is fulfilled, if the audience recognizes that intention. This is not by magic, of course. One must choose one's words in such a way that their utterance makes one's intention recognizable under the circumstances. However, as illustrated above, the utterance need not encode one's intention. So, in general, understanding an utterance is not merely a matter of decoding it.

A specifically communicative intention is a reflexive intention, of the sort characterized by H. P. Grice. This is an intention part of whose content is that it be recognized, indeed be recognized partly on the basis that this is intended. Accordingly, it is an intention whose fulfillment consists in its recognition. This feature distinguishes acts of communication from most sorts of acts, whose success does not depend on anyone's recognizing the intention with which they are performed. One cannot succeed in running a marathon just by virtue of someone's recognizing one's intention to do so, but one can succeed in stating something, requesting something, etc., by virtue of one's addressee recognizing that one is stating it, requesting it, etc. This is success at the illocutionary level. It is a further matter, a condition on the success of perlocutionary act, whether the addressee believes what one states or does what one requests.

Now Austin did not take into account the central role of speakers' intentions and hearers' inferences. He supposed that the successful performance of an illocutionary act is a matter of convention, not intention. Indeed, he held that the use of a sentence with a certain illocutionary force is conventional in the peculiar sense that this force can be 'made explicit by the performative formula'. P. F. Strawson argues that in making this claim Austin was overly impressed by the special case of utterances that affect institutional states of affairs, and should have not taken them as a model of illocutionary acts in general. Austin was especially struck by the character of explicit performative utterances, in which

one uses a verb that names the very type of act one is performing. For them he developed an account of what it takes for such acts to be performed successfully and felicitously, classifying the various things that can go wrong as 'flaws', 'hitches', and other sorts of 'infelicities'.

It is only in certain conventionally designated circumstances and by people in certain positions that certain utterances can have the force they do. For example, only in certain circumstances does a jury foreman's pronouncement of 'Guilty' or 'Not guilty' count as a verdict, a legislator's 'Aye' or 'Nay' as a vote, and a baseball umpire's cry of 'Y'er out' as calling a runner out. In these cases it is only by conforming to a convention that an utterance of a certain form counts as the performance of an act of a certain sort. However, as Strawson argues, most illocutionary acts succeed not by conformity to convention but by recognition of intention. They are not conventional except in the irrelevant sense that the words and sentences being used have their linguistic meanings by virtue of convention .

Strawson's argument raises a serious problem for theories inspired by Austin's view. Consider, for example, the theory advanced by John Searle, who proposes to explain illocutionary forces by means of 'constitutive rules' (conventions) for using 'force-indicating' devices, such as performative verbs and sentential moods. The problem is that the same sorts of illocutionary acts that can be performed by means of such devices can be performed without them. For example, one does not have to use a performative, as in 'I demand that you be quiet', or the imperative mood, as in 'Be quiet!', to demand someone to be quiet. Clearly a theory that relies on rules for using such devices is not equipped to explain the illocutionary forces of utterances lacking such devices. No such difficulty arises for a theory according to which most illocutionary acts are performed not with an intention to conform to a convention but with a communicative intention.

Types of speech acts

Pretheoretically, we think of an act of communication, linguistic or otherwise, as an act of expressing oneself. This rather vague idea can be made more precise if we get more specific about what is being expressed. Take the case of an apology. If you utter, '[I'm] sorry I didn't call back' and intend this as an apology, you are expressing regret for something, in this case for not returning a phone call. An apology just is the act of (verbally) expressing regret for, and thereby acknowledging, something one did that might have harmed or at least bothered the hearer. An apology is communicative because it is intended to be taken as expressing a certain attitude, in this case regret. It succeeds as such if it is so taken. In general, an act of communication succeeds if it is taken as

intended. That is, it must be understood or, in Austin's words, 'produce uptake'. With an apology, this a matter of the addressee recognizing the speaker's intention to be expressing regret for some deed or omission. Using a special device such as the performative 'I apologize' may of course facilitate understanding (understanding is correlative with communicating), but in general this is unnecessary. Communicative success is achieved if the speaker chooses his words in such a way that the hearer will, under the circumstances of utterance, recognize his communicative intention. So, for example, if you spill some beer on someone and say 'Oops' in the right way, your utterance will be taken as an apology for what you did.

In saying something one generally intends more than just to communicate--getting oneself understood is intended to produce some effect on the listener. However, our speech act vocabulary can obscure this fact. When one apologizes, for example, one may intend not merely to express regret but also to seek forgiveness. Seeking forgiveness is, strictly speaking, distinct from apologizing, even though one utterance is the performance of an act of both types. As an apology, the utterance succeeds if it is taken as expressing regret for the deed in question; as an act of seeking forgiveness, it succeeds if forgiveness is thereby obtained. Speech acts, being perlocutionary as well as illocutionary, generally have some ulterior purpose, but they are distinguished primarily by their illocutionary type, such as asserting, requesting, promising and apologizing, which in turn are distinguished by the type of attitude expressed. The perlocutionary act is a matter of trying to get the hearer to form some correlative attitude and in some cases to act in a certain way. For example, a statement expresses a belief and normally has the further purpose of getting the addressee form the same belief. A request expresses a desire for the addressee to do a certain thing and normally aims for the addressee to intend to and, indeed, actually do that thing. A promise expresses the speaker's firm intention to do something, together with the belief that by his utterance he is obligated to do it, and normally aims further for the addressee to expect, and to feel entitled to expect, the speaker to do it.

Statements, requests, promises and apologies are examples of the four major categories of communicative illocutionary acts: constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgments. This is the nomenclature used by Kent Bach and Michael Harnish, who develop a detailed taxonomy in which each type of illocutionary act is individuated by the type of attitude expressed (in some cases there are constraints on the content as well). There is no generally accepted terminology here, and Bach and Harnish borrow the terms 'constative' and 'commissive' from Austin and 'directive' from Searle. They adopt the term 'acknowledgment', over Austin's 'behabitive' and Searle's 'expressive', for apologies, greetings, congratulations etc., which express an attitude regarding

the hearer that is occasioned by some event that is thereby being acknowledged, often in satisfaction of a social expectation. Here are assorted examples of each type:

Constatives: affirming, alleging, announcing, answering, attributing, claiming, classifying, concurring, confirming, conjecturing, denying, disagreeing, disclosing, disputing, identifying, informing, insisting, predicting, ranking, reporting, stating, stipulating

Directives: advising, admonishing, asking, begging, dismissing, excusing, forbidding, instructing, ordering, permitting, requesting, requiring, suggesting, urging, warning

Commissives: agreeing, guaranteeing, inviting, offering, promising, swearing, volunteering

Acknowledgments: apologizing, condoling, congratulating, greeting, thanking, accepting (acknowledging an acknowledgment)

Bach and Harnish spell out the correlation between type of illocutionary act and type of expressed attitude. In many cases, such as answering, disputing, excusing and agreeing, as well as all types of acknowledgment, the act and the attitude it expresses presuppose a specific conversational or other social circumstance.

For types of acts that are distinguished by the type of attitude expressed, there is no need to invoke the notion of convention to explain how it can succeed. The act can succeed if the hearer recognizes the attitude being expressed, such as a belief in the case of a statement and a desire in the case of a request. Any further effect it has on the hearer, such as being believed or being complied with, or just being taken as sincere, is not essential to its being a statement or a request. Thus an utterance can succeed as an act of communication even if the speaker does not possess the attitude he is expressing: communication is one thing, sincerity another. Communicating is as it were just putting an attitude on the table; sincerity is actually possessing the attitude one is expressing. Correlatively, the hearer can understand the utterance without regarding it as sincere, e.g., take it as an apology, as expressing regret for something, without believing that the speaker regrets having done the deed in question. Getting one's audience to believe that one actually possesses the attitude one is expressing is not an illocutionary but a perlocutionary act.

Direct, indirect and nonliteral speech acts

As Austin observed, the content of a locutionary act (what is said) is not always determined by what is meant by the sentence being uttered. Ambiguous words or phrases need to be disambiguated (ambiguity) and the references of

indexical and other context-sensitive expressions need to be fixed in order for what is said to be determined fully (demonstratives and indexicals). Moreover, what is said does not determine the illocutionary act(s) being performed. We can perform a speech act (1) directly or indirectly, by way of performing another speech act, (2) literally or nonliterally, depending on how we are using our words, and (3) explicitly or inexplicitly, depending on whether we fully spell out what we mean.

These three contrasts are distinct and should not be confused. The first two concern the relation between the utterance and the speech act(s) thereby performed. In indirection a single utterance is the performance of one illocutionary act by way of performing another. For example, we can make a request or give permission by way of making a statement, say by uttering 'I am getting thirsty' or 'It doesn't matter to me', and we can make a statement or give an order by way of asking a question, such as 'Will the sun rise tomorrow?' or 'Can you clean up your room?' When an illocutionary act is performed indirectly, it is performed by way of performing some other one directly. In the case of nonliteral utterances, we do not mean what our words mean but something else instead. With nonliterality the illocutionary act we are performing is not the one that would be predicted just from the meanings of the words being used, as with likely utterances of 'My mind got derailed' or 'You can stick that in your ear'. Occasionally utterances are both nonliteral and indirect. For example, one might utter 'I love the sound of your voice' to tell someone nonliterally (ironically) that she can't stand the sound of his voice and thereby indirectly to ask him to stop singing.

Nonliterality and indirection are the two main ways in which the semantic content of a sentence can fail to determine the full force and content of the illocutionary act being performed in using the sentence. They rely on the same sorts of processes that Grice discovered in connection with what he called 'conversational implicature' (implicature), which, as is clear from Grice's examples, is nothing more than the special case of nonliteral or indirect constatives made with the use of indicative sentences. A few of Grice's examples illustrate nonliterality, e.g., 'He was a little intoxicated', used to explain why a man smashed some furniture, but most of them are indirect statements, e.g., 'There is a garage around the corner' used to tell someone where to get petrol, and 'Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance has been regular', giving the high points in a letter of recommendation. These are all examples in which what is meant is not determined by what is said. However, Grice overlooks a different kind of case, marked by contrast (3) listed above.

There are many sentences whose standard uses are not strictly determined by their meanings but are not implicatures or figurative uses either. For example, if one's spouse says 'I will be home later'. she is likely to mean that she will be home later that night, not merely some time in the future. In such cases what one means is an expansion of what one says, in that adding more words ('tonight', in the example) would have made what was meant fully explicit. In other cases, such as 'Jack is ready' and 'Jill is late', the sentence does not express a complete proposition. There must be something which Jack is being claimed to be ready for and something which Jill is being claimed to be late to. In these cases what one means is a completion of what one says. In both sorts of case, no particular word or phrase is being used nonliterally and there is no indirection. They both exemplify what may be called 'impliciture', since part of what is meant is communicated not explicitly but implicitly, by way of expansion or completion.

The theory of speech acts has applications to philosophy in general, but these can only be illustrated here. In ethics, for example, it has been supposed that sentences containing words like 'good' and 'right' are used not to describe but to commend, hence that such sentences are not used to make statements and that questions of value and morals are not matters of fact. This line of argument is fallacious. Sentences used for ethical evaluation, such as 'Loyalty is good' and 'Abortion is wrong,' are no different in form from other indicative sentences. Whatever the status of their contents, they are standardly used to make statements. This leaves open the possibility that there is something fundamentally problematic about their contents. Perhaps such statements are factually defective and, despite syntactic appearances, are neither true nor false. However, this is a metaphysical issue about the status of the properties to which ethical predicates purport to refer. It is not the business of the philosophy of language to determine whether or not there are such properties as goodness or rightness and whether or not the goodness of loyalty and the rightness of abortion are matters of fact. The above argument is but one illustration of what Searle calls the 'speech act fallacy'. He also identifies examples of the 'assertion fallacy', whereby conditions of making an assertion are confused with what is asserted. For example, one might fallaciously argue, on the grounds that because one would not assert that one believes something if one was prepared to assert that one knows it, that knowing does not entail believing. Grice identifies the same fallacy in a parallel argument, according to which seeming to have a certain feature entails not actually having that feature (ordinary language philosophy).

For philosophy of language in particular, the theory of speech acts underscores the importance of the distinction between language use and linguistic meaning (pragmatics and semantics). this distinction sharpens the formulation of questions about the nature of linguistic knowledge (linguistic

competence), by separating questions about capacities exercised in linguistic interaction from those specific to knowledge of language itself. a parallel distinction, between speaker reference and linguistic reference (reference), provokes the question of to what extent linguistic expressions refer independently of speakers' use of them to refer. it is common, for example, for philosophers to describe expressions like 'the car', 'robert jones' and 'they' as having different references in different contexts, but it is arguable that this is merely a misleading way of saying that speakers use such expressions to refer to different things in different contexts.

2.2 Historical review on pragmatic direction in linguistics

Various changes and news in the society influence on almost everything and language is not an exception. In this regard, anthropocentric direction which studies traditional structural linguistics pays much attention **to human** factor. Several branches of knowledge study it as well as anthropocentric direction:pragmalinguistics, cognitive linguistics, social linguistics, linguostylistics, psycholinguistics. The object of our study is pragmalinguistics. .Once this branch did not have its own scientific circle, its problems were not identified, but now it has been developing and has become independent. For example, human factor is divided into specific categories as addresser and addressee, in particular, the role and exchange of a speaker- listener is considered as a separate problem. And any text (oral or written) is cited for certain purposes. In simple terms, speaker’s intention is widely considered in pragmatics, the problem is understood as the addresser’s pragmatic position.

Ultimately,in traditional intralinguistics language is considered according to its internal properties (phonetics, vocabulary, grammar) ; extralinguistics studies functional significance of the language and human beings who influence on its existence. Pragmalinguistics is recognized as the core basis of extrlinguistics. Pragmatic aspect of any text is of great importance. It provides speaker’s ability to choose language units in accordance with his ultimate purpose, a key word of great importance, a level of influence on a listener, an addressee’s reaction , his own performance fron a different angle, i.e, to express his internal intention in a right and accurate way. In scientific language, it can be described **as addresser’s right reveal of encoded information in the text**.

The term "pragmatics" was firstly introduced in linguistics by Charles Morris. He developed Pearce's proposed program introducing the following notions: "semantics", "syntactics", "pragmatics" as the main components of semiotics..

In this regard, Yu.S.Stepanov: "As syntactics is understood as the scope of internal connections between signs, semantics as the sphere of connections between signs and what they mean - the outer and the inner world of a man, so pragmatics as the scope of the connections between signs and those who use them –listeners, speakers, writers and reader"[20.325]. Therefore, "syntactics" studies formal connection between signs, "pragmatics" studies correlation between signs and its users.

Ch.Morris identifies semantics as the study how signs signifies its referent, and pragmatics studies the formation of pragmatic signs, appearance, application, impact on users and its peculiarities.

Approving Charles Morris's theory R.Carnap tried to use the direction widely in the field of philosophy. R.Karnap's definitions coincide with Ch.Morris's predictions. If explicit reference is meant for a speaker while researching it is considered to be an issue of pragmatics.If much attention is paid to the ideas and designatums, so it is the issue of semantics. Ultemately, syntax studies connection between sentences. R.Carnap suggested to distinguish between "clear" formal "figurative " empirical forms of each sign. According to him, semantics and pragmatics are quite different from each other, they differ fundamentally, even they differ in analysizying the meaning of a sentence. Pragmatics is directed to empirical studies about historical issues of a natural language, pure semantics aimed at a systematic study of the language [21.334].

One of the most common definitions- T.A.van Dijk: "Pragmatism –is the study of a language in the context". The author classifies peculiarities of pragmatic components as follows:

a) pragmatics is an integral part in linguistic theory , and its status equivalent to the status of syntax and semantics;

b) objectives of pragmatics are to determine systematic peculiarities of communication as lingual and illocutive acts;

b) pragmatic interpretation is correct from syntactic approach, semantic is based on certain criteria in conversations;

c) pragmatic interpretations are identified in pragmatic contexts, that is, a specific idea is defined as a set of cognitive and social factors [22].

Thus, linguistic theory should not be limited with the study of certain phrases, but also it studies language acts, and even more difficult

comprehensive language acts as dialogues. Consequently, pragmatics forms and regulates laws which are directed to the addressee in communication.

Pragmatics studies language units and its relation to the organizer, sender and recipient in communicative situation. In this regard, N. " Understanding the object and the subject of communicative-pragmatic linguistics suggests a research of pragmatic properties of language units in several aspects relating to a) subject of the speech, b) the recipient, their commitment to mutual influence or understanding (especially in a dialogue), and c) the situation of communication"[23, 221].

The first aspect of communicative-pragmatic research as mentioned above, is the language of the subject. The following issues are touched upon:the aim of the explicit and implicit in communication (according to Ostin's conclusion "illocutive power". For example, some of the information, opinions, orders, statements, advice, promises, apologies, greetings, complaints); Speech and tactics; rules of conversation; pragmatic meaning of communication; indirect content of a communication; ; pragmatic presupposition; speaker's attitude towards to what is he saying, etc.

Depending on the language of the addressee, the second aspect covers the following issues: impact of speech interpretation on an addressee (perlocutive influence), addressee's opinion, attitude, emotional state of change, etc .; the type of reaction in the process of achieving the goal.

The third aspect covers circumstances of relationship between participants in communication: a form of speech communication (dialogue, interviews, discussions, etc.); social and ethical aspects of the language (communication style); a speech during the act of communication (alas, order, etc.); true sense of word interpretation, index components of word meanings; impact of communicative form and topic on communicative situation.

Pragmatics in linguistics do not have a limited border. The object of it is the subject of the study, an addressee, and complex problems on their mutual relationships [24.390].

The purpose of any author of the text is his knowledge, intention, addressee's adoption of a time and space, an opportunity to understand each other (addresser and the addressee), and all of them are carried out by means of pragmatic index.

Informative function,function of motivation (to motivate somebody to do something), function of evaluation (function of evaluation) are reflected by communicative and performative predicates (an addressee receives an information through texts). They appear because of addresser's intention and in various ways.

G.G.Matveeva distinguishes direct and indirect ways of influence in her works: "It seems that all these functions are subordinated to a single goal - to achieve impact on the addressee and can be treated as different ways of implementing it- direct influence (“the function of motivation") and indirect influence ("message function", " evaluation function ") [25, 14].

People do not just share information with each other through the language, but also regulate social relations and impact on each other. So, a text does not only inform the communicators , but it also regulates their actions and influence on them.

Pragmatic parameters have various options in modern literature. For example, in linguopsychological studies they are as recipients, receivers (T.M.Dridze), in social and linguistic works they are speakers, message senders, addressers and listeners, addressees (R.Bella). V.Dressel describes this term as an information sender (addresser), creator, user (consumer), a speaker, a listener, a reader, an interpreter of a text.

Text linguistics studies the results of speech acts in terms of pragmatics as well as ontological, epistemological and linguistic ones.

It is obvious that the task of pragmatics is to regulate legitimacy of language communication use directed to the addressee.

Each sentence in the text describes not only the relationship in terms of the actual membership but also direction. So, once they are(sentences) a separate category, sometimes they are in general category or modal one. When a sentence has a modal feature it is not of a low level in terms of communication (real –unreal speaking), but of a high level, the speaker's point of view is displayed.(certainty and uncertainty,confidence- lack of confidence, emotional attitude, etc. [26, 48-49].

It was .S.Stepanov who proved that the main category in pragmatics is the category of the subject. This concept leads to the important issues: issues on what a speaker is telling and how, i.e, reliability of the information, objectivity, prediction of his speech, true or incorrect sentences or words,his behavior in social environment, an ability to interpret his objective ideas, or vice versa.

One of the main problems of the text pragmatics is the addresser’s and addressee’s intentions. Addresser’s intention can be clearly seen by the use and selection of language units in the text. To reach his aim he should be careful with the beginning and the end . The audience can guess from the title of any text its content and imagine it. Therefore, the addressee seeks ways to achieve his aims taking into account the addressee’s intentions. He should pay attention to social-pragmatic aspect. Because the text is directed to the addressee. An

addresser while writing a text must take into account the level of knowledge of an addressee.

To have a successful communication, information must be relevant, linguistic norm must be kept, clarity and consistency of an information is important.

Actuality of different criteria for pragmatic option are communicative conditions. For example, if the aim of a text is to convince the communicants there must a lot of facts and arguments. Because, facts lead to perceive objective worldview. This is one of the most functional styles which is reflected in the journalistic text.

Language is a complex system, a whole structure. Its parts are in literary language, journalistic style, newspaper style and it has its own system and structure [27.3].

One of the distinguishing features of the journalistic text is its reliability. A publicist tries to rely on facts , authenticity and character of the events, he uses not only bare descriptions, but he seeks for reasons to make his readers think. And it makes an addresser to show his way of thinking, deep thinking, invisible relations between different phenomenon.

A distinctive feature of a written text is that an addresser might not see the purpose of his audience. If an addresser's and addressee's aims and intentions coincide, it is obvious that it is carried out effectively and successfully.

Thus,text pragmatics is a speech act where the owner(the subject) of a text tries to impact on the recepients through functional aspects of language units.

The form and function of a text makes the language as a tool of communication. Therefore, we can say for sure that the subject of a text research is identified, and it has its own status. Interest in the text gives an opportunity to consider it from of different aspects. The first steps to research a text have been made and some progress have been achieved. In particular, the structure and language of the text are reflected in linguistic studies. It was broadly considered in the works of I.R.Galperin, X.O.Izezberg, N.M.Shansky, B.Shalabaev and Zh.Kaishygulova.

The second issue is devoted to study a text in terms of cognitive (epistemological) approach. Here, much attention is paid to the reflection of objective existence in the text, an it has become the object of research for many scholars (T.A.van Dijk, A.Vezhbitskaya A.N.Luck, E.N.Miller, etc.).

Another group of scientists devoted their researches to psycholinguistic nature of a text and peculiarities of its admission, and studied it in terms of

psychological approach (A.A.Aleksandrov V.P.Belyanin V.G.Borbotko A.A.Brudnıy, E.L.Docenko, A.Zïmnyaya , K.Rodjers).

Connection between stylistics and pragmatics drew scientists' attention, as a result a new approach appeared - pragmastylistics. It is a multi-faceted science. The following scientists as Yu.S.Stepanov, N.D.Arutyunova, A.G.Baranova N.N.Troshina, E.S.Aznaurova, V.V.Odintzov made their contribution into this approach.

Stylistics studies the use of different stylistic devices, analyzes their level of influence, their classification and peculiarities. Speaker's intention (persuade, convince, incentives, etc.) is prior in pragmatics, and it forms frequently used peculiarities, stylistic types of signs which are chosen as language tools in texts and a type of speech acts. Pragmastylistics includes a combination of several sciences as rhetoric, hermeneutics, pragmatism, epistemology and it may become a branch in stylistics. The difference between pragmatics and pragmastylistics would be that pragmastylistics will study different methods and mechanisms of natural language to express "hidden" meanings of thoughts. It forms stylistic manner by stylistic frames during a speech act. In the process of interpretation of a text pragmastylistics introduced a third perspective: a text - truth; a text- addressee; a text – addresser (author) [28.25].

Such scientists as A.G.Baranov, G.G.Matveeva, G.G.Pocheptsov, S.A.Sukhikh, M.M.Molchanova, T.N.Prokhorova studied a text in terms of pragmatics. They paid attention to the author's involvement in the objective existence and content of the material, and developed pragmalinguistic approach to some extent. Recent researches are devoted to functional style and it has resulted in many scientific researches.

In recent years,pragmalinguistics has become an independent branch of linguistics and prerequisites are found in the works of Kazakh researchers. In particular, M.Orazov considers pragmatic aspects of word semantics, A.Aldasheva studies pragmatic features of journalistic terms, B.Momynova devotes her works to pragmatic aspects of a newspaper vocabulary, Z.Ernazarova studies pragmalinguistic aspect of a language syntax, D.Alkebaeva pragmatics of Kazakh language stylistics, G.Azimzhanova studies pragmatic potential of artistic prose, G.Khasanov considers lexical meaning of a word and pragmatics, B.Rayımbekova considers pragmatic aspect of Kazakh and Russian-language newspapers, G.K.Ikhsangaliyeva considers pragmatic analysis of headlines. T.Sh.Myrzaxmetova studies punctuation marks, including the use of dots in terms of pragmatics. R.A.Omarova considers press discourse in terms of pragmalinguistics on the material of newspapers in German

language , S.K.Erzhjepova considers pragmalinguistics aspect of official and business style in Russian and Kazakh languages comparatively.

In recent years, researches on media texts as an individual genre have appeared. For example, M.S.Abishova considered the structure, semantics and pragmatics of information (information, note) on a dissertation level. And our goal is to consider Kazakh newspaper language in terms of pragmalinguistics in awide range. Especially, to identify development directions of Kazakh newspapers in in the years of Independence, to identify news in the works of Kazakh authors in journalistic style, and evaluate in terms of axiological approach. Ultimately, "newspaper is the people's eyes, ears and a pure language", through newspapers we can see the nation's state. As newspapers cover social ,economic, cultural, political spheres of human life, we can face various issues. Accordingly, newspaper materials are written in different genres.

This was reported in the writings of prominent scientists: "how a person needs eyes, ears or a tongue, so a nation needs a newspaper. If we compare a nation with a newspaper ,that nation which does not have a newspaper seems that they are deaf without ears, blind without eyes, dumb without a tongue "[29], " everyone is aware that literature relies on newspapers and magazines. We all admit that it is indisputable truth" [30].

Journalistic style which was established in Kazakh literary language, mainly, media texts differed from other styles, because there was an active use of Russian words. In comparison with fiction, journalistic style played an important role in enriching Kazakh literary language with borrowed words from Russian"[31.228], " Newspapers in Kazakh language influenced on the development of a language in general, and appearance of first scientific terms"[32.172], "Newspaper is the first literary step. The role of periodicals is of great importance in appearance of new notions in the language in accordance with social ,political, cultural changes, in the way of word-formation and term-formation. This the point when skills and wisdom are distributed "[33.155], linguists always remind that publicists take into account the readers. B.Abilkasymov was the first who examined the language of Kazakh newspapers in his writings, and defined the language indicators [34]. "Journalistic style is characterized by its effectiveness, charisma, logic, and by the sequence of information data. Social news, new phenomena are primarily reflected in journalistic style "[35,176-177]. "the language of press had a huge impact on the stabilization of grammatical units and terms which are specific in journalistic style. The role of periodicals is of great importance in appearance of new notions in the language in accordance with social ,political, cultural changes, in the way of word-formation and term-formation "[36.76]," Nowadays, language of Kazakh periodicals has become one of the dominant

model of competent writing and speaking including a large audience"[37,173-180]," peculiarity if national language is predominant in newspapers in Kazakh language. By predominant is meant phraseological units in texts, metaphors and figurative words "[38,370-375]," Kazakh press has a history of more than a century. It has never lost its status, in spite of any social-economic formation» [39,42].

While researching, the structure and aims of literary, journalistic and scientific texts become separate. Among them a media text differs in semantic structure, in terms of function, and in terms of understanding and perceiving. As a means of delivering information to a mass audience, and it shows the author's political and pragmatic position.

It goes without saying that the language of Mass media is of much attention in the current policy of democratization. Because of its large circle of distribution and a wide range. It is the the most effective and quickly spread means of delivering the information among the population. Mass media introduces social phenomenon in terms of its origin, development, ontology. Each language style is different with its own role. The function of journalistic style is agitation, propaganda, and impact. These two roles are always carried out together.

Another feature of journalistic language is the scope of its width. Therefore, much attention is paid to journalistic language in linguistics in recent years, including peculiarities of mass media language. This style is making contribution in the development of literary language [40.23]. Currently, computer technology which forms the basis of the information system of mass communication is in a new stage of development.

There are 3 models of communicative process: network or line (linear), transactional, interactive. Transactional and interactive models are peculiar to oral texts , and, linear is a characteristic pattern of a written one. Because this model considers communication as an activity, addresser puts his ideas and thoughts into a certain type of message code and sends them through certain channels. Information in the newspapers are meant for the audience and it is especially discussed . Following the chain author –text- recipient we can distinguish the main components of political newspaper texts. It is mentioned in V.I.Karasik's work " About types of discourse // Language personality: institutional and personal discourse" work well said: "Any individual is a representative of a certain social institution" [41].

The author and the recipient constitute a political newspaper text. Firstly, communicator meditates a political message through him, and the recipient receives it and tries to understand (interprets).

The author assures readers sending messages full of facts and arguments, in that way he shows his objectives, knowledge in a high competence level. It certainly shows his portrait of communication. Recipient's communicative portrait depends on how he accepts the information, the level of understanding ,intellectual, cultural, psychological conditions, the level of knowledge and background knowledge, etc. Newspaper readers are representatives of various groups, that is, they are not the owners of one specialty, they are the whole audience.

Journalistic text reports the results of the information to the reader. Recipient receives the data or information, and its importance in the society from a journalist's perspective.

The author of a newspaper text has five main goals. The first goal deals with the government's domestic and foreign policy **information.** Characteristic features of a newspaper text is an introduction with the political news in the country which attract majority of readers.

The second goal is analytical , that is what is happening in the society and the analysis of the phenomena, giving additional comments.

The third goal is regulatory which aims to form and change recipient's views, to accept recipient's perception of the realities .

Evaluative nature of the information is also estimated in the political newspaper. Because the author of the text does not just inform the readers, but he he also uses a wide range of evaluative vocabulary to express his view.

The main function of the political discourse newspaper is anticipated (fortune) service. Because ay received information is predicted and affects the recipient. A certain issue will help to change the attitude toward the situation.

The author of a political newspaper has the following strategies to create apolitical communication:

a) a description of the political events and social phenomena;

b) to discuss the issues and analize;

c) to display different approaches on definite information;

d) to express his position due to the situation;

e)to convince the audience with his ideas and to change their position using different arguments;

f) to take into account the audience's interests, individual and psychological and social status.

Communicative purpose includes communicative strategy and communication tactics. Communicative goal is an adresser's main interest while he or she is communicating. The aim of the author of the publication is to inform the public in certain circumstances, agitation, formation of any opinion.

Communicative goals which are put ahead the addressee are based on different social, ideological, extralinguistic reasons. Communication strategy used by the speaker is a form of speech and a plan choice. After all, the strategy organizes a certain course of action to achieve the goal[42.14].

According to N.F.Aleferenko : "speech tactics and strategy are not just major units than speech act and speech genre, but also represent a higher level of abstraction of text formation process. Although both units are considered as a set of speech acts they are in a similar ratio. If a speech strategy defines the task and the general intention of communication (text), so speech tactics is a way to solve a series of tasks in the framework of the strategy related to the solution of one (general) communication problem, it is a set of speech acts. Speech tactics is one of the speech acts, implementing a particular communication strategy. Unlike speech, speech tactics is a method of the communicative strategy, choice of a speech act at a certain stage of communication and the genre "[23,208].

The above mentioned strategies and goals are carried out in 2 genres of a newspaper discourse: informational and analytical (analytical). In general information in the text has 3 characteristics:

1. Factual information covers events taking place in the society.

2. Conceptual information deals with cognitive and aesthetic functions.

3. The logical idea illustration (subtext) (I.R.Galperin). Text-based information and official -factual realities approach is specific for newspaper texts. It includes information about the situation in the domestic and international reports in condensed forms, political posts (notices), brief informational messages depending on the socio-political facts. The second group (expert-analytical, analytical) comprises factual information which are recognized by the validity and socio-estimated peculiarities.It includes political explanations (comments), leading articles and pamphlets. It aims to explain social and political events, to show the opponents' views , to form public opinion and to impact directly on the audience. For instance, on December 4, 2005 during the election of the President of the Republic of Kazakhstan we could see these goals in periodicals.

Newspaper texts are based on many cases: speeches of famous political, state and public figures encyclopedias and reference books, quotes, proverbs and sayings. All of them influence on the audience to a certain extent and form semantic and conceptual information. Thus, journalism is the mirror of "live" information which cover variety of aspects of life in the society. It aims to leave an impression on the audience and consequently provides it in a colourful way.

Different language unit degrees can be mentioned in connection with discursive formula of a political newspaper discourse.Its lexical wordstock

comprises emotional -estimated units, stylistic tropes, metonymies,metaphors, phrases, irony, litotes, etc. Ready language units are peculiar for a newspaper language.

And discursive formula syntax includes foreign indirect language, parcelation ,ellipsis structures, interrogative sentences, phrases. Especially simple sentences are used in the press and journalistic works. Characteristics of this genre is fast and comprehensive reports.The use of simple sentences are different in newspapers. Nominal sentences are never used in chronicles and in an informative messages as in очерк, problematic articles and pamphlets. Ellipsis, exclamatory and imperative sentences are often in article and problematic issues [40.22].

Political issues in newspapers are the main tool to influence and convince the audience. Thus,it comprises several factors of using the combination of explicit and implicit components and formation of different specifics to influence the audience. The component of any political text is implemented within the framework of a communicator, recipient, a poltical text, purpose and motivation of the communication, communicative situation.

2.3.The role of pragmalinguistics in contemprorary linguistics and its connection with other branches

Pragmalinguistics is a branch of science with a wide range. It is impossible not to mention its anthropocentric direction in connection with other branches especially while making pragmalinguistic analysis of a newspaper text. According to the state language system in the society traditional linguistic results are not able to satisfy the requirements which are directed to implement activities on the determination of communicative-pragmatic system (education, language, legal, economic, medical, newspaper text, advertising, language, etc.) and determination of the national consciousness. Currently, the process of development of Kazakh society and its new qualitative level require to identify the role of the language as a cultural mechanism and to improve its methodological basis. In this regard, the following branches of linguistics as cognitive linguistics, linguistics, ethnolinguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmalinguistics are in the process of developing and they are directed to show connection between the language and the culture and to reveal national spirit and character[43.20]. At the same time, basic concepts of linguistics and research facilities should be emphasized in cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics.

The main concept in cognitive linguistics is cognition and it can be understood in 2 different ways. This word has a Latin origin and it is translated as cognition and cognize,i.e., the process of getting education and experience and the results of the process.A person's intellectual abilities and mind are reflected in cognition. At the same time, prerogative of cognition is an individual's self-conscious ,estimation, delving into the causes of the environment, accepting the world and ability to imagine to himself the world around him. Consequently, it is obvious that there is a close connection between cognition which aims to study the process of shipping and handling any information through the language and pragmalinguistics which studies the relationship between an addresser and addressee. The process of receiving information, ordering it to a certain extent, categorization and conceptualization is of great importance in the process of formation of linguistic picture of the world. Because a person acquires the information in terms of cognition, and enriches his knowledge through newspapers. He orders constantly expanding knowledge through concepts and categories. As a result, the received information is systematized separately and forms knowledge stock. All things which are mentioned above are of great importance in studying media texts.

Cognition is defined by human's activity in various stages and understanding of the nature is based on the connection various scientific data , and description of anthropological characteristics. A man being a certain set of psycho-physiological features is recognized as a nature-thinker, philosopher and a crossroad of many important actions. It is indisputable to consider a man's cognition depending on psychological, social development, cultural development as he is living in a certain community and socio –cultural conditions [44, 149-150]. Cognitive researches consider not only media texts as separate word –formation ways, but they give an opportunity to consider it as a result of activity of thousands(journalists) people and organizations(the editorial staff of the newspaper,TV and radio channels) who are involved in preparing and distributing the information. The main issues of cognitive linguistics are interpretation peculiarities of media texts, the role of the media in forming the image of the universe, cultural specific and ideological factors which influence on preparing and receiving media texts. Ultimately, addresser is a person who affects on an addressee to build up the image of universe, so cognitive linguistics studies the relationship between adrresser-addressee as well as pragmalinguistics. This is a brief way to describe the relationship between the two areas.

Cognition is "the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses." It encompasses processes such as knowledge, attention, memory and working memory, judgment and evaluation, reasoning and "computation", problem

solving and decision making, comprehension and production of language, etc. Human cognition is conscious and unconscious, concrete or abstract, as well as intuitive (like knowledge of a language) and conceptual (like a model of a language). Cognitive processes use existing knowledge and generate new knowledge.

The processes are analyzed from different perspectives within different contexts, notably in the fields of linguistics, anesthesia, neuroscience, psychiatry, psychology, education, philosophy, anthropology, biology, systemics , logic, and computer science. These and other different approaches to the analysis of cognition are synthesised in the developing field of cognitive science, a progressively autonomous academic discipline. Within psychology and philosophy, the concept of cognition is closely related to abstract concepts such as mind and intelligence. It encompasses the mental functions, mental processes (thoughts), and states of intelligent entities (humans, collaborative groups, human organizations, highly autonomous machines, and artificial intelligences).

Thus, the term's usage varies across disciplines; for example, in psychology and cognitive science, "cognition" usually refers to an information processing view of an individual's psychological functions. It is also used in a branch of social psychology called social cognition to explain attitudes, attribution, and group dynamics. In cognitive psychology and cognitive engineering, cognition is typically assumed to be information processing in a participant's or operator's mind or brain. Cognition can in some specific and abstract sense also be artificial.

The term "cognition" is often incorrectly used to mean "cognitive abilities" or "cognitive skills."

Cognition is a word that dates back to the 15th century, when it meant "thinking and awareness".Attention to the cognitive process came about more than eighteen centuries ago, beginning with Aristotle and his interest in the inner workings of the mind and how they affect the human experience. Aristotle focused on cognitive areas pertaining to memory, perception, and mental imagery. The Greek philosopher found great importance in ensuring that his studies were based on empirical evidence; scientific information that is gathered through observation and conscientious experimentation. Centuries later, as psychology became a burgeoning field of study in Europe and then gained a following in America, other scientists like Wilhelm Wundt, Herman Ebbinghaus, Mary Whiton Calkins, and William James, to name a few, would offer their contributions to the study of cognition.

The sort of mental processes described as *cognitive* are largely influenced by research which has successfully used this paradigm in the past, likely starting

with Thomas Aquinas, who divided the study of behavior into two broad categories: cognitive (how we know the world), and affective (how we understand the world via feelings and emotions) . Consequently, this description tends to apply to processes such as memory, association, concept formation, pattern recognition, language, attention, perception, action, problem solving and mental imagery. Traditionally, emotion was not thought of as a cognitive process. This division is now regarded as largely artificial, and much research is currently being undertaken to examine the cognitive psychology of emotion; research also includes one's awareness of one's own strategies and methods of cognition called metacognition and includes metamemory.

Empirical research into cognition is usually scientific and quantitative, or involves creating models to describe or explain certain behaviors.

While few people would deny that cognitive processes are a function of the brain, a cognitive theory will not necessarily make reference to the brain or other biological process (compare neurocognitive). It may purely describe behavior in terms of information flow or function. Relatively recent fields of study such as cognitive science and neuropsychology aim to bridge this gap, using cognitive paradigms to understand how the brain implements these information-processing functions (see also cognitive neuroscience), or how pure information-processing systems (e.g., computers) can simulate cognition (see also artificial intelligence). The branch of psychology that studies brain injury to infer normal cognitive function is called cognitive neuropsychology. The links of cognition to evolutionary demands are studied through the investigation of animal cognition. And conversely, evolutionary-based perspectives can inform hypotheses about cognitive functional systems' evolutionary psychology.

Perception and understanding of the information leads to the appearance of a certain knowledge in human consciousness. It is obvious that a man is able to perceive new information in-depth if he is aware of it before.It is difficult to a certain extent to perceive a new information for a recipient. But regardless of what news includes the text any person tries to interprete it relying on his existing knowledge. The notions which are mentioned above are considered in psycholinguistics as "background knowledge", "presupposition", "interpretation of the text", "difficulties in perceiving oral and written text". The main problem newspaper pragmalïngvïstïkalıq text analysis in terms of the kind of pragmatic addresser psycholinguistics this information is written in the text qodtalwı, and open interpretation of the text of the destination code, open or secret information given in the text is to be understood correctly. As well as the addresser plays an important role in the education fund, as any journalist known to him, the main industry will be undeniable. For example, the author refuses to handle more

historical themes, the swift political topics, and a third group adapts to improve the quality of sports and culture.

There is no limit for newspaper readers, because it can be read by any literate person and information is perceived individually. However, there are certain articles written for specific specialties (for example, medical materials written for people who work in the sphere of medicine), articles with great educational value of teaching materials intended for young people, articles devoted for women on gender politics, articles related to sociolinguistics(including age, profession (specialty), gender, social environment). They are related to adresser's factor while making pragmalinguistic analysis of a mediatext. After all, both addressers and addressees are the representatives of a certain society and they keep to written and unwritten laws. But each of them has his own life principle, position, and each individual has characteristic principles. Nowadays linguistic personality is an important issue in sociolinguistics.

Both an addresser and addressee constitute social subjects in terms of sociolinguistics. That is, they are the members of a particular social group. These subjects are representatives of the society who are close to mediatexts. Therefore, they prepare and interprete mediatexts and news in a communicative context . T Van Dyck gives a significant evaluation to these social subjects in his work where he considers news as a type of a discourse: "These social actors, their sociocultural activity, organization, common beliefs or ideologies make it possible to correlate text news with the processes of institutional and social production and consumption, as well as with the economic conditions of their production and distribution." [12.137].

Currently, many interdisciplinary fields including linguistics, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics and cognitive linguistics, cultural ethnolinguistics and pragmalinguistics are enriching in a set of researches. In particular, the works of the following linguists give an opportunity to consider and determine logic and conceptual relations, semantic, pragmatic factors in the language : I.V.Arnold, B.P.Belyanina, V.V.Vorobiyev, N.I.Gainullina, G.G.Gizatova, E.Ï.Kovaleva, G.V.Kolshanski, M.M.Kopylenko, A.P.Krysina, V.A.Maslova, R.Syzdykova, A.Kaidar, B.Khasanov, E.Janpeyisov, N.Uali, E.D.Suleimenova, Zh.Mankeeva, B.Momynova , Z.Ernazarova, G.Sagidolda, E.Orazaliyeva. As T.G.Vinokur says pragmatics is a branch which identifies the language use and its communicative role[45,19-20].

In conclusion, the subject of our research is to make pragmalinguistic analysis and to use scientific achievements reached in this field .

2.4. Media text –basic notion of creating informational image of the universe

Means of mass media are considered to be the fourth power informally and is of a particular importance in today's information era. Academician R.Syzdykova considers fiction style as a dominant one in the development of Kazakh national literary language and says:”We should admit that many informational means(including Mass media, radio, TV) are becoming stronger ” Nevertheless, it seems that Kazakh literature, especially the language of prose is in a high position "[46, 81]. Yet functional branch of a journalistic style has become a leading one in connection with the development of legal and political consciousness; with a rapid growth of technical and electronic means especially in the last decade of this century[47, 41]. In particular, having their own aims they apply to the media. Sometimes mass media leaves an impression that getting rid of the Soviet censoring, it became a property of some organizations or wealthy people. At first glance, mass media must cover all spheres of social life ,but sometimes it happens that they seek for materials which they are interested in. On the eve of a election campaign which has a State importance we can see a ‘true face’ of mass media and all individuals behind it. In general, according to the form of information delivery media is subdivided into three types: television, radio and print. When we speak about the the language of mass media we come across with the main notion of linguistics, that is a text. The big difference is that a new connotation is added to this notion of mass communication. They appear in accordance with media properties. For example, a text which is transmitted through TV does not consist of just words, it is considered in 3 levels simultaneously: a verbal level, video and audio which constitute a whole unit.

Radio texts are also provided with typical musical and audio supplies. And graphic decorations are peculiar to current press texts in newspapers or magazines. According to them these texts are carried out through three different ways: TV texts are perceived by audio-visual means, radio texts are perceived audibly (we hear). A print text is perceived visually or read (" a dead text"). Having their own peculiarities messages which are transmitted by mass media constitute a notion of a media text. Russian- Kazakh dictionary gives such definition: “Media- a means of mass media ” [48, 114].

While considering media texts we shouldn’t consider it only as linguistic units, but as a combination of it with a communicative background. In recent years, especially much attention is given to the study of media texts within the framework of cognitive linguistics. Language is a key cognitive tool which processes the information coming from the outside (representation) and then it is

used to open the encoded information. .Organization of **informational space** topics is of great importance for experts in cognitive linguistics, because there is a huge flow of media which have specific features. While considering media texts much attention should be paid to the linguistic means to determine its ideological orientation. Currently, the status of media language, especially in mass communication is not clear, because functional –**stylistic** peculiarities of mass media language has not been identified yet. For example, typical journalistic style signs can not coincide with media.

In periodicals, as materials are on the paper they are processed through several stages, text messages transmitted on television or radio can not be regularly observed . For example, a variety of sports, cultural events, political events, which takes place live it is difficult to value, assess a report's style.

Thus, the complexity and diversity of media style and language cause problems to a large extent in its studying. According to Yuri V. Rozhdestvensky: "The difficulty of researching the mass media is not only that there is no tradition of special research on mass information, but also in the particular complexity of the subject. The complexity of the mass media is caused, firstly, by the fact that mass information as a text is created collectively and collectively, secondly, because mass information covers all types of oral and written words with its content. Therefore, the characteristic features of the spoken word, literature and writing are included in the mass information. Thus, mass information is complex in the way it is created and comprehensive in terms of oral written sources "[49, 125].

The reason of the difficulty lies in the fact that the language has not identified its functional –stylistic classification. Researchers follow a variety of concepts in grouping the language according to its functional and stylistic branches, there is a problem caused by a variety of criteria , the consolidation of the objective facts relating to the use of the language is selected in accordance with the objectives of each of the authors' own research concepts. D.N.Shmelev says about it: "There is no reason to think that by accepting this or that criterion, we are already in conflict with all other conceptions of styles, with other principles of grouping of functional varieties of language. Apparently, only illuminating different ways and various aspects of this objectively multifaceted problem, we can correctly estimate the specific weight of the various criteria "[50, 15].

In general mass communication is considered to have social importance in social communication experience, public sözjumsam experience in the field of social importance. Depending on the importance of these features, typical basis of mass communication are based on specific use of words in this area. It

happens so, because media texts are done in collective nature, and they are oriented to a much larger and different audience[51.48].

On the one hand, integrity and unity are peculiar to media language.Its thematic structure is constant, on the other hand, because of functional and stylistic diversity there are variety of topics in the media. The use of words in media texts differ from other branches in its openness, changibility and its variety.

Scientists pay their attention to 2 issues to determine the status of the language of mass communication style. First, media language has its own independent style in the functional style ,to identify it according to the functional and stylistic classification[51.50].

Scientific literature survey shows that media language is not homogeneous in terms of style, words are syncretic in oral and written use, as different styles and their types interact with each other, there is no obvious stylistic boundaries. There aren't any works based on functional style of mass media language. However, researchers have begun to pay their attention to this direction in recent years. Especially, a lot of Russian scientists related to the study of language newspaper:V.G.Kostomarov, A.N.Vasiliyeva, I.P.Lysakova, O.A.Lapteva, G.Ya.Solganik, among Kazakh researchers B.Abilkasymov, O.Burkitov, B.Momynova, A.Aldasheva, S.Sapina, F.Jaksybaeva, M.Zhumagulova, etc.

It is obvious that much attention is paid to newspaper language among others. Firstly, newspaper is an ancient type of mass communication and major stylistic approaches and tools have appeared for the first time.Secondly, the newspaper text is available in terms of linguistic research facilities and it doesn't need additional steps as pre-shotting or distribution.Compared to other forms of media, media texts are large.

Thus, in comparison with other means of Mass media, including magazines, radio, television, cinema the role of newspaper is of great importance. It is explained by the fact that it is available any time, the information is more cumbersome, it has a variety of themes, it has synchronous approach to the diversity of the content. In spite of the fact that television and the Internet conquer the whole world, newspapers don't still lose its importance.

Thus, Mass media plays an important role in intercultural communication. Mass Media reflects national and cultural features in each country as well as the interests of certain social groups and political pragmatism. As Mass media transmits a wide variety of information it has become an integral part of human life. It has even named as the fourth power. Mass media influences on the society. Certain stereotypes are formed in politics, economy, culture and then priorities are made. Therefore, the language of mass media play the role of a

mediator between the sending and receiving an information and it is a phenomenon. In this regard, being an universal language of the nation, it has its own features. It includes tools to implement the major functions.In its turn,it arises journalist's or scientist's interests, especially when the Kazakh language got the status of the state language, it was enriched both in content and form. A. researcher A.Aldasheva in her work, where she considered the Mass media language, its genre-stylistic peculiarities concluded: "On the whole, the former words peculiat to newspaper language, cliches, most of the terminology lexicon are not used in present day press. Instead, expressive – emotive vocabulary, proverbs and sayings, winged phrases and words, as well as those inherent in the language spoken language and simple vocabulary are used in newspaper jenres. The change from the one stylistic element to another, and their influence is called stylistic diffusion in science.Stylistic diffusion can also be noticed in Kazakh media."[52, 366].

So, mass media selects events which are happening in the society and distribute it to the audience. We regularly get social, economic, cultural, sport news through different means of Mass media. We can be also aware of news from different parts of the world. So we form world picture in our minds through them. For example,our view on manifestations of life on the untouched snow tops, interesting facts about the life of creatures in the woods or at the bottom of the great abyss interesting facts about the space are the results of Mass media. But this is one aspect of the problem, that is, a single mass consciousness of the mass media does not have only a positive effect. But it has also negative impact on the audience, as it shows horror events. Even these events influence not only on children,but it negatively influence even on the psychology of adults. It is a psycho-educational side of the issue. The current mass media language does also influence on speech etiquette in the society.

Our goal is not to consider the influence of the national language on the development of positive and negative impact of Mass media language ,but to consider pragmalinguistic interrelationship between the addrresse and the addresser, which constitute a media text. In particular, to analyse the development, formation and linguistic peculiarities of Kazakh media texts on the basis of Kazakh newspaper meaterials during the years of Independence. Also, to identify the use of freedom of speech by journalists, the influence of author's freedom of thought on media language, and possibilities of its damage on Kazakh language as a State language.The materials from the readers' representatives as well as professional journalists were taken into consideration. The materials are not taken from outside world, it describes events which are happening now in the society. It gives an opportunity to understand a person's way of thinking and speaking, his characteristic features and his inner world. In this regard,the task of pragmalinguistic branch is to

optimize the role of language in communication (communication and storage, to promote social interaction, etc.). The total expenditure of language in society can be divided into the following factors: the context (linguistic terms), postsituation (extralinguistic conditions), empiricism (communicants' linguistic and encyclopedic knowledge). Thus pragmatics studies the use of signs during communication.

As perception of the world is a cognitive process , cognitive interpretations which are caused by different things show peculiarities of a person's actions to a certain extent, People, first of all, accept two systems:

1) the universe (world);

2) a society, where he is a part of it.

The information which is received during the interrelationship between individuals and other members of the society is represented as consciousness of the human universe ,and that information becomes important both for the individual and the society. Changes in the society influence on a person's thinking.

Pluralism of universal image ("reality- image of reality - language " is considered a series of research) states a problem. In order to understand any picture of the world you should compare it with other images or samples of images. In other words, the image of the universe, first of all, is understood by language tools and then it is represented.It is known that to model a person's world image 3 representative systems are used:

a) hearing; b) view; b) perception.

Besides, nonverbal images exist as well. They are represented with the help of pictures (Fine Arts), signs and nonlinguistic sounds. It should be noted that the universe of music, plastic and Fine Arts are also used in representation.

In order to form a person's world picture a reality could be represented in several possible ways. In this regard, we should pay attention to the interralatioship between a sign space of a text and meaning.Sign space of media text will not be meaningful until it is accepted by a recipient, so we can say for sure that it is a collection of signs which can be meaningful when it becomes conceptual by a recipient. That is why, scientists consider a text as a sign substance which transforms the meaning. The meaning is transmitted in 2ways: producer(a person,who sends atext) and recipient and vice versa., and vice versa.

An addressee selects meaningless signs in accordance with intial thinking and the meaning of a word is prior.To make words meaningful is up to the author's linguistic competence. However, even if signs and meaning of a text is compatible, the audience can not accept it in anadequate way. It means not that

recipients accept it in different ways. It depends on a recipient's level of knowledge, encyclopedic knowledge, unprecedented awareness of the problem and many extralinguistic conditions. In other words, an addressee's meaning is transmitted to the addresser fully or partially. However, a media text does not always want to display the meaning of a fragment in a reality. That is, the author forms a text according to the way how he wants to introduce an event, which happened in real life.

A media text media can be considered as a product being torn from the truth. The combination of these products give an opportunity to the recipient to be aware of environment, realities of heterogeneous and single events. Consequently, a recipient does not only accept symbolic content, but continuum of all media. For example, it is impossible to cover an information,which caused horror just in one text. Because, new information arise concerning that event every day. Consequently, the event can be delieved in a number of newspapers in the form of many large and small articles.

To determine the patterns of media interpretation and transmission of the text much attention must be paid to the notion "meaning".being "value" need to focus on the concept. Most of the researchers think that "meaning" has nothing to do with a word, but with a communication.Words use their potential within a text.

There are some disagreements among scientists in terms of understanding the meaning of a text. A group of scientists connects the meaning of a word with thinking [53],the other group pays its attention to 2elements: meaning and situation[54]. There are some scientists who divide meaning into abstact and communicative[55]. In this case it is better to pay attention to the term «individual sense» by Leontiev [56, 147].

An addresser shows his opinion in a text, but addressee accepts it according to his worldview, and forms his own «individual sense» . Not general meaning, but «individual sense» opens the way to understand the world and helps to recognize the reality. That is, there is a relationship between an individ and reality within the relationship between a text and the recipient and a meaning is a mediator. That is, the consciousness of the individual is reflected in the media as a symbol of the universe.

That formation reveals the content of an individual's consciousness: the meaning of a media text appears as a result of interrealation between sign space and nonlinguistic entity of recipient's conceptual image of the universe.

As events and situations come into contact with a recipient's mental representation, srtuctural components of media texts help to increase the meaning of a text. Therefore, we can conclude that is there is no sense if there isn't a link between a text and recipient's conceptual image of the universe [57].

In particular, information is an integral part in a human's life, being separated from others it is going ahead. Media Being from a wide variety of media, broadcast media and through a set of texts. Media texts of reality (truth entity) will need the space intended for the zattandıradı he called it in the scientific literature and media space. During media texts becomes part of the media being characteristic of being an individual, and can lead to various changes.

Thus, the meaning(sense) of a media text is a mental, pscychophisiological formation which can distinguish and change a recipient's world picture.the conclusion that the meaning of a text doesn't consist of its constitute parts leads that the language and thinking have their own peculiarities. These two isomorphic systems depend on complex interrelation between sign and mental systems. It is the basis of interpretation of reality in different variety of options. If a person has a choice to represent the reality in his way, so a recipient has a choice to interprete it as he wants. It means that a recipient having read a media text by means of other sources can not accept an article as it is revealed in a newspaper. That is the state of the media in the text of event japsarınan was informed by other sources, is unlikely to make the recipient is in the same newspaper article.Regardless of how skillfully the author of an article used the methods of persuasion, an addressee relying on his background knowledge, it is possible that he won't accept it.

Journalists who make media texts often use isomorphic system for the purpose of social regulation. This phenomenon is widely used as a manipulation of a human's mind in media communications (information). In politics, it is characterized as a propaganda and ideological struggle which influence on human minds. Expository Dictionary of Sociology defines the word **manipulation** as social, ideological, psychological system which changes a person's point of view and controls his actions, and Webster dictionary defines it as an influence on people giving false information and showing pressure. From these definitions we see that it monitors a human's actions and consciousness [58.23].

It is known that information and communication role consist of two stages: 1) participants in communication prepare media texts; 2) the other participants accept the meaning of the text. The meaning of a media text text in a material state influences on a recipient's mind, changes his conceptual image of the universe, and impact on his point of view either in a negative or positive way. So ,we come to 2 important conclusions concerning the regulatory (regulating, influencing) nature of mass media:

1. The meaning(sense) of media texts in a sign space differ from Mass media(from a newspaper or TV) and mentally transmiited to a recipient. It means that sign space (media texts) is transmitted to a recipient's mind.

2.Media text is manipulated with the means of Mass Media, and influence on the minds of million people. In this way, millions of people get information.

It helps to unify and coordinate conceptual system of majority part of people in a certain place.

The public(people) is aware of reality due to their constant attention to Mass media and Internet.

Having discussed the influence of Mass media on people, let's draw out attention to media text as a tool of social regulation. According to R.Yakobson orientation of language in communication is divided into 6:an addresser -an addressee- referential - message- link(relation)- code [59, 198]. Communicative (denotative) is related to referent, emotive / expressive message is related to the author, phatic function is based on interaction, poetic fuction focuses on "the message for its own sake" (the code itself, and how it is used) and is the operative function in poetry [60, 34]. The function which is directed to the addresser R.Yakobson gives another term "conotative" or appellative.The following terms as «voluntivative », «vocative» which can be found in scientific literature defines addresser's intention, purpose,and his influence on an addressee. Among above mentioned terms it is better to use N.B.Mechkovskaya's term regulatory (control),as it shows the role of a language in regulating a human's behavior.

There are different ways to influence on an addressee's behavior: to cause to an incident, to respond to a question, to change an addressee's point of view. These regulatory functions are fulfilled through media texts. With the advance of informational technologies around the world, processes related to the life of the world community are increasing dramatically. These processes are revealed with the means of media images through Mass media[61, 5].

It is a step which is directed to show a person's attitude towards what is happening in the society through the process of interpretation. For example, let's recall candidate's materials on the eve of the national elections. In one periodicals there might be materials related to a candidate's works done for the country, and personal quialties. Such materials are aimed to form an ideal image minds of voters. Accordingly, people can vote for him. Another candidate can show off his best quialities, and good things which he had done for the sake of people in an another periodical. In addition to this, it might give negative information about the 1st candidate, misconduct relating to the identity, children,previous mistakes. As a result, a candidate can fail the election. In science it is constructualization(design) of a social reality.

No one can disagree that constructualization(design) of a social reality is objective. Individuals create social realities and leads them out. This "designed(constucted) and directed outward" social reality is the form of media texts. Analyzing and accepting informational texts one turns them into media texts in order to inform the others.

As people are focused on social realities, the object is always interpreted, so media reality is constantly constructed. Journalists, politicians, ideologists take part in this process as well as individuals. Journalists, interpreting these processes create media realities.

Social world consists of a wide variety of realities. Therefore, different people (individuals) see different aspects and come across to them face-to-face. There is always a certain ideology in the society. It can be considered as a way to to create social realities. It shows an interaction between ideology and media reality. This ideological line is reflected at least in one form of media image of the universe.

In general, each text must be considered as "a certain fragment of communication" [54, 26]. As Mass media influences on millions of people on the planet and creates a world picture by means of media texts, much attention must be paid not to the meaning of single words, but to the meaning of a whole text. Communicative function of a language is not carried out by sentences, but it id fully revealed by texts. G.V.Kolshansky prefers to consider a text not as a linguistic phenomenon, but it is close to communication. According to G.V.Kolshansky, a text " is not purely a linguistic, but pragma- psychological, communicative category " [54, 26].

A word as well as a sentence have communicative peculiarities. As a word has just one meaning in a sentence, a sentence has a **typical meaning**, but both make **a sense of the whole text**.

According to O.L.Kamenskaya, a text is a combination of several elements, as a complex object of communicative integrity. Analyzing the link between these elements one can describe communicative peculiarities of a text [62].

Accordingly, we can consider communicative process as a limitless chain of information in the form of text continuum, are media texts are basic units in it. [63.131]. These media texts contain meanings with social regulative influence.

In conclusion, mass communication is carried out through media in the society and is materialized in the form of various types of media texts.

Social interaction is an exchange of different texts which represents the reality. Mass media is a system which provides interaction within the texts and aims to create a person’s world picture. Represented fragments of a reality

influence on the changes of individual's world picture and it results in an effective communication. Being represented orally and in written form, technical tools increase its influence. At present, electronic media has become an object of influence. Media text which is widely used in Mass media is a universal tool to regulate the society. Each media text has its own peculiarities, but universal characteristics are not changed. In general, one can understand a "text" in different ways. Firstly, a text is changeable; secondly, it's implementated in different ways. We can consider a newspaper article, a novel as a text which consists of a few sentences .

We consider TV interviews as a text in an oral form, a text in a newspaper as a printed(written)text, and electronic text as a virtual text [64.174].

According to I.R.Galperin, a text is a written document, issued in the form of a literary work, a goal-oriented, determines a pragmatic approach, a result of communication, and groups its peculiarities in the following way:

• Text is a result of addresser's action which is carried out with purpose;

•Text is an implementation, which carries out addresser's pragmatic strategy;

• Text is a form which is specialyy treated and is taken in accordance with the form[65, 18].

These definitions are peculiar to any type of a text, and they serve as additional ones to media texts. Because, a media text is a social and communicative phenomenon, a communication unit of a high-level, and it comprises information in all spheres of a human's life[64, 175]. In other words, a text can be spread without any restriction. For example, residents of remote villages saw an immediate report on the Olympic Games in Sydney in Australia, and were informed about the victories. Media texts are for everyone, there is no classification due to the age, gender, nationalty, profession, ethnicity. The content of media texts is equally spread to everyone.

However, we should take into account that the role of people, who make media texts and those, who accept them are different, i.e, certain groups represent reality in order to offer them to others and turn it into a text. Therefore, a media text is a result of a group action, which aims to influence on other groups.

Therefore, being a tool of communication, a media text is a regulative tool in the society[64, 176].

In conclusion, a media text being changed, ordered has communicative and other functions. It is better to consider a text as an indispensable tool to form a public opinion in a certain society. Public opinion is formed as a result of

continuous continuum of media texts. We can assess the past and present through the media, and even to predict the future.

After all, information in media texts must be given true to life , as the role of Mass media is to display the reality in a regular, stable and organized way compared to belles-letters or poetic texts. Thus, an individual has to rely on media texts in order to get acquainted with social reality. So, it means that if a person does not have an opportunity to see an event with his own eyes, he has to listen to the information reported in the media .

Events in the society, in the country, overseas are interpreted(analyzed, explained) in media texts. For this reason, a media text is based on ideological content of a particular group with its values and interests . Therefore, the role of media texts is to create world picture on millions of minds.

Now, the next issue is how the meaning is introduced and revealed in media texts.

As media image of the universe is focused on the society and social changes, so sociomorphic characteristic is obvious.

Interactions between individuals in the society and structure which keeps an order forms its social space. There are sociomorphic parallels which are peculiar to informational or media space[61, 7].

An individual who is involved in events in the society makes a social reality due to his actions. Involvement of individuals in social reality shows anthropomorphic characteristics of peculiar to the media image of the universe. There are 2 parametres which are peculiar to the media image of the universe - its sociomorphic and there is every reason to say anthropomorphic. It is better to consider them as opposite directions in creating the content of the image of the universe. The media image of the universe is made on the basis of interaction between these 2 factors.

Integrity of individuals is an important peculiarity of the society.Interactions of 2 directions which are opposite to each other are considered to be the basis of socioanthropomorphic media image of the universe which in its turn form the life of individuals in the society, their actions, formation of a world picture [61, 8].

One of the systems which represent the reality is an individual's consciousness, picture of the world is stored in the form of a conceptual framework. Conceptual system helps an individual to learn the difference between other objects. An absorption of the world by the individual, and its integration into individual's consciousness is carried out by conceptual system.

Making a media text, a person directs his individual imageof the universe to another one. In this process he enriches his world picture changing it into anothor forms. As a result, one part of an individual's world picture is "lost" and becomes someone's "property".

The aim of the image of the universe is not to change an individual, but to change objects and subjects around him. Media text is considered to be a specific way of coexistence of an individual world picture(image). For example, a newspaper text has its own characteristic (immanent) peculiarities. They are:

a) "physical" values (papers);

b) peculiarities which ensure its social functions properties.

Second, a media text models signs of outer environment according to individual's inner goals in the form of structures. The author's inner goals can be seen by emotive part(components) of a media text. Besides features peculiar to media texts there are also modernized and imposed ones. Graphic structure of a media text is likely to affect its meaning and vice versa.

Being a complex structure of an existence representation a reality is focused on important issues around the world. Events and phenomena which are important both for individuals and the society are collected by media image of the universe and it unites component parts of media texts and makes a conclusion. At the same time, it (linguistic image of the universe) connects an individual with the society through media texts. Thus, it installes the contact. Transmission of media existence into mental influences on an integrity of an individual with the society. Here, we can see the unity of media and individual existence.

Let's consider a media existence. Media existence of the universe simulates the existence. Therefore, media image of the universe is a model, which transmits changing events.

"Modelled" method of transmitting events are changed events. This can be called as an individual, internal "program"[66, 6].

The first step in making a media text is to model a situation. The author's aim are found within the model. The next stage is transmission of a media text to recipients and society, which covers the reality of the situation.thus, a media text has 2 statuses: firstly, it reflects the author's purpose. Secondly, a certain incident is reported. These two parameters are interrelated, collaborated and make a single unity. A variety of mental processes are implemented in a variety of different types and give way to make sense in the minds of people.So, an individual and existence constitute discrete forms of heterogeneous anthological significance. Having a lot of functions, media image of the universe has a cumulative effect on a holistic approach on events and

situations. All above mentioned things show that a single event can be represented in many different ways in the field of Mass media.

To sum up, the following conclusions can be made according to media texts: Media text is an important element of informational and communicative process which is carried out through Mass media; Media text has a communicative function which is used to implement the other forms of relationships; Media text is a result of communication and a single unit; Media text is a complex and sophisticated model which represents truth to reality. Media text is one of the main tools which interpretes events, phenomena and processes; Media text is a product of a text interpretated mechanism; Media text carries out the impact of pragmatic strategies; Media text is a powerful tool for social regulation; Media text is a factor which forms media image of the universe.

Thus, we can consider that media text is a powerful tool of Mass media in creating true reality of media image.

2.5 Addresser's pragmatic position in a newspaper text

One of the main requirements for a newspaper article is that the material must be important and it mustn't be out of date. The event which took place a year or two years ago loses its inevitable loss in comparison with the event which happened yesterday or today in the morning. But, if it concerns the tragic event, which shocked the public it will remain interesting to the public.

However, any material written for a specific purpose will find its addressee. Only, a group of people can go thoroughly. That is, the addressee only conveys a certain thought in the text and inserts it through words, but his pragmatic meaning lies in the context. Therefore, one should switch on a "special" mechanism which includes some **psychological,communicative, pragmatic and sociolinguistic factors.** That is, wo is the author?(age, job, gender,nationality). What are his political views?(if he supports the government, or if he supports opposition, or neutral), whose attention he wants to draw, what he awaits from addressees'?

Any statements can not convey the full meaning of the information provided. The content of the meaning **or explicit content** is directly expressed through language openly, and addressees' can reveal the author's thought.This is the objective feature of the meaning. But, if the information is vague and information is understood in different ways so, it **is implicit meaning.** In this case, implicit meaning supplements the meaning or makes it variable. In this

case, one term must be mentioned. **Actual meaning** – an important and main part of the text, his idea which pushed him to write.

Actual meaning,firstly, depends **on extralinguistic situation,** secondly, on the people's interests. We can say for sure that actual meaning has situational and subjective nature. Meanwhile, another conclusion can be made:if vague statements are not interesting for addressees' they can not be accepted . No matter if an addressee understands the statement or not, it can have vague meaning.[67], [7].

The most important parameters of mass communication are depadresant and the addressee will be recognized. They are sometimes called **partners** in relationship. In fact, any speaking(written or oral) is carried out by an addresser, and is meant for an addressee.

Partner's image in communication is called the **image of a participant**. Here, the notion image shows participant's subjective model. This partner could be individual or collective, real or accumulated (typical), real or in fictional form. An addresser imagining addressee's image tries to predict his answer, and in its turn an addressee tries to picture to himself addresser's image and view. Each participant tries to make his own image, and thinks of his image in advance.

One of the main components of communicative situation- communication channel, which is divided into acoustic (oral) or visual communication (written). This channel is characterized by presence or absence of relationship between partners, visual presence or absence of communication, as well as using special tools for the delivery of the message and organization of these processes. The object of our research is a **newspaper text, channel of visual relationship** peculiar for communication between the author and the reader in written form. The relationship between communicators is indirect. This makes it differ from other relationships which are carried out face-to-face. Along with the benefits of such indirect communication there are also **difficulties.** Before writing an article the addresser thinks over and analyzes a lot. It gives him an opportunity to think and select accurately appropriate language tools. The addresser can be aware of the reader's reaction only in response to the article or in the form of a letter. Before giving a response to the addresser, his answer goes through many steps. While responding the reader does not show his psycho-physiological condition (reaction) as he felt at the time of receiving the information. Let's focus on how the information is perceived by the reader. In scientific literature this process is described as "interpretation of a written text" and considered in the context of pragmatics.

The researchers classify pragmatics as a **communicator pragmatics** and **recipient pragmatics**.Communicators are considered to be i**nterpreters** of

other texts which belong to a certain language system, language context, a situation and a period. Being aware of the fact that their information or message could be understood bilateral, communicators concentrate their thoughts on it while speaking,or visa versa,wishing not to have bilateral understanding he tries to put just a single idea in the text [68]. We consider a newspaper text to be a complex communicative phenomenon ,a bridge between a journalist and a reader. A newspaper text is a tool which carries out political orders of a particular political parties in the society, etc. It concerns a matter of interpretation, taking into account national interests, national-cultural peculiarities of the nation.A special language mechanism is used to make a special context in the newspaper text.

In order to make his information for the audience an addresser takes into account the readers' needs, interests, education level, social position. In this regard, there is a need to consider a special *pragmatic characteristics of a text*.

Pragmatic components of a text allow to identify patterns in terms of language tools. In considering pragmatic components of the text we take into account Yu.D.Apresyan's 3 aspects of pragmatic information. They are: the addresser 's point of view towards :a) truth to life; b) message to the content ; b)his point of view towards addressee [69].

Addresser's point of view towards truth to life, message to the content could be reflected in newspaper texts, essays, analytical articles. As a result of his creative work the author introduces some approaches which show his individuality and some kind of novelty in the text. The author of publicistic text does not only describe events,but he also analyzes,evaluates and interprets in his own way. Thus, the addresser delivers the information which takes place in the society in accordance with his communicative intention analyzing and thinking over it. He should always bear in mind the social-pragmatic orientation of the text as well as the addressee's level of education. In this regard, we consider V.G.Kostomarov's opinion: "Newspaper language reflects the addresser's speaking skills, and is adjusted to addresee's general skills" [70].

Addresser's certain pragmatic approach is reflected in a newspaper text. He mainly intends to influence on addressees. Addresser's pragmatic approaches in newspaper texts can be divided as follows:

1. To inform readers with important events in the world;

2.To arise reader's interest to newspapers, to draw his attention to the publication;

3. To convince readers with the accuracy and objectivity of facts and events;

4. To form addressee's point of view towards certain events or people.

Researchers classify addresser's pragmatic principle into 3 types:

1. **Informational principle** is carried out while providing information through selection;

2. **Phatic principle** is used to attract readers' attentions;

3**. Manipulative principle** aims to form reader's attention towards a certain event or information. In order to achieve this pragmatic principles while considering methods in newspaper texts, we should determine ways of influence on readers. Works which are devoted to the study of discourse in Mass media the following **impacts on readers** are mentioned [71]**:**

1. **Conceptual impact.** It concerns a person's change of mind in terms of any object, categorial structure of person's individual mind and introduction of new concepts. It arises in terms of occurrence of events in social surrounding and in grouping the objects according to their relationships.

2.Emotional impact. It arises in terms of formation addressee's emotional state and shows emotional changes which affect a person's psychology**.** Emotions are considered to be factors which identify conceptual image of the universe**.**

3. **Manipulative impact.** It leads to changes of the established stereotypes which exist in the mind of the reader. We can consider it as a combination of emotional and rational relations in terms of truth to life.

Also, these impacts can change a person's behavior. Being aware of new information a reader's emotional and categorical scope change as well as his way of behavior in terms of his attitude towards to the subject and the object. For example, if an article describes a capture of the criminals engaged in trafficking drugs which ended successfully,it will create a positive attitude towards the reputation of this profession as well as the names of police offices who took an active part in that operation.

However,opposed to the"Act about the land" the authorities (police and bailiffs) causes a wide public anger when they destroyed the life of ordinary people making them leave their houses in spite of their ages, saying that the land where they built their houses are not legalized(it was mentioned in the newspaper "Zhas Alash under the title "Strike in Shanyrak"). In response to this, there were facts of insulting the police officers who did not take part in this event.,etc. There was another terrible case when children were infected with AIDS in the South Kazakhstan. The authority strengthened the control in this sector in another regions of Kazakhstan, and as result these facts were identified in Petropavl, Pavlodar, Semei. This is one of the mechanism of impact on the audience in Mass media.

There facts were officially discussioned and certain measures were implemented. There are some negative effects in the minds of readers which were not published in the press. First of all, it goes without saying that there is a decreased confidence and disrespect in relation to the police officers and medical workers (especially the blood filling stations) . If there is no trust there is a doubt. It has a negative impact on the reputation of policemen and medical men, etc.

Pragmatic approach is carried out by a few steps:

1. A text is based on the true reality of any events, facts;

2. Materials are selected in respect to facts;

3. An addresser carries out two types of actions:

a) selects information;

b) he gives subjective evaluation;

4. In order to turn information into a text ,certain language tools are selected, model is formed;

5. Prepared text is offered to the recipient.

So, there are certain stages to turn an initial information into a text. Here, an addresser (journalist) is responsible. So, an addresser interprets events and phenomena according to his world view comparing it with accepted principles and concepts. Successful interpretations of the events is carried out in accordance with his communicative intentions and is related to linguistic factors. The choice of language signs and skillful use of national and cultural symbols are of great importance in delivering his message to the addresser. In newspapers and newspaper-journalistic style "figurativeness" is a ture approach. An addresser is always in search for new expressional instruments in order to influence and convince the readers [72]. Presupposition plays an important role in pragmatic implementation of the text. Effective use of language with estimated components are of great value in such materials. This estimated component can be in explicit or implicit forms. The main measure of emotional estimation is expressiveness.

Let’s consider articles in newspapers which illustrate them. For example, an informational-analytical article under the headline ”From the place of accident” was published in “Zhas Alash”,which was issued on March 20, 2007. The author of the article, Erik Rahim described consequences of the armed conflict between ethnic Kazakhs and Chechens in Almaty region, Enbekshikazakh ditrict, Malovodnoye village, which took place in March, 18. He tried to identify the initial reason of this accident. In order to deliver his pragmatic position clearly to the readers he used specific approaches. In particular:

1)An introductory part starts with the time, place of the event, the participants (ethnic group, quantity)and they are given in bold.

On Sunday afternoon, as a result of an armed conflict between the the Kazakhs and Chechens in Almaty region, Enbekshikazakh region,Malovodnoye village, 3 people were killed. 2 men of Kazakh nationality and a Chechen citizen. Another five people were hospitalized with serious injuries ...

Further, the author introduces the readers with the matter of the accident. This **informational** part starts with " the accident happened ...". The author completes the sentences with the past tense forms (... was wounded, ...went, ...used heavy weapons, ...burnt his house and car). It is seen with his own eyes the story of the author. So, he completes this section with many dots (...).

The accident happened in this way: On Saturday, a Kazakh guy Salimbayev played a game of billiards with one of the ***notorious brothers*** *Makhmakhanov in the cafe "Botagoz", which in Malovodnoye village and won.* ***Insulted*** *Chechen guy shot him in the leg and wounded with a rubber bullet "OSA". The next day ,enraged Kazakh men set off to the village "KazAtKom", where the Makhmakhanovs lived, 8 kilometers away from Malovodnoye. The Makhmakhanovs used weapon. As a result, the two young Kazakh guys were shot, four of them were seriously injured. The Kazakh guys burnt the Makhmakhanovs house and their car"Mitsubishi Pajero"....*

The following pragmatheme describes the events witnessed by the author. One of the advantages is that it leaves the impression as if the reader had seen the accident with his own eyes. In addition,the material submitted with photos (cup-arched across a highway) l strengthens the impact on readers.

Having heard about a special commission formed in the village we set off to Malovodnoye. Indeed, security measures have been taken tightly. Along the way there were a lot of armed forces and traffic policemen. They were cheching cars asking the purpose of going back and forth.We were stopped several times before getting to Malovodnoye.

The next part describes a specific manifestation of the people's discontent.

There was a mess of the population in front of the House of Culture. There were about thousand people. They had just one demand "Guilty people must be punished!"."They must be expelled from the country!". According to the local population the Makhmakhanovs were cruel. It seems that the ***clashes*** *occur often between Chechens and Kazakhs. It was obvious, according to the head of the department of internal affairs of the region and local authority.*

In this case, the text which differs from others in quadrilateral shape and typed in bold letters aims to attract the readers' attention as it has tragic consequences (this is a special effect). Having deep and national colors, the

following notions (*shedding of blood, bullets, life deprived of his death)* leaves a special impact on the minds of Kazakh readers. Cruelty of the Makhmakhanovs and disorder in the village which led to death of people is the culminating point. The addressee can form the addresser's "symbolic image" with the help of such language units.

Next passage seems not to be impressive.

After the meeting of elders and law enforcement officers in the House of Culture,in Malovodnoye, one of the elders Zamanbek Akshauly spoke out his compromise.

" Commission members will meet twice a day. The meeting will be held in the Malovodnoye administration. District administration, regional law enforcement officials and representatives of the Chechen organizations will be involved at the meeting. The demand of the population will be implemented."We must be patient".This matter will be solved in2 or 3months",-said Zamanbek Akshauly. But the announced decision after the meeting led to an emergence of a new wave. The event had suddenly a dynamic character:

But the people did not agree with the decision. They didn't even allow Zamanbek Akshauly to utter a word. Because the demand of the people was different. Their initial demand was "to expel guilty people in 48hours". But, now their demand was "to expel them in 24hours". Having a hope that the commission will fulfil their demand, the people showed distrust to the commission. So, the crowd of people ***attacked and blocked*** *the highway Almaty-Narynkol. The policemen came up to that crowd by several buses waiting for the order from a special forces . They* ***used force and pushed*** *them off the road in spite of their ages and gender. We witnessed the accident that the police attacked them and pushed the crowd of elderly people and young children, who trampled under the feet..*

In this part the following sentences show that the situation got worse in no time, "... *black armor, blocked the road on the highway, the crowd of elderly people and young children, who trampled under the feet*.having read this part of the article readers try to imagine the situation. There is no doubt in true description. Readers, who have never been in contact with Chechens will have a feeling of anger.... To our minds, the author's main pragmatic approach was implemented. Because, he saw the accident with his own eyes and he reached his initial aim. An educated reader will have his own conclusion towards this accident.

The author's next aim is to introduce the audience with the opinions of law enforcement agencies and local authorities who are directly responsible for this issue.

What does the law enforcement agencies say?

Bagdad Maikeyev,

The head of the Regional Department of Internal Affairs

-The accident was caused by the fight. Then a Chechen guy shot a Kazakh man by a rubber bullet and wounded.At the hospital the injured young Kazakh, lied the doctors that he had fallen from the horse. Therefore, we couldn't take measures towards the Chechen man at once. Two Kazakh men died and four were seriously wounded during this collision.one Chechen guy died. Yet, 2people are in serious condition. Criminal proceedings were instituted under the article 96 of the Criminal Code on the Chechen guy. The bullet gun disappeared. After this accident Kazakh citizens burnt the Chechens houses and cars. Written statements are being accepted. ***Of course,no one can deny that there were some conflicts among the youth****. If there are cases of using weapon by Chechens, they will be carefully cheched. Applications are studied by the district prosecutor and the mayor of the district. If these events are justified and confirmed,guilty people will be defined by official inspection. Now five Chechen men are under the arrest.nationals are in custody. Two of them are the Makhmakhanovs.*

He says what?

Kerim Abdrakhmanov,

Kazakh district workers

... The relevant authorities are investigating the incident. After the results of investigation the accident will be evaluated.As representatives of the local authorities,explanations to the people and meetings with the elders are in process. Misunderstandinsg among young people happen quite often in rural areas.

From the commentaries of two officials one could guess that the accident has unfamiliar characteristics.It seems that the authorities do not treat the accident seriously.

What does the mayor of the region say?

Kerimtai Abdrakhmanov

The mayor of Enbekshikazakh destrict

Taking into account previous causes and current consequences of the accident and trying to create"a full picture" of it the author puts a postscript. The author characterizes the main character of the accident in the additional part:

P.S. *It seems that there is no result in this event. Because of the demand of the population. Leaders of the region are still there.*

By the way, one of the Makmakhanov's Kazhymurat,who was beaten and taken to the hospital, seems to be working at Almaty city court as a bailiff. Last

summer's bloody conflict in microdistrict "Shanyrak " was because of him. We can say it for sure because an ordinary citizen of that destrict, Rysbek Sarsenbaiuly warned Kazhymurat saying" in the case of enforcement efforts towards the ordinary people the consequences will be crucial". But makmakhanov did not even pay attention to what he wsa saying. Now, Kazhymurat himself is in that situation…..

Parenthesis "By the way" in the above mentioned part is considered to be the author's initial pragmatic position. Because, the addresser's pragmatic position is carried out in "implicit" way.

Looking through this article, a reader forms a negative attitude towards Kazhymurat Makmakhanov, who was involved in bloody clash between people and bailiffs.

The author's mentioning about the accident in microdistrict"Shanyrak is the most effective way to influence on readers.

Having read the article, readers probably will have a lot of questions. "Why do representatives of this nationality among other 130nationalities, i.e, the Chechens mock on the Kazakhs? "Why do they show their aggressiveness in an open way?" "No one is going to ask them to stay, why not they leave for their native country?"

There might be just a single answer to this question: "The Chechens are "fond of blood", i.e, aggressive. They are kept under the slogans and principles"Friendship, cooperation and unity of the people", but in reality this mountainous population show off their true identity. Having been promoted to the competent institutions they seem to forget the Constitution of the country….

It is worth noting that ,this is just one opinion out of thousands. There are thousands of opinions which differ from one another in the level of education, age, etc. social status,etc.

We focused only on the ways how the journalist carried out his pragmatic position open and vague. The process of interpretation of the text further lieson the recipient.

The addresser's main purpose as it mentioned before is **to influence** on the reader to a certain extent. In the framework of the extralinguistic factors there are various ways to influence on readers,a prominent psycholinguist A.A.Leontiev suggests the following methods[73].

1.To introduce readers with the information, whichthey have never read or heard before. On the basis of provided information he can change readers' points of views towards certain events or phenomena. Such influence is obvious ,if a foreign correspondent prepares material for a newspaper, using

information which is unknown for readers. This kind of influence can be seen in newspapers, which inform readers about natural disasters.

2. To change recipients' existing views on some certain things providing new information. As an example, we can add unknown information about well-known individuals. Such information broaden recipients mind and at the same time they can change their minds towards them. This method is called influence through *informing.*

3.The next influence is carried out by **persuading** a recipient's opinion about a certain even without adding information; a journalist tries to show his material from other angle.

In Mass media communication it is very important for an addresser to identify how and who he wants to influence. In order to influence on a recipient by **persuading**,the addresser must be aware of what a recipient knows about certain events

We can analyze impact from psychological point as follows. An addresser uses language message in changing a recipient's point of view in accordance with his aims.The author's idea is conveyed by encoded signs. Getting acquainted with the message , a reader reveals the codes and tries to understand the hidden point. This information can change his point of view, behavior. In E.Pronin's article which is devoted to criteria of effective influence on readers, he focused on the problem of influence through persuasion. According to the researcher, a journalist should convince readers of how he deeply understands this or that event.The structure of a newspaper article is formed in accordance with the way how to deliver it to the readers-the main aim is **persuasion**"[74].

To our minds, there are 2 different tasks for an addresser: firstly, to arise a reader's interest in a certain article and to achieve the goal. This is a one-time process. Secondly, the most important one is to attract readers' attention not only to the article, but to the whole newspaper. Making his material appropriate for different circle of readers his aim is to make readers be constant ones.

On the one hand, addresser's responsibility is to gather appropriate material and to make it understandable for readers, on the other hand, he should attract a large audience.

In spite of the fact that the audience constitute readers of different social characteristics (age, gender, level of education, occupation, etc.) , the initial aim of the text must be accepted properly , language units must be selected, addresser's implementation of communicative intention shows **the addresser's pragmatic position.**

It is difficult to predict the impact of a newspaper text on addressees, because pragmatic impact of a newspaper text is directly connected with addressees' feedback.

As newspaper material is considered as a special type of a text, a whole system is used **to influence on the behavior of a group of people**, the emotional position to influence the behavior,to form public opinion, to reform existing values. However, this system can either be seen or not to beincluded in a certain publication. the actual publication of the system and can not be subject to the look. This matter is closely connected with the addresser's professionalism.

There are some certain criteria which show addresser's professionalism to improve the efficiency of a newspaper text in scientific literature:

1. Processing means must be as diverse and complete as possible to reveal cultural, historical and ideological context;

2. To select the correct idea to solve the problem raised in the article, which draw addressees' attention;

3. The matter must be urgent in the society and related interpretations must be the most reliable;

4. To know how to combine these signs and ability in order to create addresser's image and make him rememberable for the audience.

5.The addresser is qualified in respect to the raised issue if it is effective, clear and sharp..

6. To raise important and urgent issues and to use proper language units.

7.Addresser's linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competence (competence) is an important factor to achieve pragmatic goal.

8.In spite of the fact that a newspaper text is distributed among mass population, his article is dedicated for specific group of readers. For example, certain material can be interesting for one specialty and not interesting for the other. Therefore, the author of the text must prepare his material beforehand and has to imagine his readers, it must be suitable with the readers' cognition and perception. in preparation for the transfer of materials in the future, imagine a reader selects the adjustment of the ways that the reader's understanding, acceptance. It also requires the author's characteristic features as strategic forecasting, intuition, the ability to make a right decision. Grouping these requirements we named it as a *text oriented for an addressee*.

9. A newspaper text by experienced and inexperienced journalists can leave different impact on readers. A newspaper text on the same matter prepared by a young journalist could leave a good impression on readers rather than experienced one. To sum up, the author's position and experience can not be

constant measures. One of the reasons could be that a lot of young journalists show their curiosity, they try to attract his own readers; they are flexiable in all social changes; they have freedom of speech and they are ready to express their own thoughts; An experienced journalist could try to avoid some controversial and complex issues related to some certain problems. A young journalist tries to deliver an important issue, shows his wit and becomes an outstanding journalist.

10. Events which are realistic in newspaper texts lead to the addressees' belief. While describing some events, a journalist gives a guarantee to their reliability. This can be compared with the assured documents, "a journalist confirms the authenticity of the events by his **name**" [75].

Thus, the author's problem is a multifaceted issue in journalistics. He plays the role of a certain ideology holder and a distributor. For example, some of the oldest publications mainly publishes a lot of positive changes taking place in the society. And the relatively "young" publications often raise issues with no solutions. Newspaper employees, who support the 2nd one try to solve the issues objectively and it gives an opportunity to evaluate properly. In this case, if the author of the text is considered not as a "doer of a task", but as a "representative from common people", it increases the weigh of the newspaper.

If we bear in our minds one journalist, we try to follow his other articles, even readers gather background information about his identity, personal life, worldview, and it gives an opportunity to form his personality. For example, readers will follow a journalist's articles, if it is written qualitatively. Readers' faith in journalists increases author's responsibility. In this case,according to the researcher B.Momynova leaders' image in accordance with the subject: "...Because of the changes in the society, there must be need for forming **leader's image"** [76].

2.6 Pragmatic presupposition in a newspaper text

Representatives of various branches of linguistics define presupposition in different ways. Initially in the discipline of philosophical logics this term was used to show if the interpretation is real or fraud, but it has been widely used in linguistics in analyzing language in terms of logics. Its main aim is that communicators can express his ideas relying on the information or event he has already knows. In its turn, the recipient tries to catch his point analyzing each sentence without asking questions. On the one hand it saves time, which is the basic requirement of speech, on the other hand, in terms of literary norm it does not give a way to repetitions (tautology), which increases the expressiveness of speech. Nowadays each political event or phenomena is widely discussed in Mass Media ,so active use of presupposition is one of the

main requirements in terms of pragmatics. It means that a journalist does not give detailed information about the event or widely discussed political matter, he includes minor changes to upgrade the information. For example, Sh.Ostemiruly's article "Difficulties under the fallen stones" shows that it is a continuation of the previously published article.It goes without saying, that a reader who is familiar with the previous article will be interested in the second one.

In the branch of linguistics known as pragmatics, a presupposition (or PSP) is an implicit assumption about the world or background belief relating to an utterance whose truth is taken for granted in discourse. Examples of presuppositions include:

Jane no longer writes fiction.

Presupposition: Jane once wrote fiction.

Have you stopped eating meat?

Presupposition: you had once eaten meat.

Have you talked to Hans?

Presupposition: Hans exists.

A presupposition must be mutually known or assumed by the speaker and addressee for the utterance to be considered appropriate in context. It will generally remain a necessary assumption whether the utterance is placed in the form of an assertion, denial, or question, and can be associated with a specific lexical item or grammatical feature (presupposition trigger) in the utterance.

Crucially, negation of an expression does not change its presuppositions: I want to do it again and I don't want to do it again both presuppose that the subject has done it already one or more times; My wife is pregnant and My wife is not pregnant both presuppose that the subject has a wife. In this respect, presupposition is distinguished from entailment and implicature. For example, The president was assassinated entails that The president is dead, but if the expression is negated, the entailment is not necessarily true.

In general, **presumption and presupposition** are used equally in scientific literature. There are 2 types: semantic and pragmatic. According to the researcher E.V.Paducheva: " semantic presumption of a sentence is presupposition of the reality. It means transformation of phenomenon in accordance with reality. "Not proper" argument looks like a neutral denotattıve level of interpretation or *propositional form.* In other words, pragmatic presumption relies on communicators' knowledge, awareness about certain phenomena [78]. In other words, presupposition is a common education system between an addresser and addressee.

E.V. Paducheva believes that it is more natural to consider the presumption as the meaning of the sentencein linguistics, and the correlation between presumption and the sentence, which includes this presumption,shall be identified as an objective fact of the sentence semantic structure independent of the speaker, listener and the general situation of the speech.The judgments of different speakers on the validity of the same presumption can be different, and that is why the same sentence can be meaningful to one speaker, and meaningless to another. The concept of presumption allows for general description of the sentence adequacy requirements withoutgiving an unambiguous definition of its adequacy.

According to E.V. Paducheva, the concept of presumption is directly related to the identification of hidden (implicit) components in the meaning of language units (words, grammatical categories, syntactic structures, linear and intonation structures); identification of syntactically abnormal sentences, explanation of sources for abnormal word combinations, mechanisms ofindirect understanding of abnormal word combinations (when it comes to metaphors, etc.); the prediction of the sentence behavior when changing its modality.

According to Kazakhstani pragmalinguist Z.Ernazarova "a correct understanding of the content of speaking depends on linguistic and non-linguistic members. Language member includes: 1) the completeness of the text; 2) correct use of words and interrealation between sentences; as for non-linguistic members it includes requirements which ensure the content of speaking with reality. Requirements which define the content of speaking is called presupposition "[77].

Presupposition is a component of a text meaning that guarantees its correct and sufficient understanding of the information in the minds of the recipients [79].

Thus, presupposition is the basis for provided information in speaking. These fragments are called estimated propositions in scientific literature[23,209]. In this case, let’s have a talk about **proposition** which is closely connected with presupposition in terms of a context and genetics.

Proposition is the semantic basis which is common for all the members of constructions with communicative and modal paradigms of sentences. The term is defined as **supposition** in logics, and *sentence* in linguistics. At the end of the nineteenth century and early twentieth century this term gained a new meaning in works which are devoted to analysis of a language in terms of logics. For example, G.Frey considers idea or thinking apart from the attempts to clarify the point.

This new concept is consistent with the process of dismantling of a sentence. A sentence is divided into **an objective semantic constant** and a

subjective variable. It means that each sentence has its own constant semantic core. The truth corresponds to the existence.The term proposition is used in terms of core. A speaker using different verbs changes the content of sentences. For example, if core words are an *election, justice, unity*, *Parliament*, so, a speaker can make his sentence different using predicatives in accordance with his communicative aim: *Parliamentary elections will be fair; Parliamentary elections might be held fair; Parliamentary elections should be held fair; Parliamentary elections could not be fair; Parliamentary elections are never fair; Parliamentary elections may be held fair.* Here, objective semantic core (parliament-fair-election – to be held) can be a foundationfor different variants of sentences.The meaning of each sentence can be defined by **propositional relations**.

The term proposition is used differently depending on various factors in general logics and linguistics. So, proposition serves as a logic basis of a semantic structure of a sentence.Here, we should take into account that when we speak about semantics, a sentence can be simple and compound. In the above example, we can change a sentence in terms of presupposition: Parliament election also could not be held fair. According to this structure, a speaker has a few ideas:

1. According to the speaker, the previous presidential elections were not fair;
2. The speaker has a doubt that election will be held fair;
3. The speaker is an active voter and he is not indifferent to future elections;
4. The speaker has a clear political opinion, and could be a member of a political party;
5. He is a representative of the opposition party, he is an opposition;
6. The speaker might be a member of less important party("Spirituality," "Patriot"), and a young party; he has a doubt that his party will win in an election.

These conclusions as a form of prediction are made up including negative forms of the verbs, conjunction(also).

Another complex concept which is transferred from logics into linguistics is **implicature- is a semantic component of a sentence.** The main difference between presupposition and implikatura is that implikatura is characterized by instability, under the influence of a context it could not be paid attention or noticed. For example, implikatura of a sentence *Parliament elections will be held fair*, is *Parliament elections should be held fair.* If we change the intial sentence into*" We hope that Parliament election will be held fair",* so we will

have another implikatura *"Parliament elections could not be fair"*. Each change according to the context will lead to the appearance of different implkatura. The most important indicator of implikatura is **instability**, and the most indicator of presupposition is **stability.** Let's have a look at the use of language phenomena in modern Kazakh newspapers. now directly use these phenomena in modern Kazakh language newspapers. A.Mandiken's article "A.Akayev planned to be a president until 2010". A small message suggests the following considerations (Zhas Alash07.05.05):

1. Akayev's plan remained unimplemented;

2. Akaev was to extend presidential power after the end of the term, and it is against the law;

3.He thought out his illegal action in a comprehensive way;

4. The plan was asecret, but it has been exposed;

5. He acts in secret, therefore, it means that there are obstacles to his open plan;

6. The President is number 1 in the country, so why should he act in a secret?

According to the degree of a reader's awareness this list could continue-the first factor is the recipient's background knowledge. In the following article under the title"I have never seen such money, even in my dream" ,it will have the next presuppositions:

1. The author of a letter is an ordinary man;

2. He is facing a difficult situation, from t the competent authorities;

3. A person who asks money is a powerful, wealthy man, in a good condition;

4. the author of the letter have complained to several executive bodies;

5. His interests have never been protected by any executive bodies;

6. The author of the letter is asking help from competent authorities through the press;

7. He does not agree to give money and finds it inappropriate;

8. The author of the letter is a poor person.

Gradually these presuppositions are revealing. We come to know that the author of the article is unemployed person who makes both ends meet.

On the basis of Kazakh press we can make the following conclusions in terms of **presupposition:**

1.Any headline is formulated in accordance with the issue of the article. Predictions which are based on this construction gives way to make several **presuppositions.**

2.A logical chain appears to make several presuppositions on the basis of any headline.

3. The length of presupposition depends on the reader's background knowledge concerning the issue.

4. We can differ a presupposition chain on the basis of proposition by using language elements. This language element can be either conjunction or a asimple sentence, parenthesis, or even full stop. Any language element has an impact on presupposition.

5. Presupposition can be under the influence of change, but it never disappears. It can be viewed by implikatura, which is characterized by instability.

6. Presupposition which is in close relationship with proposition in content and genetically confirms its reality or fraud,which can not carry out a communicative aim.closely related to propozïcïya sentence to be confirmed due to aqïqattılığına information related to or connected to any communication destination can not be denied. So, one of the requirements of presupposition is proposition must coincide with reality.

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