

подібність, яка полегшує спілкування. Вони очікують, що потреба людини в їжі, притулку, безпеці тощо, є спільною і достатньою, для того щоб зблизити їх, або навіть зробити усіх однаковими. На жаль, вони не помічають того факту, що форми адаптації до загальних біологічних та соціальних потреб, а також цінностей, переконань та ставлення до них значно відрізняються у різних культурах. Нерозуміння також відбувається через різницю між мовами. Словник, синтаксис, ідіоми, сленг, діалекти і т. д. створюють додаткові труднощі. Існують і інші мовні проблеми, наприклад, стилі використання мови. Різні стилі можуть призвести до неправильного тлумачення намірів та оцінок серед комунікантів. Іншою причиною непорозуміння є уявлення та стереотипи, особливо останні перешкоджають об'єктивному сприйняттю інших людей. Мовні бар'єри нелегко подолати, оскільки вони міцно укорінені як міфи з власної національної культури. Тенденція до оцінки є наступним фактором, який викликає непорозуміння. Замість того, щоб намагатися осмислити думки та почуття від сприйняття світогляду інших, ми припускаємо, що наша власна культура або спосіб життя є найбільш природними. Це упередження перешкоджає відкритості, необхідній для вивчення ставлення та поведінки з точки зору інших.

Викладання культури має стати невід'ємною частиною навчання іноземної мови. Культура повинна бути нашим посланням студентам та мовою нашого середовища. Викладачі іноземної мови повинні оволодіти знаннями, що містяться в навчально-методичному матеріалі, повністю та глибоко. Вони мають стимулювати у студентів внутрішні мотиви та викликати зацікавленість. Створення внутрішнього мотиву спонукає студентів взяти на себе ініціативу в навчанні. Для того, щоб отримати достатній рівень міжкультурної комунікативної компетентності, студентам потрібно опанувати довідкову культурну інформацію в процесі вивчення мови. Вони можуть навчитися закономірностям повсякденного життя у цільовій культурі та застосовувати їх на практиці, беручи участь у інформаційно-орієнтованих заходах. Це дозволить їм дізнатися про сучасний спосіб життя у цільовій культурі та порівняти цей спосіб життя з власним, щоб знайти подібності та відмінності.

Таким чином, студенти можуть краще підготуватися до повсякденного спілкування, з яким вони можуть зіткнутися, покращити навички, необхідні для ефективного спілкування, а також підвищити рівень обізнаності та чутливості у сфері культурної компетенції.

Ключові слова: культурне знання, культурна компетенція, міжкультурні перепони, міжкультурне спілкування, іноземна мова, соціокультурна інформація, стимулювати інтелектуальну зацікавленість, культурна свідомість, подолання комунікативних бар'єрів.

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LANGUAGE INVESTIGATION FROM THE PSYCHOLINGUISTIC PERSPECTIVE

The article deals with the problem of language investigation from the psycholinguistic perspective. Psycholinguistic is determined as a combination of two older sciences, linguistics and psychology. The author focuses on relatively new study psycholinguistics and states language research implementation of a set of specific parameteres and certain factors such as

thought and language, linguistic relativity, theories of language acquisition, accommodation, fossilization, etc. The most important language factors are highlighted in the article.

Key words: *psycholinguistic, language acquisition, neurolinguistics, vocabulary acquisition, second language acquisition.*

The study of language in relation to the brain functions and the psychological characteristics of an individual is conducted in the frame of a relatively new science called *psycholinguistics*, a combination of two other older sciences, linguistics and psychology.

Important areas of research include how humans understand, produce, store, acquire and transmit language, where language is localized in the brain, which parts of it are active during different linguistic processes and the effects of brain damage or disease on language.

The term *psychology of language* may be encountered as well, usually referring not to single individuals but to larger groups of them, such as racial, ethnic, religious etc. For some language disorders due to inherited or acquired health deficiencies the term *neurolinguistics* is also used.

Language research from the psycholinguistic point of view implements a set of specific parameters and takes into consideration certain factors. The most important of them, given in a concise description in this short article, are the following:

Thought and Language. A classical view which holds that thought is prior to language and that languages have developed the properties they have in order to express ideas. A contrastive view holds that we can only think logically and coherently because language assists us in doing so.

Linguistic Relativity. A theory of the relationship between speech and thought. The term is often used to cover two distinct theories: 1) Linguistic Relativity: A view that each language has categories and distinctions which are unique to it. 2) Linguistic Determinism: A view that the way in which we perceive and categorise the world is shaped by the language we speak.

Theories of Language Acquisition. Behaviorism: Language is a set of habits with associations formed between words and the real-world states and objects to which they refer. Empiricism: Language is acquired through extended exposure to adult speech and a desire to make sense of the environment. Nativism: The view that language is genetically transmitted, and that children are born with an innate language mechanism. Cognitivism: A predisposition equips infants for cracking the language code.

Acquisition. The process of developing competence in a language. The term is used for infants acquiring their native language – *first language acquisition* – and for those learning a second foreign language – *second language acquisition*.

Accommodation. The way in which a speaker, often without realizing it, echoes features of the speech of the person he / she is talking to. A speaker in a conversation might use particular words or syntactic patterns which his / her interlocutor has recently used.

Accommodation theory explores the way speakers adjust their accent and speech style towards that of their interlocutor as a sign of solidarity – *convergence*, or away from it as a sign of social distance – *divergence*.

Fossilization. Persistence by a second language learner in producing an incorrect form despite continuing exposure to the correct one. A state in which the overall linguistic and communicative competence of a language learner reaches a *learning plateau* and fails to progress, sometimes because the learner is no longer motivated, sometimes because he / she is conscious of having achieved an acceptable level of comprehensibility.

Self-Monitoring. The process of checking one's own language productions to ensure that they are: 1) accurate in terms of syntax, lexis and phonology, 2) appropriate in terms

of register, 3) at an acceptable level of speed, loudness and precision, 4) likely to be clear to the listener / reader, 5) likely to have the desired rhetorical impact.

Mental Lexicon. The word-store in the human mind.

Memory. Early research into memory led to a *multi-store model* consisting of: 1) sensory memory, 2) short-term memory, and 3) long-term memory. Sensory Memory: It is of extremely short duration, enabling the language user to retain a brief impression of the actual sound of speech or the distribution of words on the page. Short-Term Memory: It holds a limited number of items for current processing and is of relatively limited duration. Long-Term Memory: It has unlimited capacity and is of extremely long duration, though the information it contains is reinforced by being used. When persons are asked to recall written or spoken lists of words, the first words on the list are recalled better than those in the middle. This is associated with successful storage in the long-term memory. There is also the other situation when persons recall the most recently heard or read words; this is attributed to the ability to retrieve words that are still stored in the short-term memory.

An item of information (e.g. a phone number or a name that we want to remember) can be consolidated and transferred from the short-term memory to the long-term memory by rehearsal, by repeating it silently in our minds. Similarly, the more often we retrieve a particular item of information from the long-term memory the easier it becomes to access it and the less likely it is to be lost. Information that is rarely retrieved may decay.

Memory capacity varies among individuals. This may reflect: 1) how much information an individual is able to store, 2) how rapidly information decays when held in an individual's store, 3) how much information an individual is able to repeat in the mind as a way of retaining it in memory. If we wish to retain what we have heard, we have to make use of a *rehearsal mechanism* which enables us to review it in our minds, thus preventing the words from fading.

Competence vs Performance. A Person's linguistic system versus actual examples of language produced using the system. The distinction is important because there may be a considerable difference between someone's knowledge of his / her language, and what he / she is actually able to produce.

Competence: internalized language, *Performance*: externalized language.

Behaviorism. A movement in psychology. It is principally a theory of learning based upon the relationship between an external stimulus and the individual's response to it through acquired behavior.

The Theory of Conditioned Reflexes: An established response becomes attached to a new stimulus. Example: the Russian psychologist Pavlov trained dogs to associate food with the ringing of a bell and they finally began to salivate when they heard the bell alone. Asserting that language is simply *verbal behavior*, the American psychologist Skinner put forward an account of first language acquisition based upon *conditioning*. His view was that a child acquires language through imitating adult utterances. Parents provide models of language. They also provide reinforcement through showing approval, through carrying out the child's wishes or through recognizing, responding to and echoing the child's utterances. Grammar is said to develop in the form of sentence frames into which words or phrases can be inserted.

Paralinguistic Features. Features such as facial expression, gestures and gaze which contribute to communication. Such features are considered also laughing, yawning and pausing during a conversation and factors such as the movements of the face and body and the physical distance between the interlocutors. There is interest in establishing the extent to which, in conversation, these features support or supplement information in the signal.

Certain of these features, such as laughter, are universal; but some (for example, nodding the head in affirmation) are culturally determined.

Sign Language. A System of communication employed by those with impaired hearing. Its modality is the use of gestures rather than sound. Sign language is based on three components: 1) the place where the sign is made, 2) the shape and angle of the hand(s), and 3) the movement of the hand(s). Sign languages evolved within the communities that use them and differ from the spoken language in a number of ways, particularly in the way they mark syntactic relations. They do not employ inflections, they do not have articles. Lip-reading plays also an important role. There is some evidence that there may be a critical period for sign language acquisition. Those who acquire sign language young appear to make fewer mistakes. An older age of acquisition seems to limit ultimate attainment, with a greater likelihood of grammatical inaccuracy and of problems in sentence recall. There appears to be a relatively consistent order of acquisition for the forms of signing; hand position is mastered the most readily and hand shape gives the most difficulty.

Language Acquisition Device. An innate mechanism in the brain of an infant which triggers and supports the process of acquiring the first language. All infants pass through the same stages in the acquisition of a first language, but they progress at different rates: 1) Sounds which resemble vowels. The infant responds vocally to human speech. 2) The infant produces consonant-vowel sequences which may resemble those of the target language and imitates adult intonation patterns. 3) *One-word stage*: The first words appear at about the age of 2; the child may have a vocabulary of around 50 words, usually nouns. 4) *Two-word stage*: The two-word combinations exhibit a set of primitive semantic relationships usually naming (this...), non-existence (no...). At about the same time the vocabulary increases. 5) *Multi-word stage*: The child uses strings of three or more words, often based upon established two-word patterns. Adult syntactic patterns gradually become more prevalent. This stage begins at about the age of 3. Instead of age, a more precise way of calibrating the development of an infant is by *mean length of utterance*, a figure based on the average number of morphemes in the infant's productions

The Vygotskian Theory of Language Acquisition. For the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky thought and language are mutually supportive. Thought exists prior to language, and there is initially a separation between the two; but, during three phases of language acquisition, their different functions become established: Phase 1: Before the age of two, thought and language are unrelated. Phase 2: From two to seven, the child does not distinguish clearly between private thoughts and public conversation; the child expresses its thoughts aloud. Phase 3: From seven onwards, thought becomes internalised.

Vocabulary Acquisition. The construction of a system of vocabulary by a child as part of the process of acquiring a first language. Research studied the increase in vocabulary size and the rate at which it occurs. The child first has to recognise the word as a linguistic unit, since there are few gaps between words in connected speech. Late in its second year a child has mastered 50 to 100 words. It may understand four times more words than it produces; but it is also likely to produce certain words without fully understanding what they signify. The first 50 words tend to be mainly nouns, which are frequent in the speech of carers and easily matched to physical objects. At some point, most children manifest a vocabulary spurt, where the rate of acquisition of new words increases suddenly and markedly. From then until about six years old, the average rate of acquisition is estimated to be five or more words a day.

Many of the new words are verbs and adjectives, which gradually come to assume a larger proportion of the child's vocabulary. The vocabulary acquired during this period partly reflects frequency and relevance to the child's environment. Children appear to need minimal exposure to a new word form, sometimes just a single occurrence, before they assign

some kind of meaning to it; this process of *rapid mapping* appears to help them to consolidate the form in their memory. In the early stages, mapping is exclusively from form to meaning; but it later also takes place from meaning to form, as children coin words to fill gaps in their vocabulary. In some infants, vocabulary develops in a series of short bursts; in some, the development is gradual and continuous.

Child Directed Speech. A speech register used by adults when addressing infants. Parents simplify their speech in consistent ways when speaking to children. The linguistic modifications include: 1) emphatic stress, 2) longer pauses, 3) slower speech rate, 4) restricted vocabulary, 5) shorter utterances, 6) repetition, 7) rephrasing. Child directed speech is also known as *baby talk*. It is generally well formed syntactically, though it contains more imperatives and questions than normal conversation. No correlation has been found between the degree of simplification in the carer's speech and the rate at which the infant acquires language. Child directed speech does not appear to be universal. In non-western societies, it may have different characteristics. There are even cultures in which the child is exposed to adult discourse but no language is specifically directed towards it. Within a given culture it is strikingly consistent across carers.

Babbling. A pre-linguistic stage when infants produce sounds which resemble adult consonant-vowel syllables. Infants begin to babble at about 6-10 months of age; the stage lasts for up to 9 months. Two types of babbling are observed: 1) repetition of the same consonant-vowel sequence (e.g. *mamama, bababa*) or 2) repetition with different consonant-vowel sequences (e.g. *bami, mabi*). Babbling is a precursor to speech, enabling the infant to practise a range of potentially useful sounds, which increasingly resemble those of the target language.

Deaf Parents. When a hearing child has deaf parents, the contribution of parental speech to language acquisition is necessarily restricted. Many such children display normal acquisition, though some – possibly around 20 % – show signs of delayed development. Delays in phonological development are frequent. External factors play an important role. To ensure normal acquisition, the child appears to need a minimum of about 5-10 hours contact each week with hearing adults, plus exposure to radio or television. However, there is no close correlation between time spent in the company of hearers and the rate and success of linguistic development.

The existing of siblings does not necessarily enhance acquisition, and some children continue to manifest linguistic problems after spending long periods with hearing peers at school. Exposed to two different forms of adult language, the child appears to avoid the simplified syntax of the deaf parents and to adopt the syntactic models provided by hearing adults outside the immediate family. Even two-year-old children appear capable of making a distinction between the type of speech they use for their deaf parents (more signs, extended pitch patterns, shorter utterances) and the type they use with other speakers.

Shyness and Language. Most features of personality are heritable. The fact that many kinds of behavior are under partial genetic control does not mean they are predetermined; the social environment also affects how inherited traits express themselves. Most personality traits are the product of complex interactions between genetic dispositions and environmental experiences. Many of these experiences arise within the family system. Shyness is closely associated with *introversion*. The typical introvert is a quiet, retiring sort of person, fond of books rather than people; he is reserved and distant except to intimate friends. He tends to plan ahead and mistrusts the impulse of the moment. He does not like excitement, takes matters of everyday life with proper seriousness, and likes a well-ordered mode of life.

Shyness is one of the most heritable personality traits. As shy children are growing up, their disposition to social timidity is a source of recurrent developmental disorders.

The behavioral signs of shyness include clinging to the mother, lack of vocalization, avoidance of unfamiliar objects or experiences, uneasiness in the presence of strangers. Shy children also have more nightmares and phobias than not-so-shy children. The language of shy children has usually one or more of the following characteristics: low voice, intonation without much variation, small sentences, preference for writing than for speaking (e.g. letters instead of telephone calls).

Deprivation. Lack of access to linguistic input in the early years of life, especially in the period up to puberty, which is sometimes said to be a critical period for language acquisition. Deprivation arises when a child is abandoned or confined in some way which separates him / her from language. These unfortunate cases enable researchers to explore the extent to which language is innate and develops regardless of adult input, and the hypothesis that it cannot be fully acquired once a particular period of maturation is over. Children who are deprived of language are deprived of affection as well. The trauma of their early experiences may well affect their ability to acquire language.

Critical Period. A period early in life during which a human being is uniquely endowed with the capacity to acquire a first language. The following cases of *feral* and *attic* children provide evidence for a critical period during which infants are particularly receptive to language. After this period, it seems, vocabulary is acquired but a full syntactic system may not develop.

Feral Children. Also known as *wild children*, children raised by animals.

The wild boy of Aveyron: A famous case is the French boy «Victor of Aveyron», found living wild in the wood in 1800. Victor's case was documented by a doctor, who attempted to train the boy for human society but with very limited linguistic progress. Victor achieved the notion that nouns are used for classes of objects rather than single items and acquired a number of verbs and adjectives, but his syntax remained rudimentary.

Attic Children. Children raised away from human contact.

Genie: A deeply deprived American girl, who did not begin acquiring language until she was almost 14; Genie was kept in near isolation from 20 months until 14 years of age and forbidden to utter sounds by her father who was mentally ill. When she was rescued in 1970, and exposed to language, she began to acquire it at a much slower rate than younger children, and has never learned to speak normally; at times she fell back upon a sign system. She acquired a relatively wide vocabulary but her syntactic development remained incomplete. She used few function words, and though some inflectional morphology emerged, it later disappeared. Her use of articles, pronouns, demonstratives and auxiliary verbs was extremely limited.

The Koluchova twins: These children were kept in isolation in a room in the village Koluchova, Czechoslovakia till the age of seven and a half years. When they were rescued from isolation they had a mental age of around three. In a children's home and later a foster family, they made great cognitive advances and developed normal linguistic skills.

Louise and Mary: They were kept in isolation in a room in England till the ages of three years six months and two years four months respectively. Rescued and put into care neither of them had begun to develop language or social behavior. Later Louise achieved normal linguistic competence, but Mary continued to show signs of autism.

Animal Communication. The transmission of information between members of other species, including transmission by means other than sound. Interesting examples are the clicks used by dolphins to communicate information, the songs of whales, the calls of monkeys and the dancing of bees.

Vervet monkeys: A species of African monkey whose alarm calls distinguish between different types of enemy: One of them signifies a snake, causing other monkeys to stand

on their hind legs, and inspect the ground; another warns of an attack from an eagle, upon which the monkeys dive down and hide among the vegetation; and another one indicates a lion or leopard, causing the monkeys to leap up any nearby tree.

Washoe: The name of a female chimp, who was born in Nevada. She was the first of a number of chimps to learn a simplified sign language.

Birdsongs. The sounds produced by birds can be categorised as *calls*, short bursts which warn of danger or keep flocks together, and *song*, which is more complex and mainly serves functions related to territorial claims or to mating. Calls are apparently innate, and their form and function vary little between generations.

Foreigner Talk. A register sometimes employed by native speakers when addressing non-native ones. Foreigner talk has the following characteristics: 1) slower speech rate, 2) greater pausing, 3) greater segmentation of words, 4) increased stress marking, 5) more careful articulation; 6) lexis is usually simplified, relying on high-frequency items and avoiding idioms and slang; 7) syntax uses basic structures, shorter utterances and co-ordination rather than subordination, 8) in the morphology there is a preference for full rather than contracted forms, 9) repetition and rephrasing. Attempts have been made to establish which features of foreigner talk most assist understanding. It has been suggested that slower delivery has more impact upon understanding than does linguistic modification. Repetition and rephrasing are particularly effective.

Localization of Language. Language is located in the left hemisphere of the brain. Speech production is controlled mainly by anterior portions of the brain, and is traditionally associated with a location known as *Broca's area*.

Aphasia. A disorder in the ability to produce or to understand spoken language. It usually results from brain damage caused by an accident, a stroke or invasive surgery. The fact that the symptoms of aphasia vary considerably from patient to patient suggests that the language-sensitive areas of the brain may be differently located in different individuals.

Broca's aphasia: The speech is characterized by an absence of syntactic structure and omission of function words and inflections.

Wernicke's aphasia: Severe problems in retrieving vocabulary. Use of inappropriate nouns and verbs.

Jargon aphasia: Large number of nonsense words in the patient's speech.

Conduction aphasia: Inability to repeat what has just been heard.

Transcortical aphasia: Comprehension is severely impaired.

Dysphasia. Delayed acquisition of speech which deviates markedly from generally observed patterns.

Agnosia. A condition caused by a brain damage, where a patient sees a familiar object but he / she is unable to say what it is.

Agrammatism. Speech production in which function words and inflectional endings are omitted. Largely known as *Broca's aphasia*.

Dysarthria. A type of disorder which affects the articulation of speech.

Stuttering. A disorder of fluency in speaking. Symptoms include the repetition of phoneme segments, syllables or words and an extreme lengthening of segments or syllables; e.g. *c-c-computer, com-com-computer, she got-got-got a child, he is af:::raid*. It varies considerably between sufferers but presents characteristics which give a sense of strain in the speaker. The most typical symptom is a blocking of the airflow, which results in long pauses, effortful speech and distorted facial expressions. The speech presents irregularities of rhythm and intonation, words may be stressed erratically or left incomplete. Sufferers are often aware of their limitations and may avoid words that they anticipate will be difficult to pronounce.

Echolalia. The patient repeats the same utterance many times, usually with the intonation unaltered.

Telegraphic Speech. Speech which includes mainly *content words* and sounds like a telegram or newspaper headline. Thus, if a child says *mummy cup*, it might be claimed to stand for e.g. *mummy is holding a cup*.

Acquired Dyslexia. The loss of the ability to read as the result of illness, accident or brain surgery. The reader is sometimes distracted by adjoining words or letters; e.g. *glove* and *spade* seen together might produce the response *glade*, or to interpret the word *gross* as *cross*. In some cases the words are decoded letter by letter as in *bi*, *i*, *di* instead of *bed*. There is apparent damage to the reader's attention mechanism, so that he / she is no longer able to focus on one piece of visual evidence at a time.

Developmental Dyslexia. Delayed acquisition of reading skills. There may be a genetic factor in developmental dyslexia. The children of parents with reading problems are more likely to experience problems themselves and there are recorded cases of similar types of dyslexia in twins but not in other family members.

Acquired Dysgraphia. The loss of the ability to write as the result of illness, accident or brain surgery. A patient may not be able to retrieve the letters that are needed for the spelling of words; e.g. *biscket* instead of *biscuit*. There may be also problems involving the formation of letters and difficulty in analysing letter shapes visually; a classic example is the substitution of < *b* > for < *p* >.

Developmental Dysgraphia. Delayed acquisition of writing skills.

Anxiety. One of several affective factors which can influence speech and lead to a deterioration in language performance. Anxiety results from introvert personality traits, lack of self-confidence or from awareness of limitations in a particular language area. Anxiety manifests itself in speech: 1) in a greater degree of pausing, 2) in a lack of coherence, 3) in the insertion of fillers such as ...*you know* and 4) in an increased number of false starts. This suggests that the planning function is affected. In the case of a foreign-language learner, anxiety may sometimes lead to greater accuracy, but fluency may suffer as a consequence. Certain types of language task demand greater accuracy and clarity, e.g. a public talk vs a conversation with a friend, and this requires a greater degree of control and is sometimes a source of stress.

Tip of the Tongue. A state in which a language user is aware of the existence of a particular word but cannot retrieve it from the lexicon. Such a state demonstrates that it is possible to hold the meaning of a word in one's mind without necessarily being able to retrieve its form.

Slips of the Tongue. A speech error, in which a speaker utters a word, syllable or sound in a way other than intended. Slips of the tongue occasionally reveal a person's suppressed thoughts:

* *Have you turned on the washdisher?* instead of *Have you turned on the dishwasher?*

Slips of the Pen. A written error, in which someone writes a word, syllable or sound other than that intended. Such errors are caused by visual similarities between letters: * *happy babby* : *happy baby*.

Slips of the Ear. Errors of misperception by a listener. A mishearing, as in *get some ceiling paint* heard instead of *get some sealing tape*.

Ageing. Elderly speakers (80+) tend to produce more unfinished sentences than do younger ones, and appear to need more time to assemble their utterances. The classic syndrome reported by them is difficulty in finding words, but there is no evidence that items are actually lost from the lexicon. Language loss varies considerably among individuals. There is often a decline in the receptive skills. Sentence length does not appear to be a major

obstacle, but sentence complexity does. Considerable difficulties arise when they try to connect subordinate clauses to main sentences. Older people find it easier to recall sentences where the chronological order is the order of mention; e.g.: *After locking the door, she turned off the lights* instead of *Before locking the door, she turned off the lights*. They often build additional sentences to create a context which could help them; higher incidence of general terms, e.g. *flower* instead of *rose, daisy* etc.

Dementia. A mental disorder characterized by extreme forgetfulness. A progressive cognitive dysfunction due to deterioration of brain tissue. Dementia sufferers frequently resort to coining a new word when a known one cannot be retrieved. The conversation is marked by a lack of cohesion and multiple changes of topic. Problems of articulation. Writing may also be affected; typical symptoms are small letters and irregular spacing between words. The language acquired first is more likely to be spared by dementia than one learned later. Forms of dementia: *Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease*.

Down's Syndrome. Sufferers show limitations of attention, short-term memory, slow phonological development, and perceptual difficulties. There is great variation among individuals. Only a limited vocabulary is acquired, and utterances usually remain short and telegraphic lacking function words and inflections. Down's syndrome has been linked to imbalances in brain structure, with a reduction of some areas of the brain.

Specific Language Impairment. A condition in which a child who appears otherwise normal fails to acquire language like its peers. These children sometimes have restricted vocabularies or make relatively basic errors of grammar. They may show problems of comprehension as well as problems of production, finding it difficult to follow the utterances of others or to put thoughts into words. What is striking is that this linguistic deficit cannot be clearly linked to low intelligence. An important study of three generations of a family suggested that about half of them suffered severely from specific language impairment and thus the condition might be genetic. The language of these individuals lacked many important inflectional markings such as number, gender and verb endings and had also generalised inflectional endings, e.g. **I goed* instead of *I went*.

Autism. A condition characterized by a withdrawal from linguistic interaction with others. The symptoms of autism appear between the ages of one and three, and are sometimes misdiagnosed as deafness. Autistic children tend to have exceptionally low IQ but they may excel in one or two isolated skills such as painting or music. The syndrome is much more common in males than in females and appears to be caused by a physical dysfunction of the brain. Some children remain mute until the age of five and beyond. Then, the mutism gives way to a delayed acquisition of speech. Rhythm and intonation are flat and monotonous. An important symptom of autism is *echolalia*, where the child meaninglessly repeats words or sentences and what has been said to it. It was once believed that echolalia indicated a rejection of interaction. Now, it is sometimes interpreted as evidence that the autistic child does not succeed in grasping the true function of language. Other symptoms are an unwillingness to meet the gaze of a speaker and difficulties with the use of pronouns.

Schizophrenic Language. The language of patients suffering from the serious mental illness labelled *schizophrenia* in which the way one thinks and feels is not connected with what is really happening. Some of these patients produce confused language called *word salad*.

Deafness. Hearing loss differs widely among affected individuals, and is classified as mild, moderate, severe or profound. Human conversation typically takes place within a frequency range of 250 to 8000 Hz and at an intensity of around 60 decibels. Deaf listeners suffer from a restriction in the frequency range and a reduction in the perceived loudness of the signal. A major issue is the extent to which prelinguistic deafness affects language

acquisition. There is evidence of delayed acquisition – infants may reach the 50-word vocabulary threshold around ten months later than their hearing peers. At the babbling stage, the consonant repertoire of deaf infants appears to be smaller and the intonation flatter.

Lexical development differs from that of a hearing infant in that labelling plays a less important part; early nouns are fewer in number. So far as syntax is concerned, deaf infants who achieve speech tend to rely on shorter utterances and to adhere more closely to the standard Subject-Verb-Object word order. Sometimes their speech is telegraphic, with function words and inflections omitted. Deaf children are slow in developing reading skills; the writing of a deaf child uses a limited range of sentence structures and a grammar system which frequently omits inflections, auxiliary verbs and articles.

Blindness. A major question is whether visual impairment has an impact on language acquisition. At a pre-linguistic stage, adults appear to find it more difficult to engage blind children in communicative activities, because they lack conversational cues provided by the direction of the infant's gaze. Nevertheless, the onset of babbling appears to take place at about the same time as with sighted infants. However, there are differences in the content of the early vocabulary; the early 50 words of a blind child are likely to include fewer common nouns. At an early stage, blind children engage in echolalia, the meaningless repetition of words. Lack of sight also seems to affect the acquisition of terms relating to space. There is usually a delay in the acquisition of personal pronouns, demonstratives and prepositions.

Twins. If language is genetically transmitted, then its development is likely to be markedly similar in twins who are «identical»—products of a single egg. There is considerable evidence that this is the case. However, it is not easy to exclude other variables such as common experiences and the fact that the twins share the same home environment. More evidence is needed on language acquisition in the rare cases of twins who have been separated early in life. Another area of study compares language acquisition by twins with that by singletons. There is strong evidence that early language development in twins is often delayed; the language of twins tends to fall behind that of their peers during the third year of life.

The most convincing explanations relate to the circumstances of being a twin. It may be that twins feel less need to communicate with others because of their close mutual bonding. Some researchers report evidence of a secret language between twins consisting of sounds and words which are unintelligible to others. Or it may be that carers find it harder to divide their attention and time between two infants. Observation suggests that there is less verbal interaction per individual twin than a single child receives.

Attrition. The decline of competence in a language over time, usually as the result of contact with another language. *Primary language attrition* particularly affects immigrant populations, and arises as the result of extended exposure to a second language and of circumstances in which the first language is little used. Attrition may be indicated by a speaker's inability to retrieve vocabulary, in a loss of native-like pronunciation, in the use of non-standard syntax or in a general lack of fluency. Attrition tends to affect production to a greater degree than reception, and may also vary between writing and speaking. Some bilinguals show evidence of attrition as a result of employing one of their languages to a greater degree than the other.

Second language attrition commonly occurs when a speaker has not had occasion to use a foreign language for some time. It appears that lexis is more readily subject to attrition than syntax.

Evolution of Language. There are three distinct views of how language evolved:

Social: Language arose through increased socialisation in early settled communities and the need for a communication system to support hunting and farming. One variation of this

view suggests that language developed in response to the need to look after settled groups of up to 150 people. Another view holds that language became an evolutionary necessity because it enabled human beings to influence others within and outside their communities.

Physiological: The human articulators appear to be specially adapted to language. There have been studies of the flexibility of the human tongue, jaw and soft palate and of the complex muscular co-ordination involved in using them for speech.

Neurological: This view holds that human beings are able to master the complexities of language because they have developed a higher intelligence or a larger brain.

The question remains of whether certain parts of the brain have evolved in a way that has enabled the invention of language and possibly its genetic transmission. Attempts to locate a physical center for language have not been successful.

Second Language Acquisition. Some language teachers had formerly used the argument that the most natural way of acquiring a second language was to emulate the process of first language acquisition. However, the two situations are very different. Compared with an infant acquiring its first language, an adolescent or adult acquires a second under the following conditions: 1) He / he has less time for learning, 2) he / she already has a first language, which provides a lens through which the second is perceived, 3) he / she has access to a language of explanation, and is therefore capable of understanding theoretical explanations.

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ДОСЛІДЖЕННЯ МОВИ З ТОЧКИ ЗОРУ ПСИХОЛІНГВІСТИКИ

Стаття пов'язана із дослідженням мови з точки зору психолінгвістики. Психолінгвістика – це порівняно нова наука, яка складається з двох доволі сталих наук: лінгвістики та психології. Найбільш важливі сфери дослідження, що представлені у статті, мають на меті роз'яснити, яким чином відбуваються процеси розуміння людини, продукування, збереження, надбання та трансмісії мови; де мова знаходиться у мозку, частини якого активні в різних лінгвістичних процесах; як хвороба або певні пошкодження головного мозку впливають на психолінгвістичні процеси людини. Дослідження мови з точки зору психолінгвістики імплементує низку специфічних параметрів та факторів. Найбільш вагомі та суттєві представлені у статті. Так, думка та мова – це класичний погляд на те, що думка первинна ніж мова. Мови розвивались протягом часу для того, щоб людина могла висловлювати свої думки та ідеї. Інші контрастивні погляди на цей аспект стверджують, що людина може мислити логічно та зв'язно, оскільки мова вимагає цього. Стосовно лінгвістичної відносності, автор статті відзначає дві загальні теорії: лінгвістична відносність – погляд на те, що кожна мова має у своєму складі унікальні категорії та відмінності. Щодо лінгвістичного детермінізму, то, як відзначає автор, це спосіб сприймання та категоризації світу, який систематизовано мовою, якою ми розмовляємо. У статті розглядаються теорії мовного освоєння (language acquisition), яке розуміється як процес освоєння компетенції (оволодіння) в мові. Цей термін було використано для немовлят, які засвоювали їхню першу мову, а також для тих, хто вивчав мову як другу іноземну. Акомодация розглядається як спосіб, в якому спікер, найчастіше не надаючи особливої уваги, імітує або наслідує риси мовлення людини, з якою спілкується. Спікер у мові може використовувати певні слова або синтаксичні прийоми, які було використано його співбесідником нещодавно. Ця теорія підтверджує той факт, що використовуючи такий мовний стиль, співрозмовник виражає знак солідарності або соціальної нерівності. Саморегулювання та ментальний лексикон – це наступні етапи мовного дослідження з точки зору психолінгвістики. Пам'ять – одне з найважливіших мульти-функціональних понять у житті людини. Як відомо, пам'ять може бути сенсорною, короткостроковою та довгостроковою. Мовні особливості та здібності, які зберігаються у пам'яті, є індивідуальними для кожної людини. Отже, розглядаючи кожний етап мовного розвитку крізь призму психолінгвістики, можна стверджувати, що хоча ця наука є досить молодого, вона нерозривно пов'язана не тільки з мовними, а й з психологічними процесами кожної людини.

Ключові слова: психолінгвістика, лінгвістична відносність, акомодация, пам'ять, мовне оволодіння.

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СЕМАНТИЧНІ ОСОБЛИВОСТІ НАЗВ ЖІНОЧИХ ГОЛОВНИХ УБОРІВ У ГОВІРКАХ ПІДГАЄЧНИНИ ТЕРНОПІЛЬСЬКОЇ ОБЛАСТІ

У статті досліджено назви жіночих головних уборів, що побутують на Підгаєччині. Наводяться пояснення говіркових назв з погляду семантики,