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ON SOME PROBLEMS OF TEACHING THE ARMENIAN LANGUAGE AT THE NON-HUMANITY DEPARTAMENTS OF FOREIGN CITIZENS

Some methodical issues of teaching the Armenian language in the DFS are presented, in particular, the difficultie existing at distance learning today.

Keywords: methods of teaching foreign languages, bicultural teaching, distance learning.

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SYNTACTIC FEATURES OF SPONTANEOUS SPOKEN ENGLISH

(Vanadzor)

The topic of this article is the peculiarities of Spontaneous Spoken English. In this article we analyze features of spontaneous spoken English, mostly in dialogues.

The topical significance of the work lies in the fact that recently more and more attention has been given to various speech events in spoken communicational phenomena.

The practical importance of the work lies in the fact that data of the analysis can well be used for the material in the course of practical grammar.

Keywords: spontaneous communication, syntactic features, planned and spontaneous speech, fragments, segmented structure, spontaneous spoken English.

Introduction: In spoken language, it is spontaneous language that stands out. The features that are typical of spontaneous language are not normally found in other varieties of spoken language. Whereas written texts are in majority of cases planned and elaborated, spontaneous spoken language is never ready-made and may abandon in unexpected turns, depending on the communicative situation, topic of discussion and the register. This kind of unexpected turns bring about specific syntactic features, one of them being fragmented syntax.

The sentence should be regarded as a low-level discourse unit of written language that clauses and phrases are units of both spoken and written language, and that sequences of clauses in spoken language may form clause complexes.

Halliday (1989) assumes that sentences are inappropriate for the analysis of spontaneous spoken language and works with clause complexes, but he does not state explicitly what he takes a sentence to be and he does not argue for his approach but simply adopts clause complexes.

It is spontaneous conversation and narrative that children are exposed to when they learn their first language and that most adults use most of the time.

These facts are good reasons for regarding spontaneous conversation and narrative as basic in the human linguistic repertoire. Since it is still controversial to suggest that sentences are foreign to spontaneous conversation and narrative, the different opinions are summarized and further arguments presented. Rhetorical structure and discourse representation are pinpointed as offering resources for an alternative analysis. The products of speaking and writing are texts, which may be spontaneous or deliberately elicited by investigators. It is not easy to establish what units can be recognized in spoken language and are useful for its analysis. Some analysts maint-ain that sentences are not recognizable in spoken language, others—that they are.

The central problem is that it is far from evident that the language system of spoken English has sentences, for the simple reason that text-sentences are hard to find in spoken texts. Clauses are easily recognized: even where pauses and a pitch contour with appropriate scope are missing, a given verb and its complements can be picked out. Of course, one reply to the objection is that the system-sentences employed by linguists need not correspond to text-sentences.

Children in the early stages of primary school typically produce single clause sentences and have to acquire the ability (partly by instruction, partly by reading) to combine a number of clauses into a sentence. If spoken texts lack sentences, the language system must be analyzed as having clauses combining into clause-complexes, as suggested by Halliday (1989). There are two major types of syntactic relationship, embedding and combining. Adverbial clauses only combine, that is, are not part of any constituent in a matrix clause. Only relative and complement clauses can be embedded, since relative clauses are regularly part of an NP and complement clauses function as arguments of verbs.

A number of researchers recognize the problematic nature of the sentence in spoken language. Quirk *et al.* (1985:47) state that the sentence boundaries can be difficult to locate 'particularly in spoken language' and point out that the question 'What counts as a grammatical English sentence?' does not always permit a decisive answer. They deal with the difficulty by avoiding any definition of sentence while continuing to use the term for a unit greater than the clause.

Wackernagel-Jolles (1971: 148-69) demonstrated that speakers do not share intuitions about what counts as a sentence in spoken language. She got groups of thirty to fifty final-year undergraduate students at a German university to listen to recordings of narratives by native speakers of German. The narratives were prompted by questions from an interviewer. Each text was played through once to allow the students to accustom themselves to the speaker's voice. They were then issued with a transcription of the recording, without punctuation. The text skipped to a new line only where there was a change of speaker. The recording was then

played through a second time and the students were asked to draw a line in the text wherever they thought a sentence ended. Agreement as to sentence-endings ranged from 13 out of 20 in one text to 6 out of 29 in another. The former text was the telling of a fairy-tale; the latter—a panel beater recounting his early life and his war experiences. Wackernagel-Jolles (1971: 149) comments that uninterrupted story-telling was especially conducive to clear intonation signals but that the factors governing the recognition of sentence boundaries are far from obvious. The students were agreed on 20.6% of the sentence boundaries in a text produced by a slow-speaking man but agreed on 42.8% of the boundaries in a text produced by a male student with fast and 'lazy' pronunciation. They agreed on 41% of the boundaries in a text produced by a non-academic female student who failed to complete many syntactic constructions but only on 30% in a text from a clergyman with very expressive intonation. Ignoring the differences between the various text types, we see that the essential point is that naive speakers/writers, who as university students can doubtless organize their own written texts into acceptable sentences, were unanimous about the final boundary for less than half of the sentences in the texts.

We cite here two of Halford's (1990) examples which do not allow a clear decision as to where a sentence boundary might fall. Halford (1990: 37) uses (2) to illustrate topic movement, but we believe that it is indeed a similar phenomenon of bi-directional attachment, although more complex and also explicitly signaled by the copula. *(3a, b)* are additional examples of our own taken from radio interviews.

(1) I hate sitting around here because I'm in a bad mood I'll go home

(2) but what I want to get into is Canadian Raising which is probably the most distinctive feature in Canadian English is the thing called Canadian Raising which is a historically inaccurate term . . .

(3) (a) that's why we do it is because we want to make sure

(b) that's the other thing about ivy is that it is an evergreen

Such examples which cannot readily be analyzed in terms of sentences occur regularly in spoken language. (2) Starts out as a WH cleft. This construction consists of a WH clause, here *what I want to get into*, a copula—is, and a noun phrase or non-finite verb phrase. Here the third constituent is the noun phrase Canadian Raising. Canadian Raising is modified by the nonrestrictive relative clause *which is probably the most distinctive feature in Canadian English*. For (2) the clause would be and *that is probably the most distinctive feature in Canadian English.* The nonrestrictive relative clause is followed by a clause that has no subject—*is the thing called Canadian Raising which is a historically inaccurate term.* With respect to the discourse this clause provides further clarification of the

entity referred to by *what I want to get into but its syntactic status* is quite unclear. It is not obviously conjoined to is *Canadian Raising which is probably the most distinctive feature in Canadian English although it does run parallel to it.*

There are three main justifications for the study of speaking in its own right. Firstly, discourse- and corpus-based approaches to language study have identified a number of oral genres and sub-genres which are characterized by patterns of discourse and lexico-grammatical features which are quite distinct from those of written discourse. Secondly developmental research shows that both first and second language abilities are commonly quite distinct in individual speakers: it is quite frequent for second language users to differ significantly in their oral and written use of the lexico-grammar of a second language, and similar differences are not uncommon in first language development. Thirdly there is abundant evidence of significant socio-psychological differences between the processing of speech and writing which underlie these differences in genre and ability.

A sentence contains a subject and a predicate (and the predicate could be a single verb). But some *incomplete* sentences, fragments, or clauses fool us because they contain nouns and verbs that *look* like they could be the subject and predicate. An incomplete sentence leaves us feeling empty and unsatisfied. This is because sentence fragments just don't express a complete idea. A sentence fragment is a statement that cannot stand alone as a sentence, even though it might look like it should be able to. A sentence fragment may be lacking a subject, a verb, or both. It might even contain words that look like subjects and verbs. [http*://homeworktips.about.com/od/ improvingyourgrammar/a/fragments.htm]*.

Fragment sentences are unfinished sentences, i.e. they don't contain a complete idea. A common fragment sentence in student writing is a dependent clause standing alone without an independent clause. In the each of the following examples the fragment is the second 'sentence',

I don't think I'm going to get a good grade. *Because I didn't study.*

She got angry and shouted at the teacher. *Which wasn't a very good idea.*

He watched TV for an hour and then went to bed. *After falling asleep on the sofa.*

She got up and ran out of the library. *Slamming the door behind her.*

A sentence fragment fails to be a sentence in the sense that it cannot stand by itself. It does not contain even one independent clause. There are several reasons why a group of words may seem to act like a sentence but not have the wherewithal to make it as a complete thought.

In spontaneous speech, the speaker tends to switch from one point to the other without paying attention to the organization of his message. He might start talking about a certain topic and then moves to talk about something totally

different and then returns to his main topic and continues in that circle. Moreover, vocabulary items are carelessly selected and they could be repeated again and again in order to communicate the meaning. However, in planned speech, the speaker makes use of the vocabulary in organizing his message so that it has a beginning, middle and an end.

False start occurs a lot in spontaneous speech due to the high speed of interaction, the fast flow of utterances and the short time that the speaker has to think about his utterances. On the other hand, false start does not occur in planned speech because the speaker has enough time to plan, organize and think about what he is going to say. So, his utterances are more likely to be very organized, accurate and focused on the main idea of the message which means there is no chance for false start to exist in such a speech. Preplanned speech, such as a talk, can be read smoothly and continuously. Spontaneous speech can rarely be described in this way. It is full of pauses, hesitations, false starts, fragments and corrections, which the listener has to disentangle somehow. In actual fact, these factors have some important functions in the spontaneous speech. For instance, the pause or the silence in speech can play a social role, as when we pause for effect, in order to emphasize a point; it can also signal that the speaker has finished talking and now wishes someone else to talk.

Finally, it can play a cognitive role; pauses may occur when we are planning what to say next. So, we could say that pauses play a crucial role in the planning of spontaneous speech at both the lexical and the semantic level. In fact, a pause for the cognitive function of planning will not always be silent. Many of the hesitations which occur in speech - the 'ers' and 'ums' - are thought to be attempts to achieve the cognitive function of planning something else to say, while retaining control of the conversation. If the silence is filled with sound, the speaker is indicating that no interruption is to be tolerated. Spontaneous speaker would use lots of fillers such as "erm", "er", "uh" ...etc in order to gain some time to think of what to say next or to search for a suitable word that would best convey his meaning. It could be said therefore, that these fillers help the spontaneous speaker to be more efficient while speaking. However, if the speaker exaggerates in using these fillers, this could affect his fluency. On the other hand, in planned speech the speaker does not need to use the fillers so often since he has already had enough time to plan what he is going to say. That justifies the small number of fillers used in planned speech and the huge number used in spontaneous speech. Spontaneous speech, as opposed to planned speech, is a more natural way in which people communicate with each other.

Thus, as we see, spontaneous spoken English has its own distinctive syntactic features.

Since planned speech could be considered a form of written language, it could be inferred that there are also differences between planned speech and spontaneous speech. Some of these differences are very clear in terms of syntax, lexis, phonology and discourse.

One of the main differences between spontaneous and planned speech is that of syntax. The syntactical structure tends to be more complicated in planned speech, so the sentences tend to be very long, complicated and complete.

Conclusion: Having analyzed the peculiarities and the distinctive functional features of spontaneous spoken language, we have come to the following conclusions.

One of the main differences between spontaneous and planned speech lies in the fact that spontaneous speech is shown to be a highly fragmented and discontinuous communicative activity. The latter has to do with a number of linguistic and extra-linguistic factors.

Text-sentences in written language and text-sentences in spontaneous language have a number of distinctive features. Those are realized on syntactical level as well.

Spontaneous speech is full of pauses, hesitations, false starts, fragments and corrections. Speakers normally use lots of pause-fillers in order to gain some time to think of what to say next or to search for a suitable word that would best convey his meaning.

A sentence fragment has nothing to do with the size or amount of words. Therefore, a very short sentence with a complete idea is not a sentence fragment. A sentence fragment is a sentence that is incomplete. It can be realized on the phrase or the dependent clause levels.

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Տ.Ա. ՄԱՐԳԱՐՅԱՆ

ԱՆԳԼԵՐԵՆԻ ՀԱՆՊԱՏՐԱՍՏԻՑ ԲԱՆԱՎՈՐ ԽՈՍՔԻ ՇԱՐԱՀՅՈՒՍԱԿԱՆ ԿԱՌՈՒՑՑՆԵՐԻ ԱՌԱՆՁՆԱՀԱՏԿՈՒԹՅՈՒՆՆԵՐԸ

Քննվում են անգլերենի հանպատրաստից բանավոր խոսքի շարահյուսական կառույցների առանձնահատկությունները, դրանց դրսևորման ձևերն ու առաջացման պատճառները:

Առանցքային բառեր. հանպատրաստից հաղորդակցում, շարահյուսական առանձնահատկություններ, պլանավորված և հանպատրաստից խոսք, հատույթներ, հատույթային կառույց, անգլերենի հանպատրաստից բանավոր խոսք:

Т.А. МАРГАРЯН

ОСОБЕННОСТИ СИНТАКСИЧЕСКИХ КОНСТРУКЦИЙ СПОНТАННОЙ РАЗГОВОРНОЙ РЕЧИ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ

Описываются особенности синтаксических конструкций спонтанной разговорной речи в английском языке, формы их проявления и причины возникновения.

Ключевые слова: спонтанное общение, синтаксические особенности, планированная и спонтанная речь, фрагменты, сегментированная структура, спонтанная разговорная английская речь.

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SUPPORTING THE STUDENTS' EMOTIONAL EDUCATION THROUGH FLEXIBLE THINKING

(*Gyumri*)

We are more than sure that we can integrate emotional development alongside English language teaching and not only. Our task is to help students use advanced thinking skills in the face of more complex challenges, to show resilience in the face of constant change. The ability to empathise with others makes students more tolerant. Emotional development results in higher performance, it minimises anxiety and raises concentration level.

Keywords: emotional development, to identify, to ponder over, to label, consciousness, advanced thinking.

We are obliged to prepare our students to succeed in this fast-changing world.

This way or the other they will collaborate with people from around the globe.

Day by day technology increasingly takes over routine work. More and more complex changes are coming, so, our children, teenagers, students should be