Department "Professional Training and Pedagogy"

RHETORICS AND STYLISTICS OF SCIENTIFIC SPEECH

Approved by the Educational and Methodical Association
for professional and technical education
as educational and methodical manual for the undergraduates
of specialty 1-08 80 08 "Scientific and Pedagogical Activity"

The educational and methodical manual is intended for students of the II stage of higher education of specialty 1-08 80 08 "Scientific and pedagogical activity". This manual contains 2 parts, including 10 systemically organized sections, in which text material, tables, diagrams, and exercises are presented to familiarize with the basic rhetorical principles, traditions, stylistic features of scientific speech, the procedure for creating a scientific text according to the scheme of general rhetoric; the development of the ability to evaluate and edit speech in accordance with the principles of rhetoric; and formation of skills for conducting scientific discussion, public speaking, presentation of the results of scientific work.

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INTRODUCTION

This study guide was developed for stage II of higher education major in 1-08 80 08 "Scientific and Pedagogical Activity".

Studying the academic discipline is aimed at overview of the basic rhetoric principles, traditions, stylistic features of scientific speech, the procedure for creating a scientific text in general rhetoric; developing the ability to evaluate and edit speech in accordance with the principles of rhetoric; building skills of holding scientific discussion, public speaking, reporting of the results of scientific work.

As a result of studying the academic discipline "Rhetoric and Stylistics of Scientific Speech", the graduate students should be able to: know norms and rules of scientific communication, basic rhetoric principles, stylistic features of scientific speech, consistent work on the speech; use the norms and rules of scientific speech in independent speech, compose a speech on a given topic in accordance with the rhetoric rules, edit other people's statements in accordance with the norms and rules of scientific communication, analyze and evaluate the impact assessment of communication; have the knowledge of the practical use of the system of functional styles of speech, the main modes of reasoning, the skills of holding scientific discussion, public speaking, reporting of the results of scientific work.

Working with this study guide contributes to effective professional scientific and pedagogical communication, holding scientific discussion and polemics, compiling scientific and methodological documents, preparing publications taking into account the norms of modern scientific speech.

1. THEORETICAL SECTION

1.1. BASIC TERMS AND CONCEPTS
OF THE STYLISTICS OF SCIENTIFIC SPEECH

1.1.1. Text. Functional style of the speech

Text (from the Latin word *textus* for fabric; combination) means human idea embodied in some material medium; a generally coherent and complete sequence of characters.

In linguistics, the term of 'text' is used in a broad sense, as a written message (document) consisting of a number of statements united by different types of lexical, grammatical and logical connections, having a certain moral character, pragmatic attitude and, accordingly, literary processed.

Elements of the text. Elements of the text are dividedness, semantic integrity.

Dividedness. The text consists of a number of sentences. One sentence – even a very widespread, complex one – cannot be called a text, since the text can be divided into separate sentences, and parts of the sentence be combined according to the laws of the syntax of a compound sentence, but not the text.

Semantic integrity of the text. The semantic integrity of the text reflects social events, phenomena of nature, man, his external appearance and inner world, objects of inanimate nature and so on.

The unity of the subject of speech is the topic of the statement (the semantic core of the text, the condensed and generalized content of the text). The concept of 'content of a statement' is associated with the category of information content of speech and is the characteristic of the text only. It informs the reader of the author's understanding of the relationship between phenomena, while their significance in all spheres gives it semantic integrity.

Complete statement is associated with the semantic integrity of the text. An indicator of the complete text is the ability to choose a heading for it that reflects its content.

The following features of the text follow from the semantic integrity of the text: 1) a text is a statement on a specific topic; 2) the speaker's intention, the main idea, is realized in the text; 4) a text of any size is a relatively complete statement; 5) sentences are logically related to each

other; 6) one can choose a title for the text; 7) well-formed text usually has a beginning and an end.

Types and styles of the text

By type, the texts are subdivided into:

1) narrative (independently created story about a set of interrelated events presented to the reader or listener in the form of a sequence of words or images);

2) descriptive (compositional form, which is used for a detailed description of objects or phenomena; this compositional form is characterized by clarity, which is achieved by depicting spatial relationships);

3) explanatory (set of ideas, judgments, conclusions and conclusions on any topic, set out in a logically consistent form).

The style of the text is a system of expressive means of the language, which is usually used in a certain communicative environment. Its application depends on the situation in which the text is used, audience of readers, and narrative goals. One and the same phenomenon can be written in completely different ways.

Functional styles of speech is a historically developed system of verbal means used in a particular area of human communication; a kind of literary language, in which the language appears in one or another socially significant area of social speech practice of people and the features of which are due to the peculiarities of communication in this area.

Functional styles of speech are subdivided into:

1) scientific style (style of speech of literary language premeditation of the statement, monological character, strict selection of linguistic means, increasingly moving towards the normalized speech);

2) conversational style (functional style of speech used for informal communication; it is characterized by emotionality, imagery, specificity, simplicity of speech, lack of preliminary selection of language material; form of implementation of this style – dialogue; extralinguistic factors play an important role: facial expressions, gestures, environment);

3) artistic style (the style of speech that is used in fiction; affects the imagination, psyche and feelings of the reader, conveys the ideas and feelings of the author, uses all the rich vocabulary, possible different styles, is characterized by imagery, emotionality of speech);

4) journalistic style (serves to influence people through the media; characterized by the socio-political vocabulary, consistency, emotionality, evaluativity, motivation; has informational (the desire to inform peo-

ple of the latest news as soon as possible) and influencing function (the desire to influence people about any socio-political or social problem));

5) official style (style of speech, a means of written communication in business relations, i.e. in legal relations and management, international relations, jurisprudence, economics, military industry, communication in official institutions; its substyles include legislative (used in government); administrative and clerical (keeping personal business papers, institution documents); diplomatic (internationally, relations between government and diplomats)).

Means of communication

Means of communication are methods of encoding, transmission, processing and decryption of information transmitted when communicating.

Means of communication are divided into verbal (word), represented by speech, and non-verbal (non-word), represented by gestures, facial expressions, sound of a voice, glance, touch.

Means of communication include:

- language is a system of words, expressions, rules for combining them into meaningful expressions used for communication. The accurate use of the word, its expressiveness and accessibility, the correct construction of times and its intelligibility, the correct pronunciation of sounds and words play an important role.

- tone is emotional expressiveness of speech that can give different meanings to the same phrase. It is a way of expressing feelings, emotions, the speaker's attitude to his own words and to those people to whom he addresses.

- facial expressions, postures, gaze of the interlocutor can enhance, supplement or refute the meaning of the phrase.

- distance at which the interlocutors communicate depends on cultural and national traditions, on the degree of trust in the interlocutor. Being too close or too distant can negatively affect communication.

Verbal means of communication. *Tempo and volume of speech.* It is very important to pay attention to this when communicating. Slow speech can indicate fatigue, depression, and, on the other hand, arrogance. People speak quickly when they are excited about something, when they want to convince the interlocutor of something.

Confused, intermittent speech indicates stress, excitement, neuropsychic tension. When people talk about topics that are difficult for them, they often stumble, incorrectly construct phrases. Listeners, however, do

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not discount the speaker's excitement. The more hesitation when speaking, the more incompetent the speaker seems to the listeners. Sometimes people think that the interlocutor is confused in his speech, because he is determined to deceive them. If a person does not pay attention to the fact that he is being interrupted, he is more focused on himself. The ability to pause is an indispensable means of holding a conversation, as a few seconds of silence can be more eloquent than words.

Other people usually think that if a person speaks loudly, it means that he is confident in himself. At the same time, the voice volume itself is not an effective means of influencing people. Constantly changing the volume of the voice is most effective. Something that is said in a softer voice against the background of loud speech attracts much more attention than even a shout.

Presentation form. The form of expressing one's ideas is important in verbal communication. The correct speech, clarity, consistency, simplicity and at the same time wealth, liveliness can be noted here. Personal self-control, confidence, the ability to get out of an unexpected situation is positively perceived by the audience. Listeners are impressed of the speaker not fussing, but clearly, emotionally pronouncing phrases and revealing his beliefs, emphasizing that he is confident that his arguments are correct.

1.1.2. Scientific style of the text / speech

The scientific style has emerged with the development of different areas of scientific knowledge, different areas of human activity. At first, the style of scientific presentation was close to the style of fictional narratives. The scientific style has separated from the artistic one in the Alexandrian period (III century BC to VI century AD), when scientific terminology began to be used in the Greek language, which spread it over the entire cultural world.

The terminology was subsequently replenished from the resources of Latin, which became the international scientific language of the European Middle Ages. During the Renaissance, scientists strove for concise and accurate scientific description, free from emotional and artistic elements of presentation as contradicting the abstract and logical representation of nature. However, the scientific style has been gradually free from these elements. Newton's logical presentation subsequently became an example of a scientific language.

In Russia, the scientific language and style has first shaped in the first decades of the 18th century, when the authors of scientific books and translators began to create Russian scientific terminology. In the second half of this century, thanks to the works of M. V. Lomonosov and his students, the formation of the scientific style took a step forward, but it finally shaped in the second half of the 19th century, together with the scientific activities of the largest scientists of that time.

The style of scientific works is determined by their content and goals of scientific messages: explain facts as accurately and fully as possible, show causal relationships between phenomena, identify patterns of historical development, and so on.

The scientific style of the text is the language of science, the scientific field of activity. The genres in which it functions are mainly written: academic papers and notes; methodical study guides and monographs; reviews and abstracts, term papers, theses and candidate's works for obtaining or defending an academic degree. The scientific style is presented orally by scientific reports and lectures.

The scope of its use is tutorial books, research, thesis papers, theses, academic papers. Its goal is to demonstratively present the scientific material, and to describe the laws of phenomena. The scientific style is peculiar for the premeditation of the statement, and strict selection of linguistic means. The vocabulary is characterized by: specialized terms; compound sentences; long paragraphs; more nouns than verbs; impersonality – 'we' is used instead of 'I'. The scientific style is characterized by accuracy, strict consistency, and clarity of presentation.

Scientific speech is realized in a message, an answer (verbal reply, analysis answer, generalized answer, grouping answer), reasoning, linguistic example, explanation (clarification, interpretation).

The sphere of scientific communication differs in that it is intended to be the most accurate, logical, unambiguous expression of an idea. The main form of thinking in science is the concept, the dynamics of thinking is expressed in judgments and conclusions that follow each other in a strict logical sequence. The idea is strictly reasoned, the logic of reasoning is emphasized, analysis and synthesis are closely interconnected. Consequently, scientific thinking is becoming generalized and abstracted. The final crystallization of scientific idea is carried out in social speech, in oral and written texts of various genres of the scientific style, which, as has been said, have common features.

The most important task of the scientific style of speech is to explain the reasons for the phenomena, to inform, and describe the essential features, properties of the subject of scientific knowledge.

The scientific style has features that distinguish it from other functional text styles. These features are typical of any field of scientific activity (technical, humanitarian, natural science):

1) author's impersonality – either a matter-of-fact 'we' (we assume, make a conclusion, count, etc.), or a lack of reference to the author; monologue speech;

2) abundance of scientific terminology is a lot of speech cliches, a minimum of expressive-emotional vocabulary (or even its complete absence);

3) predominance of nouns, adjectives and adverbs over verbs, and, as a result, a static, slow-to-read and difficult-to-read text;

4) consistent and thesis presentation– there is an ordered system of connections between the parts of the statement, the presentation is consistent;

5) an abundance of introductory words, compound sentence structures, the maximum saturation of sentences with words that clarify various concepts (phenomena):

6) accuracy of presentation is achieved by using unambiguous expressions, terms, words with clear lexical and semantic compatibility;

7) evidence of presentation is reasoning arguing that scientific hypotheses and statements;

8) objectivity of presentation is manifested in the presentation, analysis of different points of view on the problem, in focus on the subject of the statement and the absence of subjectivity in the transfer of content, in the impersonality of linguistic expression;

9) abstract (generalized) presentation is manifested in the use of certain parts of speech and special use of certain forms;

10) rigor presentation is in its climax in genres that are documentary and therefore influenced by the official style; strict requirements are imposed on the final student works: composition of work is regulated (division into chapters or paragraphs, the Introduction, Conclusion, References, Appendix sections), its presentation (indication on the title page of the Supervisor, Genre (coursework, thesis, etc.), Year, Educational Institution particulars, etc.).

In the scientific style, language means of other styles are used, and, thus, **substyles** of this style of speech are formed:

1) popular science – essays, lectures;

2) scientific-journalistic – articles, essays, notes;

3) scientific-informative – patent descriptions, abstracts;

4) scientific-educational – textbooks, teaching aids, lectures, abstracts;

5) scientific background – dictionaries, catalogs;

6) particular scientific – articles, monographs, thesis papers, reports.

In general, the scientific style is used only to convey information to the addressee. The semantic complexity of information and the selection of linguistic means depend on the chosen sub-style.

The scientific style of speech includes linguistic units of three types:

– Lexical units that have a functional and stylistic coloring of a given (that is, scientific) style. These are special lexical units, syntactic constructions, morphological forms.

– Interstyle units, that is, stylistically neutral linguistic units used equally in all styles.

– Stylistically neutral language units, mainly functioning in this style. Their quantitative predominance in this style thus becomes stylistically significant. Quantitatively marked units in the scientific style are, first of all, some morphological forms, as well as syntactic constructions.

The composition of a typical scientific text reflects the sequence of phases of scientific research:

1) awareness of the problem (question, task) and goal setting – 'introduction';

2) searching for ways to solve the problem, enumerating possible options and putting forward a hypothesis, proof of an idea (hypothesis) – 'main part';

3) solving a research problem, getting an answer – 'conclusion'.

There is a **variety of scientific style** primarily due to the many types of texts in it. The scientific style of speech is a subsystem that is determined by the conditions and goals of communication in the scientific sphere of public activity and has a set of significant linguistic means. The scientific style of speech is used in the texts of natural and applied sciences, for writing an article, thesis paper, abstract, test, textbook, methodological study guide. We also use a scientific style of speech when lecturing, reporting, and holding a scientific discussion. I believe that the scientific style of speech is an integral part in social activity, and it is one of the richest varieties of Russian speech. The scientific style reflects the specifics of the sphere that it serves, i.e. science, and reflects the form of thinking inherent in this sphere in all linguistic manifesta-

tions. It is aimed at implementing not only the function of communication, but the function of cognition as well, since the idea itself is refined and streamlined when expanding the speech.

1.1.3. Extralinguistic components of the scientific speech style

Extralinguistic components are atypical individual characteristics of pronunciation, such as speech pauses, laughter, coughing, sighing, crying, stuttering, etc.

Voice volume, especially the dynamics of changes in this parameter over time, is an important acoustic means of encoding non-verbal information. So, sadness is characterized by a low voice volume, and anger is characterized by increased voice volume. A high volume of the voice is combined with a pronounced motive power of the statement and often serves as an intention to influence the interlocutor. It can be easier to speak louder if you raise the frequency at the same time (this is a conversation 'in a raised tone'). If the increased tone exceeds the permissible level for a particular partner, this is perceived as an attack on personal dignity. Low voice volume when communicating is most often associated by listeners with restraint, modesty, lack of vitality. The most effective tactic in the practice of business communication is the tactic of constantly changing the volume of the voice. A word spoken in a low voice against the background of loud speech often attracts more attention than a word amplified by shouting.

Speech rate is an individual personality trait associated with the characteristics of a person's temperament. The average statistical characteristics of a person's speech rate change significantly with age due to one's weaker activity of the articulatory process. A fast pace of speech can be that of an impulsive, self-confident person, and a calm, slow manner indicates equanimity, prudence, solidity. Furthermore, there are significant differences in speech indicators between representatives of different cultures: The 'normal speed' of speech in French and Italian is usually higher than that in German and English.

Situational changes in the inherent individual rate of speech in a person make it possible to judge of the change in his state. Thus, people begin to speak faster when they are excited, when they talk about their difficulties, want to convince the interlocutor of something or persuade him. Slow speech may indicate fatigue, depression, or poor health.

Rhythm, or flow, of speech. Rhythmic speaking (smooth flow of words) is associated in the perception of listeners with poise, good mood of the interlocutor, rich feelings. Confused, intermittent speech, as a rule, indicates excitement. When a person speaks on topics that are difficult for him, he gets confused, often constructs phrases incorrectly. The more his speech is intermittent, the more hesitation, nasalization (uh... uh... uh...), junk words ('well', 'so', etc.), the more incompetent he seems to the listeners. It should be borne in mind that confused speech is often mistaken for an attempt to deceive a partner.

The pitch of the voice and its time change is a carrier of information about age, sex, individual personality characteristics of a person. The vocal cords of women and children are shorter and thinner than those of men, so their pitch is about an octave higher. The same pattern determines individual differences in the pitch of the voice of different people: tall and plump people, as a rule, have a larger larynx and lower voices than short and thin ones.

Pauses during a conversation are made to let the partner speak; have time for reflection; give strength to words following a pause; wait out the distraction of your partner; respond to non-verbal signals that indicate a partner's desire to say something.

If a person does not pay attention to the fact that he is being interrupted, it means that he is more focused on himself, and if he could barely handle pauses in a conversation, he is more focused on interpersonal interaction.

The ability to pause is sometimes an indispensable means of holding a conversation. A few seconds of silence can be more eloquent than words. They help to collect the ideas, give an opportunity to master oneself, to attract or switch attention.

The ability to listen to a pause, to interpret the reasons for silence makes it possible to get important additional information when communicating.

Laughter is treated as a versatile means of relieving tension in communication. Open, natural laughter (with the mouth wide open) demonstrates joy, pleasure, and approval. Fat people, and those who are cheerful by nature laugh with their whole bodies.

Tone is all phenomena; sound means of language that are associated with the voice and do not require concentrating attention on the content of what has been said. Tone is a special way of expressing feelings, emotions, the speaker's attitude to his own words and those people with

whom he communicates (imperious tone, mocking, ironic, confident, and etc.). According to the figurative expression of M. M. Bakhtin, the speaker is in contact with the listener in tone.

There is still little knowledge of tone. Their diversity and high degree of individualization make it difficult to compose any 'alphabet' of tones. It is very important to take into account that non-verbal information is transmitted not by one acoustic means, but simultaneously by several of them. For example, information about a change in the speaker's emotional state is reflected in a change in timbre (vocal patterns) and in changes in pitch, strength, timbre, and rhythm of a speech phrase that are characteristic of each emotion.

1.1.4. Communicative-cognitive (epistemic) situation as the main unit of the meaning of the text

The systematic property of a scientific text is manifested at all levels of its organization (structural, content-related, semantic). Systematic approach is an essential property of a scientific text, which is provided by a combination of its following features: semantic and formal integrity, coherence, structure, dividedness and hierarchy. Only a whole text has a systemic organization of meaning, a harmonious composition of content and an ordered structure. The most important systemic parameter of the text as a communicative phenomenon is the semantic structure, which determines the relationship of text units.

The semantic structure of a scientific text is a set of grammatical units (words, sentences) that make it up, a multilevel organization of the content of the whole text. The semantic structure reflects the communicative-cognitive (epistemic) situation associated with the acquisition and presentation of new scientific knowledge to the reader.

The content of a scientific text is knowledge in its verbal form. Therefore, the components of scientific and cognitive activity, generalized in the concept of epistemic situation, play the most important role among the factors influencing the process of text formation in the scientific sphere of communication and the nature of the semantic structure of the work. In stylistics, this concept is a universal extralinguistic model of a scientific text.

So, ***epistemic situation*** is a set of interrelated elements of cognitive activity in the unity of its constituent components (ontological, methodo-

logical, axiological, reflection-oriented, and communicative-pragmatic), which have a natural influence on a scientific text and determine its stylistic specifics.

The semantic structure of a scientific text is determined by the epistemic situation, which includes a complex of the scientist's mental actions aimed at obtaining new knowledge, its verbalization and inclusion in scientific communication. In other words, the semantic structure of the text is due to complex subject-object relationships that characterize the process of cognitive activity. The scientific text, the product o f this activity, reflects: 1) the object of cognition is in the unity of the *ontological aspect* (associated with the objectivity of knowledge), the *axiological aspect* (associated with the implementation of the subject's value orientation when cognitive activity), *methodological aspect* (connected with the ways of substantiation and interpretation of the knowledge received by the subject); 2) the subject of cognition in the unity of the social and the individual. At the same time, it is important to emphasize the integrity of cognitive activity, the interconnection and interdependence of all its aspects, since the exclusion of any component from the structure of cognition will inevitably lead to a distortion of understanding of the objective laws of the formation of scientific knowledge and its presentation in the text.

Components of the epistemic situation:

1. ***Ontological component*** is associated with the subject content of knowledge, that is, the scientific understanding of the phenomena of the real world (nature, man and society), which is expressed in the system of initial, basic and clarifying concepts.

2. ***Methodological component*** characterizes cognitive activity from the side of methods of obtaining, developing and substantiating scientific knowledge.

3. ***Axiological component*** correlates with the evaluative nature of cognition, the subject of which (scientist) is not only thinking, but evaluating: the previous (old) and new knowledge received personally by the author is evaluated. The most important, socially significant characteristics of knowledge are universal forms of assessing scientific information (the degree of its reliability, novelty and relevance).

4. ***Reflexive component*** is associated with the personal nature of cognitive activity, in which the researcher displays an individual style of thinking, emotional reactions to a particular scientific phenomenon, and

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actively asserts his personal position in science. In other words, reflection reveals the spectrum of the researcher's personal qualities that are relevant to his scientific activity, since the center of cognition is always the individual as a creative person with his own set of mental properties.

5. ***Communicative-pragmatic*** component corresponds to the complex and multifaceted process of restructuring all extralinguistic factors of cognitive activity into linguistic, i.e. textual ones, because a scientific text is a knot connecting knowledge and communication together.

1.1.5. Subtext as speech implementation component of the epistemic situation

Subtext is a fragment of a whole text that implements in it one of the aspects of an epistemic situation, performs a text-forming function, and has a certain goal setting. The polytextuality of the text, i.e. the division of the whole text into subtexts is due to the process of creating the structure of the text, which is a speech 'projection' of the epistemic situation.

The subtext is a compositional text unit with an independent structure (divided into microsubtexts) and, at the same time, subordinate to the general text intention (i.e. mindset on any object).

Each aspect of the epistemic situation is represented in the speech message by means of subtexts, 1) expressing the typical content of a scientific work, 2) forming its standardized composition, 3) making it possible to understand the principles of text formation in the scientific sphere, 4) directly correlating with the most important extralinguistic parameters of cognitive activity.

Subtexts are integrated into a single system, ensuring the semantic integrity and compositional order of a scientific work. The semantic structure of a scientific text is, in this regard, a system of interrelated and united on the basis of the author's intention of subtexts, in aggregate reflecting the content of the epistemic situation, applied in a single communicative act.

The system of subtexts of a whole scientific work is given in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1

The system of subtexts of a whole scientific work

Extralinguistic level (aspects of the epistemic situation)	Text implementation layer (types of subtexts)
Ontological	1. Subtext of new knowledge 2. Subtext of old knowledge 3. Case subtext
Methodological	4. Methodological subtext
Axiological	5. Assessment subtext
Reflexive	6. Reflexive subtext
Communicative	7. Metatext 8. Peripheral subtext

Subtext of new knowledge is the core of the semantic structure of a scientific text, which helps to explicate (explains) the dynamics of the author's scientific and cognitive activity, represented by a sequence of stages of obtaining new knowledge as part of a problem, idea or hypothesis, arguments, conclusion.

Subtext of old knowledge is an overview subtext, which represents the interdisciplinary background of the problem under study on the scale of the knowledge system that had developed by the time the new text was created. This subtext is an analytical review of the main scientific directions or scientific schools, demonstrates a variety of research approaches, often includes information of a scientific-historical, chronological, biographical and bibliographic nature.

Case subtext is footnote, i.e. a note placed at the bottom of the page, which is a comment to some place in the main text.

Methodological subtext is a structural and semantic framework of a scientific text, through which the author forms the leading line of evidence (and therefore the content itself) text. The main speech genres forming this type of subtext are explanation, clarification, explanation, specification and generalization.

Assessment subtext is a discrete substructure (e.g. discrete is change at intervals) scientific text representing in it the cognitive-evaluative activity of the author and expressed by a set of different-level linguistic

units, united by the semantics (semantic meaning) of assessment and the function of qualification of the stated knowledge. Multilevel linguistic units are the speech, words, idioms, phrases, sentences, etc.

Reflexive subtext reflects the attitude of the speaker/writer to his speech work. For example, "I think I said something wrong. Let us analyze a fragment of the educational and scientific text 'explanation of new material' (genre 'heuristic conversation") from the point of view of types of information (knowledge)".

Metatext are second-order text elements, i.e. metadata that performs service functions in relation to some primary text, and helps to understand the text.

Peripheral subtext, including independent texts, integrally reflects the epistemic situation realized in the main text and reveals the standard composition of the work. Duplicating the content of the text in a generalized form, it represents the ontological, methodological and axiological elements of the knowledge gained, programming the thematic expansion of the main text and satisfying the information needs of the addressee.

1.1.6. Personal cognitive style

Personal cognitive style is an individual way of studying reality formed by a person throughout his life. The personal cognitive style is a multidimensional (in terms of its manifestations), hierarchically ordered (in terms of the levels of co-subordination of styles), flexible (in terms of its capabilities) mental education, which has a complex structure. Similar to the process of cognition, in accordance with the preferred types of intelligence, a person processes information in a certain order, solves problems, explains and transforms the world around him, in the structure of a personal cognitive style; there is a similar sequence of individual cognitive styles (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2

Sequence of individual cognitive styles

Individual cognitive style	Structure of the personal cognitive style
Level I: types of intelligence	types of intelligence, potentially inherent to one degree or another in each person: - verbal (word); - logical (mathematical); - figurative (spatial); - musical; - bodily (kinesthetic); - interpersonal (social); - natural (the intellect of a natural scientist); - philosophical (existential)
Level II: Styles information coding	information coding styles are subjective means by which the surrounding world is reproduced in the mental experience of a person; they are subdivided into: 1) *coding aids*: - visual (optical) representational system; - auditory (auditory) representational system; - kinesthetic (body-oriented) representational system; 2) *representational systems* (allow for describing a step-by-step strategy for successfully performing complex actions leading to personal mastery): - presenter (searching for information); - preferred (used to reproduce information)
Level III: Styles information processing (cognitive styles)	information processing styles are individually unique ways of information processing; *types of cognitive styles:* - field dependence – field independence (the ability to extract the desired aspect from an ambiguous situation, adhere to the independent views);

	- top down (ability to use deduction, induction, abduction in reasoning); - identity–difference (the ability to adhere to traditional or innovative methods and ideas); - extreme categories – continuum (the ability to think in opposite or 'middle' categories)
Level IV: Styles of posing and solving problems (styles of thinking)	styles of posing and solving problems are individually unique ways of identifying, formulating and solving problems; *style types:* - synthetic (the ability to integrate original theories and approaches to problem solving on the basis of contradictions and paradoxes); - idealistic (the ability, based on intuition and ideas, to combine different aspects of the problem to achieve agreement between people); - analytical (the ability to solve problems based on a comprehensive sequential analysis of the problem situation using relevant methods and technologies); - realistic (the ability, based on facts and constant control, to consistently adjust the problem towards achieving a reasonable result)
Level V: Epistemological styles (styles of cognitive attitude to the world and oneself)	epistemological styles are individually unique generalized forms of cognitive attitude to the surrounding world and oneself

1.2. STRUCTURAL AND LINGUISTIC SPECIFICS OF THE SCIENTIFIC STYLE OF SPEECH

1.2.1. Linguistic vehicles of the scientific style peculiarities (phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic)

The stylistic features of the scientific style are expressed in the structure of speech, in the selection of linguistic means from the national language.

The specific use of common language means in the scientific sphere of communication affects all linguistic levels, namely, phonetic, lexical, morphological, syntactic ones. First of all, the stratification of the literary language have their impact on the lexical and syntactic means of the language, while phonetic and morphological differences are used less.

Phonetics-tone side in oral form of scientific speech contributes to the manifestation of stylistic specificity. The pronunciation style should provide a clear perception of the verbal form, which is facilitated by the relatively slow pace of pronunciation of words:

- conceptual phrases are separated by lengthened pauses so that the addressee better perceives their semantic integrity;

- general uniformly slowed-down rate of speech also creates favorable conditions for the perception of information.

Phonetic features of the scientific style include:

- subordination of tone to syntax (i.e. composing words into a coherent text) of scientific speech;

- standard tone;

- slow pace;

- rhythmic and wavy tone pattern.

The features of the scientific pronunciation style, as a book style, include:

- vowel reduction (i.e. change, weakening vowels in an unstressed position; there is the position of vowels in the first pre-stressed syllable and the position in other unstressed syllables);

- weakened assimilation of consonants (that is, the assimilation of the same type of sounds in the speech stream (consonant – consonant, vowel – vowel) according to one or another characteristic within one word or a combination of words);

- clear pronunciation of unstressed syllables (with an approach to literal pronunciation);

- pronunciation of borrowed and international words with an approximation to the source or to the international norm.

Note that assimilation happens: 1) by direction – progressive (if the previous sound affects the next one) and regressive (if the subsequent sound affects the previous one); 2) by distance – contact (if neighboring sounds interact) and distance (if the influence of one sound on another is indirect, at a distance); 3) by volume – partial and complete. Examples: tra[v]a, but tra[f]ka (regressive, contact, partial assimilation); etc.

Lexical features of the scientific style are manifested in its abstract, generalized nature, wide use of a word with an abstract meaning. Everyday words also acquire a generalized meaning in a scientific text. The abstractiveness of the scientific style is also manifested at the grammatical level – in choosing word forms and in constructing phrases and sentences.

Scientific presentation is for logical, not emotional-sensory perception, therefore, emotional linguistic elements do not play a decisive role in scientific literature. The specific weight of the emotional element in scientific speech is different depending on the type of scientific work (problem-scientific, analytical, polemical – there is more of it; educational, descriptive, abstract – it is less here), as well as on the compositional part of the work (preface, introduction, critical comparison, substantiation of the problem, practical conclusions – there is more of it here than in the actually setting out parts).

Morphological features of the scientific style of speech:

1) it is characteristic to use imperfective verbs in the form of the present tense, which have a timeless generalized meaning, for example: In modern domestic science, there are different points of view on how activities and communication are connected;

2) perfective verbs are used much less often, often in stable phrases (consider...; prove that...; draw conclusions; show by examples, etc.). Such forms of the verb are used without a subject, used to call the interlocutor for joint action, pronounced with a special incentive tone (therefore, they are often considered as special forms of the imperative mood);

3) reflexive verbs are often used (with the suffix -sya) that have a passive meaning or designate an action as a distinctive feature of an object, its constant property, for example: Water evaporates at a temperature of 100 °C;

4) as a rule, the 1 – person plural pronoun we (so-called author's we), the possessive pronoun our, verbs in the past tense plural are used num-

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bers or in the form of present (future simple) tense 1 or 2 plural. The use of the pronouns we, our creates an atmosphere of author's modesty and objectivity, for example: We explored the effect of the educational process on the mental health of students and teachers;

5) frequent use of abstract nouns of the neuter gender is characteristic (radiation, creation, dependence, development, speed, addition, movement, statement, property, structure, transformation, need, surface, etc.);

6) use of nouns in the singular form with the meaning of a generalized plurality (i.e. for naming not one specific object, but for a generalized naming of a whole class of objects), for example: According to the survey, we can say that cellular phone has become part of our life that we are ready to use it, regardless of harm;

7) plural forms of abstract and real nouns are often found, which are not characteristic of everyday speech – during the formation of such forms, a change in lexical meaning occurs, they no longer name the substance itself, but are used to designate a number of categories:

- grade or type of this substance (high-strength steels, lubricating oils, medicinal teas, mineral waters);
- a solid mass of matter in any space (snow, moss, mud);
- abstract concepts (power, capacity, mathematical transformations, culture, speed);
- concepts expressing quantitative indicators (depth, length, heat);
- more often than in other styles of speech, short forms of adjectives and passive participles are used in the function of the predicate, for example: The sites with different environmental conditions were selected for the study.

Syntactic features scientific style:

1) *use of passive constructions* – this emphasizes the objectivity of the information presented, the aloofness of the author; the one who performs the action is not called at all or is indicated in the form of the instrumental case;

2) *use of impersonal sentences* with modal words and infinitives (for example: should be noted, should be specified, necessary, should be considered);

3) *predominance of the component offerings of nominal predicate* (in the text revealed elements of the quality properties of objects) - in the present tense, there is no link-verb or it may be materially expressed (i. e. essence), for example: Life is the best exam (K. E. Tsiolkovsky);

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4) ***frequent complication of simple sentences*** with participial and adverbial phrases, introductory constructions denoting the sequence of messages (firstly, secondly, finally), the degree of reliability (apparently) and the source of information (as they say, in accordance with the findings);

5) ***consistent use of direct word order*** in a simple declarative sentence (for example: Laboratory experiments are carried out during the semester);

6) ***wide use of subordinate clauses*** in a compound sentence of various types: causes, effects, conditions, time, concessions;

7) ***replacement of clauses*** in view of participial clauses;

8) ***rare use of interrogative and conjunctionless compound clauses***.

1.2.2. Derivational features of scientific speech

In modern conditions, the international character of the term, compliance with international requirements and standards is an important requirement for it. The terminological systems of different sciences are therefore characterized by the use of international derivational elements in the composition of terms, which facilitates the understanding of foreign-language scientific texts. As a rule, new terms are formed using similar derivational elements. The explanatory dictionaries and foreign vocabularies indicate the origin of these structural parts of words and their meaning.

Scientific terms are formed:

- using borrowed and international derivational models: interpolation, micrometer, etc.;

- from verb stems with a zero suffix: in English for press, bias, overload;

- from the stems of verbs and adjectives using the -anie, -nie, -ost, -stvo, -ie, -ka, -tsiya suffixes: in English for decryption, particular, tracing, approximation, absorption, culmination, shooting, evasion;

- from the stems of nouns using the -icheskiy, -alniy, -itelniy, -enniy suffixes: in English for geocentric, micrometric, orbital, land surveying;

- from the bases of relative adjectives using the -ost suffix: in English for lakes, water content, swampiness;

- with the help of substantivation (i.e. transition to the category of nouns of other parts of speech) of adjectives: weight average, circular curve of the track;

- by adding stems: in English for alpha particle, member state.

The derivational features of scientific speech include:

- direct introduction of the term (term and its definition);
- gradual introduction to the term (only after a detailed description, characteristics);
- synonymization (introduced by means of synonyms);
- analogization (detailed comparison);
- side note (in brackets or in a footnote);
- etymologization (with borrowed terms; referring to the translation of a word).

1.2.3. Stylistic features of the vocabulary of scientific speech

The stylistic characteristic of a word is determined by how it is perceived by speakers: as attached to a certain functional style or as appropriate in any style, in common use. The stylistic fixity of the word is facilitated by its thematic relevance. We see the words-terms connected with the scientific language, refer to the journalistic style of words related to political topics, highlight the official business words used in office work.

The main types of stylistic characteristics of words:

1) *neutral* – for words used in all types and genres of speech, that is, for words that are stylistically unmarked (these include the vast majority of words that make up the core of the vocabulary of any language);

2) *everyday-colloquial words* used in oral speech in an informal situation and not used, as a rule, in written speech;

3) *terminological* – for words used only or mainly in the official scientific genre, to which all scientific and technical terminology belongs; terms and special words used in state and law (jurisprudence), economics, finance and military affairs, in social and political life.

Qualities that determine the culture of scientific speech

The qualities that define the culture of scientific speech are accuracy, clarity and brevity.

Semantic accuracy is one of the main conditions that ensure the scientific and practical value of the information contained in the text of a scientific work. An incorrectly chosen word can significantly distort the meaning of what is written, make it possible to interpret a particular phrase in two ways, and give the entire text an undesirable tonality.

The accuracy of scientific speech is due not only to the purposeful choice of words and expressions, but to the choice of grammatical con-

structions that presuppose exact adherence to the norms of communication in a phrase. The ability to explain words in phrases in different ways creates ambiguity.

Accuracy is often compromised by synonyms of terms. There should not be synonymous terms in one statement. It is not allowed to write either 'computer', then 'electronic computing machine (ECM)', or 'monitor', then 'display', or in one case use 'RAM', and 'random-access-memory' in the other.

The penetration into scientific speech of colloquial and slang words from the subject area, which are used instead of the corresponding terms, reduces the accuracy of the information being reported.

Clarity is the ability to write in an accessible and intelligible way.

There are many ambiguities where the authors, instead of exact quantitative meanings, use words and phrases with an indefinite or too general meaning. The authors of scientific works often write 'etc.' in cases where they do not know how to proceed with the enumeration, or enter the phrase 'it's plain to see' into the text, when they cannot put the arguments. Constructions 'in a known way' or 'with a special device' often indicate that the author in the first case does not know how to, and which device in the second case.

The reason for the ambiguity of the statement may be the wrong word order in the phrase. For example: "Four such machines serve several thousand people". In this phrase, the subject does not differ in form from the direct object, and it is therefore not clear who (or what) is the subject of the action: the automation devices or the people who serve them.

Accessibility and clarity are often referred to as simplicity. Simplicity of presentation ensures that the text of the report is easy to read, i.e. when the ideas of its author are perceived without difficulty. However, simplicity and primitiveness cannot be equated. Simplicity should also not be confused with the general availability of scientific language. The main thing in the linguistic and stylistic presentation of the text of scientific works is that its content, in the form of its presentation, is accessible to the readers targeted by such works.

Brevity is the third necessary and obligatory quality of scientific speech, which most of all determines its culture. Implementing this quality means the ability to avoid unnecessary repetitions, excessive detail and 'trash-talking'. Each word and expression should serve a purpose, which can be represented as follows: to convey the matter as accurately

as possible, but as shortly as possible. Words and phrases that do not carry any semantic load should therefore be completely excluded from the text of a scientific work.

Verbosity, or speech redundancy, is most often seen in the use of unnecessary words. For example: "For this purpose, the company uses the existing auxiliary premises" (if there are no premises, they cannot be used); "The inspection found that the existing prices in many retail outlets in our city were significantly overstated" (nonexistent prices can be neither overstated nor understated).

Superfluous words in a scientific work testify not only to the linguistic negligence of its author, but often indicate a vague idea of the subject of speech or the fact that he simply does not understand the exact meaning of a word borrowed from a foreign language. This is how combinations of the type appear: break interval, internal interior, overall dimensions, etc.

1.2.4. Internal differentiation of the scientific style of speech

There is a number of sub-styles (genre-speech varieties) and sub-languages (thematic-speech varieties) in the scientific style. The following substyles are commonly referred to as:

- ***particular scientific*** (academic) that is characterized by a strict, specialist-oriented academic presentation (assumes logical harmony, a system of arguments, systematization of scientific facts and phenomena, maximum informative saturation with known and new for science data, achievement new scientific results, which entails the modification or expansion of the existing specialized terms); the main genres of the substyle– a monograph, an article in a scientific journal;

- ***scientific-educational*** that is focused on training future specialists, therefore, the following points play an essential role in the speech structure of tutorial books along with an expanded system of arguments (focus on substantiating what is already known in science):

• purposeful systematization of the material to convey the hierarchy of concepts within the categorical apparatus and to teach the student the language of this scientific discipline;

• detailed definitions of concepts;

• techniques of presentation of introduced concepts and teaching commentary of definitions, as well as terms that are new to students;

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- *scientific and business* that is presented in patent descriptions, abstracts, in various abstracts; the text is extremely rich in information, the presentation is laconic, the presentation method is systematizing (this is related to the actualization of constructions with homogeneous members of the sentence);

- *popular science* that is presentation aimed at transferring already known scientific information to non-specialists; methods of popularizing scientific knowledge (presentation techniques that involve various expressive means in the text to intelligibly and clearly convey information from the relevant field of knowledge to a non-specialist reader) are of important role.

Scientific and business sub-style includes abstracts, etc.

Abstract is a short, content-related capacious characteristic of the printed text (usually books, monographs, articles), its subject matter (the main issues covered in this text are given). The abstract answers the question of what the book says (brochure, monograph, article), etc. *Brief abstracts* are one simple (usually impersonal, nominative) sentence that is practiced in references. A more detailed abstract is brief information about the subject of the publication, indicating the addressee and a general description of the methods of presentation in the book, in the article of theoretical issues and illustrative material (in publications of an educational and popular science profile).

1.2.5. Current genres of scientific literature
(theses, abstract and author's abstract, scientific review, monograph, textbook, article)

The scientific style can be seen in large and small genres. The first one includes a monograph (individual and collective), a thesis paper, an encyclopedia, a dictionary, a reference book, a textbook, and a teaching aid. The second is an article in a periodical or non-periodical publication, abstracts, theses, reviews, chronicles, etc. Small genres are not separate: articles, reviews, chronicles, abstracts are published in journals and collections. In large genres, for example, in a textbook, adjacent parts are subordinate to the whole, even with different authorship, i.e. connected by both logical-semantic and external linear connection.

Depending on the degree of generalization of scientific information, there are primary and secondary genres. *Primary genres* have knowledge gained when research is presented, *secondary genres* inform only about

the final results of research already published in primary texts. Depending on the communicative functions of the text, there are:

1) particular scientific (academic) type– monographs, articles, thesis papers, theses, reports, messages, speeches, scientific and technical reports;

2) informational and abstract – abstracts, reviews, summaries;

3) reference and encyclopedic – encyclopedias, dictionaries, reference books;

4) scientific and evaluative – reviews, expert opinions, polemical speeches, discussions;

5) scientific-educational – textbooks, teaching aids, lecture courses;

6) scientific and methodological (instructive) – methodological aids, programs, recommendations, instructions;

7) scientific and business – patents, copyright certificates, descriptions of inventions, standards, technical conditions, specifications, complaints.

Let's briefly describe some of the genres listed.

Theses are a short record of the content of scientific research in the form of basic, concisely formulated provisions.

In terms of content, theses are primary, that is, author's, and secondary, created on the basis of someone else's text. Original theses are aimed at scientific and business communication, are published in the form of a collection and are usually distributed among the participants of the forum before it starts. Furthermore, theses create an audience of 'correspondence' forum participants, for whom it is important to present its content in an extremely short form. Finally, theses have a more long-term addressee – a lot of specialists interested in obtaining relevant information and in search orientation. Published theses usually combine all three purposes, which should be considered primarily by the author, as well as by the editor and reader.

Theses assume a strictly normative compositional and semantic structure, consisting of 1) a preamble (containing an introduction to the problematics, a justification of its relevance, a presentation of the research subject), 2) the main thesis presentation (3–6 theses constituting a subject-logical unity), 3) the final thesis (summary of the stated information). The final thesis is usually necessary when the main thesis is combinatorially complicated or, if necessary, an integral summarizing statement of the knowledge gained.

The general norm of the style of theses is the high saturation of the statement with the subject-logical content. This norm is realized in overcoming the contradiction between content-related concentration and communicative accessibility. Violations of this norm are typically manifested as follows: 1) excessive complexity of the phrase, which makes it difficult to perceive and retain its content in memory; 2) low proportion of scientifically significant information; 3) excessive fragmentation of phrases 'for the sake of simplicity' leading to fragmentation of the idea itself, making it difficult to establish relationships between its fragments, and often introducing false emotional expression. Difficulties in content-related perception of a phrase depend not only on its length, but on the nature of the construction as well.

Abstract is semantically adequate, limited to a small volume and at the same time quite complete presentation of the main content of the primary scientific text characterized by constant structure and intended to perform various information functions when used by readers of different categories. The abstract is now one of the most widespread genres of scientific communication. The main function of any abstract is informative.

The main requirements for the abstract were formulated by M. V. Lomonosov, who saw the purpose of the abstract in "being able to grasp the new and essential points in the works..." Since the abstract is a secondary message, its topic and content are determined by the topic and content of the abstracted source of information. The abstract retains the level of accessibility of the material inherent in the primary text; separate structural elements of the refereed document (title, text part, some figures, etc.). For summarizing, such an essential phenomenon as the invariance of information is also important, that is, regardless of the degree of compression of information, its semantic properties remain unchanged. When preparing the abstract, the main idea is extracted, which unites all the information elements of the primary document and the main facts.

The structure of the abstract is stable: the heading part and the actual abstracted part. When stylistically presenting the refereed part, it is important to pay attention to the following aspects:

1) description of the primary document should be based on keywords;

2) syntax of the abstract is characterized by:

- choice of simple sentences with a normative word order; simple sentences make up about 70 % of sentences used in abstracts; simple sentences are independent in semantic, lexical and syntactic terms;

- predominance of one-piece sentences in which attention is focused on the facts themselves; impersonal sentences are widely represented, which very sparingly name phenomena and objects, list the main positions in the refereed text;

- updating conjunctionless compound clauses, structures with homogeneous members of the sentence.

A specific type of the abstract is ***author's abstract***, which records the main content of the thesis paper, serves as informing of the research results and introducing them into the scientific communication.

Structurally, the author's abstract, like any essay, includes three parts: heading (information about the specialized council, author's full name, topic name, code and name of specialty, title of academic degree); the abstract itself, which sets out the content of the thesis paper; reference (information about the leading organization, academic supervisor, opponents, date of defense, as well as a list of published works).

The bulk of the author's abstract is the abstract part itself, which significantly differs from the similar structural element of other abstracts. It's peculiar for that it consists of two practically independent sections.

In the first section, there is a general aspect-wise characteristic of the content of the thesis; in the second section, there is the content of the thesis paper is outlined in terms of its structural elements, in the third section, there is a generalized conclusion. Aspect characteristics of the thesis paper include the following headings: relevance of the topic, scientific problem (task), purpose of research, object and subject of research, research results, methods, material, research conditions, scientific novelty, theoretical significance, practical value, implementation of results, ways of their further implementation, approbation of work, structure and volume of the thesis paper. Standard stylistic constructions are used to present the relevant aspects of the thesis paper (for example: The author sees the novelty of the results obtained in...; According to the author, new are...; Unlike... in this thesis...; Research materials can be used in...; The following provisions are submitted for defense...).

The second section of the author's abstract should give the fullest possible understanding of the content and internal unity of the thesis paper. It is important to show here how the results were obtained, to present the progress of the study, to outline the essence of the methods used, to provide data on their accuracy and laboriousness, to describe the conditions and main stages of the experiment. In all cases – that is, regard-

less of the scientific field, topic, or other specific factors, the author's abstract should include conclusions and outcomes. When summarizing, the text is reduced by the number (or exclusion) of reasoning, comparisons, discussions, justifications, descriptions, etc. Illustrations, of which it is advisable to include only the most necessary ones in the author's abstract, can serve as a reserve for reduction.

The 'Conclusion' should not list the general conclusions of the thesis paper, already outlined in the first and second sections. It is more expedient to give a generalized final assessment of the work done. In this case, it should be indicated in what the author sees the main meaning of his work; what are the important side results obtained during the thesis paper; what are the new scientific tasks/problems in connection with the research and possible directions for their solution. A conclusion drawn up according to this principle will complement the description of the theoretical level of the thesis paper, and demonstrate the professional maturity of the author and his scientific qualifications.

Despite the fact that genres are typical forms of the embodiment of scientific knowledge, they vary and change historically. Genre variation is determined by the standard for the knowledge presentation in a particular field of science, its printing and publishing canons, as well as national and cultural traditions.

Scientific review performs the functions of representing scientific work, evaluating and comprehending it in the general space of scientific knowledge. Review is a long-established genre with a high degree of standardization at all levels of text construction. It is characterized by a special vocabulary (primarily evaluative vocabulary) and typical grammatical structures, through which the dialogical nature of this genre is actualized.

The main functions of a review – both informative and evaluative – can be implemented in different ways, since its composition and the proportional ratio of its parts are variable. At the same time, the invariant structure of the review harmoniously combines informing the reader of the content of a new scientific publication, an analysis of its individual provisions with an assessment of the work as a whole. In the review, the personal principle is manifested as much as possible, which leads to the use of various linguistic units, through which the reviewer reveals himself as a subject of speech, a subject of consciousness, a subject of emotions, that is, an individual linguistic personality.

The objects of evaluation in the scientific review are 1) designation of the reviewed work through its genre (dictionary, reference book, study guide, monograph, etc.); 2) aspects, methods of research activities of a scientist; set scientific task; research material; character of style, etc.

As a rule, a review presents four types of assessments of a scientific work as a whole and its individual aspects: 1) general axiological assessment (high level, good specimen, brilliant idea); 2) mental assessment, including psychological and intellectual (important contribution, fundamental method, serious attempt, etc.) and emotional and intellectual (witty idea, rational approach, subtle analysis) assessment; 3) practical assessment based on attitudes towards a norm, standard, tradition, relevance, effectiveness, etc. (ideal classification, academic work, timely problem statement); 4) emotional assessment, indicating various psychological states and reactions (strong impression, unexpected conclusions, amazing results).

Monograph is a scientific work dedicated to a multifaceted consideration and solution of an urgent problem, which has a novelty of theoretical or empirical content, the unity of a scientific approach, semantic completeness, and a complex compositional structure.

The composition of the monograph reflects the process of the scientist's communicative-cognitive activity and the dynamics of scientific thinking, including the stages of a problem situation, problem, idea, hypothesis, arguments, and conclusion (law). Monographs are characterized by two types of composition, monocentric and polycentric. The first one is characterized by the sequential manifestation of cognitive forms (problem situation, problem, idea, etc.), reflecting the solution of one problem. In works with a polycentric composition, the main problem is divided into a number of subordinate problems, which leads to the ramification of the content of the work. The stereotypical compositional structure of the monograph is communicatively expedient: it creates a clear perspective for the development and perception of the text, promotes clarity of presentation, programs the perception and understanding of the meaning by the addressee.

The structural integrity of the monograph is ensured not only due to the thematic and semantic unity of its content, but also due to the pragmatic framework that is formed by peripheral texts, such as abstract, preface, conclusion, references, table of contents. Despite the scientific and cognitive redundancy, they are necessary components of the mono-

graph. Peripheral texts represent, in a short and generalized form duplicating the main content, the most important aspects of the knowledge gained and satisfy the information needs of the addressee. Some of these texts preliminarily inform about the content of the main part (abstract, preface); others focus on the most significant results of the study and report on the possibilities of its practical use (conclusion); still others orientate the reader in the arrangement of scientific information in the text (table of contents); the fourth perform a reference and bibliographic function (references).

Article. The main features of the monograph as the central genre of scientific literature are also inherent in the article, which has a simpler composition and less volume. The genre of the article is differentiated as follows: 1) problem-statement article; 2) article is a short report on the results of research and development work; 3) proper scientific (scientific and technical) article, which sets out in sufficient detail the main results of the research; 4) historical and scientific review article; 5) discussion/polemical article; 6) popular science article; 7) advertising article.

Textbook (study guide) is educational and scientific essay, setting out the foundations of a particular science and intended for didactic purposes. The main differences between the textbook and other types of scientific literature are the 'concise completeness' of information, subject-logical sequence, clarity and intelligibility of presentation, activation of the addressee's attention.

Compressed completeness is expressed in the fact that, on the one hand, only a part of the accumulated information about the subject of a given science is presented, but, on the other hand, this part is basic and versatile characterizing the subject. This also determines the subject-logical sequence of presentation, namely, first, the definition and general characteristics of the subject are given, its main sides (aspects) are determined, each of the sides is considered. When describing aspects, this structural and content-related scheme is usually unchanged. Since the textbook contains already established, basic (disciplinary) knowledge, the presentation as a whole does not have a problematic character and polemical sharpness (with some exceptions).

1.3. MORPHOLOGY OF THE CATEGORIAL SCOPE OF THE SCIENTIFIC TEXT

1.3.1. Text category as a unit of text analysis

Text category are specific features of a speech whole that distinguish this whole (text) from other linguistic phenomena.

Such scientists as I. R. Galperin, S. G. Ilyenko, A. F. Papina, T. V. Matveeva and others contributed to the study of text categories and the creation of their typology. The text categories are as considered as: a) textual qualities; b) units of analysis.

The text category is a unit of analysis that carries the basic properties of the whole (purposefulness and compositivity).

There are 10 interconnected *categories of the text*, which are of an intra-text nature, are elements of the text, its qualities: information content; cohesion (adhesion); continuum (logical sequence based on the spatial relationship of individual messages); dividedness; autosemancy of text segments (relative independence); retrospection (relevance to previous information content); prospectus (relevance to subsequent information content); modality; integration; completeness (an exhaustive expression of the concept, from the point of view of the author).

Analyzing text categories from the point of view of text structure, its statics and dynamics, one can single out:
- development of the text;
- sequence, unity of presentation;
- completeness, perspective;
- statics and dynamics of the text (they correspond, firstly, to the approach to the text as a result of activity and, secondly, to its consideration when generation and perception). However, statics and dynamics should rather be viewed not as textual categories, but as aspects of the study of the text.

The leading textual properties (integrity, dividedness and modality) can be called the main categories of the text, subordinating its more particular features.

A. F. Papina suggests considering text categories as a factor contributing to the organization, integrity, and unity of the text. She highlights the following *global text categories* and:
1) participants in the communicative act;
2) events, processes, facts;

3) time:

- real artistic (objective, cyclical, subjective, psychological);

- unreal (astral, infernal, fantastic);

4) space and place of objects:

- artistic space: real and unreal (a) conditioned by the speaker's face: 1st person – subjective, 3rd person of the narrator – objective time; b) due to the reference point: linear, perspective, panoramic);

- unreal space, due to the type of the depicted world (Earth, space; violation of geometric dimensions: magical, fantastic, the world of fairy tales, the poet's dreams);

5) dialogicity (realized in the categories of subjectivity and addressing, associated with the image of the author and addressee).

Description options for text categories: a) a set of language components; b) textual significance of various types of linguistic components (determined on the basis of the frequency of the types, as well as their representation in the strong positions of the text); c) combinatorial linguistic components as part of a linear series of vehicle of text categories; d) placement of signals of text categories on the text space.

Conceptual text categories are subdivided into content-related and structural; categories reflecting the system-activity approach to the text; functional semantic and stylistic categories; text categories based on the principle of reflecting text categories of a topic, subject (authorization), sentiment (text modality), text space and time, addressee.

Systematization of text analysis methods. Among the possible solutions for the systematization of heterogeneous methods of text analysis, divisions according to functions performed and orientation, the following ones are the most famous:

1) *by the functions performed*, there is a group of methods:

- allowing to import text and work with it;

- aimed at text research (work at the grammatical, syntactic level, carry out a variety of searches in the text, highlight keywords, indices, etc.);

- focused on semantic analysis, the creation of categorization schemes, dictionaries, coding;

- allowing the export of analysis data (for example, the text itself or the coding scheme, or the dictionary used, etc.);

2) *by the object of analysis,* there is a group of methods:

a) methods 'language oriented' (linguistic units):

- linguistic methods;

- methods of working with data (information retrieval, word lists, concordance, indices, etc.).

b) methods, 'content-oriented' or content-related analysis:

- qualitative methods that allow for searching for patterns and differences in the text, to analyze the whole text (some methods allow you to analyze audio and video information). Note: to conduct a qualitative (content-related) study of the text, quantitative data can also be used in this group of methods, which helps to organize qualitative (content-related) information; an important difference is the predominant use of topics, concepts, processes, contexts as units of analysis. In this case, the volume of the analyzed text can be limited;

- methods for analyzing events from text data;

- quantitative methods, which allow statistical testing of hypotheses, are focused on the study of large amounts of text: a) categorical systems have built-in or custom dictionaries, on the basis of which the search in the text is carried out (categories can be both thematic and semantic), some methods have limitations on the size of the units of analysis; b) non-categorical systems based on the simultaneous occurrence of words, lines, concepts allow you to build a variety of graphs, etc.; c) question coding systems are designed to parse fairly uniform text.

Important parameters for any text analysis are:

1) reliability of the data obtained (provided by the complete analyzed text and its representativeness);

2) reliability of the units of analysis (completely dependent on the qualifications of the researcher and the underlying theoretical model).

Text analysis methods. Limitations of the use of text analysis methods are associated with the subjective influence of the researcher, who determines the choice of units of analysis and the interpretation of the data obtained.

Content analysis has an indisputable advantage in all the variety of text analysis methods, modifications and varieties of which allow solving a wide variety of research problems.

Content analysis is the most widespread method for qualitative and quantitative analysis of the content of text arrays. It consists in assessing the frequency distribution of words, phrases relative to the text. The result is the frequency, probability of occurrence, etc., on the basis of which a qualitative or quantitative conclusion is made, depending on the hypothesis put forward.

The technique allows solving two main tasks: determining the structure of the text (using semantic dictionaries), determining the main themes and ideas of the text (based on the information contained in the relationships between the units of text analysis).

Discourse analysis or discourse analysis is a set of methods and techniques for interpreting texts or statements as speech products carried out in specific cultural and historical conditions. The method consists in a sequence of a number of operations: 1) fixing the studied material; 2) highlighting its formal characteristics; 3) designating the context as a communicative situation; 4) theoretical differentiation and structuring of research stages; 5) implementing the main stages of research (description, reconstruction, interpretation); 6) fixing research results, their generalization, interpretation and structuring.

Expert assessment of the text– this group of methods includes various expertise of the text, the classifications of which can be presented in the following form:

1) authorship examination aimed at identifying the author of a text or identifying categorical features of a likely author: gender, age, nationality, place of birth, place of long-term residence, level of education, etc.;

2) examination aimed at establishing the temporal characteristics of the author of the text (emotional state, etc.);

3) examination aimed at establishing certain conditions for creating the studied text (also an examination of the authenticity of the recordings during the interview);

4) examination aimed at establishing a deliberate distortion of the information expressed in the text;

5) examination aimed at establishing certain signs (insult, appeal, etc.).

Morphological analysis is aimed at determining the set of morphological interpretations of each of the words in the text. Morphological analysis is implemented in most methods, since it is the basis for other types of text analysis. The technique is designed to conduct a qualitative (content-related) data analysis.

In addition to the above methods, there are a number of text analysis methods:

– structural analysis, system analysis, etc.;
– social role analysis, historical analysis, cultural analysis, etc.

1.3.2. Text category of cohesion

Connectivity is the central category of the text, its constituent feature.

Cohesion as a text category is:

1) ***property of speech or whole text*** implemented by specialized or functionally oriented to the expression of this property by multilevel linguistic units;

2) ***semiological category*** (general theory investigating the properties of signs and sign systems), which is the main text-forming factor, which has a two-sided character:

- coherence as the something in common in two or more facts, phenomena, etc., reflected, transmitted or created by speech, which determines the independent nature of coherence;

- connectivity as a reflected, transmitted or speech-created combination of facts, phenomena, etc. into one whole, closed in a semantic sense, what is the role of coherence in the whole text formed;

3) ***category correlated with the system of multilevel linguistic units*** united by the function of expressing the dismemberment (delimitation) and connection of text units, which are separate sentences, super-phrasal unity, paragraphs, etc.

The vehicle of the cohesion are specialized language units:

1) conjunctions (and, a, but, yes, however, since, because);

2) units that receive an additional functional load in a speech context (nouns in the role of repetitions, personal and demonstrative pronouns, some adverbs, communication constructions).

Connectivity is based on ***reference***, i.e. the correlation of a word with a part of objects (belonging to the class designated by the word), which speakers highlight in their minds.

Referent is a subject of reference; an object of extralinguistic reality, which the speaker means in the context of a specific linguistic situation. The referent of a coherent text is a model of the situation that is understood by the speaker as coherent. If in the model of the situation built by the listener, the facts are connected, the given fragment of the text is coherent (that is, having conceptual and semantic integrity of the text).

A statement – a relevant unit of discourse – is not possible in isolation in objective reality, since the real text is represented by a chain of speech acts connected by the communicative goal and the intention (consciousness and mindset on any object) of the speaker. Consequently, the cate-

gory of coherence receives not only cognitive (perceived and processed by consciousness), but communicative-pragmatic (adequately understood linguistic meaning) content.

Cohesion means:

1) grammatical and lexical textual or sentences unity, which unites them into a single whole and gives them meaning;

2) one of the defining characteristics of text or discourse and one of the necessary conditions for textuality.

Cohesion includes intra-textual links that provide formal integrity and unity of discourse. Cohesion by itself does not provide an understanding of what the text communicates, it reveals how the text is organized into a semantic whole. Cohesion is a 'visible' cohesion of units of text using the means of individual language levels.

If we consider the textual unity as cohesion, it can be qualified as a category of discourse and text, the vehicles of which are focused on the integration of elements of the speech stream, providing a consistent and logical integrity of the text. Cohesion defines the properties of text elements, while coherence is a property of the text as a whole. Coherence is, on the one hand, the result of the interaction of syntactic and stylistic types of cohesion, and on the other, the coherence of discourse and text predetermines their interaction. There is no incoherent text for the speaker. Moreover, the establishment and expression of coherence seems to be his priority task, which is solved regularly.

The functional perspective of the text and its communicative articulation are based on the actual articulation of the sentences that make it up. The theory of actual division takes into account the semantic structure of the statement, its functional perspective, corresponding to the communicative purpose of the message.

The actual division of the proposal is the principle of dividing the proposal into:

1) *topic* – the original, originally given component (what is considered known or can be easily understood);

2) *rheme* – a new component, asserted by the speaker (what is communicated about the starting point of the statement), focus or core.

Example of transition elements: "He (theme) turned out to be (transition) an excellent teacher (rheme)".

Theme and rheme are related to the construction of the text, because they take into account the communicative perspective of the sentence

within the unfolding message. Thematic-rhematic articulations are a reflection of the communicative strategy of the speaker, who seeks to convey information, focusing on the existing conditions of communication and while trying to achieve a certain communicative goal. According to his communicative intention, he builds a text in which each element performs a specific function and at the same time serves to expand the message.

The essence of the actual division of the statement consists not only in the fact that its content is differentiated into a theme and a rheme, but in the fact that, functionally delimited, these centers form a single whole. Themes and rhemes relate to each other and define the development of the text, the unity of which is ensured by the sequential distribution of information from the given to the new. *Thematic elements* combine sentences, hold text together, and define a high degree of coherence. Rhematic elements, being carriers of new information, contribute to the development of the topic, the dynamic development of the text. The whole meaning of the communication process lies in the dynamics of the relationship between the components of the actual division.

The interaction of thematic and rhematic elements in the sentence forms the basis for the further development of communication.

A typical feature of coherent text is the transfer of information about an identical topic from one piece of text to another. The subsequent segment absorbs the content of the previous one and develops the thematic flow of new information. Any segment of the text that demonstrates the unity of the subject of discussion throughout all or most of the statements included in it can be called a thematically related or 'thematic block' within which thematic-rhematic articulations are determined (for example, a repeating topic of several neighboring statements is the topic of the whole).

The category of textual unity is universal for all languages. The content of text units, their semantic unity in the Russian and English languages is associated with the actual division. The content-related unity of the text is characterized not only by a set of particular topics related to each other and forming the general theme of the text, but by the generality of its rheme as well.

Actual division by its nature is associated with the movement of speech, which is a chain of successive transitions from the parts of the statement, the least filled with information, to the parts of the statement, the most filled with information.

There are two ways to develop idea:

1) consistent (when each subsequent judgment, as it were, follows, develops from the previous one, and the previous member of the judgment receives a new characteristic in the subsequent);

2) parallel (when judgments do not develop one from the other, but are compared due to the commonality of one of the elements of their structure).

The movement of speech is reflected by the actual division of the statement: the topic is the beginning of the movement of an idea, the rheme is its development. By itself, the basic principle of speech movement, which in the aspect of actual division is a transition from topic to rheme, does not predetermine the way of developing an idea. The movement of speech that occurs in individual statements of the text is subject to the general communicative direction of the text and is carried out in accordance with one of the two existing ways of developing an idea.

A topic unfolds if it is gradually replaced in accordance with the internal logic of development by a new topic, and it develops if its individual parts gradually acquire special significance or if it breaks up in a whole paragraph into several related secondary topics.

Two ways of developing an idea became the basis for identifying two types of syntactic connection between complete sentences: chain and parallel. Various types of thematic progressions of texts and their modifications are also based on two ways of developing an idea.

1.3.3. Text category of speech consistency

The consistency of speech is the correspondence of speech to the laws of logic (the law of identity, the law of contradiction, the law of exclusion of the third, the law of sufficient reason).

The author must know the topic well, skillfully arrange the material, present it accurately, not contradict him in judgments, and consistently move from one idea to another, to the place to use evidence.

Let's consider in more detail the *laws of logic and related errors*.

1. *The law of identity* (that is, throughout the entire conversation, the subject of an idea should be the same, and a frequent mistake of the author is the tendency to change the topic).

An example of an error: "The object of an idea throughout the entire statement must remain unchanged". A typical mistake in this case is the

substitution of the thesis, when the speaker unnoticed for him changes the topic and starts talking about something else.

2. *The law of contradiction* (that is, conflicting statements cannot be true at the same time; speakers sometimes express opposite judgments during discussions on the same topic).

An example of an error: "Opposite statements about the same thing cannot be true at the same time". A typical mistake is the arrangement in one text of sentences in which the exact opposite is stated.

3. *The law of exclusion of the third* (i.e. between two conflicting judgments there is no third that is considered true in the same respect);

An example of an error: "There can be no third, true in the same respect between two conflicting statements". Typical mistakes here are clarifying statements that contradict one of the statements.

4. *The law of sufficient reason* (i.e. any statement must have substantiation, which is proved by irrefutable facts).

An example of an error: "Any true statement must be substantiated, proven by other statements, the truth of which is beyond doubt". A typical mistake in this case is a statement that has not been proven either by examples or by reasoning.

The consistency of speech is its communicative property, which is expressed in a consistent and reasoned presentation of ideas. The speaker observes the basic laws of logic and thus can accurately and competently conveys his own reasoning to the listener, convey information and even influence the subconscious.

The definition of logic consists in a clear structure of speech, knowledge of approaches to its construction, as well as in comprehending linguistic units and their comparison.

Below are basic conditions of consistency:
- extralinguistic (mastering the logic of reasoning);
- linguistic (mastering the skills of presentation).

To be able to express and write logically, you need to be able to reason and think. These two conditions are inseparable. The structural basis of logical thinking is the ability to use words as accurately as possible, make sentences, and then build a whole text.

In accordance with the extralinguistic condition of consistency, the structure of speech should contain:
1) thesis – ideas or assumptions that require proof;
2) arguments – provisions that serve as a justification for the thesis;
3) demonstration – a set of conclusions that act as a form of proof.

Linguistic conditions presuppose a combination of consistent words (for example, a blue-eyed person and extensive work experience), specific and generic concepts (chairs, tables, a chest of drawers, stylish pieces of furniture were placed in the bedroom). To avoid misinterpretation of the story by the listener, the speaker should not allow for amphibology (ambiguity). Furthermore, the consistency of the statement presupposes the structuring of the text into semantic parts, breakdown into paragraphs. At the same time, excessive fragmentation of an idea or, on the contrary, excessive complication with overwrought sentences is not allowed.

Common mistakes and amplification tools. When the laws of speech consistency are violated, the meaning of what is said changes slightly or radically. Common mistakes include:

1) unreasonable comparison;

2) use of an incomplete analogy – for example: it cannot be argued that the work on writing a text and compiling an oral presentation is the same (when making any conclusion, you need to make sure that the judgment is accurate);

3) unjustified judgments, for example: "The works of Pushkin are very interesting to foreign readers" (in this case, the question arises whether they are interesting to Russian fans of the author's work).

To strengthen and emphasize the consistency of the text, the following techniques are used:

1) adding introductory words and highlighting them with punctuation marks;

2) emotional coloring by increasing tone during the performance;

3) underlining or other ways of emphasizing in written text.

Competently and logically structured speech is the result of constant work.

Allowed logical violations:

1) a courtesy formula, a negative question (for example, "Can you tell me how to get to...?", Not sure what time it is?");

2) clauses with except (for example, "Everyone came except Ivanov", one can't say: "Everyone came except Ivanov, Petrov, Kalugin").

Special ***tools*** used to ***underscore***:

1) dividing the text into paragraphs;

2) use of introductory words (firstly, secondly, therefore, so, etc.);

3) underline and other means of highlighting in the text;

4) tone in oral presentation.

1.3.4. Textual category of scientific speech accuracy
as an expression of the certainty / uncertainty of knowledge

Accuracy of speech is a communicative quality that 1) is formed on the basis of the connection of speech with reality and thinking; 2) is realized through the correlation of the semantics of speech (semantic meaning of language units) with the information expressed and formed by speech.

There are two *types of accuracy*:

1) objective accuracy (based on the connection of speech with reality and consists in the correspondence of the content of speech to that range of objects, phenomena of reality that are displayed by speech);

2) conceptual accuracy (based on the connection between speech and thinking, exists as the correspondence of the semantics of speech components to the content and volume of the concepts expressed by them).

These types of speech accuracy are interrelated and interdependent in the same way as the subject and the concept of it are related.

The main conditions that contribute to the creation of accurate speech are:

- knowledge of the subject of speech;
- knowledge of the language system;
- strong speech skills.

In a specific act of communication, the speaker correlates knowledge of the subject with knowledge of the language system and its capabilities.

Accuracy is one of the most important benefits of speech. The main requirement for speech is the requirement for clarity and the condition for ensuring the accuracy of speech is the connection between language and thinking.

The accuracy of the scientific speech presupposes the selection of linguistic means that have unambiguity and the ability to best express the essence of a concept, that is, a logically formed general idea about an object or phenomenon. Therefore, they avoid using (but still sometimes use) various figurative means in the scientific style, for example, metaphors. The only exceptions are metaphorical terms (for example: in physics – atomic nucleus; in botany – pistil of a flower; anatomy – eye apple, pinna).

Speech accuracy coupled with analysis means expressing certainty, uncertainty, or knowledge in the text in three main aspects: *logical-semantic* (considering a means expressing the volume of concepts based on selection, partial combination/constraints and joins/concepts); *psychological-communicative* (connected with assessment of the infor-

mation reliability degree); ***cognitive-epistemic*** (correlates with structuring content by taxonomic operators – view, genus, variety and others).

For a long time, it was believed that the category of certainty or uncertainty is not characteristic of the Russian language, since it lacks a formal grammatical indicator of this category – the article.

Expressing the meaning of certainty, the sender of the message assumes that the addressee of the speech is able to identify the referent of a given linguistic expression with some referent, which, thanks to the previous text (communication situation or the general fund of knowledge), is already in his mind. The value of uncertainty, on the contrary, shows that the sender does not count on such identification and informs the addressee only about which class the designated object belongs to.

Certainty/uncertainty category functions:

- actualization and determination of the name;

- demonstration of its uniqueness in the described situation (certainty);

- expression of his relationship to a class of similar phenomena (uncertainty).

The vehicle actualization include actual division of the proposal; word order; context; narrative (i.e. storytelling, retelling); tone; phrasal stress.

For example, certainty/ambiguity of a subject is created in a sentence using a specific word order. A noun with the meaning of certainty (fame) takes an absolute preposition in the sentence, and a name with the meaning of uncertainty (unknown) takes an absolute post-positive position. For example: "The man has come to you" (meaning of certainty). "A man has come to you" (meaning of uncertainty).

An indefinite name can be in the preposition of the first (introductory) sentence only if it expresses the meaning of indeterminacy using indefinite pronouns. For example: "Some man came to you", "One old man had three sons".

1.3.5. Density of scientific text

The concept of text density (in particular with regard to scientific presentation) includes the following concepts:

1) ***condensation of knowledge*** is a qualitative transformation of the content of scientific knowledge (highlighting variants of properties or relations of an object, consolidating logical means of generalization, an increase in the mass of knowledge in a logical unit);

2) ***compression of knowledge*** is necessary for knowledge to be efficiently shared, but various information losses may occur;

3) ***compression of information*** (or analytic-synthetic transformation of information) is a set of operations by analytics for processing information to express the content of the original text in a more concise form while preserving or reducing its information content in the derived text;

4) ***simplification of knowledge*** is omission of details that are not essential to achieve the goal (while generalization is an expansion of the boundaries of a pattern);

5) ***cumulative information*** is the property of information content enclosed in a small array to fully display reality; the methods of providing cumulativeness is aggregation include obtaining summary indicators of various levels of generalization or selection of individual indicators from the initial data arrays.

With all the variety of approaches to organizing scientific knowledge in a text, the problem of comprehending the content, taking into account the level of information content and continuity of the cognitive process, retains its significance and relevance in the scientific field of communication.

Anchor segment (or bullet point) is a system of lexical units representing the consolidation of scientific knowledge. The main function of anchors is to control the author's idea. Thanks to the interconnection of anchors, scientific knowledge in all scientific genres expands and develops depending on what 'spectrum of informativity' is set by the anchor.

For example, let's select anchors in a sentence from a medical text "In various pathological conditions, these ratios are violated with certain shifts in the isozyme spectrum of blood...". Underlined anchor segments precede the presentation in terms of both scope and content. The author of the article further sets out the results of the study, describing the forms of lung disease, the directions of disorders for each isoenzyme, giving quantitative data. The sphere of action of such control segments will end where the author proceeds to consider the ratio of isozymes in the norm. The set of anchors reflecting the 'core' of knowledge is located in a certain sequence throughout the text.

In the scientific literature, the text density is achieved by the special arrangement of anchor segments, which open up potential for including information that meets the goal of scientific communication.

On the one hand, the density of the text is informational richness, on the other hand, the density of the author's idea and crystal clarity in the

presentation (if there are ideas, they are stated logically, and do not flow meaningless), on the third, the choice of exact words, etc.

The density of the text consists of:

1) *topic* (do not write the same thing that everyone writes; find one, but the right aspect of a big topic that one can reveal better than others);

2) *inner work of the author* (occurs before the start of writing the article the better it is done, the more chances that the text will turn out good);

3) *information richness* (the text is written on the basis of collected facts);

4) *idea of the author* (each topic requires a fresh look, new disclosure and author's conclusions);

5) *compositional structure*, fully revealing the author's idea;

6) *sense of proportion in everything* (in language, in emotions, in judgments);

7) *no repetitions* (neither semantic nor stylistic);

8) *choosing the exact word*;

9) *lack of descriptions and deviations* (which do not work on the main idea of the text, do not illustrate it);

10) *persuasiveness*;

11) *action and verbs* (one can't do without them, because one exact verb replaces ten adjectives and five inaccurately chosen nouns).

1.3.6. How other elements of good text depend on its density

Stylistics. Thinking finds expression in language is in what and how the author writes. It is impossible to think clearly and at the same time to express it vaguely. Density of an idea gives rise to density of style. The author must know very well what he wants to tell the audience.

Emotionality. Many people understand by emotionality in texts an abundance of colorful epithets, vivid descriptions, superlative adjectives and exclamation marks– it is they who supposedly cause delight in the reader. The nature of emotionality in texts is different. Emotionality is concentrated, it loses its power if it is diluted with a lot of epithets and exclamations. The reader's emotions are born if the author knows how to convince, and this skill depends on thinking. Emotionality in a dense text is extremely compressed and is expressed in just a couple of precise words.

The author's interest in the text. Interest in the topic arises when working on it. And it can appear for the reader only if the author clearly

thinks out how to present the material correctly, so that all parts of the whole are lined up in the right order. If the author manages to build a convincing chain of judgments, he will achieve the effect.

Creativity. Creativity is about persuasive imagery, accurate associations and appropriate metaphors, not an abundance of vivid images and associations. Creativity is an idea process while writing a text. The task of the author is to think, and not to make the text too bright and therefore difficult to understand.

The density of the text is the quintessence of all the features that make the text quality. There is a direct correlation between density and thinking, density and good writing, density and composition. The density of the text reveals all the shortcomings of logical thinking, presentation and structuring. The author is growing, and his ability to express ideas in a text is growing as well.

1.4. PRINCIPLES FOR DEVELOPING AN INDIVIDUAL STYLE OF SPEECH OF A SCIENTIST

1.4.1. Analytical thinking as a basis of differentiation of discrete and continuous thinking styles

Cognitive activity is always an analytic-synthesizing activity. With an inextricable connection between both sides of the cognitive process, there are two main styles of thinking: discrete-logical and continuous-psychological, which determine the specifics of scientific presentation.

So, discrete-logical (discrete) thinking involves the decomposition of the whole into parts and the unification of the parts into a whole. Continual-psychological (continual) thinking presupposes continuity, internal homogeneity, integrity, initial systematic property of the object.

The predominant discrete-logical style of thinking determines such a characteristic of the style of speech as consistency. A scientist with predominantly *discrete logical style* of thinking tends to: 1) structural analysis; 2) clear differentiation of terminated concepts, their logical definition; 3) establishment of logical and semantic relations between the original, basic and clarifying concepts, which is reflected in definitions, classifications, diagrams, tables, diagrams, etc.

On the contrary, *continual psychological style of thinking* is characterized by: 1) logical fuzziness of definitions (descriptions) of terminated concepts; 2) diffuse representation of their relationship ('fluffy sets'); 3) metaphorization, diffuseness of the explanation of concepts and its interweaving into a continuous stream of speech.

There are several opinions today on the interpretation of the terms of 'continuous' and 'discrete':

1. These terms can be interpreted as continuous/discontinuous. Continuity is understood as a unity, discrete elements are interpreted as separate, delimited units.

2. The second meaning of the term 'continuous' is associated with the consideration of unity. In this case, the continual/discrete pair is interpreted as complex/simple, elementary.

So, discreteness and continuity are widely reflected in the language. The structure of this phenomenon demonstrates a complex example of a hierarchy between whole and part. From the sentence model (which can be viewed as a continuum), you need to move to various syntactic pat-

terns of sentences and the grammatical components of this sentence. When the word level is reached, morphological components also act as parts (for example, separable verb prefixes). And an important feature of the language is that at none of the levels, when the higher units are divided into their constituent parts, it is impossible to find fragments that do not carry any information.

The basis for the differentiation of discrete and continual styles of thinking is ***analytic thinking***, the main content of which is: 1) analysis of the expected result and possible side effects when solving problem situations; 2) explanation of the incomprehensible; 3) separation of primary (objective) causes of conflict interaction from secondary (subjective) ones; 4) analysis of the reasons for the behavior and activities of people.

The analytical type of thinking is closely related to the logical one. It is not entirely correct to identify analytical and logical thinking, since analytical thinking is responsible for analyzing the data obtained, comparing them, etc., and logical thinking is based on the search and establishment of cause-and-effect relationships.

Analytical thinking also involves the ability to perform logical analysis and synthesize information. So, its features are manifested in the fact that a person painstakingly studies a problem or situation or makes detailed plans, while simultaneously analyzing all the data and weighing all the advantages and disadvantages.

The way analytical thinking works is based on two basic processes:

- ***creative process***, accompanied by the search for new knowledge and information;

- ***formal process***, accompanied by the analysis and synthesis of data, as well as conclusions and consolidation of the final result in the mind.

Development of logic and analytics. Various techniques can be used to improve the ability to think systemically and analyze what is happening. One can independently develop this property in several ways:

1) come up with and solve the problem (don't make it difficult for yourself; a simple enough problem; you need to set a goal to solve it quickly and effectively; ask yourself questions about the problem, look at it from different angles. come up with several options, analyze each and choose the best one);

2) put yourself in the shoes of the other (a good workout is transference; take the place of your favorite character in a book or movie, analyze his behavior, actions, and decisions);

3) learn to model (try to visualize a picture of events in your mind, thinking it over from beginning to end; for example, one can create a business from scratch, formulating goals, ideas, tasks in your head, thinking over everything from creating a business plan to making a net profit);

4) analysis of the opposite position (you will need an assistant here; it is advisable to involve two or three people who will hold the assessment; it is necessary to set a topic on which the two will argue, building their own arguments on their point of view; first, one opponent will speak for or against the proposed topic; and the other will analyze and present his arguments; the jury must not guess the author of the argument);

5) games and creativity (one can develop your brain and its most important qualities in a playful way; try to solve jigsaw puzzles, starting with simple ones and gradually increasing the number of pieces; also, various creative activities contribute to the improvement of logic).

Your efforts and aspirations will help you organize information in different areas of life, analyzing various events. You will be able to better see patterns in events and situations. This ability will help you draw correct conclusions, quickly count in your mind, and determine the causes of events.

From the information received, one can quickly highlight the most important facts, cutting off the secondary ones. You will also be able to remove emotions in order to correctly look at the picture of events and find its solution. The ability to analyze effectively will allow you to work more successfully and solve everyday issues. There is an opinion that it is easier to develop creativity than logic. However, everything can work out if you make an effort.

1.4.2. Principles of forming individual-style specifics of a scientist's speech

Principles of the formation of an individual style of speech of a scientist. The problem of the individual style of speech is interdisciplinary in nature, therefore, it is recorded in the literature in various aspects: historical and scientific, scientific, psychological, functional and stylistic. The approaches can be different due the properties of the text (conceptual-meaningful, ideological and content-related, communicatively expedient, etc.) which are considered prevalent, to what extent they deviate from the norms of style, genre, etc.

The individual style of speech brings to the fore the intelligence of the individual.

Consider the differentiation of close but not identical concepts:

- ***idiostyle*** is a set of structural and linguistic features (stable characteristics) in the speech of an individual native speaker);

- ***idiolect*** is a set of speech and textual characteristics of an individual linguistic personality (individuality of a writer, scientist, a specific speaking person), formed under the influence of the entire extralinguistic basis (functional-style, genre-style, individual-style.

One of the clearest manifestations of idiostyle in a scientific text is the use of foreign-style inclusions. For example, in Russian there is formation of verbs from other verbs with the help of prefixes is extremely developed, while in French relative adjectives are poorly formed.

The individual style of thinking and speech can be studied within only one functional style, which is established in relation to the scientific and journalistic styles of language. The individual style of speech and thinking of an author (in particular a scientist) is influenced by 1) the empirical or theoretical level of development of the scientific field of knowledge; 2) research methods corresponding to this level (observation, experiment, classification, typology, theory, etc.), object or subjective presentation methods.

In stylistics, the idiostyle is a set of dominant distinctive properties of an individual's speech, manifested in the use of linguistic units within a given style, genre, text category, etc. Therefore, it does not correlate with the linguistic person in general, but with the linguistic person in a certain social role of the subject of speech.

With regard to the stylistics of scientific speech, the interaction of three main components of the extralinguistic basis is taken into account: the type of thinking, the cognitive style, the style of the scientist's thinking.

Proceeding from the fact that the subject of cognitive activity manifests itself in the text essentially one-sidedly, we can say that the type of thinking is an all-encompassing factor underlying the creative individuality of the scientist.

The first principle of the formation of the individual-style specifics of a scientist's speech. within the stylistics of a scientific text, the study of idiostyle is based on the unity of two aspects of the functioning of the language - linguistic and extralinguistic. The basis for the formation of the individual style of a scientist's speech is precisely the connection

with the extralinguistic basis of the written style of the scientist's speech, with an emphasis on the scientific and cognitive activity of the scientist and its product. In terms of arguments of this basic principle, the scientific facts of the manifestation of the scientist's speech individuality are important. The Extralinguistic prerequisites for the manifestation of the scientist's idiostyle are the personality itself (education, including the natural and social properties of a person), the creative nature of the activity, activity in the search for means of better expression of an idea i.e. the whole complex of social, psychological and linguistic factors.

The second principle of the formation of the individual-style specificity of a scientist's speech is the conditionality of the idiostyle by the scientifically functional style of presentation, which is realized by the creative individual. This allows us to explain the unity of the scientific style with a diffuse variety of individual styles.

The third principle of the formation of a scientist's idiostyle is linguistic, namely textual. It is associated with stylistic features-categories that are implemented only in the whole text.

In general, the idiostyle of a scientist is due to the following factors:

1) dominant properties of the cognitive style (analytical or synthesizing nature, the degree of differentiation of concepts, flexibility of connections in concept content being formed);

2) the properties of the style of thinking (conceptual or figurative, negative evaluative or tolerant, etc.);

3) objectivity or subjectivity of presentation, which leads to the use of certain speech genres;

4) the linguistic competence of the author, not only in relation to the degree of mastery of the synonymous rich the language, but in terms of the movement of content from ignorance to knowledge;

5) a pragmatic attitude towards communication with the reader, etc.

Extralinguistic factor the formation of the individual-style specifics of the scientist's speech. The task of the scientific style is the speech explication of the cognitive and communicative function of the language. The general style-forming basis for all functional styles of speech is the impact on the creation of a text of extralinguistic (extralinguistic or external) factors. Extralinguistic factors in relation to a scientific work are the nature of thinking in the scientific field, the solution in a scientific text of communicative tasks proper.

Extralinguistic factors are subdivided into basic and optional (that is, they do not necessarily appear in every text). In a scientific style, the basic extralinguistic factors include a) field of activity; b) kind of activity; c) features of thinking.

Optional factors include such epistemic (scientific and cognitive) characteristics as: a) the stage of the scientist's cognitive activity (empirical or theoretical); b) the nature of cognition (mostly rational or intuitive); c) forms of knowledge as a product of cognitive activity (definition of a concept, classification, typology, hypothesis, concept, theory, law), etc.

The scientific functional style is formed on the basis of the principle of selection of linguistic means and their textual organization– the so-called constructive principle of style. The constructive principle of the scientific style consists in the selection of such linguistic means that are aimed at the textual implementation (in written/oral form) of the process of cognition and proof of truth through the conceptual-logical form of thinking. In scientific communication, the most general specific features of the scientific style arising from abstractiveness (conceptuality) and strict logic of thinking, are abstract / generalized and emphasized consistent presentation.

Gradual principle of the formation of the individual-style specifics of the scientist's speech. Gradality in the method of speech development is the dividing of the training system into several complexes (means, methods, forms, techniques of the same type), focused on different stages of training, with a gradual increase in the volume of communicated knowledge, with the complication of their nature and forms of presentation, depending on the level of training, on the degree of development of students' speech.

The principle of graduation is the most important principle of developmental teaching of the native language and speech. Without it, it is impossible to implement the didactic principles of continuity and prospects in teaching, as well as the principle of accessibility and compliance of teaching with the age-related capabilities of students. Graduation is an accurate 'dosage' of educational information and an accurate selection of the optimal teaching methods at a given stage, in a specific group of students.

The leading role of the principle of graduality, as the basic principle of speech development, is determined by its interaction with:

1) *didactic principles* of correspondence of the training content to the age-related capabilities of students, accessibility and feasibility of learning; continuity and prospects, systematic approach and consistency;

2) ***general methodological principle*** of acceleration of speech development as the human speech-creative system improves;

3) ***psychological regularity***, in accordance with which the zone of actual and the zone of proximal human development create small and large prospects in the learning system that ensures development.

Graduation processes are associated with human assessment activities, which are based on certain norms and standards.

One can vary the degree of manifestation of a feature/quality of an object or phenomenon by means of a number of words or a combination of words, the semantics of which contains the degree of the feature value (more//less).

Consider, for example, various grading adverbs with the following typology: 1) graduators indicating ***the maximum degree of manifestation of a feature*** (extremely, fully, totally, utterly, completely, absolutely, wholly, entirely, etc.); 2) graduators indicating ***a high degree*** (widely, highly, greatly, very, etc.); 3) graduators indicating ***a sufficient degree of manifestation of a sign*** (relatively, sufficiently, etc.); 4) graduators indicating ***a low degree of manifestation of a sign*** (a little, just, a bit, etc.).

In this typology, the quantitative characteristics of the manifestation of the trait are clearly traced.

Comparison is a cognitive operation underlying grading, which is associated with evaluative human activity.

1.4.3. General concept of composition. Speech location

Location of speech is the second stage of work on speech, following the step of Invention and largely influencing the content of speech. The plan is this the logic of the invention of the content, that is, the logic of the author's reasoning, the sequence of his ideas in the study of the subject of speech, a list of the main semantic components of the thesis being proved.

Composition of speech is a naturally motivated by the content and concept of the arrangement of all parts of the speech and their appropriate relationship, the organization of the material, its arrangement in a certain system.

There are eight compositional forms of speech in rhetoric. These forms were called 'parts of speech' (not to be confused with grammatical parts of speech). The set and arrangement of speech is determined by the topic of the speech, the nature of the audience, the genre of speech, its volume, the nature of the conclusions.

Parts of speech can also be considered large rhetoric arguments, means of rhetoric evidence. The classic sequence is as follows: 1) appeal, 2) designation of the topic, 3) narration, 4) presentation, 5) proof, 6) refutation, 7) appeal, 8) conclusion.

1. ***Appeal*** is an argument about the identity of the speaker. The very image of the speaker who acts through the speech addressed to the audience convinces here. Therefore, the appeal contains, in one way or another, a request to listen to what will follow.

The immediate task of the address is to position the audience towards the speaker. Appeal is a form of the speaker's acquaintance with the audience. In it the speaker seeks his own personality. Demonstrate that he has knowledge about the mood, the way of thinking of the audience. The appeal requires attention from the listeners. Everyone is accustomed to the preference of listening to all other activities. Therefore, given this 'listening reflex," lecturers often use mid-speech addressing in order to restore weakened listeners' attention.

2. ***Topic designation***. The title of the topic and its explanation constitute the semantic center of the argument. The title of the topic is a necessary part of the composition of any lecture; in a public lecture, the title should not only correspond to the subject of the speech, but be understandable to the audience, and most importantly, it should be stylistically constructed in such a way as to interest the audience.

3. ***Narration*** contains the history of the subject of speech or the history of an idea about this subject. The narration is usually easy and interesting for the audience, but since the narration is inevitably selective, someone in the audience may recall the details omitted by the speaker and thereby question the train of an idea, if not the conclusions of the speaker. Therefore, when narrating, one must not only select those events that allow the listener to come to certain conclusions, but justify their choice.

4. ***Summary***. In the presentation, the subject of speech is described systemically, i.e. the subject is examined in parts, in their relation to each other and in their relation to the whole. The presentation usually includes examples to describe the experiment. In this case, the description precedes the proof.

5. ***Proof*** is the central argument of speech. One can't perform without him at all. However, in different rhetoric genres, the proof can take different forms and even, for example, in a popular lecture, be omitted. But this

does not mean that in this genre this part does not need to be prepared at all. On the contrary, you should always be ready to reproduce it at the request of the listeners. The proof uses generalizing, illustrating (confirming the generalization previously made), reference (exemplary) examples.

6. ***Refutation***. Precisely because there are many who want to refute the words of the speaker, it is better to give all possible refutations yourself. Then the refutation will become evidence "by contradiction". When can you not resort to refutation? If the audience is homogeneous and does not suspect that there is an opposite point of view on the topic (although today it is difficult to imagine such a topic and such an audience).

7. ***Appeal*** is addressed to the feelings of the listeners, contains an assessment of everything previously said, conveys the speaker's personal attitude to speech.

8. ***Conclusion***. The expediency of this part of speech is associated with the peculiarities of speech perception by ear. The listener is not able to remember the entire amount of information. The conclusion should therefore remind everything that has already been said, i.e. is a summary of the main content, summarizes the entire reasoning.

So, eight parts of speech are eight ways to talk about the same subject. The possibilities of the language are limited only by these ways of presenting content. The ninth is not given. The above composition is optimal. It is also true for written genres.

However, there are genres where all eight parts of speech are not required. For example:

- report on work includes: 1) a list of tasks; 2) the state of affairs in connection with the assignments; 3) the reasons for this condition (favorable circumstances, unfavorable circumstances); 4) prospects;

- research report includes: 1) history of the issue; 2) modern points of view; 3) criticism of modern points of view; 4) the point of view of the speaker; 5) the advantages of this point of view;

- defense report includes: 1) history of the issue; 2) unresolved problems; 3) research methods; 4) material; 5) research progress; 6) results; 7) conclusions; 8) prospects;

- review (and abstract) includes: 1) the author; 2) work, its genre, who it is intended for; 3) the tasks set by the author; 4) the degree of fulfillment of the tasks (consistency/inconsistency, clarity / ambiguity, completeness/incompleteness, validity/unreasonableness); 5) conclusions about the suitability of the work.

Speech composition parts of the orator / lecturer / presenter:

1. Introduction is the first part of the speech composition. Like the conclusion, it is functionally meaningful, since the information presented at the beginning and end of the speech is best remembered. The purpose of the introduction is to establish contact with the audience and communicate what will be discussed.

Introduction objectives (for the speaker):

- to arouse the audience's trust, win over them – establish contact, interest the audience, create in their eyes the impression of a convinced person;

- to give a decisive start – the first phrase, which is a homework, must be pronounced confidently;

- to observe etiquette formulas, greetings that relate to one of the parts of the introduction – the beginning;

- to formulate the thesis, the objectives of the speech and the issues to be discussed, to emphasize the relevance of the topic.

Methods for organizing an introduction: *natural beginning* (message of the reason for the speech, the purpose of the speech, substantiation of the topic, problem statement, historical review) in a benevolent audience; *artificial beginning* is realized in a critical or inattentive audience, therefore the following types of artificial beginning will help to win over the audience and focus its attention: aphorism, analogy (usually figurative), ironic remark or joke, parable or legend, questions of a philosophical or evaluative nature, public or moral assessment of the event under discussion, assessment of the audience; *sudden onset* when the speaker starts speaking unexpectedly, revealing his emotional state to the audience; a sudden start is not an improvisation, it is prepared in advance, but should look like a direct reaction to the event.

2. Main part. The work on it is dedicated to the construction of a logical-speech proof. In the main part, we reveal, prove the thesis by means of arguments according to the planned outline of the speech, i.e. we formulate the main idea, provide arguments.

The central unit of the main part is the microtheme, which is a complete in meaning and structurally fragment of speech, including separate judgments obtained as a result of dividing the thesis, and arguments in defense of them. Each micro-theme is built as reasoning according to the following scheme: judgment – arguments – output.

Arguments or micro-themes can be located in several types of arguments: *bottom-up arguments* (the impact increases towards the end of

the speech. Gradation is often used here); ***top-down arguments*** (the power of influence decreases towards the end of the speech); ***deductive arguments*** (derivation of the substantiated position from other, previously accepted statements, i.e. from a general premise to arguments); ***inductive reasoning*** (from arguments to conclusion).

3. Conclusion. In this part of the composition, you should summarize the speech, namely, you must return to the beginning of the speech, to the thesis, to remind what you talked about and what general conclusions you came to. The conclusion, like the introduction, may contain etiquette formulas (thank the audience for their attention).

Speech forms of conclusion: summarize what has been said; sharpen the problem, enhance the impression of speech; repeat the main stages of the development of the topic; show the ways out of the problem, outline its possible development; put forward a specific proposal; and express the wishes of the audience.

General principles of constructing a speech:

1) the principle of consistency – each expressed idea must flow from the previous one or be correlated with it;

2) principle of strengthening – significance, weight, persuasiveness of arguments and evidence should gradually increase; the strongest arguments, as a rule, shall be at the end of the reasoning;

3) the principle of organic unity – the distribution of material and its organization in speech should follow from the material itself and the intentions of the speaker;

4) principle of economy – the ability to achieve the set goal in the simplest, most rational way, with a minimum expenditure of effort, time, verbal means;

5) the principle of the adequacy of what is perceived to what is said, that is, not harming what is said by intentionally distorting the meaning.

It must be remembered that the content and structure of the composition depends on the genre of speech.

Material presentation methods:

1) ***historical (chronologically) method*** – presentation of information, i.e. presentation of material in chronological order, description and analysis of changes that have occurred over time;

2) ***deductive method*** – presentation of material in the structure of a speech work from general to particular, from thesis to arguments;

3) ***inductive method*** – presentation of material from particular to general, from arguments to conclusion;

4) ***analogy method*** – comparison of various phenomena, events, facts in order to transfer the patterns revealed in the analysis of a well-studied object to a less studied object;

5) ***concentric method*** – the arrangement of material around one main problem, when the speaker moves from a general consideration of the central issue to a more specific and in-depth analysis of it;

6) ***stepwise (staged) method*** – sequential presentation of one issue after another; resembles the chronological method by the linearity of the presentation of events, but if the chronological one reflects the logic of events, the stepwise method reflects the logic of the movement of the orator's idea.

1.4.4. Model of the individual style of speech of a scientist

When creating (and editing) a text, it is possible to achieve the desired harmony of form and content, if we take into account the basic properties of scientific knowledge: 1) knowledge as a result, a product of the cognitive activity of a scientist; 2) knowledge as a process of cognition by scientists of the phenomena of reality.

In functional stylistics, scientific knowledge is considered as content that the author unfolds, sets out in a scientific text. The structure of scientific knowledge can be represented as a unity of interpenetrating parties (aspects of consideration). So, scientific knowledge can be considered and recorded in the text in terms of ***ontological*** (what is being studied), ***methodological*** (by what methods, ways new knowledge is obtained, in what logical forms it exists), ***axiological*** (what is the degree of its reliability, relevance, significance – value for the fund of scientific knowledge as a whole), etc.

It is furthermore clear that the textual, namely the communicative, side of scientific knowledge also has its own requirements for its presentation. It is no coincidence that the communicative aspect of scientific knowledge is considered integral in the analysis of the semantic structure of a scientific text. The unity of aspects of the content of a scientific text is fixed terminologically as ***epistemic situation*** – this is a unit of content understood by the author as scientific knowledge, covering information about the subject, the method of obtaining this information, the value

orientation of the author. An epistemic situation is always directed towards a typical addressee. This is evidenced by the clear differentiation of texts into the main genres of scientific literature, such as articles, monographs, textbooks, etc.

The *article* (scientific, scientific and methodological, popular science, etc.) sets out a fragment of new scientific knowledge with an emphasis on the functionally significant side (theoretical, experimental, scientific and methodological, popularization, etc.), the author determines whether the article is significant in accordance with the expected typical reader.

In the monographs, a problem identified by the author or his predecessors, or a complex of interrelated problems and particular questions are subjected to multilateral consideration, a hypothesis is put forward, for the confirmation of which certain methods already known in this field of knowledge are used, a new method is developed or specially formed a certain set of methods.

The textbook expounds knowledge already established in a particular area, which during the creation of the textbook is not controversial.

Model of style is a characteristic of style of speech and stylistic means of the language according to the triad scheme: high – medium – low style. However, there is no single model of speech production.

All models have the following steps in common:

1) conceptualization – deciding on the message to be transmitted;

2) formation of sentences:

- lexicalization – selection of suitable words to convey the message;

- syntactic structuring – selection of the appropriate order and grammar rules that govern the selected words;

3) articulation – execution of motor movements necessary for the correct reproduction of the sound structure of the phrase and its constituent words.

The most objective indicators of the speech production process are obtained by studying the system in reverse order, before identifying and analyzing the speech errors contained in it. Speech errors usually occur within a sentence, which indicates that each sentence is created independently of other sentences.

The stages defined by speech errors suggest two polar points of view: 1) idea that speech is created sequentially; 2) idea that the process consists of many interacting nodes that process the presentation layers in parallel.

1.4.5. Speech skills of a scientist and teacher

Speech skill is following the norms of the literary language plus the ability to choose from the available options the most accurate semantic, in terms of clarity and stylistic relevance.

Literate speech is the most important tool for professional work and creative growth. Without knowledge of language norms, the specifics of speech communication, not a single qualified specialist, teacher, leader, organizer, manager can take place.

Speech skill, as well as speech literacy, is manifested in discourse.

Pedagogical discourse is a serious, informational, direct communication. Various areas of knowledge can be included in pedagogical discourse. Its study can be interdisciplinary.

Universal features of pedagogical discourse:

1) language in action is based on the communicative practice of people, that is, their joint activity aimed at the individual expression of ideas, ideas, beliefs, feelings, emotions; for information exchange, transfer of everyday or professional experience, etc.;

2) speech interaction includes pre-communicative, actually communicative and post-communicative stages of communication;

3) any communicative situation should be considered taking into account the socio-cultural context;

4) leading role in any communicative situation is assigned to people, and not to the means of communication;

5) participants in the communicative act are involved when generating the text and interpreting it.

Participants in the pedagogical discourse are teacher and student (high school) or teacher and student (high school). University teachers need to systematically develop and improve the communicative culture, since the teacher's activities include two mandatory components: special and pedagogical. When teaching, the teacher not only conveys knowledge of a specific subject, but forms the way of thinking, the style of speech behavior of future specialists.

Outstanding scientist V. O. Klyuchevsky, who was fluent in public speech, wrote: "The hardest and most important thing in teaching is to force yourself to listen. Speech is a unique phenomenon. Each statement represents a deep understanding and transfer of knowledge based on a rich professional and life experience. A person's speech is always a

demonstration of his character, civic position, convictions, preferences and feelings. Each teacher is a means of ensuring a high level of professional knowledge, education and development of students. The teacher is responsible for the quality of education of the trainees, while forming their intellectual and communicative abilities".

The theoretical model of the pedagogical process consists of:

- subject of education (teacher);

- learning object (learner);

- learning process (organized interaction between teacher and students to achieve educational goals);

- result of education (expected and measurable specific achievements of students and graduates, expressed in knowledge, abilities, skills, abilities, competencies).

Pedagogical discourse is aimed at socializing new members of society by introducing them to the profession, generally accepted values and behavioral norms. This process involves a systematic check of the understanding of the information received and the level of its assimilation by students.

Pedagogical discourse is the basis for the formation of worldview guidelines in students, since this discourse contains not only professional, communicative, but moral, moral and ethical values.

The main communicative strategies of pedagogical discourse: organizing, explaining, facilitating, controlling, evaluating. It is necessary to take into account such properties of the teacher's speech as: 1) conviction in what has been said; 2) confidence in their own position; 3) reasonable categorization; 4) the ability to highlight the primary and especially significant information; 5) the ability to present information in an accessible way in accordance with the communication situation (in expanded and condensed form).

The information provided by the teacher should be appropriate, clear, and understandable for the audience. Good oral speech of a teacher is the most important component of his professional characteristics, which helps him in solving a wide range of educational and educational tasks. The expressive speech of the teacher in any communication with students contributes to the creation of an atmosphere of collective creativity, empathy and mutual understanding.

N. A. Antonova gives 11 acts for expressing strategies of pedagogical discourse: tactics of establishing speech contact; tactics of maintaining

speech contact; tactics of stimulating future work of students; tactics of concentration of attention; tactics of stimulating physical activity; tactics of stimulating mental activity; tactics of maintaining motivation; regulatory tactics; controlling tactics; communication initiation tactics; tactics for evaluating actions.

The pedagogical discourse of an experienced teacher combines all communicative qualities of speech: correctness, communicative expediency, accuracy of speech, consistency, clarity and accessibility of presentation, purity and expressiveness of speech, variety of vehicles, aesthetics and relevance.

Factors that positively affect the impact of the teacher's speech: 1) deep knowledge of the subject of instruction; 2) the ability to convince; 3) proficiency in speech technique; 4) ability to logically build speech; 5) implementation of an accurate choice of expressive means of language; 6) expedient use of figurative expressive means; 7) appropriate appeal to non-verbal vehicles: gestures, facial expressions, plasticity, posture; 8) conscious design of joint speech (involving students in conversation, discussion, polemics, dispute); 9) ability to use the latest technologies that promptly provide the clarity of the studied material.

A good public speech of a teacher is characterized by the following *communicative qualities*: speech artistry (assumes a vivid manifestation of the teacher's individual qualities in speech, his ability to evoke an emotionally sensual response in students to what he heard); energy of speech (manifested in the unity of the teacher's demeanor and the characteristics of speech delivery); its intensity (too fast or slow tempo of speech dulls the attention of students and quickly tires them, so an experienced teacher is looking for a "golden mean", alternating different tempos of speech); the use of non-verbal language means (non-verbal means facial expressions, gestures, postures help to create an objective portrait of the speaker, convey his style of communication with the audience); expressiveness (manifested in the teacher's ability to convey a lot of shades of meaning, to use artistic imagery and rich tones); expressiveness or emotional coloring of the content (achieved through the reasonable use of tone means, the wider the tone range of the teacher, the more expressive and accessible the information transmitted to students becomes).

Thus, for effective speech impact on the student audience, it is extremely important that the teacher always cares about creating his own

holistic image (appearance, plastic, speech passport, selected distance of communication with students, the availability of sound and visual perception of speech). All this contributes to the successful implementation of the entire educational process.

The most important components of a teacher's speech skills will always be the level of his general and speech culture, spiritual wealth, sincere conviction in the correct choice of his profession. The writer and educator W. Ward rightly remarked: "A mediocre teacher expounds, a good one explains, an outstanding instructor, a great one inspires".

1.5. EDITING ERRORS IN THE STYLE
OF SCIENTIFIC PRESENTATION

1.5.1. Principles of Editing Scientific Text

The process of generating a scientific text and bringing it to readiness for publication can be divided into three stages:

1) the first stage is associated with the spontaneous expression of the author's communication with 'reality' – the content of the text, at this stage there is a cumulation, accumulation of various information through its attraction and 'folding' into a unit of speech/text; the cognitive analytic-synthesizing activity of the scientist is realized to a greater or lesser degree harmoniously or with the dominance of one or another side of thinking;

2) the second stage is associated with distance from the text content, reflection in relation to the text, orientation towards the reader; the dominant feature here is 'communication' with the reader, during which the text is saturated with means that accentuate the consistency and coherence of scientific speech; at the same time, errors appear (inaccurate or inappropriate use of prepositions: due to, as a result, etc., introductory words such as in particular, for example, including, thus, etc.);

3) the third stage is associated with the "seduction" of the author with the text as a fabric created in accordance with the cognitive pattern; At this stage, all attention is really directed to the text (editing the text, bringing it to readiness for publication).

The 'mechanism of making mistakes' in written speech is interesting, since it is acting at the beginning of the creation of the text under the pressure of 'linearity' speech/text, which determines either element-wise, discrete generation of the text (and its perception), when attention is focused on the transmission of a 'quantum' of an idea, or holistic-semantic, when individual details are not worked out.

Discrete (with the dominance of the analytical side of cognitive activity) thinking (and the corresponding attention) makes it possible to operate with numerous "ready-made", stereotypical units approach is based on the idea that...).

The desire to express a new idea in a non-standard, non-stereotypical manner is, however, faced with such an obstacle as the author's admission of the following errors:

1) contamination (cross-linking of the components of sentences, for example: the task of this study is a description... and the task of this study is a description, the result of which was a proposal, the task of this study... is a description...);

2) emergence of a redundant component (for example: our ideas about the essence of [phenomenon – redundant] phenomenon... are as follows; [process – redundant word] suggestion is characterized by the following features...);

3) incomplete expression of the 'quantum' of an idea (for example: the scientific novelty of the research is determined by the solution of the tasks set and the purpose of the work to identify the specifics...);

4) unjustified inversion (for example: the heretics of the first centuries of Christianity had a completely different attitude towards Judas, having nothing to do with hatred – instead of: a completely different attitude towards Judas, which has nothing to do with hatred...);

5) unjustified emphasis (for example: referring to the material of the English language made it possible to establish that the authorization in the scientific style of the compared languages has both common properties and inherent only in the scientific style of the Russian language - instead of: ... inherent in the scientific style of only the Russian language).

Editing scientific texts (especially academic genres of articles, monographs, thesis papers, textbooks) is the process of generating the text, built in accordance with the rules of grammar (linguistic) text, backed by normative grammar, phrases, sentences, over-phrasal unity.

General principles of text editing:

– be able to explain all the mistakes and shortcomings;

– fix gross errors, all the shortcomings, in the end making at least three edits, since a new mistake is usually made during editing;

– artificially come up with different editing options;

– if there are no explainable shortcomings, but simply the argument "I would say otherwise" do not edit without consulting the author;

– if necessary, change the order of words (in particular, start a sentence with a different word);

– if the sentence is overloaded, divide it into semantic blocks;

– when overloaded with participles, gerunds, verbal nouns – replace them with verbs;

– check more than once any factual material, the meaning of words, quotes, etc.

Features of lexical editing of a scientific text

I. It is necessary to **check if** any word used is **accurate and valid**. In any sentence, phrase, the word is used exactly within its meaning, acquires terminological accuracy – unambiguity. Any word, accidentally or deliberately used in the text, must semantically 'combine' with other words, it categorically cannot be empty, parasitic; the scope of the meaning of a word must be correlated with other words. The requirement for the accuracy and unambiguity of the use of words is the reason for a tautology (repetition of words), which, nevertheless, can be corrected during editing, for example:

II. The use of general scientific and special terms entails: 1) absolute understanding of the definition of the term and its constituent words; 2) in the different interpretations of the term – reasoned use of the term in only one meaning.

III. In view of an **active use of abstract vocabulary** (potential, tolerance, invariant, reclaim, etc.), which, as a rule, it is borrowed, it is necessary to clarify the meaning and features of the formation of such words with the help of linguistic dictionaries. It should be borne in mind that also procedural verbal nouns widely used in scientific speech may have an analogue among professionalisms that are not recommended for use in a scientific text.

IV. It is unacceptable to use **colloquial vocabulary, professionalism, vernacular, jargon, dialects in a scientific text.** As a rule, it is unacceptable to use emotionally colored, expressive vocabulary in a scientific text. The position of the author in a scientific text is expressed through a logical, consistent, reasoned disclosure of the problem.

1.5.2. Attentions in Editing Reading

Editing strategy relates to the attention that dominates the special slow reading process. There are such types of attention as:

1) *undulating attention*, in which the top of the 'wave" is associated with a particular textual difficulty;

2**)** *shuttle attention*, in which the components of the statement are held in unity;

3) *spasmodic attention*, which manifests itself when the connection of the component with the previous context is unclear;

4) *spider attention*, which manifests itself in multicomponent grammatical control and the redundancy of speech arising as a result of such control;

5) *spiral attention*, in which the strategic, globalizing function of editing reading is realized.

Speech errors are deviations from functional-style norms determined by the law of semantic agreement (based on abstract/specific lexical meanings), linearity of speech, contact or distant location of speech segments, emphasized by the consistency and coherence of scientific presentation. Such deviations from the norms of the formation of a scientific text should not be underestimated in terms of the culture of writing speech.

At the same time, it can be said that it is, perhaps, not possible to give a complete set (register) of speech errors due to their extraordinary diversity. Errors have various reasons:

1) cognitive (vagueness of an idea);

2) psycholinguistic (lack of integral compositional speech-thinking);

3) psychological (unstable, non-fixed attention to the text).

The effect of these factors is multidirectional, and the 'negative product" is not always obvious. Therefore, we consider it important to emphasize the need to develop the 'linguistic flair' of researchers so that they can overcome the resistance of speech-thinking material, manage it in their own interests.

Openness to the deployment of content is inherent in a scientific text. So, one can continue the description of the subject by finding new properties, expand the reasoning, clarifying the logical relations with other subjects, find new arguments for generalizations and statements, cite the opinions of other scientists, refer to well-known concepts, etc. This is due to the fact that the knowledge of the truth is limitless.

At the same time, the author is always limited by the framework of a text of a certain genre (articles, monographs, author's abstract, etc.), the parameters of which have developed historically.

What is the "measure" that underlies the instrument for assessing the text in terms of its compliance with the cultural-speech standard? The complexity of the structure of the content of a scientific text determines the difficulties associated with the presentation of this content, i.e. with the generation of text at the pre-text and at the text level. Therefore, not just a scientific text, but an edited scientific text allows setting all new parameters of compliance with the cultural-speech standard.

At the stage of the primary generation of the text, the following errors seem to be quite "forgivable":

1) reservations (similar to typos);

2) random puns (in a scientific text!);

3) the use of paronyms (words that are similar in sound and morphemic composition, but differing in lexical meaning; possibly an misuse of one of them instead of the other);

4) inconsistency in the number of subject and predicate;

5) unjustified inversion (permutation, reverse word order);

5) separation of definitions from defined words;

6) convergence of identical forms with different meanings;

7) obsessive use of the same stereotyped constructions;

8) redundancy or unjustified concise expression of an idea, etc.

All this suggests the need to 'switch' the focus of attention to the form of the content being presented. At the stage of editing the text, or bringing it to readiness for publication, it is required to focus on the text, its form and content: the author (or editor) seeks to improve the text, not forgetting about the 'threat of a shift in meaning'.

Special (editing) reading is monotonous; it is characterized by the following types of attention, manifested when editing reading.

1. **Wave-like attention** is a background in editing reading, at the same time it is individual, since it correlates with the level – automatic or reflective – of mastery of the norms (spelling, punctuation, stylistic) of the literary language, as well as scientific and stylistic norms of the text.

Indeed, by one author, all situations with the use of the participial clause are controlled automatically (with no attention paid), by the other one – at least one situation with the isolation of the participial clause causes reflection, reflection. Similarly, the distant location of the participial clause requires attention of the author (the participial clause is 'separate' from the word being defined).

For example: "Here is an example of the use of the form *I believe* in statements of the second type, characterizing only the display itself, borrowed from the work...". In this sentence, the distant arrangement of the participial clause prevents the establishment of a connection with the defined word, therefore, the participle clause should be formalized as a separate sentence. For example: "The example is borrowed from the work... In particular, a number of works have appeared dedicated to the functional and pragmatic features of sentences not only of a certain

structural type, but also sentences with predicates of a certain semantics....". As you can see, attention is calm until the 'trap' – the conjunction not only.., but, the use of parts of which before each of the homogeneous members must be controlled. Prospective control takes place here.

Proposal in revised form: "In particular, a number of works have appeared dedicated to the functional and pragmatic features of not only sentences of a certain structural type, but also sentences with predicates of a certain semantics either sentences not only of a certain structural type, but also with predicates of certain semantics...".

2. **Shuttle attention**, i.e. "attention back", manifests itself in those cases when it is necessary to preserve the unity of the components of the statement (for example, with the semantic and grammatical agreement of the subject and predicate). In this case, the subject can be used before the predicate, but separate from it, or after the predicate, but represented by a compositional series.

For example: "The developed terminological apparatus and methodology for studying the color-light picture of the world have a real prospect of being applied to the study of the color pictures of the world of other writers". The considered 'psychological' error (arising not due to linguistic incompetence) is generated by the reverse word order (inversion) of the subject and predicate, i.e. – in our case – predicate and subject.

Direct word order allows the author to automatically use the correct subject and predicate grammatical forms. The detachment of the subject, expressed by homogeneous nouns in the singular form, can provoke the use of the predicate in the singular form as well. This error can be psychologically explained as follows – it is noted in cases where the compositional series (homogeneous members of the sentence) includes components with definable words, which, naturally, makes the syntactic construction heavier and 'dismembers" attention. Therefore, the following sentence can be read in two ways – depending on the nature of the reading (normal and editorial).

Normal reading: The developed terminological apparatus // and the research methodology / color-light picture of the world // has a real prospect of application...

Editing read: The developed terminological apparatus and / [attention! - what connects the conjunction and?] the method of studying the color-light picture of the world has [! – incorrect, the subject has already been established - apparatus and methodology] / real prospect of application...

3. **Spasmodic attention** occurs when the connection of components in the context is not clear, when retrospective control is necessary.

Example 1: "In this register, constructs often function that do not have a clear register **fixity, which** can be used...".

In the preceding context, it is necessary to find the defined word, i.e. take a retrospective "leap", and make an amendment. Proposal in revised form: In this register, there are constructions, **which do not have** a clear register fixity and **can be used**…;

Example 2: "At the same time, the methods of scientific observation of linguistic phenomena, taking into account that **being used** by people should not be considered completely new".

Our editing attention leaps back from the personal pronoun them to determine which plural noun this pronoun is replacing. As a result, we find two nouns – phenomena and methods. And a personal pronoun can be attributed to each of them: methods of observation taking into account their use by humans – so it is quite possible to say; observation of linguistic phenomena taking into account their use – and so one can say.

Editing options:

- At the same time a method of scientific observation of the language **events** considering **their** use by people not considered completely new.

- At the same time **methods** of scientific observations of the linguistic material, taking into account **their** use by people should not be considered completely new.

The author must decide which option to prefer.

Example 3: "Representing a system, the denotative **level** of the semantics of the verb **consists of participants and propositions**, i.e. from the elements and their relationships with each other, **as well as from** determining **factors** that connect the participants....".

It is here that it is necessary to activate spasmodic attention, which allows one to keep separate, but interrelated concepts (in bold) in the mind.

Having eliminated redundancy (verbosity), we can easily detect semantic incompatibility: 1) level consists of – incorrect; 2) consists of participants and propositions, as well as factors – incorrect; 3) factors that connect participants – incorrect.

Suggestion after editing: "Being a system, **semantics** of the verb is **formed** at the denotative level **from** participants and propositions, i.e. from the elements and their relationships with each other, **taking into account the factors, influencing** the connections of the participants....".

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4. **Spider attention** manifests itself in multicomponent verbal or verbal-nominal control and the redundancy, 'viscosity' of speech arising as a result of such control.

For example: "**Lower** level of abstraction in linguistic stylistics and, as a consequence, **increased interest** in the analysis of speech genres pose the **problem of search** for linguists the possibility of studying speech genres from common methodological positions and, in connection with this, consistent functional and stylistic **comprehension** of the phenomenon of speech genres".

Spider (subtle, sensitive) attention to this fragment of the text reveals the following *errors*: 1) uninformative and therefore redundant component (lowering the level and increasing interest); 2 tautological and therefore redundant component (that occurs in linguistic stylistics... put before linguists); 3) redundant component (understanding the phenomenon of speech genres); 4) the phrase of searching for the possibilities of studying is redundant (the problem of finding the possibility of studying speech genres); 5) semantic incompatibility (decreased and increased pose a problem); 6) a string of ten nouns in the genitive case (search, opportunity, study, genres, positions, comprehension, phenomenon, genres, speech) requires editing.

Suggestion after editing: "The lower level of abstraction and, as a consequence, increased interest in the analysis of speech genres necessitate the study of speech genres from a unified methodological standpoint, which predetermines the functional and stylistic understanding of speech genres".

5. Spiral attention is a strategic, globalizing attention in editing reading of text, which can be represented as a synthesizing spiral that allows emphasizing the openness of editing.

First, attention is always linear, although interrupted by deviations (fluctuations). It is the linear nature of attention that determines its selectivity and thus its limitedness, therefore, repeated editing reading usually makes it possible to identify "new", previously unnoticed errors. Interestingly, some well-known scholars who have the fame of brilliant stylists edit their manuscripts in preparation for publication, re-reading them many times.

Secondly, the 'scope' of the text space (simple or complex phrase, simple or compound sentence) matters when focusing shuttle and spasmodic attention on fairly simple text situations, as well as spider attention in more complex ones.

Thirdly, the strategy of manifestation of spiral attention correlates with the generation and perception of the text during the mental enlargement of its units (from phrases, sentences, super phrasal unities to fragments of the text, etc.). In this case, the author (and the editor) implements not just attention, but precisely integral compositional thinking.

Indeed, holistic compositional thinking allows the author to improve the text as a form, while deepening and harmonizing the content of the text. Thanks to holistic compositional thinking (in a spiral), the author obeys the integrity of the text, deepening and expanding it in the editing process through various insertions, clarifications of explanations, or cutting off unnecessary ones. The opinion that the text is a form not only of expressing knowledge, but also of its development is therefore quite legitimate.

1.5.3. Approaches to Editing Scientific Texts

There are pre-text and textual approaches to scientific text editing.

Pretext approach. Editing a scientific text requires, first of all, element-by-element reading, in which attention is focused on the lexical units, phrases and individual sentences selected and used by the author. This approach to editing is pre-text, since the word – phrase – sentence isolated from the text does not represent a text.

However, they often need editing; it is important, for this purpose, to pay attention to necessity, expediency of the use of the word; relevance; accuracy of the word choice; correct connection of the components of the phrase; and justification of the word order and other lexical and syntactic "traps".

Pre-text units are being edited in accordance with lexical and syntactic norms, which are dedicated to an extensive literature, including grammars, reference books and various dictionaries (correctness, difficulty, control, etc.). In cases of lexical and syntactic difficulties when constructing and editing text, it is therefore advisable to refer to the appropriate linguistic (especially reference) literature.

Text-based approach. Along with editing pre-text units (phrases, sentences), the author of a scientific text or editor has to focus on the content in its entirety. In this case, a textual, namely, scientific and style, approach to editing is applied.

As mentioned above, the content of a scientific text is scientific knowledge, which is always fragmentary, but representing a voluminous,

multidimensional and, at the same time, compositionally integral construction. In accordance with this goal, let us turn to the issues of editing from the standpoint of a textual approach to it, taking into account the integrity of the text. The integrity of scientific knowledge (as the content of a scientific text) presupposes the manifestation of the compositional thinking of a scientist in the generation of text.

1.5.4. Psychological component of explaining errors

A systematic approach to the text and its editing makes us focus on the development of such a mental model of the text of a whole scientific work, which would have the power of a common idea that forms the systemic thinking of both the author and the reader.

The concept of a mental model of a text in relation to the broader concept of 'type of the text', which is used 'to designate the existing productive model of textual construction, which determines the functional and structural features of specific texts with different thematic content.

The mental model (general idea) of the text acts as an intermediary between the edited and edited texts. In this case, the basic mental model is divided into a set of interrelated private models.

In accordance with the general theory of systems, systems thinking can be understood as a network (web) of multidimensional elements, considered from different angles: it is not just complex and comprehensive, but vertical, horizontal, deep and cyclical thinking as well.

Hence, it is clear that systems thinking has a given utilitarian goal, i.e., to generalize the editing process, it is necessary to be schematized, simplified, in other words, to construct a basic mental model of the text.

The a mental model, that is, abstract, abstracted from the real text, does not by itself guarantee the quality of filling this model with linguistic material when generating the text. It is important for the author to form a model corresponding to a harmonious text, i.e. a model:

a) minimized, consisting of a quite foreseeable number of elements;

b) flexible, elastic, in which, without breaking the connections of the elements, one can expand or narrow any element, as well as strengthen or weaken its connections with other elements;

c) dynamic, in which dynamics is achieved due to the variability of elements (animation effect).

Such an important aspect of scientific activity as timely assessment and recognition of the results of the research done, dependence on the quality of the text.

1.5.5. Scientific text in the cultural and speech space: a tendency towards conciseness

The manifestation of intelligence in oratory is the ability to speak succinctly. The fewer words are used to reveal the thesis, the better. At the same time, words and phrases must be understandable to the public.

Conciseness (laconic) is quick and competent expression of ideas.

Conciseness implies extremely short oral speech, in which the meaning is preserved and there is no unjustified 'protraction' and excessive explanations.

However, conciseness is also characteristic of a scientific text.

2. PRACTICAL SECTION

2.1. LEXICAL AND GRAMMATIC FEATURES
OF THE SCIENTIFIC STYLE

Table 2.1

Lexical and Grammatical Features of the Scientific Style

No.	Peculiarity	Description
1.	Since the leading form of scientific thinking is the concept, almost every lexical unit in the scientific style denotes a concept or an abstract object	*Term* is a word or phrase that denotes the concept of a special field of knowledge or activity and is an element of a certain system of terms. Within this system, the term is unambiguous, and does not have any expression, and is stylistically neutral. Examples of terms: range, laser, prism, symptom, sphere, phase, low temperatures. *The conventional language of science* these are terms, most of which are international words
2.	Abstract and generalized presentation	In a scientific style, this is achieved through the use of a large amount of abstract vocabulary
3.	Phraseology of the scientific style	Includes compound terms (solar plexus, right angle, oblique plane, voiceless consonants) and various clichйs (consists of…, represents…, consists of…, is used for… etc.)
4.	Abstract and generalized presentation, which are achieved with the help of grammatical features	1. The singular forms of nouns are used in the plural sense (for example, Linden begins to bloom at the end of June). Real and abstract nouns are often used in the plural form (lubricating oils, radio noise, great depths).

		2. Scientific-style concept names prevail over action names. This leads to less use of verbs and more use of nouns. When using verbs, a tendency towards their desemantization is noticeable, that is, the loss of lexical meaning, which meets the requirement of abstractiveness, generalization of the scientific style (for example, to exist, to occur, to have, to appear, to change (to), to continue (to), etc.). 3. The use of verb forms with weakened lexical and grammatical meanings of time, person, number (for example: distillation is performed – distillation is performed; one can draw a conclusion – a conclusion is displayed, etc.). 4. Verb face forms and personal pronouns are also used in accordance with the transfer of abstract generalizing meanings. The most frequent in scientific speech are abstract forms of the third person and pronouns (he, she, it). The pronoun "we", in addition to being used in the meaning of the so-called "author's we", together with the verb form often expresses the meaning of varying degrees of generalization (for example: we arrive at a result or we can conclude)
5.	A characteristic tendency towards complex constructions	This contributes to the transfer of a complex system of scientific concepts, the establishment of relations between generic and specific concepts, between cause and effect, evidence and conclusions. For this purpose, sentences with homogeneous members and generalizing words are used with them

6.	The prevalence of different types of compound sentences	In particular, with the use of compound subordinate conjunctions, which is generally typical of book speech: due to the fact that; in view of the fact that, while etc.
7.	Introductory words	The means of communication between parts of the text are introductory words and combinations: first, finally, on the other hand, indicating the sequence of presentation. To combine parts of the text, in particular paragraphs that have a close logical connection with each other, words and phrases indicating this connection are used: thus, in conclusion, etc.
8.	Monotony of sentences	Scientific-style sentences are monotonous in purpose and are almost always declarative. Interrogative sentences are rare and are used to draw the reader's attention to a question
9.	A timeless outline of presentation that promotes the use of three types of syntactic constructions (indefinite-personal, generalized-personal and impersonal sentences)	The actor is absent in them or is idea in a generalized way, vaguely, all attention is focused on the action, on its circumstances. Vaguely personal and generalized personal sentences are used when introducing terms, deriving formulas, when explaining material by examples. For example, "speed is depicted as a directed segment"; "Consider the following example"; "Compare offers"
10.	The way of presentation is the way of proof	The text of even not very large scientific works (articles, messages) is divided into headings, emphasizing the transition from one research episode to the next. The text of a scientific work is created step by step, i.e. the actions within the text are described, forming a logical framework, which is then perceived in the text, saturated with special symbols and corresponding terms, even by an unprepared reader

| 11. | Constructing a logical framework | In a text for any specialty, one can easily identify the linguistic means with the help of which the construction of this logical framework is carried out. These are, for example, verbs: denote, set, compose, define, find, select, consider. The author methodically explains to his interlocutor what kind of mental operations he performs at one time or another (for example, gives definitions, moves on to the next question, gets back to the starting point, gives an example, analyzes the results of an experiment, makes a conclusion, etc.) |

Tasks to practice

Task 1. Carefully study the lexical and grammatical features of the scientific style. Choose the five most important features in your opinion and analyze them (explain your choice, compare, give examples from a scientific text for their practical demonstration).

Task 2. Select an article from a scientific journal or a collection of conference materials and write a review of it, specifying the following: 1) is the way of presentation a way of proof (and what made it possible to come to such a conclusion); 2) does anything in this article indicate the abstraction and generality of the presentation, which are achieved with the help of grammatical features; 3) does this text differ in phraseology of scientific style; 4) are different types of complex sentences common in the text (give examples); 5) is it possible to assert that a logical framework has been constructed in this text, terms related to the conditional language of science are given (give examples).

Task 3. Write a scientific text of 15 sentences, observing the lexical and grammatical features of the scientific style.

Task 4. Choose a text designed in a journalistic style (magazine, newspaper), and rewrite it, observing the rules of scientific style. Mind the main features of these two styles! ***Features of scientific style***: 1) terminology; 2) among nouns there are those that denote a sign, a state; 3) the number of nouns and adjectives is much higher than verbs; 4) multiple use of verbal phrases and words; 5) verbs in the present tense that occur in the text often have a "timeless" meaning, in other words, their lexical and grammatical meaning of time, person, number is weakened. ***Features of the journalistic style***: 1) the communicative goals of the text are informational and influencing; 2) formality, which emphasizes the importance and special significance of the facts, the information provided; 3) a wide range of vocabulary: starting with scientific and technical terms and ending with words of ordinary vernacular vocabulary; 5) the presence of categorical assessments submitted through non-standard lexical combinations; 6) the combination of abstract and concrete concepts in the vocabulary; 7) the fundamental identification of the author with the narrator; 8) the correctness and clarity of the structure of sentences, as well as their simplicity and clarity, should be noted in the syntax.

2.2. PROFESSION-ORIENTED WRITTEN SPEECH: ABSTRACT, INDICATIVE ABSTRACT, INFORMATIVE ABSTRACT, REVIEW

Table 2.2

Language tools for abstract

Semantic component text, articles (books)	Language vehicles
Title and theme	This (present, considered, annotated) article (book) is called (bears a title, is entitled...)
Topic of article (book)	The article (book) is dedicated to the topic (what), written on the topic...
The article says (about what)	The author tells (about what)
Problematic	The article (book) discusses (what), raises the question (about what) The author deals with the questions (what), touches on the problems (what), covers the question (about what), talks about the problems (what), dwells on the following questions...
Content-related characteristic	The article (book) asserts (what), presents a point of view (on what), summarizes work experience (with what, on what), provides an analysis (what), scientific justification (what), assessment (what), description (what), detailed criticism (what), detailed analysis (what), review (what), review (what), report (what)
Composition	The book consists of chapters (parts, sections). The article is divided into parts. *In the introductory part* of the article (in the preface) it is said (what), the question is raised (what), a brief overview is given (what), it is (what), the history of the issue is stated, the author addresses the question (problem).

	Main part of the article provides a description (what), analysis (what), assessment (what). The first chapter gives a characteristic (what), outlines the point of view (views) of the author (what). In the second chapter (part), a significant (large) place is given to (what), much attention is paid to (what), the focus is on (what), and attention is paid to (what). In the final part (in conclusion) the results of the research are summarized, a conclusion is drawn (about what), generalized (what), an assessment is given (what), and emphasized (what)
Illustrative material	The article contains (in the article, the book contains) rich illustrative material, a large number of illustrations, many examples. The author relies on figures (facts, data) obtained (how, from where, where, in what way). The article (book) cites (what), quotes (from where), statements (whose), words (whose), cited (what)
Target	The purpose of the author (article, book) > is to show, explain, reveal (what), give an analysis (what), evaluate (what), draw attention (whose, what). The author aims to show, generalize, analyze (what), assess (what)
Destination	The book (article) is addressed to specialists, a wide range of readers, everyone who is interested in (what), schoolchildren, and students. The article (book) is designed (for whom), is (maybe) of interest (for whom), will interest (whom), is addressed (to whom), affects the interests (whose)

Table 2.3

Language tools for an indicative abstract

No.	Semantic component of text, articles (books)	Language vehicles
1.	Subject and title	See table 2.2
2.	Composition	See table 2.2

3.	Content-related characteristic of the author's text	The author names, describes, analyzes, examines, analyzes, proves, reveals, asserts, confirms (what), compares, juxtaposes (what, with what), opposes (what, what), critically comprehends (what). The article investigates, studies, proves, asserts (what), refutes, characterizes (what, how), compares (what, with what), opposes (what, what), expresses an opinion (about what), presents a point of view (what), it is proved (that). The article contains controversial (debatable) provisions, contradictions
4.	Analysis of different points of view	There are several points of view on this problem. In modern science, the problem is interpreted ambiguously. Let us dwell on several approaches to solving the issue under consideration. One of the points of view belongs (to whom) and consists (in what). The second point of view opposes the first and asserts (what). This point of view is held by (who). The third approach is presented in (whose) works and is reduced (to what). There is another point of view expressed (by whom) in the article (which). The position of the author of the article (book) is close to the point of view (whose), closer to (what)
5.	Basis for approval, conformity or opposition, evidence	It proves, confirms (what). It corresponds, contradicts (what). On the basis of (what) the author claims, considers, proves (what). The author relies on the proof (on what), explains (what, with what), proceeds (from what). Based on (what) the author expresses his opinion (about what)

6.	Inclusion of additional information in the author's text	It is important to note (what), it is necessary to emphasize (what), it must be said (what), it seems important (what), it is impossible not to note (what), it is necessary to add (what), in addition...
7.	Destination	See table 2.2

Language tools for an informative abstract

No.	Semantic component of the text	Language vehicles
1.	Relevance of the problem (topic), which the review is dedicated to	In modern (which) science, the topic (which) is especially acute; the actual problem (what); the scientists (critics, art historians, etc.) are wondering (what)
2.	List of works dedicated to the problem (topic)	There is an extensive literature on this topic. The following works (articles, books) are dedicated to this issue (problem, topic)... This problem is considered in the following works...
3.	Description of the main approaches	There are several approaches to solving this problem. There are three (two) main points of view on the problem. The first approach is implemented in works (whose), the second approach is based on the concept (which one), it is based on the theory (which one), the third approach is that...
4.	Presentation of the essence of different points of view	The author considers (what), the author puts forward a position, concept, theory (what), as he believes (who), in the opinion of (whom), from the point of view of (whom). Essence (essence), basic position (what) consists, consists (what), comes down (to what). According to the theory, concept, interpretation (what), according to the point of view (whose), according to the opinion (of whom, about what)...

5.	Point comparison vision	*Similarity*: The author expresses an opinion similar to the opinion of (whom), adheres to the same views as (who), the position of the author is close to the views of (whom), the author relies on the concept (which, whose), the author is a follower (of whom), he shares the opinion (whom) on the question... (What) unites (whom with whom) in views (on what); (who) is close to (whom) in their position; (who), as well as (who), asserts (what). The authors share the same opinion on the question (which one). *Difference*: The point of view (of whom) is fundamentally different from the views (of whom, on what) significantly / insignificantly, fundamentally different (from what). (What) is diametrically opposite (to what). (What) differs (from what) in that... If (who) claims (what), (who) believes that...
6.	Attitude to the points of view under consideration (in an analytical informative abstract or in the abstract of a scientific work)	Agree/Disagree: We agree / disagree (what). We cannot accept the point of view (which, whose, what)... It's hard to agree (with what). One can agree (with what). One cannot accept the statement (who, about what), because... *Grade*: This point of view is original (interesting, curious). It should be noted (that)...
7.	Motivated choice of point of view	From all that has been said, it follows that the most reasonable is the point of view (whom). Thus, one can stop (at what), since... We accept the point of view of (whom) based on the following considerations... We join the point of view expressed by (where, by whom), because...

Table 2.5

Language tools for reviewing

No.	Semantic component of text, articles (books)	Language vehicles semantic components of the text
1.	Title and theme	See table 2.2
2.	Composition	See table 2.2
3.	Content analysis	See table 2.2
4.	Assessment and its motivation	*Elements of a positive assessment:* The topic of the article is especially interesting (relevant), since... The problem posed in the work is extremely urgent, because... The strength of the work is that... The problem is covered comprehensively, the author's arguments is beyond doubt. The article contains a large number of examples confirming the main theoretical provisions. The conclusions made by the author are very convincing. *Elements of negative evaluation:* The topic of the article is not of great interest, since... The problem considered in the article is quite fully covered in the literature on this issue. The weak side of the job is that... The topic is not fully disclosed. The problem is covered one-sidedly. The author does not consider (what). There is a lack of examples (illustrations, factual material, experimental data) confirming the main theoretical provisions of the work. The author's line of reasoning seems unconvincing. The presentation of the material is fragmentary and inconsistent. Some data (figures, facts) require clarification (verification)

5.	Consent or disagreement message	*Agreement*: We share the author's point of view (on what). We agree with the author that... We take a position close to that expressed (by whom, where). The merits (of what) should be recognized. It should be recognized as important (necessary, useful, interesting, convincing, original, note worthy) (what). It seems important (convincing, interesting) conclusion (about what). There is no doubt (what). One cannot but agree with the author (in what). It should be noted (not recognized) that... *Disagreement*: I would like to object (to whom, about what). I would like to express my doubt (about what). I would like to argue with the author... The statement (conclusion) that... Let us disagree with the author that... I will allow myself to object to the author that... Let us express our doubt that... We take the opposite point of view on the question of... I do not share the author's opinion that... We disagree with the author in views (on what), in assessing (what), in opinion (on what). It is doubtful that... It is not clear what (why, how, why, on what basis)

Tasks to practice

Task 1. Review tables 1–4. Compare the structure and semantic components of the abstract, different types of abstracts and reviews and answer the questions: 1. What is the difference between an overview and an abstract? What are the similarities between an overview and an abstract? 2. What goals are set when writing an indicative abstract? Informative abstract? What are their sources? What is the peculiarity of the analytical type of abstract? 3. What are the similarities and differences between an abstract and a review? What semantic component is the leading one in the content of the review? 4. Do genres of secondary texts allow for duplicate information? 5. To what extent is there logical and theoretical information in the abstract and various types of abstracts? What semantic components does this type of information relate to?

Task 2. Compare several book abstracts. Are all the components of the abstract structure shown in Table 1 contained in them? What semantic components of the abstract are required, what are optional? Which of them can be expressed together, within one sentence? What is the optimal amount of abstract?

Task 3. Make an abstract of an article from the magazine you are interested in (recently read book, term paper).

Task 4. Using the materials (see Table 2.2), write an indicative abstract of one of the main articles (books) used by you in your course work.

Task 5. Write an abstract of the course work containing an analysis of the points of view available in the scientific literature on your topic. Use the materials in Table 2.3.

Task 6. Using the visual materials on the topic, evaluate the abstract part of your friend's course work. What advice would you give to improve its structure, composition and language?

2.3. TEXT ASSESSMENT CATEGORIES

Table 2.5

Text assessment categories

1) axiological assessment	
quality	includes the following ***text quality assessment criteria***: - the novelty of a real concrete situation, the reliability of its reproduction and the validity of interpretation; - the scale and significance of the problem, from the point of view of which a real concrete situation is considered; - the efficiency of the material; - the constructiveness and persuasiveness of the idea; - sufficient completeness and brightness of emotional and expressive means, motivation for their use; - the clarity and motivation of the editing and compositional solution of the work; - semantic accuracy, brightness, memorability of the journalistic image
quantitative	- based on identifying probabilistic and statistical data, calculating the leading elements of the text or those components of the text that are of interest to the researcher; - significant when generalizations and in determining the stylistic dominant in the system of the text, and in the study of its specific linguistic features
utilitarian	assumes that the selection of lexical units is carried out according to the following assessment zones: useful – useless – harmless – harmful
2) logical evaluation	
epistemic	is aimed at revealing the intellectual abilities of a person;
deontic	- represents the qualification of something from the standpoint of opposing the given and the due; - assumes inequality of subjects of communication

Tasks to practice

Task 1. Carefully study the categories of text evaluation and choose the 5 most important categories in your opinion.

Task 2. Select an article from a scientific journal and give its qualitative assessment, indicating the following: 1) what is the novelty of a real concrete situation, what is the reliability of its reproduction and the validity of interpretation; 2) what is the scale and significance of the problem from the point of view of which the real concrete situation is considered; 3) do you think that the ideas presented by the author are constructive and convincing (justify your point of view); 4) completeness and brightness of emotional expressive means and motivation of their application.

Task 3. Write a scientific text of 20 sentences that would meet the following criteria. Criteria for writing a scientific article **by content**: 1) relevance (the acuteness of the raised problem and the significance of its solution not only in the present, but also in the future); 2) novelty and originality (a new idea, technology, method, technique, or original variant of expansion, approbation, proof of the effectiveness of someone's author's idea, method, technology is proposed, therefore it is often determined by comparison with existing developments); 3) persuasiveness (reliability of quotations, reasoned conclusions, availability of statistical results and the logic of their interpretations); 4) scientific concerns (research and development of something new, the use of scientific methods of cognition); 5) methodical (associated with the optimization of the structure of innovation, the sequence and conditions of its implementation). Criteria for writing a scientific article **by the form of presentation**: 1) consistency (determined by the evidence of cause-and-effect relationships, the logic of transitions, the interconnectedness of parts); 2) clarity (often determined by how clear the terms used are, as well as the presence of illustrative examples); 3) originality (determined by the presence of successful analogies, quotations, aphorisms, drawings); 4) completeness (determined by the presence of the main structural parts, the presence of minimal content and completeness of the text); 5) objectivity.

Task 4. Exchange the resulting articles with a groupmate and analyze them step by step: 1) authorship, place of publication; 2) relevance of the topic; 3) novelty; 4) evaluation of genre and style; 5) evaluation of literary review and literature; 6) evaluation of the evidence base; 7) value of the study; 8) validity of conclusions.

2.4. SPEECH TECHNIQUE

Table 2.6

Impact of the speaker on the audience

Means of influence			
Linguistic		Technical	
Text	Voice	Paralinguistic (sound):	Kinetic (visual):
		voice, pause, tone, tempo	posture, gestures, distance, facial expressions, look

Table 2.7

Review of artistic and scientific works

Structure reviews	Review content	
	on the artistic work	to scientific work
Introduction	About the author; about the place of the work in the literary process, art or culture, about the attitude of readers to it, criticism; a brief general assessment of the work	About the author; about the place of work in this field of science, about the attitude of specialists towards it; a brief general assessment of the concept
The main part	A summary of the plot (description of a work of art), characteristics of the main characters, analysis of their behavior, clarification of the author's idea, analysis of artistic features	A brief description of the scientific text, the main provisions of the article (book) and their analysis
Conclusion	Based on the previous analysis, a conclusion is made that confirms or refutes the initial assessment of the reviewer	

Table 2.8

Gesture performance etiquette

Gesture form	
Etiquette (complying with the rules and norms of behavior in society)	*Unlawful* (not in accordance with social etiquette)

For reference. Rhetoric is the science of a living, sounding word. The execution of the speech is the last and important stage of the rhetor's work for the success. Significant assistance in the implementation of this task is provided to the speaker by speech technique – a special section of rhetoric. Its main goal is to teach the speaker to control his voice in the totality of its qualities and capabilities. Technique of speech includes staging / speech breathing, voice, diction, mastering visual means of influencing the audience. The most important part of the rhetorician's skills is the organization of the coordinated work of breathing, voice, articulation, while observing the norms of pronunciation.

Table 2.9

Content-related classification of gestures

Gestures	Descriptive
Rhythmic	duplicating tone and rhythm of speech
Emotional	conveying the emotions of the rhetorician
Pictorial	visually conveying imaginative representation
Indicative	allocating part of the space around the speaker
Symbolic	having a conventional meaning in this context

Scheme 2.1

Types of information by content

Information		
Actual (about facts, phenomena, processes, events)	*Logical-theoretical* (on methods of obtaining facts and conclusions, on their interpretation, on sources of information)	*Evaluation* (expression of the author's attitude to the message)

Scheme 2.2

Types of information according to its relevance
for the content of text

Information		
The main (stating theses and conclusions)	*Additional* (containing the arguments for the main messages, demonstrating the line of reasoning)	*Duplicate* (repeating the content already transmitted by other linguistic means; interpretation of concepts and terms, lexical repetitions, changing the wording of the thesis)

Tasks to practice

Task 1. Using an explanatory dictionary, write down the definitions of the word technique. Answer the question: is the use of the phrase of speech technique justified?

Task 2. Examine scheme 2.1 (the speaker's impact on the audience). Determine what are the main blocks of speech technique?

Task 3. Watch video clips of announcers of TV news programs and talk show hosts, interviews with famous people. Formulate and write down three characteristics of the technique for each speaker. Reveal the speech techniques they used.

Analyze them according to the scheme: 1. The general nature of the reception (voice, mimicry, gesture, etc.). 2. What is this technique manifested in (change of voice, concentration of gaze, movement of hands, change of posture, etc.). 3. What information does this technique transmit? 4. Does the technique play an organizing role in the text? If so, which one?

Task 4. Based on the watched video clips from task 3, please highlight as many ways of expressing attention or inattention to the interlocutor, the audience, as possible.

Task 5. Evaluate the watched video fragments (task 3) in terms of the effectiveness of the speakers' application of paralinguistic techniques (changing the tone and tempo of speech, vocal diversity, rhythmic variation).

Task 6. Watch a video clip of your favorite journalist / announcer / presenter and listen to the student's speech. What is the role of gestures in influencing the audience? Define the types of gestures using the gesture classification. Have you noticed a lack of gestures, unnecessary or monotonous gestures?

2.5. ORAL PUBLIC SPEECH:
PROFESSIONAL MONOLOGUE

Table 2.10

Targets for public speech

Speech structure	Speaker objectives
Introduction	- communicate the topic and problem of speech; - arouse interest, capture the attention of the audience; - to achieve mutual understanding and trust; - prepare the audience for the perception of the material
Main part: - presentation; - arguments (proof and refutation); - illustration	- to formulate the main thesis, statement; - substantiate your point of view; - illustrate theoretical provisions with examples; - to convince the audience; - to encourage listeners to take concrete actions (with an encouraging speech)
Conclusion	- to summarize what has been said, to draw conclusions; - to increase interest in the subject of speech; - to consolidate the impression of the speech

Table 2.11

Techniques for attracting and maintaining audience attention

Attracting attention	Maintaining attention
Statement of the purpose and objectives of the speech	Dialogue intentionally endowing monologue speech with dialogue features. Popularization – the process of disseminating scientific knowledge in a modern and accessible form for a wide range of people (with a certain level of preparedness to receive information)

An appeal to an event, time, place	Advance postponement of reporting interesting facts, details
Arouse curiosity, appeal to the vital interests of the audience	Accent sound, rhythmic, lexical, with pauses
A story about personal experience	An unexpected departure from the topic
An appeal to struggle, conflict	Breakaway from the abstract
Link to a well-known and publicly available source of information, citing celebrities	Kinetics object demonstration, gestures, audience movement, etc.
Introduction of historical episodes	Use of humor

Table 2.12

Criteria for evaluating a speech to a mass audience

1. Relevance of the topic. 2. The activity of the author's position. 3. Interesting?	10. Is there any drama in the presentation (development of the topic)? 11. Is the composition successful? 12. The quality of the illustration of the material
4. New? 5. Earnestly? 6. The depth of the topic	13. Logic and arguments. 14. Emotionality. 15. Naturalness
7. Referring to the text. 8. Contact with the audience. 9. Language and style of presentation (communicative qualities of speech)	16. Speaker behavior during a speech. 17. Speech technique. 18. Compliance with the regulations

Table 2.13

Functional classification of public speaking

Type of performance	Purpose of speaker	Result	Genre and situation
Information	Telling the audience new information about the subject of speech	Adding new knowledge about the subject of speech to the knowledge fund of listeners	Lecture, conversation, report, message, official statement, announcement (congress, conference, various types of seminars and meetings)
Persuasive	Influence for developing a certain point of view	Changing views, opinions about the subject of speech and its assessments by listeners	Controversial speeches, scientific and political discussions, round table discussions, etc.
Stimulating	Impact with the aim of causing certain actions, deeds	Changing the behavior of listeners in the desired direction	Speech at a rally, meeting during the election campaign; briefing, etc.

Note. It should be remembered that more often than not, several functions are implemented in one speech. For example, a lecture on the dangers of smoking, undoubtedly, is both informational (reporting facts), and persuasive (forming a negative assessment of smoking), and encouraging (the desirability of an action – to quit smoking).

Scheme 2.3

Audience Assessment

Evaluation parameters:

• socio-demographic composition (gender, age, nationality);

• the degree of audience homogeneity;

• physical and mental condition;

• professional composition and level of training;

• possible needs, interests, attitudes (attitude to the topic of the speech);

• possible attitude towards the speaker;

• quantitative composition of listeners.

Scheme 2.4

Speaker positions during public speaking

Speaker positions	
Recommended	*Deprecated*
Emotional Leader (with the appropriate mood of the audience and its positive attitude towards the speaker)	Petitioner (currying favor with the audience)
Advisor (placement of 'accents' in the material known to the audience)	
Interlocutor (a common view through dialogue)	Mentor (didactic, moralizing, categorical)
Commentator (report additional information and personal assessments)	
Informant (clean summary of some material)	Tribune (unjustified pathos)

Scheme 2.5

Motives for the hearing

The main purpose of the speaker

Motives for the hearing		
Moral and disciplinary (duty, order, order)	Emotional and aesthetic (interest in personality, desire to be in public, etc.)	Intellectual and cognitive

Scheme 2.6

Impact on the audience

	Audience activation tools		
Change of tone, rate of speech, pause	Means of stylistic syntax and artistic means of language (winged words, etc.)	Appeal to the personal feelings of people	Using visibility

Scheme 2.7

Controversy tactics

	Techniques of polemics		
Attacking the opponent's thesis	Anticipating and attacking the opponent's arguments	Formulation and proof of the antithesis	Refutation of false and unethical facts

Tasks to practice

Task 1. Your task is to captivate the audience, create a certain mood, and induce the desired action for you. Describe the situations associated with this task. Using visual materials choose the appropriate type of presentation, your position during the presentation, methods of maintaining attention in the audience. Choose a topic, prepare your presentation and deliver it to the audience. Evaluate the performance according to the outline.

Task 2. Your job is to build a message containing valuable information for a homogeneous, trained audience. Define the type of your speech, describe the possible situations of such speeches, suggest a number of topics that require such a solution.

Task 3. Imagine that you are a tour guide. You need to give an interesting city tour (museum, exhibition) for a diverse audience. Determine the type of such a speech, your position during the speech, methods of maintaining the listeners' attention, using visual aids. Compose such a speech and deliver it in front of an audience. Rate the performance according to the scheme.

Task 4. Your task is to provide students with practical instructions for independent work. What kind of presentation is it advisable to use? Compose such a speech and deliver it in front of an audience.

Task 5. When does speaking to an audience require a figurative-narrative solution? Introduce a snippet of an oral presentation using a figurative analogy.

Task 6. Compose an entertaining piece of a public lecture, show it to the audience. What means of enhancing attention and mental activity is it advisable to use?

For your information. There are five main ways to prepare for a public speaking: 1) performance may be unprepared and performed impromptu; 2) text of the speech can be written in the form of a plan, theses and pronounced based on them; 3) text of the speech can be written in full and read from the manuscript; 4) text of the speech can be written in full and memorized; 5) performance can be done with preliminary idea, without recording and without memorizing.

Task 7. What type of text preparation do you use: a) when preparing a speech at a meeting, b) when preparing a report for a conference, c) when preparing a lecture for specialists in your field, d) when preparing an excursion? Can different types of training be combined? What exactly fragments of the speech (compositional and content-related) are advisable to be in writing if the text is not available in full?

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