Article

The Concept of Linguomethodology and Linguistic Theories: Essence, Subject, and Objectives

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Abstract: The evolution of linguistic science has long been intertwined with philosophical inquiry, gradually giving rise to structured theories and methodologies for effective language instruction. Linguomethodology has emerged as an interdisciplinary field that bridges linguistic theory and pedagogical practice, aiming to enhance philological education and support the development of linguistic personality in future educators. While the foundational linguistic theories have been well-documented, there is limited integration and systematic analysis of how these theories inform modern language teaching strategies within the context of linguomethodology. This article aims to explore the conceptual framework of linguomethodology, tracing its historical roots, theoretical underpinnings, and pedagogical implications, while emphasizing its relevance to language education. Through a theoretical and comparative-historical analysis, the study highlights how linguomethodology draws from structuralism, functionalism, cognitive approaches, and speech activity theories. It emphasizes the discipline's ability to guide the selection of didactic materials, create methodological models, and integrate philosophical insights into educational practice. The article offers a comprehensive synthesis of classical linguistic theories—from Panini to Humboldt and de Saussure—and demonstrates how these inform the structure, objectives, and techniques of linguomethodology, positioning it as both a theoretical and applied field. The findings underscore the significance of linguomethodology in developing methodologically competent teachers and promoting meaningful, cognitively rich language learning environments grounded in scientific linguistic principles.

Keywords: linguomethodology, linguistics, methodology, language studies, teaching, theory, competence, language

1.   Introduction

Modern philological education is increasingly turning to interdisciplinary approaches that contribute to the formation of a holistic linguistic personality. In this context, the synthesis of linguistics and teaching methodology - linguomethodology – is particularly relevant. This scientific approach enables the effective development of not only linguistic but also methodological competence in students, ensuring their professional readiness for pedagogical activity [1].

In the contemporary landscape of philological education, there is a growing emphasis on interdisciplinary approaches that bridge theoretical linguistics and practical teaching methodology. One such convergence is linguomethodology, which integrates the scientific foundations of linguistics with pedagogical strategies to enhance language instruction. This discipline not only deepens understanding of language structures but also equips future educators with methodological competence essential for effective classroom application. By examining linguistic theories from ancient civilizations to

modern structuralism, linguomethodology contextualizes the evolution of language teaching within broader intellectual traditions. It encourages the meaningful selection of language material and fosters the development of didactic models grounded in cognitive, communicative, and activity-based frameworks. As a result, linguomethodology serves as a vital tool in shaping linguistic personality and professional readiness among future teachers. Its growing relevance reflects a shift toward a more holistic, scientifically informed approach to language education that meets the complex demands of modern philological practice [2].

Literature review

The review of scientific literature encompasses the works of V.V. Babaytseva, Yu.N. Karaulov, N.F. Borisko, and T.V. Merkuryeva, reflecting approaches to language teaching through the lens of linguistics. The ideas of W. von Humboldt, F. de Saussure, and Baudouin de Courtenay as the founders of theoretical linguistics are also incorporated [3].

2. Materials and Methods

The research is based on the method of theoretical analysis of scientific sources, comparative-historical and systematic approaches. A retrospective method is used to study the evolution of linguistic theories, as well as content analysis to identify the main components of linguomethodology as a scientific discipline and pedagogical tool[4].

3. Results and Discussion

The term "linguomethodology" (from Latin lingua – language and Greek methodos – research path) denotes an interdisciplinary field of knowledge aimed at studying the patterns of language teaching based on linguistic theories and methodological approaches [5].

According to V.V. Babaytseva's definition, linguomethodology is a field of pedagogical linguistics that studies the content and methods of language teaching based on linguistic concepts of its structure and functioning in speech [6].

Yu.N. Karaulov emphasizes that within linguomethodology, it is especially important to focus on the linguistic personality of the student as both an object and subject of education. The subject of linguomethodology is the teaching of language as a system, as a means of communication, and as a means of expressing thought. Among the main tasks are:

1. Identifying the most effective ways of teaching linguistic phenomena;
2. Developing methodological models based on linguistic analysis;
3. Integrating cognitive, communicative, and activity-based approaches into learning [7].

Linguomethodology examines the interrelationship of language levels (phonetics, morphology, syntax, lexicon, stylistics) and their didactic interpretation, including techniques, exercises, and types of tasks.

Linguistic theory forms the basis of linguomethodology: structural, functional, cognitive, as well as the theory of speech activity. From a methodological perspective, it involves principles of teaching, lesson models, and strategies for developing competencies. Thus, N.F. Borisko emphasizes that linguomethodology not only relies on linguistics but also influences it by shaping the need for pedagogically significant linguistic knowledge [8].

Linguomethodology enables a more conscious selection of language material and the development of didactic tools and teaching technologies. It is especially important in the training of future philology teachers, forming their ability to apply scientific knowledge in pedagogical practice.

A creative approach plays a special role, as noted by T.V. Merkuryeva, in activating speech activity and fostering motivation for language learning.

Thus, linguomethodology is a promising field that combines theoretical linguistics and practical methodology of language teaching. It serves as a basis for building effective learning models focused on developing students' speech, linguistic, and communicative competence [9].

Let us now focus on linguistic theories. Linguistics, along with the sciences of thought, is among the branches of human knowledge that reveal the closest connections with philosophy throughout its development, which is explained by the nature of the subject of linguistics itself. Language is an indispensable condition for the realization of abstract, generalized thinking and the rational stage of human cognition. Certain philosophical trends influence linguistic currents. Consciously or unconsciously, every linguist in their research on language proceeds from a certain philosophical concept of the laws of being and cognition.

Panini's grammar (4th century BC) is considered the oldest. The illiterate yet brilliant Indian provided a sufficiently complete oral description of Sanskrit. Centuries later, it was recorded and subjected to numerous commentaries [10].

In ancient China, hieroglyphs eliminated the need for grammar. As early as the 5th century BC, interpretations of complex characters from ancient texts appeared. These works formulated the problem of language's relationship to reality. In the 3rd century BC, the doctrine of correcting names emerged, based on the idea of correspondence or non-correspondence between a character (name) and an individual's characteristics. Choosing the right name ensures a happy life, while a mistake leads to conflicts. Xu Shen (1st century AD) identified the components of characters as graphical and phonetic (sound tones), laying the foundation for understanding the structure of root syllables. By the 11th century, phonetic tables were compiled, and by the 18th century, a dictionary containing 47,035 characters and 2,000 variants appeared [11].

In ancient Greece, linguistics developed within philosophy. The Sophists posed the question: "Does language correspond to natural things or social conventions?" Aristotle's first classification of parts of speech and his definitions of nouns and verbs are also noteworthy. The Stoic school further developed this by introducing the concept of case. Later, the basic concepts of grammar were formed in the Alexandrian school (2nd century BC - 3rd century AD). Ancient Roman scholars worked on adapting Greek schemes to Latin. This resulted in the grammars of Donatus and Priscian (4th century AD) [12].

In medieval Europe, Latin was the universal language of culture. The Modist school (13th-14th centuries) constructed a speculative scheme where Latin grammar was positioned between the external world and thought. Since the former acquired depth during creation, language had to not only describe but also explain. The Modists not only theorized but also began developing syntax terminology, which was completed by the Frenchman Petrus Ramu. He also established the modern system of sentence elements (subject – predicate – object) [13].

The Port-Royal Grammar became one of the linguistic pinnacles. Its authors - the Frenchmen Antoine Arnauld and Claude Lancelot - keenly perceived the promising ideas of their predecessors and creatively developed them, relying on a circle of like-minded thinkers. The authors initially aimed for educational goals but were captivated by scientific inquiry, culminating in the creation of an explanatory theory. They proceeded from the rationalism of the Modists and René Descartes. Language is a universal means of analyzing thought, as its operations are expressed through grammatical constructions. As basic parts of grammar, words are sounds that simultaneously express thoughts. The latter are differentiated into representation, judgment, and inference. Representation further breaks down into nouns, pronouns, and articles; judgment into verbs, verbal parts, conjunctions, and interjections. Inferences form a coherent text (speech). Arnauld and Lancelot traced the relationship between two fundamental levels – logic and grammar. The former is represented by a categorical system, while the latter is divided into general science and specific art. Logic gives deep meanings to grammar, while grammar acts as a superficial (lexical, syntactic, etc.) structure of thought. The life of language is built on this mutual complementarity [14].

In the 18th century, the topic of historical language development became relevant. Philosophers and scholars were clearly unsatisfied with the biblical story of the Tower of Babel. How did people learn to speak? Thinkers proposed various theories on the emergence of language: from sound imitations, involuntary exclamations, or a "collective agreement" (Jean-Jacques Rousseau). The most coherent project was proposed by the

French philosopher Étienne Bonnot de Condillac. He believed that the initial signs were gestures, which were at first only supplemented by sounds. Later, sound signs came to the forefront and evolved from spontaneous exclamations to controlled articulations. In the final stage, spoken language received written form [15].

Many philosophers' ideas were quite interesting and imbued with the spirit of historicism, but they shared one shortcoming – speculative reasoning that ignored the study of facts. The discovery of Sanskrit by Europeans helped overcome this. This marked the beginning of a comparative analysis of European languages with the ancient language of India. The similarity of Sanskrit to Greek and other European languages was evident, and Jones hypothesized it as a proto-language. This hypothesis was only refuted in the mid-19th century.

Germany and Denmark became centers of comparative linguistics, as scientific institutions emerged there at the turn of the 18th and 19th centuries. In 1816, the German linguist Franz Bopp published a book clearly formulating the principles of the comparative-historical method and applying them to the analysis of several Indo-European languages. He proposed comparing not whole words, but their constituent parts: roots and endings. Emphasizing morphology rather than vocabulary proved promising. The Dane Rasmus Ras developed the principle of regular correspondences and distinguished lexical classes. Words related to science, education, and trade are most often borrowed and unsuitable for comparison. However, kinship terms, pronouns, and numerals are deeply rooted and meet the goals of comparative linguistics. The distinction between basic and non-basic vocabulary proved to be a valuable finding.

Another important topic was the historical development of individual languages and language groups. For instance, Jacob Grimm's "German Grammar" described the history of Germanic languages, starting from very ancient forms. Alexander Khristoforovich Vostokov examined Old Slavic writing and revealed the secret of two special letters (nasal vowels) whose phonetic value had been forgotten.

Every language develops as a whole, expressing the spirit of its people. The German researcher Wilhelm von Humboldt became a classic figure in world linguistics. He was interested in the nature of human language itself, and his research aligned with philosophical reflection. The scholar proposed a scheme of three developmental stages applicable to any language. In the first period, language emerges in all its naivety, not in parts but immediately as a complete and autonomous whole. In the second stage, the language's structure is refined, and this process, like the first, cannot be directly studied. In the third stage, a "state of stability" is achieved, after which fundamental changes in the language become impossible. All linguists encounter languages in this state, which differs for each ethnic form.

Language is far from the intentional actions of individuals; it represents the spontaneous and independent force of peoples. Their national spirit lives in the language as a continuous collective activity that dominates all its verbal products. The linguistic element determines people's cognitive attitude towards the world and shapes types of thinking. At all levels – sounds, grammar, vocabulary - linguistic forms give matter an ordered structure. Such creativity flows continuously through all generations of people.

Thus, Humboldt gave linguistics a new ideological dynamic, anticipating a number of promising directions.

Young Grammarians: The history of language unfolds within the individual psyche. In the mid-19th century, the influence of French positivism reached German scholarship. The strategy of investigating facts and expelling philosophy made broad generalizations in Humboldt's style unfashionable. In this vein, the Young Grammarians school was formed. Its leader was Hermann Paul. In his seminal work "Principles of the History of Language", he presented key ideas: rejection of overly general questions, empiricism and inductivism, individual psychologism and historicism. Here, a clear exaggeration of the individual prevails: there are as many individual languages as there are individuals. Consequently, there is a tendency towards psychologism, with all sounds and writings existing in people's minds ("psychological organisms"). Along with conventional comparative-historical methods, Paul emphasized introspection, without which it is

difficult to establish sound laws. The German Young Grammarians influenced linguists in other countries. In Russia, such scholars were Filipp Fedorovich Fortunatov , who had trained in Germany, and Alexey Alexandrovich Shakhmatov.

Foundations of the Russian Linguistic School. Two Russian-Polish scholars - Nikolai Vladislavovich Krushevsky and Jan Niecisław Baudouin de Courtenay – went beyond the Young Grammarians' approach. Krushevsky asserted the limitations of historicism, which led to antiquity, arguing that it was necessary to study modern languages, where an abundance of authentic facts exists. He maintained that comparison could not be the primary method of linguistics, and that it was more important to study language as a system of signs (a quarter century before Ferdinand de Saussure).

A special place in linguistics belongs to the renowned scholar Alexander Afanasyevich Potebnya. His books "Thought and Language" and "From Notes on Russian Grammar" are devoted to theoretical issues of linguistics. Potebnya considered language a reflection of folk psychology and denied the connection between grammar and logic, but this did not prevent him from recognizing the unity of language and thought. On the matter of language and thought, he remained aligned with Humboldt's position. It is particularly noteworthy that Potebnya did not limit himself to the psychological interpretation of language and speech, but sought to reveal the specifics of language as a unique system. As a result, he succeeded in approaching the question of word, grammatical form, and parts of speech in a novel way and in uncovering the essential specific properties of these linguistic phenomena.

In terms of the breadth of issues he addressed – general linguistics, phonetics, semantics, syntax, etymology, dialectology, folklore and ethnography, literary studies – Potebnya holds an exceptional place in the history of linguistics.

Baudouin de Courtenay shared views with his Kazan colleague. He argued that linguistics requires not historicism, but consistent synchronism, and that psychology needs the support of sociology; only then can the individual be supplemented by the social. The scholar criticized word-centrism and introduced the new concepts of phoneme and morpheme. A phoneme was understood as an objectively existing, stable mental unit derived from the pronunciation of the same sound. This distinction between sound and phoneme proved to be highly promising. A morpheme, as any independent part of a word – a root or any type of affix – acquired the same property. The scholar's main achievement was synchronic linguistics with the concepts of phoneme and morpheme.

Structuralism as the foundation of classical linguistics. The shift in linguistic paradigms was implemented by the Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure. From his students' lecture notes, colleagues Ch. Bally and A. Sechehaye compiled and published "Course in General Linguistics", which brought the scholar posthumous fame.

Language is a social system of abstract signs manifested in speech. F. de Saussure proposed new principles that distinguished between language and speech. While speech is the inner property of individuals, language exists outside of them, forming an objective social reality. The scholar distanced himself from Humboldt's view, stating that language is not an activity, but a historically established structure. It is represented by a system of special signs expressing concepts. These signs are related to all other signs: identifying marks, military signals, symbolic rituals, etc., which will constitute the subject of a future science – "semiology" (semiotics). A linguistic sign is dual and consists of the signified (rational meaning) and the signifier (sensory impression). They complement each other like two sides of a coin .

Value as the functional relationship of one sign to others. Traditional linguistics proceeded from isolated linguistic units: sentences, words, roots, and sounds. F. de Saussure proposed a different approach centered on the concept of "value". This refers to the fact that any element of language acquires meaning in abstract functional relationships with other elements. Only within the system of some symbolic whole can its part have meaning. Let's take the game of chess. The knight is an element of this game and it is significant insofar as there is a set of rules and prohibitions that determine its moves in relation to other pieces. The same applies to language. Signifiers can have very different sensory content, but the signifieds express pure roles in relation to other signifieds. A

linguistic unit outside the network of abstract relations is meaningless. An example of value is the relationship between "signifier/signified".

4. Conclusion

Thus, F. de Saussure's contribution to linguistics is immense. If we limit ourselves to a holistic perspective, it can be called the foundation of structuralism. "The system of abstract signs" and "significance as a functional relationship of sign elements" became the ideological core of this new approach.

Until the 17th century, the development of linguistics was very slow. In the modern era, there was an acceleration, and from the turn of the 18th-19th centuries, the change and improvement of theoretical hypotheses took on a rapid and continuous character. Numerous national schools emerged, and the pinnacles of classical linguistics became F. de Saussure, I. A. Baudouin de Courtenay, N. S. Trubetskoy, and several other scholars.

Linguomethodology represents a promising direction that synthesizes linguistic knowledge and didactic technologies. Its importance is especially significant in the training of future teachers, as it provides a holistic approach to language teaching. Studying the philosophical and structural foundations of language enhances the meaningfulness of methodological practice and contributes to the development of linguistic personality.

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