Hacettepe University Graduate School Of Social Sciences

Department of English Linguistics

INTERGENERATIONAL ANALYSIS OF KYRGYZ AND RUSSIAN LANGUAGES IN THE CONTEXT OF POST-SOVIET REVITALIZATION POLICY

Aizada SAPARBAEVA

Master`s Thesis

Ankara, 2019

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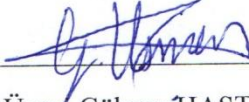
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12/07/2019

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[1] *"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"*

(1) *Madde 6. 1. Lisansüstü tezle ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez **danışmanının** önerisi ve **enstitü anabilim dalının** uygun görüşü üzerine **enstitü** veya **fakülte yönetim kurulu** iki yıl süre ile tezin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.*

(2) *Madde 6. 2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç imkanı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez **danışmanının** önerisi ve **enstitü anabilim dalının** uygun görüşü üzerine **enstitü** veya **fakülte yönetim kurulunun** gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.*

(3) *Madde 7. 1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, **tezin yapıldığı kurum** tarafından verilir *. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, **ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun** önerisi ile **enstitü** veya **fakültenin** uygun görüşü üzerine **üniversite yönetim kurulu** tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.*
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ETİK BEYAN

Bu çalışmadaki bütün bilgi ve belgeleri akademik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, görsel, işitsel ve yazılı tüm bilgi ve sonuçları bilimsel ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, kullandığım verilerde herhangi bir tahrifat yapmadığımı, yararlandığım kaynaklara bilimsel normlara uygun olarak atıfta bulunduğumu, tezimin kaynak gösterilen durumlar dışında özgün olduğunu, Doç. Dr. Emine YARAR danışmanlığında tarafımdan üretildiğini ve Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Yazım Yönergesine göre yazıldığını beyan ederim.

Aizada SAPARBAEVA

ABSTRACT

SAPARBAEVA, Aizada. Intergenerational analysis of Kyrgyz and Russian languages in the context of Post-Soviet revitalization policy, Master's Thesis, Ankara, 2019

This thesis analyses Kyrgyz and Russian languages in terms of language use, language attitudes and language proficiency among young and old generations in Bishkek, the capital of Kyrgyzstan. The aim of this thesis is to investigate language use of two generations regarding Kyrgyz and Russian languages in different spheres of life, measure their proficiency in these languages and to analyze their attitudes towards these languages.

In order to achieve these aims, a questionnaire was administered to 100 ethnic Kyrgyz participants living in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan. The first group involved fifty participants who grew up in independent Kyrgyzstan. The second group included fifty Kyrgyz people who grew up in the Soviet regime.

The data obtained were analyzed by using independent samples t-test and the chi-square test. The findings show that there is a significant difference between young and old generations in the following domains of language use: religious ceremonies, shopping, reading magazines and newspapers, telling the time and address. According to these findings, the young generation uses the Russian language more while the older generation uses the Kyrgyz language more.

 Next, the difference for the following domains is found to be statistically insignificant: family, university and work, interactions with friends outside of work or university, messaging, in writing formal papers and interactions in hospitals and formal places. These findings suggest that there is no relationship between age and language use in above-mentioned domains. The findings of the study also indicate that self-reported proficiency in Kyrgyz and Russian languages do not significantly differ between young and old generations. As for language attitudes, the findings do not show any significant

difference between old and young generations in terms of their attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages.

All in all, this study hopes to contribute to the better comprehension of the language situation in Kyrgyzstan and expand the linguistic information about it.

Keywords

Post-Soviet, Language Revitalization, Language Policy, Kyrgyz Language, Russian Language, Language Attitudes, Language Use

ÖZET

SAPARBAEVA, Aizada. Post-Sovyet Canlandırma Politikası Bağlamında Kırgız Ve Rus Dillerinin Kuşaklararası Analizi. Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara, 2019.

Bu tez, Kırgızistan'ın başkenti olan Bişkek şehrinde yaşayan genç ve yaşlı kuşaklar arasında Kırgız ve Rus dillerini dillerin kullanıldığı alanlar, dilsel tutumlar ve dil yeterliliği bakımından incelemektedir. Bu tezin amacı bu iki kuşağın Kırgız ve Rus dillerini hayatın farklı alanlarındaki kullanmalarını, bu dillerdeki yeterliliklere ilişkin görüşlerini ve bu dillere karşı tutumlarını araştırmaktır.

Bu amaçlara ulaşmak için Kırgizistan'ın başkenti olan Bişkek'te yaşayan 100 etnik Kırgızdan oluşan genç ve yaşlı kişilere bir anket uygulanmıştır. İlk grup Kırgızistan bağımsızlığını ilan ettikten sonra dünyaya gelen elli kişiden oluşmaktadır. İkinci grup ise Kırgızistan Sovyetler Birliği'nin bir parçası iken dünyaya gelen elli kişiyi içermektedir.

Elde edilen veriler bağımsız t-tesleri ve ki kare testleri kullanılarak çözümlenmiştir. Bulgular, genç ve yaşlı kuşak arasında dil kullanımının şu alanlarda oldukça büyük bir fark olduğunu göstermektedir: dinsel törenler, alışveriş, dergi ve gazete okumak, saati ve adresi söylemek. Bu bulgulara göre genç kuşak bu alanlarda Rus dilini daha çok kullanırken yaşlı kuşak sözkonusu alanlarda Kırgız dilini daha çok konuşmaktadır.

Öte yandan aşağıda verilen bağlamdaki farklılıklar istatistiksel olarak önemsiz bulunmuştur: aile ortamı, üniversite ve iş ortamı, üniversite ve iş dışındaki arkadaşlıklar, mesajlaşma, resmi belge yazma, hastaneler ve resmi makamlardaki etkileşimler. Bu çalışmanın bulguları aynı zamanda dil yeterliliğinin yaşlı ve genç kuşak arasında herhangi bir farklılık göstermediğini de ortaya koymaktadır. Dil tutumlarına açısından sonuçlar genç ve yaşlı kuşağın Kırgız ve Rus dillerine karşı tutumlarında herhangi bir farklılık göstermemektedir.

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Sonuç olarak, bu çalışma Kırgızistanda kullanılan dille ilgili olarak daha iyi bir bakış açısı sağlamayı ve bu konudaki dilbilimsel bilgilere katkıda bulunmayı hedeflemektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler

Sovyetler Birliği Sonrası Dönem, Dilin Yeniden Canlandırılması, Dil Politikası, Kırgız Dili, Rus Dili, Dil Tutumları, Dil Kullanımı

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. CLEARING THE GROUNDS

An area of linguistics that concentrates on the investigation of the relationships between community or society and language is called sociolinguistics. It is concerned with the practical side of linguistics and is affected by studies in the social sciences. It especially focuses on what way people literally employ language for communication, in our everyday life situations and investigates language purely in their natural and social context (Hernández-Campoy, 2014: 5).

First of all, it is necessary to identify a difference between terms such as micro-sociolinguistics and macro-sociolinguistics or in different words sociology of language. The objective of the macro-sociolinguistics of language is into exploring by what means social structures may be understood through the research on language. For instance, how definite linguistic characteristics are employed to identify certain social arrangements may be a topic of macro-sociolinguistic research. On the other hand, micro-sociolinguistics concentrates on research of the relationships between language and society. Its main goal is to understand the formation of language and its role in interaction (Wardhaugh, 2006: 13).

It would be useful to give some major definitions of sociolinguistics. For instance, Hudson (1996: 4) interpreted sociolinguistics and commented that it is the research of language in terms of its connection with community and people while the sociology of language is the research of society in terms of its connection to the language. Difference between these two terms lies in the focus of the researcher. The question is whether the investigator is focused on language or on society. The researcher may tend to focus on linguistic features or on social features.

Another definition is given by Coulmas (1998). He states "sociolinguistics investigates how social structure influences the way people talk and how language varieties and patterns of use correlate with social attributes such as class, sex, and age" (Coulmas, 1998: 10). By contrast, the sociology of language inquires how people treat their languages, how opinions and views are formed. In the same way, macro-linguistics studies how speech forms are assigned in society. Further topics of interest are language change, its maintenance, reinstatement, the restriction and communication between speech communities.

Hudson (1996: 2) also emphasizes that the examination of language with regard to society is not completely new. He says that the study of dialects has been a long tradition and especially the relationship between word, its meaning and culture have been investigated for many years. All of the above mentioned can be acknowledged as sociolinguistics. What is seen as new, he states, is the prevalent attention to sociolinguistics and the comprehension that it can shed light both on the language and society.

Mentioning the historical perspective of sociolinguistics it can be said that it is a branch consisting of the integration of linguistic knowledge that evolved from anthropology, partially from ethnography, from sociology, and from dialectology. Besides having the background from above mentioned social sciences sociolinguistics was a response against antecedent Chomskyan and Saussurean models and conventional dialectological research. This reaction developed into another theory named Variationism, which became an outstanding sociolinguistic area of research affected by measurable innovation (Hernández-Campoy, 2014: 7).

Labovian sociolinguists consider and view the language as a social item according to which language is a common property of the community. In Labovian sociolinguistics, systematic patterns are perceived as social-linguistic items that demonstrate a relationship between linguistic characteristics and social components (Pateman, 1987: 59-63 as cited in Vazquez Carranza, 2017).

However, as maintained by Figueroa (1994 as cited in Hernández-Campoy, 2014: 7), the assumptions of these original elements in sociolinguistics were philosophically-based. The implementation of methods in the field in the sociolinguistic investigation is a practice that came from the late 19th century linguists whose main research direction was towards anthropology and ethnography. They collected data in the field, in other words, natural environments where the language is spoken, where people meet and interact (Canger 2001: 779).

When it comes to the scope of sociolinguistics Burling (1972) states "sociolinguistics should encompass everything from considering who speaks or writes, what language (or what language variety) to whom and when and to what end". On the other hand, Mallinson, Childs and Van Herk (2013) describes the primary goal of sociolinguistics as considering language difference and change in correlation to social factors and influences.

Most studied topics of sociolinguistic research can be listed as attitudes towards language (Garrett, Coupland and Williams, 2003), a language and ethnicity (Fought, 2006), language revitalization (Pine and Turin, 2017) and language policies (Hornberger, 2002).

The terms language revitalization, language policies, and language planning have started getting even more attention in the decade following the collapse of the Soviet Union that led to the dissolution in December 1991. The former great power was succeeded by fourteen sovereign countries: Armenia, Estonia, Kyrgyzstan, Azerbaijan, Belarus, Kazakhstan, Turkmenistan, Tajikistan, Ukraine, Georgia, Moldova, Lithuania, Russia, and Uzbekistan (The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2018). For many years and even in case of some countries for hundred years, most residents of above-named countries observed their mother languages being replaced by the Russian language, which was the main language of Tsarist Russia and later of the USSR (Pavlenko, 2008: 76). The disintegration of the USSR in 1991 produced circumstances for an invaluable social and linguistic analysis where fourteen countries were previously joined by the same system where language and political administration were same.

However, now they had to rearrange this linguistic imbalance, provide their titular languages with new status and implement new language policies in the process of building new states and nations. In most of the countries, de-russification was started. This term was described by Wertheim (2002: 2) as "the removal or purification of salient Russian influence

As above-mentioned, language revitalization, language policies and language planning were especially dwelt on during the process of de-russification. These three terms have been explained below.

Language revitalization is a sign of changing the social and geographic dispersal and the functional allocation of language. It adds up both new speakers and new use, extending the use of the language to a young generation who will become its native speakers. In this way, it guarantees intergenerational transmission, which is can be considered as one of the most significant aspects in language vitality (Ferguson, 1983 as cited in Wright, 1996: 5).

At the same time, language revitalization adds the functions concerning the domain of family and home which results in different types of informal and intimate language use and the affiliated emotional associations of the language. Wright (1996: 6) holds the view that successful language revitalization policy also maintains the learners with adequate exposure to the language, both in formal and in informal language use, to make learning possible. Another important term to be mentioned is the language policy.

As stated by Spolsky (2004: 9) "language policy may refer to all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or policy". Spolsky (2004) also adds that the language planning of a community may consist of several elements. First components are language practices that are repeated features of selecting amid the variations that form its linguistic range. Second components are language beliefs or ideologies which are generally the beliefs about the language or the language use. Third components are any particular efforts to change or affect language practice through any type of language planning, management or intervention. Therefore, language policies

deal with languages and their varieties and with their parts as well. It also involves attempts to limit what is thought to be bad language and to encourage what is believed to be a good language

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997: 3) explained language planning as an intentional attempt with the aim of changing a language or its functions in society. These terms are also identified and referred in detail in the following chapter.

Today only three of Post-Soviet countries preserve Russian as their official language (Dietrich, 2005). Kyrgyzstan is one of them. The other two countries are Belarus and Kazakstan. The Kyrgyz Republic (also mentioned as Kyrgyzstan) was founded on 14 October 1924 as a self-governing country inside the Russian Federation.

On 5 December 1936, Kyrgyzstan became Kyrgyz Soviet Socialist Republic (abbreviated Kyrgyz SSR) and consequently maintained autonomy in administrative and social affairs. Kyrgyzstan announced its sovereignty on 31 August 1991. However, the Kyrgyz language was announced as a state language only after the adoption of the Law on Languages in 1989.

The independence brought on changes such as transferring the documentation and system of education into the state language, in other words, Kyrgyz language and motivated changes in pronunciation of topographical and personal names according to Kyrgyz spelling (Abazov, 2004).

 Kyrgyzstan is situated in Central Asia and shares its borders with China from the eastern side, with Tajikistan from the southern side, with Uzbekistan from the western side, and with Kazakhstan from the northern side (Ember and Ember, 2001: 1235).

It is a bilingual country where most people know both Kyrgyz and Russian languages. Baker (1988) defines bilingualism as "a person who can listen, read, speak and write in two languages". Wei (2000) states that "bilingual" mainly depicts someone who has

mastered two languages. One language is a mother tongue and then the second language is learnt at school or in the community. In addition, Wei (2000: 26) outlines bilingualism as "language is the property of the group, bilingualism is the property of the individual". Baker (1995) says bilingualism has several consequences. Maintained by Baker (1995: 10) "bilingualism has educational, social, economic, cultural and political consequences". Haugen (1953: 7) describes bilingualism as "the ability to produce complete meaningful utterances in the other language".

According to the World Population Review, in 2019, the population of Kyrgyzstan is estimated at 6,196,576. Based on its results the biggest group are the Kyrgyz people. They make up 72% of the total population. Other ethnicities in Kyrgyzstan include Russian people who make up 9.0% of the total population, Uzbeks make up 14.5% of the total population, Dungans make up 1.9%, Uyghurs make up 1.1%, Tajiks make up 1.1%, Kazakhs make up 0.7% and Ukrainians comprise 0.5% of the total population. More than 80 different ethnicities are accounted for living in Kyrgyzstan.

According to Ethnologue, which is an encyclopedia cataloging all of the world's 7,111 known living languages, there are two official languages in Kyrgyzstan. One of is them is Kyrgyz (2010, Constitution Article 5: 1) and Russian (2010, Constitution article 10: 2).

The linguistic situation after the collapse of USSR was quite confusing and unclear. The first reason was that the Russian language was dominant in the Soviet era. All documentation was carried out in Russian. Knowing Russian meant access to culture and literature. Using Russian meant more prestigious way of life. A sudden change which made the Kyrgyz language a national language and guaranteed its protection put people in a linguistic dilemma (Ismailova, 2004). Another problem was that although there was an ambitious switch to Kyrgyz, it was not able to introduce it as a language of governing (Orusbaev, Mustajoki and Protassova, 2008). Nevertheless, quite common attempts were made to translate formal papers into Kyrgyz. In most cases, those translations were initially written in Russian. This kind of translation was frequent those days. This fact also affected the quality of the translated text, particularly if it was

learned as a secondary language by the interpreter. Most papers that initially were scripted by people who knew Kyrgyz well served as samples for other people. Because most people were fluent in the spoken form of their mother tongue but not in the written form (Ashirbaev and Ahmatov, 2001 as cited in Orusbaev, et al 2008). Only 16% of workers with administrative jobs were fluent in both Kyrgyz and Russian (Andreeva and Khruslov, 2004: 27). At the same time, most scientific research and linguistic research was mostly produced in Russian.

In 2011, Kyrgyzstan`s ex-president Roza Otunbaeva's speech arose the debate in the country. She said "The Kyrgyz language has not yet properly established itself as the country's state language; today it has an inferior position. We still should know Russian, the official language. No one is belittling other languages, the language of our large ethnic minorities, but we have to reconsider the role of the Kyrgyz language." (Najibullah, 2011).

In 2015, Kyrgyz president Almazbek Atambayev expressed his discontent that graduates of Russian school do not know the Kyrgyz language. The president added that comprehensive knowledge of the state language is a concern for the country's future and that "knowledge of the language and of the history shapes a feeling of belongingness to the common Kyrgyz nation in people and that all of them make one motherland, one homeland." (Interfax, 2015).

1.2.   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Sociolinguists have carried out studies about general linguistic situation in Kyrgyzstan (Ferdinand and Komlosi, 2016; Odagiri, 2012; Orusbaev et al, 2008). However, such studies were not enough to comprehend the real linguistic situation in Kyrgyzstan. There are not frequent studies that concentrated on sociolinguistic aspects such as language attitudes of Kyrgyz people towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages. In addition, the use of Kyrgyz and Russian languages in different language domains has not been particularly examined. Another aspect that needs to be clarified is language proficiency in Kyrgyz and Russian languages. The significance of studying these

aspects is that it contributes to the better comprehension of the language situation in Kyrgyzstan and expands the linguistic information about it.

1.3.   AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this research is to analyze language use of two generations regarding Kyrgyz and Russian languages in different spheres of life and measure their proficiency in these languages based on their reports. The other aim of this study is to analyze their attitudes towards these languages.

1.4.   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In parallel to above-mentioned aims this study attempts to find answers to the following research questions:

1) Is there a significant difference between the two generations in use of Kyrgyz and Russian? What are the domains where the Kyrgyz language is used more and where the Russian language is used more? What are the domains where there is no difference in regard to the use of these languages?
2) Is there a significant difference between two generations in their self-evaluated language proficiency in regards to Kyrgyz and Russian languages?
3) Is there a difference between two generations in terms of their language attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages?

1.5.   LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

There are several limitations in this study that could be addressed in future research. First, the study concentrated on language use in different domains. Participants had to indicate what language they used in each of the domains. Choices were between Kyrgyz, Russian and both languages. However, the concept code-switching which is described as "the shifting or change of accent by a speaker from one language to

another language" has not been mentioned. Therefore, the possibility of switching from Kyrgyz to Russian or from Russian to Kyrgyz during a single speech has not been explored.

The second limitation concerns the language use in the family domain. Participants were asked to choose either Kyrgyz or Russian or both languages. Nevertheless, we should bear in mind that family generally includes siblings parents and in some cases grandparents. The language use may differ within this domain depending on the interlocutor. However, in this research participants were requested to indicate the language they use most with their family in general but not separately with each family member.

Third, it should be taken into account that present study targets to analyze Kyrgyz and Russian spoken in Bishkek, capital of Kyrgyzstan which is in Chui Region. There are seven regions in Kyrgyzstan in total. Thus, the analysis of Kyrgyz and Russian languages may not be applicable to all regions of Kyrgyzstan. Second, another possible limitation of the present study is that during the pilot study initial version of the questionnaire was distributed to only ten students who were representatives of the young generation. It was administered to only three of older generation representatives. To sum up, the results of the study should be taken into account with these limitations.

1.6. OUTLINE OF THE STUDY

This study is arranged in the following way: Chapter 1 clears the grounds of the study. Also, the statement of the problem, the aim, the research questions and limitations of the study are presented in this chapter. In Chapter 2, the theoretical framework of the thesis is given. The previous studies in the related areas and the explanations of terms such as the language revitalization, language policies, and language attitudes are presented. Also, information on the linguistic background of the Kyrgyz language is given in the same chapter. Chapter 3 contains information about the method of the study, including information about the participants, data collection tools, data collection procedure, and data analysis. In Chapter 4, the findings of the questionnaires on language use, language

proficiency, and language attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages are discussed based on the results of the survey. In the last chapter, conclusions based on data analysis are presented and the answers to the research questions are provided. In addition, suggestions for future studies are given.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND OF KYRGYZ LANGUAGE

In the current part, the linguistic features of the Kyrgyz language are highlighted. The Kyrgyz language is the state language of Kyrgyzstan while the Russian language has the status of the official language. The Kyrgyz language is a part of an Altaic language family, Turkic Branch, Kipchak division (Kasapoğlu Çengel, 2007: 485). Its features are closely related to Kazakh, Nogay, Tatar, Kipchak-Uzbek languages. It is noted that it is possible to find many similarities between Kyrgyz and Altay languages. Approximately 4.5 million people speak Kyrgyz and speakers are mainly in Kyrgyzstan, and also in different countries such as Turkey, Uzbekistan, China and Russia (Ager, 2019).

It is written in Cyrillic alphabet. Prior to that Arabic and Latin were used. There are 3 dialects: Northern, South-Western, South-Eastern. Literary Kyrgyz language is based upon Northern dialect (Kasapoğlu Çengel, 2007:485).

The Kyrgyz language is an agglutinating language which means that suffixes are added to words to denote a case, gender, the number (Imanov, 1990: 12).

In the Kyrgyz language parts of speech are classified according to the semantic, morphological and syntactical principles. Parts of speech are classified into three groups. First are parts of speech which have descriptive content and sensing properties: noun, adjective, numerals, pronouns, verbs, and adverbs. The second category is a special category which is used to express emotions or different sounds: onomatopoetical words, interjections. The third one is a functional category which lacks descriptive content and marks grammatical properties: conjunctions, post positions, particles, modal words or verbs (Abduvaliev, 2003).

There two ways of word formation in the Kyrgyz language: morphological and syntactical ways. The morphological way is when suffixes are added to the base word and make a new word. The syntactical way is when two or more words are combined to make a new word. In the Kyrgyz language, a lot of words are built this way.

There are eight vowels in the Kyrgyz language. These are a, э, у, ү, и, ы, о, ө. Another feature of Kyrgyz that it has long vowels. There are six long vowels: аа, ээ, оо, өө, уу, үү. For example, *жаак/jaak* "jaw"; *моок/took* "chicken".(Kasapoğlu Çengel, 2007).

Like in all other Turkic languages vowel harmony is also present in the Kyrgyz language. (About World Languages, Kyrgyz, 2018).

The Kyrgyz language has got 19 consonant phonemes or sounds. They are "б, в, г, д, ж, з, й, к, л, м, н, ң, п, р, с, т, ф, х, ц, ч, ш, щ". Their main duty is to categorize word meaning. (Kasapoğlu Çengel, 2007).

Stress in the Kyrgyz language tends to fall on the last syllable of the words (Ethnologue, 2019).

Lexico-semantic and grammatical connections between components of a phrase are different. According to those differences, phrases are divided into independent and steady phrases (Akunova, Raimbekova, and Karamendeyeva, 2010).

The phrase in which components are independent of each other and can form new phrases with new components are called independent phrases. The bond between components is not so strong. Therefore, it is possible to add any words between components.

A phrase whose components are closely interrelated and form a new meaning is called steady phrase. Because components are closely interrelated, it is impossible to change their position or add a new word between them.

A sentence is the main syntactic unit of the Kyrgyz language, which contains an information message, motivation or question. All sentences have a grammatical basis.

There are several features of a sentence. They are communicativeness, predicative, modality, intonation. Communicativeness is the main feature of the sentence. Sentences make our communication possible. It is an instrument that helps us interchange our ideas, opinions (Akunova, 2010: 45).

The reality of action is defined by the tense. Tense may verify the action.. The possibility of the action is also defined by the tense. The necessity of the action might be also defined by the tense. Tense might be express hope that action will happen. (Imanov, 1990: 23)

According to the purpose of utterance, sentences can be a declarative, question, imperative and exclamatory according to the emotions it expresses (Akunova, 2010) Declarative sentences are sentences that inform people about different events, actions that took place. Question sentences are sentences that are asked by the speaker to a person who he is talking to in order to get some information. Question sentences are formed by wh questions are yes/no questions. Imperative sentences are used to give a command, ask to do something, request for action. Generally, there is no subject. A sentence which expresses emotions or other feelings is called exclamatory sentences. According to the number of clauses, it can be a simple or complex sentence. A simple sentence consists of a single clause. A complex sentence is a sentence which contains two clauses.

As a final remark, word order in Kyrgyz language sentences usually follow the structure as SOV(Subject-Object-Verb).

2.2. LINGUISTIC BACKGROUND OF RUSSIAN LANGUAGE

Russian is the language of people living in Russia, the Russian nation. By origin the Russian language is a part of the Indo-European language family and further it belongs to Slavic group, East Slavic branch. It was stemmed from the Old Russian language between 14th-15th centuries, Ukrainian and Belorussian languages stemmed from it likewise. Approximately 250 million people all over the world speak Russian, encompassing 180 million people on the territory of the former Soviet Union. The closest languages to the Russian language are Ukrainian and Belorussian. Out of these two Belorussian is the closest. Other close languages include Serbo-Croatian, Macedonian, Bulgarian, Slovene (South Slavic branch) and Polish, Czech, Slovak, Upper Sorbian, Lower Sorbian, Polabian (West Slavic branch). On the huge area of Russian Federation, it is almost impossible to see dialectal differences. All people speak the standard literary language. Russian is written in the Cyrillic alphabet. The Russian alphabet comprises of 33 letters.

From a typological perspective, the Russian language is synthetic, otherwise the inflectional language (the inflection is often called the ending), i.e. a language in which grammatical meanings (gender, number, case, one person or another, time, etc.) are expressed by the forms of the words themselves (Rahmanova and Suzdaltseva,1997).

The traditional classification of parts of speech in Russian includes ten parts of speech. they are noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, numerical, prepositions, conjunctions, particles and interjections.

Noun in Russian language is a word that stands for a thing or an object. Noun has a gender, number, and case. All these grammatical categories can be seen in the nouns' endings. A noun modifies its ending depending on its case and number. There are six cases. They are Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Instrumental and Prepositional.

In Russian, adjective modifies a noun and in agreement agrees with it in gender, case, and number. There are also some short adjectives that do not inflict.

Verbs are words used for actions, states of being, or events. Verbs have tense – past, present or future. Present and future tenses might indicate persons – first, second or third, whereas the past tense might only indicate gender and number. Russian verbs can form three moods: indicative, conditional and imperative.

Adverbs do not have grammatical categories. They do not have endings, they are fixed. They transform verbs, but they are stable.

Pronoun, numerical, prepositions, conjunctions, particles, and interjections are considered as functional parts of speech as they do not make sense on their own but rather they perform a supporting role. (Rybacheva and Golitsina, 2004)

The word building in Russian is through the derivational morphology. Russian consists of two kinds of morphology: inflectional and derivational. Derivational morphology is also named "word formation" because it does not only show the connections of words within a phrase, its function is to produce a set of new words from old ones. In Russian, this aim is achieved by adding prefixes and suffixes (Filipova, 2009).

In Russian, stress placement is mobile. It means that any syllable in a word can be stressed. Pronunciation in Russian is phonetic. There is usually agreement between how the words are written and read . However, there are some essential exceptions thay need to be learnt by heart.

There is not any classification of vowels into long and short vowels. Consonants are classified as palatalized and non-palatalized consonants. There are not any diphthongs in Russian language. Sounds are usually less intensified and arduous than in English. Stress is free and mobile. It means that it might emphasize any syllable of the word or various syllables inside the set of the word types. (Lefeldt, 2010).

In Russian there is a comparatively independent word order From a sentence below, it can be seen that the components can be in any order:.
 a. Oleg uznal Maksima. SVO

b. Oleg Maksima uznal. SOV

c. Maksima uznal Oleg. OVS

d. Maksima Oleg uznal. OSV

e. Uznal Oleg Maksima. VSO

f. Uznal Maksima Oleg. VOS   (Kallestinova, 2007).

2.3.   DEFINITION AND DESCRIPTION OF A LANGUAGE REVITALIZATION AND LANGUAGE POLICIES

As it has been mentioned in Chapter 1, Post-Soviet countries have become a fruitful context for sociolinguistic research. Terms such as language revitalization, language policies, and language planning were key terms in research. Although many people may be familiar with these concepts, it is a good idea to revise the terminology.

Language revitalization includes the reconstruction or reinforcing of a specific language in regions where they predominated before being displaced by other, more powerful and prestigious languages. In summary, language revitalization has a lot to do with languages that are not used in everyday communication anymore, as well as with those that are limited to use only in certain contexts (Hinton, 2003).

Romaine (2006: 464) describes language revitalization as "language revitalization, which can be understood as not necessarily attempting to bring the language back to former patterns of familial use, but rather to bring the language forward to new users and uses".

Most of the time the language revıtalization has been confused with "Reversing Language shift (RLS)" which Fishman put through in 1991 and described as "assistance to speech communities whose native languages are threatened" (Fishman, 1991: 1).

Marquis and Sallabank (2013) describe the difference by saying that RLS aims to support and maintain the current community but not the potential speakers.

At the same time, they also describe the other term, namely language support, which also brings confusion. According to their definitions language support is the same as language maintenance. At this point, language maintenance needs to be clarified.

Crystal (2008: 267) describes language maintenance as "a term used in sociolinguistics, referring to the extent to which people continue to use a language once they are part of a community in which another language has a dominant position". He demonstrates an example of immigrant groups. They might, he says, "maintain their language, out of a sense of language loyalty, despite the dominance of the language of their host country; or a community may continue with its language successfully despite the presence of a conquering nation" (Crystal, 2008: 269).

Further, language revitalization is explained by King (2001: 24, as cited in Marquis and Sallabank 2013: 23) as "the attempt to add new linguistic forms or social functions to an embattled minority language with the aim of increasing its uses or users".

Grenoble and Whaley (2006: 13) provide another explanation. They state "whereas the goal of revitalization is to increase the relative number of speakers of a language and extend the domains where it is employed, maintenance serves to protect current levels and domains of use".

Therefore, we can summarize that language revitalization means counteracting anything that causes or are still causing language shift. There are some particular reasons such as historical, economic, communal, or political aspects that have influenced language shift. That is why an effective language revitalization program needs to address a set of factors. Each case is unique in its own way, but they do share common factors. The aim of language revitalization is, thus, to determine these issues. Grenoble and Whaley

(2006: 21) divided them as macro level and micro level variables. These levels are demonstrated below in Figure 1.

Macro-variables   Micro variables

a) extra-national   b)national   c)regional   local
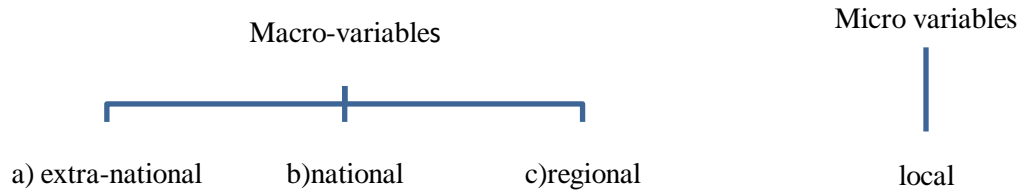
Figure 1. Types of variables (Adapted from Grenoble, 1998)

As it can be seen from Figure 1, macro variables encircle external forces which affect language vitality. First, an extra-national variable is an outside factor which can change the vitality of a language. Globalization can serve as an example. Because of economic integration, promotion of trade between countries, some languages become lingua franca which could affect the future of a language. Young generation might be unmotivated to learn their language as it may not give any rewards in a modern world or it might be not so prestigious.

On a national level, we can mention some examples such as language policies in the country, attitudes toward multilingualism, governmental support of minority groups, policies in education.

Next one is a regional level is a geographical unit which generally refers to a political body inside a larger national domain. Some of the examples are western Ireland, the Autonomous Regions in China, provinces of Canada. All of these provide an influential setting for local language use. There are two variables at this level which are important to revitalization. They are the role of regionally prevailing languages and language density.

Figure 1 also shows that micro-variables mean a local level. The local level is important in language revitalization. There are variables that are important at this level. First, are

language attitudes. They are defined and explained further in this chapter. Positive language attitudes at a local level help to sustain language revitalization. Second, are human resources. By this, the number of the speakers, their skills which can be brought the revitalization program or project is meant. A revitalization process has to firstly start with an honest evaluation of human resources. Speakers are necessary in order to teach the language and to help establish new domains for language use. Next variable is a religion. It is important as it is one of the domains of language use.

In addition, there is a connection between communities that maintain their religious beliefs and communities which maintain their language. Other two variables are literacy and financial resources.

Grenoble and Whaley (2006) have discussed the most common revitalization programs.

The first type of programs is called total-immersion programs. It is viewed as the best revitalization program by many linguists. This idea is constructed upon on the presupposition that the most effective method to acquire a language is to create an environment in which that language is used all the time.

Second, are partial-immersion or bilingual programs. Bilingual programs including some courses taught in local language and classes taught in the language of wider communication.

Third, the program where the local language serves as a second, ''foreign'' language is proposed. In this program, an endangered language is introduced and taught as a foreign language.

Fourth programs are community-based programs. They are developed inside the structure of the local learning scope. These programs concentrate on a domain or domains of language use rather than concentrating on language instructions. They usually select a community activity which is suitable for non-formal learning styles and

motivate participation. Thus, by deliberately administering the actions with the local language, language instruction becomes indivisible.

The fifth is a master-apprentice program. This program was designed to pair language learners and "masters" elders who still speak the language. They formed a master and apprentice and elder taught a language.

Language reclamation model is also considered a key to revitalizing a language. Amery (2000: 17) described it as " the revival or reclamation of languages which are no longer spoken". In reclamation model, one has to rely on whatever documentation of the language remains.

At last, documentation is also included as a model because many revitalization attempts start, with language documentation. Linguists enter communities to document the languages spoken there.

Next important step is to give a definition to language policy and language planning. Crystal (2008: 268) describes language as "a term for a deliberate, systematic and theory-based attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying its various languages and dialects". According to him, language planning develops language policy.

Other linguists such as Baldauf and Kaplan (1997) also support the idea that language policy is a component of a bigger language planning process: "The exercise of language planning leads to, or as directed by, the promulgation of language policy by the government (or other authoritative body or person). Language policy is a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the societies, group or system."

Marquis and Sallabank (2013) use policy to refer to any decisions, principles, positions concerning language, its role, and nature. Meanwhile, she uses planning to refer to

actions taken to support or maintain a language.

On the other hand, Johnson (2013: 9) summarizes by saying "language policy is a mechanism that impacts the structure, function, use, or acquisition of language".

Spolsky (2004: 17) explains a language by giving an example of successful language policy in Montreal in Canada. Based on these cases and others he differentiates between three elements of a language policy. First are language practices that are the customary pattern of picking among the diversities that constitute its linguistic repertory. Second are its language beliefs or ideologies that are the views about language and language use Third are any particular endeavors to alter or affect that practice by any kind of language intervention, planning or management.

After defining language policy it is also useful to define types of language policies as well.

Johnson (2013) divides language policies into top-down which is "a language policy developed at a macro- level by a government or authoritative body" or bottom up which is "a language policy developed at a micro-level for example in a community and it is aimed at that community".

Language policies could also be explicit which means it is official and documented or implicit which means it is unofficial or undocumented. Other types are covert that is intentionally hidden at macro or micro levels and overt that is openly expressed in texts.

In addition, a language policy documented in law is called de jure and policy in "practice" is de facto.

In summary, this part has provided an overview of language revitalization, terms that are confused with it, types of revitalization programs. Also, variables on which

language revitalization needs to be considered are presented. It also dealt with language policies and types of it.

2.4. AN OUTLINE OF SOVIET LANGUAGE POLICY

This part is going to maintain a summary of Soviet language policy because the roots of the language policy of Kyrgyzstan were found in the language policy, carried out in the Soviet Union (Chotaeva, 2014: 4).

The February Revolution that took place in 1917 paved a way to the end Russian hegemony and the foundation of a totally new regime. Vladimir Lenin, who was in exile for many years, came back and became the leader of the Revolution. However, even before the Revolution, Lenin and his advocates had organized a meeting and talked about future language policies for the region (Grenoble, 2003). Lenin, in spite of his devotion for the Russian language and his faith that Russian needs to be adopted voluntarily, emphasized "the absolute equality of all languages in a multinational state and was strongly against the maintenance of any single obligatory state language".

Under his direct influence, at the Party Congress which took place in March of 1921, the nationality question was discussed. To be precise, it was decided to help local people to build their Soviet identities in ways that are appropriate to their national features and lifestyle of these peoples. Further, it was decided to develop administrative bodies in their mother language and to hire local people who knew the lifestyle and psychology of the local people (Crisp, 1990: 23).

In 1922, it was decided to establish the Soviet Union and the Central Committee organized a committee to discuss and plan the future Constitution for the newly established system, which was made official in 1924. The USSR (Union of Soviet Socialist Republics) was organized. Fifteen Union Republics were part of it and occupied a huge land surface. It became the largest state known in the past of the world. The Soviet Union Republics constituted the main administrative structures of Soviet

territory. The Russian Soviet Federated Socialist Republic (SFSR) was the greatest. The rest fourteen Republics were merely called as Soviet Socialist Republics or shortly SSR.

As Grenoble (2003) states that then the Republics were divided into six geographic areas as the Baltics (Estonian SSR, Latvian SSR, and Lithuanian SSR); the Caucasus (Armenian SSR, Azerbaijan SSR, and Georgian SSR); Central Asia (Kazakh SSR, Kyrgyz SSR, Tajik SSR, Turkmen SSR, Uzbek SSR); Slavic territory and Moldova (the Belorussian SSR, the Moldavian SSR, the Russian SFSR, the Ukrainian SSR).

Comrie (1981: 23) asserts that a fundamental principle of the just organized Soviet State was the attempt of identifying its residents on the principle of their nationality. This building of nationalities was to be achieved by means that were called the "convergence and fusion of peoples".

The Soviet government established Narkomnats whose main function was to resolve all the questions concerning the nationalities of the Soviet Union. Some of the resolutions stated that nationalities could use their native languages, education was allowed in their native language, literature was allowed to be published in their native languages. (Alpatov, 2000: 38).

Then an attempt was to devise a simplified form of the Arabic script that was used in many Soviet states. However, this idea was soon abandoned, and it was decided to introduce writing systems based on the Latin alphabet for all languages of the Soviet Union. One of their reasons given for the choice of the Latin alphabet at this period was the need to avoid the impression that Russian was being imposed particularly amidst traditionally Islamic people because the substitution of their conventional script, had also religious, cultural and linguistic connotations. The Latin alphabet; thus, an agreement between the clash of the Arabic and Cyrillic scripts. At this time, there was also some talk of converting Russian to the Latin alphabets, this can also be seen as part of a plan to generalize the Latin alphabet to all languages of the U.S.S.R. (Comrie, 1981: 26).

The nativization policy was also an effort to produce a schooled workforce in order to industrialize the states in a fast manner. The policy was officially started in June 1923 while Stalin proposed it during the Fourth Meeting of the Central Committee of the Russian Communist Party and made a speech as:

> A Communist in the border regions must remember that he is a Communist and therefore, acting in conformity with the local conditions, must make concessions to those local national elements who are willing and able to work loyally within the framework of the Soviet system. This does not preclude, but, on the contrary, presupposes a systematic ideological struggle for the principles of Marxism and for genuine internationalism, and against the deviation toward nationalism. Only in this way will it be possible to eliminate local nationalism and win the broad strata of the local population to the side of the Soviet regime. (Stalin 1954, 5: 300).

Stalin`s plan had some drawbacks. Common illiteracy and low level of education were several of them. The rate of nativization differed from one region to another. For example, locals of Georgia and Armenia were improving quite well because of most their level of education. At the same time, Central Asia and Siberia were basic illustrations of the obstacles due to the large proportion of the illiterate and uneducated population. As a result, the native peoples of some Soviet States could not be employed as a workforce. Just the previous representatives of aristocracy in Central Asia were well-equipped and they were not good candidates due to their class background. Providing education was not an easy issue. In most situations, a lack of teaching materials and instructors. In other cases, a shortage of books in the local languages created the problems. Inadequacy of local teachers and books led to the fact that most courses were taught in Russian, language that was unclear to the biggest part of the learners (Grenoble, 2003: 56).

Another significant step in nativization process was a campaign against illiteracy. It has become an important force for language policy. It was named as *Likbez,* from Russian *Likvidatsiia bezgramatnosti* which is translated as "liquidation of illiteracy". This

literacy policy in native languages resulted in improvement of the use of those languages (Dietrich, 2011: 466).

Derbisheva (2009) drew some conclusions of Soviet policy for Kyrgyzstan. For 70 years, the Russian language carried all the most significant roles in most spheres of social life. Russian served as a language of preschooling, primary, secondary, high schools and universities. Television, radios broadcast in the Russian language. Cultural institutes, such as theaters, cinema used it too. Russian also dominated in other fields like in writing and in research; in official business communication at the level of both power structures and judicial authorities in villages and in cities; it was a language and everyday communication not only among ethnic Russians, Slavs, but also overwhelming most ethnic Kyrgyz, Uygur, Dungan, Uzbeks, Germans, Turks, Meskhetians, etc. and finally, it was a language of international communication of all nationalities of the entire population of the republic. In short, the Russian language held a leading position in the communicative space of Kyrgyzstan. At the same time, it should be stated that the sphere of functioning the Kyrgyz language was very limited. Educational institutes with Kyrgyz as the language of command were maintained only in isolated mountainous areas. There were no universities with the Kyrgyz language of instruction. In addition, official business documentation was not conducted in the Kyrgyz language. Similarly, newspapers in Kyrgyz were not published were very often.

Nineteen eighty-nine is considered to be a turning point in terms of language policy. Nine of fifteen Soviet states accepted laws that supported the language of the titular nationality during that year. Among these was Kyrgyzstan, where Russian had neglected to some extent the language of the Kyrgyz (Huskey, 1995: 1). Also, the organization of the education in Kyrgyzstan or other Central Asian countries was a form of the Soviet model, and there were few schools until Russian hegemony. The twentieth-century Soviet schools were mostly under the influence of Moscow. Important decisions such as curriculum, staff, school organization were taken by Moscow. Local administration representatives and education experts were very seldom part of the discussion on the planning of Kyrgyz education, and this was by design (Deyoung, 2005: 38).

2.5.LANGUAGE POLICIES IN KYRGYZSTAN FROM 1991 TO THE PRESENT

This part describes all language policies that were implemented or attempted to do so since 1991.

The Soviet Union fell apart into fifteen separate independent countries in 1991. All countries were left on their own. For all countries, it meant establishing everything: be it politics, economy and a language. One of the main things countries started dealing with is a language situation (Fierman, 2006). However, Kyrgyzstan started language planning while still being a part of USSR, in the late 1980s to be precise (Huskey, 1995).

The Law "On the State Language of the Kirghiz SSR" was accepted on September 23, 1989, and it introduced significant changes in the language balance that developed during the years of the Soviet system (Chotaeva, 2014)

This document assigned the Kyrgyz language the status of the state language, and it also maintained liberal development of the native languages of all other nationalities who lived in the republic. It said, "In the Kirghiz SSR, every citizen has the right to freely choose the language of communication". Article 16 of this law stated that local state authorities and administrations in the territory of residence of national groups (Uzbeks, Tajiks, Germans, Dungans, Uighurs, and others), along with the state language, are privileged to use their mother language. Those who do not speak these languages are provided with the appropriate translation(Den gosudarstvennogo yazika, 2017). The acceptance of the Law "On the State Language of the Kirghiz SSR" was a great contribution to the further improvement of the Kyrgyz language. It helped raise the national self-awareness of the Kyrgyz people and increased the status of the state language.

The law that was adopted in 1989 was intended to lead to the equilibrium of the sphere functioning of two languages: Russian and Kyrgyz. The main orientation in the new language situation was the desire for the development of active bilingualism, and it was

mainly about the Kyrgyz- Russian bilingualism. According to the law, acts of public authorities and management were to be maintained in the language of that country and published in both Kyrgyz and Russian languages (Derbisheva, 2009).

As Derbisheva (2009) indicates that the ensuing step in language policy was the presidential "Decree On Further Development of the State Language of the Kyrgyz Republic" from 20 January 1998. The first aim was to develop the state language and conduct unified policy for its implementation in the practice of public life, provide coordination of activities of state and public organizations. This decree decided on forming the National Committee on the State language. The main task of this committee was to coordinate the spread and active usage of the state language in all legal bodies including mass media (Li, 2007: 30).

At the same time in order to upgrade the progress of the state language and to start its gradual implementation into clerical work or documentation Presidential Decree No. 2 from 20 September 2000, approved the Program for the Development of the State Language of the Kyrgyz Republic for 2000-2010 (Ministry of Justice of The Kyrgyz Republic, 2000). Also, this decree approved the formation of the Institute of State Language and Culture on the basis of the faculty of the Kyrgyz State Pedagogical University named after Ishenaly Arabayev. The purpose of the Program was to raise the language status to a level that ensured fulfillment of its direct roles. The main attention was paid to the activities on the use of the Kyrgyz language and its wide application in all spheres of public activity. Ten main directions of development of the state language were identified and grouped according to two levels.

The first stage was planned to be implemented between 2000 and 2005. At this stage, a set of measures was adopted to stimulate the national foundations of the state language. It also aimed to create a system for designing new textbooks and methods for teaching the state language that met modern requirements. The other goal was to unify the terminology and official documentation in the Kyrgyz language, improving translation quality and standards, expanding the scope of the functioning of the state language in the scientific field.

The second stage was planned between 2006 and 2010. It covered a set of measures for the further development of the first stage such as the dissemination of advanced technologies for teaching the state language, the improvement of textbooks and the consolidation of terminology by branches of science. The translational activity was planned to be raised to a professional level, improvement of business papers and forms, the intensification of the Kyrgyz language teaching to representatives of other nationalities.

In summary, the main directions for the improvement of the state language were as follows:

1. Increasing the constitutional status of the state language. Strengthening the legal framework for the development of Kyrgyz language and its implementation in relevant legal structures.

2. Improving the teaching of the state language as a subject of study and teaching other disciplines in the state language.

3. Development and publication of new generation teaching aids in the state language that meets the requirements of today.

4. Stimulation of scientific research conducted in the state language.

5. Development of terminology and publishing terminological (industry) dictionaries.

6. Translation of documentation into the state language.

7. Improving the quality of translation materials, preparing translators.

8. The propaganda of the state language, development of methods for developing interest and respect for the native language.

9. Enhancing the role of the state language in building civil society.

10. Support of children's publications in the state language.

Along with the acceptance of the Law on the Kyrgyz language, in May 2000 Russian language got the position of an official language. According to it, all citizens of Kyrgyzstan were entitled to use the official language in the state power bodies and local government systems. In turn, structures of state power and local government systems were to accept documents submitted by citizens in the official language (Li, 2007).

Another change in the law concerning state language was passed on 2 April 2004 (Ministry of Justice of The Kyrgyz Republic, 2004). In accordance with this law, the Kyrgyz language was acknowledged as the state language of the Kyrgyz Republic. This law made the Kyrgyz language mandatory in all spheres of state activity and local self-government. Next, the Russian language got the status of an official language. This also guaranteed to representatives of all ethnic classes forming Kyrgyzstan the privilege to protect their native language, to produce circumstances for its study and advance.

Later, on 2 June 2014, the head of state confirmed the National Program for the Development of the State Language and the Improvement of Language Policy in the Kyrgyz Republic for 2014-2020 (Ministry of Justice of The Kyrgyz Republic, 2014). The main goal of this program was to build an effective language policy that maintains complete functioning of the state language as a significant factor in strengthening the position of the people of Kyrgyzstan under the preservation of the languages of all ethnic communities in the Kyrgyz Republic. The most important aim was the formation of a new multilingual generation of Kyrgyz, freely mastering the state and official, as well as international languages.

This program aimed to achieve the full-scale task of the state language in all spheres of the public life of the republic. It was decided to develop further the state language, enrich its informational and educational resources and strengthen its functionality. Improvement and standardization of educational and methodological foundations of teaching the state language as a native language, as a second language and as foreign were mentioned again. Formation and development of infrastructure, an accredited network of centers on teaching the state language was the next objective. To achieve previously mentioned aim stimulation of the process of teaching of the state language was planned. With the increase of the level of language culture of the population cardinal upgrade of the quality of education for the official and foreign languages was also expected. While employing language policies the maintenance and protection of the native language of ethnic communities were also guaranteed.

The realization of the project was divided into three stages. The first stage was named preparatory (2014-2016). At the first stage, the program provided the preservation of schools with training in the languages of ethnic communities and financing from the state. The gradual growth of the number of subjects taught in state language was envisaged.

The second stage was the main (2017-2018). It aimed deployment of a certification system for public and private municipal employees, workers in the spheres providing state and municipal services, knowledge of the state language. Another aim is the introduction of a system of multilingual education.

The third stage (2019-2020) was planned to be corrective. It was designed to cover a scope of problems related to the functioning of state language as a language of interethnic communication, its use in socially significant spheres of public life, with creating conditions for the formation of continuous multilingual education (preschool, school, vocational, higher).

On 25 April 2013, the Kyrgyz Parliament adopted alterations to the law "On the state language" in the third reading, according to which all documentation will be conducted

in the Kyrgyz language. These changes to the law "On the state language" proposed fine for not knowing the state language of the Kyrgyz citizens, and it also suggested that all state documentation must be conducted in the Kyrgyz language. For the amendments to enter into force, the president had to sign it.

However, in December 2012, the head of state Almazbek Atambayev said at a meeting with journalists that he would not sign this bill. : " If this law is passed by the Jogorku Kenesh as you say, that is to those who do not know the language, administrative fines will be applied, I will not sign it. Because before demanding from a person, it is necessary to create conditions for learning the language", Atambaev said then. These amendments caused a lot of debates and mostly negative ones. For instance, the non-governmental organization Freedom House said that the new law on state language in Kyrgyzstan, considered by the parliament, breached international human privilege norms and the Constitution of Kyrgyzstan (Kim, 2013).

Other alterations and additions were made to the Law of the Kyrgyz Republic on advertising on 8 August 2006 (Ministry of Justice of The Kyrgyz Republic, 2006). According to those changes, all advertising (on paper, on mass media) had to be issued in both state (the Kyrgyz language) and official (the Russian) languages.

But then, because of a conjunction of different rationales, Kyrgyz people are one of the ethnic groups that had been under the influence of Russia the longest time in the former Soviet Union (FSU) and the most Russified in Central Asia. Moreover, Russian still functions not only as a way of career establishing, as it was during the Soviet times, but also, to a large extent, as a way of surviving (Kosmarskaya, 2015).

Overall, this is the summary of language policy implemented from 1991 to 2019.

2.6. DEFINITION OF DOMAINS OF LANGUAGE USE

This section provides some information on domains of language use as they were used while designing the questionnaire.

Fishman (1972: 20) describes domain is "a sociocultural construct abstracted from topics of communication, relationship between communicators, and locales of communication, in accord with the institution, of a society and the area of activity of speech community in such a way that individual behavior and social patterns can be distinguished from each other and yet related to each other". Hence, the languages employed by people are affected by many components. Fishman (1972) states that the components which influence the conception of the sphere are topic, role relation, and locale. He says that subject can be a governor of language use in multilingual backgrounds. For instance, one modifies his or her speech to the interlocutor's language while talking about definite topics. Marjohan (1988) says that "role relation" denotes that the languages you are speaking are regulated by the interlocutors you talk to. For instance, the father speaks to the mother, the child speaks to mother, and mother speaks to the child. He also asserts that "locale" denotes that the places where the discourse occur affect the languages you are speaking. According to Tanner (1967), there are elements of choice for the background in the locale. The elements are theme or subject, social remoteness, and factors for encouragement. In the social remoteness, there are two proportions: vertical and horizontal ones. The vertical proportion denotes that the use of the language is defined by the comparative place of somebody who is associated with another people. Marhojan (1988) states that respect changes depending on social status, age or marital status. The horizontal proportion corresponds to the related familiarity of one with others. You are likely to employ a low code if you speak to somebody who is familiar with you in terms of the degree of friendship, sex, ethnic background, religious background or educational background. Someone has motivational factors when he or she is interested to speak with the interlocutors or interested in the topics even manipulative.

Here are a few descriptions of domains of specific language use. They show typical addressees, settings, and topics.

Ager (2001: 130) differentiates public, private or intermediate domains. Romaine (1992: 83) goes deeper and breaks down the sociologic domain into subdomains. Apparently, the more the number of domains or subdomains in which a language is used, the higher the vitality of a language is.

Parasher (1979) also suggested a model consistent with which each social structure was defined such as family, religion, friendship, neighborhood, transaction, education, government, and employment.

These are several domains previously used in various studies. However, in this research, the researcher employed adjusted language domains. The adjustments were made based on the research participants i.e.young and old generations. Therefore, six language domains used in this research were: family, friendship, religion, leisure time, education and employment, communication.

2.7.DEFINITION OF ATTITUDES

In this section, the definitions for term language attitudes are given.

First of all, it is good to explain the word attitude. First, Bohner and Wanke (2002: 5) characterize attitude as "a summary evaluation of an object or thought".

Shaw and Wright (1967) gave a brief distinction between attitude and beliefs in order to avoid ambiguity. According to the beliefs are cognitive and account only for one component of attitudes. There are two kinds of beliefs. First types are descriptive beliefs, which include recognition concerning the world and prescriptive beliefs, which involve "should" or statements. Opinions could be explained as clear beliefs and are expressed in speech, while attitudes may be hidden and brought on by both written and

unwritten procedures. Values are thought to be elevated models which individuals attempt to reach. They are more conceptual than attitudes since they surpass definite situations (Schwartz, 2007: 170–171). People might have many values but even more attitudes (Perloff, 2003: 44).

Linguist Oppenheim (1992: 177) identified various degrees of attitudes. The first level is "opinions", further is "attitudes", "values" are the next and at the deepest level is "personality".

Opinions

⇓

Attitudes

⇓

Values

⇓

Personality
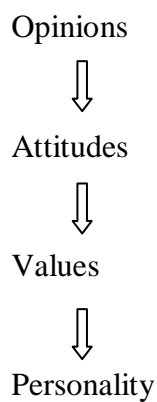
Figure 2. Levels of attitudes (Adapted from Oppenheim,1992)

On the other hand, Allport (1935: 839) described the attitudes in the following way: "Attitudes are never directly observed, but, unless they are admitted, through inference, as real and substantial ingredients in human nature, it becomes impossible to account satisfactorily either for the consistency of an individual's behavior, or for the stability of any society".

Alternatively, Henerson, Morris, and Fitz-Gibbon (1987: 13) gave much more general description "the word attitude is used quite broadly to describe all the objects we want to measure that have to do with effect, feelings, values, and beliefs".

Edwards (1982) stated that attitudes have cognitive, affective, and behavioral components. They are cognitive in that they contain beliefs about the surrounding

world. They are effective in that they include views about an object of attitude. And they are systematically associated with behavior because they make us act in a certain way.

In general, there are two psychological approaches to attitude research: the behaviorist and the mentalist views. Both theories support the idea that we attitudes are not innate but they are acquired, especially all along socialization process during their juvenility and youth time. Behaviorism may be a logical hypothesis which contends that human activity is diminished to behavioral components.

The behaviorists see that attitudes are induced from the reactions a person makes to social contexts. Inquiries carried out through this approach are more direct than inquiries carried out by a mentalist approach because no self-report is needed.

Most attitude investigations have chosen the mentalist perspective. A mentalist view defines attitudes as an "internal state of readiness", which is initiated by any stimulation. The conclusion is that attitudes are not directly observed but deducted from respondent view. It means that investigators must count on the people themselves to narrate their insights. Mentalists generally presuppose a threefold model of attitude which recognizes "cognitive, affective and conative components" (Bohner and Wanke, 2002: 5). They report that "Recent research in social psychology suggests that not all of these three components will necessarily be represented in any given attitude and indeed, that the components cannot always be distinguished from one another with regard to the speaker".

Another important point in defining language attitudes whether attitudes have unitary or multiple structures. Some of the linguists view attitudes as having multiple componential structures (Rokeach, 1968). They claim multiple components consist of three components: a) cognitive b) effective or evaluative c) conative or action.

Rokeach (1968) states that attitude is built of a system of beliefs and each bel'ef in the system is composed of above-mentioned components.

There are also other views that define attitudes as a unitary component. Osgood et al (1957) claim that attitudes are formed of effective components only.

2.7.1. Language attitudes

The sphere of interest of language attitudes includes a broad scope of focuses. Baker (1992: 29) has identified and described the focal points of language attitudes research into:

1. Attitude to language variation, dialect and speech style

2. Attitude to learning a new language

3. Attitude to a specific minority language (such as Welsh)

4. Attitude to language groups, communities, minorities

5. Attitude to language lessons

6. The attitude of parents to language learning

7. Attitude to the uses of a specific language

8. Attitude to language preference

Additionally, Crystal (1997: 215) defined attitudes as "The feelings people have about their own language or the languages of others".

Fasold (1984: 148) suggests "attitudes toward a language are often the reflection of attitudes towards members of different ethnic groups".

Appel and Muysken (1987) express that there are two generally two hypothetical techniques that are notable to the investigation of language attitudes. The first one is in the light of behaviorism, based on which attitudes must be analyzed by watching the reactions to unchanging languages, their use in real communication. The mentalist approach believes that attitudes are an internal, mental state, that brings about definite aspects of conduct.

Most language attitudes deal directly with language questions and try to analyze and describe concepts. Most of the studies fall into three categories: attitudes that are based on language, those that deal with community stereotypes toward definite languages or language variations, those that are concerned about the application of different types of language attitudes.

Studies such as classical-standard-official against modern-non-standard or vernacular or studies on creoles, pidgins or trade languages can be an example of the first category.

Studies dealing with the social significance of languages or attitudes in multilingual settings can be an example of the second category.

Major topics in the third category are language usage and language choice, behavior toward a language (Grenoble, 2003).

2.7.2. Measuring Language Attitude

Studies dealing with language attitudes employ different types of data-gathering techniques. Questionnaires are the most popular instruments for eliciting data.

The questionnaire is the leading tool for gathering data. Lavrakas (2008: 652) describes it as "the main instrument for collecting data in survey research". It is a collection of systematized questions that are usually named *items*. These items pursue a fixed structure so as to gather information dealing with specific topics.

Questionnaires usually consist of three parts. First, the part is the introduction part or so-called cover letter. The cover letter briefly gives information about the research and attempts to persuade respondents to do the survey task. At the same time, the aims of the research are explained and the confidentiality is promised. The second part is the instructions on how to answer the survey question. Instructions include the rules about how the respondents must reply to the questions. It is advisable that rules should be as easy to understand as possible.

The last is the main body where actual questions are presented. Usually, the survey is finished with a thanking note to the respondents for their cooperation. Ultimately, the main body includes questions that respondents have to answer. Questions may be about what people are, do, think, or remember. The questions may be open-ended that ask for your opinion. Another one is closed questions. A closed question item has three questions: the focal object, the dimension of appraisal and a set of rating terms from which respondents need to choose. The rating terms differ in degree of complexity: some items need yes/no answer, others a choice from a 5-point Likert scales.

Lavrakas (2008: 427) describes the scales as "a special type of the more general class of summated rating scales constructed from multiple ordered-category rating items". It's distinctive features are below: a) every item employs an array of answer classification that indicates different ranks of agreeing or disagreeing with a specific prompt or with the assertion conveying a view or assessment b) the answer points for each item are designated from "Strongly agree" to "Strongly Disagree".

Osgood et al (1957) introduced a special model, the Semantic Differential instrument, in which technique evaluates a person's exclusive meaning of anything. The semantic differential is considered as an arrangement of attitude range. Participants are asked to

assess the subject of research by using a 7-point evaluating scale. At this scale number 0 usually stands for ''neutral,'' number 1 stands for ''slightly,'' number 2 stands for quite,'' and number 3 stands for''extremely''. The range is arranged in such a way that the left position is usually positive and the right is usually negative. It grants the semantic differential to assess to what extent something is intensive and direct. The rating scale is composed of two opposite answers. These answers are usually opposite adjectives. For instance, the semantic differential may apply the terms good and bad as two bipolar replies.

Next technique term is matched guise technique that was brought out by Lambert and his fellows in 1960. It was primitively promoted to study people's views in the direction of social, geographical or ethnic language variations and to the various languages spoken in bilingual societies. As stated previously, this approach includes inquiring interviewees to assess the individual features of speakers whose voices are registered on tape, by which the same speaker uses distinctive language varieties. Hence, the interviewees check out the individual qualities of the people written on tape – without realizing that it is the same person – according to the linguistic variation employed, and together with the conventional ideas and social bias of these linguistic variations, which are likely to be fixed.

2.8. STUDIES ON THE LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDES IN KYRGYZSTAN

The collapse of USSR has created a rich basis for researches, studies in all fields such as sociology, politics, economics, and linguistics. The new term as Post-Soviet studies has evolved in many fields.

The Kyrgyz social, political, sociolinguistic situation has also become a subject for studies. The current chapter is going to give a short summary of the language studies regarding Kyrgyzstan.

Most of the studies aimed to evaluate the language situation in all Post-Soviet States in general. To be particular most of the studies focused on the status of Russian in new states. Generally, Central Asia was taken into consideration as a whole part. Most of the studies were too general or comparative that included two and more states of the Post-Soviet region.

Dietrich (2011) examined the development and implementation of language policies in five Central Asian countries including Kyrgyzstan. On the other hand, the researcher analyzed the status and a possible future of Russian languages in these five states accordingly. She investigated language policies from Soviet time till present time and gave a general outline of the lingual situation in every country and the status of the Russian language. While discussing the possible future of Russian language she mentioned that Kyrgyzstan is one of the countries where the status of Russian is the most assured. Dietrich says the factor that Russian is an official language in the country maintains ground for the long-term survival of it in Kyrgyzstan. The close economic ties with Russian is another main factor. She claims that despite all the efforts Russian is going to be significant in the life of Central Asia because "Russia's growing economy will always make Russian language lingua franca".

Another paper by Aminov (2010) investigated the usage of language and language policies in Post-Soviet Central Asia. This paper provided facts and data about language use and its use in different spheres. According to them, many parents consider that is significant for their kids to have a good knowledge of Russian rather than the one they use at home. In their research, many people were aware that a good command of Russian was necessary to access to information, higher education and better job opportunities. They also analyzed language use in spheres like government, judiciary, army and police, advertising. As a result, it is been noticed that efforts were being made to balance the use of both Kyrgyz and Russian in every sphere of life.

The article of Pavlenko (2008) compares the language policy in connection to the Russian language and language practice in the territory of fourteen post-Soviet countries. It studied the connection between the language policy that predetermines the

position of the Russian language in every country, the language choice in the public sphere, including in the field of education and employment, and the language situation in private practice that allows us to understand the real state of the Russian language and predict its trends save and transmit. The analysis was based on censorship data and reviews, and where possible also sociolinguistic and ethnographic studies. The result showed that in all 14 Post- Soviet states except Belarus the use and functions have decreased. She suggested that four factors such as the ethnic and linguistic composition of the society, ideological factors, educational and employment policies, countries political and economic orientation influence the maintenance of Russian in these 14 states.

In another research Pavlenko (2008) studies the multilingual situation in Post-soviet states. The cross-country comparison was made. Results demonstrated that the five of Post-Soviet countries differed in their language policies. In Kazakhstan and Kyrgyzstan, Russian was improved to an official language, whereas in the other countries it served as a language of interaction between ethnicities.

Orusbaev (2008) aimed to provide a general overview of a linguistic situation in Kyrgyzstan. The research was conducted within the frame of the INTAS project "New language identity in transforming societies: Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, and Uzbekistan". It was enormous research concerning the language use and building language individuality in Central Asia, financed by INTAS(" International Association for the promotion of cooperation with scientists from the New Independent States of the former Soviet Union"). Results were estimated based on the date from questionnaires administered among Kyrgyz, Russians, and other ethnic minorities in different regions of the country. Results demonstrated that being Kyrgyz and speaking Kyrgyz was becoming more essential for Kyrgyz people; the Russian language remained functional, but most Russian people wanted the young generation to acquire several languages. Those respondents who had already forgotten their mother tongue, or did not acquire it at all, were not optimistic concerning the prospect of Kyrgyz language.

Based on Orusbayev`s research we can say that the attempts to improve the use of the Kyrgyz language on different ranks of social use did have some effectiveness.

Another research was carried out in the frame of the thesis. Tyson (2009) claimed that the Russian language is still prestigious in the former Soviet Union (FSU hereinafter) countries that include 14 countries as it functions as a regional lingua franca. He conducted his research by indirect methods. He visited the official government websites of FSU countries. Most of them offered Russian versions of websites (out of 27 websites visited by a researcher 23 offered Russian versions;7 out of 27 had Russian as a default language). Census sites of all countries besides Belarus and Kyrgyzstan offered information in Russian and their titular languages. Belarus and Kyrgyzstan had a version in the Russian language (Since then the situation changed in Kyrgyzstan. It has a version in Kyrgyz now). Yet, he stated Russian as a lingua franca is dying because the number of young people learning it is decreasing.

The second type of research was more specific and aimed to investigate language situation only in Kyrgyzstan.

The round table under the name "Multilingual education and mother tongue education for national minorities in Kyrgyzstan" was organized in the southern city Kyrgyzstan, Osh, in April 2003. This round table was organized by Cimera. It is a private, non-profit organization founded in 2001 and based in Geneva. Language policy and education are one of their expertise fields) and OSCE. The purpose of the round table was to discuss multilingual education in Kyrgyzstan and the possibilities of introducing multilingual education models for national minorities. The participants presented their views on this topic. Beatrice Schulter made a speech on the linguistic condition of Kyrgyzstan and the function of teaching methods. She reported that the reason that ethnic Kyrgyz parents or parents of different background send children to schools with Russian as a language of command because a good command of Russian means accesses to any kind of information, higher education and better job opportunities. Thus she says "This puts parents choosing a school for their children into a practically unsolvable dilemma: either they send their children to a school with mother-tongue instruction, thus ensuring the

sound development of their children's ethnic identity, but putting their educational opportunities and professional future at risk. Or they can choose to send their children to a Russian school, with the risk that their children will forget their mother tongue." According to her, due to the above-mentioned dilemma, Kyrgyz is psychologically put subordinate to Russian. Although Kyrgyz is taught in Russian schools and vice versa the problem still exists. The reason is that Russian taught in Kyrgyz schools is not enough for communication while Kyrgyz taught in Russian schools faces the same problem. The problem she says "not because of the lack of States will guarantee the proper knowledge of all languages. The problem is more of psychological nature and it lies in the dominant attitudes of people and pedagogy and methodology prevailing in schools". On the other hand, she says "because the State language (the Kyrgyz) is considered as the language of the ethnic group, it is difficult for members of other ethnic groups to learn this language".

As a solution to this problem, she proposes to teach state language as a means of communication not as a mean of symbolic belonging.

Another participant of this round table Imankulov and Toktosunova presented her research. She stated that a language is a form of promotion of cultural heritage. Therefore, learning another language other than your mother tongue means also promoting dialogue, tolerance between ethnicities. At the same time, she said that bilingualism is developed unevenly in Kyrgyzstan. Primarily, Kyrgyz is not acquired in schools because of the lack of communicative and informative elements of teaching methodology. She suggests implementing the Kyrgyz language from kindergarten in a natural way, developing electronic Kyrgyz, organizing social events in the Kyrgyz language. This way we can preserve richness and uniqueness of Kyrgyz. Otherwise, she expressed her concern, that the status of Kyrgyz might appear on the list of extinct languages.

Research by Ferdinand and Komlosi (2016) analyzed the language situation in the capital city of Kyrgyzstan, Bishkek. The main subjects of this research were students between 14 and 18 years old. Both observation and questionnaires were employed to

gather data. This research aimed to evaluate the realistic language situation in Bishkek; thus help create more effective language policies.

According to the results, Kyrgyz should be thought of as an endangered language in Bishkek. Findings showed that despite the fact that many of the parents used Kyrgyz for communication, there was a tendency not to hand down it to their children. Researchers put forward the idea that this tendency may be because of the sense of the dominance of Russian among the Kyrgyz people, who recognize that language is an instrument of international communication and of social advancement. They concluded that due to this tendency students are forced to learn Kyrgyz at school and as a school subject rather than learn it at home. They underlined that the capital city acts as a pioneer in many trends including languages; therefore, they came to the conclusion that there is an urgent demand for an influential language planning and policies in Bishkek to motivate bilingualism among its residents. They stated, "Kyrgyz may have its days numbered in Bishkek, the cultural, political and industrial nucleus of Kyrgyzstan, which might doom the language forever".

Odagiri (2012) in his article tried to investigate the language use of people in Kyrgyzstan and analyze the characteristics of the Kyrgyz language. His conclusions were built on the outcomes of face-to-face interviews with ethnic Kyrgyz . His analysis clarified three features of language use of Kyrgyz people. The first feature of a language use he focused on was the variety of language proficiency among ethnic Kyrgyz people. Although the Kyrgyz language is a state language and Russian is an official language that does not mean that people are highly competent in both of them. Thus, even Kyrgyz people were not equally adequate in both Kyrgyz and Russian. Especially, it is important to mention that distinctions occur between the aptitude to speak and the aptitude to read or write, which is due to diverse factors. Still amidst Kyrgyz who view themselves to be 'bilingual', some claimed that they could not comprehend while reading in Kyrgyz, despite the fact that they all indicated Kyrgyz language as their native language. Secondly, he argued that the language usage of Kyrgyz people is defined by a mixed-use of Kyrgyz and Russian. Most of the informants said they used *aralash language*. Therefore, one attribute of language use of indigenous Kyrgyz people

could be displayed as an *aralash* use of Kyrgyz and Russian. It appears that people have pragmatic opinions towards this type of language pattern against the setting of long-timed linguistic touch between Kyrgyz and Russian.

The third feature was the language used in relation to ethnicity. Most people said they would use the Kyrgyz language to a Kyrgyz person and they would use Russian with other ethnicities. While many people feel that other ethnicities do not have to be competent in Kyrgyz, they feel that the Kyrgyz language is the essential element of ethnic individuality.

Odagiri concluded that the characteristic of the development of a state language in the setting of Kyrgyzstan could be characterized as the development of Kyrgyz language without entirely removing the Russian language.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This section presents information about the participants, data collection tools, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

3.1. PARTICIPANTS

In a total of 100 participants living in Bishkek, Kyrgyzstan took part in this research. All the participants are ethnic Kyrgyz. In other words, both of their parents are Kyrgyz.

There are two groups of participants. The first group involved fifty participants who grew up in a country emerged after the collapse of USSR or in independent Kyrgyzstan. Therefore, it can be argued that they were free of Soviet ideology. In addition, they were undergraduate students of the universities in the capital of Kyrgyzstan. Their age was between 18-25. Twelve of them were female participants and thirty-eight were male participants.

The second group included fifty Kyrgyz people who grew up in the Soviet regime. Their age was between 54-61. The number of male participants was twenty-one and of female participants twenty-nine.

3.2. DATA COLLECTION

 This section introduces the pilot study, the tools used in the study to gather data and the procedures followed. It also provides information about how the data collected from the questionnaires were analyzed.

3.2.1. Pilot Study

Before distributing the questionnaire to the participants a pilot study was done to see if the questionnaire was comprehensible and included no ambiguous questions. A pilot study was put through on a sample of ten participants (six female and four male). Their ages ranged between 18- 25. They were students of Kyrgyz Medical Academy. Three participants aged 54-61 were requested to fill and make comments on the questionnaire. The comprehensibility and relevancy of the items were investigated by the participants. They were also asked if there were any questions that they did not understand or any they would refuse to answer for various reasons. They were requested to agree or disagree with the following statement: "The questionnaire is adequate to measuring my language use, language proficiency and language attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages". The participants all reported that they had no problem in comprehending the items. Therefore, no new items were proposed to be added to the questionnaire and the participants approved the statement.

3.2.2. Data Collection Tool

The data of the study were gathered through a questionnaire. Brown (2001: 6) identifies questionnaire as it as "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers". Dörnyei (2003) divides questionnaires into two: interview schedules and self-administered ones. This study employed the latter to gather the data.

The questionnaire was designed by the researcher and is consisted of three parts. At the beginning of each part, there are instructions (See Appendix 1).

The first part mainly aimed to find out about language use in different domains. It was designed based on the six domains of language use adjusted by the researcher and consisted of twelve items. These twelve items are given in Table 3.

Table 1. Items in the first part of the questionnaire

What language do you use….?
with your family?
at the university or at work?
with your friends outside of work or university?
in a religious context? (funeral, prayers)
in sending messages(through a phone, the internet)
for writing notes, letters, petitions)
in bazaars or the shops?
in hospitals?
Do you read newspapers, magazines in?
in legal bodies?
to tell the time
to tell the way?

The domains are family (item 1), education and employment (item 2), friendship (item 3), religion (item 4), communication (items 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12), leisure time (9). There are also certain settings in the domain of communication i.e. telling time, telling address, writing notes or petitions, in hospitals, shopping. The domain of leisure time

implies reading newspapers or magazines. The participants had to choose one of three options (Kyrgyz, Russian, both).

The second part was designed to measure the proficiency of participants. Proficiency was divided into reading, writing, listening and speaking skills.

The third part of the questionnaire was designed to analyze language attitudes. In this part, a Likert scale was used.

It consisted of sixteen items all of which are related to Kyrgyz and Russian languages; respondents were asked to point out the degree to which they agree or disagree with these elements by choosing one of the responses extending from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". Items were mostly about the status of Kyrgyz and Russian languages in Kyrgyzstan and aimed to measure two groups` language attitudes towards these languages. All these items are given in Appendix 1.

Cronbach Alpha was applied to measure the internal consistency of the questionnaire; it is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. Generally, a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is counted as "acceptable" in most social science research. Fraenkel and Wallen (1996) state " the reliability item can be accepted if the alpha is within .70–.99". Nunnally (1978:245) advises that tools used in basic research should have the reliability of .70 or better.

Table 2 shows the reliability coefficients of language attitude scale used in part 3 of the questionnaire.

Table 2. The reliability coefficient of language attitude scale

	The number of items	**Alpha coefficient**
Language attitude scale	16	.82

As is seen in Table 2, the Alpha coefficient is found to be .82 making the scale reliable to be used in the study to collect the data.

3.2.3. Data Collection Procedure

As stated in the first place, the data of the study were collected using a questionnaire. It was presented in two languages: Kyrgyz and Russian. The participants were given a choice to pick the language they felt comfortable with. Initially, the participants were enlightened that their personal information would be kept private. Next, the data collection procedure was conducted in two stages:

In the first stage, the researcher started with distributing interviews to university students. They were asked to fill out the questionnaire in the presence of the researcher. The average time to fill in the whole questionnaire was about fifteen to twenty minutes to fill it. In this stage ten participants (eight male, two female) chose to fill the questionnaires in the Kyrgyz language; forty participants (thirty male, ten female) chose to fill the questionnaire in the Russian language.

In the second stage, questionnaires were given to the older generation. It took them about twenty to twenty-five minutes to fill in the questionnaire. In this stage twenty-three participants (nine male, fourteen female) decided to fill the questionnaire in the Kyrgyz language; twenty-seven participants (twelve male, fifteen female) decided to complete the questionnaire in the Russian language.

3.3. DATA ANALYSIS

For the first part of the questionnaire which consisted of the questions about language use in everyday life, the chi-square test was done. The aim of this test was to explore if there is a meaningful relation between age (meaning old generation and younger generation) and language use.

In order to measure the proficiency of the participants, numerical rating scales were used. It assigned several numbers that correspond to a series of categories describing the characteristics of the target. Participants were asked to evaluate their proficiency in Kyrgyz and Russian languages from a scale from 1 to 5. In scale 1 meant no proficiency, 2-poor proficiency, 3-fair proficiency, 4-good proficiency and 5 - excellent proficiency.

For the data of the second part of the questionnaire independent samples t-test was employed (See Appendix 5). In general, the t-test contrasts two variables (means) and explains if they have a difference from one another. The t-test also informs how significant the differences are. Mostly, t-test with two samplings is usually used if sample sizes are not large, "testing the difference between the samples when the variances of two normal distributions are not known." The independent-samples t-test (or t-test)used for his part contrasts the means between two independent groups on the same uninterrupted, dependent variable.

For the third part of the questionnaire which was designed as Likert scale the above-mentioned independent samples t-test was also used.

The entire analysis of the questionnaire data was done via the SPSS 21.0 for Windows Operating System (See Appendix 4, Appendix 5, Appendix 6).

CHAPTER 4
DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

As referred before, the aim of this study is to reveal the differences between the two generations in terms of language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes. The study also aims at evaluating the effectiveness of language policies applied since the independence of Kyrgyzstan. In order to reach these aims, the questionnaire consisting of three parts was formed and carried out.

This section presents an analysis of the findings attained through this questionnaire. First, the data on the first part of the questionnaire which is the language use in different domains were presented. Then, the data on self-evaluated language proficiency was discussed. At last, the data about the language attitudes were examined and discussed.

4.1. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS ON LANGUAGE USE, LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY, AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDES

The following part presents a discussion of the findings. It is organized based on the three parts of the questionnaire, namely language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes.

4.1.1. Findings of Difference in Language Use between Generations

As stated earlier, the first part of the questionnaire was designed to see whether there is a difference in language use between two generations. In this part, the researcher employed adjusted language domains. The adjustments were made based on the research participants i.e.young and old generations. Therefore, six language domains used in this research were: family, friendship, religion, leisure time, education and employment, communication.

The participants were asked to select if they use Russian, Kyrgyz or both languages in above-mentioned contexts.

The chi-square test was used to determine whether there is a statistically significant relationship between age and language use in Kyrgyz and Russian. In cases where the number of frequencies in the cells was less than 5, the Fisher-Yates correction was performed and a total of twelve chi-square values were calculated for each language usage area. All the values can be seen in Appendix 4.

First, domains, where a significant difference was found, are discussed and later domains where a significant difference was not found are discussed.

The first domain with a significant difference is a domain of religion. The question was about language use in a religious context. In what follows, the descriptive statistics concerning this domain is presented. Table 3 shows the chi-square test results related to language use in this domain.

Table 3. Chi-Square Test on language use in religious context

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17,774[a]	2	,000
Likelihood Ratio	19,516	2	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15,479	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	100		

*Note.*a. 2 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,50

As can be observed from the results of the Chi-Square test given in Table 5 there is a statistically significant relationship between language use and age in a religious context. Chi-square values for religious ceremonies is (χ^2(2, N=100)=17.77, p<0.05). An observed relationship is called statistically significant when the p-value for a chi-square test is less than 0.05. In this case, it is less than 0.05; therefore, it is statistically significant.

Next, the following table shows the ratio of language use by two generations in a religious context.

Table 4. The ratio of language use in a religious context

Participants	Kyrgyz	Russian	Both
Young	58,0%	16,0%	26,0%
Old	94,0%	2,0%	4,0%

As it can be seen in Table 4, 58% of the young generation and 94% of old generation use Kyrgyz for religious purposes. Only two percent of old generation use Russian for the same purpose. Meanwhile, 16% of the young generation use Russian it this domain. As for the usage of both Kyrgyz and Russian languages, 26% of the young generation have reported to use it whereas merely four percent of old generation reported to use it.

Another domain where statistical significance was found is shopping. The results of the chi-square test are given in Table 5.

Table 5. Chi-Square Test of language use during shopping

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)

Pearson Chi-Square	13,622[a]	2	,001
Likelihood Ratio	14,785	2	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	2,258	1	,133
N of Valid Cases	100		

*Note.*a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,50.

Table 5 shows that the chi-square test produced a significant difference which means that for shopping Russian is used by the old generation, but Kyrgyz is used by the young generation. The value is (χ^2(2, N=100)=13.62, p<0.05).

Table 6 shows the percentage of use of each language while shopping.

Table 6. The ratio of language use in bazaars or shops

Participants	Kyrgyz	Russian	Both
Young	14,0%	26,0%	60,0%
Old	38,0%	4,0%	58,0%

Table 6 shows that during shopping 14% of young generation speak Kyrgyz while 38% of old generation use Kyrgyz. The Russian language is used by 26% of the young generation and 4% respectively. Both Kyrgyz and Russian languages are used by 60% of the young generation and 58% of the old generation.

The results of the chi-square test value for language use in reading magazines and newspapers are shown below.

Table 7. Chi-Square Test of language use for reading newspapers or magazines

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,985[a a]	2	,002
Likelihood Ratio	13,516	2	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,323	1	,038
N of Valid Cases	100		

Note.a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14,50.

According to Table 7, the chi-square value was found less than 0.05 which means the relationship is significant. The results state that for reading newspapers and magazines old generation uses Kyrgyz, young generation uses Russian.

The percentage of language use in reading magazines and newspapers among the two generations is given in Table 8.

Table 8. The ratio of language use for reading newspapers or magazines

Participants	Kyrgyz	Russian	Both
Young	14,0%	46,0%	40,0%
Old	44,0%	20,0%	36,0%

As can be seen in Table 8, 14% of young generation read magazines or newspapers in the Kyrgyz language, 46% read in Russian and 40% read in both languages. As for the

old generation, 44% responded that they read magazines and newspapers in Kyrgyz, 20% in Russian and 36% in both languages.

Next domain with a significant difference is telling time. Respondents were asked what language they would use telling time. The results of the chi-square are given in Table 9.

Table 9. Chi-Square Test of language use in telling time

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,549[a]	2	,023
Likelihood Ratio	8,041	2	,018
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,008	1	,315
N of Valid Cases	100		

Note.a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,00.

The results of the chi-square test given in Table 9 show that there is a significant difference between the two variables. In other words, the p-value was found to be less than 0.05. Thus, the results can be interpreted that Kyrgyz is used more by the old generation and Russian language by the young generation in telling time. The ratio of use of Kyrgyz and Russian languages is presented in Table 10.

Table 10. The ratio of language use in telling time

Participants	Kyrgyz	Russian	Both
Young	18,0%	26,0%	56,0%
Old	20,0%	6,0%	74,0%

Table 10 indicates that 18% of young participants would tell the time in Kyrgyz and 26% would tell the time in Russian. It is also found that 56% use both languages. As for the old generation, 20% would tell the time in Kyrgyz, 6% in Russian and 74% in both languages.

The language use for giving directions is also examined using the chi-square of which the results are given in Table 11.

Table 11. Chi-Square Test of language use for giving directions

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,938[a]	2	,019
Likelihood Ratio	8,359	2	,015
Linear-by-Linear Association	,450	1	,502
N of Valid Cases	100		

Note.a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,50.

The chi-square value, as it can be seen in Table 13, was found to be statistically significant (χ^2(2, N=100) =7.94, p<0.05). It means that Kyrgyz is used more by the old generation but Russian by the young generation in giving directions.

The percentage of language use while giving directions seen in Table 12.

Table 12. The ratio of language use for giving directions

Participants	Kyrgyz	Russian	Both
Young	12,0%	30,0%	58,0%
Old	18,0%	8,0%	74,0%

Table 12 shows that 12% of young generation would give directions in Kyrgyz, 30% in Russian and 58% in both Kyrgyz and Russian languages. It also shows that 18% of the old generation would give directions in the Kyrgyz language, 8% in Russian and 74% in both Kyrgyz and Russian languages.

The chi-square values were also calculated for the following domains: family(χ^2(2, N=100)=2.28), university and work (χ^2(2, N=100)=4.19), with friends outside of work or university(χ^2(2, N=100)=3.43), messaging(χ^2(2, N=100)=2.29), in writing formal papers (χ^2(2, N=100)=1.23), hospitals (χ^2(2, N=100)=3.07) and formal places (χ^2(2, N=100)=4.95). The chi-square values of each of these domains were higher than 0.05. Therefore, these values refer to the fact that the difference between young and old generations is not statistically different. These values are given in Appendix 2.

The percentage of language use in those domains where the chi-square values are found to be statistically insignificant is shown in Table 15.

Table 13. Language use in domains with statistically insignificant chi-square values

	Kyrgyz		Russian		Both	
	Young	Old	Young	Old	Young	Old
Family	52%	52%	22%	12%	26%	36%
University and work	10%	24%	32%	34%	58%	42%
Messaging	14%	24%	44%	32%	42%	44%
Writing formla papers	20%	14%	44%	40%	36%	46%
Hospitals	16%	22%	28%	14%	56%	64%
Formal places	20%	18%	32%	8%	48%	24%

Concerning family context, it is shown in Table 13 that 52% of young generation uses Kyrgyz, 22% uses Russian. It is also found that 26% uses both languages. In the family domain 52% of older generation uses Kyrgyz, 12% uses Russian and 36% uses both languages.

At university and at work domains, it is found 10% of the young generation used Kyrgyz, 32% Russian and 58% both languages. As for the older generation, it is found that 24% of them used Kyrgyz, 34% used Russian and 42% used both languages.

For messaging, it is found that 14% of young people use Kyrgyz, 44% use Russian and 42% use both languages. Concerning older generation 24% used Kyrgyz,32% used Russian,44% both languages.

For writing formal papers 20% of young people replied they used Kyrgyz, 44% used Russian and 36% would use both languages. Concerning the older generation, it is

found that 14% of them replied they used Kyrgyz, 40% Russian and 46% both languages.

In hospitals, 16% of the young generation used Kyrgyz, 28% Russian and 56% both languages. As for the older generation, 22% of them used Kyrgyz, 14% Russian and 64% both languages.

In formal places, 20% of young people use Kyrgyz,32% Russian and 48% both languages. It is found that 18% of the older generation used Kyrgyz, 8% Russian and 24% both languages.

4.1.2. Discussion of Findings of Difference in Language Use between Generations

When we generally look at findings we can say that the Kyrgyz language is greatly used in all circumstances however proportions vary depending on the context.

As above presented the chi-square values were found meaningful for the domains such as religious ceremonies, shopping, reading magazines and newspapers, telling the time and address. According to those findings, the young generation used the Russian language more while older generation used the Kyrgyz language more.

Korth (2005: 138) stated that the Russian language is considered as a tool of international communication and of social progress. This may be the reason why the younger generation speaks Russian as their main language rather than Kyrgyz. Simply, they tend to think that speaking Russian means being modern.

In addition, Huskey (1995: 12) also assumed that it is a safe "investment " to educate children in the language of opportunity. Therefore, it can be argued that Russian is preferred among young generation because it is seen as a tool of social progress.

A similar study by Fereidoni (2003: 27) showed that as people become older, the use of mother tongues increased. Likewise, in this study, we can see that mother tongue use is more favored by the older generation.

Next, the chi-square values calculated for family, university, and work, with friends outside of work or university, messaging, in writing formal papers, hospitals, and formal places were found statistically insignificant. Results mean that there is no relationship between age and language use in above-mentioned domains. The reason may be that in the above-mentioned domains both Russian and Kyrgyz languages were used at the same level. It means neither of the languages dominates in those domains.

However, it may also mean that participants simply use both languages or might use "mix"(both Kyrgyz and Russian at the same time) (as in Odagiri, 2012) in the above-mentioned domains. In the same study participants responded that "two languages (Russian and Kyrgyz) are equal.". On this ground, participants might have felt obliged to select "both languages" in their questionnaire. Therefore, no statistical difference was found. It can be considered that the idea that both languages are equal and unwillingness to accept the idea that not using Russian in some domains is acceptable and quite natural prevents the promotion of Kyrgyz language. For further promotion of Kyrgyz, this idea needs to be eliminated. In addition, the Russian language is preferred by Kyrgyz people as a language of communication with other ethnicities. As long as this opinion lingers the use of Kyrgyz in different domains will not change. There is also a population of other ethnic minorities for whom Russian is a language of communication with Kyrgyz people. As long as members of these minorities display low levels of competency and engagement in Kyrgyz , motivation for use of Kyrgyz even among Kyrgyz people will not be promoted. Once Kyrgyz is seen as a language of interethnic communication the use might highly increase.

Another reason why Russian is still popular among the young generation can be that the classes with Russian as the language of instruction are highly prestigious and in high demand unlike classes with Kyrgyz as the language of instruction. This leads to the high use of Russian in different domains of life and contrary use of Kyrgyz. Korth (2005)

also stated that Russian even now stays the language of the media, higher education, and trade whereas Kyrgyz is just coming along wih Russian in government and documentation, and at formal appointments. The situation has not changed since then More significantly, in the capital of Kyrgyzstan, Russian schools are favoured among native Kyrgyz people (Orusbayev, Mustajoki, and Protassova, 2008). The same situation occurs in the field of business and science. In these fields, Kyrgyz people also predominantly use the Russian language.

As Fierman (2012) states   "the role of the Russian language remains high in Kyrgyzstan, in comparison with the other New Independent States". The reason why it is still hard to maintain high use of Kyrgyz is that under the Soviet governing it was in Kyrgyz Soviet Republic that Russians lived in both urban and rural places. This also led to the incursion of the Russian language into the different levels of local societies.

Russian still functions as a tool for promotion at work and as away of engaging into the globalized world. However, on a national level the Kyrgyz language, since recent time, has started to be in accordance with Russian in some spheres. However. it should not be seen as arivalry of languages, rather a kind of a collaboration.

At the same time there has been a stereotype for decades that, in principle, it is possible to do without the Kyrgyz language. Such an attitude towards the Kyrgyz language was formed not so much by the Russian-speaking population, as by the Kyrgyz themselves. And indeed, people safely managed only in Russian, thanks to which it was possible to get an education, to reach some heights in a professional career.

No matter how much the language issue is discussed and mostly it is seen that Russian still in high demand, it is impossible not to notice that the demand for the Kyrgyz language is growing every day, and among the younger generation knowing the state language is considered as a great advantage. A civil servant who is equally fluent in both state and official languages feels his advantage. It is necessary to change the thinking of young people themselves, especially Kyrgyz who do not speak their native language. Changes are already taking place in the minds of people; to some extent, they

feel uncomfortable because they do not know their language. While they are studying at school, university, they do not think about it, but when they are faced with the question of choosing a career, and knowledge of the Kyrgyz language is one of the conditions, they will have to think about it.

Another reason for the high demand for Russian in its status. Kyrgyzstan is one of the Post-Soviet countries in which Russian is the official language and the status was given by a government.

Even the fact that the older generation whose ideology was formed under Soviet policy reads, communicates during shopping in Kyrgyz can serve as other demonstration of changes in the language use of the Kyrgyz language. This fact should be considered as a positive sign as these people spent half of their lives reading, speaking, interacting mostly in Russian.

Moreover, Kyrgyzstan has continued the path similar to the one other former Soviet countries have followed, initiating a "national revival" that together wi social and economic situation aroused a large movement of Russian people and other Russian-speaking nationalities during the early Post-Soviet years. This contributed to the entrance of Kyrgyz into domains of public life where its use was insignificant (Orusbayev, Mustajoki, & Protassova, 2008). It can also another positive sign for language improvement.

In summary, present status and opinions of the Kyrgyz language in Kyrgyzstan need to be viewed as positive although the difference was not found in all domains

4.1.3. Findings of Difference between Two Generations in Self-Evaluated Language Proficiency

In the second part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to evaluate their proficiency on a numerical scale where 1 meant no proficiency at all,2-

poor,3=fair,4=good,5=excellent proficiency. The average points for the two groups of participants are given in Table 16.

Table 14. The average proficiency points of two generations

	Kyrgyz language	Russian language
Young generation	4,4	4,1
Old generation	4,2	4,3

Table 14 indicates that the average point for Kyrgyz language proficiency among the young generation is 4,4. It suggests that the young generation evaluates themselves to have good proficiency in their native language. The average for the Russian language is 4,1. It also indicates that they think their proficiency in the Russian language is good.

In the older generation, the average for the Kyrgyz language is 4,2 suggesting that their self-evaluated proficiency for their native language is good. For the Russian language, the average is 4,3. It means that older generation considers themselves to have a good command of Russian.

In order to see whether there is a statistically significant difference regarding self-evaluated proficiency between two generations. The independent samples t-test was used for this aim. The definition and the reason for the choice are given in Chapter 1.

First, the equality of variances is evaluated through the Levene's test. This is a test that determines if the two conditions have about the same or different amounts of variability between scores. The results of this test are given in the following table.

Table 15. Levene's test and t-test for proficiency in the Kyrgyz language in two generations

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
	F	Sig.	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed		,039	
	4,363		,242
Equal variances not assumed			
			,243

Table 15 shows that the total score for the Kyrgyz language the variances are not homogeneous (F = 4.36, p = 0.04). It can be seen p (Sig.) is less than .05 indicating that the variability in two conditions is slightly different. Therefore, the results are interpreted in the second row. It is seen that Sig (2tailed) or p is more than .05 making it possible to argue that for two groups the difference between the groups is not statistically significant.

These findings show that there is no difference in Kyrgyz language proficiency. In other words, both young and old generations consider themselves proficient in relation to Kyrgyz.

The same test was also used for the language proficiency self-reports of the participants concerning the Russian language. Table 16 shows the results of the t-test and Levene's test.

Table 16. Levene's test and t-test for proficiency in the Russian language in two generations

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
	F	Sig.	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed	3,325	,071	,267
Equal variances not assumed			,267

Table 16 shows that the variances were homogeneous (F = 3.33, p = 0.07) in that P (Sig) is greater than 0.05. The results are interpreted from the first row. Sig(2-tailed) is .27 which is more than .05. Therefore, it is safe to argue that the difference between the groups is not statistically significant.

In conclusion, it was found that two generations do not have a considerable difference in Russian language proficiency.

4.1.4. Discussion of Findings of Difference between Two Generations in Self-Evaluated Language Proficiency

In this part, participants evaluated their proficiencies in Kyrgyz and Russian languages. As it can be seen in Table 16 both young generation and old generation evaluated their proficiencies in Russian languages as "good". These findings were in the same pattern with the previous research by Maximova, Noyanzina, Omelchenko & Maximova (2018) where 60% of citizens reported having a good knowledge of Russian. However, after statistical analysis, it can be seen that the relationship between age and proficiency at

Russian is found insignificant. It may mean that both young and older generation think themselves to have equal proficiency at Kyrgyz and Russian languages.

Proficiency in the Kyrgyz language is also reported as "good" in two generations. Similar to proficiency in Russian statistical analysis did not show a significant relationship between age and proficiency. As in the case with Russian, it might mean that both generations evaluate themselves to have a good command of Kyrgyz. The reason for evaluating themselves to have a high proficiency may be explained by the fact that Kyrgyz is mostly seen as a representation of Kyrgyzstan's independance and Kyrgyz people, who do not speak "their own language" have to explain themselves (Korth, 2001: 4).

The research conducted by Odagiri (2012) also suggests that competency in the Kyrgyz language is considered as an essential component of being Kyrgyz. Therefore, it might be said that most ethnic Kyrgyz feel the necessity to indicate their proficiency as high even if it is not so.

It can be considered that language proficiency in both Russian and Kyrgyz languages is directly related to language use in different spheres of life. Most people watch TV and listen to radio in Russian, although local Kyrgyz channels` popularity is constantly growing, both in the regions and in the urban environment. There was even an example when the Kyrgyz newspaper Super-Info outperformed the most popular Russian newspaper, Vecherny Bishkek, in circulation and confidence rating, while having equal demand throughout the country. (Derbisheva, 2009). The appearance of newspapers and TV channels in Kyrgyz led to increasing proficiency in Kyrgyz.

Over the years of purposeful language policy, the functions of the Kyrgyz language in the sphere of official business communication have noticeably intensified in all local governments of the district and regional levels. The official documentation has been conducted in the Kyrgyz language recently. The use of the Russian language as the language of official business administration in the central government bodies, in the ministries and departments of the republic at this stage is interpreted by the truth that the

current generation of officials in the overwhelming part is Russian-speaking, consciously learning and using the Russian language. However, members of parliament started speaking Kyrgyz more and more. Most of the politicians are criticized for not knowing Kyrgyz. With this pace, the new generation is slowly emerging as Kyrgyz-speaking. This fact might also create favorable conditions for improvement of Kyrgyz language proficiency.

The only sphere where the positions of the Russian language remain is the sphere of higher and secondary education. Russian is still more preferred as al language of instruction and it is still believed that better education is given in Russian. This fact might be the reason for high proficiency in the Russian language.

Both languages for Kyrgyz people are not only a tool of communication but also a means of thinking, a carrier of consciousness, memory, a means of controlling the conduct of other people and the regulation of their own behavior.

Self-evaluated proficiency of both generations in both Kyrgyz and Russian languages indicate that both generations are trying to be impartial. As a result, both generations evaluated themselves to have "good" proficiency. However, it can be said that with the increasing use of Kyrgyz in different spheres of life, proficiency might also increase. It can be argued, however, that proficiency in Kyrgyz has increased since Soviet time.

Most people tend to evaluate themselves to have "good" proficiency in Kyrgyz even it is contrary to reality because mother language is rather symbolic and knowing the Kyrgyz language means being Kyrgyz at the same time.

The reason for high proficiency in Russian is that it is still highly dominated in many spheres of life, especially in education. Thus, most people are highly proficient in it.

4.1.5. Findings of a Difference between Two Generations in Terms of Language Attitudes

Independent groups were tested using the t-test to see whether the attitudes of the individuals in the young and old group to Kyrgyz differ. Levene's test was used to test the homogeneity of the variances. The results are given in the following table.

Table 17. Results of Levene's test and t-test for language attitudes

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means
	F	Sig.	Sig. (2-tailed)
Equal variances assumed		,677	,836
	,175		
Equal variances not assumed			,836

As it can be seen in Table 17 that the variances are homogeneous (F = 0.18, p = 0.65). In the case when the p-value is is greater than .05 it means that the variable is homogenous. Thus, the significance is read from the first row. As it can be seen in Table   19 it is .836 which is greater than .05 suggesting that it is statistically insignificant.

4.1.6. Discussion of Findings of a difference between two generations in terms of language attitudes

Although t-test results do not show any significant difference, they still provide an explanation. Given that there is no difference it may be assumed that both generations have the same attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian. Also, it can be said that people

are trying to reflect their attitudes on both languages equally. It can also be assumed that no difference between age groups might be an indicator of language behavior pattern and it can suggest that change that disfavors the use of Kyrgyz has not been observed. It is also possible to state that both languages have a certain prestige for Kyrgyz people, so no difference was found. Kyrgyz is a language of self-identification whereas Russian is considered prestigious for pragmatic and economic reasons. It is useful to note that if the Kyrgyz language increases its communicative value results might change.

Based on the findings we presume that the language situation is rather stabilized, with no language dominating the other. As a speaker of Kyrgyz, I want to underline that changes have taken place within a twenty-eight year period. I believe that Kyrgyz gained more presence in public life than in Pre-independent Kyrgyzstan.

Although Russian is not a mother language for Kyrgyz people, they still have positive attitudes about it. There are several reasons for their attitudes. First of all, educational and employment policies and opportunities still require knowledge of Russian. This means that to have a better job opportunity one needs to know Russian. This fact shapes rather positive attitudes toward Russian. The country's political and economic ties with Russia make it impossible to totally alienate from the Russian language. Migration to Russia for employment also form positive attitudes towards Russian.

Another reason why Russian is still popular with Kyrgyz people that it is mostly used in higher education. The generation that graduates from higher educational institutions speaks and thinks in Russian because for 4-5 years they listen to lectures in Russian, answer classes in Russian, read academic and additional literature in Russian, write term and degree papers work in Russian. This time is enough for the graduate's thinking to become Russian-speaking. And it is quite natural that his further professional activities it is easier for them to conduct in Russian. Since Soviet times, scientific research in the Republic was mainly carried out in Russian, scientific publications were published mainly in Russian.

When Kyrgyzstan elevated the status of Russian to that of an official language, it maintained a solid position for its further improvement. The Russian language maintains a significant position in the official field, laws, and resolutions and other documents are prepared in Russian. Meetings and discussions are more often held in Russian than in Kyrgyz. In the structures of the executive and judicial bodies, Russian remains the main language but the role of Kyrgyz is growing.

However, several changes in Kyrgyzstan created conditions for a gradual change of attitudes towards the Kyrgyz language. Kyrgyz government established the Institute for the State Language and Culture as well as a National Commission on the State Language under the auspices of the President. The main, aim is the creation of terminology for the Kyrgyz language (Orusbaev, Mustajoki, and Protassova, 2008: 210).

At the same time, significant difficulties are manifested in the evolvement of specific terminology in the Kyrgyz language and its proper use in paperwork. In this regard, departments of specialists of the Kyrgyz language have been created in all ministries and departments, which translate official correspondence, external and internal documents circulation (orders, orders, etc.) into the Kyrgyz language.

So let's summarize. The Kyrgyz language, is the language of the dominant majority of the population, which gave the name to the republic, is spread over the greater territory of the republic. It is used in different rates in such areas as family and household, ritual, in school education, culture, media; partially functioning in the spheres of public-political life, the economic life of the republic, in legal proceedings, paperwork.

Russian, being the official language of Kyrgyzstan is represented in many areas of social and political life, scientific, educational, cultural and economic life of the republic and serves as a language of inter-ethnic communication.

Both languages are approximately equivalent in forms of existence and areas of functioning, so people have positive attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian.

The vitality and prestige of the Russian language in the current language situation are supported by two factors: its relevance as the language of interstate communication and its importance as the language of science and education in the republic.

The Kyrgyz language has been used in a minimal volume, in fact, it was in a "comatose" state for more than 70 years. Hence, all the attempts to improve the status of Kyrgyz must be considered as positive.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

In this section, interpretations of the results, how these results support the research questions posed at the beginning of the study, the implications of the findings and suggestions for further studies are presented.

This study aims at analyzing Kyrgyz and Russian in two generations in the context of Post-Soviet language revitalization policies in Kyrgyzstan. One generation was represented by people aged 54-61. This generation grew up in the Soviet Union, their ideology and language preferences were established by Soviet policies. The second generation was represented by people aged 18-25. They grew up in an independent Kyrgyzstan relatively free of Soviet ideology and language policies.

The analysis is carried out in terms of three aspects: language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes.

As given before the study has three research questions (RQs). The first research question is given as follows:

> **RQ1.** Is there a significant difference between the two generations in use of Kyrgyz and Russian? What are the domains where the Kyrgyz language is used more and where the Russian language is used more? What are the domains where there is no difference in regard to the use of these languages?

The findings of the study show that there is a significant difference between young and old generations, namely in religious ceremonies, shopping, reading magazines and newspapers, telling the time and address. These findings allow the conclusion that the young generation uses the Russian language more in the above-mentioned domains. In the same way, findings suggest that the older generation use the Kyrgyz language more in these domains. Russian remains the prevailing language of communication

among young respondents. Yet there is a decline in use of Kyrgyz among respondents: the younger the participants are, the more likely they are to speak Russian. Young partcipants claim higher use of Russian and lesser use of Kyrgyz in comparison with the older participants.

More generally, findings are consistent with research by Ferdinand & Komlosi (2016) showing that young people preferred to use Russian more during shopping, interaction with other people.

As argued in previous findings (Korth, 2005; Huskey, 1995) the fact that the Russian language is generally considered as a tool of communication and of social progress might be the reason for language choice of the young generation.

The present findings are also in line with the assumptions of Fereidoni (2003) that concluded as the people become older, the use of mother tongues increased.

However, it is found that there is no significant difference between young generations and old generations in terms of language use in domains of family, university and work, with friends outside of work or university, messaging, in writing formal papers, hospitals, and formal places.

RQ2. Is there a significant difference between two generations in their self-evaluated language proficiency in regards to Kyrgyz and Russian languages?

The findings of the study indicate that the self-evaluated proficiency in Kyrgyz and Russian languages do not significantly differ between young and old generations. The results can be interpreted as both young and older generation think themselves to have equal proficiency at Kyrgyz and Russian languages. All participants evaluated their proficiency in Kyrgyz as "good". The first reason is that the Kyrgyz language is valued as symbols of ethnicity and statehood. However, it is surprising that despite reporting to have "good" proficiency only ten out of fifty participants in the young generation chose

questionnaires in Kyrgyz. As for the older generation, twenty-three participants chose to fill questionnaires in Kyrgyz. It is still less than half of the participants. Choice of the questionnaire language and their self-assessment allows us, to some extent, to speculate that Kyrgyz for most people is a part of their identity so they are likely to indicate it as good. It could also be that the respondents are over-rating their language skills or it could be that the society expects them to know Kyrgyz well.

At the same time, these findings are in agreement with the previous research by Maximova, Noyanzina, Omelchenko & Maximova (2018) that reported most respondents evaluated themselves to have a good knowledge of Russian. In the current study, both young and old generations also assessed themselves to have good proficiency in both languages.

The fact that the Kyrgyz language is seen as an inevitable element of being Kyrgyz may account for the fact that both young and old generations evaluated themselves to have good proficiency in Kyrgyz language (Korth, 2001; Odagiri, 2012). Being Kyrgyz myself, I believe that citizens of Kyrgyzstan tend to link their ethnic belonging to the language.

To sum up, the findings described in this section seem to imply that Kyrgyz is seen as a part of ethnic belonging to it will be highly favorable but it does not necessarily mean that people will speak it. Kyrgyz is rather of symbolic importance rather than practical importance

RQ3. Is there a difference between two generations in terms of their language attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages?

The findings do not show any significant difference between old young generation in terms of their attitudes towards Kyrgyz and Russian languages. Despite the fact that there was no significance, an explanation can be provided. It may be interpreted as stability in the language situation in Kyrgyzstan. We might deduce that people are open to the idea of learning Kyrgyz but they do not want to experience loss of Russian

language. It can also be said that individuals in both languages are attempting to represent their attitudes equally. It can also be presumed that no distinction between age groups could be an indication of the pattern of language conduct and it may suggest that no change has been observed that disfavors the use of Kyrgyz.

5.1. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the results of the study, it is possible to develop several suggestions for future studies on the topic. As noted before the first part of the questionnaire included questions about language use in different domains. The future studies may be carried out by including interviews as a part of the research. It could explore in detail the reasons behind their language choice in certain domains.

In addition, language attitudes towards Russian and Kyrgyz can be further investigated via face-to-face interviews to get a deeper insight into reasons that explain their attitudes.

Furthermore, proficiency in Kyrgyz and Russian languages can be evaluated by administering special exam or test. It would help avoid the subjective evaluations of respondents.

Moreover, the Kyrgyz language can also be analyzed in terms of its role in defining cultural identity.

Also, as mentioned in the previous chapter, this study was carried out in the capital city Bishkek. It would be a good idea to carry out this research in all the main cities in Kyrgyzstan. Thus, it can help to see whether there is a difference in results due to geographical location.

All in all, studies carried out in Kyrgyzstan are not enough to comprehend the real linguistic situation in Kyrgyzstan. There are not frequent studies that concentrated on

sociolinguistic aspects such as language attitudes, language the use and language proficiency on Kyrgyz and Russian languages. Thus, this study is expected to be one of those studies which enlighten this gap in Kyrgyz sociolinguistics. Moreover, it also hopes to contribute to the better comprehension of the language situation in Kyrgyzstan and expands the linguistic information about it.

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APPENDIX 1

ENGLISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Responder! We invite you to take part in the language study and answer the questions of the questionnaire. Your answers will be used in a generalized form. Your confidential information will not be mentioned. Your feedback is very important to us. Filling out the form will take you 5-10 minutes. Thank you for participating in the survey.

Aizada Saparbaeva

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1.Language preference

Please choose the answer which suits you the best

	KYRGYZ	RUSSIAN	BOTH
What language do you use with your family?			
What language do you use at the university or at work?			
What language do you use with your friends outside of work or university?			
What language do you use in a religious context? (funeral, prayers)			
What language do you use in sending messages()through a phone, the internet)			
What language do you use for writing notes, letters, petitions)			
What language do you use in bazaars or the shops?			
What language do you use in hospitals?			

What language do you read newspapers, magazines in?			
What language do you use in legal bodies?			
What language would you use if you were asked to tell the time			
What language would you use if you were asked to tell the way?			

2. Language Proficiency.

Please evaluate your proficiency in Kyrgyz language(1=no proficiency at all,2=poor,3=fair,4=good,5=excellent)

	1	2	3	4	5
Reading skills					
Writing skills					
Speaking skills					
Listening skills					

Please evaluate your proficiency in the Russian language(1=no proficiency at all,2=poor,3=fair,4=good,5=excellent)

	1	2	3	4	5
Reading skills					
Writing skills					
Speaking skills					
Listening skills					

3. Language attitudes

Please choose to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements

	Strongly agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Knowing vernacular language is the obligation of every citizen of the Kyrgyz Republic					
Laws and decrees in the parliament of Kyrgyz Republic should be passed in the Kyrgyz language					
Texts of official letters of institutions, enterprises, and organizations should be in the state language (Kyrgyz)					
Kyrgyz is the language of business					
Language of politics (laws and resolutions, agreements and other documents) is the Kyrgyz					
Mass media and television channels must have access in the Kyrgyz language as well					
The Kyrgyz language must be an obligatory lesson in all social institutions					
Russian should be considered as a foreign language					
A person who does not speak Russian should not be considered as uneducated					
It is possible to find a job without knowing the Russian language					

The Kyrgyz language plays an important role in society					
The Kyrgyz language is prestigious					
I m proud of knowing and speaking the Kyrgyz language					
My language is the part of me, my culture and my history					
I think, in the future people will use the Kyrgyz language more					
My children, grandchildren will speak the Kyrgyz language					

APPENDIX 2

KYRGYZ VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAİRE

Урматтуу катышуучулар! Бул анкетага катышкандыгыңыз үчүн терең ыраазычылык билдиребиз. Жоопторуңуздар жалпы түрдө колдонулат. Жеке маалыматтар эч бир жерде колдонулбайт. Суроолорго жооп берүү 5 -10 гана мүнөтүңүздү алат.

Айзада Сапарбаева
Туркия , Анкара, Хажеттепе университети
Лингвистика бөлүмү

Аты-жөнүңүз_____

Жашыңыз_____

Кесибиңиз _____

 (Студенттер ЖОЖды жана курсуңузду белгилегиле)

Жыныс_____

Туулган жериңиз_____

1. *Төмөндөгү суроолорду окуп, бир жоопту тандаңыз.*

	КЫРГЫЗЧА	ОРУСЧА	ЭКӨӨНҮ ТЕҢ
Үй-бүлөңүз менен кайсы тилде сүйлөшөсүз?			
Окуу жайда же жумушта кайсы тилди көбүрөөк колдоносуз?			
Жумуштан же окуу жайдан тышкары досторуңуз менен кайсы тилде сүйлөшөсүз?			
Диний иш-чараларда (жаназа, дуба,ж.б.) кайсы тилди көп колдоносуз?			
Телефон же интернет аркылуу смсти кайсы тилде жөнөтөсүз?			
Арыз, түшүнүк кат , ж.б. Жазууда кайсы тилди колдоносуз?			
Базарда, дүкөндө кайсы тилде сүйлөшөсүз?			
Ооруканада кайсы тилде сүйлөшөсүз?			
Гезит, журналдарды кайсы тилде окуйсуз?			
Күч органдарына кайсы тилде кайрыласыз?			
Көчөдө кимдир бирөө жол сурап калса, кайсы тилде жооп бересиз?			
Эгер кимдир бирөө саат сураса, кайсы тилде жооп бересиз?			

2. *Кыргыз тилин канчалык деңгээлде жакшы билериңизди 1ден 5ке чейинки баалар менен баалаңыз. (1-жок, 2-жаман, 3-орто, 4-жакшы, 5-мыкты)*

	1	2	3	4	5
Окуу					
Жазуу					
Суйлөшүү					
Угуу					

Орус тилин канчалык деңгээлде жакшы билериңизди 1ден 5ке чейинки баалар менен баалаңыз. (1-жок, 2-жаман, 3-орто, 4-жакшы, 5-мыкты)

	1	2	3	4	5
Окуу					
Жазуу					
Суйлөшүү					
Угуу					

3. *Төмөндөгү суроолорду окуп, бир жоопту тандаңыз*

	Толугу менен кошулам	Кээ бирөөнө гана кошулам	Жооп бериш кыйын	Кээ бирөөнө кошулбайм	Толугу менен кошулбайм
Мамлекеттик тилди билүү Кыргыз Республикасынын ар бир жаранынын милдети					

Парламентте Кыргыз Республикасынын мыйзамдары, актылары,кыргыз тилинде кабыл алынышы керек					
Официалдуу иш кагаздары мамлекеттик тилде болушу керек					
Бизнес кыргыз тилинде жүргүзүлүшү керек					
Саясатта (мыйзам, проект, келишим жана расмий иш кагаздарын жазууда) кыргыз тили колдонулушу керек					
Массалык маалымдоо каражаттары жана телеберүүлөр кыргыз тилинде да болушу зарыл					
Кыргыз тили сабагы бардык билим берүү мекемелеринде милдеттүү түрдө окутулушу керек					
Орус тили чет тили катары окутулуушу зарыл					
Орусча билбеген жарандарды «билимсиз, артта калган» адам катары көрбөш керек					
Орус тилин билбей туруп деле жумуш тапса болот					

Кыргыз тили коомдо маанилүү роль ойнойт					
Кыргыз тили орус тилине караганда престиждүү тил					
Кыргыз тилин билгеним үчүн сыймыктанам					
Менин тилим- менин маданиятым, тарıхым					
Менин оюмча кыргыз тили келечекте дагы да көп колдонулат					
Менин балдарым жана неберелерим келечекте кыргыз тилинде сүйлөшөт					

APPENDIX 3

RUSSIAN VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Уважаемый респондент! Просим Вас принять участие в языковом исследовании и ответить на вопросы анкеты. Ваши ответы будут использованы в обобщенном виде. Ваши конфиденциальные данные не будут упомянуты. Ваше мнение очень важно для нас. Заполнение анкеты займет у вас 5-10 минут . Спасибо за участие в опросе.

Айзада Сапарбаева

Отдел лингвистики

Университет Хажеттепе,г.Анкара/Турция

Фамилия, имя_____

Возраст_____

Род занятий(если студент/ка укажите свой ВУЗ и курс)_____

Пол_____

Родной город_____

1. Внимательно прочитайте вопросы и выберите один из вариантов.

	КЫРГЫЗСКИЙ	РУССКИЙ	ОБА ЯЗЫКА
Какой язык вы используете в семье?			
Какой язык вы используете в университете или на работе?			
Какой язык вы используете при общении с друзьями вне работы или университета?			
Какой язык вы используете в религиозных целях(похороны. молитвы...)			
Какой язык вы используете при отправлении смс(телефон,интернет)			
Какой язык вы используете при написании письма, записки или заявления?			
Какой язык вы используете на базаре или в магазинах?			
Какой язык вы используете в больнице?			
На каком языке вы читаете газеты или журналы?			
Какой язык вы используете в правовых органах?			
Если кто-то попросит время, на каком языке вы ответите?			
Если кто-то попросит объяснить дорогу , на каком языке вы объясните?			

2. *Оцените свои знания кыргызского языка по шкале от 1 до 5*
(1-отсутствует, 2-плохо, 3-средне, 4-хорошо, 5-отлично)

	1	2	3	4	5
Чтение					
Письменные навыки					
Разговорные навыки					
Аудирование					

Оцените свои знания русского языка по шкале от 1 до 5
(1-отсутствует, 2-плохо, 3-средне, 4-хорошо, 5-отлично)

	1	2	3	4	5
Чтение					
Письменные навыки					
Разговорные навыки					
Аудирование					

3. Внимательно прочитайте вопросы и выберите один из вариантов

	Полностью согласен/ согласна	Согласен/ Согласна	Трудно сказать Согласен/ Согласна или Не согласен/	Не согласен/ согласна	Совершенно не согласен/ не согласна
Владение государственным языком(кыргызским языком) –долг и обязанность каждого гражданина Кыргызской Республики					

Законы,акты Кыргызской Республики в парламенте должны приниматься на кыргызском					
Тексты официальных печатей, штампов и бланков учреждений, предприятий и организаций должны были быть на г осударственном языке(кыргызском)					
Бизнес должен вестись на кыргызском языке					
Язык политики (законопроекты и проекты , постановления, договора и др. Документы) должен быть кыргызский					
Фильмы, газеты должны быть доступны и на кыргызском языке					
Кыргызский язык должен быть обязательным предметом во всех образовательных учреждениях					
Русский должен обучаться как иностранный язык					
Человека неговорящего на русском, нельзя считать необразованным					
Без знания русского языка можно найти работу					
Кыргызский язык играет важную роль в обществе					
Кыргызский язык престижен чем русский язык					

Я горжусь, что знаю и говорю на кыргызском языке					
Мой язык-это часть меня , часть моей культуры и истории					
Я думаю, что в будущем люди будут больше использовать кыргызский язык					
Мои дети, внуки будут знать кыргызский язык					

APPENDIX 4

CHI- SQUARE TEST RESULTS OF THE FIRST PART OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 1	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 2	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 3	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 4	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 5	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 6	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 7	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 8	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 9	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 10	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 11	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%
katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 12	100	100,0%	0	0,0%	100	100,0%

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 1

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 1			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	26	11	13	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	52,0%	22,0%	26,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	26	6	18	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	52,0%	12,0%	36,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	52	17	31	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	52,0%	17,0%	31,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2,277[a]	2	,320
Likelihood Ratio	2,303	2	,316
Linear-by-Linear Association	,315	1	,575
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 2

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 2			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	5	16	29	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	10,0%	32,0%	58,0%	100,0%

	yasli	Count	12	17	21	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	24,0%	34,0%	42,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	17	33	50	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	17,0%	33,0%	50,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4,193[a]	2	,123
Likelihood Ratio	4,286	2	,117
Linear-by-Linear Association	3,970	1	,046
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 3

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 3			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	11	10	29	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	22,0%	20,0%	58,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	19	6	25	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	38,0%	12,0%	50,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	30	16	54	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	30,0%	16,0%	54,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)

	Value	df	
Pearson Chi-Square	3,430[a]	2	,180
Likelihood Ratio	3,467	2	,177
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,822	1	,177
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,00.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 4

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 4			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	29	8	13	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	58,0%	16,0%	26,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	47	1	2	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	94,0%	2,0%	4,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	76	9	15	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	76,0%	9,0%	15,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	17,774[a]	2	,000
Likelihood Ratio	19,516	2	,000
Linear-by-Linear Association	15,479	1	,000
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 2 cells (33,3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 5

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 5			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	7	22	21	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	14,0%	44,0%	42,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	12	16	22	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	24,0%	32,0%	44,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	19	38	43	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	19,0%	38,0%	43,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,234[a]	2	,539
Likelihood Ratio	1,239	2	,538
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,213	1	,271
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 6

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 6			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	10	22	18	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	20,0%	44,0%	36,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	7	20	23	50

		14,0%	40,0%	46,0%	100,0%
% within katılımcinin yasi					
Total	Count	17	42	41	100
	% within katılımcinin yasi	17,0%	42,0%	41,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1,234[a]	2	,539
Likelihood Ratio	1,239	2	,538
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,213	1	,271
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 7

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 7			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	7	13	30	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	14,0%	26,0%	60,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	19	2	29	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	38,0%	4,0%	58,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	26	15	59	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	26,0%	15,0%	59,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	13,622[a]	2	,001
Likelihood Ratio	14,785	2	,001

Linear-by-Linear Association	2,258	1	,133
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 8

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 8			
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	Total
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	8	14	28	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	16,0%	28,0%	56,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	11	7	32	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	22,0%	14,0%	64,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	19	21	60	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	19,0%	21,0%	60,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3,074[a]	2	,215
Likelihood Ratio	3,121	2	,210
Linear-by-Linear Association	,016	1	,900
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 9,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 9

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 9			
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	Total
katılımcinin	genc	Count	7	23	20	50

yasi		% within katılımcinin yasi	14,0%	46,0%	40,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	22	10	18	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	44,0%	20,0%	36,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	29	33	38	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	29,0%	33,0%	38,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	12,985[a]	2	,002
Likelihood Ratio	13,516	2	,001
Linear-by-Linear Association	4,323	1	,038
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14,50.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 10

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 10			Total
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	10	16	24	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	20,0%	32,0%	48,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	18	8	24	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	36,0%	16,0%	48,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	28	24	48	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	28,0%	24,0%	48,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,549[a]	2	,023
Likelihood Ratio	8,041	2	,018
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,008	1	,315
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,00.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 11

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 11			
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	Total
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	9	13	28	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	18,0%	26,0%	56,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	10	3	37	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	20,0%	6,0%	74,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	19	16	65	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	19,0%	16,0%	65,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,549[a]	2	,023
Likelihood Ratio	8,041	2	,018
Linear-by-Linear Association	1,008	1	,315
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8,00.

katılımcinin yasi * bolum 1 soru 12

Crosstab

			bolum 1 soru 12			
			kirgizca	rusca	ikisi	Total
katılımcinin yasi	genc	Count	6	15	29	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	12,0%	30,0%	58,0%	100,0%
	yasli	Count	9	4	37	50
		% within katılımcinin yasi	18,0%	8,0%	74,0%	100,0%
Total		Count	15	19	66	100
		% within katılımcinin yasi	15,0%	19,0%	66,0%	100,0%

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7,938[a]	2	,019
Likelihood Ratio	8,359	2	,015
Linear-by-Linear Association	,450	1	,502
N of Valid Cases	100		

a. 0 cells (,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7,50.

APPENDIX 5

T- TEST RESULTS FOR THE SECOND PART OF THE QUESTIONNAİRE

Group Statistics

	katılımcinin yasi	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
bolum 2 kirgizca toplam puan	Genc	50	4,2150	1,05706	,14949
	Yasli	50	4,4200	,63374	,08963

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
bolum 2 kirgizca toplam puan	Equal variances assumed	4,363	,039	-1,176	98	,242	-,20500	,17430	-,55089	,14089
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,176	80,195	,243	-,20500	,17430	-,55185	,14185

APPENDIX 6

RELIABILITY TEST AND T-TEST RESULTS

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	99	99,0
	Excluded[a]	1	1,0
	Total	100	100,0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,813	,833	16

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix

	bol um 3 sor u 1	bol um 3 sor u 2	bol um 3 sor u 3	bol um 3 sor u 4	bol um 3 sor u 5	bol um 3 sor u 6	bol um 3 sor u 7	bol um 3 sor u 8	bol um 3 sor u 9	bol um 3 sor u 10	bol um 3 sor u 11	bol um 3 sor u 12	bol um 3 sor u 13	bol um 3 sor u 14	bol um 3 sor u 15	bol um 3 sor u 16
bol um 3 sor u 1	1,0 00	,47 0	,49 8	,42 8	,49 1	,46 5	,27 0	,12 7	,15 6	- ,03 2	,11 2	,16 6	,29 7	,20 4	,18 0	,35 7
bol um 3 sor u 2	,47 0	1,0 00	,65 8	,60 5	,59 1	,49 0	,28 9	,26 4	,25 6	,05 2	,18 3	,21 1	,18 3	,12 4	,15 0	,26 9

bolum 3 soru 3	,498	,658	1,000	,637	,765	,675	,238	,300	,221	,123	,171	,166	,331	,170	,098	,268
bolum 3 soru 4	,428	,605	,637	1,000	,671	,547	,179	,342	,092	-,044	,048	,196	,146	,031	,002	,054
bolum 3 soru 5	,491	,591	,765	,671	1,000	,584	,144	,290	,157	-,072	,083	,127	,238	,117	,087	,179
bolum 3 soru 6	,465	,490	,675	,547	,584	1,000	,141	,121	,351	,069	,048	,102	,196	,038	,100	,210
bolum 3 soru 7	,270	,289	,238	,179	,144	,141	1,000	,377	,097	,181	,226	-,007	,288	,244	,032	,310
bolum 3 soru 8	,127	,264	,300	,342	,290	,121	,377	1,000	,295	,229	,008	-,015	,092	,028	-,136	,086
bolum 3 soru 9	,156	,256	,221	,092	,157	,351	,097	,295	1,000	,211	-,136	-,151	,011	,008	,024	-,047
bolum 3 soru 10	-,032	,052	,123	-,044	-,072	,069	,181	,229	,211	1,000	,280	,188	,169	,146	-,014	,074

bolum 3 soru 11	,112	,183	,171	,048	,083	,048	,226	,008	-,136	,280	1,000	,554	,342	,306	,466	,513
bolum 3 soru 12	,166	,211	,166	,196	,127	,102	-,007	-,015	-,151	,188	,554	1,000	,266	,201	,452	,413
bolum 3 soru 13	,297	,183	,331	,146	,238	,196	,288	,092	,011	,169	,342	,266	1,000	,799	,448	,569
bolum 3 soru 14	,204	,124	,170	,031	,117	,038	,244	,028	,008	,146	,306	,201	,799	1,000	,543	,643
bolum 3 soru 15	,180	,150	,098	,002	,087	,100	,032	-,136	,024	-,014	,466	,452	,448	,543	1,000	,703
bolum 3 soru 16	,357	,269	,268	,054	,179	,210	,310	,086	-,047	,074	,513	,413	,569	,643	,703	1,00

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items

65,74	66,849	8,176	16

T-Test

Group Statistics

	katılımcinin yasi	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
B3_boltop	genc	50	4,1213	,52022	,07357
	yasli	50	4,1000	,50223	,07103

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
B3_boltop	Equal variances assumed	,175	,677	,208	98	,836	,02125	,10226	-,18168	,22418
	Equal variances not assumed			,208	97,879	,836	,02125	,10226	-,18169	,22419

APPENDIX 7

ETİK KOMİSYON İZNİ

T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük

Sayı : 35853172/ 433 - 2940   0 8 EYÜL 2017

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi: 07.08.2017 tarih ve 4957 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz İngiliz Dilbilimi Anabilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencilerinden **Aizada SAPARBAEVA**'nın **Doç. Dr. Emine YARAR** danışmanlığında hazırladığı **"Post-Sovyet Canlandırma Politikası Bağlamında Kırgız ve Rus Dillerinin Kuşaklararası Analizi"** başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun **15 Ağustos 2017** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Rahime M. NOHUTCU
Rektör a.
Rektör Yardımcısı

APPENDIX 8

ORIGINALITY REPORT

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
MASTER'S THESIS ORIGINALITY REPORT

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LINGUISTICS DEPARTMENT

Date: 13/05/2019

Thesis Title : Intergenerational Analysis of Kyrgyz And Russian Languages in the Context of Post-Soviet Revitalization Policy

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I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

		Date and Signature
Name Surname:	Aizada SAPARBAEVA	13.05.2019
Student No:	N12235362	
Department:	English Linguistics	
Program:	Master of Arts in Linguistics in English- MA	

ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED.

Doç. Dr. Emine YARAR

(Title, Name Surname, Signature)

APPENDIX 9

ORİJİNALLİK RAPORU

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZ ÇALIŞMASI ORİJİNALLİK RAPORU

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ
İNGİLİZ DİLBİLİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI'NA

Tarih: 13/05/2019

Tez Başlığı : Post-Sovyet Canlandırma Politikası Bağlamında Kırgız ve Rus Dillerinin Kuşaklararası Analizi

Yukarıda başlığı gösterilen tez çalışmamın a) Kapak sayfası, b) Giriş, c) Ana bölümler ve d) Sonuç kısımlarından oluşan toplam 78 sayfalık kısmına ilişkin,13/05/2019 tarihinde şahsım/tez danışmanım tarafından Turnitin adlı intihal tespit programından aşağıda işaretlenmiş filtrelemeler uygulanarak alınmış olan orijinallik raporuna göre, tezimin benzerlik oranı % 8 'tür.

Uygulanan filtrelemeler:
1- ☑ Kabul/Onay ve Bildirim sayfaları hariç
2- ☑ Kaynakça hariç
3- ☐ Alıntılar hariç
4- ☐ Alıntılar dâhil
5- ☑ 5 kelimeden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç

Hacettepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esasları'nı inceledim ve bu Uygulama Esasları'nda belirtilen azami benzerlik oranlarına göre tez çalışmamın herhangi bir intihal içermediğini; aksinin tespit edileceği muhtemel durumda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan ederim.

Gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.

		Tarih ve İmza
Adı Soyadı:	Aizada SAPARBAEVA	13.05.2019
Öğrenci No:	N12235362	
Anabilim Dalı:	İngiliz Dilbilimi	
Programı:	Tezli Yüksek Lisans	

DANIŞMAN ONAYI

UYGUNDUR.

Doç. Dr. Emine YARAR
(Unvan, Ad Soyad, İmza)