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CONTENTS

TEACHER BETWEEN REFLECTIVE PRACTITIONER AND ACTION RESEARCHER

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Abstract: The paper looks at what a language teacher's reflective work and action research entail, focusing on the contemporary move away from the positivist paradigm toward a postmodern one. It describes various types of reflective and action research practices and their characteristics, and various research methodologies. It also raises questions about these methodologies, the practices' goals and outcomes, and the practitioner's beliefs about "research", "knowledge", "understanding" and "emancipation" in the relativist postmodern era.

Keywords: reflective practice, action research, language teacher, methodology, postmodern paradigm

Research in language teaching and teacher education in the 21st century has placed considerable emphasis on the teacher as reflective practitioner and action researcher. This is based on the belief that a teacher can be self-consciously reflective and use their powers of reasoning in order to understand the complexity of teaching, improve teaching, and grow personally in their profession. Both the role of teacher as reflective practitioner and that of action researcher started to receive academic attention during the 1930s and 1940s (Dewey: 16, Lewin: 23), but it was not until Stenhouse's (32) notion of "teacher-as-researcher" that the two were brought together and in relation with research in education.

In the 21st century, training teachers as reflective practitioners has become a trend in many tertiary institutions, which have produced graduates aware of how important reflection on practice is both for the development of their own practice and the improvement of their teaching situation. Such teachers feel the need to express their beliefs

and ask questions about their practices in an effort to enable themselves to capture and guide classroom practice. They see professional growth as the creation of knowledge through the "transformation of experience" (Kolb: 21). The emphasis on transformation makes reflective teachers see reflection and research as part of their job, as tasks targeted at producing a re-construction of the self in relation to the professional and social context. This attitude is justified partly by their training, and partly by the erosion of their autonomy in contexts where education in general, and schools in particular, are the subjects of abundant legislation and close government scrutiny.

Another possible explanation for the teacher's interest in doing research may come from research itself. There has been a move in research from the quantitative paradigm to a qualitative, naturalist kind of inquiry, which started in the late 20th century. Since then, many new paradigms of research have emerged, associated with ethnography, case study, narrative inquiry, often with a smaller number of participants but with deeper and more holistic accounts. These qualitative paradigms are in fact, collections of approaches to research that share common principles and reflect major differences in three areas (after Duff: 17):

   a) the philosophical basis or belief system regarding epistemology (i.e., the nature of truth and knowledge). While traditional, positivist quantitative research is objective and unbiased, much qualitative research tends to be subjective;
   b) the ideology concerning ontology (i.e., the nature of reality). For traditional positivist research, the subject of inquiry is an objective reality, while for more recent research, reality is often constructed socially and can be seen from different perspectives;
   c) the methodology which shows various designs, methods, techniques and devices for eliciting and analyzing phenomena.

The qualitative paradigms undertaken in educational contexts have been variously labelled as "teacher research" (Cochran-Smith & Lytle: 13), "reflective practice" (Schön: 29, 30), and "action research" (Winter: 35, Carr: 10). In what follows, we will consider "reflective practice" and "action research".

Reflective practice

Reflective practice can be seen as an application of experiential learning to activities carried out as part of one's job, and it emphasizes the improvement of practice through reflection on experience. The key to promoting effective experiential learning is the "reflective teacher

model" (Ashcroft and Foreman-Peck: 2, Schön: 29, 30), in which critical inquiry based on experience followed by reflection is used to continually improve the practice of teaching. Improvement may be internal, in terms of knowledge and / or attitude, but also, and more importantly, externally observable as the result of changes in practical actions. A reflective teacher engages in a critical study which relates new ideas to previous knowledge and experience, evidence and conclusions, and examines the logic and evidence of the situation. Such an approach is embraced by people who take responsibility for the process of learning, have standards for their own progress, and are able to become more autonomous in the process. Reflective practice is, therefore, a conception of self-development which leads to a transformational process that demands skills of reflection, critical and analytical deliberation and evaluation. Central to developing such skills is the distinction between surface (atomistic) and deep (holistic) approaches to learning (Marton and Saljo: 24, Biggs and Telfer: 5, Candy: 9, Entwistle: 18):

> *Deep learning involves an attempt to delve beneath the words or to the underlying ideas or 'the things signified'. It requires a critical and analytical disposition, a deliberate search for the meaning of the subject* (Candy: 9, p. 291).

In other words, a teacher who adopts a deep approach to learning and professional growth has an explicit intention to develop an understanding of their own context.

Reflective practice may occur in action or, subsequently, on action. It may happen during a lesson, or they may arise through reading, overhearing, or through noticing something done differently. Events worth investigating and which offer opportunities for reconsidering professional practice are everywhere, inside and outside the classroom. Such events may make a teacher suddenly see their own knowledge and experience in a different light. However, at all times, in such circumstances, the focus is on the teacher themselves. At the heart of a teacher's reflection lies a surprise (Schön: 30, Newman: 25, 26), a critical event which makes the teacher first ask "What is it?" and then "How have I been thinking about it?", considering the unexpected event and what led up to it, and at the same time, the thought that turned back on itself (Schön: 30). The reflective teacher stands back, examines critically one's professional beliefs and values, and assumes that the

surprising reality can be altered in some way or improved. That is to say that the surprise or critical event has the potential of reshaping their sense of self, and may be turned into an account used as a tool for conducting research on themselves. In the process of writing the account, the teacher says who they are, assert and 'recreate' themselves.

Many teacher-investigators invent a personal research methodology as they go along. In other words, there is no 'right' way of being a reflective practitioner engaged in critical reflection. Today's teachers tend to move away from a mere common-sense understanding of what it means to be professional towards a comprehension of the complexity which lies between theory and practice, between knowing and doing. This is suggested by the framing of relevant aspects of practice in reflective writing. Writing itself has changed from simple objective accounts – narratives or descriptions, to an understanding of the intricacies of such accounts (Brown and Jones: 8). Several established methods of reflective practice are described below.

a) "Narrative inquiry" (Connelly & Clandinin: 14). This allows the teacher to explore their personal histories in order to understand their professional values and practices. The "evidence" in this methodology generally includes narrative accounts of important moments in one's professional life, reconstructions of significant professional incidents which help teachers understand their values and may provide insights into their current decision-making.

b) "Traditional teacher research" (Rudduck & Hopkins: 27). This uses different sorts of evidence, including documentary evidence (e.g., journal entries, students' work, official policy documents, newspaper accounts) used with the aim of understanding the various influences on the teacher's decision making. In this kind of research, the teacher identifies critical events in teaching and tries to examine the constraints and pressures which impact on daily work.

c) "Critical inquiry" (Smyth: 31, Boomer: 6). Although teachers tend to ignore the political aspect of their work, critical inquiry has an overt political flavour. However, the more traditional teacher research inquiries are also political in that they try to uncover the pressures that impact on the teachers, on what they do and how they do it, but these aspects are revealed during the later stages of research. Critical inquiry starts from a political view of education, learning and teaching, and uses as evidence official policy documents, correspondence, newspaper sources, students' work, etc.

d) "Case studies" (Winter: 34). These consist in a careful examination of an individual student or a small group of students. The aim of such research is to uncover the assumptions which drive teaching, and to learn from a given person or situation how to act, justify the decisions made, or think about the theoretical reasons for making them. Evidence can consist of personal reflections, lesson plans, students' work, interviews with students, parents and colleagues, etc.

As critical events, surprises or tensions can be diverse, the teacher may use a variety of techniques, tools, evidence and assumptions in their effort to comprehend a problematic reality. However, they must also test one's own constructions of the situation by bringing to the surface, juxtaposing, and discriminating among alternate accounts of that reality. The aim of this effort is to see that reality with new eyes and bring about changes both by producing writing that describes it and by acting upon it. The accounts of classroom practice can effectively change that reality as the teacher they not only respond to past action but may also guide future action.

Irrespective of the methodology used, the written account is an analysis of a personal understanding of one's own work and, often, of one's sense of the political realities which support or constrain it. The result of this analysis may be an expanded appreciation of the complexity of teaching and learning, and a stronger sense of how external realities affect what the teacher can and cannot do.

Action research

The term "action research" is used mainly in relation to organizational research, and especially with reference to management and organization studies. However, the meaning of "action research" and its practices are so diverse that there seems to be no unifying theory of the concept. In recent years, diversity has increased even more due to the postmodern approach to research, with its wide range of (sometimes) contradictory philosophical stances and methodologies, and the different natures of its discourses. Some of the generally acknowledged characteristics of action research, as identified by Cassell and Johnson (12) are presented below:

a) it integrates theory and practice through systematic teacher's self-reflective scientific inquiry;

b) it aims to improve practice by reconfiguring organizational decision-making;

c) it builds on an iterative cycle of problem identification, diagnosis, planning, intervention and evaluation of the results;
d) it relies on a process of hypothesis building, testing and modification within organizational contexts;
e) it is designed to solve problems with reference to clearly defined institutional goals and is expected to produce observable outcomes;
f) it promotes forms of organizational control, and possibly new alternatives of social and organizational paradigms;
g) it is generally implemented through the involvement of external researchers;
h) rather than personal amelioration of problems;
i) it is multidisciplinary in nature.

Action research takes different forms, which are justified by the different philosophical commitments of the researchers. Based on these different philosophical assumptions, Cassell and Johnson (12, p. 789) categorized the five most common types of action research as: "experimental", "inductive", "participatory action research", "participatory research practices" and "deconstructive". They also warned that the boundaries between them are often unclear.

a) "Experimental" action research follows the tradition of experimentation, and relies on the positivist assumption that a social science researcher who follows procedures similar to those used in natural sciences can be neutral and independent in collecting data, and can empirically test theoretical hypotheses. Such an approach involves hypothesis-testing experiments in which data and theory feed off each other and practical outcomes are evaluated. The most important aim of such practices is to contribute to the progress of institutions and society in general. However, the desire to apply experimental work to social organizational contexts has attracted the rejection of such action research as "unscientific".

b) "Inductive" action research relies on the use of qualitative methods of data collection to produce a form of theory that guides interventions. Theory is generated from the data collected and is based on the patterns of meanings that participants use to make sense of their organization. The emphasis is on the researcher's interpretation of the organizational participants' "theories-in-use". The main aim of this form of action research is organizational change engendered

through the involvement of the participants. The researcher's role is that of reflective participant who provides advice and encourages change. This type of research cannot be conducted in a rigorous manner, and is often criticized for lack of validity.

c) "Participatory action research" covers practices that have in common the participation of the people in the organization under investigation. Different sets of relationships are established between action researchers and the organizational participants throughout the research process, from the initial problem diagnosis to the adoption of action strategies. The researcher's role is one of enabler.

d) "Participatory research practices" aim at emancipating marginalized people and promoting democratic relations and alternative forms of organization, ameliorating the living conditions of a community. They are underpinned by a "critical theory", draw attention to the socio-cultural factors that influence the participants' experience, and place emphasis on the people's participation. Researchers commit themselves to an ideological struggle meant to transform structural inequalities. The practices depend on the ability of the individual researchers to shift the balance of power, and guide the evolution of a critical consciousness among participants through reflection and new self-understandings. As participants become aware of their own role in the organization, identify how they could contribute to its progress and the evolution of society in general, participation becomes emancipation.

d) "Deconstructive (postmodern) action research practices" are characteristic of the postmodern era, but their own characteristics are nebulous. Postmodernism is skeptical about the language's ability to describe or represent reality: language is thought to construct reality by producing a diversity of understandings and practices which offer countless manifestations and alternatives. Accepting a particular discourse would mean to silence other voices. Therefore, knowledge, truth and reality become linguistic entities which are open to constant revision. From such a relativistic perspective, no organizational change can have any epistemological authority. For action research, the consequence is that there may be no evaluative criteria. Action research practices can only create a space for alternative accounts without advocating any preference,

problematizing rather than finding answers (Cooper and Burrell: 15). Therefore, postmodern action research engenders diversity by helping people to think about their own thinking and that of other people.

Reflective practice and action research

At this juncture, we can say that the two concepts, "reflective practice" and "action research" share a few characteristics. Firstly, at their basis lie reflexivity and reflection on action, seen as potentially transformative of both the teacher and the situations reflected upon. Then, the sequence of actions is the same. What distinguishes action research from reflective practice is "strategic action". This means a deliberate and planned attempt to solve a particular organizational problem, using a coherent, systematic and rigorous methodology.

Reflective practice does not necessarily involve strategic action, although it may lead to it. Also, reflective practice is often a precursor to action research as it can be used to identify problems, while action research seeks to provide solutions. Action research may be targeted at how teachers do things, how things are, or at how they should be. In other words, it may be responsive or assertive, and the teacher researcher's accounts are likely to be more than simply reflective.

Over the years, many scholars have attempted to compare reflective practices and action research to "science", and have found that they differ in many ways (Sandford: 28; Argyris: 3, Brief and Dukerich: 7; Aguinis: 1). In science, knowledge is defined and evaluated in terms of standards and norms. In contrast, in reflective practice and action research, talking about standards and norms is pointless. Consequently, many questions arise, such as: When does a teacher do science? Can we speak of science when a teacher has only identified a problem without inquiring into its possible causes and suggesting solutions? Can we speak of science when the teacher has not tested solutions in practice? Can we speak of science in the absence of the validation of the teacher's observations? Can we speak of science in the absence of dissemination of findings? Does a teacher need other aims besides personal emancipation?

Another problem brought into question by action research in education is the status of the teacher researcher. This has become questionable in the context of discussions raised by postmodern philosophers such as Habermas (19, 20) who upheld the view that there is no such thing as a neutral, detached, independent observer, and that

truth, knowledge and reason are always conditioned through a mode of social engagement.

Reflective practice and action research in the postmodern era

The present-day postmodern approach affects reflective practices and action research in that they cannot be evaluated in terms of truth and objectivity. Consequently, some more questions are in order here: Do teachers need to attend more to the way in which they construct reality? How can the attitude of the teacher who believes in professional growth and seeks emancipation be reconciled with the skeptical postmodern attitude to values and research? How can the teacher benefit from a postmodern approach that encourages alternative and open-ended interpretations?

In traditional research, researcher and context seemed to stay the same long enough for the researcher to look at the subject of the research and act upon it. The research account, which was considered a historical analysis of practice, may have been subject to reformulations and recontextualizations, but was seen as an artifact which emerged at a certain moment and helped the researcher understand oneself and the profession. Today, postmodernists have grown aware of changes which are taking place as the researcher is considering the subject of the research and writing the account. In addition, when describing the subject of research, the researcher already affects the way he sees it and the way it was, is or will be acted upon. In other words, the researcher actually enters into a circular hermeneutic process, passing through a sequence of perspectives, each with its own possible account, each susceptible of various interpretations.

In the context of the postmodern paradigm all research is open to contradictory and conflicting interpretations, and researchers may feel they cannot have complete control over what they do. Traditional ways of knowing and doing are challenged, and re-reading, re-interpreting, and re-working for a changed situation are all expected. Furthermore, the interpretive framework of reflective practice and action research needs to find ways of balancing individual interpretations with the interpretation(s) of the community. That is to say that social norms and structures work at shaping the teacher's account. And as most of who the teacher is comes from their immediate community, their accounts are influenced to a large extent by the culture of the moment: by what they see on TV, what they read, the conversations they engage in, etc. In

other words, their accounts owe a great deal to the interpretive communities to which they belong.

Teacher researchers need to be aware of what may influence them, of the way in which they construct reality, but they must also be prepared to disrupt habitual ways of doing things, deconstruct practices they may find inappropriate or inadequate, while asking themselves what counts as emancipation, and how they can "observe" reality while being implicated in its construction and reconstruction. How can the teacher's research be evaluated in view of the discussions concerning research aims, the researcher's role, their relations with the events or organizations under investigation, and the communal and social influences? Can some conceptions of "science" justify action research projects where the researchers provide evaluation criteria from the perspective of their particular philosophical stances and articulate their particular ontological and epistemological commitments as a resource for evaluation? Is this often the case of practitioners who do reflective practice?

Conclusion

Reflective practice and action research are two concepts that have captured the imagination of the educational community for almost a century. In their various forms, they have become critical dimensions of the teacher's professional development. The process of creating a research account allows the reflective teacher to take distance from their own judgments and gives them an opportunity to make the basis of their work open to self- and others' inspection. The accounts illustrate tacit beliefs, values and theories. Even if they may be largely communally and culturally determined, and not always explicitly articulated, they offer clues to the professional and cultural values that affect education, learning and teaching.

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ACTION RESEARCH IN LANGUAGE TEACHING: PRACTITIONER REFLECTIONS

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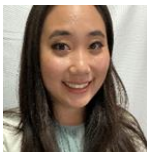
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Abstract: Action research (AR) can be more rewarding for teachers when they have a community in which to share their ongoing process and discuss interventions, methods, and findings. This article presents teachers' reflections on their Fall 2020 action research studies, when they were teaching online and adapting practices to the "new normal." The teachers were enrolled in a

graduate-level seminar on AR in which they conducted research in their individual teaching contexts and met regularly in critical friends groups. After a summary of the seminar design, the teacher researchers individually discuss their personal and professional learning from the course and research process. We conclude with recommendations for implementing AR in language teacher education programs.

Keywords: Action research; language teaching; reflection; critical friends

Introduction: Language Teacher Action Research

Action research (AR) in language teaching, broadly defined, is a form of research conducted by language teachers in their own classrooms on their own students' learning. AR is distinguished from much other research by the cyclical process in which teacher-researchers design and carry out interventions, collect and analyze data on their students' learning through those interventions, and then reflect on how those results can inform changes to the interventions in a subsequent instructional cycle (Burns: 2). Action researchers must balance their roles as classroom teachers and as data collectors and analysts; they are both insiders and outsiders to the research process.

Although individual teachers may do AR alone, it can be more fulfilling in a community of researchers. This community gives researchers conceptual and emotional support while engaging in an often-challenging process (Burns: 45). Teacher researchers may collaborate and test out the same intervention in several classrooms, or they may do separate research projects but come together to discuss their plans and share in the data analysis process. One important role that teacher researchers can play for each other is that of the *critical friend*:

> *A critical friend, as the name suggests, is a trusted person who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers critique of a person's work as a friend. A critical friend takes the time to fully understand the context of the work presented and the outcomes that the person or group is working toward. The friend is an advocate for the success of that work* (Costa and Kallick: 50).

This article focuses on the AR projects conducted by a group of language teachers who were also members of a graduate-level course on action research during the Fall 2020 semester. Each teacher researcher

reports briefly on the focus of their study and their reflections on the role of the course in their research process and researcher identity.

Context

Four teacher researchers (authors Christensen, Urada, Le, and Motomura) were among six MA and PhD students in Second Language Studies and Korean Linguistics and Literature enrolled in a course taught by the first author (Gilliland) at the University of Hawaiʻi Mānoa in the United States. A doctoral student (author Kunkel) served as a teaching assistant in the course and conducted her own AR study in a class she was teaching at the same time. The graduate-level course was designed to introduce novice teacher researchers to the theoretical and practical background of AR and to scaffold their individual research processes. The syllabus included assigned readings on theories behind AR, approaches to designing interventions and collecting and analyzing classroom data, and guidelines for reviewing the literature and writing for different audiences. Each researcher conducted their own study in their teaching contexts (English as a second language, Korean and Vietnamese foreign language, and second language studies), implementing interventions they identified as relevant to their students' learning. During class sessions, they met in critical friends groups to share their plans and collaboratively analyze their data. Because of the COVID-19 global pandemic, this course was taught entirely online over Zoom. The teachers were primarily teaching online as well.

Teacher-Researcher Reflections

In the following sections, each teacher researcher briefly describes their AR project and reflects on connections between their experiences in the graduate seminar and their development as action researchers and teaching professionals.

Cade Christensen: "Effects of Action Research in an ESL Classroom Setting on Students' Sense of Engagement and the Instructor's Professional Development"

I embarked upon the above-entitled action research project as a novice researcher with no prior experience doing AR or any other form of classroom research. Being an English as a second language (ESL) instructor working in a university-based Academic English program, my sense of identity as a language educator was firmly established, and the notion of also being a researcher was the furthest thing from my mind. However, my involvement in Dr. Gilliland's class, the support and input

22

I received from "critical friends," and the enthusiastic engagement my students showed in the AR process worked together to broaden my perceptions considerably.

The research question I investigated asked *"What effect does a class environment of mutual visibility, transparency, and sharing have on ESL writing students?"* The resulting process of inquiry and intervention was carried out in a diverse classroom setting composed of ESL students from Japan, Korea, Brazil, and Colombia who were learning to write academic essays and research papers using shared Google docs. This format allowed for a sense of mutual visibility, transparency, and sharing not otherwise possible.

The project was not carried out in isolation. Both the expert insight that Dr. Gilliland offered and the support and helpful suggestions provided by my fellow action research classmates created a network of "critical friends" to whom I could go for much needed guidance and encouragement. This proved invaluable, especially for a novice researcher like myself, and I found myself growing not only in confidence about the research process, but also in terms of new ideas for pedagogy and practice.

To my surprise, the response of my students was one of great enthusiasm and excitement at the thought of being part of my AR project. They saw themselves as "co-researchers" with me. This enthusiasm did not wane but continued throughout the 8-week duration of the project. In fact, through the AR process, my students actually bonded together as members of a purposeful "learning community" and came to view each other as cooperating peers and co-learners who could contribute to each other's growth as opposed to class-rivals.

In the end, my AR experience yielded much more than mere insight into my research question. It proved to be an accessible and invaluable entry point for me into doing academic inquiry in an actual classroom setting. As such, it merged what I had previously seen as two opposing worlds and allowed me to see that quality research and academic instruction can be done together in ways beneficial to both teachers and students. It also provided me with an expanded sense of identity. I now realize that research is not just something done 'out there' by others, but is something that *I* can do – indeed, to some extent, *need* to do – in order to fully participate in the wider community of ideas surrounding education and scholarship.

Kristen Urada: "Documenting My Transition from an Experienced ESL Instructor to a Novice University Instructor through Action Research"

My AR project documented my transition from an experienced ESL instructor to a novice university content course instructor. Prior to this transition, my formal education and work experience had been in language education specifically for ESL. As an ESL instructor with a masters degree in language education, my teaching philosophy was based on task-based language teaching and creating a student-centered classroom. In becoming a university instructor as a doctoral student, I didn't quite have the formal education and experience I had when I taught ESL. As I took on this new role as a university instructor, I used AR to document my transition and adapt to a new form of classroom management and professional development. For classroom management, I wanted to learn what university students reported as being helpful in their learning experience. As for professional development, I wanted to learn how I changed and adapted to my new teaching context in one semester.

This study took place in a 16-week undergraduate course about Hawai'i Creole English, a language commonly spoken in the local community throughout Hawai'i. Data collection included students' feedback at the middle and at the end of the semester. The feedback forms asked students what they found helpful and asked for their suggestions on how to improve specific aspects of the course. Additionally, I kept a reflection journal on a daily to weekly basis. I also collected course materials such as handouts meant to help the students prepare for the week, which they were not required to submit.

Similar to when I taught ESL, I made the effort to establish a student-centered classroom management strategy based on responses from the students' feedback. Commonalities between the students' feedback and my journal entries indicated a need for better management of small group discussions in Zoom breakout rooms, as discussions seemed limited due to students' (un)preparedness. Through their feedback, students indicated a preference for requiring submission of the weekly handouts to help address this issue. Moreover, as part of my professional development, I realized that creating a student-centered classroom and incorporating more hands-on activities related to the real world were two aspects of my teaching philosophy that remained consistent across contexts and were useful in creating more student participation.

Through this project, I found several benefits in doing AR. First, AR made me aware of not only what I was doing as the instructor, but also made me aware of this new group of students I was teaching so that I could design the class to meet their needs. Additionally, my AR journaling helped me to document my reflections of what worked well, what didn't work well, and how I addressed the problems or challenges that I experienced so that I could have something to look back on later if I teach the course again. Last but not least, it helped me develop a teaching philosophy as an undergraduate instructor.

Michelle Kunkel: "Teacher and Student Learning during Online Writing Conferences: Insights from Action Research"

My AR study involved testing out a new teaching intervention, teacher-led small group writing conferences (TLWCs), in my advanced academic writing course. TLWCs are a hybrid of 1-1 teacher-student writing conferences and peer review (Yeh: 176). In previous course evaluations, my students had noted their dissatisfaction with in-class peer review activities, which is what motivated me to experiment with a new peer review method. I hoped that I could improve students' experience and identify a more efficient way of scaffolding the review process through AR.

During TLWCs, I met with groups of 3-4 students on Zoom four times during the semester, and we would spend 10-15 minutes giving feedback collectively on each group member's draft. The main benefits of the hybrid TLWC model are that it saves time since the teacher does not need to meet with students individually, and it allows students to apprentice into the role of a peer reviewer by learning from the teacher's model. Preliminary findings in my study indicate that students started to use each other's papers as models and that students whose pre-conference comments were more detailed were more active during the conferences. In end-of-semester interviews, some students mentioned the benefits of receiving comments from students in different disciplines, a major change from the previous semester's course evaluations.

My AR project contributed to my professional growth in numerous ways. Systematically documenting the process and regularly reviewing the data increased my awareness of myself and my students' experiences during the conferences. It also allowed me to witness the effects of small changes during each iteration of the conferences. The most salient

benefit for me, though, has been a shift in perspective. I've realized that AR provides the tools for me to take a problematizing approach to classroom difficulties. In the past, facing problems in my classroom would easily frustrate and demotivate me. Now, however, I realize that classroom difficulties can make great researchable questions. Instead of feeling frustrated, I can ask myself: What can I do to understand what's really happening here? How can I look at this problem with a researcher's lens? Reframing my approach to classroom difficulties has been empowering and transformative; I hope that other teachers will benefit from the AR experience as much as I have!

Hoa Le: "Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) for a Mixed Level Vietnamese Language Class: An Action Research Study"

My action research is situated in an elementary Vietnamese language course at UHM that I taught for the first time in Fall 2020. The class was a heterogeneous group of students: some had no previous knowledge of Vietnamese and wanted to learn so they can travel to Vietnam for tourism or jobs, while others grew up in a home where Vietnamese was spoken and wanted to improve their skills to communicate better with their family. This posed a great challenge for me as the teacher; thus, the goal of my action research was to develop effective tasks for the class. I did the study in two cycles following the steps *Plan, Act, Observe, Reflect* (Kemmis, McTaggart: 88). The result in cycle 2 showed that the students were able to reach the outcomes of the task more successfully, and they also reported that the task in cycle 2 was more enjoyable to do.

While I was overwhelmed with the challenges that this course posed at the beginning of the semester, doing AR has helped me find solutions that worked for my class. From class observations, learners' feedback, and my teaching journal, I learned that the students were struggling with the task for various reasons including ambiguous instructions and frustration from working in pairs with much more advanced partners. The reflection helped me evaluate the effectiveness of the tasks and realize the issues in my intervention, which then helped me come up with an alternatively better teaching plan.

Van den Branden (175) wrote: "The ultimate question that should be raised ... is: Does the approach work for both teachers and students in real class-rooms? Does it enhance the language learning of the students involved? Does TBLT make a difference for people in real life?" To respond to those questions, he called for more teachers doing AR on

their TBLT classes. In my case, this AR project helped me make the necessary connections between the TBLT theory and practices. As AR required me to take on the roles of both a teacher and researcher, the process helped me realize the theory in a real context and transfer it to my day-to-day class activities effectively.

Kaoru Motomura "Writing Journals and Discussion to Raise Students' Perception of Diverse Community: An Action Research Study"

My AR project was intended to raise students' perception of diversity. Japanese students, my participants, receive English instruction for six years, middle school to high school in a foreign language (FL) setting. They learn English through grammar translation and audiolingual methods for examination purposes. To succeed on study abroad in English-medium institutions (i.e., U.S. colleges and universities), students need to enhance their writing and speaking skills. Students are in a new community; thus, they face issues raised in sociocultural theory such as identity, social norms, and educational norms. Japan is a homogeneous country whereas the U.S is the opposite, where people have diverse perspectives and thoughts. It is important for students to understand these differences in mind when they write or talk in English with others. Fundamentally, the Japanese communication style is the opposite of English. English rhetoric is linear, deductive, and logical. Writing style, therefore, differs between Japanese and English. English is a writer-responsible language which means it is the responsibility of the writer to make sure the message is understood. Thus, writing is clear, direct, and unambiguous (Ferris, Hedgcock: 20).

Due to the examination-based curriculum, Japanese students' primary focus when they write or speak English is grammar and its accuracy rather than contexts. In my AR study tutoring two Japanese students studying in Hawaiʻi, I asked them to write a daily reflection journal as free writing practice that intended to expand writing fluency. Students wrote it on a shared Google document, and then I gave comments using the comment function. I provided indirect feedback to promote adding information to polish sentences and make them coherent and clear. Another writing activity that I implemented was discussion with a native English speaker and writing a reflection on the discussion. The discussion reflection provided a moment to reflect on their speaking activity including providing each other with feedback, compliments, and suggestions. Peer feedback is a common practice in U.S. education but is very new to Japanese students. Providing peer feedback gives an

opportunity to reflect on high and low points of an activity as well as themselves. Students can build rapport and encourage each other. Although they are both language learners, they can learn from each other. It also promotes a learner centered learning environment.

For me, the benefit of conducting AR as a course project is receiving support from a professor and fellow students. I am a novice teacher and researcher, but conducting AR as a course project lowers my anxiety particularly under the current pandemic circumstances. When I notice an incident, it is always good to have an opportunity to inquire regularly. My interventions came from discussions with critical friends. Although I am a novice language teacher and researcher, I am still able to contribute to others from my own experiences as a second language learner, another factor that made me feel less oppression.

Conclusion

Taken together, these teacher researchers' reflections illustrate the benefits language teachers gain from undertaking classroom action research while participating in a community of fellow researchers. The seminar itself served as an academic and interpersonal support for the teacher researchers as they pursued their individual projects. As the above authors note, not only were they able to improve their immediate teaching situations through AR, but they also transformed their identities as teachers and as researchers. Many identified new strengths or found confidence in their roles as language professionals.

Teacher educators should consider establishing similar courses to support teacher learners (new and continuing teachers) as they investigate their students' learning. The course design plays an important role in ensuring that teacher researchers feel supported in their AR processes. There should be a balance in the syllabus between structured assignments (such as research proposals, literature reviews, and final papers) and unstructured workshop time, where teacher researchers can meet with critical friends groups and collaboratively discuss their ongoing research projects. Course instructors can facilitate these groups initially, but should step back and let the teacher researchers shape their work as their confidence grows.

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PROJECT-BASED LEARNING FOR INCREASED STUDENT ENGAGEMENT

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Abstract: Project-based learning is an inquiry-based teaching method which utilizes student projects as the primary vehicle for delivering and reinforcing content, course goals, objectives and learning experiences. While many teachers include projects in their courses, not all teachers practice project-based learning. Traditional approaches to teaching use didactic methods where the teacher assumes the primary role of knowledge provider. The teacher delivers lecture-based content to the students who spend most of the instructional time listening and recording notes. Project-based learning, in contrast, allows the teacher and student to assume the role of knowledge provider and the learning is reinforced through student or team work on a project associated with and driven by the content. This manuscript presents a reasoned list of the principles of project-based learning, as well as a comparison of project-based learning to other student-centered learning approaches.

Introduction

Project-based learning (PBL) challenges teachers to "rethink" how they "teach" content in their traditional classrooms. In the traditional settings, the teacher provides students with all information or knowledge they require in an attempt to meet the goals or standards in the curriculum. Sometimes, teachers ask students to complete follow-up activities like worksheets, homework or examinations to "prove" that certain standards or course goals have been met; clearly, those follow-up activities are not meant to guide the curriculum. After delivering content related to the learning standard or goal, the teacher rapidly moves on to the next learning standard or goal, and any prior class content or activities usually have little to do with the subsequent lessons or class

activities. Conversely, project-based learning is a teaching methodology which engages students' natural curiosity by engaging them in real-world and personally meaningful projects that are integrated across the curriculum and through numerous lessons (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2006).

The roots of project-based learning date back more than a hundred years to the work of John Dewey (1959) whose laboratory school at the University of Chicago was based on inquiry-based learning. Dewey maintained that when students develop a personal investment in learning when they are engaged in real-world and meaningful tasks that simulate tasks that a professional might encounter in the workplace or society outside school. More contemporary findings in the learning sciences (i.e., Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 1999) have confirmed that even the best students tend to only acquire superficial or short-term understandings when presented with new content through traditional didactic teaching methods (Bransford et al., 1999). To overcome the shortcomings of traditional didactic instructional teaching methods, project-based learning (PBL) engages students in real and meaningful problems that are important to them and that are similar to problems that an adult might encounter in the workplace or in the larger society outside school. Cobern, et al., (2010) notes that:

> *Many educators feel that inquiry instruction rather than direct is most in keeping with the widely accepted constructivist theory of how people learn, i.e., that meaningful knowledge cannot simply be transmitted and absorbed but learners have to construct their own understanding (p 82).*

Supporting this assertion, Condliffe et al., (2017) suggested that what clearly distinguishes PBL from other instructional approaches is that projects are not the culmination of learning (as they often are in standard classrooms) but, are instead the process through which learning takes place. Meanwhile, a similarity between the traditional didactic classroom model and PBL is that they both involve teachers and curriculum developers in designing lessons that promote active learning.

Indispensable Characteristics of PBL

Numerous researchers have documented the need for students to learn to regulate their own learning and have pointed out that PBL provides educators with a tool for reinforcing such learning. English & Kitsantas (2013) implied that in PBL students must become responsible

for their learning and actively participate in the processes of constructing knowledge and making meaning of the learning content. For many students, this leadership role conflicts with deeply ingrained habits they have developed through more familiar didactic classroom experiences, in which they have been passive recipients of knowledge. In order to be successful in PBL, students must take responsibility for the learning process by setting goals, monitoring, reflecting, and sustaining their motivation from the beginning of the project until it is completed—a more active role in learning. However, for many students, transitioning from a passive learner to an active learner does not occur naturally or easily. Therefore, the learning environment and teaching practices in PBL must be designed with intention to support students' self-regulated learning and active learning (English & Kitsantas, 2013).

This is not to suggest that the role of the teacher is diminished or that the teacher assumes a lesser role in the teaching learning process. Grant (2011) observes:

> *Possibly the most consequential result from this study for preservice and in-service teachers is the influence the classroom teacher had on the participants. In this study, the participants reported that the teacher shaped which resources they used, which content they pursued, and to some extent, which elements were included in their learning artifacts (p. 62).*

Similarly, Halvorsen, et al., (2012) implied that teachers play an essential role in assisting students with connections between the lessons learned in the classroom and the manners through which those lessons applied in the world beyond the school walls. He stated that:

> *Notably, while teachers followed our project plans closely, we found that teachers augmented the projects by helping students make connections between the projects and the world beyond school, between and within the projects, and between the projects and other school subjects (p. 218).*

Project-based learning is a key strategy for creating independent thinkers and learners. Students solve real-world problems by designing their own inquiries, planning their learning, organizing their research, and implementing a multitude of learning strategies (Bell, 2010). Bell goes on to suggest that when measuring basic academic subject

proficiency, standardized testing illustrates that students engaged in PBL coursework outperform their traditionally educated peers. Cobern, et al., (2010) implied that many educators have come to believe that PBL rather than didactic instruction is better aligned with the widely accepted constructivist theory of how people learn. This theory proposes that meaningful knowledge cannot simply be transmitted and absorbed but learners, but that learners have to construct their own understanding of the learning content, if it is to be retained for longer periods of time. Cobern, et al., (2010) goes on to note that almost no research suggests that didactic instruction leads to superior long-term learning gains among students when compared to PBL and questions whether there are any other grounds with which proponents of didactic could argue for the superiority of the method.

Basic Principles of PBL

The first and most important principle of PBL is to center learning activities around a real-world project or challenge that addresses the desired learning content. Projects are not a supplement as they often are within the didactic teaching approach, but rather a replacement or alternate teaching method. In PBL, students become actively engaged in the learning experience because the student's assume responsibility for applying the learning content to solve a given problem—thereby meeting the goals of the lesson. The learning content is consistently contextualized through the efforts of the students attempting to solve the problem or complete the project and knowledge-acquisition is driven by the student's need to solve a seemingly real-world challenge (Remijan, 2016). These challenges are developed by the teacher in such a way as to force the students to utilize the desired learning content to effectively solve the problem or complete the project. Challenges or problems that drive the project should be reflective of the learning content desired, be reflective of real-world scenarios, be feasible, be worthy of the student's class time, be meaningful and ethical. A well-designed project or challenge should help to focus students on the important learning content that was previously identified by the teacher.

The premise of the project (problem) motivates knowledge acquisition in line with desired learning content or important class materials. This is a simple principle in theory but can be difficult in practice. It is ultimately up to the teacher to ensure that the problem or project can be solved while using the desired learning content or important course material. Project-based learning assumes that the

student does not already have a firm grasp of the knowledge or learning content that they are required to utilize to effectively solve the given problem or challenge (Remijan, 2016). So, it becomes a challenge for the teacher to use their knowledge of course content to discern which problems will allow the student to meet class standards, goals or objectives. However, this does not mean that students cannot participate in the selection of a problem with guidance from the teacher.

The project should be complex enough to at allow guided inquiry by the students. The proposed problem must be able to be solved in alternate ways and should not include a single known response or solution at the outset. Darling-Hammond (2008) noted that PBL projects should lead students to confront and resolve conflicting ideas and deeply immerse themselves into the learning content. Teachers should only structure the project enough to facilitate the student's progress, but not enough to severely limit the student's choice in designing and implementing a creative solution—increased levels of creativity is an additional benefit of using the PBL method of instruction. The level of creative inquiry allowed for the student depends on the student's ability to organize their own solution within the time constraints of the course.

Many teachers, who are not familiar with the two concepts, easily confuse problem-based learning and project-based learning. Savory (2016) noted that problem-based learning is a type of project-based learning. Unlike the traditional teacher- centered didactic mode of instruction, where the teacher is solely responsible for student learning, project-based learning places much responsibility on the students (Savory). Problem-based learning uses the teacher to facilitate learning, but project-based learning requires that teachers specify the final product and then serve in the role of advisor while students or teams of students seek to complete the project.

Critical Elements of Project-based Learning

There exist numerous elements that, when present, allow project-based learning to become an effective and indispensable teaching method for most any discipline of study. Some of these elements include:

1. PBL uses intriguing or engaging questions that motivate students to complete the project and thereby engage in the desired content. One of the primary responsibilities of the teacher, when utilizing PBL, is the development of a project that requires students to apply desired content

or learning materials in order to effectively complete the project or solve the problem. A well-designed question or project allows for the students to continually elaborate, explore, and answer questions related to the desired learning content throughout a project (Krajcik and Mamlok-Naaman, 2006). By doing so, the students reflect on the desired learning content continuously and dive deeper in to that content to solve the problem or complete the project. PBL lessons, which students see as fun and challenging, greatly increases their engagement in learning. Brain research informs us that unless students are engaged in learning, true learning does not take place and long-term learning gain does not occur (Bransford et al., 1999). Introducing a new project as a phenomenon, oddity, or curiosity is a great way to entice students. By using this technique, learners begin speculating about the "curiosity" and start exploring potential explanations prior to the teacher providing any content; this fosters a need to know. This can provide the impetus for students or teams of students to complete their own research to solve the problem or complete the project.

2. PBL is based upon significant and important learning content that students should learn regardless of the methods used to deliver the instruction. PBL provides the students with an opportunity to investigate important learning content at a deeper level than is generally the case with traditional didactic instruction. By attempting to solve a content-rich project, students develop and hone problem solving and critical thinking skills, self-regulation skills as well as collaboration skills by working in small teams during the learning experience. Krajcik and Mamlok-Naaman, (2006) note that in project-based learning, teachers should seek out more authentic and real-world issues related to the desired content to further motivate their students.

3. In PBL, projects are used to promote deeper learning of content that would be taught regardless of the teaching method. Unfortunately, projects are sometimes used as a culminating activity in traditional classroom, but they could be more effectively used as the process through which the learning is transmitted and then immediately applied by the students to solve a rich problem or complete a project. When using projects correctly in the classroom, projects centered on important core learning concepts, students continually develop and use creativity, problem solving and critical thinking skills.

4. PBL does require more class time that traditional didactic instruction, but the students also learn more and retain that newly learned information longer. Many teachers note that using PBL can

require additional class time as the students strive to complete assigned projects. However, if teachers integrate multiple learning concepts and content into a single project, they can address more content within a single PBL lesson. This method mirrors typical activities outside school in the real-world, where activities are not artificially divided by discipline area or allotted time schedules. Condliffe et al., (2017) noted that in the real world, there are multiple ways to arrive at the same conclusion. Students must use critical thinking skills and develop their own solutions to solve problems. When this happens, students take ownership and use these skills to solve future problems.

5. PBL supports collaborative and cooperative learning in the classroom. In the 21st Century, collaboration with others is an essential skill to learn. When students work together to solve problems, they learn crucial skills that will help them in the future. Initially, students working in groups is challenging, but with guidance and patience from the teacher, they can determine their strengths and weaknesses. Over time, the students become experts at working in groups, which unquestionably helps them later in life (Margot & Kettler,2019).

6. In PBL, students or teams of students create a product that answers a question or solves a problem. The point of PBL is to create a project or an artifact. The products can be scale models, physical models, games, inventions, plays, and computer programs. While the product is essential, it is not the ultimate outcome, per se, but it is the vehicle through which important learning takes place (Condliffe et al., 2017). If the product does not address important content, then a unique learning experience was missed.

7. PBL provides opportunities for formative and summative assessment, reflection and feedback. High quality PBL lessons provide frequent student self-assessments and teacher formative assessments during the project activities ensuring that learning is occurring (Katzenmeyer & Lawrenz, 2006). Teachers must provide students with the time to reflect on the work they are completing and how it relates to larger learning concepts. These formative assessments can be as simple as oral presentations by the students or as complex as student journals and formal presentations.

Summary

When used correctly, these critical elements create a well-rounded environment for student learning in a project-based learning environment. Using all the elements may not be feasible or time-

efficient for all PBL activities but using them as often as possible is strongly encouraged. In traditional didactic classrooms, most "products" become the summative test of teacher learning expectations; however, when teachers use PBL correctly, the product/project itself demonstrates that learning took place. While it is not this authors intent to discourage teachers from utilizing instructional methods with which they are very capable, familiar and comfortable, it is my intent to encourage you to try something new—like project-based learning. This might be as simple as identifying one learning concept that you routinely teach and converting it to a project-based learning format. To convert it, simply identify a real-world project that the students could complete that would require them to apply the desired learning content to effectively complete the project. With experience, project-based learning can become as comfortable in the classroom as any other teaching method, but I believe that you will be impressed with the reactions of your students and the deeper level at which they engage with the learning experience.

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A PERSONAL REFLECTION ON THE BENEFITS OF DOING ACTION RESEARCH

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Abstract: Conducting action research appears to offer viable solutions to classroom problems English language educators might face. The aim of the article was to determine the benefits of doing action research from a personal perspective. The study is based on the evidence of action research conducted by me at Alecu Russo Balti State University. The results informed me in terms of what role to take on in the classroom as well as what course of action to embark upon in order to help learners develop their skills to become successful users of the English language and succeed in their courses. They also helped me understand why the set learning objectives were not reached.

By means of introduction

Language education is a context bound process where all the participants involved are to be taken into consideration. Its primary goal must be to scaffold students' learning so that they can integrate successfully into the 21st century society with its new demands and expectations. Indeed, a language educator's purpose is to develop not only the 4 basic skills, but also the 21st century skills in order to enable the learners to meet these new demands and expectations. Hence the process of designing one's teaching can become rather challenging.

Once a person is determined to take up teaching as a career, they need to realize that they make a deliberate decision of becoming active learners for the rest of their lives. This implies not only that they should constantly broaden their linguistic

knowledge, but also that they should always make informed choices based on their concrete educational context. While it is extremely important to continually update their theoretical framework for teaching, it is of utmost importance to consider the setting in which the education process takes place above all.

Experience can definitely play a significant role in informing language educators regarding their choices. Yet, relying solely on experience can become a serious limitation in the process itself as there is a high probability for language educators to ignore the learners' actual needs. As a result, the language education process is likely to fail, and both teachers and learners might end up demotivated, putting the blame on one another. Consequently, teachers and learners alike are likely to react in such a situation and not to reflect upon it.

Thus, a language educator's experience and vast knowledge of the subject are not enough to inform their choices regarding the education process in general. It is their concrete education context that should come first when making those informed choices regarding their teaching process.

The teacher's role in the language education process

The shift in the paradigm from teacher-centeredness to student-centeredness has resulted in the way the teacher's role is viewed nowadays. The result is quite challenging for teachers as it appears teachers should be able to take on various roles in order to meet the needs of the 21st century learners.

Harmer (1991) offers a detailed description of a teacher's role starting from that of a controller and ending with that of a facilitator. The axis the scholar presents shows the gradual transition from controlled practice with the teacher in charge of the process to free practice with the learners taking responsibility for their own learning. The scholar points to the fact that all roles are important if used appropriately. The teacher should be careful when they assume a certain role. For example, the role of a controller is best suited for the presentation of the new material.

The role of an assessor depends on the type of assessment, i.e., summative or formative. Summative assessment usually

implies a process of signaling out the cases of incorrectness so that the learners know where their mistakes are and work to correct them. Formative assessment mostly relies on the continuous feedback teachers provide during the learning process. It is not invasive and implies more accountability from the students for their own learning.

The role of an organiser is crucial in the language education process. The teacher should design the activities in such a way that there is a logical sequence between them and their purpose is clear to the learners, i.e. they can understand in what way they benefit from doing them. In addition, the instructions should be clearly formulated so that there are no misunderstandings impeding the education process.

The role of a prompter is to be taken on only when the learners need the prompts. The prompts themselves should not be the solutions to the problems, but rather follow-up questions meant to boost their critical thinking so that the learners themselves solve the problem. The teacher as a prompter should be discreet, otherwise, the learners might feel the control is taken away from them, and as a result put the responsibility on the teacher.

The teacher as a participant is when the teacher is actively involved in the activity with the learners. It is true that their status will not allow them to be considered one of the students, but still, it can be highly motivating for learners seeing the teacher involved in the same activity as they are.

The teacher is also a coach for the learners, who can guide them and offer advice when necessary. This role particularly is crucial when meaningful relationships are established. It contributes to the creation of a learning community sharing similar goals and interests. This atmosphere can boost learners' motivation.

Finally, the last role mentioned by Harmer is that of a resource. This is the role in which the teacher finally 'lets go' (Kumaravadivelu, 2003: 131) and empowers the students to take control over their own learning. The teacher is there at their disposal, yet not involved directly in the activity. This is the role

to play in a student-centred classroom.

Harmer adds one more role at the end, and namely that of an investigator. The scholar views this role as the one in which the teacher's behaviour does not relate to the students. It relates solely to the teacher, and their professional development. Jeremy Harmer speaks about the importance of continuous professional development and the fact that teachers should closely observe their own language education process.

Yet, this role might be decisive. It is this role that should inform the teacher regarding the decisions to be taken in the classroom to achieve the set learning objectives. Thus, by investigating the educational setting, the teacher can decide on what roles to take during the lesson in order to scaffold the students' learning process.

Unlike Harmer who focused exclusively on the teacher's necessity to take on various roles in the classroom, Kumaravadivelu (2003) differentiates between three distinct roles. Once the role has been chosen, the teacher is expected to adopt a certain set of behaviours characteristic of that particular role. For example, the role of a passive technician implies that the teacher has the role of a transmission channel through which the instruction process takes place. Such a teacher strictly follows the directives from both their administration and specialized books. The role is totally prescribed and there is very little need for agency from the teacher's part. (action) The teacher's sole interest is in teaching the content. They are the channel through which the information is transmitted. Such teachers are not informed by their learners' needs, but by the theorists, whose information they transmit. This role is still widely used nowadays, although it can be quite demotivational for teachers and students alike. However, there is a tendency to take on namely this role in our Moldovan context. (One reason I can think of is that the burden of responsibility is too high when one becomes in charge of their own language education process.)

The other role Kumaravadivelu suggests is that of a reflective practitioner (it is what Harmer labelled as investigator).

The reflective teacher is expected to question their own teaching and closely observe their educational context in the process.

Zeichner and Liston (1996) believe that a reflective practitioner can solve problems that arise in the classroom because they can step back to examine the assumptions and values of their own teaching. They realize the peculiarities of their own educational setting and consider its needs while designing their education process. Such teachers are autonomous in terms of decision making and take full responsibility for their teaching. They will not be informed by theories in their practice, but by their learners' needs. Theories are not viewed as prescriptions that need to be followed but as descriptions from which the teacher can choose to respond to the learners' actual needs.

Kumaravadivelu (2003) claims that the teachers' continual process of self-reflection and self-renewal should result in the elaboration of their own personal theory of teaching that will enable them to make a change, i.e. to transform the education process. Such a teacher is a transformative intellectual who is able to design their education process taking into consideration the broader socio-cultural context in which they live, which impacts the learners' self and personal identity as anchored in the given society.

The three roles overlap, as all three are informed by the theories in the field of language education. Yet, the passive technician stops there and does not engage in the process of self-reflection in which they try to solve problems by questioning their values and beliefs, and they definitely do not seek to transform their teaching and anchor it in the bigger socio-cultural context of their community.

The principles of Action Research

Action Research seems to offer the necessary methodological support for the reflective teacher to conduct their research in order to solve a problem they are confronted with in the classroom or to improve the quality of their teaching. By choosing to become an action researcher, they choose 'to create social hope and to take action to try to realise the hope in terms of social evolution'

(McNiff, Whitehead, 2002: 16).

The ontological assumptions in action research are expressed in terms of values shared within a concrete context. 'Action research rests on ideas to do with truth, social justice, compassionate ways of living, respect for pluralistic forms' (McNiff, Whitehead, 2002: 16). The action researcher will look for ways so that everybody has the same rights and equally lives by the shared values.

When it comes to the epistemological assumptions, i.e. how we come to know what we know, the knowledge is derived from experience. The action researcher never stops learning. It is the process of reflecting on that learning that generates knowledge in action research. While getting to know the principles of action research, many might think that this is exactly what they have been doing in their teaching. Yet, they did not have the theoretical framework to inform their choices, on the one hand, and they did not do it systematically.

Indeed, language educators can ask themselves 'How can I help my learners learn?' or 'What should I do to motivate my learners?' Most probably they try to find solutions to their problems. Now a passive technician will simply consult the theories and implement them without considering the context. The reflective practitioner will consider the learners' needs and look for solutions and observe their effectiveness in practice, always ready to make the necessary changes in order to realize their pedagogical goals. This is a process of introspection where little interaction happens with other participants in the process. The action researcher would embark on a research journey which should be well organized and done systematically in order to get consistent and valid results. They will reflect upon their practice and will analyse the results so that at the end they could formulate their conclusions and share them with the teaching community, thus contributing to the already existing knowledge. They will use the most suited research methodologies in the process.

Being a language educator and an action researcher can be quite challenging, yet it is rewarding. Conducting action research

can truly offer a comprehensive picture of the causes of the problem the language educator is confronting and enable them to design ways of solving the problem. Sometimes, simply reflecting is not enough, as the language educator does not possess the data they could analyse to understand the problem and offer solutions.

Burns (2010: 3-4) gives the example of a teacher who was dissatisfied with the way oral tests happened in her classroom. Although she reflected upon the way the oral test took place, she could not determine the root of the problem. When she applied a more systematic and scientific approach, she was able to establish the problem and consequently fix it. What she did was to keep a journal to monitor her emotions. She also asked the students to take a questionnaire to get an understanding of what they prefer and what they find difficult in the oral tests. She also recorded and analysed some oral tests. She asks students for feedback. In addition, she asked a colleague to interview students after the oral tests. After having analysed her data, she managed to get to the core of the problem and fix it. Reflection was not enough for her as she had a rather erroneous perception regarding the way oral tests happened, and she could not observe her own behaviour objectively. Her reflections concerned what she thought she was doing during the oral tests, and not what she was actually doing. This is why action research can inform a language educator's choices better than reflection. Moreover, doing action research does not exclude reflection, it is one of its constituents. It is embedded in the action research cycle.

Graphically the action research cycle can be presented in the following way:

Reflect   Plan

Observe   Act
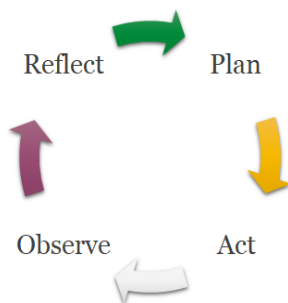
Once the problem has been identified the action researcher elaborates a plan that will show the course of action to be taken to solve the problem. It is the stage where the research questions are asked and the methodology established. The researcher hypothesizes the possible outcomes of their investigation. Thus, it is prospective.

During the next stage, the researcher implements the strategies they have decided upon in the planning phase. This implies the change in the teaching practice that is hypothesized to scaffold the students' learning more than the traditional way of teaching.

Observation is closely related to action as the researcher closely examines the effects of their action on the learners. This is the phase where the data is collected, which upon analysis, i.e. reflection will provide answers to the questions the researcher set at the beginning. This phase is retrospective, as it informs the researcher concerning further course of action.

It should be mentioned, however, that action researcher generates knowledge from the experience. Knowledge is in a constant process of development and the action research might go on in cycles in order to get the needed answers. It can also be the case that by the end of the action research cycle a new problem was identified. This means that the researcher would plan a further course of action, observe it and reflect upon it.

Norton (2009: 70) suggests the following steps of action research:

> Step 1: Identifying a problem/paradox/ issue/difficulty;
> Step 2: Thinking of ways to tackle the problem;
> Step 3: Doing it;
> Step 4: Evaluating it (actual research findings);
> Step 5: Modifying future practice.

Probably the biggest challenge is in thinking of the methodology one needs to apply in order to conduct the research. The action researcher can use questionnaires, interviews, experimental designs, or observational research. Whatever the method, it might not be enough to validate the results of the

research. This is why the researcher uses triangulation, i.e., combines methods in their research.

A personal perspective of conducting action research

When it comes to my experience of using action research in my career, I found it rather challenging and exhausting. Yet, it is rewarding as it can truly offer a solution to the existing problems. If it does not offer the solution, it offers you the answer that your prospection from the planning phase cannot be applied to your particular educational context.

What the language educator needs to properly conduct action research is probably more support from the institution, not to be overloaded with a lot of tasks to do and to have the basic knowledge of research methodology. It is extremely important to understand that research is a systematic inquiry and only upon analysis can it offer the answers to the sent research questions. There are several factors, such as lack of time or lack of knowledge in conducting research that prevents teachers from undertaking action research (Dornyei, 2007; Norton, 2009). It is true that teachers reflect upon their teaching and look for ways to improve it, yet, they are not always sufficiently prepared to conduct the research per se. That is why collaboration between the teacher and the researcher is extremely important. Thus, the researcher can co-opt the teacher in a research project or collaborate with the teacher by participating equally in the process.

The first time I applied action research was while doing my PhD investigation. My choice was due to the belief that by doing action research the institution will benefit from it as it would result in the improvement of the educational process, and transform the way academic writing is taught at the university. Therefore, I dared to take on the role of the transformative intellectual to a certain extent (Condrat, 2017).

It is important to mention that my action research was conducted in cooperation with a teacher from the university. There were two central questions that I sought to answer, and namely:

1. What is the students' understanding of academic writing?

2. Can blogging enhance academic writing skills?

The second central question sought to establish how students respond to the use of blogs for academic writing tasks; what strategies the teacher can apply in order to help the students to improve their academic writing skills; and what the role of the teacher is.

The project was designed for 12 weeks, starting from September 4th, 2014 and ending November 23rd, 2014. Every week the students were assigned to complete a new task. The objectives of the tasks communicate my intentions to the students, i.e., what I think they could achieve by completing the task.

The first week was devoted to explaining what the experiment consisted of. We also established Wednesday as our meeting for debriefing. The following 11 weeks were devoted exclusively to writing academic tasks. My intention was to help the students respond to actual writing tasks, and thus boost their academic progress.

I triangulated my research as I wanted to get valid and consistent results. In particular, I used background questionnaires in order to get the bigger picture of the existing problem (72 respondents took the questionnaire), then I analysed the existing documents related to academic writing in our department (i.e., how much students are expected to write for academic purposes). Then I worked with my focus group which consisted of 6 students. I used observation notes during the study. Similarly, I asked the students to take a pre-treatment and post-treatment survey. The students' writing and comments were another source of data I analysed.

The results of the research indicate that if the blogging practice were integrated into the curriculum, the students could manage to create their micro-discourse community where they would share knowledge and thoughts. It would also create the platform for their interactions on an academic level to take place. However, the teacher's role is still important in this interaction. Students seem to lack autonomous learning and they constantly look up to the teacher for advice and wait for the teacher to have

their final say. We may assume that if this practice is applied systematically, the teacher's presence might be on request. If for example there is something which is unclear, the students will address the teacher.., otherwise they will rely on themselves or their peers.

Blogging can be used as a tool to communicate, to compare one's work with another's, whereas the practice of sharing and peer-commenting could enhance the students' academic writing skills.

The study showed the following benefits of blogging:
• helps the students become aware of the writing process;
• helps to develop reader awareness;
• creates the environment for learner autonomy and boosts collaborative learning;
• makes writing more interactive;
• makes writing more purposeful, increasing the students' intrinsic motivation.

In this research the use of blogs seemed to be beneficial for students. Yet two major problems in the use of blogs were signalled out.

The first one is physical (sometimes the computers do not work or the internet connection drops), the second is psychological (students are afraid to share their work online, or it is difficult for them to overcome the fear of commenting on a peer's post, or they are afraid of failure).

On my return, I did not have the chance to further implement the practice. The reasons did not depend on me.

Action research was also conducted when dealing with the process of designing the education process (Condrat, 2018). I applied backward design to planning my courses that year. 53 students attended my course in *Discourse Analysis*. I have designed the course taking into consideration the principles of backward design. As my strong belief is that theory does not contribute to the students' enduring understanding, the purpose of the study was to help students apply the knowledge to their contexts appropriately.

At the beginning I wanted to determine what their understanding of discourse is. Students were asked to come up with a series of expectations they have regarding this new course. It should be noted that all students thought of discourse as a public speech. Consequently, their expectations ranged from improving their abilities to create a speech to delivering the speech correctly. Similarly, students hoped to improve their overall language proficiency level as well as their analytical skills.

During the course of the instruction the students' understanding was assessed by asking them to perform certain analyses. Yet, the constant interaction during lectures and practical classes offered a better insight of how their understanding of the subject is proceeding. At the end I wanted to see how the intended purposes had been realized. The students were asked to state what the purpose of the course was. It should be noted that 88% of the students gave accurate explanations and meaningful interpretations, 6% of the students misunderstood the task and did a totally different assignment where they proved they can effectively apply the knowledge gained at the course. However, 11% of the students offered inaccurate answers, which basically consisted of copying some definitions related to discourse and discourse analysis.

The results of the investigation indicate that backward design can help teachers in the process of planning the whole instruction process. Indeed, proceeding from where one wants to get, it is easier to plan the steps to be taken in order to realize one's goals. Thus, teachers should have a clear vision of their final ends from the very beginning in order to make the instruction process purposeful and motivational for the students and for themselves.

I applied the principles of action research while trying to flip the traditional grammar classroom. While working with first-year students at Alecu Russo Balti State University of Moldova in 2018-2019, I considered flipping the traditional way of teaching grammar (Condrat, 2019a). As a consequence, students were encouraged to study the grammar topic at home, and then in the classroom they were supposed to do various tasks that will focus

on the development of their higher order thinking skills. I also made a series of YouTube videos devoted to the grammar topics that they were supposed to cover so that they can turn to them whenever they needed. It should be mentioned that they enjoyed looking at their teacher at home and taking notes of what she said. One of the students even admitted to watching them together with her family.

However, the problem appeared when students were asked to do the tasks in the classroom. They knew the content but they could not apply it to real life situations. Moreover, when asked to collaborate in order to do the given tasks, they could not do it. It turned out that the 4Cs were underdeveloped, i.e. that they could not properly communicate, collaborate, and think critically and creatively. My assumption was that if applied systematically such an approach to teaching grammar or any other theoretical classes at the university level could help learners develop higher order thinking skills, which are so necessary in the 21st context. However, this model does not seem to work for our students. I tried to apply the same strategy for my classes of grammar this year as well, and only 2 students out of 16 were able to do it. Thus, there is a larger, global problem related to students' lack of motivation. They seem reluctant to approach the task systematically, and spend energy on it. And in my opinion, this is the biggest problem language educators are facing at present. The learners do not seem to realize that education takes time and effort, and that learning does not happen together with a click of a mouse.

Another research I conducted related to the use of social media groups in the process of scaffolding the students' learning (Condrat, 2019b). I created a Facebook page meant to assist learners while studying English stylistics. The results appear to indicate that learners are not used to perceiving Facebook as an additional educational tool meant to enhance their learning process to which they should contribute with their own knowledge and ideas. They regularly accessed the page of the group and, some of them would put a like to the post I made, yet, they did not

make posts of their own, although they were constantly encouraged to do so. I assume that this is because of the erroneous perception learners have regarding the use of social media for educational purposes, on the one hand, and their insecurity of being able to contribute something to the group discussion, on the other. I was more hopeful during the experiment and thought that at the end that group would benefit the learners. Yet, I do not think that it contributed to their learning. They did not form that discourse community that would have enabled them to get a better understanding of the subject matter of stylistics, on the one hand, and to be able to make proper stylistic analysis. The only thing they did was to put likes and hearts to my post, and no other reaction.

Now, with the pandemic we are constantly looking for new ways of motivating our learners (Condrat, 2020). I can say it is a difficult task. And one thing that I find particularly discouraging is the learners' unwillingness to interact during online classes. They do not seem to realize that meaning can be co-constructed together. What I'm trying to apply right now is to ask them to respond to a task by writing something on a document word or a PowerPoint slide. Thus, they watch a video and then they are asked to write the key points made in the video in their own words. Then I asked them to share their screens with the rest of the class and comment on what they have on their slide. What I've observed is that few students transform the information, i.e. apply higher order thinking skills, most of the students simply reproduce what they have watched (now this is extremely easy as YouTube, for example, gives the possibility to watch the video with captions on). So now I'm thinking what modifications I can make to my plan in order to get to the desired results.

By means of conclusion

Regardless of the results one gets after conducting action research it definitely informs the language educator in terms of what to do in the classroom. The 21st century setting is quite challenging as such and urgent solutions are necessary to solve the existing problems. I could now conclude that a teacher should be

more of a transformative intellectual as I believe that the situation we are confronted with is linked to the socio-cultural setting we are all part of. It is useless to put the blame on either the students or teachers. We need to reform a system that does not meet the 21st century learners' needs.

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DEVELOPING CRITICAL THINKING BY MEANS OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGIES

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Abstract: The article presents the features of critical thinking development as one of the important soft skills necessary in modern society. In particular, the methods and tools used by teachers in the classroom to develop critical thinking of students are considered. The possibilities of using information and communication technologies contributing to the formation of critical thinking skills are revealed.

Introduction

Thinking is often defined as a characteristic feature of people that distinguishes us from other living beings. Due to thinking people have been able to achieve the level of development in all spheres of life that we can see today. Therefore, understanding the processes of thinking and its improvement is one of the conditions that give us the opportunity to learn and work, develop our skills and make conscious decisions in life and different fields of work.

One type of thinking is critical thinking, which has been recognized as one of the most important skills among the list of soft skills needed by modern person in 2025. Along with the ability to solve complex problems, creativity, the ability to manage people and collaborate with others, emotional intelligence, the ability to analyze and make decisions, reasoning, critical thinking is a desirable skill valued by employers and which they would like their employees to have. And teachers are no exception, they should be able to think critically in order to teach students to think in such a way.

A successful teacher is a person who, first of all, is able to gain knowledge, is able to divide information into more important and less important, analyze and select the necessary and reliable facts and sources of information. In professional sphere, developed critical thinking will be useful to the teacher during discussions, decision-making, evaluation of tasks and situations from different points of view. In everyday life, critical thinking will be useful to everyone, because it will help to avoid many mistakes and make the right decision, and if mistakes have occurred it will help to find ways to overcome them.

Currently, there are a lot of methods, techniques, ways to develop critical thinking skills and this theme is interesting for many teachers and researchers. However, the educational process has recently undergone significant changes, in particular, a characteristic feature is the digitalization and informatization of education. This is especially relevant in light of recent events in the world, when due to quarantine restrictions, educational institutions have faced the need to move to distance learning and involve more information and communication technologies in the educational process. The use of information and communication technologies for the development of critical thinking of future foreign language teachers is a relevant topic for research.

The purpose of the article is to analyze the interpretation of the term "critical thinking" in the psychological, pedagogical, methodological literature and determine the impact of information and communication technologies on the critical thinking development of future foreign language teachers.

Methods

Our research included such stages as gathering information, reviewing the literature, analyzing the data and making a list of software useful for developing critical thinking. Passing all these stages became possible due to using methods of analysis, synthesis, generalization, studying and generalizing advanced pedagogical experience.

Results and discussions

People have been interested in the study of thinking since ancient times. The philosophers such as Aristotle, Democritus,

Epicurus, Parmenides, Plato, Socrates pondered over the purpose of human thinking and the possibilities of its development.

Later discussions about thinking took place in philosophy of Immanuel Kant, Georg Hegel, Karl Popper and others.

I. Kant distinguished such levels of thinking as intuition, reason, and also distinguished the types and kinds of thinking – formal logical thinking and dialectical thinking, concrete and abstract, practical and theoretical. In the book «Critique of Practical Reason». I. Kant stated that criticism is the person's activity that helps to explore the world. But cognition of the world isn't a passive reflection of it. Person is an intelligent and logical being and always tries to organize and arrange everything in a formed picture of the world.

Aristotle, I. Kant, Plato, Thomas Aquinas understood critical thinking as the ability to think logically, to argue, to discuss, to draw conclusions and express an opinion. Their ideas were later actively developed by modern researchers (Liakisheva: 30).

For example, thinking is the subject of research of many psychologists. In the dictionary of psychological terms, we find the following definition: "Thinking is an active mental process of indirect and generalized reflection of objects and phenomena of objective reality in their essential properties, connections and relations in the human mind (Syniavskyi)".

The main forms of thinking are: analysis, synthesis, comparison, inference, classification, judgment, analogy, generalization.

Critical thinking is understood as the ability to perceive information actively and creatively, to choose and apply the right type of mental activity, to analyze information from different points of view, to have an independent opinion and be able to defend it correctly, be able to apply the acquired knowledge in practice (Nikitchenko: 7).

Critical thinking has the following characteristics:

1. Independence

People think critically when they think in own manner, when they express their thoughts, beliefs, ideas, etc. and no one else can do it instead of us. Thinking becomes critical only if it has individual character.

2. Problem statement

Critical thinking often begins with problem statement, because to make a right decision we should think critically. In order to solve the

problem, we should collect all information about this issue, since it is impossible to think critically without relying on certain facts and without fully possessing the information needed to see and represent the general picture of the issue.

3. Decision making
A decision that will help us to solve the problem is the end of the process of critical thinking.

4. Clear argumentation
People who think critically should remember that often the same problem can have several solutions, so people should support their thoughts with strong, convincing arguments that would prove that this decision is the best, optimal.

5. Sociality
People are social beings, so to prove a certain point of view, we should communicate. While communication and discussion people learn to understand other thoughts and ideas, they deepen their opinion or can change something in it (Nikitchenko: 7-8).

Critical thinking is a part of the general structure of thinking: 1) general thinking; 2) objective thinking; 3) critical thinking. Critical thinking is a tool that helps to improve other types of thinking.

Each subsequent level includes the previous one: 1) general thinking is a general process of information processing; 2) subject thinking - is the process of processing information on a particular subject using research methods, enriched with subject and methodological knowledge; 3) critical thinking is a process of control over the course of general and objective thinking, their improvement. Each type of thinking has its own content and operational blocks.

Content block of critical thinking consists of two parts:

- general methodological principles (belief in the need for self-correction of the research method, attention to the research procedure; taking into account other points of view; willingness to be critical and self-critical);

- general strategies (dividing issues into parts; using semantic and graphical organizers to present the problem in different ways; consider individual cases to "feel" the problem; analysis of means and goals).

Operational block:

- to be aware of the problem, the dialectical connection between the contradictions;

- to prove - select acceptable, relevant and consistent evidence;
- to find counterarguments;
- to notice the facts that contradict your own opinion;
- to substantiate;
- to evaluate - correlate the object of study with a certain system of values; choose one of many alternatives; use different criteria and contexts;
- to refute (the principle of falsification);
- to generalize;
- to put forward hypotheses;
- to draw conclusions (Nikitchenko: 8-9).

Developing critical thinking is an issue that was explored by many researchers and in different context and spheres. Teachers invented many forms and methods that contribute to development of critical thinking. Some of them are presented in the diagram below.
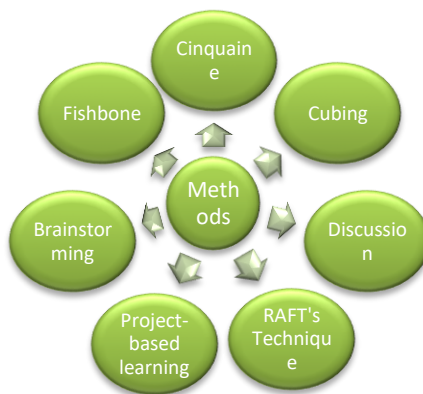
A large number of technologies that contribute to the development of critical thinking are interactive technologies. These technologies are increasingly being used by teachers to organize and conduct classes aimed at developing constant active interaction of all students. During interactive learning, students learn to communicate with others, be democratic, think critically and make informed decisions (Pometun: 7).

These technologies can be divided in some groups:
- Interactive technologies of cooperative learning.

- Interactive technologies of collective-group learning.
- Situational modeling technologies.
- Technologies for processing discussion questions (Pometun: 27).

Each group has its own set of methods and techniques used to organize the educational activities of students. Among them, we can highlight such as: work in pairs, changing triplets, carousel, work in small groups (such forms for organizing work as «dialogue», «synthesis of thoughts», «common project», «search for information», «circle ideas» can be used), aquarium, brainstorming, Brownian motion, mosaic, case study, decision tree, simulation games, court hearing, press method, discussion. Some of these techniques have been known for a long time, some have come into use in recent years, but many of them can be used to develop students' critical thinking skills.

Taking into account the latest trends and the active introduction of ICT in the educational process, it is worth paying attention to the possibility of using these technologies for the development of critical thinking skills. In this case, ICT can be an auxiliary tool for already existing technologies, introducing novelty and creativity into everyday learning activities and thus stimulating interest and motivation of students. After reviewing and analyzing a number of Internet resources and software, we have compiled a list of programs that can be used by teachers and students in the classroom and that have opportunities to improve critical thinking skills.

The first thing that deserves attention is the project-based learning as one of the most effective ways to develop critical and creative thinking. This technology allows students to unite to achieve a common goal - solving a problem or researching a specific issue and presenting this solution in the form of a product. During participation in the project, students gain knowledge and skills, learn to work in a team and develop their skills of critical and creative thinking, which are primarily necessary for analyzing information, solving a problem and presenting the obtained data in a form accessible to other people. Product of the project can be presented in different forms. And in this case, ICT can be very helpful. Using modern ICT, students can not only search for the necessary information, but also present the results of their work in the form of a multimedia product: a presentation, a film, a video, a game, a webpage, or a blog etc. Using such programs as Power Point,

60

Autodesk, Hyper Studio, MyPaint, OpenShot, Word Press, Netscape Composer etc. students can create different things showing their work and knowledge as well as individual way of thinking and problems solving.

An interactive book is also a good example of a multimedia product. There are various programs that will help to create interactive books: Kotobee, Joomag. Such book will attract attention with its visuality, will increase the interest of readers. Students can be invited to create a book for younger pupils and it is a variant of the project as part of the course in teaching a foreign language.

The activity for which we need critical thinking skills and which at the same time trains them is the creation of infographics. Infographics are a graphical way of presenting information and data in order to simplify and clearly convey complex information. Infographics can be either a separate task for students or an element of a multimedia product. A wide selection of software (Canva, Venngage, Piktochart, easel.ly, Visme, Infogram, Vizualize.me, Snappa, Animaker, BeFunky, Biteable) will allow us to create colorful infographics, training our skills to analyze, highlight the main thing and think critically.

Mind maps are another thing that can contribute to critical thinking development. These maps are structured information in the form of a diagram. This technique was developed in the 1960s by the psychologist Tony Buzan, inspired by the ideas of Alfred Korzybski, a Polish and American researcher, founder of general semantics. The technique is actively used in various fields, including education, as it is an excellent tool for remembering various information presented visually and reflecting the connection between things. This technique can be a good tool for implementing a brainstorming method, as it will allow to structure ideas and establish connections between them. To facilitate the process of creating metal maps, a number of computer programs designed for this purpose will help: MindMeister, Miro, Microsoft Visio, Coogle, Freemind and many others. The use of these programs in the learning process will allow both teachers and students to create diagrams quickly, visualize and present information necessary to understand the essence of phenomena and processes. The use of such programs will allow to review a large amount of information quickly and efficiently, highlighting the most important and relevant points. Creating a mental map is an excellent task that will not only help students to

study the necessary information, but develop critical thinking skills, which are primarily necessary in order to highlight the most essential of the entire information flow and establish connections between the separate components of a complex structure.

There are also other ways of presenting information graphically, such as scribing and sketchnoting. Scribing is a way of presenting information by excluding the main points of the story. Sketching is a note-taking of information using drawings, visualization. Using such programs as PowToon, GoAnimate, Sparkol VideoScribe, Animaker, Skatch Notes will simplify the creation of such works and will contribute to the development of critical and creative thinking skills.

The web quest technology will also contribute to the development of critical thinking skills, the ability to analyze, compare, and explain information. Web-quests created by teachers can include a variety of ICT, Internet resources, depending on the goals and topic of the issue.

Conclusions

Thus, after analyzing the definition of critical thinking in the philosophical, methodological, pedagogical literature, we can conclude that critical thinking is the ability to perceive, analyze and evaluate information, and on this basis make your own conclusion about a particular issue, as well as make your own decision. There are many methods and techniques for developing critical thinking skills. A number of information and communication tools, which can be used both for organizing classes and for independent work, have good opportunities for improving critical thinking skills.

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ADDRESSING STUDENT IDENTITY WITHIN MARGINALIZATION INSTITUTIONS (BASED ON THE NOVELS BY JOANNE HARRIS)

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Abstract: The drama of school has been exploited by many literatures. In particular, the contemporary British writer Joanne Harris embeds the characters of teachers and students in her novels «Gentlemen and Players», «Different Class». In both texts events center around St. Oswald's Grammar School for Boys. Schools are places where teachers and students interact and where student identity is being formed. In the family circle a person is immediately exposed to parents' influence. The quality of interaction depends on acts, relationship and emotions which are significant pillars for forming healthy identities. However, the analysis of the texts reveals that not only school but also family contributes to marginalization of students whose identities consequently become deformed. The paper aims to examine the role of institutions in marginalizing student identity and to determine the way marginalization occurs. St. Oswald's turns out to be toxic environment as well as the families of David Spikely and Julia Snyde, who are students of the mentioned educational establishment. In terms of cancel culture these characters can also be considered cancelled. Marginalization within institutional processes leads to the situation when persons' psychological motivations are disordered and their emotional stability is questioned. The exploration of the characters shows how traumatic experiences acquired in the family and within the school walls cause the lack of inner coherence which inevitably has abhorrent ramifications.

Keywords: cancel culture, marginalization, marginalized identity, student identity, family environment, school environment

Scholars have been interested in issues of marginalization and participation across various domains because in the human world we act through either participation or marginalization. They characterize

and shape both individuals and societies, past and present. Thus, one can speak about dividing people into the marginalized and non-marginalized. Marginalization is constituted inside, outside and in different settings. The book «Marginalization Processes across Different Settings: Going beyond the Mainstream» edited by S. Bagga-Gupta indicates to the research endeavour to «highlight the need to focus on the constitution of marginalization and participation in a wide range of settings with the explicit aim of going beyond static boundaries that define the human state at different scales of becoming and beyond an understanding of development and progress in terms of a linear trajectory» (Bagga-Gupta).

The chosen texts «Gentlemen and Players» and «Different Class» present a particular interest for analyzing marginalization within the school and family which are supposed to be the opposite. It turns out especially interesting to reveal who defines margins as well as ways of marginalizing the characters. The research shows the results of these characters' cancellation from their closest environments.

The paper focuses on the manifestations of marginalizing Julia Snyde («Gentlemen and Players») and David Spikely («Different Class»), the main characters in the two novels by J. Harris. Julia is a female, yet women and the word «marginalization» have never remained oxymoronic as it is mentioned in the description of the book «Multicultural and Marginalized Voices of Postcolonial Literature» edited by V. Gulati and G. Dalal (Gulati & Dalal).

Marginalization. Marginalized Identity

The word «marginalization» comes from «marginalize» which in its turn originates from «margin». A margin is the blank space surrounding the text in a book. «To marginalize» initially meant «to write notes in the margin of». In the middle of the 20th century the word started to gain its new meaning, id est, «to relegate to an unimportant or powerless position», that is, to the metaphorical margins of society (Merriam-Webster Dictionary). The figurative use of the word took over the literal one. Thus, marginalization in the meaning of «the act of placing a person or thing in a position of lesser importance, influence, or power; the state of being placed in such a position» is most commonly encountered today (Dictionary). In consequence of marginalization there appear identities who are marginalized. According to Charter For Compassion, a marginalized

identity is anyone who feels or is, «underserved, disregarded, ostracized, harassed, persecuted, or sidelined in the community» (Gehl). To marginalized groups may belong: women and girls, children and youth, people of low socio-economic status, people struggling with mental illness, people with developmental delays, people of differing sexual orientation (LGBT+ community), people of a particular ethnicity/country of origin, immigrants, refugees, migrants, people of differing religions (Gehl).

In «Gentlemen and Players» we get familiar with Julia Snyde's speculations on being a girl, her father's daughter. Being not able to meet her father's expectations made her feel alienated in the family. The text partially demonstrates how marginalization happens:

> I knew he was comparing us, and as I grew older I became more and more conscious of my inadequacy in his eyes, and of his silent – but increasingly bitter – disappointment. My father, you see, would have liked a son in his own image; a lad who shared his passion for football and scratch cards and fish and chips, …a boy with the guts to transcend his class and make something of himself, … Instead he had me. Neither fish nor fowl; a useless daydreamer, a reader of books…a secretive, skinny, pallid, insipid child with no interest in sports and whose personality was as solitary as his own gregarious (Harris[1]: 42 – 43).

In addition to being a girl, she comes from the family of low socio-economic status which meant she could not choose a school where she wanted to study. It is not only the lack of finance that prevented her from becoming one of the students of St. Oswald's School but also being a female was an obstacle since this was the school for boys. J. Snyde dolorously claims:

> Of course, I was still angry at the unfairness of it; at the fees that my father could never have afforded; at the fact that, fees or not, I could never hope to be accepted» (Harris[1]: 90).

To be able to play in the grounds of St. Oswald's School J. Snyde crossed the boundaries by means of disguising as a boy, named Julian Pinchbeck which was not quite safe either. The subsequent events also reveal that marginalization triggers processes in a person's psyche which determine his / her actions. For example,

when J. Snyde becomes an adult, she returns to St. Oswald's School under the name of Dianne Dare in order to get revenge for the past grievances. She resorts to killing not only the school members but also her half-sister and mother. David Spikely gets addicted to murdering as a usual thing. They become similar in devaluing life.

Cancel Culture

One of the manifestations of the global trend existing in society in the English-speaking world is known as cancel culture, and the term «new ethics» is also used to denote this relatively new phenomenon (Magun). The term «Cancel Culture» has been used in the last four to five years to encompass not only materials such as books but also people and their actions. Dr. T. Sikka defines cancel culture as the «act of public shaming someone for a perceived or substantiative social transgression that hasn't been adequately addressed through traditional channels». She states that «cancel culture serves as an outlet for reflecting the changing social norms that institutions haven't caught up with» (Research Guides). Cancel (call-out) culture is a modern form of ostracism in which someone is thrust out of social or professional circles – whether it be online, on social media, or in person (in real life). Those who are subject to this ostracism are said to have been «cancelled» (McDermott). To «cancel», in this context, means «to stop giving support to a person» (Merriam-Webster Dictionary). The expression «cancel culture» has mostly negative connotations. Culture of cancellation is a way to hold a well-known and powerful person or group accountable for legal, social, ethical violations through refusal of support and / or public condemnation, mainly on social networks. «Cancellations» were first mentioned in the 1990s and early 2010s, however, they were not related to opinions and reputation. The use of the verb «to cancel» in a relatively new meaning, in a condemnation context, is associated primarily with African American Twitter users of the 2010s.

Liberal African-American activist Loretta Ross, for example, says she considers the culture of cancellation to be toxic. She is convinced that within a culture of cancellation, criticism often becomes «horizontal»: «People tend to delete everyone with whom they do not fully agree in their views, instead of continuing to pay attention to those who benefit from discrimination and injustice». Thus, according to the activist, the root causes of discrimination and injustice can remain intact. The main mechanism of action here is

financial: if a person loses income because of his / her views, he / she may decide to reconsider them. It is serious enough because the absence of the source of living can literally be considered the end of life (Savina). The results of cancellation are: the loss of friends and social connections; being laid off, lost opportunities, being deprived of the platform for sharing your points of view which may be quite provocative.

Such activists and academics as J. K. Rowling, M. Atwood, G. Steinem, N. Chomsky and S. Rushdie, have signed up to an open letter about a «culture of cancellation» published in Harper's magazine.

The authors of the letter believe that it restricts freedom of speech, warning that the spread of «censoriousness» is leading to an intolerance of opposing views» and «a vogue for public shaming and ostracism» (Flood).

 Because of this phenomenon certain books were banned. The Western Literary Community met with outrage the banning of the books. K. Ishiguro describes culture climate as the climate of fear that is causing young authors to self-censor. For instance, J. Cummins cancelled her book tour due to fears for her safety. This direction chosen by readers and publishers is increasingly hostile because they highlight what is known as a «morals clause« or «conduct clause». If a book has a potential to court controversy, it is unlikely to be promoted. It is indicated that we live in a strange world where limits are being placed on what authors are allowed to imagine and there are subjects which are off limits. All this can scarcely be believed as many are aware of F. R. Leavis's grand vision of reading as a means of developing empathy. This means that literature is in trouble (Rossiter).

According to the social psychologist J. Haidt, call-out culture arises from what he calls «safetyism» on college campuses (Haidt and Lukianoff: 30, 158, 235, 268, 329). The polarization of society occurs as an aftermath which does not contribute to changes in opinion. Some students have doubts as to expressing ideas which are unacceptable because they fear to be called out and, thus, may avoid asking questions. Call-out culture's prevalence can make marginalized groups feel «even more hesitant to speak out for what they feel is right» (Cunningham). Cancel culture has also been described by a media studies scholar, E. Ng, as «a collective of

typically marginalized voices 'calling out' and emphatically expressing their censure of a powerful figure» (Ng: 621 – 627).

Both of the main characters Julia Snyde («Gentlemen and Players») and David Spikely («Different Class») have relation to St. Oswald's school. Julia's father works there as a guard and she furtively
plays in the territory of the school. Having been cancelled as a pupil so to say because of the margins set by the school administration, she returns to get revenge as a teacher. David Spikely is a pupil in the school; however, he can be viewed as cancelled within the school setting due to his Condition which makes everyone doubt his words. Consequently, he has barely any friends and has no possibility to talk safely and openly about things which bother him. The situation is similar to Julia's. J. Snyde studies in a usual school for boys and girls but the attitudes and atmosphere in it repel her:

> They would hate me, I knew it. They would take one look at me and they would hate me I sensed it immediately. I was skinny; undersized; a natural hander-in of homework. Sunnybank Park would swallow me whole (Harris[1]: 16).

Even this metaphorically used verb shows the scale of negativity which is felt by Julia. Nevertheless, John Snyde, Julia's father thinks different. He is addicted to alcohol and does not care much about his daughter's feelings: «Don't be a sissy. There's nothing wrong with the Park. It's just a school. They're all the bloody same» (Harris[1]: 16). J. Snyde could not do anything about it being a child, a pupil. She was just ignored as a daughter. She was sure: «Well, that was a lie. Even I knew that. It made me curious; it made me resentful» (Harris[1]: 16). In «Different Class» David Spikely attends St. Oswald's School about which there are aspects he is far from being fond of. However, his father states: «Well, we can't like everyone… That's what school is for. To learn how to get on with people who don't necessarily share our ideas» (Harris[2]: 109). It has to be admitted though that during analyzing it becomes evident that if people do not share ideas, it is not easy at all to get on with them.

Thus, it means that neither Julia Snyde nor David Spikely is able to participate fully within the family circles as well as schools since their identities seem to be cancelled and they have to pretend to be the ones they are not, creating false reality for others.

Student Identity

A student's identity is made up of several factors and has many layers. Students are affected by their social background, ethnic, geographic and cultural origin, languages spoken, gender, sexuality, religion, etc., which work intersectionally (McDermott). The extent to which a student is impacted by each of them also varies based on their lived experience. In general, identity includes characteristics that determine who we are, which creates an abyss between us and it also presupposes that we share similarities which make us closer and reconcile us. The individual's search for a cohesive identity makes identity formation and transformation key issues in everyday life. In the novels the protagonists experience difficulties in this. J. Snyde's identity and D. Spikely's identity are predetermined by their social background, gender and sexuality.

Linked to identity is our shared desire for dignity (having a deep, human desire to be treated as something of value) because it «transcends all of our differences, putting our common human identity above all else. While our uniqueness is important, history has shown us that if we don't take the next step toward recognizing our shared identity, conflicts in our workplace, our personal lives, and between nations will continue to abound» (Hicks). D. Hollinger explains that «sharing identity with other people means to feel solidarity with them» (Hollinger: 25). J. Harris managed to show the failure to recognize the shared identity vividly with the help of the images of J. Snyde and D. Spikely and other personages and this told on all of the characters in a destructive way.

Marginalization through institutional settings in J. Harris's novels «Gentlemen and Players» and «Different Class»

The novels «Gentlemen and Players» and «Different Class» contain parts by means of which marginalization is shown. Marginalization through school setting is presented in the signs: «NO TRESPASSERS…NO UNAUTHORIZED ENTRY BEYOND THIS POINT BY ORDER (Harris[1]: 13)… TRESPASSERS WILL BE PROSECUTED» (Harris[1]: 21). On the surface, these signs do not seem to be insulting, however, due to the absence of the shared identity they may be interpreted differently. J. Snyde viewed them as hostile. They made her think of herself as an alien element:

I was an intruder… I had no right to be there. I had become something low; common; a spy, a prowler, a dirty little sneak with hungry eyes and light fingers. Invisible or not, that was how they would always see me. A Sunnybanker. ... I was an outsider (Harris[1]: 22).

In «Different Class» the following fragment is David Spikely's comment on the situation with the school: «… Mr. Straitley… As long as you're one of his favourites. There is a little group of them. They sit with him at lunchtimes… We don't get invited…We're not special enough for him» (Harris[2]: 109).

After Eric Scoones, one of the school's teachers, committed a homosexual act in relation to D. Spikely, nobody believed him, even Harry Clarke, the teacher he respected most for his philosophy and attitude towards pupils. He received no support within the school:

But Harry didn't stand up for me… He didn't help me at all. I went to him with a secret – something I had never told anyone. Something so bad it was eating me up, eating me from the inside. I trusted him. I thought he could help (Harris[2]: 477).

With regard to D. Spikely Roy Straitley, who is considered one of the best teachers, asks himself:

What hidden rage and resentment could have transformed that bland little boy into an avenger? David Spikely, the tattletale. No one remembered him clearly… undistinguished in every way; an average student, with average grades and a less-than-average personality (Harris[2]: 350).

Marginalization in the family was a great blow to J. Snyde. Her father beat her. She says: «The punches were supposed to be friendly, I knew. All the same, they hurt. Parenting was not one of John Snyde's special skills» (Harris[1]: 14). Living in a one-parent family brought her many sufferings: «Mum never wrote; any mention of her also counted as being a sissy, and after a while I started to forget what she had looked like» (Harris[1]: 15). It can barely be imagined how big her pain was because she started dreaming of another father:

«I already had the template in my mind, culled from a hundred books and comics. Foremost he would be a man of authority,

firm but fair. A man of physical courage and fierce intelligence. A reader, a scholar, an intellectual. A man who understood» (Harris[1]: 43).

She could never expect to be heard, rather ignored, by her father:

But this was the man who had thought to solve my social problems with karate lessons. Faced with this infinitely more delicate situation, what could I possibly hope from him now?... Like the rest of them, he barely saw me; at home, as at St Oswald's, I had become the Invisible Man (Harris[1]: 249).

D. Spikely's situation got worsened due to being marginalized within the family just as J. Snyde was first marginalized by her mother and then by father.

…, since I arrived here, lots of things have been different. At home I am the same as I was. Mum and Dad aren't fans of change. They only ever notice I'm there when something awful happens. At Church I am patient and polite. At meetings, I try to cooperate.
Sometimes I bring up sins to confess. Little sins. The rest stay put. No one wants to hear about those (Harris[2]: 69).

His parents did not wish to dive deep into his inner world because of fear and because deep inside they blamed him for his brother's death:

If only my dad could see me now. He never quite believed me; you know. Because of My Condition. And because my T-shirt was wet that day – you know, the day that Bunny died. He never said. But I saw his eyes… (Harris[2]: 489).

J. Harris masterfully shows the way the marginalized characters respond to attempts of marginalizing. J. Snyde admits:

The people are easily blinded… But greater than their stupidity, there is the arrogance, the certainty that no one would cross the line…If I'd been a Northern graduate with a common accent and a cheap suit, I could have had the best references in the world and never have stood a chance (Harris[1]: 48).

D. Spikely is ready to act against marginalization:

> With the right persona, I can hide in plain sight. I can do whatever I want as long as I keep up appearances. With the right persona, I can make them do anything – my parents, Poodle, Goldie, my   teachers – make them dance like puppets (Harris[2]: 93).

In her turn, Dianne Dare (J. Snyde) lets, for instance, Roy Straitley realize that he and anybody else in the school may be marginalized as well. Roy Straitley uses this very word «marginalized». Here is a part of the dialogue between the two of them:

Dianne Dare: … Retirement?... It makes it look that as if the Classics department has been – …

Roy Straitley:
> … What? What? Marginalized? Amalgamated? Damn the terminology and tell me what you think! What's happened to the bloody Classical Department? (Harris[1]: 146)

The marginalized characters are conscious of the fact of being marginalized and they are ready to resist. J. Snyde uses all the possible instruments to fight back: «It was my mother who had betrayed me; my mother I wanted to hurt. But Xavier was such a convenient tool…» (Harris[1]: 448). She clearly hints that nothing will be forgotten and that the trauma received cannot be healed:

> It was impossible. She believed it, you; really believed that nothing had changed, that she could pick up our life where she had left it; that I could be her Munchkin, her darling, her little dress-up doll (Harris[1]: 263).

D. Spikely is of the same opinion as J. Snyde: «There's no going back. Those words cannot be recovered. They can never be made whole again, any more than a man's life can be made whole once it has been broken into pieces (Harris[2]: 489).

Another point, which cannot but be emphasized, is the issue of responsibility. D. Spikely is twisting his deeds eventually so as to accuse others, excluding himself:

After seven years of misery and self-hatred, I was finally starting to see. Those things I did, when I was a boy – those terrible things – they were not my fault. Poodle, the rabbits, Ratboy and all – they were all part of my trauma. I wasn't possessed. I wasn't bad. Those things were a Coping Mechanism, brought on by My Condition, and if I'd felt aggressive, confused – even weirdly exhilarated – who could really blame me? That was just part of what I'd been through. Symptoms of an inner disease…I was rather enjoying it all. My victimhood was a novelty; the sympathy made me feel special (Harris[2]: 355).

This text fragment also explicates that being a victim can be an intentionally chosen way. J. Snyde and D. Spikely longed for being understood and accepted, however, they blindly believed that they had the right to commit misdoings and not to be accountable for them, in fact, going over the line and losing common sense.

Conclusion

The exploration of student identity within family and school environment sheds light on the fact that marginalization is not something abstract and distant. The main characters J. Snyde («Gentlemen and Players») and D. Spikely («Different Class») are marginalized and their identities become deformed due to traumatic experiences gained within the family circles and during school days. To D. Spikely living people make better ghosts than the dead because they turn helpless and are full of fear. Almost everybody chooses ignorance because it takes courage to change something. Neither J. Snyde's nor D. Spikely's parents really want to know what is happening to their children. It takes courage to change something. They have never been asked by either the school representatives or family members how they felt, supposedly – out of fear to figure out the truth. As is shown, cancelling does not occur one-sidedly and unnoticeably. It affects the lives of those who were cancelled as well as those who do the cancelling. It has to be admonished that even the titles somehow imply marginalization. There are gentlemen and players, there is a class differing from the other one. J. Snyde' s and D. Spikely's deep, human desire to be treated as something of value was not fulfilled. On the basis of the analysis, we come to conclusion

that there was no mutuality in striving for solidarity among the characters.

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LES ANGLICISMES DES AFFAIRES ET DE LA FINANCE EN FRANÇAIS : CONSIDÉRATIONS SUR LEUR ASSIMILATION ET LEUR DIDACTISATION À TRAVERS LA RECHERCHE-ACTION

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Abstract: We are proposing a research into the anglicisms of the economic and financial spheres that have entered contemporary French. We are interested in the regularities of their assimilation and the educational policies of action and research on them in the higher education institutions of the Republic of Moldova, cycle II – Master's studies in economics and finances. The teaching and the learning of these units requires substantial training in the economic and financial field and an interaction between the educational content of economic, financial and linguistic order.

Keywords: assimilation, borrowing, method, economy, finance, research and action

Le français, comme toute langue, connaît une applicabilité dans toutes les branches de la vie sociale, y compris l'économie et la finance.

Les domaines économique et financier mettent en valeur une série entière de réalités des plus diverses qui, à l'heure actuelle, sont nommées le plus souvent par des unités d'origine anglaise, étant donnée (1) la suprématie économique et financière des États-Unis dans le monde et (2) le mouvement de globalisation qui accentue automatiquement la nécessité de l'existence d'une seule langue de communication universelle. Et comme l'anglais est déjà propulsé comme langue de l'économie et de la finance mondiales, c'est lui qui est conçu être mis, en premier lieu, au service de la globalisation.

La position des autres langues dites de « communication internationale », telles que le français, l'allemand et l'espagnol, envers

la « priorité » de l'anglais est différente. Ainsi, le français a toujours tenu tête à l'invasion anglaise, grâce surtout à des institutions comme l'Académie française qui, dès la première année de sa fondation, a fait du maintien de la pureté de la langue française son but essentiel, tout ça pour empêcher la contamination excessive du français avec des unités d'origine étrangère, surtout anglaise. Quand même les anglicismes sont présents en français, mais en quantité raisonnable qui ne menace pas l'existence de cette langue et forment son adstrat. Comme le précisent les lexicographes, la bonne majorité des emprunts anglais sont entrés dans le français économique et financier.

Les deux langues, le français et l'anglais, font partie de deux groupes différents de la grande famille des langues indo-européennes : le groupe germanique et le groupe roman. Ces groupes ont des particularités phonologiques, lexicales et grammaticales à eux, c'est pourquoi l'emprunt d'un groupe à l'autre passe par la période d'assimilation, nommée francisation en français.

Les objectifs principaux de notre investigation sont les suivants:
- répertorier les unités d'origine anglaise en français des affaires et de la finance;
- mettre en place les procédés de base de leur assimilation quant à leur côtés orthographique, phonologique, lexical et grammatical;
- répertorier les axes principaux dans leur didactisation à un public professionnel, tout ça à travers la recherche-action.

I. Bref aperçu sur l'assimilation les anglicismes dans le français des affaires et/ou de la finance

0. Généralités

Parmi les anglicismes entrés en français économique et/ou financier on distingue:

(1) des unités communes:
  (a) simples: *barter, call, trust* etc.;
(b) complexes: *bartering, discount, factoring, trader* etc.;
(c) composeés: *benchmark(ing), goodwill, start-up, stock-options*
(d) phraséologiques: *blue chip, love money* etc.;
(e) syntagmatiques: complètes, formées, le plus souvent, de deuxou trois éléments: *business model, capital investissement, crédit default swap, fair value, front office, hedge fund, lean production, reverse factoring, seed capital* etc.;

(2) des unités propres:

(a) composées: *Dow Jones* etc.;

(b) syntagmatiques: abrégées: *A2B* (< administration to business), *B2B2C* (< business to business to consumer), *B2C* (< business to consumer), *C2C* (< consumer to consumer), *CDS* (< crédit default swap), *G8,* REACH (pour Registration, Evaluation and Authorisation of Chemicals) etc.;

(3) des unités propres et communes, réunies dans des syntagmes: *A to B* (< administration to business), *B to B to C* (< business to business to consumer), *B to C* (< business to consumer), *C to C* (< consumer to consumer) etc.;

(4) des calques qui s'emploient parallèlement avec les unités anglaises assimilées qui ont le même contenu: *administration publique* < administration to business, *huit grands pouvoirs économiques* – G8, *modèle économique* – business model, *report en avant / à nouveau* < carry forward, *report en arrière des déficits* < carry back etc.

On enregistre également des cas où les unités d'origine française s'emploient parallèlement avec des anglicismes assimilés, ayant la même signification: *option d'achat* – call; *étalon*; *repère* – benchmark(ing); *affacturage* – factoring*, capital d'amorçage* – seed capital, *matères premières* – commodities, *troc* – barter*, juste valeur* - fair value, *service de clientèle* - front office, *survaleur* - goodwill etc.

1.1. Assimilation orthographique

À ce que nous avons pu constater lors de notre recherche, l'assimilation « orthographique » des unités anglaises qui portent sur l'économie et/ou la finance se fait facilement le plus souvent, car elle s'axe principalement sur:

- l'apparition du trait d'union en français: capital investissement > *capital-investissement;*
- la « refaite » orthographique partielle de l'anglicisme pour qu'il vienne plus en accord avec sa manière d'être lu: *business / bizness.*

1.2. Assimilation phonologique

Ce type d'assimilation affecte la prononciation en français des unités venues de l'anglais, et notamment :

- le registre des phonèmes/graphismes anglais et français;
- le problème de la syllabe accentuée;

- le problème des longueurs vocaliques et consonantiques.

1.2.1. Registre des phonèmes/graphismes anglais et français

Lors de notre investigation nous avons répertorié des régularités dans l'assimilation de la prononciation des unités d'origine anglaise en français économique et/ou financier. Ces régularités portent sur les voyelles et les consonnes.

Régularités portant sur les voyelles
[ə] en syllabe finale devant [ʁ] dans des noms anglais devient [œ] en français: *barter, trader* etc.;
- « a » devant « ll » est lue [a] en français: *call*;
- « a » en syllabe ouverte est lue [a] en français: *trader*;
- « ai » sont lues [ɛ] en français, dans la bonne majorité des as: *fair-play /fairplay*;
- « au » sont lues [o] en français: *default*;
- « ay » sont lues [ɛ] en français, dans la bonne majorité des cas : *fair-play*;
- « ee » sont lues [i] en français: *seed capital*;
- « ey » sont lues [ɛ] en français: *hot money*;
- « o » en syllabe ouverte finale est lue [o] en français: *B to B*;
- « oo » sont lues [u] en français: *goodwill*;
- « u » en syllabe fermée est lue [œ] en français: *trust, start-up*;
- « u » en syllabe ouverte est lue [u] en français (*blue chip*) ou modifiée en [i] (*business*);
- « ou » en syllabe fermée est lu [u] en français: *discount*; etc.

Régularités portant sur les consonnes
- les lettres-mots sont lues comme dans l'alphabet en français : *B to B*;
- « h » n'est jamais lue: *hot money*;
- « r » finale dans les noms anglais est articulée [ʁ] en français: *barter,trader* etc.;
- « ch » sont lues [ʃ] en français: *benchmark, blue chip*;
- « ll » sont lues mouillées: *goodwill*;
- « w » est lue [w] en français: *goodwill*;
- « t », suivi de « ion » est lu [s] comme en français : *stock-option(s)*;

1.2.2. La syllabe accentuée

En français, la syllabe accentuée est la dernière du groupe rythmique ou de l'unité lexicale, prise comme élément du dictionnaire. C'est pourquoi toute unité empruntée aux autres langues devra suivre en français cette règle: (angl.) *office* ['ɔfis] – (fr.) *office* [ɔ'fis].

1.2.3. Les longueurs vocaliques et consonantiques

En français, on connaît les longueurs suivantes:
- rythmique des voyelles devant les sons consonantiques [ʒ] [z] [ʁ] [v] et [vʁ];
- historique des voyelles [ø], [o], [ɑ] et de toutes les voyelles nasales;
- dans certains contextes, des consonnes doublées ou non: *collaborateur,* etc.

Au moment où l'unité d'origine anglaise est assimilée en français et elle renferme les voyelles mentionnées ou des consonnes susceptibles d'être lues avec longueur, cela se produira: *stock-option*.

1.3. Assimilation lexico-grammaticale

Ce type d'assimilation:
- affecte les unités anglaises complètes qui restent inchangeables en français: *call, marketing, benchmark, business model* etc.;
- affecte les unités anglaises abrégées qui restent inchangeables en français: *A2B, B2B2C, CDS* etc.;
- se réduit souvent à la traduction singulière en français du deuxième élément de l'unité composée anglaise : senior duty > *dette senior* etc.;
- fait apparaître aux noms anglais la catégorie du genre, en bonne partie, sur le principe de ressemblance avec les unités lexicales du français: (angl.) *administration* (f) – (fr.) administration (f), (angl.) *fair value* (f) – (fr.) juste valeur (f) etc.

Exception: *lean production* (m)
- fait apparaître un singulier en français pour un des éléments: *stock- option(s).*

II. Bref aperçu sur la didactisation des unités du français économique et/ou financier à travers la méthode de recherche-action

2.1. Généraliés

La didactisation d'une langue étrangère s'est toujours faite à travers une méthodologie quelconque qui venait en accord avec les

particularités de cette langue et du public visé. Toute méthodologie a tâché et tâche de mettre en place (a) des contenus à enseigner, apprendre et évaluer à travers (b) des méthodes qui copient mieux le processus d'assimilation naturelle de la langue maternelle.

2.1.1. Contenus à didactiser à des types d'apprenant
2.1.1.1. Types d'apprenant

Dans une visée intégrale, les contenus à didactiser en français économique et/ou financier viennent aussi en accord avec le Cadre Européen Commun de Références pour les Langues (CECRL) quant aux niveaux A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 et C2. Il est à souligner que ces niveaux visent le français économique et/ou financier comme langue maternelle, seconde ou étrangère.

Sur le territoire de la République de Moldova le français sur objectifs spécifiques reste une langue étrangère, c'est pourquoi sa didactisation se fait cumulant deux démarches pédagogiques – celle d'une langue étrangère et celle d'une langue spécialisée. Dans ce cas, il nous semble bon de faire appelle au terme « français sur objectifs spécifiques comme langue étrangère » - FOSLE.

Ces deux démarches nous font distinguer quelques types essentiels d'apprenants du FOSLE sur le territoire moldave:
  - ceux qui ont une formation avancée dans le domaine de l'économe et /ou de la finance et une formation nulle en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation intermédiaire dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation nulle en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation débutante dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation nulle en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation avancée dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation débutante en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation intermédiaire dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation débutante en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation débutante dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation débutanteen FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation avancée dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation intermédiaire en FOSLE;
  - ceux qui ont une formation intermédiaire dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation intermédiaire en FOSLE;

- ceux qui ont une formation débutante dans le domaine de l'économe et/ou de la finance et une formation intermédiaire en FOSLE.

Le contenu restreint de cet article ne nous permet pas de nous arrêter en détails sur chacun de ces types. Compte tenu de notre expérience pédagogique dans la cadre de l'Université d'État « Alecu Russo » de Bălți, Faculté des Sciences, de l'Économie et de l'Environnement, cycle 2 - Maîtrise, spécialités « Banques et Crédits », « Comptabilité et Finances », « Management du tourisme », nous allons aborder seulement la didactisation du FOSLE aux apprenants ayant une formation intermédiaire (cycle I - Licence) dans le domaine de l'économie et/ou de la finance et une formation débutante (niveaux A1-A2) en FLE ou FOSLE, ou intermédiaire en FLE (niveau B1 – Lycée, filière francophone ou Licence en FLE). Dans le but de l'économie, nous allons désigner ce type d'apprenant par le sigle FI(EF)+FD(FLE/FOSLE)/I(FLE).

2.1.1.2. Contenus à didactiser à un apprenant FI(EF)+ FD(FLE / FOSLE) /I(FLE)

Dans le choix des contenus à didactiser à un apprenant du type mentionné on doit se guider premièrement des principes suivants:
- rapporter ces contenus (a) au CECRL en matière de niveaux, activités (compréhension orale/écrite et/ou expression orale/écrite) etc. et (b) aux attentes de l'apprenant;
- prendre en considération le background de l'apprenant dans les domaines économique et/ou financier et langagier;
- tenir compte des spécificités d'assimilation en roumain/russe des anglicismes de l'économie et/ou de la finance pour les mettre correctement en relation avec leurs homologues français.

Si l'on tient compte de tous ces principes fondamentaux, on arrive à mettre en place les contenus suivants:
- compréhension orale des unités mentionnées, employées isolément ou en un discours;
- compréhension de la forme écrite de ces unités;
- emploi oral ou écrit isolé de ces unités ou dans un discours, ou texte de spécialité.

Ces contenus font choisir les méthodes de didactisation.

2.1.2. Méthodes de didactisation
2.1.2.1. Vue d'ensemble sur les méthodes en didactique
À l'heure actuelle, on repartit les méthodes de didactisation (enseignement-apprentissage-évaluation) d'une langue selon différents critères. Ainsi, V. Landsheere, I. Cerghit et C. Cucoș soulignent que, selon le critère:

(1) *historique,* on distingue des méthodes:
- *traditionnelles, classiques:* l'exposé, la conversation, l'exercice etc.;
- *modernes:* l'algoritmisation, la problématisation, le remue-méninge, l'instruction numérique, la recherche-action etc.;

(2) de l'*extension du domaine d'applicabilité*, on met en place des méthodes:
- *générales:* l'exposé, le cours magistral, la conversation etc.
- *particulières* sau *spéciales,* employées dans la didactisation d'un ou plusieurs compartiments de la langue ou sujets l'exemplification;

(3) de la *manière de base de présenter les connaissances,* nous pouvons parler des méthodes:
- *verbales* qui ont comme point de départ l'imitation des parleurs natifs de la langue;
- *intuitives,* basées sur l'observation directe, concrète, sensorielle des réalités autochnones;

(4) de *l'implication des élèves*, on identifie les méthodes:
- *expositives* ou *passives,* centrées sur la mémorisation réproductive et l'écoute passive des discours faits par les natifs;
- *actives* à travers lesquelles on se propose une recherche individuelle de la réalité étrangère;

(5) de la *fonction didactique de base,* on décrit des méthodes à une fonction principale:
- d'enseignement et de communication;
- de fixage et de consolidation;
- de vérification et d'appréciation des résultats du travail;

(6) de *la modalité d'administration de l'expérience à prendre*, on délimite des méthodes:
- *algoritmiques,* basées sur des séquences opérationneles, stables, conçues d'avance;
- *euristiques,* basées sur la découverte individuelle et la solution du problème;

(7) de la *forme d'organisation du travail,* on identifie des méthodes:
  - *individuelle,* conçues pour un apprenant pris à part;
  - *d'enseignement-apprentissage en groupe* homogène et hétérogène;
  - *frontales,* appliquées simultanément dans la didactisation à tout un groupe d'apprenants;
  - *combinées*;
(8) de *l'axe d'apprentissage,* on parle des méthodes:
  - *mécaniques* (par simple réception et reproduction);
  - *conscientes* (par la découverte), telles que l'exposé (démonstratif), la découverte dirigée par le professeur (la conversation euristique, l'observation dirigée, l'instruction numérique, l'étude de cas etc.), la découverte non-dirigée par celui-ci (l'observation indépendante, l'exercice euristique, le problème, le remue-méninge etc.);
(9) du *changement produit chez l'apprenant,* on parle des méthodes:
  - *hétérostructurantes* où le changement se produit grâce à autrui   (c'est le cas de l'exposé, de la conversation, de l'étude de cas, de la problématisation etc.);
  - *autostructurantes* où le changement se produit grâce à soi-même (c'est le cas de la découverte, de l'observation, de l'exercice etc.).

2.1.2.2. Méthodes en didactique du FOSLE à un apprenant FI(EF)+FD(FLE/FOSLE)/I(FLE)

Les méthodes qu'on peut employer pour didactiser les contenus mentionnés sont des plus diverses. Elles découlent des contenus mentionnés. Le Tableau 1: *Didactisation des anglicismes francisés de l'économie et/ou de la finance: contenus et méthodes* nous les présente:

Contenus	Méthodes
compréhension des unités, employées isolément à l'oral	citation, algoritmisation, problématisation, découverte dirigée par le professeur, étude de cas, instruction numérique, exemplification, recherche-action, observation,

compréhension des unités, employées en un discours	conversation, exercice, algoritmisation, problématisation, découverte dirigée par le professeur, étude de cas, instruction numérique, exemplification, cours magistral, recherche-action, observation,
compréhension de la forme écrite de ces unités	exposé écrit, exercice, algoritmisation, problématisation, découverte dirigée par le professeur, étude de cas, instruction numérique, exemplification, recherche-action, observation,
emploi isolé de ces unités à l'oral	citation, algoritmisation, problématisation, recherche-action,
emploi de ces unités dans un discours de spécialité	exposé oral, conversation, exercice, algoritmisation, problématisation, remue-méninge, instruction numérique, recherche-action,
emploi isolé de ces unités à l'écrit	citation, algoritmisation, problématisation, recherche-action,
emploi de ces unités dans un texte de spécialité	exposé écrit, exercice, algoritmisation, problématisation, instruction numérique, recherche-action,

Tableau 1: *Didactisation des anglicismes francisés de l'économie et/ou de la finance: contenus et méthodes*

Comme le montre le tableau ci-dessus, il y a une série de méthodes qui peuvent être employées pour didactiser tous les contenus mentionnés. Parmi ces méthodes on trouve la recherche-action.

2.1.2.2.1. La recherche-action

La recherche-action s'inscrit dans les méthodes modernes de didactisation des langues. Elle est étroitement liée aux méthodes de la problématisation, la découverte et la simulation. Toutes ces méthodes aident l'apprenant à apprendre une langue sachant bien le contexte de sa future utilisation. Elle donne terrain libre à l'improvision, à l'assimilation individuelle des contenus souvent non-annoncés par le

professeur qui introduit cette méthode dans le processus éducatif. Le tableau qui suit présente d'une façon sommaire les contenus qui nous intéressent du point de vue de leur didactisation à travers la recherche-action. On y propose les activités didactiques le plus souvent rencontrées lors de l'application de cette méthode:

Contenus	Activités de recherche-action
compréhension des unités, employées isolément à l'oral	- présentations des caractéristiques de base des anglicismes francisés des affaires et de la finance par la méthode de la découverte; - sémantisation de ses unités par la recherche et l'action; - sélection de ces unités d'une liste thématique ou non qui fait appel à la découverte; etc.
compréhension des unités, employées en un discours	- placement de l'apprenant dans la sphère des affaires et de la finance par de petites vidéos en français qu'on lui propose à regarder et qui portent sur les domaines annoncés et lui font découvrir des choses qui se veulent recherchés; - sémantisation de ses unités par la recherche et l'action; - recherche individuelle ou en groupe de ses unités dans le discours écouté; - recherche et analyse distributionnelle des unités de ce discours; etc.
compréhension de la forme écrite de ces unités	- recherche de ces unités dans un texte spécialisé; - comparaison des unités.
emploi isolé de ces unités à l'oral	- sonorisation de ces unités dans un discours fait à plusieurs (y compris l'enseignant) par la méthode actionnelle; - discours à lacunes.
emploi de ces unités dans un	- questionnaires ingénieux;

discours de spécialité	- création des discours renfermant des anglicismes francisés des affaires et de la finance par la méthode actionnelle.
emploi isolé de ces unités à l'écrit	- texte à trous.
emploi de ces unités dans un texte de spécialité	- création d'un texte renfermant des anglicismes francisés des affaires et de la finance par la méthode actionnelle.

Conclusions

Les anglicismes des affaires et de la finance qui entrent en français subissent une assimilation intéressante qui éveille des questions quant à la diversité des moyens d'assimilation.

Les politiques linguistiques éducatives par rapport à ces unités ont des spécificités qui découlent de la double formation (économico-financière et linguistique) qui y s'impose.

La méthode de la recherche-action, employée dans la didactisation de ce lexique s'avère être une des plus efficaces, car elle ouvre à la découverte personnelle et à l'originalité.

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ZUM KULTURBEGRIFF IM KONTEXT INTERKULTURELLER ERZIEHUNG UND BILDUNG

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Abstract: Education for sustainability is an important educational approach at a global scale. It can only succeed if it takes into account the cultural diversity that exists among different societies of the world. If we fail to adapt the general goals to regional and local conditions and needs, education for sustainability cannot be successfully implemented. Preserving "cultural identity" and "achieving social integration" are among the few universally accepted objectives of the educational policy.

Keywords: Education, cultural diversity, societies, culture, intercultural education.

Einleitung

Das Forschungsgebiet „Interkulturelle Erziehung" ist zwar noch relativ jung. Aber da es infolge der intensivierten internationalen Verflechtung von Wirtschaft, Politik, Religion, Pädagogik usw. seit einiger Zeit „im Trend" liegt und sich immer mehr Wissenschaftler diesem Thema widmen, ist die Forschungsliteratur kaum noch zu überblicken. Bemerkenswerterweise verbinden einige in der Republik Moldau in Modellprojekten erprobte und dann publizistisch vorgestellte Konzepte Interkultureller Erziehung diese mit Vorstellungen einer Öffnung der Schule und der Universität in ihr soziales Umfeld. Die Rede von der neuen Aufgabenstellung der Lehrerinnen und Lehrer, die sich durch die Migration von Menschen über Staats- und Kulturgrenzen hinweg ergeben hat, verwendet zwar in der Tendenz meist den Terminus *Interkulturelle Erziehung*. Es gibt aber auch teils synonym verwende Bezeichnungen wie Interkulturelle Kommunikation, Multikulturelle Erziehung, Antirassistische Erziehung, Multiethnische Erziehung etc.

Kultur und Bildung

Dies verweist übrigens auch auf den lateinischen Wortstamm von „Kultur": colere = pflegen, bewirtschaften; daher z. B. Agrikultur = Landwirtschaft und Hortikultur = Gartenbau. Die Kulturanthropologen Alfred L. Kroeber und Clyde Kluckhohn sammelten 164 Definitionen von Kultur, die damals in den englischsprachigen Sozial- und Kulturwissenschaften existierten. Sie fanden dabei drei typische, wiederkehrende Schwerpunkte: 1. einen definitorischen Bereich der materiellen Kultur, der Mensch-Umwelt-Beziehungen und technologische Entwicklungen adressiert, 2. einen Bereich der sozialen Kultur, der zwischenmenschliche Beziehungen zum Gegenstand hat, und 3. einen Bereich der geistigen Kultur, der sich auf Wissen, Ideen und Symbole, Werte und Normen bezieht (Kroeber & Kluckhohn: 97).

Hartmut von Hentig konstruiert unter Rückgriff auf Herman Nohl eine enge Verbindung von Kultur und Bildung (vgl. Hentig). Das heißt: Bildung lege die Grundlagen für die Aneignung der Kultur, Bildung sei für den einzelnen das, was die Kultur für die Gesellschaft sei: Orientierung in der Welt und Muster für den schöpferischen Umgang mit ihr. In der Konsequenz dieser Überlegung ließe sich prüfen, ob die von Hartmut von Hentig begründete und in seinen beiden Schulversuchen auch realisierte Neueinteilung der Bereiche von Bildung zugleich auch eine Bereichseinteilung für die Kultur sind oder sein könnte. Er unterscheidet für die Bildung drei Bereiche als *Umgang mit Menschen* (Sozialkultur), *Umgang mit Sachen* (Werkzeugkultur), *Umgang mit Gesprochenem, Geschriebenem, Gedachten* (Symbolkultur). Als vierten Bereich der Bildung stellt er neben diese drei den *Umgang mit dem eigenen Körper*. Wenn man diesen Bereich erweitert als *Umgang mit sich selbst*, dann geht er nicht ohne weiteres in den drei Bereichen der Kultur auf, sondern könnte als Hinweis darauf genommen werden, dass hier ein Bereich angesprochen ist, der neben den drei üblichen möglicherweise eigens ausdifferenziert werden müsste (vgl. z. B. Gamm). Der Bereich von Erziehung und Bildung würde für die Einteilung der Kulturbereiche als vierter Bereich „eines Umgangs mit sich selbst" sein.

Es ist wichtig zu betonen, dass es innerhalb eines Faches unterschiedliche theoretische Ausrichtungen gibt, die an der interkulturellen Kommunikation auch ganz verschiedene Aspekte hervorheben. Mit den Grundbegriffen „Kommunikation" und „Kultur" kann in einer konkreten Untersuchung also jeweils etwas ganz

Verschiedenes gemeint sein. Diese unterschiedlichen Auffassungen über den Forschungsgegenstand muss man kennen, die jeweils mit einem der Ansätze erzielt werden, richtig einschätzen will.

Wir versuchen in unserem Bereich zu bleiben. Fremdsprachliche Ziele sind in der Regel mit einem im KMK-Rahmenlehrplan festgelegten Stundenanteil in die Lernfelder integriert. Darüber hinaus werden in Abhängigkeit von dem jeweiligen Ausbildungsberuf 40 – 80 Unterrichtstunden im Fach Fremdsprachliche Kommunikation erteilt. Zum Beispiel im Kernlehrplan für die Sekundarstufe II Gymnasium/ Gesamtschule in Nordrhein-Westfalen sind folgende Aufgaben und Ziele im Fach Anglistik als Fremdsprache: Vermittlung von sprachlich, kommunikativen und interkulturellen Kompetenzen; Förderung Interkultureller Handlungsfähigkeit (gesellschaftliche Anforderungen erfüllen, globalisierte Lebens- und Arbeitswelt, international ausgerichtete Hochschulausbildung); Auseinandersetzung mit komplexen, realitätsnahen und anwendungsorientierten Aufgabenstellungen im Unterricht.

Man muss hier noch hinzufügen, dass *Interkulturelle kommunikative Kompetenz* auf Verstehen und Handeln in Kontexten, in denen die Fremdsprache verwendet wird, Umgang und Reflektion mit fremdsprachigen und fremdkulturellen Texten gerichtet ist. Zum Beispiel als „Stellungnahme zum Thema interkulturelle Begegnungen: Die Schülerinnen und Schüler erläutern überzeugend die Notwendigkeit interkultureller Begegnungen und geben somit auch eine nachvollziehbare Begründung für das aktuelle Projekt. Die Bedeutung interkultureller Begegnungen und entsprechende Argumente können die Schülerinnen und Schüler u. a. anhand ihrer eigenen Erfahrungen als Gastschülerinnen bzw. Gastschüler veranschaulichen oder sie nehmen auf besondere Ereignisse und Entwicklungen in der Stadt bzw. im Stadtteil Bezug". (https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluesse/2012/2012_10_18-Bildungsstandards-Fortgef-FS-Abi.pdf, angesehen am 20.04.2021).

Gleichzeitig umfasst *Sprachbewusstheit* eine Sensibilität für die Struktur und den Gebrauch von Sprache und sprachlich vermittelter Kommunikation in ihren soziokulturellen, kulturellen, politischen und historischen Zusammenhängen, ermöglicht Schülerinnen und Schülern die Ausdrucksmittel einer Sprache bewusst und variabel zu nutzen, die Entwicklung von Sprachbewusstheit unterstützt den Aufbau eines

individuellen Mehrsprachigkeitsprofils. „Im bilingualen Unterricht werden neben den sachfachbezogenen Kompetenzen fachsprachliche und fachmethodische Kompetenzen auch in der Partnersprache sowie interkulturelle Kompetenzen verstärkt entwickelt. Im Rahmen der in diesem Kernlehrplan ausgewiesenen Kompetenzerwartungen können ggf. inhaltliche Bezüge zu den Kulturen der jeweiligen Partnersprache hergestellt werden.“

(https://www.kmk.org/fileadmin/veroeffentlichungen_beschluess e/2012/2012_10_18-Bildungsstandards-Fortgef-FS-Abi.pdf, angesehen am 20.04.2021

Einsatz von Filmen – eine Methode der interkulturellen Erziehung

Für Hofstede ist die so verstandene Kultur eine „mentale Software“, die sich jeder Mensch im Prozess einer gruppenspezifischen Prägung aneignet (Hofstede: 3). Den Einsatz von Filmen oder Kurzfilmen in der Bildung finden wir ich immer überflüssig oder nicht sehr pädagogisch wertvoll, weil wir selber in unserer Schulzeit die Erfahrung gemacht haben, dass diese danach kaum besprochen wurden und eher als Zeitvertreib oder Lückenfüller benutzt wurden, wenn ein Lehrer zum Beispiel krank geworden ist. Die Kurzfilme haben nun einen höheren Stellenwert und es gibt viele interessante Methoden, die wir für den Einsatz im Unterricht, gerade in Hinblick auf Schülerinnen und Schüler aus einer anderen Kultur, als sehr wichtig empfinden. Besonders interessant finden wir die Methode der Collagen-Erstellung.

Die Schüler und Schülerinnen haben dadurch die Möglichkeit ihren Lieblingsfilm oder generell Filme, die sie kennen, bildnerisch darzustellen und ihre Kultur und Emotionen, wie auch Erfahrungen zu präsentieren. Die Schülerinnen und Schüler können dadurch entweder Gemeinsamkeiten in verschiedenen Kulturen oder vielleicht auch Unterschiede erkennen, die man im Unterricht aufgreifen kann und besprechen kann. Zudem kann man anschließend mit den Schülern und Schülerinnen verschiedene Genre besprechen, die es gibt und ein Ranking, mit den Lieblingsgenre der Klasse, erstellen. Wichtig dabei finden wir zudem, dass mit den Schülerinnen und Schülern anschließend über die Filmproduktion gesprochen wird, indem darauf eingegangen wird, was vor, während und nach den Dreharbeiten passiert. Oftmals erfahren wir im Unterricht, dass die Schüler, die viele Filme zu Hause schauen und gerade auch Filme, die nicht ihrem Alter

entsprechen, nicht differenzieren können, dass die Geschehnisse und Handlungen nicht der Realität entsprechen. Durch Thematisierung der Filmproduktion im Unterricht, kann man den Schülerinnen und Schüler die Kultur des Landes nahebringen, was alles zu der Produktion von Filmen dazugehört und somit verdeutlichen, dass diese Handlungen und Szenen geschauspielert und nachgestellt sind. Zwar sollen die Schülerinnen und Schüler nicht das Gefühl vermittelt bekommen, sich dadurch nicht damit identifizieren zu können, sondern ein Gefühl dafür bekommen, dass oftmals Sachen nachgestellt werden und nicht immer der Realität des Landes oder der Region entsprechen.

Die Methode der Nachbesprechung ohne Worte ist ebenfalls als pädagogisch sehr wertvoll für den Unterricht, da die Schülerinnen und Schüler die Möglichkeit haben, eine Emotion zu malen, um zu zeigen, wie ihnen der Film gefallen hat. Anschließend sollen sie in Gruppen eine wichtige Szene nachspielen oder malen. Diese Methode bietet viel Raum für eine Differenzierung an und ist somit gerade für den Unterricht mit DAF Schülern von wesentlicher Wichtigkeit. Man kann den Schülerinnen und Schülern wichtige Szenen, als Wahlmöglichkeit in ausgedruckter Form vorgeben, sodass sie sich eine Szene, nach dem eigenen Empfinden aussuchen können. Die Schülerinnen und Schüler aus der Grundschule nehmen die Filme meistens sehr sinnlich wahr, indem der Film zu einem persönlichen Erlebnis wird, sodass es wichtig ist, dass der Film und vor allem spezielle Szene besprochen und thematisiert werden. Demnach haben alle Schülerinnen und Schüler die Möglichkeit, sich mit den Handlungen im Film zu identifizieren und ähnliche Erfahrungen aus eigener Kultur damit zu verknüpfen. Sie lernen sich selber zu reflektieren und gewisse.

Geschehnisse aus einer anderen Perspektive zu betrachten.
Bei der Methode der Nachbesprechung ohne Worte, können die Schülerinnen und Schüler zudem selber entscheiden, ob sie die Szene gemeinsam in der Gruppe nachspielen oder bildlich darstellen wollen. Die Schülerinnen und Schüler haben ein Entscheidungsrecht und fühlen sich somit nicht zu etwas gezwungen. Das führt dazu, dass sie mehr Motivation aufzeigen, da es den Schülern und Schülerinnen dadurch einfacher fällt, sich in Situationen hineinzuversetzen, die Ihnen bereits aus eigenen Erfahrungen bekannt sind und können sich dadurch besser damit identifizieren, wie auch offener darüber unterhalten. Gerade für Schülerinnen und Schüler mit einem Migrationshintergrund oder aus anderen Ethnien ist es von großer Wichtigkeit, dass sie in Interaktion mit ihren Mitmenschen treten. Die

Filme im Unterricht bieten diese Möglichkeit auf vielfältiger Weise an, indem starke Emotionen ausgelöst werden interessant ist es, dass die Schülerinnen und Schüler Filme noch ganz anders wahrnehmen als Erwachsene und sie diese regelrecht miterleben.

Es ist wichtig den Schülerinnen und Schülern dabei Raum für ihre Gefühle zu lassen, da sie die Filme vor allem emotional erfahren. Das ist ein wichtiger Aspekt, den man im Unterricht beachten sollte. Der Lehrer sollte sich ebenso auf den Film einlassen, wie die Schülerinnen und Schüler auch. Ich fand es zudem wichtig, dass sich der Lehrer bei der Auswahl des Films Gedanken darum macht, was die Bilder/Szenen in den Schülern und Schülerinnen auslösen könnten und wie darauf zu reagieren wäre. Außerdem ist es gut sich schon bei der Auswahl zu überlegen, was der Film vermitteln soll und ob er zur Klasse passt.

Schließlich wäre noch die Aufgabe passend, bei der die Schülerinnen und Schüler die Farbe einer Szene wechseln sollten, um so die Atmosphäre zu verändern. Ebenso die Aufgabe, bei der man die Wirkung einer Szene mit und ohne Hintergrundmusik wahrnehmen sollte. Das ist eine gute Möglichkeit, um die Wirkung der Effekte, Farben, Musik etc. in einem Film zur Schau zu stellen und auch die Arbeit dahinter aufzuzeigen.

Interkulturelle Erziehung durch digitale Medien

Gerade für Schülerinnen und Schüler ist experimentieren und rätseln eine große Motivation zum Lernen der Kultur. Da gibt es fachbezogene Apps wie zum Beispiel https://www.xwords-generator.de/en, die wir unterstützend im Unterricht einsetzen können. Für die Sammlung relevanter Begrifflichkeiten eines Themas, beispielsweise zur Erkenntnissicherung am Ende einer Einheit, können auch gut Mindmaps über die Simplemaps-App generiert werden. Der Unterricht in Klassen mit Schülerinnen und Schülern mit Migrationserfahrung und aus verschiedenen Kulturen, kann auch bunter und reizvoller durch die Anwendung von Lerningapps, Quizlet oder learningsnack werden. Zum Beispiel: https://www. learningsnacks. de/#/welcome?userid= 44140

Allen Schülerinnen und Schülern sollte ein Tablet zur Verfügung gestellt werden, um auch spontan im Unterricht Apps wie Lingofox (z.B. für die Lückentexte) oder Vocaroo nutzen zu können. Außerdem erachten wir noch den Punkt der Sprachförderung über sinnstiftende

Kommunikation als besonders sinnvoll. Hier können verschiedene Projekte umgesetzt werden wie beispielsweise die eigene Schule in verschiedenen Sprachen zu bewerben sowie dafür ein eigenes Werbeprospekt in Canva-Programm zu erstellen und somit den Schülerinnen und Schülern gleichzeitig auch verschiedene Sprachregister zu vermitteln. Ein E-Book zum Thema „Nationaltracht und Kultur" wäre auch mit Hilfe des Programms *read.bookcreator* möglich zu erstellen.Zum Beispiel: https://read.bookcreator.com/HwI7C7PxCrMd6RERcXYvX1W 06Og1/EK96fls0R3-kkwr8CoWx XQ

Bei der Erstellung des Prospekts am Computer würden auch hier erneut die Schreibaktivitäten auf der Tastatur gefördert und die Mehrsprachigkeit geübt. Zur Einübung der Begriffe im Bereich der Kultur und Interkulturalität können wir uns gut vorstellen Quizlet zu verwenden. Hier könnten wir die wichtigsten fachsprachlichen Begriffe wie Vokabeln, Definitionen zum Lernen zur Verfügung stellen. Für die gemeinsame Entwicklung einer Schreibstrategie kann man gut Jamboard als Anwendung vorstellen. Hier könnte man zusammen mit den Schülerinnen und Schüler die wichtigsten Schritte beim Erstellen eines Textes über die Kultur anderes Landes anführen und ggf. parallel ergänzen oder die Arbeitsschritte neu anordnen.

Fazit

Schließlich muss man noch bemerken, dass die begriffliche Entgegensetzung von Kultur und Zivilisation aus dem Deutschen stammt und wird auf E. Kant zurückgeführt (Perpeet: 1318). Inzwischen hat die interkulturelle Erziehung und Bildung in der Erziehungswissenschaft einen interdisziplinären Status bekommen, der die Frage aufwirft, wo und welche Fragen der Interkulturalität in allen Schulfächern zu verorten sei. In unserer Gesellschaft wird die Kultur zu einem einflussreichen Merkmal, das Menschen nach bestimmten Gruppenzugehörigkeiten und Identitäten, Mentalitäten und Wissensbeständen zu kategorisieren erlaubt. Es ist festzustellen, dass die Kultur der Handlungsraum ist in den Ethnien und Grenzen entwickelt und verändert werden. Die Untersuchung hat ergeben, dass die interkulturelle Erziehung für die kulturelle Mehrheit entweder wenig attraktiv erscheinen lässt oder auf Curriculum reduziert ist. Dabei ist es zu beachten, dass die interkulturelle Erziehung und

Bildung als Aufgabe und Komponente von Allgemeinbildung konzeptualisiert wird (vgl. Nieke).

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ACTION RESEARCH IN PRESETT CONTEXT

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Abstract: The article describes the way the pre-service students are trained to do action research which is done within the framework of the Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course (Bachelor's Level) designed in the context of 'New Generation School Teachers' joint project (2013–2019), initiated by the Ministry of Education and Science, Ukraine and the British Council, Ukraine. The notion of the action research and its key characteristics are revealed in the article. The understanding of the action research in PRESETT context is given. The article highlights the content, structure, number of hours and assessment specifications of the units devoted to action research: Unit 5.1 Action research 1 and Unit 6.1 Action research 2. The article also specifies the requirements for qualification paper done by the students as a result of learning on these units. The Qualification Paper Sample Template and criteria for assessing the qualification paper as well as criteria for public defence are provided in the article.

Key words: action research, the Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course, 'New Generation School Teachers' project, qualification paper, assessment specifications

Action research has long been considered a desirable form of teachers' professional development. However, teachers often have no idea what is meant by action research and how they can do the research. The Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course (Bachelor's Level) (2020), which was developed within the framework of the «New Generation School Teacher» joint project initiated and supported by the Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, and the British Council Ukraine, trains students to do action research. Two units, out of 22 the Curriculum includes, are devoted to action research.

This article is targeted at describing the way students are trained to do action research by brief outlining the units devoted to action research in terms of their content, structure, number of hours; by presenting the requirements to qualification paper, its structure and assessment criteria.

To begin with we will clarify the notion of an action research.

According to Watts, H. (1985) action research is a process in which participants examine their own educational practice systematically and carefully, using the techniques of research. It is based on the following assumption:

➢ Teachers and principals work best on problems they have identified for themselves.
➢ Teachers and principals become more effective when encouraged to examine and assess their own work and then consider ways of working differently.
➢ Teachers and principals help each other by working Collaboratively.
➢ Working with colleagues helps teachers and principals in their professional development (Watts: 118).

As a result, action research in education is grounded in the working lives of teachers, as they experience them.

According to Burns, A. (2010) action research is an essential tool that empowers teachers to find their own answers to their own questions.

Borg, S. (2018), an authority on action research, states that action research is one of the flavours of teacher research. In his opinion the basic idea in action research is that professional growth and better quality educational provision can be achieved when teachers (individually or collaboratively) engage in cycles of systematic classroom inquiry. Borg, S. identifies the following key characteristics of an action research:

➢ It is reflective.
➢ It is systematic.
➢ It is conducted in the teacher's own professional context (the topics are chosen by the teachers and are of direct relevance to their work)
➢ It aims to enhance the teacher's understanding of some aspects of their practice.
➢ It may be collaborative, though it's not a requirement.
➢ It presupposes collecting different kinds of evidence to evaluate the project.

> ➤ It presupposes qualitative or/and quantitative analysis of data.
> ➤ It is made publicly available.

But unlike teacher research, action research is cyclic and requires a specific action as an outcome.

In PRESETT context by action research we understand a kind of classroom enquiry carried out by trainee-students during their observed teaching which is resulted in qualification paper. The Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course (Bachelor's Level) includes two special units that prepare students to do action research. These are Unit 5.1 Action research 1 and Unit 6.1 Action research 2.

Unit 5.1 Action Research 1 comes first in Module 5. Specialized Dimensions. According to the Curriculum this unit is studied in Year 4, Semester 7. The total number of hours allocated to the unit is 30, where 18 hours are contact and the rest 12 hours are self-study. The objectives of the unit are shaped in the way, that by the end of this unit students *will be aware of*: enquiry as principled teacher behavior; the value of action research as a tool for professional development *and will be able to:* notice classroom issues and formulate research questions; explore the action research cycle: stages and steps; design and use data collection tools (e.g. observations, questionnaires, interviews); analyse, interpret and present collected data; formulate an action research proposal.

The content of Unit 5.1 Action Research 1 is designed to meet these objectives and covers the following topics:
> ➤ Enquiry as principled teacher behaviour;
> ➤ Enquiry as a key step at the planning stage of teacher research;
> ➤ Teacher research and its varieties;
> ➤ Action research as a way to success in the profession of teaching;
> ➤ Action research: the Who, the Why, the What, the How;
> ➤ Action research cycle: stages and steps;
> ➤ Classroom issues and research questions (noticing an issue/problem, formulating a research question);
> ➤ Planning action research;
> ➤ Sampling in action research;
> ➤ Action research ethics;
> ➤ Collecting data;

100

- ➢ Quantitative and qualitative data;
- ➢ Data collection tools: variety, advantages and disadvantages;
- ➢ Analysing, interpreting and presenting data;
- ➢ Reporting action research;
- ➢ Quality in action research;
- ➢ Action research proposal (writing a proposal using the template in the Sample session materials).

The content is indicative, so each university can make any changes both to the content and its distribution within sessions. The only thing that matters is meeting the objectives and demonstrating the evidence of learning on the unit in terms of outcomes which can be assessed.

Assessment in Unit 5.1 states as follows: *Formulate an action research proposal following the suggested templat*e. The template includes guiding questions for students to give their description, *e.g.* What is the topic of your project? Why do you want to study this issue? What is/are your research question(s)? What will the general context for the research be (e.g., the school, one or more classes)? etc.

Action research proposal correlates with the content and is structured in such a way that students can gradually fill it in after learning the particular topic. All in all, it corresponds to the main steps of the action research:
- ➢ Identify the problem.
- ➢ Formulate questions.
- ➢ Cycle 1.
- ➢ Plan (choose ways of collecting data, plan interventions).
- ➢ Take action (gather data, intervene).
- ➢ Analyse and interpret data (assess impact on teaching and learning).
- ➢ Cycle 2.
- ➢ Plan.
- ➢ Take action (wider scale intervention).
- ➢ Analyse and interpret data.
- ➢ Report (formulate recommendations).

The proposal is the basis for writing a qualification paper, which is done by students Semester 8. Unit 6.1 Action research 2 is the first in Semester 8. It aims at enhancing skills that the students acquired as a result of learning on Unit 5.1. This unit is also recommended for

assisting students in writing, editing and finalising their qualification paper. By the end of this unit, students will be able to: write the first draft of their qualification paper, review and edit it. The selection of the content for this unit is based exclusively on students' needs in carrying out an action research and writing a qualification paper.

The qualification paper demonstrates a student's ability to link theoretical knowledge with the practical elements of their own work during school experience (Observed teaching). The students submit the paper in English at the end of Semester 8. The paper is assessed according to the detailed criteria given in *Table 1* and *Table 2*. This accounts for 70% of the total for the qualification paper. A further 30% is allocated to the public defence of the qualification paper which is held in English.

Table 1. Criteria for the qualification paper

Criteria		Mark
Context	Clear statement of context, including a profile of the class or classes in focus	5%
Topic	Clear, well-focussed research questions and/or hypotheses on a classroom-based issue or problem Evidence of the ability to relate the issue to relevant theory in the literature.	15%
Classroom investigation methodology	Clear description of research methodology Appropriate choice and justification of research methods and instruments	15%
Findings	Clear analysis and presentation of data and findings	10%

Interpretations, implications and conclusions	Valid interpretations, implications and conclusions, including any materials developed as a result of the investigation	20%
Presentation of the written work	Systematicand consistent referencing. Readability:style, organization and signposting of writing Length and format according to requirements	5%
Total		**70%**

Table 2. Criteria for the public defence

Criteria		**Mark**
Content of the presentation	The student: -gives due consideration to key results of the research -provides argumentation to support the most important conclusions -demonstrates the ability to reflect on research experience	15%
Dealing with questions	The student: -addresses the questions directly and clearly -clarifies the fundamental aspects of the research -links answers to different aspects of the paper	10%

Form of the presentation	-The presentation is clear, structured, comprehensible to listeners and within a time limit	5%
Total		**30%**

The Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course provides also Qualification Paper Sample Template and Guidelines. The template is presented in *Table 3*.

Table 3. Qualification Paper Sample Template

Heading (paper section)	Content	Number of words
Title page	• May vary from university to university.	N/A
Table of Contents	• Include headings and relevant page numbers.	N/A
Lead-in	• Announce your research topic. • Describe the context, including a profile of the class or classes in focus.	400 –500
Rationale	• Identify a classroom-based issue or problem. • Formulate a research question. • Put forward a hypothesis. • Relate the issue to relevant theory in the literature.	500 – 600
Lead-in	• Outline the stages of	1300 -1400

		the action research.	
		• Define the kind of data you need to collect.	
		• Describe and justify the data collection methods and tools.	
		• Describe your research participants.	
		• Evaluate the effectiveness of research tools.	
		• State any ethical issues.	
Rationale		• Analyse the collected data.	1400 – 500
		• Present the findings (e.g. description, table, chart, diagram, etc.).	
Lead-in		• Interpret the findings and draw conclusions responding to the research question.	1400- 1500
		• Come up with recommendations for further actions.	
		• Point out any areas which need further research (optional).	
Rationale		• Provide a bibliography of resources referred to in your paper.	N/A
Lead-in		• Include any materials which directly relate to the research, e.g. questionnaires, sample tasks, tables, etc. and which you refer to in the paper.	N/A
		• Put the appendices in	

	the order they are mentioned in the paper.	
Rationale	• This is not a separate section of the paper. • Refer to reliable sources in the rationale and throughout the paper wherever appropriate and justified.	N/A
Total		**5000– 5500**

Students are also provided with Sample Qualification Paper Timeline. It serves as a guideline for students. They clearly know what they are to do by the end of each month starting with September. The timeline may vary from university to university. Students may adjust the timeline to their own pace and needs except for the deadlines for submitting and defending the paper. Students need to explore the requirements and guidelines for writing the qualification paper well in advance.

Summing up, we can state that the Core Curriculum for English Language Teaching Methodology Course provides students' thorough training for doing action research which is considered one of the forms of teachers' professional development.

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ACADEMIC WRITING IN AMERICAN ENGLISH

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Abstract: The "Academic writing in American English" presentation was designed to acquaint and update non-native speakers of English with the current norms in American academic communication. The norms in question regard academic emails, appropriate terms for people of different races, genders, sexual orientations, and abilities (or disabilities).

We began with the details of a formal email, including the salutation, body, and valediction/closing. The salutation should include, if possible, the recipient's name and academic title (Dr., Professor, Dean, Mr., Ms., etc.). If the writer knows recipient sufficiently *and* is of a similar or higher status, s/he may use the recipient's first name without the title. Students should always use the recipient's title and last name.

The first email in a chain or conversation typically includes an introduction of the writer and an explanation of the email's purpose. Keep the paragraphs short and do not indent the first line of each one— use block paragraphs with a line break between each one. It is always a good idea to thank the recipient for his/her time and attention to the matter at hand.

Appropriate formal closings include "Sincerely," "Warmly," "Cordially," "All the best," "Best regards," "Best," and "Regards". Less formal closings are appropriate for emails to those with whom the writer is on a first-name basis, such as "Looking forward to our meeting," "See you soon," "See you next week," and "Hope to see you soon".

Most academic writers use the standard binary gender pronouns of he, she, him, her, his, and hers. However, the current trend in gender inclusive language is to keep an open mind about the pronoun preferences of individuals and not to presume that everyone accepts the traditional pronouns. Gender fluid and transgender individuals have adopted the plural pronouns, "they, them, and theirs" to refer to a single individual whose gender is either unknown or not one of the binary choices. This usage pattern requires some practice to become fluent since many English speakers are unaccustomed to applying plural pronouns to single individuals. The plural pronoun is conjugated with plural form of the verb, as follows: "Brittany brought me to a concert. They are such a nice person, I can't wait to hang out with them again."

Other tips for gender sensitive writing include using language referring to *sexual orientation* rather than *sexual preference*, because the latter presumes that the gender of the romantic partners to whom one is attracted is a personal choice rather than something inborn. Likewise, writers should avoid using the words *heterosexual* and *homosexual* because they are terms from outdated medical texts that labeled homosexuality as a condition to be cured. Instead, use *lesbian*, *gay man* (but not "gay" as a noun), *bisexual, transgender*, or the more inclusive *LGBTQ community*. The Q in LGBTQ refers to the word "queer," but since it was a slur used by straight (heterosexual) people, it is generally only appropriate for gay people to use it about themselves. Rather than *girl/boyfriend* or *wife/husband,* use *partner, spouse,* or *sweetheart*. Use *transgender*, not *transgendered* as it implies that something happened to the person rather than that the person is simply the way they are. Do not use the term *sex* (a biological term) to mean *gender* (a social term), and don't use the term *opposite sex* because it presumes that gender is binary.

Continuing with tips for gender sensitive language: try to use substitutes for gendered words when possible. For example, use people or humanity rather than *mankind*, say workforce or employees rather than *manpower*, say synthetic or artificial rather than *manmade*, say intermediary or go-between rather than *middleman*, say that someone is staffing, running, or operating something rather than *manning* it, talk about fostering, nurturing or parenting rather than *mothering*, and so forth.

Turning now to inclusive language for discussing cognitive, emotional, and physical disabilities: do your best to avoid labeling people by their disabilities. Instead, use language that focuses on the

person, not the disability. For example, say, "a person with a disability," not "a disabled person." Similarly, use language that emphasizes abilities rather than limitations by saying, "differently abled," rather than "disabled." Avoid negative or value-laden terms that overextend the severity of a disability such as "he suffers from epilepsy," or "she is afflicted with schizophrenia." Here is a table of words to use and to avoid:

Use	Avoid
person with a disability	'the disabled,' handicapped
able-bodied, typical	normal
has [name of condition]	is afflicted by [condition]
person with a mental health condition	manic-depressive, mental patient
wheelchair user	wheelchair-bound
Deaf	deaf and dumb, deaf mute
Tony is living with epilepsy	Tony is an epileptic, an autistic
below grade level	retarded

For inclusive language regarding race and ethnicity, remember that race is an unchangeable characteristic that is differentiated by physical traits such as skin color, hair texture, lip shape, eye shape, etc., whereas ethnicity is typically inherited but is differentiated by culture, language, religion, and geographic origin. The race groups used in the US are Black (African-American), White (Caucasian, European-American), Native American (American Indian, Alaska Native, etc.), Asian, and Pacific Islander (Native Hawaiian, Guamanian, etc.). The safest and most common neutral term for Black people in the United States is "African American." Never use Black as a noun, particularly in the singular, as in, "We needed a Black on the committee." Instead, say, "we needed a Black representative on the committee." According to the American Psychological Association (APA) Style Publication Manual, racial and ethnic groups should be written as proper nouns and, therefore, capitalized. Although African American is appropriate for many Americans, it should not be used as an umbrella term for people of African ancestry worldwide because it obscures other ethnicities or national origins, such as Nigerian, Kenyan, Jamaican, or Bahamian; in these cases, use "Black." The terms "Negro" and "Afro-American" are

outdated; therefore, it is generally inappropriate to use them except in discussing historical research or concepts. Be cognizant of differences between black people of African, Caribbean, and African-American descent. The former two groups are considered voluntary immigrants who came to the US seeking a better life in contrast to the latter group, which was involuntarily enslaved.

There is tension over which groups should benefit from affirmative action, which, in the US, is based on only skin color—not ancestry.

Here is a similar table of words to use and avoid:

Old fashioned / offensive	Preferred
colored (USA), Negro, ~~nigger~~	African-American, Black, black
mulatto, quadroon, octoroon	biracial, multiracial, hapa, mestizo, mixed-race
Latin, Spanish	Hispanic, Chican@, Latin@, Latinx
Native	American Indian, Native American, Indigenous, First Nations (Canadian)
oriental (rugs are okay), Chinaman	Asian, Asian-American, Japanese, Chinese, etc.
illegal alien	undocumented immigrant
	BIPOC (Black, Indigenous, or Person of Color)

Americans use the words Hispanic and Latinx to describe both Latinos (male) and Latinas (female). The x is a neutral suffix that encompasses all genders.

Although no longer polite in the US, South Africans still use the term "coloured" to refer to people with brown skin tones and who are of mixed racial heritage. Americans of multiple racial ancestries use the words biracial (two ancestries), multiracial (more than two ancestries), hapa (people with some Asian ancestry) and mestizo (people with some Latinx ancestry). The term mulatto is considered offensive since it is derived from the word mule, the sterile offspring of a horse and a donkey. Similarly, quadroon and octoroon are very outdated references

to blood quantum (one quarter black and one eighth black) which Americans no longer use.

Although Indian was originally Columbus' mistaken name for the Indigenous people of North American, many Americans descended from this people have adopted and embraced the name and use it to refer to themselves. Most Americans who are not in the group use the word Native American, but it is not incorrect or impolite to use American Indian. American Indian is listed on the Census and other government forms, and it is the name of the major newspaper of the American Indian community, *Indian Country Today.*

For Americans of Asian ancestry, it is acceptable to use the collective term "Asian-American" but it is preferrable to use the specific national origin, "Japanese-American" or "Korean-American."

Some Americans refer to people who are in the US without the proper visa as "illegal aliens," a legal term that has fallen out of favor among progressives because it implies that the person him/herself is illegal when in fact it is the person's paperwork that is out of compliance with US laws.

Finally, the newest term for people of color is BIPOC, which stands for Black, Indigenous, or Person of Color. This is a good catchall term for minority groups, although currently there is a shift away from the term minority because it centers the white majority as normal and views all other groups as "other."

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THE WAYS OF CREATING STUDENT-CENTERED EFL METHODOLOGY CLASSES

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Abstract: The article presents the authors experience of creating the student-centered EFL Methodology classes. She describes how the reforms and project activities influence the transformation of the system of higher education in Ukraine. The impact of two projects "Ukraine Higher Education Teaching Excellence Program" and "New Generation School Teacher" is specified. There are the examples of positive practices of using project ideas for focusing on learning more than on teaching. The ideas for making digital learning more student-centered are suggested. Successfully organized active engaged learning within small groups collaboration is described. Other student-centered activities used in EFL Methodology classes are presented and specifies. Special attention is paid to the word clouds tools and virtual boards. A range of such modes of interaction as group work, guided reading, jigsaw learning, microteaching, project work, task-based learning, workshop are recommended as student-centered ways of organizing students' learning in EFL Methodology classroom. A set of student-centered classroom characteristics is outlined.

Keywords: student-centered classroom, EFL Methodology class, project activities, transformation, learning.

> *"Excellent teachers are made, not born;*
> *they become excellent through*
> *investment in their teaching abilities"*
> (The Professionalization: 10)

Nowadays there appear a lot of studies devoted to the issues in higher education associated with teaching and learning organization, the factors contributing to creating student-centered

educational space. It has lately become a relevant topic in educational context of both countries Ukraine and Moldova.

When we speak of stakeholders in higher education, we should primarily mention students and their future employers. The highest level of stakeholders is represented with Ministry of Education and Science and National Agency for Higher Education Quality Assurance. The secretary of NAQA in Ukraine Mykhailo Wynnytsky said that the university is a "place for students' worldview formation" (Wynnytsky). And for these students need the classroom for "interesting discussions, sharing experience, discourse formation ("horizontal" communication caused with their interest, not obligation); the laboratory as a space for search, crystallization, eliciting, generalizing, verbalizing, retaining of new knowledge; stage requisites – the elements of affiliation through which the environment becomes the community: student café, clubs, societies, teams, etc." (Wynnytsky). All these aspects really matter a lot.

The transformation of higher education to more student-centered model is influenced by many factors, one of which is project activity of university teachers. One of such projects has become Ukraine Higher Education Teaching Excellence Program (with the support of British Council Ukraine, Advance HE, Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine, National Agency for Higher Education Quality Assurance and National Academy of Sciences Institute of Higher Education). Bogdan Khmelnitsky Melitopol State Pedagogical University was one of the ten Ukrainian universities selected for participation in the project.

The motto of the program was: "Engage learners not 'present' to learners. We as teachers should be focused on creating conditions for students' activity, engagement, independence, empowerment, constructing their knowledge by means of experiential learning, learning by doing, student led discovery, problem-based learning, projects, peer cooperation and collaboration, competitions, flipped learning". The project trainers helped university teachers to dive into student-centered

atmosphere and to understand the mechanism of student-centered teaching and assessment.

Contemporary pedagogy of higher education suggests a lot approaches, methodologies and technologies. We do emphasize their special importance for future teachers. Professor Carol Evans, Professor Muijs, Dr. Tomlinson among High Impact Pedagogies pointed out Visual representations (concept maps, mind maps, time lines); Simulations/ Inquiry based learning; Problem based/project-based learning; Games/gamification; Team based learning; Just in Time Teaching (JiTT); Flipped Learning; Narrative pedagogies (Evans, Muijs, Tomlinson: 25).

The best opportunities for teaching our students to teach in the future are realized through the Methodology of teaching their professional subjects. Active engaged learning is successfully organized within small groups collaboration. It helps to develop some hard skills, in Methodology presented with selecting some texts for reading, designing an activity or a sequence of activities for teaching vocabulary, solving the critical issue in a case-study and a lot of other similar tasks. It is important to emphasize that each member of the group is responsible for the result of their work. The output of the group work should be assessed so that students could see the importance of their collaboration and find out possible ways for the improvement of their solutions, choices, actions.

Development of such soft skills as leadership in the classroom can encourage greater participation and more responses (Collier: 57), and contribute to making the classroom a "dynamic and exciting learning environment" (Greig: 82). As a result, there appears a learning environment favorable for students to feel more relaxed to discuss, raise questions, and express ideas or challenging statements.

The student-led discussion surely facilitates "sharing, clarifying, and distributing knowledge among peers" (Rivard & Straw: 585), moreover it makes the content of the learning much closer to the students and meets their needs, perception peculiarities, generating examples more relevant to their lives

(Collier: 57). One more constructive idea for boosting our students' learning is near-peer instruction, when the peer leader as a near equal can be closer to students' abilities to comprehend and solve problems (Tien, Roth & Kampmeier: 607). So, the interaction becomes more natural and is realized in relevant ways.

A new wave of changes in education was caused by Covid-19 pandemic. Digital technologies saved the situation; still the role of a teacher hasn't become less valuable in digital classroom. Modern methodologists suggest us their help as for methodological support for virtual educational space. For example, we cannot help but mentioning "Virtual team building activities" by Michelle Cummings. The book is especially relevant for current crucially transformed ways of learning and teaching. Since the very beginning of the book the author gives such important pieces of advice:

"Email note-taking handouts with check-in prompts ahead of time. This will help learners stay engaged and will increase retention. If they're listening and writing, they're paying attention. Inject frequent interactivity into your session like polls, surveys, status check emojis (thumbs up/thumbs down) or the chat feature. Invite participants to stand and do a quick stretch. Even little things like this can help keep the brain engaged and help to keep people focused. Use people's names as much as you can. Respond to as many questions as you can. Make their participation count. Be visible to the learners. Appear on camera as much as you can.

Script out your responses or remarks if you tend to get super nervous when presenting to a crowd of people. Dress the same way as you would in the classroom. Smile! If you don't have the option for live streaming or video, put a headshot of you up on the slide when you introduce yourself so learners have a face to put with your voice" (Cummings: 3).

Following these recommendations will help the teacher build rapport and create the most favorable conditions for learning and teaching in the environment catering for interpersonal communication and collaboration.

Graham Gibbs states that even lectures can become student-centered. Lectures can include quizzes and interaction, and some teachers turn 'lecture' slots on the timetable into large class workshops. 'Lectures' can be used to brief and de-brief active learning that takes place out of class, rather than assuming such study will happen automatically as the consequence of presentations (Gibbs: 17).

Each academic subject has its own potential for creating active educational environment with focus on learning not teaching. Each teacher contributes differently to making students the center of the classroom. We would like to share our positive experience of participating in joint project of British Council Ukraine and Ministry of Education and Science of Ukraine "New Generation School Teacher", the main product of which was the curriculum of EFL Methodology Teaching. Thanks to the project the system of methodological training in 15 Ukrainian universities has changed. Now we teach Methodology in English and the word 'teach' isn't quite the right word. We help our students learn as we follow the principles: "Start where your learners are, integration of theory and practice, appropriate balance and variety of learning and teaching modes, dominance of challenging and feasible tasks and activities, ample use of reflection: in/on action, on learning experience (both at school and university), use of data from school-based practice (curriculum)" (Curriculum: 116-117). The ways of creating student-centered EFL Methodology classes are based on engaging them in active learning by using a range of modes:

•group work – any learning activity which is done by small groups of learners working together to complete a task;

•guided reading – an activity in which students are encouraged to read specific articles or sections of books with a particular purpose in mind;

•jigsaw learning – a method of organising activity in which different students cover different areas of a topic; they later exchange their learning;

•microteaching – a practice used in the training of teachers which consists of teachers trying out short lesson sequences for an audience of their peers, some of whom adopt the roles of learners;

•project work – a purposeful, task-based activity through which students address authentic problems/questions and create some kind of product which they present at the end of the allocated time; it usually involves an extended amount of independent work either by an individual student or by a group of students in and beyond the classroom;

•task-based learning – an approach in which the learners use language to fulfill a specified task. Their focus is on the task rather than on the language they are using, e.g. case study;

•workshop – a way of organizing student-centered learning in which the teacher plays the role of facilitator. It usually involves hands-on activity by students.

This semester we have begun to work with new groups. In the original version of the Curriculum there is a separate unit "ICT in teaching English", but it will not be studied soon, so taking into account today's reality we decided to use at least one digital technology, tool or resource in class each time. So, we dive into the new topic by means of word cloud tools such as Answergarden word cloud generator. Besides, there are other useful tools such as:

WordArt | Artistic word clouds with shapes
Wordclouds.com | Custom shaped word clouds
WordItOut | Word clouds with emojis
Jason Davies | Word clouds focused on word placement
TagCrowd | Create word clouds from URLs
Abcya | Fun word cloud art for kids
Tagxedo | Word clouds from blogs, tweets, or URLs
 Mentimeter | Interactive word clouds
Word Clouds in Python | Word clouds with code

To prepare for disputes, debates, discussions we use such resources as Kialo, LessWrong, Poll Everywhere.

In virtual reality students share their opinions by means of virtual boards such as Jamboard and Padlet.

But there are a lot of other boards such as:
    Miro for turning ideas into tasks,
    Stormboard for creating multiple whiteboards in a single brainstorming session,
    MURAL for remote, multi-member team meetings,
    Limnu for teaching students remotely,
    InVision Freehand for annotating design files with a team,
    Conceptboard for turning a brainstorming session into a formal presentation,
    Explain Everything for creating whiteboard videos

You can see an example by one of the student in class on our virtual board:

Picture 1. A student's poster on a virtual board Jamboard
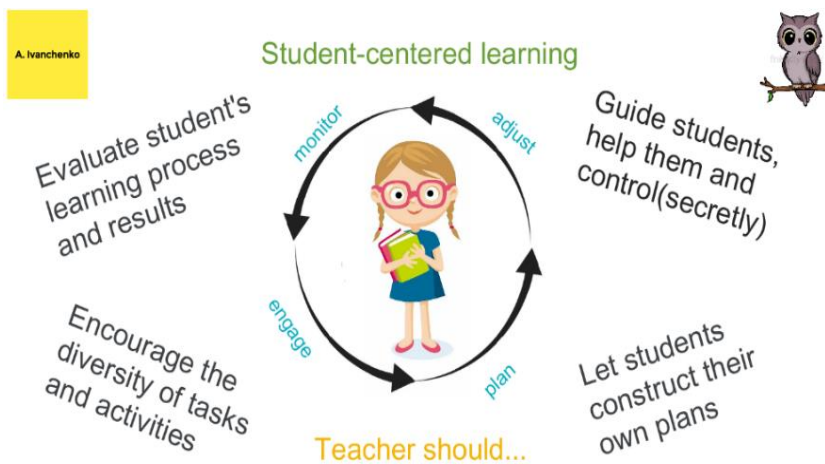
It is even more useful to organize creating posters in small groups. This mode of interaction teaches students to collaborate, to work in a team, to give and support arguments, to be responsible, to communicate and other useful soft skills so necessary in their future professional activity.

Task based approach gives wonderful opportunities for collaboration, communication, hands-on activities and development of soft skills.

Special role play activities which help students use their experience, share it and find the advantages of constructing new knowledge in this way. One of the favorites of my students is the activity "Speaking corners". We have three locations in the classroom 'Agree', 'Disagree', 'Not sure'. They read or listen to a contradictory statement, go to the location which expresses their position, discuss in groups their opinions and present their arguments. Each group or student can ask questions, comment. They can change their point and change the location. The teacher only helps to summarize. When we tried this activity in our first class after the second lockdown, after the end of the class students were leaving the classroom with the words of gratitude. Real communication is one of the most important things in student-centered classroom.

Thus, student-centered classroom differs from teacher-centered with a set of such characteristics:

- Respect and attention to the diversity of students and their needs, catering for their flexible educational lines;
- Various ways of presenting/for discovering the educational materials;
- Flexible use of pedagogical methods variety;
- Evaluation of materials, methods and ways of helping students to construct their learning/knowledge, develop skills/ competences;
- Fostering students' autonomy, teacher's support in students' learning autonomously;
- Students' and teachers' mutual respect;
- Learning is preferred to teaching in student-centered classroom;
- Giving more choice to the students.

The experience of creating student-centered classroom contributes to the whole system of education improvement. The students participating in such classes understand their advantages

and become more demanding as for their academic freedom. The teachers catering for the development of students' hard and soft skills, constructing their own learning are still considered innovators. We do hope that in the very near future all classes will become student-centered and involve students in taking decisions as for their learning.

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LINGUISTIC BARRIERS IN TEACHING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

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Abstract: Recent situation in era of fast globalization makes immense emphasis on the importance of intercultural interaction between people. Thus, university graduates are required to possess intercultural competence in addition to strong academic skills as well as to overcome communication barriers caused by a clash of different cultures during interactions and encounters.

This article discusses the way of communication competence is defined in various theoretical models by intercultural scholars. First, we considered the terms intercultural communicative competence (ICC) and intercultural competence (IC), for which critical cultural awareness is a fundamental element. We also investigate some crucial language barriers, which hinder mutual intercultural communication and implications of this analysis for foreign language education.

The concept of language awareness lies in the field of foreign language teaching. The verbal (linguistic) side of intercultural competence has a complex structure and appears in various styles (different styles and genres, slang, colloquial or literary language, dialect, etc.) All these verbal communication characteristics determine the success or failure of communication. Consequently, the so-called "language barriers" of three types (stylistic, semantic and phonetic) were discussed as well. It appears that to overcome language barriers or misunderstandings in field of intercultural communication requires developing the forms of intercultural interaction, communication competence as well as specialized training in this area.

Key words: stylistic, semantic and phonetic barriers, intercultural communicative competence (ICC), linguistic knowledge.

Intercultural interaction of people in the modern cultural space is becoming more and more urgent. Recent situation in era of fast globalization emphasizes the importance of developing communication opportunities in various fields of activity: politics, economics, science, culture, education. Therefore, it is so important to avoid the difficulties caused by a clash of different cultures during interactions and encounters.

At the same time, when carrying out communication in an intercultural environment, it is necessary to take into account the linguistic and cultural characteristics of representatives of various countries. Only knowledge of both the language and the culture of our partners in the world community can provide efficient and fruitful communication. Accordingly, universities need to "educate their students for global citizenship, to keep pace with their peers, to better serve the national and international community" (Biddle, 2002: 7) and «produce global competence, or a sense of civic responsibility that extends beyond the local or even national level» (Rumbley, Altbach, & Reisberg, 2012: 15). On the individual level, intercultural competence (IC) goes hand in hand with employability on the international job market, along with increased job performance and personal development (Deardorff, de Wit, & Heyl, 2012; Deardorff & van Gaalen, 2012; Knight, 2012; Rumbley et al., 2012)

Thus, there's a need to equip university graduates with the intercultural communicative competence (ICC). ICC study is impossible without deep and all-round knowledge of the culture of native speakers of the languages, their mentality, national character, way of life, vision of the world, customs, traditions, social behavior, etc. Only knowledge of both the language and the culture of our partners in the world community can provide efficient and fruitful communication.

When regarding the context of the relationship between language and culture, we must also consider in what ways "awareness of language" and "awareness of culture" are different and similar. In this term the difference between Intercultural competence (IC) and intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is worth discussing.

Then we will discuss the possibilities of overcoming intercultural communication barriers when teaching students foreign language.

The essence and importance of intercultural competences are presented in the work, published by European Commission, "Key Competences for Lifelong Learning, European Reference Framework", 2010. IC is defined their as social and civic competencies, which

"include personal, interpersonal and intercultural competence and cover all forms of behavior that equip individuals to participate in an effective and constructive way in social and working life, and particularly in increasingly diverse societies, and to resolve conflict where necessary" European Commission, (2010). This document gives a description of knowledge, skills, and attitudes relate to the above-mentioned competence. Similarly, in updating the 'Competences for Democratic Culture', a Council of Europe working group reviewed and listed 101 competence schemes (Council of Europe, 2016) and ultimately settled on 20 competences with the emphasis on intercultural competence as 'teachable, learnable and assessable' skill to be taught in one or more disciplines of the school curriculum (Council of Europe, 2016).

The word combination IC became widely used in foreign language education from the 1990s onwards. Researchers defining IC as teaching of 'culture' associated the term with word "civilisation" (Risager, 2006 & 2007) or defined as an important outcome of internationalization efforts in higher education (Knight, 2004). However, surprisingly a uniform definition of what it means to be "interculturally competent" does not exist. Instead, in the academic literature one can find a number of synonyms such as "multicultural competence," "cross-cultural awareness," "global competence," and "intercultural sensitivity" (Boye, 2016; Barrett, 2013). The term intercultural competence is also often used interchangeably with "intercultural communication" or "intercultural communicative competence" (ICC) although the latter two terms focus specifically on communication and linguistic awareness aspects of intercultural competence (Krajewski, 2011: 12).

Similarly, distinction between IC and ICC is important, especially for language learning and teaching. With ICC there is a particular focus on culturally sensitive interaction in a foreign language, with connections to the concept of communicative competence in language learners (Savignon, 2013). IC, on the other hand, is a competence which is relevant in many fields and professions such as human resource management, anthropology, psychology, communication studies (Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009) and does not necessarily have a focus on foreign language learning or use.

While teaching ICC we are sure to meet the necessity to teach foreign language culture as language is part of the culture, it reflects culture and culture is associated with language. Teaching foreign culture is an indispensable part of teaching a foreign language. What is more, a language cannot be fully understood if there is no connection to the

culture. It is sometimes impossible to explain the full meaning or connotation of certain words without reference to culture.

American researcher Karen Risager suggests to analyse the relationship of language and culture from three perspectives:

First, linguistic practice or the *sociological* perspective, where language and culture are separable – people use the same language in different contexts to refer to and express different contents. This is most evident in the use of English.

Second, linguistic resources or the *psychological* perspective where in the life of the individual person, language and culture or, better, cultural experience, are inseparable for that individual and are ultimately unique to the individual.

Third, linguistic system, where we might analyse and describe the grammar of a *language* but there is no necessary relationship to a cultural context; such a relationship is only present and created in linguistic practice. (Risager, 2006: 110-136):

Thus, in order to make the communication a success, language must be associated with culture. Paying no attention to culture can result misunderstanding. The most representative confusing situations are intercultural greetings (saying hello/goodbye), responding during job interviews, and merely accepting/giving presents. To help students to perform successfully in different cultural environment various "cultural" activities should specially be introduced in the teaching process.

One of the most common and efficient way of teaching ICC is to use authentic source from the native speech community. They give students certain cultural experience. Source can include movies, broadcasts, Websites, social media, networks, magazines, newspapers, restaurant menus, travel brochures. The materials can be adapted to the skills level of each group of students. For example, while watching a video clip, students can be supported by some charts, diagrams or translation.

Beginners can successfully consider the simplest cultural aspects, such as greetings. Follow-up activity can be done in the form of discussion of the cultural norms represented, e.g. physical distance between speakers, gestures, different behaviour patterns according to different social roles, as well as similarity to their native culture. Your Tube video materials (for instance TED talks) have some advantages over other authentic sources: they present visibly what is not obvious in printed materials. Visualisations are extremely helpful to represent successful behaviour patterns in different situations. It is necessary to

point out that there is a variety of successful behaviours for any type of interaction. Think how different a greeting will sound at a party, meeting, at home, in an office or a nightclub.

As the aim of our research is to discuss *language* barriers of intercultural communication competences we will analyse intercultural communication barriers, which, due to their practical importance, require special efforts and special knowledge to overcome. Such communication difficulties usually arise due to the degree of intercultural differences that partners cannot eliminate immediately in communication process. Such a misunderstanding in communication and can lead to the emergence of conflict situations.

In the broadest sense of the word, barriers are defined as problems that arise in the process of interaction, hindering it or reducing its effectiveness. Scientific literature on the problem is limited only to classify communication barriers according to various grounds: linguistic (semantic), ethnocultural, communicative and psychological. Accordingly, we also distinguish four main groups of intercultural barriers: *linguistic, ethnocultural, communicative and psychological*. Each of these groups is characterized by its specifics, and therefore there is no unique way to overcome them.

The verbal (linguistic) side of intercultural competence has a complex structure and appears in various styles (different styles and genres, slang, colloquial or literary language, dialect, etc.) All these verbal communication characteristics determine the success or failure of communication.

Very often in case of intercultural communication, it appears that conversation counterparts do not have the same amount of linguistic knowledge. These details cause the so-called "language barriers", which are subdivided into three main types: **stylistic, semantic and phonetic.**

Stylistics is the study of language variations distinguished according to the use or users of different social situations. The Stylistic barriers are expressed in the inconsistency of the language styles between communicators, who use specific terms that are incomprehensible to partners. For example, the use of only professional terms in verbal communication between a military man and an art critic, can lead to a complete mutual misunderstanding between communicators.

The Semantic barriers refer to the misunderstanding between the sender and receiver arising due to the different meanings of words, and other symbols used in the communication. The semantic barriers usually

arise when the information is not in the simple language and contains those words or symbols that have multiple meanings. Thus, since very often the same terms do not coincide in content in different cultures, then situations of misunderstanding and miscomprehension.

Therefore, when participants try to communicate in a language they do not know perfectly well, they often assume that terms and phrases have only one meaning: what they intend to convey. However, causing the situation, communicators ignore others meanings and thus create language barriers: bad expression, words with different meanings, faulty translation, unclarified assumptions, denotations and connotations, technical jargons. There are several words that carry different meanings and often, people get confused with these words and interpret these differently due to the difference in their educational and social backgrounds.

The Phonetic barriers of perception arise in result of undifferentiated or incorrect pronunciation of sounds (perception), as well as due to incorrect articulation the basic elements of the language: morphemes, words, sentences (significations). Foreign sounds understanding implies correct recognition of sounds and words. The difficulty in reproducing the foreign language sounds appears due to historically prevailing differences in structure of the speech apparatus of different languages speakers. For example, typical Ukrainian consonants are as a rule cacuminal while English forelingual consonants (there are 12 of them) are usually apical: they are articulated with the tongue-tip against the alveoli /t, d; s, z, v, l, etc./ or against the teeth / ð; θ/. The verbal misunderstanding may arise as well due to language accents, erroneous stress position, confusing words in phrases and whole sentences.

For all barriers and language barriers, as well we can suggest the list of possible solutions to overcome intercultural communication barriers:
- mastering the English language as a means of interethnic communication;
- study of linguocultural phenomena and related manifestations in the oral and writing;
- familiarizing with the cultural and psychological characteristics of the people, traditions, customs, a complex of forms of behaviour adopted in a given culture, due to history and modern socio-cultural processes.

Thus, to overcome language barriers or misunderstandings in field of intercultural communication requires developing the forms of intercultural interaction, communication competence as well as specialized training in this area.

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INTEGRATED APPROACH TO TEACHING
ENGLISH FOR THE GROWTH MINDSET TRAINING

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Abstract: The paper is designed to analyze the advantages of the integrated approach to teaching English, referring to some data gathered within a three-month period in two schools from the Republic of Moldova. It starts with the rationale, underlining the importance of the growth mindset development in today's education. The growth mindset theory is mostly based on the investigations made by C. Dweck (2006) and D. Sousa and T. Pilecki (2018). It presents a modest research that points to the connection between the teacher's mindset and the development of the similar mindset at the learners that are in his/her class. Finally, it shows a way to develop the growth mindset through the integration of Science, Technology, Math, Engineering in teaching English from early age.

Key words: integrated approach, growth mindset, early age, English, challenge.

Rationale

All educators discuss the importance of developing thinking skills at every class. The problem appears when we speak about the type of thinking we have to focus on. More and more students experience the school culture when the teachers make them focus on a right answer. In other words, the school policy focuses on convergent thinking development as it is based on memorization and certain easily-evaluated criteria. Many and many educators over the world are sure that divergent thinking is the key to success. The students generate ideas, often by breaking it out in components, and there is no right answer. Sousa and Pilecki (Sousa: 35) emphasize that it is more difficult to measure students' divergent thinking, but open-ended questions are necessary, in this respect. At the same time, the mental processing involved in divergent thinking stimulates the development of higher order thinking

skills. They support the idea that the current classroom is not designed to encourage divergent thinking, because of a great number of reasons. Mostly, it is assumed that the students "balk due to their lack of familiarity with this type of challenge. They quickly recognize that trying to solve the problem will take much more effort and time. The researchers who investigated this problem conclude that the narrowing of the curriculum, standardized tests have reduced the students' motivation to pursue time-consuming projects" (Olivant, 2015).

This whole educational policy that the learners are exposed to influence the formation of a certain mind-set. The creation of a mindset occurs at an early age and it represents a set of beliefs, assumptions, expectations how to behave and live in the society. The development of a fixed or growth mindset starts in kindergartens and schools. There are a lot of kids today that failing once, would never start again. That is the characteristic of fixed mindset. The growth mindset kids will start ever and ever again. As Dweck says, "The people with the growth mindset don't think they are Einstein or Beethoven. But aren't they more likely to have inflated views of their abilities and try for things they're not capable of?" (Dweck:11). That is a talent "to keep on going" in education. Gardner mentioned this talent as one that helps people identify their strengths and weaknesses (Dweck:11).

Mindset is of major value in education. It helps to modulate personalities that rely either on their genetics or effort. The effort is that hard work that we want our learners to undertake. Sometimes, the educator is to be the lead, but sometimes the lead is to be taken by the learner. The growth mindset will make any kid a learner that is more important than to get a high score at the standardized test. How many times the educators opt for success over growth at their learners. The answer to this question is given by Dweck who provides with her personal experience of how people with a fixed mindset feel.

She writes, "I, too, thought of myself as more talented than other, maybe even more worthy than others because of my endowments. The scariest thought, which I rarely entertained, was the possibility of being ordinary. This kind of thinking led me to need constant validation" (Dweck: 30). Namely constant validation feelings, the educators try to train in their learners.

Continuing to investigate the topic of fixed versus growth mindset, we, as educators, want our learners intelligent and not creative. Although many of us believe that these two are identical, they are not. Until recently, many assumed that creativity is something that a person

is born with. Today, the psychologists came to the conclusion that we can distinguish between ordinary creativity and extraordinary creativity. Everyone possesses ordinary creativity, but it may be or may not be used in the creative thinking process. The creative thinking is a complex phenomenon that consist of 4 stages (Hadamard, 1954). These are:

1. Preparation that involves purposeful study and documentation of the problem;

2. Incubation that is a period when the creative thinking is blocked, but there is a kind of internal growth before an idea is generated;

3. Illumination that is a burst of ideas time;

4. Verification that is a time when the solutions are verified as workable or not.

In schools, fear of errors suppresses the students' creativity. The creative thinking process starts, but it never finishes. The learners remain at the preparation stage being frightened of the consequences.

Methodology

In Moldova, there are a lot of educators that are sure that the long-term objective of the lessons of English is the high score at the final examination (Baccalaureate Examination). The learners are trained convergent thinking, although there are some cases when creativity is trained, mostly at writing short paragraphs. The objective of this modest research was to determine whether the mindset type of the teacher trains a similar mindset type at the learners. There were selected two groups of eighth graders together with their teachers of English. The selection procedure was based on the sets of questions that I had borrowed from Dweck. They are:

1. Your intelligence is something very basic about you that you can't change very much.

2. You can learn new things, but you can't really change how intelligent you are.

3. No matter how much intelligence you have, you can change it quite a bit.

4. You can always substantially change how intelligent you are. (Key: questions 1 and 2 are the fixed mindset questions; questions 3 and 4 reflect the growth mindset)

5. You are a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can be done to really change it.

6. No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change substantially.

7. You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.
8. You can always change basic things about the kind of person you are. (Key: questions 1 and 3 reflect the fixed mindset; questions 2 and 4 reflect the growth mindset) (Dweck:13).

One teacher of English had a fixed mindset, another teacher had a growth mindset. The hypothesis that I had was that certain beliefs and assumptions of the teacher are transmitted to the learners. These learners take them as life truths and use them.

Each group was formed of 15 pupils. The pupils' mindset was not investigated. Conclusions on the assumptions, beliefs and expectations had to be drawn at the investigation end period.

I strongly believe that integration of concepts from other disciplines can work on the development of a certain mindset. I pledge for the integration of Science, Engineering and Math at the classes of English as it ignites curiosity, trains creativity, allows failure and supports the continuous learning initiative. There were created lessons that follow the structure:

Experience and discuss.
That is a quick challenge the students have to express their opinion.
Sample: **Complete the following quick challenge to learn about energy.**

Take a basketball and a tennis ball. Follow the instructions:
   1. Drop a tennis ball. What do you observe?
   2. Drop a basketball. What do you observe?
   3. Drop a tennis ball and a basketball altogether. What do you observe?

Read and explore.
The students are proposed to read a text and perform exercises after the text. All the texts are created for this research and not borrowed.
   Sample:
   Energy is everywhere. It makes things happen and it is the ability to move. In fact, everything that we do uses energy. There are two types of energy: kinetic and potential. The kinetic energy is the energy possessed by a body due to its motion. The faster a body moves, the greater its kinetic energy. The potential energy is the energy stored in a body due to its position. The higher the body is, the larger its potential energy.

There might be different sources of energy such as food for people, and electricity, steam, gas for machines.

The humankind looks for clean sources of energy. Wind energy is promising and one of the most fast-growing technologies. Wind power is clean unlike coal, oil and gas. Wind is also available. In some parts of the world, it blows almost all the time.

People have taken advatages from wind power for centuries. The first known practical wind power plant was built in Sistan, Persia. In Europe, the wind power appeared in the Middle Ages. The first electricity-generating wind turbine was a battery charging machine that was installed in the 19th century in Scotland.

Find in the text synonyms/antonyms.
Complete the sentences with the correct forms.
Practice a dialogue orally in class.

Watch and write.
The students are offered to make a project starting with a video.

Solve a challenge.
This is an extension of the text and integrates other disciplines in teaching English.
    Sample:
Extension of the text:
    You have a friend whose father is the head of a company that wants to invest in green vehicles. He knows that you are extremely creative. He hires you and would pay you a fortune if you invented a means of transportation that would use moving air to put it into action.

Integrated disciplines: Engineering & Physics
    At the end of three months, the eighth graders were asked to tick sentences that related to them at those particular lessons:
        I'm awesome at this.
        This is too hard.
        I'm so stupid.
        I just can't do math.
        She's so smart, she makes me sick.
        It's fine the way it is, and yours isn't any better.
        I seem to be on the right track.
        This is going to take some time.
        That's an interesting idea for improvement.

What am I missing?

I'm going to train my brain in math.

I'm going to figure out how she's doing it. (https://k12.thoughtfullearning.com/blogpost/creating-growth-mindset-your-students)

The results are as follows:

Sentences 1 through 6 (4 choices and more)	Sentences 7 through 12 (4 choices and more)
Group 1. The teacher has got a fixed mindset	
12 pupils	3 pupils
Group 2. The teacher has got a growth mindset	
2 pupils	13 pupils

The verbal feedback that we got at the end of the three-week period is stated below:

Group 1.	Group 2.
Student 1, "I think that it was not related to English at all. We had to solve problems." Student 2, "I somehow liked it, but I thought the teacher liked the activities." Student 3, "There was Math, but I dislike it." Student 4, "We had to write, speak, read and listen at the classes of English." Student 5, 'I want that our English classes are as usual." Student 6, "We come to school to learn, but not to play."	Student 1, "We often do different activities and I always find them a lot of fun." Student 2, "I was so excited about making the well, testing and explaining how it works." Student 3, "My other colleagues envied me that my classes are so interesting." Student 4, "I understand so many things now." Student 5, "I want that all the lessons are like this." Student 6, "I made mistakes, but I was not ashamed of them." Student 7, "The teacher gave us the possibility to solve the problem, but we used a lot of English."

The analysis of the results makes us believe that the teacher's beliefs, values and assumptions have an impact on the students' performance. The choice of assertion that most closely relate to their activity demonstrates that they, being exposed to a fixed mindset teacher, are likely to share the same beliefs. This idea is fortified throughout their verbal feedback. In the second group the pupils are not afraid to fail and that failure is a part of the learning process. This is a characteristic of the growth mindset people.

Conclusion

Moldovan educational institutions strive to bring changes in the policy they share through the educators. The educators, in this respect, are valuable in training learners in changing their mindset for success. Definitely, training somebody to succeed is not about being all the time right and getting high scores at tests. It is about being creative, effort-directed and failure-accepted. Utilizing strategies to remake literacy increases student engagement, excitement for learning, and wondering for life-related solutions.

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ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION IN THE PANDEMIC

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Abstract: The article is devoted to the analysis of recent changes in the form and methods of education due to the coronavirus pandemic. The advantages and disadvantages of online education for educational institutions, students and teachers are studied in detail. Online education can be a useful addition to the learning process even after the pandemic.

Keywords: online education, pandemic, Coronavirus, educational institution, Internet.

The 2020 pandemic has affected all aspects of our lives. But the hardest blow came directly to the education sector.

The number of students not attending schools or universities due to the COVID-19 outbreak is skyrocketing. Governments around the world have decided to close educational institutions to contain the global COVID-19 pandemic.

According to UNESCO, more than 100 countries have implemented nationwide school closings, affecting more than half of the students around the globe. Some other governments have implemented local school closures, and if those countries would also close the schools and universities nationwide, it would disrupt the learning process for millions of other students.

The pandemic has become a major challenge for secondary education systems. More than a billion schoolchildren around the

world have been affected by this crisis. To keep up with the program, all of them had to continue their studies even after the closure of schools, quickly switching from traditional offline to new formats.

The obvious solution to the problem was distance learning, which became widespread during the pandemic. For example, in China, 278 million school and university students have switched to online classes. In Ukraine, the share of teachers who use online resources in class has increased from 64% to 85%.

If we look at the experience of different countries, we can distinguish two main approaches to organizing distance learning: centralized and decentralized. This is how they went in 10 countries around the world.

A centralized approach allows reaching a large audience and makes the transition to distance learning more streamlined. However, unified platforms do not provide a choice, which means that users will have no alternative if they need additional functions or if the service fails. In addition, the centralized online learning systems developed even before the outbreak of the pandemic were not designed for a large-scale workload.

Finland was among the countries that coped best with adaptation. Here, schools have continued to conduct distance classes on a regular schedule, using classroom management tools from a variety of providers. Educators and students were actively working with these services before the coronavirus, so the transition went smoothly enough. At the same time, it was possible to organize official communication between teachers, schoolchildren and parents on the basis of the Wilma platform with a calendar, mail, diary and message board. All these opportunities were available even to children without personal computers - they were given laptops at home.

France also did not have to adapt to new conditions from scratch: this country has long had a powerful distance education system CNED. When schools closed, the *Ma classe à la maison* platform was launched on its basis for teaching schoolchildren. At first, the service could not handle the increased workload, and

some teachers had to use *My Sites* to post assignments and collect homework. However, when the connections of the junior and senior classes were split in time, the disruptions stopped.

China has demonstrated a completely different, unique approach. Several large companies, including Alibaba, Baidu and Huawei, participated in the organization of distance learning here. However, as a result, it was still possible to create a centralized system. Within a few weeks, a single national online platform was developed and launched with video tutorials in all school subjects, electronic textbooks, reference materials and tests. This system united seven thousand servers, and up to 50 million students were able to use it at the same time.

In Germany, the public-law TV channel ARD joined the distance education of schoolchildren. Together with the Bavarian Ministry of Education, it launched the School at Home program. Regular educators have also continued to teach children, but usually through methods such as emailing, distributing printouts, and saving homework to the cloud.

The TV trend was supported by Austria, where the national TV channel ORF 1 began to produce educational programs for schoolchildren, divided by age. For example, in the mornings from 6 to 9 o'clock there are broadcasts for preschoolers and primary school children, and then - informative documentaries, interesting reports and tips for children from 10 years old. Online resources are also involved. In particular, schoolchildren use the Moodle e-learning system, cloud solutions from Microsoft and Google.

In turn, Bulgaria began showing educational programs on the international satellite channels BNT 2 and BNT 4. However, the main tool here was webinars, in which 65,000 teachers taught lessons to 700,000 schoolchildren - an impressive scale for a country of 7 million population.

In general, TV broadcasts of educational content became very widespread during the pandemic. The countries listed are just a few examples from a long list of supporters of this instrument.

Due to the abundance of services, when using a decentralized approach, many users get lost and cannot immediately find suitable platforms. This can stretch the transition to online learning and make it more chaotic. However, the choice compensates for these shortcomings and allows the school to decide independently which system is best for it.   As a result, it is possible in each case to find the optimal balance between teaching methods, student requests and curriculum requirements. It is much easier to do this at the individual school level than at the national level. At the same time, the absence of a single platform gives more freedom to providers, without restricting their work and helping them to adapt quickly to new conditions.

Despite its high potential, the decentralized approach has not always led to the introduction of the most advanced services in the industry. For example, in the UK, this was thwarted by concerns about insufficient data protection in popular messengers and video conferencing programs. Therefore, many British private schools, such as the famous Dulwich College, have started using their own online platforms for classes. Public schools could not afford to develop such complex solutions, so they organized the sending of assignments to students by e-mail.

In Italy, the transition to distance learning came as a complete surprise to educational institutions and was chaotic. This is not surprising: schools here began to close in February - earlier than in any other European country. Even within the same school, teachers used different services and platforms for online lessons, such as Meet, Classroom, Zoom, Jitsi Meet and Edmodo. At the same time, the servers could not withstand the load from the simultaneous connection of eight million students, and many children could not log in at all.

In the United States, the decentralized approach has been applied much more successfully, although the scale of distance learning here is much wider: 30 thousand schools have closed, and 20 million students stayed at home. In this country, teachers have used the widest range of platforms and formats, from video messaging via Flipgrid and publishing lessons on YouTube to

teaching classes using dedicated services Blackboard Learn and Google Classroom. In addition, to make it easier to navigate the educational process, the New York Department of Education has opened a Learn at Home section on its website with assignments, programs in various subjects and links to online platforms.

It only remained to solve the problem of the technical base. In the United States, many schoolchildren do not have a computer or high-speed internet. To enable them to download and submit assignments, libraries began to turn on Wi-Fi networks around the clock, to which they could connect from parking lots. Some schools sent buses with internet hotspots to their students' homes. In Virginia, non-computerized schoolchildren were even given laptops and tablets. In addition, HP collaborated with Time for Kids, Britannica and NASA to launch Turn to Learn, which distributes educational content in print.

Under normal circumstances, Ukrainian distance learning services have developed primarily as a means of additional education. However, with the onset of the pandemic, they began to be actively implemented as tools for teaching the main school curriculum. To systematize their application in the educational process, the Ministry of Education of Ukraine studied the solutions presented on the market and offered a list of recommended services, from which teachers could choose the most convenient for themselves. To help school students quickly prepare for exams, the Ministry of Education, together with partners, also launched a satellite TV channel "All-Ukrainian school online" with lessons in all basic subjects.

A great contribution to the organization of remote classes for Ukrainian schoolchildren was made by IT companies, which have launched many distance-learning projects. An online platform has appeared in Ukraine, which includes several sites and mobile applications for learning.

Within the framework of the project, 40 teachers from Kyiv actually became teachers for the whole of Ukraine. The lessons were being filmed every day according to a balanced school curriculum, which was developed by the Ministry of Education

and Science together with teachers. Filming of the educational process took place in the Novopecherska School in Kyiv.

In addition, Ukrainian stars were present on the shooting of the lessons: musicians, actors, athletes and others. They answered questions, solved problems, and conducted experiments with teachers.

The video tutorials had shown by Ukrainian television channels, which, at the request of Volodymyr Zelensky, had joined this important social mission.

Each class was assigned to specific television channels:

5th grade - PlusPlus and 112 Ukraine;

6th grade - Zoom and NewsOne;

7th grade - ZIK;

8th grade - Indigo and UNIAN;

9th grade - Rada and UA: Culture;

10th grade - UA: First;

11th grade - M1.

The lessons were broadcasted daily, from Monday to Friday, beginning at 10 am. The broadcasts started on April 6, 2020.

Besides, video tutorials could be watched daily on the official websites of the Ministry of Education and Science on Facebook and YouTube.

As primary teachers in China, we had to quarantine, and as a result, we were among the first to teach online. From the first days of February, we, like other teachers in China, faced the challenge of adapting the curriculum for online teaching. We had to look for different methods of conveying information through the monitor screen. We faced the task of finding working mechanisms of classroom management while instructing online. Teaching online without a well-established way to control the behavior of children is a disaster that could jeopardize the teaching of a lesson. Indeed, without classroom management, the teacher might not be able to organize the educational process correctly. Teachers in classrooms have to control the quality of education, the quality of the knowledge gained, which already suffer due to many factors.

For us, the transition to online education was not as painful as it was for many other educators, because for the last 3 years we have significantly digitalized our classrooms and our lessons. To be a teacher of the 21st century is to be always in trend. It happens due to the rapid development of technology in the world. Therefore, in such an era, it is very important to keep up with the times and teach children the skills which are necessary for modern society. Nowadays, it is crucial to approach problem-solving creatively and respond quickly to the demands of society. In the 21st century, the teacher entered the age of new information and communication technologies. And there is no doubt that a modern teacher needs to be competent in the field of information and communication technologies and implement them into the educational process. From our own experience, we know that lessons with the use of multimedia and the Internet increase interest in the material, the effectiveness of independent work grows, and it becomes possible to realize one's creative potential.

We would like to share resources that work and give a positive result. Keeping students' attention, guiding them through lessons, and making sure the classroom environment is respectful, supportive, and productive takes constant effort and sucks a lot of time and energy. These great classroom management tools can be time-saving and energy-freeing sidekicks, helping instantly deliver and assess learning, create seating charts, improve students' behavior, and set timed tasks to make a classroom run like a well-oiled machine.

If we talk about classroom management in an online environment, we would like to highlight two programs: Classcraft and ClassDojo. This software could help to keep students on task, to teach them successfully no matter where a class is held (https://www.commonsense.org/ education/website/classdojo).

ClassDojo is a tool that we use in class from start to finish. It begins with a short Think-Pair-Share activity, using the timer and noise manager to keep the discussion on track and respectful. Teachers can assign an activity for student portfolios: Let them draw out a challenge math problem, record a video discussing the

novel they're reading, write a hypothesis for a science lab, or snap a picture of a completed assignment for teacher feedback. Once or twice during the lesson, teachers can send a quick positive message or image to a parent. This is a great way to strengthen the home-school connection, celebrate classroom successes, and document student learning over time. Also, the class admin can add pictures to a class story to keep parents in the loop. Sometimes instructors record audio messages explaining assignments so parents can help at home.

Throughout the class, teachers can award points to positively reinforce individuals or groups for meeting or exceeding expectations or send gentle reminders to students or groups who need them. Every teacher has to be careful and ensure that individuals aren't publicly singled out in negative ways: Teachers have to consider privately use the app to track student behavior. Closeout the class with a five-minute growth mindset activity, giving kids a chance to wind down and reflect on their learning for the day. Having all these options built into one handy tool cuts down on the need for multiple products and gives us lots of data to inform instruction.

Another resource is ClassCraft. Classcraft integrates easily with regular classroom activities, encouraging teamwork and collaboration while giving students instant feedback on soft skills, such as attendance, homework completion, soft skills, time management, team work, responsibility, creativity, and classroom behavior. This is a game to motivate students and to build collaboration and teamwork skills. Award points for encouraging classmates, completing assignments on time, respecting noise levels, and more. Even if students are cooperating just to gain points at first, it's inevitable that with teacher support they'll learn valuable social skills along the way. Teachers can, and should, make the program their own - adapting the game for their students' unique needs and personalities. Being attentive to these details upfront will help craft a virtual environment of motivation and positive reinforcement instead of a punitive one. Teachers can also use the program to teach concepts through a gamified storyline,

pulling assignments in from your computer or Google Drive, or writing the story yourself.

Though teachers have to be careful, some of the preset powers and events may cause strife, especially among younger students. Everyone who uses this tool has to take a close look and customize them as necessary. For example, optional random events include suggestions such as "The player with the least HP loses 15 HP." Although that may work well in some classrooms, students who are struggling may feel targeted for being the "weakest" players, especially if the game is broadcast, as suggested, via interactive whiteboard or screen.

How to test a child online, how to organize work with a work shield, if the teacher is physically unable to provide a hard copy. In this case, Quizlet will come to the rescue. Quizlet is a free website providing learning tools for students, including flashcards, study, and game modes. Users start by creating their own study sets with terms and definitions. They can copy and paste from another source, or use Quizlet's built-in auto-define feature to speed up the creating process. Over 40 million user-generated flashcard sets are on the website (https://quizlet.com/89313049/what-is-quizlet-flash-cards/).

Another challenge that teachers had to face is the psycho-emotional state of children. The coronavirus pandemic has had an impact, in particular, on children, whose families fear death from coronavirus infection. The media repeatedly noted that the child is influenced not by

the events taking place in the world, but by the reaction and words of family members about it. Thus, if the child's environment does not adequately respond to a pandemic, often saying that everyone would die from the virus, the child runs the risk of facing pathological fear.

Our students, at the very beginning of the pandemic, faced incredible pressure from the media. Teachers working in China, one of the first in the world, had to look not only for an approach to teach but also for mechanisms that would prepare little people for all the innovations they had to face. The transition to online

education was a great stress for children, and teachers had to work very actively with the families of students to maximize their teaching to help their children during this difficult period. We looked for ways to involve parents in the learning process itself.

During our research we have found that teachers who proactively reach out to parents of low-performing students and invite them to be involved in their children's education to improve the students' performance over time (Westat, 2001). By connecting with parents and discussing ways to develop home supports, activities, and routines that align with school expectations and classroom curriculum, teachers can employ families' "funds of knowledge", or the knowledge, resources, and skills, which families possess, in their classrooms [...] (Heather et alt, 2012).

In addition to the academic component, we have launched several projects for children and their families. One of the most global project was the "Wash your hands" challenge where students participated with their parents. This project was built based on a global trend when a large number of people pass disinfectant to each other to remind once again of the importance of washing hands.

Being at a distance of 10,000 km away from our students, we launched an online school TV show, which consisted of several headings and allowed to involve students from 1st to 6th grade.

The COVID-19 pandemic has affected all of us. But being educators that our students look up to, we simply have no right to be discouraged. We must continue to develop and improve our skills, adapt our knowledge and techniques to the conditions of 2020, to continue to bring high quality education to the new generation.

Practice has shown that with any approach - centralized or decentralized - school distance learning platforms open up opportunities that are in demand not only in a pandemic. Of course, online tools will never be a complete replacement for regular lessons. Nevertheless, complementing traditional approaches, technological solutions can free teachers from routine

duties, leaving him more time to work with the individual characteristics and needs of each child. In addition, modern technologies make it possible to better organize the educational process, opening up access to a wide range of content, including multimedia.

The forced transition to distance learning introduced teachers and students to the advantages and disadvantages of online tools. Their proliferation may very soon reach a level that under normal conditions we would see only in two years. According to forecasts, by 2021 the share of the "school segment" should reach 1.5% of the online education market (if we talk about the distribution of private business services). But as a result of the "boom" of distance learning for schoolchildren during the period of self-isolation, this share may increase significantly.

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DE L'APPROCHE COMMUNICATIVE À LA PERSPECTIVE ACTIONNELLE: LES PRATIQUES ARTISTICO-THÉÂTRALES DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT/APPRENTISSAGE DES LANGUES VIVANTES (FLE)

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Résumé: Le présent article se propose d'interroger et d'apporter quelques éclairages, de manière critique et scientifique, sur les pratiques théâtrales au service de l'enseignement et de l'apprentissage des langues (FLE) en milieu scolaire et universitaire : un sujet qui nourrit de longues discussions et produit de nombreux débats, à l'heure actuelle, parmi les enseignants, les enseignants-chercheurs et les praticiens du théâtre à travers le monde. Il s'agit de tenter de réfléchir sur les analyses qui orientent notre regard et nos attentes sur le « théâtre », et qui, éventuellement, ont par la suite, des effets sur les pratiques d'enseignement et d'apprentissage des langues. Dans ces conditions, il nous a paru utile de synthétiser ici, dans quelle mesure les pratiques de dramatisation en classe de langues vivantes peuvent servir en tant qu'instrument d'éducation théâtrale, linguistique et culturelle.

Mots-clés: théâtre, pratique théâtrale, FLE, enseignement, apprentissage, didactique du FLE, CECRL, approche interculturelle, enquête de terrain, Moldavie

Abstract: The present paper is supposed to question and bring some insights, in a critical and scientific way, on theatrical practices used in teaching and learning foreign languages (including FFL) in secondary and higher education : a subject that feeds long discussions and produces many debates, at the present time, among teachers, teacher-researchers and theater practitioners around the world. Analyzes are directed and focused on our expectations about "theater", and what, eventually, are the effects on language teaching and learning practices. In these conditions, it seemed useful to us to summarize here, to what extent modern language classroom dramatization practices can serve as an instrument of theatrical, linguistic and cultural education.

Introduction

Dans cet article, nous nous interrogeons sur la place du théâtre comme vecteur d'apprentissage de la langue étrangère et de son instrumentalisation au service de l'enseignement de la langue par le biais de cet art de la scène (étude de cas). Il faut toutefois noter qu'aujourd'hui, « les arts de la scène » ou autrement dit « les arts du spectacle vivant » (Ubersfeld, 1996) mobilisent des chercheurs - théoriciens et praticiens pas seulement en linguistique, littérature et didactique mais aussi en sémiologie, philosophie (esthétique), anthropologie, arts visuels, en dramaturgie, théâtrologie et même en chorologie. Cependant, comme le note Pierre Larthomas «il est difficile de donner une définition d'ensemble de la représentation théâtrale » dans le milieu scolaire et académique (Larthomas, 1980: 47). En effet, la question qui se pose dans cette étude, est de savoir s'il est possible d'établir des liens entre l'art théâtral et l'enseignement des langues étrangères (y compris, le français en tant que langue étrangère) et si cet apprentissage permettrait de considérer le théâtre, comme vecteur signifiant dans l'apprentissage d'une langue vivante.

I. Théâtre et langues: un exemple d'enseignement du FLE en Moldavie

À l'heure actuelle, de nombreux spécialistes des langues vivantes en France et à l'étranger utilisent le théâtre comme moyen d'apprentissage actif du FLE dans leurs enseignement. Cependant, on remarque que ces vingt dernières années, dans l'espace européen, l'éducation artistique par les pratiques théâtrales à l'école et à l'université a pris une nouvelle dimension. Dans ce contexte, l'éducation culturelle et artistique à l'école, ainsi que dans le milieu universitaire, s'efforce de répondre aux objectifs suivants: encourager la créativité des apprenants en FLE; éveiller leur curiosité intellectuelle, enrichir leur culture personnelle, etc. Ces finalités permettent de développer en effet des activités qui complètent le processus de l'enseignement/apprentissage artistique, favorisant ainsi la libération de l'imaginaire et la créativité individuelle en classe de langue vivante, y compris le FLE. L'une de nos hypothèses initiale, qui a orienté notre

recherche doctorale et sur laquelle s'appuient nos travaux de recherche postdoctorale démontre que le théâtre pratiqué dans la classe de FLE (en milieu scolaire essentiellement) incite les élèves à produire du langage dans une situation significative qui leur permet de s'approprier la langue. Les pratiques théâtrales développent et favorisent ainsi l'improvisation et l'expression spontanée des apprenants. C'est aussi un véhicule privilégié pour la transmission des éléments socio - culturels du langage.

Il est important de souligner que nos études doctorales se sont particulièrement appuyées sur une forme de recherche-action relative à l'enseignement/apprentissage du FLE par les approches théâtrales. Une bonne partie de nos recherches, sur les pratiques langagières et culturelles ont ciblé des adolescents âgés de 15 à 18 ans, apprenants de FLE. Elles ont été menées en Moldavie durant les années 2016-2019, par le biais de plusieurs expériences théâtrales, à partir desquelles, nous nous sommes proposée d'analyser et de comparer les particularités de ces activités artistiques sur le plan linguistique, corporel et gestuel, mais aussi d'un point de vue relationnel, en accord avec les apprenants que nous avons observés, interrogés et qui ont participé avec un grand intérêt à ce projet d'échange culturel. C'est ainsi que nous avons observé de plus près le rôle de l'enseignant, la préparation pédagogique spécifique et les difficultés rencontrées (choix du texte, préparation de l'atelier théâtral, gestion du temps, les limites inhérentes à cette dynamique et les obstacles éventuels); nous avons mis en place le mode d'évaluation possible pour un tel enseignement et la prise en compte des capacités d'implication de chaque apprenant.

Afin de transformer nos questionnements de départ en hypothèse de recherche, nous avons dû tenir compte du fait que l'enseignement théâtral à l'École moldave peine à trouver sa place : il ne figure pas dans les programmes des institutions scolaires moldaves en tant que discipline à part entière. Il nous a fallu considérer que peu d'études empiriques traitant de cette problématique ont été menées en Moldavie. Nous avons donc décidé de repérer et de comprendre les particularités d'un projet pédagogique innovant, artistique et culturel, que nous avons élaboré et réalisé nous-même dans trois lycées moldaves du nord de la Moldavie. Celui-ci a impliqué la mise en place d'un atelier théâtral dans la classe de FLE, ayant comme objectif principal de redynamiser l'apprentissage de la langue française par l'intermédiaire des activités dramatiques et de l'expression théâtrale, tout en respectant les exigences des programmes éducatifs officiels moldaves. Sur le plan pédagogique,

il s'est agi de démontrer que le théâtre est au cœur des civilisations, quelles que soient leurs différences et qu'il s'enrichit des sensibilités propres à chaque culture.

Notre projet de théâtre en FLE a eu pour but d'aider les élèves moldaves à progresser dans la maîtrise orale du français ainsi que d'améliorer les pratiques pédagogiques d'enseignement de la langue française. Les expériences menées ont permis de confirmer les bénéfices tant didactiques que pédagogiques d'un travail sur l'adaptation de la pratique théâtrale à l'enseignement. Elles ont été l'occasion de faire découvrir le théâtre aux apprenants, tout en liant cette pratique à de nombreux éléments du programme, le tout selon une démarche décloisonnée et interdisciplinaire.

Pour ce qui est de l'éducation artistique dans le système scolaire moldave, dans notre cas, il est aujourd'hui nécessaire d'y reconsidérer la place et la nature de l'enseignement des disciplines artistiques, dont le théâtre fait partie. En effet, la qualité de l'enseignement de celles-ci contribue, et c'est important, à la formation de la personnalité des élèves. Mais, comme nous l'avons constaté lors de nos investigations sur le terrain, en Moldavie (comme dans des autres pays européens), faire du théâtre en langue étrangère tout en appuyant cette pratique sur la description élaborée par le Cadre Européen Commun de Référence des Langues, est loin d'être évident: « l'enjeu potentiel d'authentiques pratiques théâtrales en milieu scolaire reste encore mal perçu » (Lallias et Cabet, 1985 : 22). On peut expliquer cette difficulté entre autres par le manque d'outils communs et de dispositifs de communication entre enseignants et praticiens du théâtre. Il convient de souligner également que, comme le remarquent ces auteurs, en tant que praticiens et théoriciens français du théâtre à l'école:

> Dans l'enseignement, le théâtre ne trouve souvent place qu'à travers l'étude littéraire des textes dramatiques. Ayant abordé le théâtre dans leurs études sous l'angle quasi exclusif de la littérature, objet d'études psychologiques, historiques ou stylistiques, très peu d'enseignants peuvent avoir une réelle connaissance des démarches de la création et de la pratique théâtrales (Ibidem).

Malgré un tel constat, les enseignants de FLE sont invités à initier les élèves au plaisir théâtral par une relation active à la culture de notre temps dans leurs classes. Dans ce contexte, selon nos enquêtes menées

sur le terrain (pendant les années 2016 et 2019), la Moldavie a mis en place ces dix dernières années des institutions spécialisées dans l'enseignement de l'art, de la musique et du théâtre, dans lesquelles les enfants et les adolescents reçoivent un enseignement sur une période variant de trois à cinq ans. Il existe également pour les niveaux secondaires et supérieurs, des écoles spécialisées dans lesquelles les études durent deux, trois, quatre ou même cinq ans.

Dans ces conditions, et c'est directement lié à la politique et à l'instabilité actuelle en Moldavie, l'organisation d'activités qui impliquent la participation d'artistes professionnels ainsi que l'organisation des programmes éducatifs extra-cursus complémentairement au programme principal, présente de réelles difficultés. Néanmoins, la participation à des clubs artistiques, fonctionnant dans une dynamique interdisciplinaires, est prévue, mais demeure, facultative, pour chaque établissement, en raison des contraintes économiques.

Il est à noter toutefois que l'art, langage universel par son caractère transversal peut pénétrer toutes les disciplines : Que serait la poésie sans la déclamation ou le théâtre sans la mise en scène ? Autrement dit, associer l'enseignement des langues étrangères (y compris le français) à l'action éducative théâtrale permettrait de favoriser une acquisition beaucoup plus productive de la langue vivante. Mais en Moldavie, comme dans d'autres pays de l'Europe, il semble que cette question (de l'utilité de la place du théâtre dans la société) n'a pas encore sa réponse. Cependant, nous trouvons important de souligner ici, que la question de l'utilité et du rôle du théâtre dans la société est l'objet d'un débat très ancien, qui traverse l'histoire de l'art dramatique à travers le monde. Or, comme le remarque Robert Abirached (Professeur émérite en Études théâtrales à l'Université Paris Nanterre, critique dramatique et historien du théâtre) dans l'ouvrage *Didactique du Français Langue Étrangère par la pratique théâtrale*, cette problématique c'est posée [en Europe] avec une urgence particulière au milieu du siècle dernier (les années 1970), quand on a eu tendance à opposer art et société. Au sujet de l'utilité du théâtre dans la société, cet auteur note également:

> Ainsi, dans une Europe qui est entrée dans une transformation gigantesque à l'orée du siècle nouveau, une utopie ne va pas tarder à naitre au nom de laquelle, au lendemain de la seconde guerre mondiale, on n'hésitera pas à définir le théâtre comme une entreprise de service public,

aussi utile à la collectivité dans l'ordre de l'esprit, selon Jean Vilar, que l'électricité et l'eau dans l'organisation des biens matériels. Mais voici qu'aujourd'hui et depuis quelques années, une nouvelle évolution est en train de s'esquisser qui privilégie sous des formes diverses l'insertion du théâtre dans la société, et la recherche du sens qu'il peut produire par les moyens qui lui sont propres (et qui ont aussi peu à voir avec une démarche solipsiste qu'avec la soumission à l'air du temps) […] (Alix et al., 2013: 27-28).

Nos recherches dans la Didactique des langues et des cultures suggèrent qu'une fois inclue dans les programmes scolaires du secondaire pour l'enseignement du français, le la pratique du théâtre[1] permettrait de sensibiliser et de développer la créativité en classe, pédagogie dont nous reconnaissons qu'elle est particulièrement difficile à mettre en œuvre et à évaluer. Ce dispositif introduirait, progressivement, l'art dramatique dans l'univers quotidien des élèves. Chaque élève, en pratiquant le théâtre peut apporter sa connaissance consciente ou non, de son milieu et de sa culture. Le rôle de l'enseignant consiste alors à différencier les composantes de l'activité proposée, notamment pour permettre aux élèves les plus en difficulté dans le groupe d'explorer avec succès, son aspect artistique, psychologique, ou encore sociologique.

Pour Gérard Chauveau (chercheur en sciences de l'éducation, en linguistique et en psychologie à l'Institut national de la recherche pédagogique INRP de Paris), l'enseignant doit « s'appuyer » sur la culture d'origine, c'est à dire l'ensemble des modes de vie, des façons de faire et de penser de son groupe-classe (Chauveau, 2000 : 99).

À ce sujet, cette affirmation doit susciter des questionnements en termes de formation de l'enseignant de langues vivantes. Certains auteurs soulignent le fait qu'accéder à la découverte de la culture d'un autre peuple, d'une autre langue par l'intermédiaire de sa propre culture,

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[1] Rappelons que dans cet article, le terme « théâtre » est utilisé en référence à toute activité théâtrale pratiquée en classe de langue vivante (y compris le FLE).

permettrait de susciter chez les apprenants l'intérêt pour les expressions artistiques théâtrales étrangères et le patrimoine culturel mondial.

II. Les pratiques théâtrales au service de l'enseignement des langues: enjeux et propositions

À partir de lectures concernant quelques ouvrages théoriques (Constantin Stanislavski et Anne Ubersfeld) et didactiques (Gisèle Pierra, Joëlle Aden, Christiane Page et Jean-Pierre Ryngaert), qui traitent de la spécificité du « phénomène théâtral » dans sa dimension complexe, linguistique, culturelle, sociale et relationnelle, nous sommes parvenue à estimer que, du point de vue de la communication en classe de langues, le savoir théâtral n'est pas un savoir qui se transmet passivement de l'enseignant à l'apprenant. C'est un savoir expressif, vivant, mouvant, parlant, évolutif avec lequel l'apprenant en langue étrangère et son enseignant entretiennent des relations interactionnelles spécifiques. Autrement dit, la pratique du théâtre, considérée comme une activité originale, ludique et motivante par beaucoup de didacticiens et d'enseignants de langues, constitue un « outil déclencheur » efficace, dynamique et productif dans l'intégration de l'apprentissage du FLE ou d'autres langues vivantes étrangères (Postolachi, 2020).

De son côté, Ève-Marie Rollinat-Levasseur, Maître de conférences à l'Université de la Sorbonne Nouvelle - Paris 3, spécialiste de théâtre et de pratique théâtrale en classe de langues vivantes, analyse dans ses travaux de recherche en détail les effets du théâtre sur l'expression orale. Elle affirme que cet outil, complémentairement à l'apprentissage de l'expression orale, assure simultanément un enseignement de la culture. Selon cet auteur, le théâtre développe la confiance en soi, l'autonomie et les capacités de compréhension chez les élèves ; il est souvent prôné comme une activité permettant aux apprenants de gagner en aisance dans l'expression orale (Rollinat-Levasseur, 2015).

De manière générale, le théâtre représente un enjeu éducatif et facilite l'accès et la participation à une vie culturelle et sociale, qui est l'une des finalités de l'Éducation Nationale. Mais il représente également un enjeu pédagogique pour l'enseignant, notamment parce qu'il permet de donner du sens aux apprentissages. C'est dans cette perspective que la pratique théâtrale se situe dans les principes de base de la Didactique du
FLE, d'où l'émergence des questions suivantes: Pourquoi pratiquer le théâtre en classe de FLE ? Quels bénéfices peut-on attendre de la

pratique théâtrale dans l'apprentissage d'une langue vivante ? Comment se préparer suffisamment et correctement à l'animation d'un atelier de théâtre en classe de FLE ? ou encore: Quelles activités mettre en œuvre pour « faire du théâtre à l'aise en français[2] » ?

En même temps, il est important de souligner également que, psychologiquement, la représentation théâtrale de l'élève ne produit pas seulement une émotion esthétique. Elle mobilise des souvenirs, l'agir de l'apprenant, des sentiments mais aussi l'imagination. De plus, si l'on admet que « la culture est un comportement acquis et commun en relation étroite avec le fonctionnement de la langue » (Hall, 1979), on peut alors considérer l'apprentissage d'une langue étrangère, y compris de sa culture, comme un processus de reconstruction permanente des représentations de l'apprenant vis-à-vis de cette culture, car « cette culture invisible intervient constamment dans les échanges et constitue un élément central dans la production et l'interprétation des énoncés » (Puren,1998: 371-372).

Ainsi, la composante culturelle s'instaure comme un élément de la compétence communicative. Elle est conçue comme un ensemble de connaissances relevant de la culture cible et qui permettraient de prévenir d'éventuels malentendus, d'éviter certains blocages ainsi que de potentielles situations conflictuelles. En didactique du FLE, la dimension interculturelle est aujourd'hui plus particulièrement prise en considération étant donné que tout contact entre deux systèmes linguistiques (le français et le roumain, dans notre cas), met en interaction deux systèmes culturels très différents. Il s'agit d'une prise de conscience des particularités de ses modes de représentations et de la découverte de ses propres spécificités culturelles par le contact avec une autre langue et une autre culture.

Cependant, le « théâtre » en tant qu'instrument de l'éducation artistique, linguistique et culturelle demande des qualités très particulières de la part de l'enseignant. En classe de langue, pour atteindre un niveau suffisamment opératoire en théâtralité, par exemple, il faut un minimum de formation (pour l'enseignant) dans ce domaine

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[2] Expression utilisée par Joëlle Aden dans ses travaux de recherche. Ici nous faisons référence à son article « De la langue en mouvement à la parole vivante: théâtre et didactique des langues » dans *Langages*, 2013, nr. 192, vol. 4, pp. 101-110. Disponible sur: <https://www.cairn.info/revue-langages-2013-4-page-101.htm>, dernière consultation le 06 décembre 2020.

qui présente de nombreuses spécificités. La pédagogie mise en œuvre dans l'enseignement par des approches théâtrales doit à la fois exiger beaucoup de rigueur et de travail mais aussi veiller à préserver sur le long terme, une motivation permettant à l'élève de persévérer.

En effet, le champ des disciplines artistiques enseignées et les objectifs d'éducation artistique devraient être élargis et diversifiés et la pratique collective particulièrement encouragée et structurée dans la pédagogie des enseignements. Cette sensibilisation devrait non seulement figurer dans les programmes mais être effectivement appliquée, ce qui pose, d'ailleurs, un véritable problème de mise en place pour les inspecteurs chargés des disciplines artistiques. En bref, il est important de souligner que l'éducation théâtrale demande des qualités très particulières de la part de l'enseignant. Pour atteindre un niveau suffisamment opératoire en théâtre, il faudrait, selon nous, des stages de formation rigoureuse. S'il n'a pas lui-même de disposition pour le théâtre ou s'il n'a pas reçu de formation adaptée et de qualité lui ayant permis d'acquérir l'autonomie d'un acteur bon dans son métier, doublée d'une formation à la pédagogie des langues, le maître peut difficilement éduquer ses élèves dans cet art. Le champ des disciplines artistiques enseignées et les objectifs d'éducation artistique devraient être élargis et diversifiés et la pratique collective particulièrement encouragée et structurée dans la pédagogie des enseignements. Cette sensibilisation devrait non seulement figurer dans les programmes mais être effectivement appliquée, ce qui pose, d'ailleurs, un véritable problème de mise en place pour les inspecteurs chargés des disciplines artistiques et culturelles (Postolachi, 2020).

Conclusion

De nombreux auteurs sont unanimes pour montrer que le théâtre n'est pas un simple moyen de divertissement dans la classe de langue, mais il est un outil qui participe au développement personnel de l'apprenant. L'introduction de pratiques théâtrales en classe de langues vivantes   (y compris le FLE) permet une meilleure confiance en soi pour la prise de parole et l'interaction. C'est dans le cadre d'un projet-action que les apprenants et les enseignants peuvent donner du sens au travail demandé par cette pratique dynamique et créative. Étant donnée la richesse des apports des différents chercheurs sur la question des pratiques théâtrales dans l'apprentissage des langues vivantes, leur intégration dans les cours de langues poursuit un objectif complexe : réconcilier le corps et l'esprit afin de donner corps à l'apprentissage de

la langue, créer un espace pour permettre à chacun d'exprimer sa singularité, son égo, son désir de s'affirmer, son pouvoir de le faire, multiplier les canaux d'apprentissage pour parvenir à sensibiliser chaque apprenant à travers la forme d'intelligence et des savoirs qu'il privilégie, l'objectif final étant de favoriser le développement personnel ainsi que la construction d'un être social complet.

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WHY ARE STUDENTS (UN)WILLING TO COMMUNICATE IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?

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Abstract: The problem of oral communication in a foreign language acquires a greater importance in the context of globalization and presents one of the most pressing problems of contemporary applied linguistics. The study of effective and successful communication in a foreign language focuses on the psychological, linguistic and communicative aspects of this process (McCroskey & Baer, 1985; Mahdi, 2014).

Based on the methodology of the theory of WTC (MacIntyre *et al*, 2001; 2002), this research aims at answering the following questions: (1) What is the role of the student's anxiety or confidence in the process of oral communication? (2) How is the foreign language anxiety related to the willingness to communicate in the L2 classroom? (3) How do students perceive and evaluate their WTC in L2 (English) classrooms?

Key words: WTC, FLA, L2, EFL students

Introduction

The ultimate goal of the learning process in ELT is to motivate language students to seek out communication opportunities and their willingness to actually communicate in them (McIntyre *et al*, 2002). However, it is widely known to the teachers of ELT that some students are not inclined to talk while others are eager to discuss various topics and never seem to be afraid of making mistakes (McIntyre *et al*, 2001).

It is also well-known that Willingness to Communicate (WTC)[3] in a specific communicative act either in or outside of the classroom varies

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[3] Willingness to communicate is defined as "the predisposition of toward or away from communicating, given the choice (McIntyre *et al*., 2003: 538); or a learner's readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons using a L2. (McIntyre *et al.,* 1998)).

across the situations, contexts and even periods of time. This prompted McIntyre to declare WTC as one of the major issues of the language instruction. (McIntyre *et al*, 2001). It is 20 years since this research appeared but the issue is still a challenge.

This research aims at answering the following questions: (1) What is the role of the student's anxiety or confidence in the process of oral communication? (2) How is the foreign language anxiety related to the willingness to communicate in the L2 classroom? (3) How do students perceive and evaluate their WTC in L2 (English) classrooms?

Theorising the model of WTC

The problem of oral communication in a foreign language has acquired a greater importance in the context of globalization and the increasing access to electronic means of communication. Moreover, learning is a social process and thus largely occurs within a social context where communication with others constructs our understanding of the world (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978). A number of researchers have maintained that an ultimate goal of second Language learning is to encourage students' willingness to communicate in the classroom since it is anticipated to assist L2 learning and development (MacIntyre *et al*, 2001; Al-Ghali, 2016).

Interestingly, early research on WTC concentrated on the acquisition and communication in L1 (McCroskey & Richmond, 1991). However, later the attention was shifted to the learning of L2 from several points of view including that of WTC. Specifically, "with increasing emphasis on authentic communication as an essential part of L2 learning and instruction, WTC has also emerged as one of the key concepts in L2 learning and instruction." (Kang, 2005).[4]

Recently quite a few studies dedicated to this issue in various languages have been published. For instance, Bukhari *et al* (2015) discussed Pakistani undergraduate students' perception of their willingness to initiate communication in English. Mahdi (2014) identified the main communication difficulties faced by Arab EFL students and explored the reasons that lie behind them. Zarrinabadi & Abdi (2011) investigated the relationship between Iranian EFL

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[4] Kang maintained that WTC is an individual's volitional inclination toward actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation which can vary according to the participants of the communicative act, topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables. (Kang, 2005).

Learners' WTC inside and outside of the classroom and their language learning orientations. Interestingly, Robson (2015) concentrated on a teacher score to measure the relationship between self-report WTC and actual classroom communication whereas Reem *et al.* (2013) investigated Malaysian students' WTC in English as a second language (ESL) and identified the factors affected by language learning communication strategies. Finally, Al-Ghali (2016) presented both implementations and suggestions for ESL and EFL educators by proposing to create a better willingness to communicate environment.

This paper is the first attempt to explore the issue of WTC in the context of Georgian students learning English as their major subject. The findings presented and analysed below are part of an ongoing research project at Ivane Javakhishvili Tbilisi State University (TSU).

MacIntyre situational model of WTC

The model developed by MacIntyre *et al.* (2001) is classed as one of the most all-inclusive and widely studied theoretical frameworks regarding the factors influencing L2 WTC. This model explains the interrelationships among diverse psychological, linguistic, and communication-related elements that might influence L2 WTC. The model includes six layers in a pyramid shape that depict and explain factors influencing WTC. Specifically, the first three layers of the model include communication behaviour, behaviour intention, and situated antecedents with the situational variables affecting L2 WTC at a particular moment. Communication behaviour includes the actual use of the second language which is classed as the main goal of language teaching. As well as this, communication is considered to be dependent on WTC. Therefore, WTC implies a behavioural intention of a student to get involved in a communicative act.

Interestingly, Layer III of the model presents two factors connected to WTC - the desire to communicate with a specific (as a participant of a communicative act) and also, self-confidence. The latter embraces perceived competence and lack of anxiety.

The remaining three layers - motivation tendencies, effective-cognitive setting, and the social and individual context – refer to the properties of either the context or the individual.

WTC is frequently associated with one of the factors of the learning process, foreign language anxiety (FLA), which can be described as "the emotional reaction or pattern of response that occurs in an individual who perceives a particular situation as personally dangerous or

threatening, irrespective of the presence or absence of objective danger" (Spielberg,1983: 489).

FLA is largely connected to two components - fear of communication and self-assessment of the language skills/competence related to communication in the classroom (MacIntyre & Baker, 2002). FLA may also spring from any second language context whether it is associated with the productive skills of speaking and writing or the receptive skills of reading and listening.   Meyer & Turner (2002) suggest that interaction inside the classroom provides opportunities for not only integrating students in thinking but also helps them to create a positive perspective towards thinking and speaking.

Methodology, participants and instruments of the research

The research was preceded and, to some extent, conditioned by the questionnaire of needs analysis filled in by 19 teachers of English working at the Department of English Philology at TSU in 2019. The teachers' answers to the questionnaire made it clear that one of the most frequently noted challenges the students faced, and which made some of them passive observers in the classroom, was their anxiety or unwillingness to speak in English. This observation agreed with the opinion proposed by MacIntyre et *al.* (2002).

The research was conducted in two stages. At the first stage, an electronic questionnaire (with 11 questions) based on the WTC model was sent to the 2nd – 4th year students of the BA program in English Philology at TSU. The questionnaire was completed by 234 students of English Philology at TSU.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. In the first part, the students indicated their demographic data and answered the question about the most difficult challenge concerning the foreign language learning process.

 The second part of the questionnaire included the questions on FLA and the students' attitudes to oral communication and WTC in the classroom. In the third and final part of the questionnaire, participants were asked open questions about what they thought would be effective activities regarding improving oral communication in the classroom.

The results of the second part of the questionnaire were measured through the scale including 5 types of evaluation (fully agree, agree, partly agree, disagree, or fully disagree).

At the second, final stage of the research, 72 participants were invited to group interviews (10 students per group) and asked additional questions related to the aspects of oral communication in the classroom. The questions included those taken from the questionnaire, and also the questions generated during the interview concerning the theme of the research

Findings of the research

In the first part of the questionnaire, the participants indicated their demographic data. Out of 234 participants, there were 211(89.4 %) female students and 25 (10.6 %) male students. Interestingly, the question concerning the most difficult skill to master was answered in this way: Speaking (67.5%), listening (18.6 %), writing (12.2) and reading (0.9%)

The next part of the questionnaire (11 questions) was as follows (see Table 1 and 2):

Table 1
Questions reflecting positive attitudes toward speaking English in the classroom

	I am not ashamed of making mistakes at the English lesson (1)	I enjoy speaking English with my group mates (2)	I am very motivated to speak English in the classroom (3)	I prefer participating in group and pair activities in the classroom (4)	I feel confident while speaking in front of my group mates (5)	The level of my English is very high and I don't feel embarrassed or un-comfortable when speaking it (6)
Fully agree	26.5%	16.5%	45.7 %	25%	22%	14%
Agree	23. 3%	23.3%	35.5 %	22.9%	26.7%	20%
Partly agree	16. 3%	36%	16. 5%	42%	39%	40%
Disagree	21. 5%	21.6%	2.5%	15.1%	12.7 %	22.1 %
Fully disagree	4. 2%	4. 2 %	0%	8.1%	2.1%	3. 9%

As can be seen from the Table 1, the students are very motivated to speak English in the classroom (81, 2 % of the students answered this question positively). This agrees with the earlier studies (Al- Ghali, 2016 amongst others). Moreover, 48. 7% of the participants indicated that they feel confident when speaking in English in the classroom and 49, 8 % stated that they are not ashamed of making mistakes in class. This indicates a very low degree of the effect of FLA in the classroom on WTC. Interestingly, 16. 3 % and 39% of the participants partly agreed with the questions 1 and 5. At the interviews, the students indicated that in such cases, the answer may be influenced by the context, participants of the specific communicative act and the topic of discussion.

In addition, questions 2, 5, 6 were answered positively by about 40%, 48% and 34% of the participants respectively. In addition to this, the comparatively higher percentage of responses to "partly agree" 36.3% (in question 2), and 40% (in question 6) attracted our attention. At the interviews, it was indicated by the students that the answers depended on the social and topical dimensions of the context. At the question whether the answers would be positive or negative based on a favourable context, the students answered positively. Therefore, it can be presumed, that the answers in the category "partly agree" can be considered more positive than negative.

These statements can be classed as directly linked to WTC through the Affective-Cognitive layer of the model which contains intergroup attitudes, social situation and on the other hand, communicative competence of a student.

Finally, the positive answers to question 4 (47, 9 %) reveal that students prefer to work in small groups rather than in a big group. Once again, the interviews confirmed that "partly agree" (42%) might be based on more psychological and cultural factors inducing FLA rather than on the lower level of competence.

Table 2

Questions reflecting the negative attitude toward speaking in English in the classroom and the teacher's role in FLA and WTC.

	I am afraid that other students/my group mates will make fun of me if I make mistakes (7)	I find it stressful and embarrassing to speak in a foreign language in class and outside (8)	I feel bad when the teacher does not explain what I do not understand (9)	The teachers' behavior influences my confidence and desire to speak English in class (10)	I feel embarrassed when I do not understand what the teacher corrects (11)
Fully agree	5	3	26. 2	25. 3	3.1
Agree	7.6	12. 2	37. 1	38.8	6.1
Partly agree	17. 3	36. 3	17. 7	22. 4	56.1
Disagree	42. 6	35. 9	14. 8	8.5	13. 9
Strongly disagree	28.7	16. 5	6. 3	5.0	21. 9

The answers to questions 7 - 8 (Table 2) reflect the highest disagreement rates which indicate a high confidence value of the students participating in the research. Interestingly, the answers in the category "Partly agree" were classed as more negative than positive at the interviews. Students indicated that the additional factors of anxiety and unwillingness to communicate in such cases might be an unfamiliar atmosphere and unfriendly group mates. These suggestions echo Kang's opinion (Kang, 2005) concerning three psychological antecedents affecting the level- WTC security, excitement, and responsibility.

Questions 9 - 11 referred to the role of the teacher in the classroom concerning the students' behavior and inclination to communicate. Specifically, 64, 1% of the participants answered question 9 positively. In this respect, this study also agrees to the conclusions reached by previous studies (Al- Ghali, 2016).

The final part of the questionnaire was dedicated to open questions. Students were asked (1) if they had enough time for speaking activities in the classroom and (2) what activities they would like to do to enhance their willingness to communicate in English.

The students pointed out that they had enough time to speak in the classroom (52.5%). However, they were more critical concerning the activities they practised in the classroom. Specifically, it was suggested they use more role plays and more discussions about free topics and not having to focus only on the topics from the textbooks. "I love it when we talk at the lesson. What I prefer is talking on spontaneous topics and not retelling the stories or texts"; "I prefer to do role plays or case studies rather than answer the questions all the time".

At the interviews, students mentioned that they were motivated to learn English and it was not right to feel embarrassed while speaking and making mistakes in English. "Confidence is most important. If you feel uncomfortable and embarrassed, remember that it is difficult to speak your native language let alone L2".

Interestingly, the interviewed students stated that WTC in English in the classroom is determined by the type of activity, as well as the general ambience in the classroom. Specifically, they indicated that the activities should be more spontaneous and less controlled by the teacher: "It would be better if we did more on-the-spot discussions and not feel attached to the exercises in the book". It was also maintained that "students should also work on their speaking skills beyond the classroom, specifically, listen to videos and rehearse in front of the mirror".

Conclusions and limitations of this research

The findings of the study revealed that FLA and WTC reveal a very low degree of correlation. The cases when the students would feel anxious and not willing to communicate were connected to social and psychological factors and not to the fear of being unable to communicate due to their low level of competence. As well as this, students indicated that a lower willingness to communicate in the classroom was connected to the topics of discussion and a general atmosphere in the classroom (teacher's behavior and willingness to work with a particular individual or a group). It was also pointed out that students would

prefer more spontaneous discussions rather than "predictable" discussions generated by texts and exercises from the textbooks.

The results of this on-going research refer only to the students of English Philology at TSU. These students have selected English as their major specialty and thus, their motivation level is quite high. As well as this, their relatively high competence in English may have determined their answers.

Another limitation of this research is that it is confined to the analysis of the questionnaire and the interviews. The next stage in this direction would be to explore the teachers' attitude toward similar issues.

On the other hand, it would be interesting to compare the results of the similar research with the students whose major is not English and classify the results according to their competence in English (B1, B2, C1). The results of such research would delve deeper into the issue of the correlation between FLA and WTC in the FL classroom.

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TRANSDISCIPLINARITE-UNE NOUVELLE APPROCHE DE L'APPRENTISSAGE DANS L'ENSEIGNEMENT PROFESSIONNEL

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Abstract: In Moldova, the education and vocational training of students, young people have as main purpose the training of skills, understood as a multifunctional and transferable set of knowledge, skills / abilities and attitudes. In this article we presented the notion of transdisciplinarity as a whole, as the finality of the instructive-educational and professional process. The first part of the article defines the concept of transdisciplinarity as a utilitarian phenomenon, which contributes to the understanding of things and the accumulation of knowledge in several areas of vocational training. The second part highlights the relationship between disciplines in the system of activity and integration through the prism of the basic principles of transdisciplinarity: methodology, integration and reflection. The transdisciplinarity approach is based on the four basic notions of integration: space, time, matter and energy. The last part presents inter-transdisciplinary practices from professional experience and the development of transversal competencies of students in vocational and technical education.

Keywords: approach, transdisciplinarity, competence, inter-discipline, vocational education, transversality, methodology, transformation, integration, research.

> *''Une éducation authentique ne peut pas favoriser l'abstraction au détriment d'autres formes de savoir. L'éducation doit se concentrer sur la contextualisation et la mondialisation. L'éducation transdisciplinaire est basée sur l'évaluation du rÔle de l'intuition, de l'imagination,de la sensibilité et le corps dans la transmission des connaissances''*
>
> (B. Nicolescu – Carta transdisciplinarității)

La mondialisation et l'internationalisation met en évidence le fait que la société moderne a besoin des spécialistes techniciens, formés également en langues étrangères, afin de savoir entrer en communication professionnelle et commerciale avec les représentants d'autres cultures. D'ici résulte que la formation de ces spécialistes doit obligatoirement être interdisciplinaire et même transdisciplinaire.

La communication d'un technicien avec ses homologues étrangers n'est pas une communication interculturelle, mais une communication professionnelle dans un espace bi - ou même multiculturel. C'est pourquoi apprendre les sciences techniques, humanistes etc., c'est « apprendre à parler sciences » [1, p. 12]. Quels seront les objectifs d'un tel apprentissage? L'élève qui apprend les sciences doit être capable:

✓ de définir un concept technique avec ses propres mots (c'est-à-dire pouvoir utiliser un langage technique approprié au contexte);
✓ d'observer et de décrire des objets;
✓ d'expliquer des phénomènes;
✓ de poser un problème de nature technico-scientifique;
✓ de formuler des hypothèses;
✓ de concevoir et de décrire la procédure d'une expérience;
✓ de formuler une conclusion;
✓ de rédiger un rapport d'expérience ou de présenter une recherche documentaire.

Dans ce contexte, il y a lieu de mentionner le phénomène de la transdisciplinarité qui facilite la compréhension des choses et contribue à l'accumulation des connaissances dans plusieurs domaines qui enrichisse ainsi la formation professionnelle.

La *pratique transdisciplinaire* fait l'objet de nombreux débats, non seulement en raison de la grande diversité des interprétations à son égard, mais surtout pour son objectif ambitieux (en particulier pour l'enseignement professionnel) de mobiliser, voire construire, des objets de savoir allant « au-delà » ou « à travers » les disciplines scolaires. Pour Fourez, Maingain et Dufour (2002, p. 46), la spécificité de la transdisciplinarité réside dans la procédure de transfert de concepts, de modèles, d'outils d'une discipline à une autre. Ces transferts se font en vue d'éclairer des situations, de résoudre des questionnements ou des problèmes, de construire de nouveaux modèles. Cela implique entre autres des pratiques de décontextualisation-recontextualisation, ou encore l'adaptation d'une notion issue d'un contexte disciplinaire et transférée vers un autre ».

174

Quand deux ou plusieurs disciplines vont croiser leurs compétences , leurs savoir-faire, alors on va permettre aux élèves de comprendre une notion, apprendre cette notion ou construire un apprentissage.   C'est-a-dire, certaines disciplines vont apporter une démarche, d'autres - des concepts, des habiletés pratiques. Donc, toutes ces disciplines, autour d'un système ou d'une activité permettront à l'élève, à l'étudiant d'intégrer, de comprendre, d'apprendre. D'autre part, certaines méthodes pédagogiques semblent avoir montré leurs limites. Evidemment, il est nécessaire d'une pédagogie dominante pour un futur professeur de l'école, du collège, afin de définir les notions de pluridisciplinarité, d'interdisciplinarité et de transdisciplinarité.

''*Enfin*, d'après les textes rédigés par Jean Piaget (1970),
àl'étape des relations interdisciplinaires, on peut espérer
voir succéder une étape supérieure qui serait
"transdisciplinaire", qui ne s contenterait pas d'atteindre des
interactions ou réciprocités entr recherches spécialisées, mais
situerait ces liaisons à l'intérieur d'un système total sans
frontières stables entre les disciplines» (5).

Dans ce contexte, la complexité et la flexibilité du programme de formation et le développement des compétences transversales dans le cadre de la transdisciplinarité reposent sur trois termes principaux:
 - **la méthodologie** qui offre de nouvelles manières et de voies
   de penser le monde,
  - **l'intégration**, telle qui décrit, le développement du premier terme et
  - **la méditation**.
   Le dernier terme est déterminant. Il précise que l'individu doit intégrer sa propre personne dans son objet d'étude. Puisque l'individu, s'inscrit lui-même dans des traditions culturelles, dans des cadres sociaux différents, il doit comprendre ses éléments de manière objective, maintenir sa relation directe à l'objet. Ce terme permet d'accorder le monde de valeurs à une évaluation axée sur l'ouverture d'esprit et la réflexion de l'élève ou de l'étudiant (fig.1).
   Nous pouvons donc dire que la transdisciplinarité offre une nouvelle vision de la réalité, qui émerge de la confrontation des disciplines. On profit de savoir que ça se situe à l'intersection des disciplines. Et de cette façon , la phase   d' 'intersection des   disciplines   fait son apparition. Cette division , certainement , la plus éloignée des pratiques

actuelles, mais, en meme temps, elle se rapproche le plus de ce qu'on peut conduire à des acquisitions des compétences.

Fig.1 Education linguistique
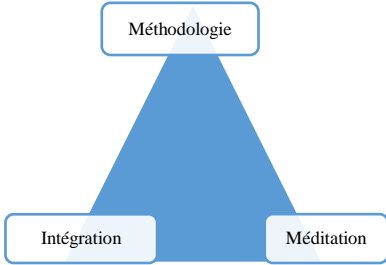
Ce processus met en evidence le développement de la capacité à comminiquer, à argumenter, à débattre, à clarifier ses valeurs, à adopter une vision méthodologique et une vision prospective pour ne prendre que les exemples les plus importants à une éducation professionnelle moderne. Le coté disciplinaire est, souvent, plus que le support qui permet à la compétence de s'épanouir.

- Il reste certe, fondamentale, car sans savoir cette structure, la curiosité ne peut pas se développer. Mais quels sont les points d'intégration sur lesquels peut s'appuyer une approche transdisciplinaire ? Au centre, comme un noyau, nous retrouvons la notion **d'espace, de temps, de matières et d'énergie (fig.2)**.
- Gravitant autour de ce noyau, les notions telles que **la transformation, l'équilibre, la formation, l'évaluation** sont autant des concepts que l'on trouve dans les sciences exactes et les sciences humaines, dans les approches sociales, économiques, écologiques, techniques et culturelles.

Fig.2 Points d'intégration de la transdisciplinarité
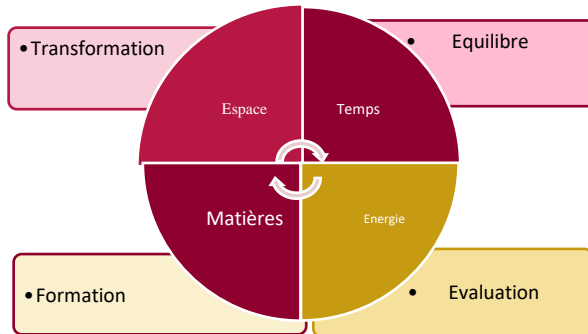
Les points de l'intégration de plusieurs disciplines ne sont pas que théoriques ou conceptuels. Ils relèvent également l'ouverture dans la pratique et l'expérimentation. Cette transversalité y est associée à l'approche par compétences et y est presentée comme un produit, qu'il ne reste qu'à mettre en oeuvre , à actualiser en pratique. Par conséquence , il est alors possible d'établir un lien entre compétences transversales et interdisciplinaires.

Dans notre cas, dans l'enseignement professionnelle, le francais oral vient ainsi au service des autres disciplines, selon les thèmes choisis pour la production et la prséntation d'un rapport ou une recherche, par exemple. D'ici concerne que le lien entre les disciplines, fait rendre l'enseignement plus concret et plus motivant. **Les modes de raisonnement, la manière de penser, l'état d'esprit** nécessitent le travail sur ce concept, *trassant* les compétences classiquement reconnues, pour englober les éléments qui n'appartiennent à aucune discipline telle que **le fondement de la transdisciplinarité** (fig.3).

Fig. 3 Fondement de la transdisciplinarité
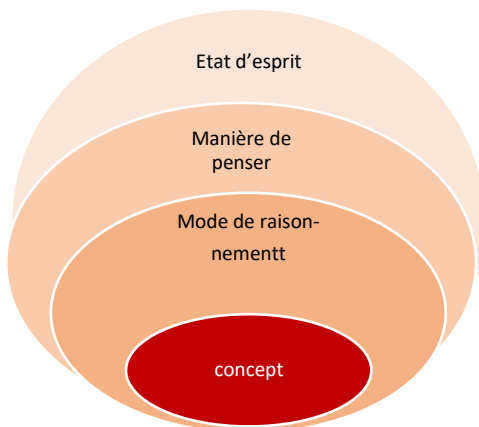
Elle laisse le choix d'approfondir une approche particulièrement sans pour autant ignorer les autres. Cela laisse plus de chance à l'ouverture et à l'écoute des autres disciplines dans le cadre professionnel.

On reste convaincu que l'approche transdisciplinaire est la plus progressiste; elle fera suite à la démarche interdisciplinaire, sans l'annuler pour autant. Il s'agit d'être patient et de ne pas bruler les

étapes des découvertes scientifiques, des changements de paradigme, des courants de pensée et de l'évolution de l'éthique scientifique. Pluri-, inter- et transdisciplinarité ne sont pas des procédures distinctes, mais des étapes d'un même processus dont la transdisciplinarité constitue le "point le plus haut" (Resweber, 2011, p. 174).

Dans mon activité pédagogique , je m'appuie toujours sur l'inter/ transdisciplinarité, qu'il s'agisse de mes classes de FOS, du consulting, des recherches inter/transdisciplinaires de mes élèves, de leur préparation, des prises de paroles lors des conférences scientifiques internationales organisées chaque année au collège. Alors qu'ils planifient leurs programmes, les enseignantes et enseignants tiennent également compte des champs d'intérêt et des besoins de leurs élèves, et ils revoient et révisent leurs plans en conséquence.

Lors des recherches en question, moi avec mes élèves, nous avons conçu et mis en application des investigations sur divers sujets: vie sociale, psychologique, domaine technique, agriculture, tourisme etc. De cette façon, on a connu de près l'intérêt et la difficulté de ces pratiques inter/transdisciplinaires. Elles produisent l'épanouissement intellectuel et social des élèves. Dans les recherches que j'ai menées avec mes élèves, nous avons fait appel à plusieurs disciplines (minimum à deux) exactes et/ou sociales, selon la nécessité. Ces disciplines ont développé les compétences transversales de mes élèves. Toute discipline, quelle que soit son type, se développe en affirmant son autonomie, en définissant son territoire et ses frontières, en faisant état de techniques spécifiques, d'un langage propre (on parle bien ici d'un "vocabulaire spécialisé"), éventuellement de théories. Il n'est pas étonnant qu'il en soit de même à l'école.

Travailler des projets interdisciplinaires, c'est s'inscrire dans une culture du travail coopératif et poser immédiatement la question de l'organisation et des relations de travail au sein de l'établissement [3, p. 11]. Les expérimentations inter/ transdisciplinaires solides et convaincantes sont en trop petit nombre pour en savoir un peu plus et pour peser sur le débat. Malgré les obstacles que j'ai énoncés, les élèves de notre collège continuent à mettre en œuvre des activités inter/transdisciplinaires. Dans ce contexte, ils s'attaquent aux sujets portant sur plusieurs disciplines et/ou faisant employer des concepts ou des procédures qui y intéressent plusieurs disciplines. En guise de suggestion à l'administration du collège, il serait bien de créer des conditions à part pour stimuler l'inter/transdisciplinarité: par exemple,

des salles contigues, des emplois du temps alignés pour animer ensemble les groupes d'élèves etc.

En guise de conclusion, on pourrais mentionner que les activités inter/transdisciplinaires développent de nouveaux savoirs, mais ces pratiques demandent que les élèves sachent travailler ensemble et les professeurs appliquent la méthodologie du travail en équipes. Cette méthodologie s'applique plus aisément, si la notion de communauté éducative prend sens dans l'établissement. L'aspect transdisciplinaire des concepts techniques sert à médiatiser l'éducation et la culture, dans l'espoir de contribuer de manière certes très modeste, mais peut-être plus efficace, à bâtir l'avenir de nos jeunes gens.

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DEVELOPING STUDENTS' WRITING STRATEGY

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Abstract: The article runs about principles to address teaching and learning writing from the perspective of a strategic approach. The paper presents the peculiarities of a writing skill as a complex cognitive process as well as requirements to such a skill provided by "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages". We focus on the components of a writing skill from language use to pragmatic efficiency. We also analyze the classroom-based problems and issues connected with writing obtained due to the conducted Action Research in Ukrainian secondary, high schools, and home university. The results of the research and intervention allowed developing strategies to approach writing from the perspectives of teaching and learning which should result in a personal writing strategy. In this paper, we provide overall strategies and tactics for teaching writing (psychological, cognitive and methodological), activities to facilitate learning writing strategies.

Key words: writing strategy, language proficiency, pragmatics, learning writing, teaching writing.

Writing is a complex cognitive and reflective process, which characterizes a personality in various dimensions: the level of intelligence, psychological profile, social standing etc. Being acomplex skill it requires and demands mastering step by step like shaping a diamond, from the very first time a person takes a pen in his/her hand to the moments of developing sophisticated texts. Thus, we can state that learning writing can become a life-long process with no limits to perfection. Clearly enough, the complexity of writing skill should be addressed in a strategic way to be successful.

To understand how to approach developing writing skills, let us focus on the notion itself. In this paper we follow the Melse's (1990)

definition for this term: "Writing skills refer to the skills of producing a written, cohesive, and well-rounded text in which formulations can be chosen freely" (Melse: 9). Obviously, being good at writing presupposes high level of language use abilities, developed cognitive processes, understanding the writing process, genre peculiarities, medium, potential reader, topic and its focus, socio-cultural context and the purpose of writing itself etc. Written language is perhaps the most difficult of all skills to acquire because its development involves the effective coordination of many different cognitive, linguistic and psycho-motivating processes (Mauroof).

Overall, such a skill can be represented schematically.

Scheme 1 *Nature of writing skill*
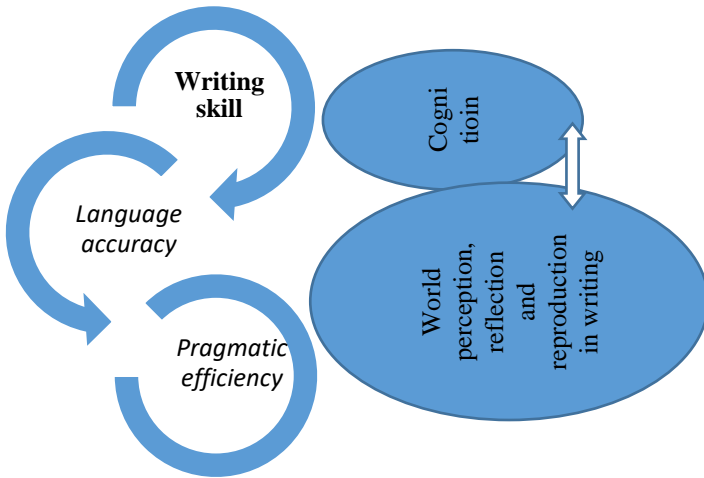
Moreover, nowadays employers highlight that excellent speaking and writing skills of their employees are extremely necessary for reaching professional goals and maintaining adequate communication in the team and with clients (SLO: 5). It means that good writing skills are beneficial for all stakeholders: they predetermine personal professional growth, company growth, and teacher's growth, more widely school's growth.

Consequently, the objective of our paper is to analyze and present the strategy, which is targeted at developing writing skills in a systemic and consistent way.

To find the strategic approach to developing writing skill we should cast light upon the requirement for such a skill. Accordingly, "Common European Framework of Reference for Languages" establishes what a writer can do passing the stages from Basic to Proficient User meaning from Lower level (A1) of language command to Higher (C2). We provide some examples of requirements for several levels of language acquisition:

A2: I can write down short, simple notes and messages. I can write a very simple, personal letter, for example to thank someone for something.

B1: I can write a simple, cohesive text about topics that are familiar or of personal importance to me. I can write personal letters in which I describe my experiences and impressions.

B2: I can write a clear, detailed text about a wide range of topics that are of interest to me. I can write an essay or report, pass on information, and give reasons to support the pros or cons of a specific point of view. I can write letters in which I indicate the personal interest of events and experiences (SLO: 9).

Correspondingly, the learner starts mastering writing skills from orthography, vocabulary, grammar, and syntax proceeding to proper contextual stylistic use of his / her linguistic arsenal with the reference to paper cohesion and coherence, genre peculiarities and structure, focus on the topic, analysis of resources, avoiding plagiarism and any more. Thus, adequate writing skills consist of many components, which need to be practiced step by step. It demands to approach it with a relevant strategy.

By the term **"strategy"** we usually mean the way we plan to do something, more specifically according to *"Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English"* it is "a planned series of actions for achieving something" (LDCOD: 1640). Correspondingly, by **a writing strategy** we understand taking planned actions to produce desired piece of writing at a definite level of language proficiency. It should be noted that a writing strategy will consist of small steps (**tactics**). Moreover, we consider a writing strategy from the perspectives of *teaching writing, learning writing* and as *an individual manner of writing*.

Scheme 2 **Writing strategy: dimensions**
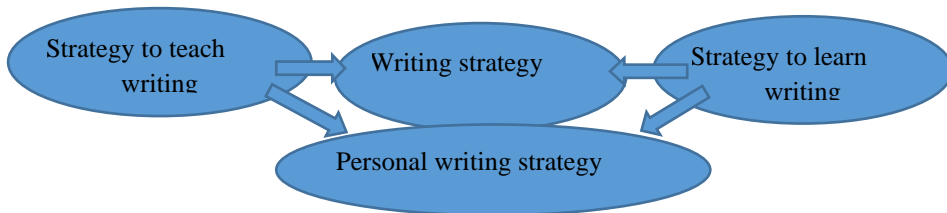
To understand how to build a proper writing strategy with a variety of tactics, we should consider what really happens in the English classroom from Level A 1 to C 2. According to the results of the Action Research carried out at my home university and at 10 town and rural secondary schools teaching and learning writing is done in the following way at the Ukrainian school:

-in mixed groups with the students of different level of language proficiency;

-students do not really understand the principles of writing;

-teaching writing is not systemic, mostly it is given as a homework assignment. It is rarely practiced in the classroom;

-students are oriented on receiving good marks rather than good knowledge and skills;

-students are afraid of the teacher's and other students' criticism and making mistakes;

-interference of the mother tongue: students are oriented on native language orthography; writing in a "beautiful" way rather than producing well-structured and -thought pieces;

-students do not know how to approach the topic for writing, they do not pay attention to the reader and pragmatic goals of the paper;

-good writing is usually reduced to proper grammar and vocabulary use;

-students consider writing as a boring, uninteresting vague task.

Correspondingly, understanding the problematic issues made it possible to reconsider the approach to teaching and learning writing and suggest some changes during the intervention. Thus, we have approached **the strategy for teaching writing,** which consists of psychological and methodological tactics.

Psychological tactics:
   *Taking into account student's age and individual peculiarities;
   *Raising students' adequate self-esteem;
   *Understanding that making mistakes is a natural way of
    learning-writing;
   *Getting a good mark is not a real objective of writing;
   *Creating positive encouraging and stimulating atmosphere in
    the classroom.

Cognitive tactics:
   *Suggesting such topics for writing with which students are familiar;
   *Introducing writing activities which raise students' interest for
    searching and learning more;
   * Focusing on media and genres which are potentially useful in job,
    career and personal life of students.

Methodological tactics:
   *Teaching writing should be of a systemic character and up to the
    *Gradually forming writing skills from language accuracy to
    pragmatic programme requirements; efficiency;
   * Referring to gaming tasks and collaborative learning;
   *Balancing time management: spending enough time in the
    classroom on making writing activity clear for the students;
   *Correcting mistakes should be done tactfully, individually
(sometimes with the help of a peer review and self-check), highlighting
positive aspects of a student's work;
   *Introducing writing activities in relevant cultural and
    situational context;
   *Developing students' strategic understanding of the writing
    process from pre-writing, writing, editing, revising to
    publishing every time you practice writing various genres;
   *Focusing on the objective of writing, topic and your potential
    reader;
   *Understanding the structural peculiarities of a paper genre;
   * Teaching how to analyze relevant resources and avoid
    plagiarism;
   *Employing visual aids apps for making writing enjoyable
    and interesting for the students;
   Making a final piece visible to a large audience – "publishing" them
in class, at school, online etc.

Summarizing this block we admit that "…students need clarity: understanding the tasks for writing, the way, how to deal with such assignments, and realize the results of personal efforts" [Turkish].

While learning writing students can also improve their own writing strategy with the teacher's example and tips. We suggest the following activities developed by the author for a book *"Writing for success"* (in press) which can guide your students to a proper approach to writing. You can use the suggested tactics on a poster in your classroom.

Activity 1.
What is a writing strategy? Do I need it?

*By the term **"strategy"** we usually mean the way we plan to do something, e.g. the way you or your mom cooks soup is different from the way your neighbour does it. So, the dishes taste differently as well. Every cook believes that his/her soup is splendid because it accumulates the experience of several generations and has some secret ingredient, which makes it superb. Correspondently, by **a writing strategy** we understand the best approach to write some paper. Your writing strategy will consist of small steps (**tactics**). **What are YOUR steps to write well?***

Activity 2.
Consider the following tactics of the writing strategy. Explain them in your own words. Add 3 more tactics of your own. Then tick those, which you consider necessary for your own writing strategy.

My writing tactic 1_____ _____

My writing tactic 2_____ _____

My writing tactic 3 _____ _____

☐ Read a lot. "Pick up" useful expressions from authentic English papers.
☐ Plan your writing carefully.
☐ Consider whether you have enough informational resources to write about the subject.
☐ Think about you potential reader. Communicate with him/her to understand the priorities.
☐ Define the focal point of view.

186

Consult native speakers. Ask them to read your paper.

Pay attention to the paper structure of the genre.

Think about the way to support your point of view.

Be ready to improve your paper. Write and rewrite again.

Turn to your colleagues or group mates for help.

Follow the recommendations of English writing manuals.

Arrange your ideas logically

Make your work visible, think about the way to publish it for your audience.

Think about employing illustrations, special font and colour of your text.

Avoid plagiarism.

Summarizing the points of the research presented in the paper, we should admit that being cognitive and demanding process, writing requires special approach to make the process productive and enjoyable for students. Teachers and learners need to cooperate and ameliorate while teaching and learning writing from the very beginning of their academic life to ensure reasonable development of an individual manner of writing which meets job market demands, personal and professional goals. That is the reason why writng should be addressed strategically when students not only understand the task and requirements but also the situational and cultural context, structure of a paper, cognitive, process and pragmatic aspects of writing.

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NEGATIVE PRAGMATIC TRANSFER: THE CASE OF ADVICE

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Abstract. Negative pragmatic transfer is often regarded as one of the causes of intercultural misunderstanding. The present study aims to investigate cases of negative pragmatic transfer in advice-giving. Thirty EFL students whose mother tongue was Romanian completed a Discourse Completion Test containing six situations which required advice-giving. The results showed that EFL learners tend to transfer the cultural norms of speaking from their mother tongue into English. Since this is highly likely to lead to breakdowns in communication, more attention should be paid to developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence.

Key words: *advice-giving, cultural norms, pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer, negative pragmatic transfer.*

At present language educators emphasize that having good linguistic competence is not enough in order to communicate successfully in a foreign language. Effective communication requires more than just linguistic competence. It is true, having good pronunciation skills, mastering grammar and possessing a rich vocabulary is really important in language production. However, social encounters between speakers of English as a foreign language and native speakers of English show that communication between the two parties sometimes fails even in cases when the former have a good linguistic competence. One of the reasons may be that EFL speakers do not always use language appropriately, i.e. they pay little attention to context and to the socio-cultural norms characteristic of English. Foreign language learners tend to transfer the socio-cultural norms of their native language when they speak a foreign language. This often leads to misunderstanding in communication. In order to avoid

miscommunication caused by cultural differences, it is important to know what is appropriate and what is not appropriate in given contexts. Therefore, developing pragmatic competence is becoming increasingly important in TEFL.

Pragmatic competence can be defined as 'the ability to use language appropriately in a social context' (Taguchi, 2009, p.1). According to Leech (1983), pragmatic competence involves two knowledge dimensions: pragmalinguistics (i.e. knowledge and ability to use appropriate linguistic forms needed to convey intended meanings) and sociopragmatics (i.e. the broader knowledge of social rules, social norms, and appropriateness and politeness necessary in a social context).

To be pragmatically competent, learners need to have both types of knowledge. They need to have a range of linguistic forms (e.g. grammar and lexis) at their disposal to perform language functions (e.g., greeting, requesting). At the same time, they need to understand sociocultural norms and rules that govern the usage of these forms (e.g. how greeting a boss is different from greeting a friend). They should be able to evaluate contextual information, select appropriate linguistic resources, and use them efficiently in real-time interactions. For instance, when learners want to make a request, they need to know what linguistic forms are available to perform this function. They also need to assess the nature and size of the request (are they asking for 5 euros or for 100 euros?) and to whom it is directed (are they asking a friend or an acquaintance?), as well as its likely outcomes.

Learning pragmatics is difficult because of this combination of linguistic knowledge and sociocultural sensitivity required for successful communication. In other words, 'acquisition of pragmatic competence entails gaining knowledge of language-specific linguistic and non-linguistic behaviors, and sociocultural norms and conventions behind the behaviors' (Taguchi 2009, p.5).

Although speech acts may be considered universal in that they exist in all languages, their linguistic manifestation is different as are the cultural norms underlying their usage. In other words, there are differences at the linguistic level and differences in using speech acts because of divergent cultural norms.

Intercultural communication may be rather challenging for foreign language learners (FLL) despite the high level of their proficiency. In communication with native speakers of English, even learners who have a good command of the language (good pronunciation, accurate grammar, rich vocabulary) may get into communication breakdowns.

The reason goes beyond the language system. As Ishihara and Cohen (2010) explain, foreign language learners' 'pragmatic behaviour does not always follow expected patterns' (p. 75). What happens is that EFL learners transfer the cultural norms of speaking from their mother tongue into English. When these norms differ, we are likely to witness an inappropriate use of English, this phenomenon being known as 'pragmatic transfer'.

Developing the pragmalinguistic dimension seems to be easier to deal with in the EFL classroom. What is much more difficult for non-native English language teachers is to make learners aware of the cultural norms regarding the usage of speech acts. These norms cannot be found in textbooks. When EFL learners do not know these norms, they follow the norms characteristic of their own culture. If the norms in the two cultures are different, this may result in negative pragmatic transfer, which leads to misunderstanding and even failure in intercultural communication.

Characteristics of the speech act of advice in English and Romanian

Following Wardhaugh (1985) and Tsui (1994), Hinkel (1997) explains that in English, the giving of advice is a complex speech act that should be performed with caution when the speaker is reasonably certain that the hearer is likely to do what is being advised, that all advice must be hedged and never given explicitly to avoid offending the hearer, and that the speaker is presupposed to have the right or the authority to give advice (p.5).

One cultural value that influences the linguistic expression of directive speech acts in English such as requests, suggestions, advice, invitations is what Wierzbicka (1991) calls 'privacy' – a tradition 'which places special emphasis on the rights and the autonomy of every individual, which abhors interference in other people's affairs, which respects everyone's privacy' (p. 30). This explains why English has a great number of indirect ways to express requests, suggestions, advice, as if protecting every individual's right to freedom of action. The value of privacy explains why in the Anglo culture giving advice, especially unsolicited advice, can be perceived as intrusive and overbearing. For these reasons, in English advice would normally be formulated tentatively:

> *If I were you, I would tell him the truth.*
> *Why don't you tell him the truth? I think it would be best.*

Why not tell him the truth? I think that might be best.
Maybe you ought to tell him the truth?
Do you think it might be a good idea to tell him the truth?
It might be a good idea to tell him the truth.
You could consider telling him the truth.
Have you thought about telling him the truth?
Perhaps you could tell him the truth.
You might try telling him the truth.

It is also worth noting that the English verb *advise* is seldom used performatively in ordinary speech. The phrase *I advise you* sounds very unfriendly and formal.

Meanwhile, the high level of solidarity characteristic of Romanian society explains why people behave in a more direct way, being less formal and vigilant in guarding other people's personal space. Hence, advice will typically be offered in the form of an imperative or by using the performative *I advise you (Te sfătui să ...),* which sounds perfectly colloquial and is frequently heard in everyday conversations.

The study Research questions

We believe that the differences between expressing advice in English and Romanian may lead to a negative pragmatic transfer when EFL learners offer advice in English.

In the present study we aim at investigating EFL learners' production of advice. The following research questions are addressed:

1. What are the differences, if any, between the linguistic expressions of advice used by EFL learners and those characteristic of the Anglo culture?
2. **What kind of transfer (positive or negative) can be noticed when EFL learners use the speech act of advice?**

Methodology

Subjects

Thirty students of English as a foreign language participated in the study. They were 1st and 2nd year students majoring in English, enrolled at Alecu Russo Balti State University. Their level of English language proficiency ranged between A2-B1. Their native language was Romanian.

Instrument

Data for analysis were collected with the help of an open-ended Discourse Completion Test (DCT) (See the Annex). The DCT contained six situations which required the production of the speech act of advice. Three situations involved an interaction between a student and a teacher and the other three were interactions between two students who knew each other quite well. Students were asked to write what they would say in each of these situations. They were also given the option to say nothing, if they considered it appropriate.

Data coding

In coding the data, we followed Flor's (2003) suggested typology of advising. Thus, advice acts were distributed into indirect, conventionally indirect and direct strategies.

Type	Strategy	Structure
Indirect	Hints	You want to pass, don't you?
Conventionally indirect	Conditional	If I were you, …
	Probability	It might be better for you to …
	Specific formulae	Why don't you …? Isn't it better for you to …?
Direct	Imperative	Be careful! / Don't worry!
	Declarative	You should … You ought to … You'd better …
	Performative	I advise you to …

Results and discussion

The results of this study show differences between the linguistic expressions of advice used by EFL learners and those characteristic of the Anglo culture. In directive speech acts, the most polite forms are considered to be the conventionally indirect formulas (Leech 1983; Wierzbicka 1991). By using conventionally indirect formulas, speakers respect their interlocutor's privacy, i.e. their freedom of action. Hints, although indirect expressions, can sometimes be treated as less polite since they require more mental effort in order to be understood.

In the Anglo culture, as Hinkel (1997) points out, the giving of advice 'should be performed with caution', 'all advice must be hedged

and never given explicitly' (p.5) since this may offend the hearer by breaking their privacy, their right to do what they like without being told by other parties.

The responses to the DCT have shown that in two situations where the degree of power between the interlocutors was different (student – teacher) there was one respondent who wrote that they would not say anything in the given situations, explaining that 'the teacher knows what to do'. There was one similar response in one situation which involved the interaction between friends. The explanation that followed was 'perhaps N. does not need my advice'. Although very few, such responses show that some EFL learners think that their advice might not always be welcome and refrain from giving it. On the other hand, in all the situations there were responses which were other speech acts, not advice, and namely, help offers (48), suggestions (6), asking about health (5), warning (5) and encouragement (5). This fact emphasizes the value of solidarity, characteristic of Romanian culture, expressed through the desire to help, through worrying about the interlocutor's health, through encouraging the interlocutor and warning them against unpleasant things that may happen.

Since the aim of this study is to analyze the linguistic expressions used by EFL students to give advice, the analysis that follows will focus on this. The chart below illustrates the number of direct, conventionally indirect and indirect formulations of advice given as responses to the DCT per situation.

Chart 1. Results
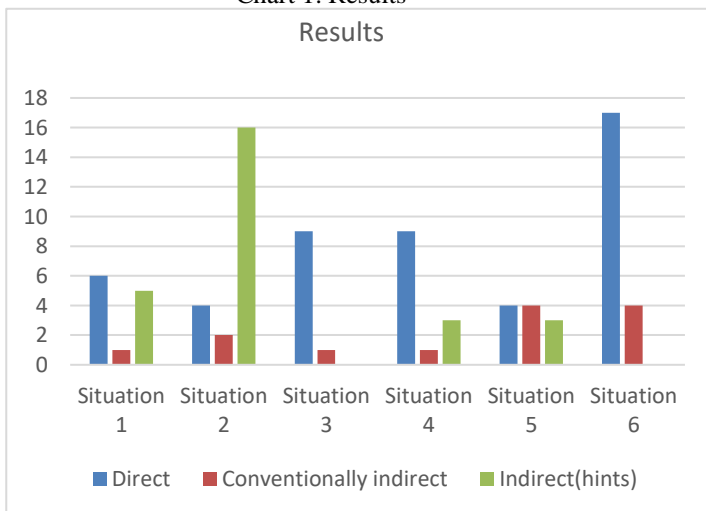
As can be seen, the direct expressions were used most often, even in the situations where the degree of power between the interlocutors was different (student – teacher) (Situations 1, 2, 3). The analysis of the direct expressions used by respondents shows that imperative sentences were used most often in conversations between friends (11 instances) and seldom in conversations between the teacher and the student (4) (See Table 1). This fact shows that students seem to be aware that the imperative sounds imposing especially when the degree of power between interlocutors is different. Declarative sentences with 'should' have a high frequency in both groups of situations (student – teacher: 9 and students – student: 12). Performative sentences
(I advise you to…) were used three times in student – teacher interactions only. This seems to be a transfer from students' native language.

Table 1. Direct expressions of advice

	Direct advice	Student – teacher interactions (Situations 1, 2, 3)	Student –student interactions (Situations 4, 5, 6)
	Imperative sentences	4	11
	Declaratives with 'You should'	9	12
	Declaratives with 'You need to', 'I don't recommend it', 'You have to', 'You must', 'You'd better'	3	7
	Performative (I advise you …)	3	-
	Total	**19**	**30**

Conventionally indirect advice had the lowest occurrence (see Chart 1). Students seem not to be aware of the expressions that may be used to give advice following the norms characteristic of the Anglo culture. The palette of such expressions is not very rich:

It would be better for you to go home because I see you don't feel very well; Why don't you go home? Maybe you will choose the easier one? I think it is better to choose another one which would be easier; Maybe you want to go to the healthcare worker?

Students tried to hedge the advice with the help of *maybe*, *I think, I'm sorry*.

However, other types of hedges, such as *Do you think..., Have you thought about..., Perhaps* were not used. Another important thing is the use of the modals *might* and *could.* Students seem to be unaware that the past form of these modal verbs expresses tentativeness, thus making the advice less imposing as in *Perhaps you could tell him the truth* or *You might try telling him the truth*. Another structure which is appropriate for advice-giving in the Anglo culture, but which never occurred in the responses to the DCT of the present study is the conditional sentence *If I were you, I would ...*

Indirect advice in the form of hints occurred more frequently in the situations where where the degree of power between the interlocutors was different, i.e. in student-teacher interactions, and namely in Situation 2, in which the student was supposed to tell the teacher that they could find the book they needed at a lower price in another shop. Students' responses in this situation sounded like hints about this possibility. This shows that students seem to be aware that it is not appropriate to tell the teacher what to do, i.e. where to buy the book.

Conclusion

The results of the present study have revealed differences between the language of advice characteristic of the Anglo culture and the one used by EFL students. The differences refer to the degree of directness, to the expressions used to give advice as well as to hedging this speech act. The advice given by EFL students is often expressed directly, i.e. by means of imperative structures, of declarative sentences containing the verb 'should' and of performative sentences (I advise you …). Many advice-giving expressions characteristic of the Anglo culture were missing from students' responses, which shows that EFL teachers should pay more attention to language functions and how to express them in English. When students lack knowledge about the cultural norms of the target language, they tend to transfer the norms characteristic of their native culture.

In the present study the transfer seems to be negative. Direct advice and advice which lacks hedges is likely to sound imposing and rude. This may lead to breakdowns in communication.

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Annex

Discourse Completion Test

Several situations are described below. In the space provided, please write down what you would say in each situation. If you wouldn't say anything, please write down why you wouldn't say anything.

Please keep in mind the following information:
N. and you are students at the same faculty. You have similar interests and you participated in several extra-curricular activities together.
Mrs. X is a teacher at the Faculty of Philology, where you study. She is teaching you this semester.

1. You see Mrs. X working in the library very late in the evening. She looks tired. What would you say in this situation?
2. You and Mrs. X are in a bookshop. She is considering buying an expensive book. However, you think that another bookshop may sell the book at a lower price. What would you say in this situation?
3. You are having a class with Mrs. X. She looks ill and clearly does not feel very well. What would you say in this situation?

4. You see N. working in the library very late in the evening. N. looks tired. What would you say in this situation?
5. N. has to choose a course for the next academic year. You know that one of the courses is really difficult. What would you say in this situation?
6. N. looks ill and clearly does not feel very well. What would you say in this situation?

PARTICULARITĂȚI LEXICALE ALE LIMBAJULUI MODEI
ÎN TEXTELE PUBLICISTICE GERMANE

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Abstract: The article aims to identify the lexical peculiarities of the German language of fashion and to highlight a series of lexical features typical of the fashion lexicon encountered in the main German fashion magazines for women. Lexical and semantic word groups are selected from German advertisements, examining their word formation patterns, i.e., nouns and verbs. Apart from analysing the language of German fashion, the article also considers the key role of loan words and of Anglicisms in the process of enriching the German vocabulary.

Keywords: *fashion, semantic peculiarity, morphological criterion, derivation, loan word, Anglicism.*

Deși vocabularul limbii germane este destul de bogat, schimbările sociale, evoluția cercetărilor științifice, precum și progresele tehnicii contemporane înregistrate, fac necesară introducerea multor cuvinte noi și crearea altora din cele existente în limbă. Toate transformările se reflectă în mod nemijlocit în glosarul limbii. Datorită faptului că lexicul este cel mai deschis și mai dinamic compartiment al limbii, astăzi se atestă nu doar apariția a unor termeni noi, ci și reinterpretarea semantică a unor cuvinte și a unor unități terminologice.

Terminologia reflectă, la rândul său, evoluția activității cotidiene și a științei. În lumea modernă se editează o serie de reviste, articole, care sunt dedicate tendințelor modei, permanent se actualizează componența lexicului. Dictată de cerințele timpului, studierea științifică a terminologiei modei rămâne a fi actuală. Problemele formării și dezvoltării vocabularului terminologic al modei, perioadele de dezvoltare a lexicului modei, starea actuală, metodele productive ale

terminologiei în acest domeniu, caracteristicile tipologice și structurale ale unităților terminologice din sfera modei, tematica lor, precum și reprezentarea lor lexicală și structurală rămân a fi studiate insuficient.

Moda este cel mai misterios fenomen al culturii moderne. Aceasta reflectă mult mai mult decât o relație cu hainele și ornamentele. În opinia lui R. König, până la începutul sec. al XX-lea, moda era rezervată doar clasei superioare (cu câteva excepții interesante, cum ar fi studenții). Odată cu dezvoltarea mijloacelor mass-media, în special odată cu sporirea influenței ziarelor, revistelor de modă, dar și a filmului, radioului și ulterior al televiziunii se distrug barierele dintre clasele sociale, precum și cele dintre mediul rural și urban (König: 28).

Conceptul „moda" a constituit subiectul mai multor studii de specialitate și cercetări științifice. În acest context, vom menționa lucrările cercetătorilor Georg Simmel, Roland Barthes, René König, Barbara Vinken, Thomas Schnierer care au descris fenomenul modei și au sintetizat câteva dintre caracteristicile lexicului modei în limba germană. Rolands Barthes subliniază că industria modei nu poate supraviețui decât cu ajutorul mijloacelor media prin propagarea unui limbaj și a unei terminologii, având ca țintă diferite grupuri sociale (Barthes: 197). Revistele adresate publicului feminin reprezintă un segment important de presă atât la nivel național, cât și internațional. Corpusul care stă la baza cercetării date este alcătuit din texte selectate din 7 reviste în format electronic, publicate pe site-uri germane, reviste care se adresează cu precădere publicului feminin: *Brigitte, Bild der Frau, Elle, Cosmopolitan, Glamour, InStyle, Lisa.*

Pornind de la criteriul lexico-semantic, am putea afirma că în limba germană se disting mai multe grupuri semantice de termeni din industria fashion ce denumesc:

1. ramuri ale modei (*Textilindustrie, Parfümerie, Haarkosmetik-Industrie, Modeindustrie, Make-up, Haute Couture* etc.)

2. persoane care activează în domeniul modei (*Schneider, Designer, Zuschneider, Maßschneider, Näherin, Friseur* etc.);

3. obiecte vestimentare (*Kleid, Hose, Ärmel, Hut, Rock, Schuh, Schal, Binder* etc.);

4. unități care desfășoară activități din domeniul modei (*Modehaus, Maßschneiderei, Modenschau, Kaufhaus, Laden, Bühne, Friseursalon, Nähsalon* etc.);

5. unități de măsură (*Meter, Zentimeter, Maß* etc.);

6. stofe și țesături (*Baumwolle, Wolle, Angora, Samt, Leder, Seide, Viskose, Nylon, Perlon, Popeline, Kattun* etc.);

7. accesorii (*Ohrringe, Gürtel, Sonnenbrille, Handtaschen, Halsketten, Armreifen, Manschettenknöpfe, Einstecktücher, Portemonnaies* etc.);

8. încălțăminte (*Schuhe, Sandalen, Stiefel, Schnürschuhe, Pumps, Ballerinas* etc.).

Clasificarea lexico-semantică a termenilor modei, ca unități lingvistice care transmit o semnificație conceptuală în cadrul limbajului specializat luat în discuție, ar putea contribui la conturarea unei imagini de ansamblu a sistemului terminologic respectiv. Dat fiind faptul, că domeniul modei cunoaște o dinamică intensă, continuă, complexă, conceptele care reflectă această realitate sunt, de asemenea, într-o continuă schimbare, fapt ce deschide perspective pentru variate interpretări, sinteze, sistematizări ale expresiei și conținutului acestora și, respectiv, a limbajului prin care se exprimă.

Clasificările realizate în funcție de criteriul lexico-morfologic (apartenența la o parte de vorbire) divizează termenii în următoarele categorii: substantive, verbe, adjective, adverbe. Se știe că cea mai mare parte a elementelor lexicale cu caracter terminologic au funcție nominativă, fiind exprimate prin substantive și grupuri nominale. În terminologia modei germane, selectată din revistele de specialitate (350 de exemple), se atestă un număr considerabil de termeni substantivali (54%), de ex: *Bluse, Gürtel, Hemd, Sandale, Schnitt, Leder, Anorak, Brautkleid, Handschuh, Ledergürtel, Midikleid, Anzughose etc.,* grupuri nominale (7,7%), de ex: *der letzte Modeschrei, der neue Schnitt,* precum și locuțiuni prepoziționale, formate din substantiv articulat precedat de o prepoziție *(6,3%) nach der Mode, nach der neuesten Mode, nach dem neuesten Schnitt* etc.

Se conturează, de asemenea, și un număr considerabil de termeni exprimați prin verbe *messen, knautschen, schneiden, schneidern, weben, stärken, färben, reinigen, nähen, steppen, säumen, weiten, knittern, stutzen, föhnen* și locuțiuni verbale (36%), de ex: *im Trend liegen, mit der Mode gehen, im Trend sein, einen Eindruck machen, der Mode folgen, aus der Mode sein, in Mode kommen, die große Mode sein, Maß nehmen, nach Maß machen lassen, in die Kleider fahren, Mode werden, zur Anprobe kommen, eine Anprobe machen, aus der Mode kommen, zur Reparatur bringen, zum Bügeln geben, zur Anprobe kommen* etc.

În ceea ce privește nivelul morfologic, au fost analizate elementele morfologice care joacă un rol fundamental în realizarea tehnicilor de captare a atenției și care sunt specifice corpusului pe care îl avem în

vedere. În lexicul specializat al revistelor germane destinate publicului feminin, o poziție privilegiată o au cuvintele (verbe, substantive, adjective și adverbe) derivate cu ajutorul afixelor care, prin semantica lor, au rolul de a amplifica sau de a diminua caracteristicile noțiunilor exprimate prin rădăcina lor lexicală.

Derivarea afixală în domeniul modei germane este destul de productivă. În materialul nostru factologic terminologia formată cu ajutorul prefixelor predomină (32%), de ex: cu prefixul *ab-* (*abgenutzt, abgemustert, abgeschnitten, abnehmen, abrasieren*), prefixul *an-* (*anziehen, anproben, anfertigen, annähen, anständig*), prefixul *auf-* (*aufbügeln, aufsteppen, auffällig*), prefixul *aus-* (*ausziehen, ausgerissen, Ausbessern, Ausverkauf, Ausschnitt*), prefixul *ver-* (*die Verkleidung, verschönert, verschmückt*), prefixul *un-* (*unmodisch, unpraktisch, unmodern, unpassend*), prefixul *zer-*(*zerknittert, zerknautscht*), prefixul *zu-* (*zuschneiden, zuknöpfen, zugenäht, Zuschneider, Zubehör*) etc.

Cuvintele derivate cu sufixe pot fi obținute de la cuvinte de bază care aparțin sau nu aceleiași clase lexico-gramaticale, de ex: cu sufixul *–ier* (*probieren, reparieren, frisieren, toupieren, inspirieren, garnieren*), cu sufixul *-ung* (*Musterung, Kleidung, Reinigung, Werbung*), cu sufixul *–er* (*Schneider, Schnürer, Schuhmacher*), cu sufixul *–chen* (*Käppchen, Hemdchen, Täschchen*), cu sufixul *–lich, -ig* (*sportlich, weiblich, kuschelig, rockig, knallig*) etc.

În vocabularul general al limbii germane procedeul de compunere este unul destul de amplu, ceea ce se remarcă și în terminologia ce ține de domeniul modei. În rezultatul analizei exemplelor excerptate din revistele de specialitate vom menționa următoarele modele de formare a termenilor din domeniul modei germane prin procedeul de compunere:

Substantitiv + substantiv: *Ledertasche (Leder + Tasche), Krawattennadel (Krawatte + Nadel), Brautkleid (Braut + Kleid), Anzughose (Anzug + Hose), Armband (Arm + Band), Berufskittel (Beruf + Kittel), Morgenrock (Morgen + Rock), Pelzschuhe (Pelz + Schuhe), Kleiderhacken (Kleider + Hacken), Faltenrock (Falten + Rock)* etc.

Verb + substantiv: *Strickjacke (stricken + Jacke), Badeanzug (baden + Anzug), Turnhose (turnen + Hose), Schwimmhose (schwimmen + Hose), Kletterschuh (klettern + Schuh), Reißverschluss (reißen + Verschluss), Stehkragen (stehen + Kragen), Wickelrock (wickeln + Rock)* etc.

Prepoziție + substantiv: *Anprobe (an + Probe), Übergröße (über +*

Größe), Unterhose (unter + Hose), Unterwäsche (unter + Wäsche) etc.

<u>Adjectiv + adjectiv</u>: *altmodisch (alt + modisch), hellblau (hell + blau), dunkelgrau (dunkel + grau), nasskalt (nass + kalt)* etc.

<u>Substantiv + adverb/adjectiv</u>: *stilsicher (Stil + sicher), alltagstauglich (Alltag+tauglich) preiswert (Preis+wert), zeitgemäß (Zeit+gemäß), wirkungsvoll (Wirkung+voll), geschmackvoll (Geschmack + voll), farbenfroh (Farbe + froh), wassericht (Wasser+dicht)* etc.

<u>Adverb+Participiu</u>: *hochgeschnitten (hoch+geschnitten), hochgetragen (hoch + getragen)* etc.

Analiza materialului selectat a demonstrat, că sistemul terminologic al modei este destul de activ și preia liber diverse împrumuturi lexicale, în plus o mare parte dintre acestea devin mai târziu internaționalisme. Împrumuturile lexicale, indiferent de originea acestora, sunt considerate surse externe de inovație și de îmbogățire a vocabularului unei limbi. Răspândirea tendințelor modei are un caracter global, ce determină, în mare măsură, natura internațională a termenilor din domeniu modei. Terminologia engleză a modei prezintă în sine un sistem terminologic structurat și în ultimul timp este destul de productivă. Prezența anglicismelor în revistele germane explorate este relativ mare, constituind 34,2% din totalul termenilor. Din anglicismele excerptate 21,66% sunt împrumuturi complet adaptate sub aspectul fonetic, morfologic și lexical, de ex: *der Pullover, der Pumps, der Dress, der Cardigan, die Skinnyjeans, die Denimshorts.* 30,8% sunt cuvinte compuse, formate din două cuvinte, unul german și altul englez, de ex: *die Jeansjacke, der Minirock, die Cargohose, das Frühlingsoutfit, der Babyschuh, Campinghemd.* Împrumuturile complet neasimilate, așa-numite anglicismele pure formează cel mai mare grup al corpusului, constituind 47,5% din lexeme. Acestea sunt identice cu baza lor engleză și păstrează, în acelaș timp, și pronunția, de ex: *Sneaker, Bootie, Chinos, Shirt, Tank Top, High Heel, Hoodie, Shopper, Daydress, Jumpsuit, Overall, Militarycoat, Oversize-Blaser* etc.

Astfel, analizând particularitățile lexicale ale limbajului modei în textele publicistice germane, observăm că, deși procedeele de formare a terminologiei modei în limba germană urmează, în linii generale, căile specifice lexicologiei, totuși se conturează o tendință pregnantă pentru adoptarea de împrumuturi, mai ales pentru cele din limba engleză.

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